1 Restoration of forestry-drained oligotrophic peatlands can bring

2 climate change mitigation within a few decades

- 3 Running head: Climate mitigation by drained peatland restoration
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- 8 This is a non-peer-reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv of a manuscript submitted for peer
- 9 reviewed to the journal *Restoration Ecology* (21.07.2025). This version has a few corrections on the
- 10 submitted version, marked by red font.

11 Abstract

- 12 Introduction: Assessment of climate mitigation of peatland restoration is urgently needed, but data
- on greenhouse gas (GHG) fluxes from restored forestry-drained peatlands (FDP) is sparse. Using
- 14 surrogate values from pristine peatlands, some studies have indicated long-lasting warming effect of
- 15 restoration especially of nutrient-poor FDPs, while studies considering realized conditions and data
- 16 from restored sites are missing.
- 17 **Objectives:** This study aims at estimation of climate mitigation potential of restoration of FDPs based
- 18 on post-restoration development of vegetation and hydrology.
- 19 Methods: Dynamic trajectories of GHG-fluxes were calculated with process-based models informed
- 20 by published studies of FDPs and restored peatlands. The model was applied to a sample of 12
- 21 restoration sites in Finland with data of carbon sequestration and water-table depth trends. The
- 22 impact of restoration on global climate forcing was modelled against reference scenario of continued
- 23 drainage.
- 24 **Results:** Hypothetical restoration scenarios resulted in initial warming effect, but a hummock-level
- 25 scenario (deep WTD) shifted to a climate cooling effect already after 15 years of restoration. In
- 26 contrast, a flark-level scenario (shallow WTD) showed increasing warming over the 100-year
- 27 assessment period. In the empirical data, climate cooling impact was predicted in half of cases
- 28 already after 10 years, and in most cases within 100 years. Restoration resulted in an average
- reduction of cumulative absolute global forcing by -1.78 (SD 1.74) t CO_2 -equivalent ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ over 100
- 30 years. Incorporating historical inference from peat inventories and forest management in the drainage
- 31 scenario indicated even higher mitigation potential for restoration.

Conclusions: The results predict considerably better climate mitigation potential for restoration of
 oligotrophic FDPs than suggested by previous modelling studies.

Implications for Practice: Climate mitigation by restoration of nutrient-poor FDPs can be improved with temporarily high CO₂ sequestration and potential dampening of CH₄ emissions by optimizing growth of new *Sphagnum* moss layer. Oligotrophic FDPs have higher mitigation potential than mesotrophic FDPs due to higher moss growth above water level. Drainage scenarios should be considered with alternative management options for climate impact assessment of restoration.

Keywords

carbon storage, emission factors, forest management, GHG emissions, Sphagnum peatlands

Introduction

- Restoration of peatlands is widely regarded among key land-use strategies to mitigate climate change (Leifeld et al. 2019; Günther et al. 2020; Mander et al. 2024) and climate mitigation is a central motivation for the EU Nature Restoration Law (2022) that introduced the goal to restore 20% of degraded ecosystems by the year 2030. However, the mitigation potential of restoration has been questioned in the case of forestry drained peatlands (FDP) in Finland due to unfavorable soil emissions (Ojanen & Minkkinen 2020; Laine et al. 2024; Launiainen et al. 2025). Although restoration is widely recommended for other benefits, the lack of climate mitigation impetus may hinder wide-scale restoration. Meanwhile, postponing of restoration will likely cause more climate forcing (Günther et al. 2020).
- Missing sufficient data from restored sites, Laine et al. (2024) used surrogate data from pristine peatlands, assuming an immediate shift from drained to pristine peatland fluxes after restoration. Their results indicated that restoration of nutrient-poor FDPs into open oligotrophic peatlands caused long-lasting warming impact. Instead, they found mitigation potential in restoration of nutrient-rich FDPs into forested peatlands, due to cessation of high soil emissions of the drained state. According to Launiainen et al. (2025) tree growth balanced out the soil emissions in such FDPs, however, nullifying the mitigation potential. Already earlier, a policy briefing was released stating that restoration of FDPs is unlikely to result in climate mitigation (Kareksela et al. 2021). Such conclusions are premature, however, as studies are lacking process-informed parameterization from empirical studies of restored sites.

To achieve climate mitigation, effective land-use solutions need to be scaled over large areas. While economic profit will likely keep successfully forested FDPs outside of restoration, unsuccessful FDPs are more readily available. Laiho et al. (2016) estimated that up to one million hectares (20 %) of FDPs are weakly profitable in Finland. One reason behind failures is the weak nutrient regime of oligotrophic peatland types. According to Aapala et al. (2025), approximately 60,000 ha of FDPs have been restored in Finland primarily consisting of nutrient-poor FDPs, while climate mitigation effect remains unrecognized. However, Laatikainen et al. (2025) found that nutrient-poor FDPs had high growth rate of the Sphagnum moss layer after restoration, suggesting high CO2 sequestration and possible dampening of CH₄ emission. To approach this possibility, it is crucial to use available information on post-restoration development of ecosystem processes affecting GHG fluxes. The development after restoration includes 1) the inundation of peat and litter that were exposed to aeration during drainage phase, and 2) the formation of a new surface layer of moss and litter, resulting in 3) a trajectory of increasing water-table depth (WTD), as the thickening moss layer ascends above the water level (Laatikainen et al. 2025). The short-term dynamics likely includes 4) a delay in the onset of CH₄ production (reviewed by Wilson et al. 2016). Consequently, CO₂ sequestration may temporarily exceed that expected by pristine peatland references and CH₄ emissions remain lower, both favoring the potential for mitigation. In this study, I attempt to refine the climate mitigation assessment by introducing dynamic trajectories of GHG fluxes, considering the re-established saturation of peat and the formation of new moss layer after restoration. The trajectories are formed with process-based modeling, fitted with published studies of drainage and restoration. The trajectories involve trends of WTD, a key variable for predicting CH₄ emissions. The focus is on the restoration of nutrient-poor FDPs into open oligotrophic fens. In broad terms, this is the commonest category of peatlands in Finland (Eurola et al. 1991), also comprising the bulk of unproductive FDPs (Laiho et al. 2016), and the highest potential among Finnish

Methods

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The studied case

FDPs for upscaling of restoration.

The nutrient-poor FDPs have developed after the drainage of oligotrophic mire types. The actual nutrient regime is variable, however, and depends on fertilization and alterations by varying effectiveness of drainage. These FDPs are forested by Scots pines (*Pinus sylvestris*), sometimes mixed with downy birch (*Betula pubescens*) and Norway spruce (*Picea abies*). Depending on drainage efficacy, forest mosses dominate but *Sphagnum* mosses commonly prevail with lower frequency. After restoration, *Sphagnum angustifolium* is the most characteristic species to form the revived moss layer,

96 and Eriophorum vaginatum typically proliferates extensively (Komulainen et al. 1999; Haapalehto et al. 97 2011; Laatikainen et al. 2025). In general, however, restoration of nutrient-poor FDPs brings relatively 98 little change in species composition (Laine et al. 2011; Haapalehto et al. 2017; Elo et al. 2024). The 99 restoration measures include raising water level by blocking ditches and forming dams with peat, and 100 cutting trees, depending on target peatland type. The aim is to force surface water to spread over the 101 main peat surface. The guidelines of restoration are well-founded for routine application (Aapala et al. 102 2025). 103 Process-based models for constructing dynamic CO₂ and CH₄ flux trajectories 104 To assess climate impact of restoration, process-based models were formulated to calculate dynamic 105 trajectories of CO₂ fluxes for drainage and restoration. The CH₄ flux was treated with a constant rate for 106 drainage scenario following Laine et al. (2024) and with WTD-dependent dynamic trajectories for the 107 restoration scenarios. In addition, fixed N₂O fluxes were included following Laine et al. (2024). I used 108 published studies to inform short-term (10 years) development and set alternative scenarios for long-109 term (100 years) succession after restoration. Continued drainage is used as the reference state 110 assuming an ideal case of a 50-year-old nutrient-poor FDP. A brief outline of the modeling for the 111 trajectories is given below and more detailed explanation in the Supplementary file and an Excel file 112 with the models is publicly available online (Tahvanainen 2025). 113 A model for CO₂ flux trajectory in the drainage scenario was based on constant litter input (Ojanen et 114 al. 2013) and decomposition with remaining mass after 2 years following Straková et al. (2012) and 115 after 40 years following Pitkänen et al. (2012) by adjusting decomposition coefficient (k) with age of litter (Fig. S1). A constant rate of decomposition with a minimal coefficient k = 0.005 typical for 116 117 anaerobic decomposition rate (Scanlon & Moore 2000) was assumed after 50 years. The 118 decomposition estimate of Ojanen et al. (2013) was used as a baseline, with a correction of young 119 litter (3-years) decomposition and with addition of ageing litter cohorts (51 to 150 years) to the total 120 decomposition efflux. This increases soil CO2 emissions with stand age, while litter input is kept 121 constant. Thus, the model output is conditional to assumption of continued high litter production of 122 mature FDP stand without disturbance from management. 123 A dynamic CO₂ flux trajectory for restoration was calculated in a process-based model, fitted with 124 empirical studies, assessing three compartments separately: 1) 'new moss, 2) 'drainage litter', and 3) 125 'old peat' (Fig. 1). The new moss refers to the Sphagnum-dominated moss layer that is established on 126 top of the drainage phase surface, thus, it only occurs in the restoration scenarios. The drainage litter 127 compartment refers to young (3 years) above ground litter from the drainage phase, characterized by 128 litter fall of trees. The old peat withholds older litter and the actual peat formed before drainage.

In a baseline model of the new moss layer, decomposition rates followed Straková et al. (2012, see also Tarvainen et al. 2013) for two first years (Fig. S1). Subsequently, the decomposition rate was decreased to match the average accumulation of new moss layer after 10 years reported by Laatikainen et al. (2025). The decomposition rate was then set to fall in a linear trend to a minimal constant rate at 50 years (k = 0.005) yielding the recent apparent rate of carbon accumulation estimated for 300-year-old strata in Finnish peatlands (Mäkilä & Goslar 2008). This baseline was adjusted by a vegetation development modifier, which considers the disturbed state after restoration with suppressed production (50 %) and subsequent increase to peak productivity at 6th year (120 %), followed by settling to the average natural *Sphagnum* productivity (Bengtson et al. 2021) after 20 years of restoration (82 % of baseline). This development kept the productivity estimate conservative, not assuming the high baseline of first 10 years after restoration to continue.

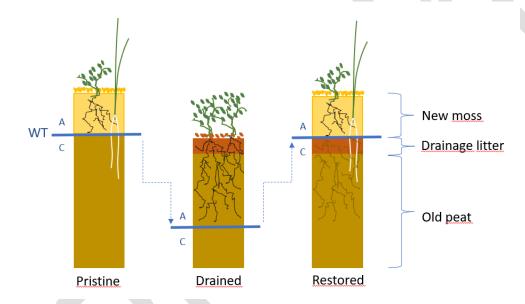


Fig. 1. Main alterations of surface peat strata from pristine to drained and restored peatland. Water table (WT) is the major regulator between prevalence of aerobic (a) and anaerobic (c) conditions in peat. Drainage causes subsidence and alteration of surface stratum into mix of forest litter and peat material. Restoration inundates old peat and drainage litter, and triggers formation of new moss layer.

The CO₂ emission rates from the old peat and drainage litter under restoration were estimated by adjustment of the drainage scenario emissions. This followed the results of Komulainen et al. (1999) of decreasing decomposition rates in FDPs over two years after restoration. The subsequent decline of decomposition rates of old peat and drainage litter were fitted to correspond to the catotelm transition (Frolking et al. 2001; Moore et al. 2007) in 25 years. Thus, it was presumed that the old peat and drainage litter remained in permanently saturated conditions starting from 25 years after restoration. Finally, the CO₂ flux trajectory was calculated by summation of changes in the new moss, drainage

152 litter, and old peat compartments (Table S1). This sequence models development of vegetation and 153 establishment of inundated conditions of peat after restoration. The CH₄ emission trajectories were estimated for three alternative restoration scenarios based on the 154 155 dependence of CH₄ flux on WTD according to Wilson et al. (2016) (Table S1). Several studies have 156 found lower CH₄ emissions from restored FDPs than pristine peatlands (Komulainen et al. 1998; 157 Juottonen et al. 2012; Wilson et al. 2016; Urbanová & Bárta 2020). Accordingly, the first 10-years' 158 trajectory was calculated by weighted averaging of results from WTD-models for restored and 159 undrained boreal peatlands obtained from Wilson et al. (2016). The restored peatland model's weight 160 descended linearly from 0.9 to 0.1 in 9 years, and the undrained peatland model was given the 161 opposite weights. Thus, CH₄ emission was assumed to conform to those modelled for undrained 162 peatlands starting from 10th year after restoration, as controlled by WTD. Since different assumptions 163 for the WTD development have great effect on CH₄ emissions, three different scenarios were 164 formulated as informed by WTD monitoring data of the 12 sites studied by Laatikainen et al. (2025). 165 These scenarios describe different long-term vegetation development trajectories, as WTD eventually 166 results from the vegetation succession and new peat formation in tandem with hydrological conditions: 167 168 1) In the hummock scenario, WTD started from -9.0 cm and grew to -24.7 cm 10 years after restoration 169 and was kept constant through 100 years. These values are averages of continuous WTD monitoring 170 spanning from the first year after restoration to the last year of available data (6-9 years). The 171 "deepening" of WTD may result either from growth of the moss layer or from lowering of water level, or 172 both (Laatikainen et al. 2025). 173 2) In the intermediate scenario, WTD was assumed to grow in a linear trajectory from -6.7 cm to -12.7 174 cm in 10 years after restoration and keep constant through 100 years. In respective order, these values 175 represented averages of the continuous WTD monitoring data over 5 first post-restoration years below 176 the drainage period surface and below the new moss layer surface. Thus, the scenario presumes 177 halted condition after five years of the increase of WTD due to ascending moss surface. 178 3) The flark scenario repeats the intermediate scenario up to ten years, after which the WTD is set to 179 decrease in a linear trajectory to -2 cm in 100 years. This scenario could result, e.g., from increasing 180 retention of water by the developing moss layer and consequent growth of water storage. Model application to restoration monitoring sites 181 After developing the process-based dynamic model for hypothetical scenarios, the model was applied 182 183 to 12 restoration monitoring sites with data of WTD trends and C accumulation in the moss layer 10

184 years after restoration (Laatikainen et al. 2025). Concerning the CO₂ flux estimation, all other 185 parameters of the model were kept fixed, while case-wise iterating the annual litter input to return the 186 observed moss layer mass. WTD was expected to change linearly between the first and last available 187 monitoring years' averages over 10 years and then keep constant. The CH₄ flux trajectories were 188 predicted based on the case-wise WTD data, assuming linear change between first and tenth year 189 after restoration. 190 Climate impact modelling with REFUGE 4 191 The climate impacts of the GHG flux trajectories of the hypothetical scenarios and the sample of 12 192 restoration sites were calculated using the REFUGE 4.1, a user-friendly open-access tool for 193 calculating climate impacts with the IPCC's sixth assessment report methodology (Lindroos et al. 194 2023). It considers the global land and ocean sinks in the calculation of changes of atmospheric GHG 195 concentrations and can handle both positive and negative fluxes. The results are expressed as 196 Absolute Global Forcing Potential (AGFP), which is a measure of the global warming or cooling impact 197 of the emission scenarios (W m⁻²). Additionally, a conversion to CO₂-equivalents is used to concretize 198 the results in emission terms. Both results are here adjusted to the effects of one-hectare of peatland and the drainage scenario is used as the control scenario to calculate restoration impact. 199 200 To demonstrate the impact of alternative drainage scenarios, additional climate impact modelling with 201 drainage reference following Jauhiainen et al. (2023) and a clearcut forestry rotation model with 60-202 year cutting interval, informed by empirical studies of CO2 fluxes after clearcutting (Korkiakoski et al. 203 2019; Tikkasalo et al. 2025) (Table S2). Detailed descriptions of the alternative drainage scenarios are presented in the Supplementary file. 204 205 The climate modelling starts in 2020 and results of CO₂-equivalent emissions are presented for 16-, 206 31-, 50-, and 100-year horizons. These timeframes were selected following Laine et al. (2024) to relate 207 results to the carbon neutrality targets of Finland by 2035 (Finnish Climate Act 423/2022), and the EU 208 by 2050 (European Climate Law 2021/1119). 209 Results 210 Hypothetical model scenarios 211 The restoration scenarios had a total net emission of 1177 g CO₂ m⁻² over the first three years after restoration. After this, a CO₂ sink was indicated that peaked at -303 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ the 12th year after 212 restoration (Fig. 2). The average CO₂ flux was -48 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ over the first 10 years and -204 g CO₂ m⁻² 213 214 yr⁻¹ over 100 years after restoration. At 100 years the CO₂ flux rate was -172 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ and at 300 years -55 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹. The drainage scenario showed an increasing efflux from 3 to 105 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹, 215

with an average net emission of $58 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ over 100 years. In the restoration scenarios, the total accumulated CO_2 flux amounted to a sink of $-20368 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ in 100 years, which translates to a mean annual rate of $56 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. The drainage scenario indicated a cumulative emission of $5848 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ in 100 years, with a carbon loss rate of $16 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

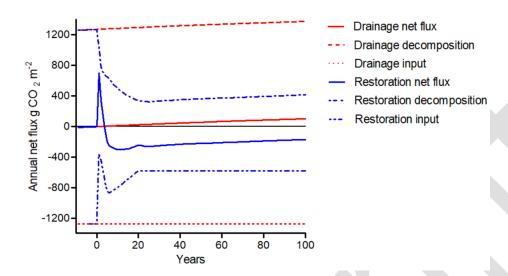


Fig. 3. Trajectories of the net annual CO_2 fluxes and total flux components of decomposition and litter input in the drainage and restoration scenarios.

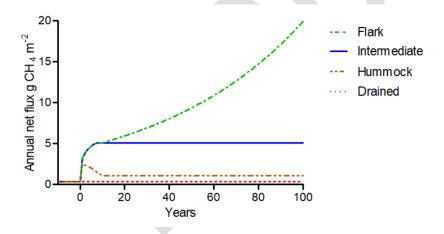


Fig. 4. Trajectories of annual CH₄ emissions of the three hypothetical restoration scenarios.

All restoration scenarios showed drastic rises of CH_4 emissions after restoration. The intermediate and flark scenarios shared the same WTD trajectory over the first 10 years and their CH_4 emissions rose from the first year's 3.3 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ to 5.1 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ by the 10^{th} year. After this the flark scenario emission rose to 19.9 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ in 100 years. The hummock scenario CH_4 emission rose to a maximum of 3.4 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the second year and descended to 1.1 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the 10^{th} year after restoration (Fig. 3).

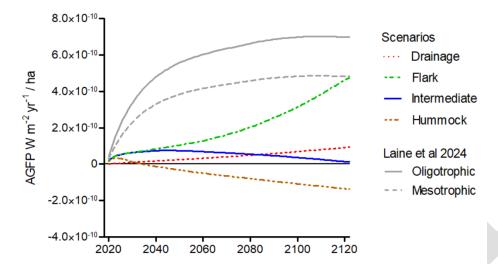


Fig. 5. Annual absolute global forcing potential (AGFP) of one hectare of drained or restored oligotrophic peatland. In addition to the scenarios of this study, results are presented with input from Laine et al. (2024) for mesotrophic and oligotrophic open peatland restoration.

The drainage scenario resulted in a steady growth of AGFP (Fig. 4). Restoration had higher AGFP than drainage until 64th year after restoration in the intermediate scenario and through the assessment period in the flark scenario. The hummock scenario also had higher AGFP than drained scenario, but only for 11 years and it resulted in a negative AGFP in the 16th year after restoration. The hummock scenario's AGFP amounted to -0.1336 nW m⁻²/ ha at 100 years. The intermediate scenario showed a descending trend of AGFP down to near zero level at 100 years. The flark development scenario showed an increasingly ascending trend with circa five times stronger forcing than the drainage scenario at 100 years.

Climate impact of restoration fitted with moss growth and water level data

When the process-based dynamic model was fitted with data of post-restoration new moss layer C accumulation and WTD trends, nine out of twelve sites (75 %) were indicated with negative AGFP and all sites had lower AGFP than the drainage scenario at 100 years (Fig. 5). The average AGFP of the sites was -0.117 nW m⁻²/ ha at 100 years. This cooling effect was significantly stronger in oligotrophic than in mesotrophic peatlands (df = 11, t = 2.419, p = 0.034).

The cumulative absolute forcing converted to constant annual CO_2 eq. emissions indicated a warming effect in 16-year assessment with $2.0\,\mathrm{t}$ CO_2 -eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ emissions, a neutral effect in 31-year assessment, and a -0.93 t CO_2 -eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ sink effect in 50-year assessment, on average. In these timeframes, however, the 95 % confidence interval of mean did not indicate significant difference from zero (no effect). The 100-year assessment indicated a significant cooling impact with an average -1.78 (SD1.74) t CO_2 -eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ sink effect, compared to the drainage scenario (Fig. 6).

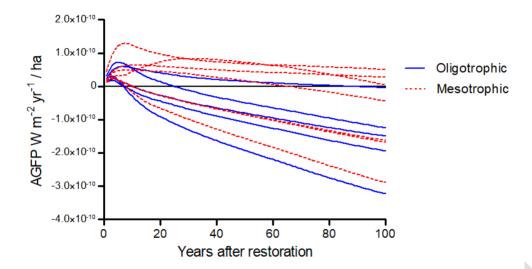


Fig. 6. Annual absolute global forcing potential (AGFP) per one hectare of 12 restored peatlands, as estimated by the process-based dynamic model fitted with data of 10-year growth of new moss layer and WTD.

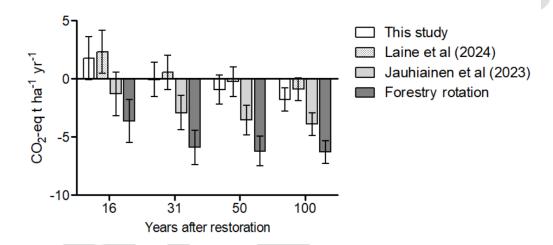


Fig. 7. Average effects and 95 % confidence intervals of restoration on cumulative absolute forcing converted to constant annual CO_2 eq. emissions (n = 12). The cumulative effects are calculated for 16, 31, 50, and 100-years timespans relative to the drainage scenario. Effect of alternative reference scenarios of continued drainage are shown for nutrient-poor FDPs according to this study, Laine et al. (2024), and for average trajectories following Jauhiainen et al. (2023), and forestry rotation. Negative values indicate climate cooling impact of restoration.

Among the alternative drainage scenarios, the Laine et al. (2024) scenario indicated a nonsignificant average mitigation potential of -0.88 (SD 1.74) t CO_2 -eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ sink effect in 100-year assessment for the 12 sites sample (Fig. 6). The Jauhiainen et al. (2023) reference with combined inference from GHG-flux studies and peat inventory studies indicated a significant sink effect of -3.88 (SD 1.74) t CO_2 -eq ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, and when amended with forest rotation with 60-year clearcut interval, the mitigation potential grew to -6.29 (SD 1.74) t CO_2 eq/ha annual sink effect. The forest rotation reference indicated a

significant climate mitigation potential for restoration already in the 16-year assessment with -3.61

(SD 1.74) t CO_2 eq/ha annual effect.

Discussion

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Drainage scenario considerations

The results indicated a significant potential for climate mitigation by restoration of FDPs into open Sphagnum peatlands with an average cooling impact of -1.78 t CO₂-eq. ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the 100-year assessment. After an initial warming impact of restoration, a shift to climate cooling effect was indicated for half of the studied cases after 10 years of restoration. This result is in stark contrast with recent studies that assumed an immediate shift to pristine mire GHG fluxes after restoration (Laine et al. 2024; Launiainen et al. 2025). In this study, dynamic GHG trajectories were adjusted with shortterm (10 years) developments after restoration and alternative scenarios of long-term (100 years) succession. The mitigation potential was significantly stronger in oligotrophic than in mesotrophic FDPs, which also contradicts the findings of Laine et al. (2024). This difference is hardly conclusive, however, since the process-based models for the flux trajectories did not differentiate between peatland types. On the other hand, the classification between nutrient-poor vs. nutrient-rich FDPs is not accurate and there is overlap between the classes in nutrient concentrations, while their distinction more accurately reflects pH (Menberu et al. 2017). The classification of FDPs is focused on potential for tree growth and it may not be optimal for assessment of restoration. Laatikainen et al. (2025) found highest growth rate of Sphagnum moss layer after restoration of acidic and nitrogen-poor FDPs, aligning with the general pattern of dominance of Sphagnum in acidic bogs and poor fens. The results demonstrated the effects of higher CO₂ sequestration and lower CH₄ emissions in restored peatlands than anticipated by previous studies (Laine et al. 2024; Launiainen et al. 2025), both resulting from the rapid formation of new Sphagnum moss layer and consequently increasing WTD (Laatikainen et al. 2025). Indeed, when site specific data of moss layer growth and WTD were applied, the alternative drainage scenario from Laine et al. (2024) also resulted in negative forcing and a small climate mitigation potential in the 100-year assessment. Alternative drainage scenario from Jauhiainen et al. (2023) resulted in -3.88 t CO₂-eq. ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ mitigation and application of forestry rotation nearly doubled the potential to -6.29 t CO_2 -eq. ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. These alternative scenarios did not include effects of tree growth and wood products, however, which can change the mitigation potential (Launiainen et al. 2025). Indeed, the climate mitigation assessment of restoration is highly dependent on the reference scenario of continued drainage and forestry practices.

Increased litter production rates are expected after successful drainage from increased productivity

especially of trees (Straková et al. 2010; Ojanen et al. 2013; Minkkinen et al. 2018). Such high litter

304 production, reaching levels of upland forests (Vucetich et al. 2000; Starr et al. 2005) is not 305 representative of the up to 1 million hectares of weakly productive FDPs in Finland (Laiho et al. 2016), 306 however. I used the litter input data of Ojanen et al. (2013) for the drainage scenario, which means that 307 the CO₂ sequestration rate likely represented the upper bounds of what could be expected for FDPs 308 directed to restoration, making the estimation of climate mitigation potential by restoration 309 conservative. 310 The drainage scenario resulted in near-zero soil CO2 flux, differing slightly from the earlier estimate by 311 Ojanen et al. (2013), who found a weak CO₂ sink (-70 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹) for nutrient-poor FDPs. The 312 difference was caused by estimation of young litter decomposition. The model used by Ojanen et al. 313 (2013) resulted in approximately 85 % of mass remaining in the annual balance of young litter. Such 314 high remaining mass has been found for woody debris (Vávřová et al. 2009), but this decay resistant 315 material comprises only 30 % of above ground litter (Straková et al. 2010; Ojanen et al. 2013). Straková 316 et al. (2012) found 75 % and 66 % of mass remaining of composite above ground litter after one and two years in a nutrient-poor FDP. Higher decomposition rates were found by Laiho et al. (2004) for pine 317 318 needles with 64 % and 51 %, and roots with 70 % and 60 % of mass remaining after one and two years. 319 Results of He et al. (2020) were closely similar, on average, for multiple below ground litter qualities. I 320 used the decomposition rates of Straková et al. (2012), which among the available references was a 321 conservative choice against overestimating decomposition in FDPs. The model still resulted in a 38 % 322 higher decomposition rate of young litter than estimated by Ojanen et al. (2013), who used the 323 Yasso07 model. This difference agrees with the indication that models (Yasso07, Yasso15, Century) 324 tended to underestimate litter decomposition in mineral soil forests by 43 % using default 325 parametrization (Tupek et al. 2019). 326 The drainage scenario described an ideal case of an average nutrient-poor FDP 50 years after drainage 327 without effects of forest management. This kept the modeling simplified and comparable to earlier 328 estimation (Laine et al. 2024). However, while Laine et al. (2024) kept the drainage CO2 flux at a 329 constant rate, I applied a trajectory with continuous addition of litter cohorts. Although the 330 decomposition rate of old litter is slow, the cumulative effect amounted to 103 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ of additional emission at 100 years. The average net CO₂ flux was a 58 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ emission in the 331 332 drainage scenario, as opposed to the -45 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ sink used by Laine et al. (2024). In an extensive 333 review, Jauhiainen et al. (2023) found slightly higher average emissions for typical nutrient-poor FDPs $(79 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1})$, and substantially higher emissions for low-productive sites $(269 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1})$. 334 335 Thus, the drainage scenario in this study likely underestimates emissions, acting against climate 336 mitigation potential of restoration. When the emission factors of Jauhiainen et al. (2023) were used, the modeling resulted in -3.88 t CO_2 -eq. ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ climate mitigation, on average. The emission factors 337

338 from Jauhiainen et al. (2023) included peat inventory studies in addition to gas flux results. This 339 complicates the comparison but also demonstrates important aspects of model assumptions 340 connected to FDP age and management. 341 The historic effects of drainage are relevant to potential future effects of forestry rotation, which will 342 repeatedly reintroduce afforested state, ditch clearance, and fertilization – the same factors that 343 contributed to the carbon loss observed by peat inventories (Simola et al. 2012; Pitkänen et al. 2013). 344 Instead, using GHG flux data at the mature state with high litter production may underestimate soil 345 emissions under future management of FDPs. To incorporate forestry rotation effects, Launiainen et 346 al. (2025) expected smaller CO₂ emissions from peat after clearcutting due to rising water level, but 347 decomposition of harvest residues raised the total emission to approximately 1000 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ after 348 clearcutting. Empirical studies have found higher emissions after clearcutting. Korkiakoski et al. 349 (2019) observed CO₂ emissions amounting to 3086 g and 2072 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the first and second year after clearcutting of a nutrient-rich FDP, despite of 23-cm rise of water level. They also found CH₄ 350 351 emissions of 4 and 6 g CH₄ m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively, i.e. an order of magnitude higher than expected for 352 FDPs by Laine et al. (2024) and in this study. Tikkasalo et al. (2025) found a 2330 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ emission 353 from another nutrient-rich FDP one year after clearcutting. These results indicate that forestry 354 management can have a remarkable role in soil GHG balance of FDPs that calls for further attention. 355 The study sites of Korkiakoski et al. (2019) and Tikkasalo et al. (2025) were nutrient-rich FDPs that likely 356 have higher emissions than nutrient-poor FDPs (Laine et al. 2024). Applying forestry rotation in an 357 alternative drainage reference with moderate two-year CO₂ emission rates (1500 and 900 g CO₂ m⁻² yr 358 1) after clearcutting followed by a 40-year descent of emissions (Menichetti et al. 2025) to baseline 359 level of Jauhiainen et al. (2023) indicated a -5.9 t CO₂-eq. ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ climate mitigation potential already 360 after 31 years of restoration. This has immense implications within the timescale of EU's climate neutrality target by 2050 (European Climate Law 2021/1119). However, only a few short-term studies 361 362 are available on soil emissions after clearcutting from limited types of FDPs. Furthermore, emissions 363 can be adjusted by different forestry practices (Lehtonen et al. 2023). 364 Carbon sequestration in restored peatlands 365 Restoration of FDPs re-establishes the functional acrotelm with thick moss layer, sequestering carbon 366 with a known rate that may temporarily exceed that of pristine peatlands (Kareksela et al. 2015; 367 Laatikainen et al. 2025). At the same time, decomposition rates fall with reintroduced saturated 368 conditions in the old peat and litter that had been exposed to aerobic decomposition during drainage. 369 These main effects of restoration can increase CO_2 sequestration despite lower litter production. 370 However, a time lag before the onset of efficient growth is expected. Tong et al. (2025) found

decreasing CO₂ emission from restored nutrient-poor FDPs with 147 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ emission rate after three years of restoration and a total emission of 693 g CO₂ m⁻² over the first three years after restoration. In this study, a range from 267 to 1936 g CO₂ m⁻² total emission over 3 years was indicated, after which the CO₂ sequestration was enough in half of the sites to result in negative AGFP after 10 years. I used the average of new moss layer mass reported by Laatikainen et al. (2025) in the modeling of CO₂ sequestration. This was a conservative choice because the sample included mesotrophic sites apparently unsuitable for establishment of oligotrophic Sphagnum vegetation. The average for oligotrophic sites in Laatikainen et al. (2025) was 37 % higher than for all sites and nearly the same as found by Kareksela et al. (2015) for restored Sphagnum-dominated oligotrophic pine mires. While long-term results of GHG fluxes are missing from restored FDPs, surrogate values have been obtained from pristine peatlands. Laine et al. (2024) calculated the net CO₂ sequestration as the sum of CH₄ emission and the long-term apparent rate of carbon accumulation (LORCA) in peat, considering also minor contributions of deposition and a proportion of leached DOC. They estimated a fixed rate of -124 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ for oligotrophic open mires, withholding a LORCA value of 17 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ (-62 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹). The hypothetical restoration scenario had clearly higher average net sink (-204 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹) over 100 years. However, the modelled CO₂ sequestration rate at 300 years was only -55 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹. This highlights the significance of short-term development after restoration. Although the long-term model result for CO₂ sequestration remains admittedly speculative, the use of LORCA as a surrogate data source is not satisfactory. The actual carbon balance of any peatland, restored sites included, depends on the history and condition of the whole peat deposit. Even the oldest peat cohorts continue to decay, although at extremely slow rates, and their combined effect will eventually limit the capacity of peatland carbon sink (Clymo 1984). Although peat thickness varied greatly in the FDPs studied by Ojanen et al. (2010, 2013), it did not have explanatory power on soil heterotrophic respiration that was related to tree volume, site type, temperature, and water level. This underlines that saturated deep peat remains in relatively inert state also in FDPs and has a minor contribution to the CO2 flux. Restoration effects on decomposition are also largely limited to surface peat strata, where the water level is again adjusted. Therefore, it is assumed that the lack of consideration of peat thickness in the modeling has little significance to potential mitigation. Methane emission rate of restored oligotrophic Sphagnum peatlands Increased CH₄ emissions are expected after restoration, due to increasingly anaerobic conditions caused by raising water level, while FDPs have negligibly low CH₄ emissions (Ojanen et al. 2010; Wilson et al. 2016). Since CH₄ emissions have strong short-term warming impact, the expected CH₄ emission after restoration has a decisive effect on the impact assessment. Laine et al. (2024) used a

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high CH₄ emission factor of pristine oligotrophic fens (22.0 g CH₄ m⁻² yr⁻¹) as a surrogate value for 404 405 restoration of nutrient-poor FDPs into open peatlands. Data from other reviews have indicated only 406 slightly lower emission rates (Saarnio et al. 2007; Abdalla et al. 2016). The use of surrogate emission 407 factors neglects the realized WTD conditions of restored peatlands and the observed suppression of 408 CH₄ production in restored peatlands. I used WTD data from restored sites and a conservative 409 application of model of Wilson et al. (2016) for restored peatlands' CH₄ emissions. This resulted in 410 remarkably lower CH₄ emissions than anticipated by earlier studies (Laine et al. 2024; Launiainen et 411 al. 2025). In the long-term, re-established natural dynamics are expected to govern CH₄ emission, 412 calling for consideration of the ecosystem succession concerning WTD. 413 In the short-term, restoration of FDPs has proven successful in returning water level and storage 414 functions (Menberu et al. 2016), although a legacy effect of ditches may prevail causing spatial 415 variation (Haapalehto et al. 2014). Studies extending to 10 years after restoration have indicated, 416 however, that WTD tends to increase as the moss layer develops and ascends higher above the water 417 level (Haapalehto et al. 2011; Laatikainen et al. 2025). In the sample of 12 restored sites, the average 418 WTD was -9.0 cm in the first year after restoration, similar to pristine poor fens (Menberu et al. 2016), 419 but grew to -24.7 cm in the last available data (6 to 9 years). WTD has major control on CH₄ emissions 420 (Ojanen et al. 2010; Abdalla et al. 2016; Wilson et al. 2016; Evans et al. 2021) and while high emissions 421 are expected from the restoration target type of wet oligotrophic fens due to low WTD, the realized 422 WTD levels of restored sites do not support such expectation. 423 Several studies have found lower CH₄ emissions from restored than from pristine peatlands 424 (Komulainen et al. 1998; Juottonen et al. 2012; Rey-Sanchez et al. 2019; Urbanová & Bárta 2020; Tong 425 et al. 2025). Wilson et al. (2016) reported an average emission rate of 6.3 g CH₄ m⁻² yr⁻¹ for nutrient 426 poor boreal restored peatlands. Their models of CH₄ emissions against WTD indicated that restored 427 peatland emissions reached between 14 to 27 % of the emissions of undrained peatlands for the same 428 WTD levels. This suggests that suppression of CH₄ emissions in restored peatlands is not caused 429 merely by deeper WTD. Juottonen et al. (2012) found low CH₄ emission rates from restored Finnish 430 FDPs reaching only 2 % of their pristine control sites 10 years after restoration, explained by low 431 population densities of methanogenic microbes. Urbanová & Bárta (2020) found recovery of 432 methanogenic microbial communities after 7-13 years of restoration of bogs and spruce swamp 433 forests, while the CH₄ production was still lower than in pristine peatlands. Recently, Tong et al. (2025) 434 reported low emissions of 3.1 to 5.8 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ during the first three years after restoration of a 435 boreal oligotrophic fen, amounting 32 to 49 % of their pristine control sites. Tyystjärvi et al. (2024) 436 conducted a process-based simulation study, with calibration data from restored FDPs, where they found 6 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ initial emissions that decreased to 1 g CH_4 m⁻² yr⁻¹ in 100 years after restoration. 437

In FDPs, Rissanen et al. (2023) found low CH₄ emissions (2.6 g CH₄ m⁻² yr⁻¹) from ditches with 438 439 spontaneous infilling by Sphagnum mosses, while ditches without moss cover had nearly tenfold 440 emissions (20.6 g CH₄ m⁻² yr⁻¹). They found some negative CH₄ fluxes from moss-covered ditches on dry occasions, contributable to methanotrophy. Indeed, rapidly establishing methanotrophy may 441 442 effectively prevent CH₄ emissions. Putkinen et al. (2018) found that methanotrophy was independent 443 of succession stage in restored peat mining area, instead depending on the thickness of aerobic 444 Sphagnum moss layer. 445 The anaerobic CO₂:CH₄ production ratios in Sphagnum peat tend to be far greater than predicted by 446 electron balance models (1:1) and one mechanism to cause this is likely the hydrogenation of organic 447 terminal electron acceptors (TEAs) (Wilson et al. 2017). Blodau & Deppe (2012) found that the addition 448 of peat humic acid suppressed CH₄ but not CO₂ production. This may explain observation of Juottonen 449 et al. (2012), who found a negative relationship between DOC concentration and CH4 emission. A 450 further mechanism to increase CO₂:CH₄ ratio is the non-enzymatic release of CO₂ from Maillard 451 reactions that can contribute about 10 % of anaerobic CO2 release from Sphagnum peat (Cory et al. 452 2025). Interestingly, high availability of both organic TEAs and Maillard agents can be expected after 453 restoration. Menberu et al. (2017) reported a high average DOC concentration of 75 mg/l of pore water 454 soon after restoration and a decrease after 6 years to pristine peatlands level (33 mg/l). They also 455 reported elevated specific UV-absorbance (SUVA) after restoration, indicating high aromaticity of 456 DOC, which can suppress microbial activity. The onset of high growth rate of Sphagnum, on the other 457 hand, produces galacturonic acid that can act as a Maillard reagent (Cory et al. 2025). These 458 conditions created by restoration may partly explain the observed low CH₄ emissions, thus, further 459 supporting the use of restoration-specific trajectories of CH₄ emissions in climate impact modeling, 460 instead of surrogate values from pristine peatlands. In this study, the suppression of CH4 emissions in 461 restorated peatlands was included with a conservative weighting up to 10 years after restoration. It is 462 possible, however, that CH₄ emission begin more readily after restoration of unsuccessfully drained 463 FDPs with close to pristine microbial dynamics. 464 Literature cited 465 Aapala K, Similä M, Kuhmonen A (2025) Mire restoration guide. Nature Protection Publications of 466 Metsähallitus. Series A 260, 422 pp. Metsähallitus, Parks & Wildlife Finland. [In Finnish] 467 https://julkaisut.metsa.fi/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2025/09/a260.pdf 468 Abdalla M, Hastings A, Truu J, Espenberg M, Mander Ü, Smith P (2016) Emissions of methane from

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SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

- Restoration of forestry-drained oligotrophic peatlands can bring climate change mitigation
- 659 within a few decades
- 660 Teemu Tahvanainen

657

- Process-based dynamic models of soil CO₂ flux trajectories for drainage and restoration scenarios
- This supplement describes details of process-based models constructed for calculations of GHG-
- trajectories for drained and restored oligotrophic peatlands used for climate forcing modelling. An
- Excel-file with all models is published online in Zenodo (Tahvanainen 2025).
- 665 Drainage scenario
- The main source for the drainage scenario CO₂ flux model input was Ojanen et al. (2013). The total
- litter input (L_0) was obtained as the average 1274 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ of nutrient-poor types, consisting of 601
- 668 g CO_2 m⁻² yr⁻¹ aboveground litter and 673 g CO_2 m⁻² yr⁻¹ belowground litter, following the mean
- proportions reported by Ojanen et al. (2013). In a model for litter accumulation in the drainage
- scenario, the remaining mass at year t of litter cohort i equals the addition to litter stock in year t, and it
- was calculated with the function
- 672 (Equation 1)
- 673 $iL_t = L_{t-1} \times e^{-k_t}$
- where the previous year's litter addition L_{t-1} is decayed by decomposition rate $-k_t$. The cumulative soil
- 675 litter stock is confined as
- 676 (Equation 2)

$$677 L_t = \sum_{i=1}^t iL_t$$

- To account for decreasing decomposition rate of each litter cohort with age, k_t was adjusted in a
- descending trajectory (Fig. 2). For above ground litter, the values $k_1 = 0.288$ and $k_2 = 0.128$ were used to
- 680 fit the 75 % and 66 % of remaining mass following results of Straková et al. (2012) for mixed litter in
- FPDs. After this, k_t was decreased to a minimum at k_{50} = 0.005 following Scanlon & Moore (2000), with
- an exponential phase from k_3 to k_{10} , followed by a linear decrease between k_{11} to k_{50} . The exponential
- 683 phase was fitted with an annual multiplier 0.8317 to yield an above ground litter stock of 8340 g CO₂ m⁻
- 684 ² at 40 years, conforming to the litter stock estimate following Pitkänen et al. (2007), who sampled
- above ground litter of 47 Finnish FDPs. The 3-year litter decomposition totaled at 245 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹

efflux, i.e. 38 % higher than in Ojanen et al. (2013). Belowground litter was modelled with the same parameters, observing that the remaining mass did not fall below the trajectories found for belowground litter by He et al. (2025). The cumulative addition to CO_2 efflux from decomposition of ageing litter cohorts ($iL_{51} - iL_{150}$) was added to the baseline decomposition ($iL_{50} = 1271$ g CO_2 m⁻²) to approximate the trajectory of efflux starting from the first year of the drainage scenario (50-year-old forest stand).

The CH₄ and N₂O flux rates were kept constant following Laine et al. (2024), with 0.34 g CH₄ m⁻² yr⁻¹ and 0.08 g N₂O m⁻² yr⁻¹. The model describes constant soil processes, and it does not account for the tree stand dynamics or management.

Restoration scenarios

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The trajectory of net CO₂ flux for restoration scenarios was estimated by the summation of the flux components of moss layer, drainage litter, and old peat. The same CO2 flux trajectory was used for three alternative long-term scenarios. The new moss CO2 sequestration was estimated so that the cumulative mass at 10 years conformed to the average of 4855 g CO₂ m⁻² observed by Laatikainen et al. (2025) for 18 FDP restoration sites. The k_t was iterated together with a constant annual CO₂ sequestration in biomass. This was necessary because of unknown decomposition of the moss layer litter accumulated in 10 years. With k_1 = 0.198 and k_2 = 0.076 the mass remaining was fitted to 82 % and 76 % after first two years of decomposition, following Straková et al. (2012) results from oligotrophic Sphagnum mires (Fig. 2). The k_t was then adjusted with an annual modifier of 0.800 to fit the average 10-year moss layer stock with a 727 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ input, conforming to net primary production (NPP) with 60 % contribution from Sphagnum mosses that would grow at about the upper quartile rate of approximately 440 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ of Sphagnum productivity (Bengtson et al. 2021). The minimum k = 0.005 was set similarly as in the drainage scenario following Scanlon & Moore (20000). This iteration resulted in a baseline model of the new moss layer litter accumulation. The trajectory was then adjusted by a modifier to account for the vegetation development (vM_t) , while yielding the same 10-year stock. The sequence of vM_t started from 0.5, peaking at 1.2 in the 6th year, and then descended to a constant level of 0.802 in the 20th year after restoration (Fig. 2). This sequence considers 1) the disturbed state after the restoration, 2) the growth peak within a few years, and 3) a descent to average natural *Sphagnum* productivity of 350 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Bengtson et al. 2021) contributing 60 % of total NPP of 583 g CO_2 m⁻² yr⁻¹. The sequence of vM_t was adjusted in gross accordance with reports of development in restored peatlands (Haapalehto et al. 2011; Kareksela et al. 2015, Anderson et al. 2016). The model was continued to 300 years to observe that the recent

apparent carbon accumulation (RERCA) of new moss was 45 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, equaling the average 300year RERCA for pristine mires in Finland (Mäkilä & Goslar 2008).

Remaining mass in the new moss layer (nm) of each cohort i at time t of litter (iL_t) was calculated as

721 (Equation 3)

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$$iL_t = (L_0 \times vM_t) \times e^{-k_{t-i+1}}$$

where the baseline litter production $L_0 = 727$ g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹ is adjusted with vM_t and $-k_{t-i+1}$ which repeats the same trajectory of k_t for each cohort i.

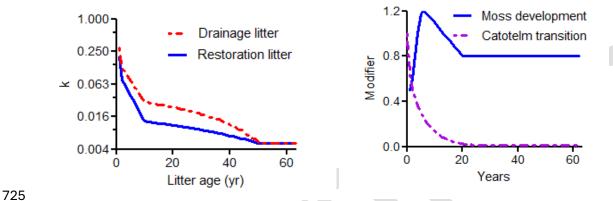


Fig. S1. Post-restoration trajectories of A) the decomposition coefficient k for above ground litter in drainage and restoration scenarios (notice log-2 scale), and B) temporal modifiers for CO_2 flux components.

The CO₂ efflux from old peat (op_R) was estimated by adjusting the baseline from the drainage period value $op_R_0 = 1273$ g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹. The drainage litter stock (dl_L) before restoration was estimated with the model for drainage scenario aboveground litter (3-year stock). An anaerobic transition modifier (aM_t) was introduced to account for reduced decomposition. The modifier was set to $aM_1 = 0.680$ and $aM_2 = 0.500$ following results of Komulainen et al. (1999), who measured decomposition in drained and restored sites. The modifier was adjusted by multiplier 0.85 each year until a set minimum $aM_{25} = 0.01$ (Fig. 2). Thus, heterotrophic respiration was expected to settle in 25 years at 1 % (13 g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹) of the drainage scenario baseline. This can be reflected with similar chance in the acrotelm-catotelm transition in natural peatlands (Frolking et al. 2001; Moore et al. 2007). Finally, the net CO₂ flux of the restoration scenarios was calculated as

739 (Equation 4)

740 Net
$$CO_2 = -(nm_L_t - nm_L_{t-1}) + (opR_0 + dl_L_{t-1} - dl_L_t) \times aM_t - C_{DOC} + C_{dep}$$

with all components in units of g CO₂ m⁻² yr⁻¹. The growth of litter stock to $nm_L t_t$ from $nm_L t_{t-1}$ represents accumulation in the new moss layer. The drainage litter stock $dl_L t_t$ decreases from $dl_L t_{t-1}$ to $dl_L t_t$ and adds to heterotrophic respiration of old peat $op_L R_0$, both adjusted by aM_t . A 10 % share of leaching dissolved organic carbon ($C_{DOC} = 3.48 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and carbon deposition ($C_{dep} = 1.83 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) are accounted following Laine et al. (2024).

Table S1. GHG-trajectories of hypothetical restoration scenarios used for REFUGE4 climate impact modelling.

Scenario:	Drainage			Hummock			Intermediate			Flark		
Year	CO ₂	CH ₄	N_2O									
2020	3.2	0.34	0.08	700.0	2.37	0.03	700.0	3.27	0.03	700.0	3.27	0.03
2021	4.5	0.34	0.08	340.1	2.38	0.03	340.1	3.77	0.03	340.1	3.77	0.03
2022	5.8	0.34	0.08	131.4	2.30	0.03	131.4	4.17	0.03	131.4	4.17	0.03
2023	7.1	0.34	0.08	-53.9	2.17	0.03	-53.9	4.48	0.03	-53.9	4.48	0.03
2024	8.4	0.34	0.08	-206.0	2.00	0.03	-206.0	4.72	0.03	-206.0	4.72	0.03
2025	9.7	0.34	0.08	-255.2	1.82	0.03	-255.2	4.90	0.03	-255.2	4.90	0.03
2026	10.9	0.34	0.08	-273.0	1.63	0.03	-273.0	5.02	0.03	-273.0	5.02	0.03
2027	12.2	0.34	80.0	-282.6	1.45	0.03	-282.6	5.10	0.03	-282.6	5.10	0.03
2028	13.5	0.34	0.08	-295.8	1.28	0.03	-295.8	5.13	0.03	-295.8	5.13	0.03
2029	14.7	0.34	0.08	-300.8	1.12	0.03	-300.8	5.12	0.03	-300.8	5.12	0.03
2031	17.2	0.34	0.08	-304.7	1.12	0.03	-304.7	5.12	0.03	-304.7	5.20	0.03
2033	19.7	0.34	80.0	-300.1	1.12	0.03	-300.1	5.12	0.03	-300.1	5.44	0.03
2035	22.1	0.34	0.08	-287.6	1.12	0.03	-287.6	5.12	0.03	-287.6	5.61	0.03
2039	26.9	0.34	80.0	-247.5	1.12	0.03	-247.5	5.12	0.03	-247.5	5.95	0.03
2043	31.6	0.34	0.08	-261.3	1.12	0.03	-261.3	5.12	0.03	-261.3	6.33	0.03
2049	38.5	0.34	0.08	-253.8	1.12	0.03	-253.8	5.12	0.03	-253.8	6.92	0.03
2059	49.6	0.34	0.08	-236.3	1.12	0.03	-236.3	5.12	0.03	-236.3	8.05	0.03
2079	70.1	0.34	0.08	-214.5	1.12	0.03	-214.5	5.12	0.03	-214.5	10.89	0.03
2099	88.6	0.34	0.08	-193.3	1.12	0.03	-193.3	5.12	0.03	-193.3	14.72	0.03
2119	105.4	0.34	80.0	-173.8	1.12	0.03	-173.8	5.12	0.03	-173.8	19.91	0.03
2169	140.7	0.34	0.08	-132.9	1.12	0.03	-132.9	5.12	0.03	-132.9	19.91	0.03

Effect of alternative drainage scenarios on climate mitigation by restoration

Constant emission factor scenarios follow Laine et al. (2024) and Jauhiainen et al. (2023) reports for nutrient-poor FDPs. Jauhiainen et al. (2023) presented separate emission factors for typical and low productive FDPs. They also reported results of peat inventory and GHG-flux studies separately and in combination. In addition, a simple model for forestry rotation with clearcutting is presented.

Table S1. GHG-trajectories used in REFUGE4 for forestry rotation scenarios. All fluxes g m^{-2} yr⁻¹ (multiplier 1E +12 in REFUGE). Baseline values according to Jauhiainen et al (2023) are given in bold.

Baseline:	NuP ty	oical co	omb	NuPlow		NuP ty	oical co	NuPlow comb					
Year	CO ₂	CH ₄	N_2O	CO ₂	CH₄	N_2O	Year	CO ₂	CH ₄	N_2O	CO ₂	CH ₄	N_2O
2020	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	0.08	2020	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	0.08
2021	1500	0.34	0.08	1500	0.34	0.08	2030	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	0.08
2022	900	0.34	0.08	900	0.34	0.08	2031	1500	0.34	0.08	1500	0.34	0.08
2060	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	0.08	2032	900	0.34	0.08	900	0.34	0.08
2080	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	0.08	2070	79.2	0.34	80.0	269.2	0.34	0.08
2081	1500	0.34	0.08	1500	0.34	80.0	2090	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	80.0
2082	900	0.34	0.08	900	0.34	80.0	2091	1500	0.34	0.08	1500	0.34	80.0
2140	79.2	0.34	80.0	269.2	0.34	0.08	2092	900	0.34	0.08	900	0.34	80.0
2169	79.2	0.34	80.0	269.2	0.34	0.08	2130	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	80.0
							2169	79.2	0.34	0.08	269.2	0.34	80.0

The forestry rotation reference scenario was calculated using CO_2 emission trajectories with clearcuts in 60-year intervals starting immediately (2020 and 2080) or ten years after start of modelling (2030 and 2090). The baseline emissions followed Jauhiainen et al. (2023) but two years' emissions following clearcut were 1500 g CO_2 m₋₂ yr₋₁ and 900 g CO_2 m₋₂ yr₋₁, followed with 40-year linear descent to the baseline. This timeline of fading clearcut impact follows findings from mineral-soil conifer forests (Menichetti et al. 2025). The two-year emission rates after clearcut were adjusted to be intermediate between those of the restoration scenario of this study (702 and 342 g CO_2 m⁻² yr⁻¹) and results of Korkiakoski et al. (2019) and Tikkasalo et al. (2025) for clearcut impacts in nutrient-rich FDPs. The model of Launiainen et al. (2025) indicated an approximate 1000 g CO_2 m⁻² yr⁻¹ emission after clearcut (NEE mainly comprising of soil and harvest residue emissions) conforming to the estimate here. Only CO_2 emissions were modified with the forestry rotation, although increasing CH_4 emissions could also be expected (Korkiakoski et al. 2019).

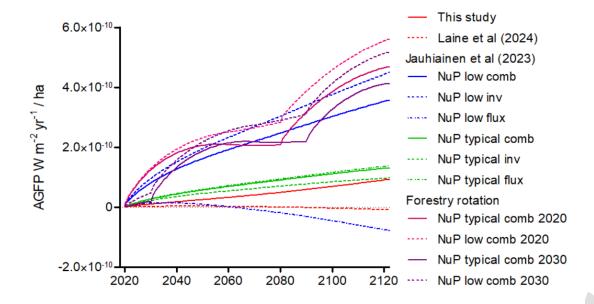


Fig. S2. Absolute global forcing potential of alternative drainage scenarios for nutrient-poor FDPs. NuP = nutrient poor, low = low productive, typical = productive, flux = GHG-flux studies, inv = peat inventory studies, comb = combined flux and inv. Forestry rotation trajectories with 60-year clearcut intervals start from 2020 or 2030. Positive values indicate climate warming impact of drainage.

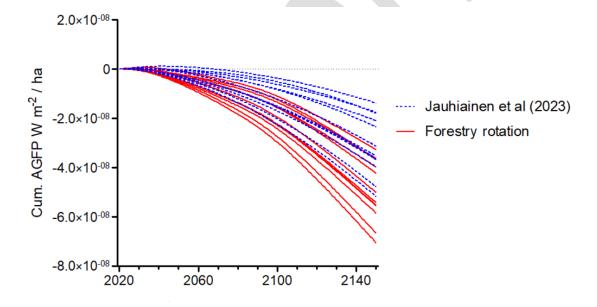


Fig. S3. Cumulative absolute global forcing potential calculated for the 12 restored FDPs studied by Laatikainen et al. (2025) with reference to averages of the alternative drainage scenarios following Jauhiainen et al. (2023) and the forest clearcut rotation. Negative values indicate climate cooling effect relative to drainage.

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