

Supplementary Information for

Emerging forest-peatland bi-stability and resilience of European peatland carbon stores.

Ype van der Velde, Arnaud J.A.M. Temme, Jelmer J. Nijp, Maarten Braakhekke, George A.K. van Voorn, Stefan C. Dekker, A. Johannes Dolman, Jakob Wallinga, Kevin J. Devito, Nick. Kettridge, Carl A. Mendoza, Lammert Kooistra, Merel B. Soons, Adriaan J. Teuling.

Email: Ype.vander.Velde@VU.nl

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Supplementary texts S1-S5

Supplement 1: Model setup

Figure S1.1 Conceptual diagram of model relationships. Panel A shows the simulated stores (bold text) and flows of water (blue arrows), Panel B shows the simulated stores (bold texts) and flows of carbon (red arrows). The dotted lines present the simulated interactions between the water and carbon cycles. The purple arrows indicate how temperature affect the model. The numbers refer to the corresponding equations.

The model (Fig S1.1) is centered around 4 main differential equations. These describe the mass balances of water [1], carbon in the vegetation [2] and carbon in the soil [3] and the surface elevation [4]. The same equations and parameters values are used for both forest and peatland, which are treated as a continuum in living biomass, with forest as a high biomass and peatland with a low living biomass. Therefore by growing biomass a peatland can develop into a forest and vice-versa.

$$
Ground water: \qquad \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} = \frac{R - (E_{gr} + T_{gr}) - Q - J}{Sy} \qquad [1]
$$

Biomass: $\frac{d}{dt} = Npp - M - Wd$ $\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = Npp - M$ д [2]

Soil Organic matter:
$$
\frac{\partial O}{\partial t} = M + Wd - D - Se
$$
 [3]

Soil Surface
$$
S = Ms + Sod
$$
 or equivalent $\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial O}{\partial t}$ [4]

Table S1.1: Main variables

H	Groundwater level [m]	R	Groundwater Recharge [m/d]	M	Maintenance of biomass $[KqC/m^2/Y]$
B	Biomass [Kg C/m^2]	E_{qr}	Evaporation from groundwater ˈm/d]	Ws	Death of biomass through both too wet and too dry conditions [KgC/m ² /Y]
\boldsymbol{o}	Soil organic matter content [Kg C/m ²]	T_{gr}	Transpiration from groundwater $\lceil m/d \rceil$	D	Decay of soil organic matter [KgC/m ² /Y]
$\mathbf S$	Soil Surface [m]	Q	Discharge [m/d]	Se	Stream export of organic matter [Kg/m ² /Y]
$\boldsymbol{\tau}$	Time [d or Y]	\bm{J}	Regional flux[m/d]	Ms	Mineral surface [m]
Sy	Specific yield [-]	Npp	Biomass growth $[Kg/m^2/Y]$	Sod	Depth soil organic layer m

Interaction model equations

Here we describe all the interactions (arrows in Fig. S1) linking the state variables.

Water

The point-scale hydrology is schematized by 4 serial reservoirs (figure S1.1, panel A): Snow, interception, soil water and groundwater. If the temperature is below zero, precipitation accumulates in the snow reservoir, from which it leaves during periods when temperature is above zero following the degree-day approach (Collins, 1934).

$$
\frac{\text{d}Sn}{\text{d}t} = -\min(Sn, Tmp \cdot f_{SN}) \qquad Tmp > 0 \qquad [5]
$$

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}Sn}{\mathrm{d}t} = P \tag{6}
$$

$$
P_{S} = P + \min(Sn, Tmp \cdot f_{SN} dt) \qquad Tmp > 0 \qquad [7]
$$

$$
P_{S} = 0 \t\t Tmp \langle = 0 \rangle
$$
 [8]

Interception storage is included via a threshold storage approach (Moors, 2012; Vrugt et al., 2003)

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}I}{\mathrm{d}t} = P_s - E_t - Tf \tag{9}
$$

$$
Tf = \max(P_{S} - (I_{max} - I_{A}), 0) \tag{10}
$$

$$
Of = \max(Tf - W_{\max}, 0) \tag{11}
$$

$$
E_I = \min(Et_P, I) \tag{12}
$$

$$
W_{\text{max}} = f_{W1} + f_{W2} \cdot (B + O) \tag{13}
$$

$$
I_{\text{max}} = f_I \cdot B \tag{14}
$$

Unsaturated soil water storage is again implemented via a threshold storage approach. Soil organic matter and average groundwater depth increase the capacity of this store.

Conceptually the volume of the store represents the volume of water that vegetation can easily use from the unsaturated zone. Water leaking from this store becomes groundwater recharge.

When the vegetation cannot reach groundwater it will use the water in this unsaturated store to transpire and grow:

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d} \, Sw}{\mathrm{d} \, t} = Tf - Of - Et_{S} - R \tag{15}
$$

$$
R = \max(Tf - Of - Et_s - (Sw_{\max} - Sw), 0)
$$
 [16]

$$
Sw_{\text{max}} = \min(Sod, S - \overline{H}) * f_{sw1} + \max(S - \overline{H}_1, 0) * f_{sw2}
$$
 [17]

$$
Sod = \left[\sqrt{2 \cdot d \rho_c \cdot O + {\rho_0}^2} - \rho_0\right] / d\rho_c
$$
 [18]

$$
Et_{S} = \min(Et_{P} - Et_{I}, Sw)
$$
\n⁽¹⁹⁾

$$
Et_{P} = Et_{R} \cdot (f_{El} + \min(f_{E12} \cdot B, f_{Et3} - f_{Et1}))
$$
\n[20]

Groundwater Evaporation and transpiration are implemented building on the Feddes approach (Bartholomeus et al., 2008; Feddes et al., 2001). The rootzone thickness is modelled as a function of biomass following (Roebroek et al., 2020) :*:*

$$
ET_{Gr} = j \cdot (Et_p - Et_s - Et_1) \tag{21}
$$

$$
Gd_{1,2,3} = f_{Gd1,2,3} \cdot B \tag{22}
$$

$$
j = j_0 \tag{23}
$$

$$
j = j_0 + \frac{S - H}{G d_1} (1 - j_0)
$$
 S-Gd₁(B) < H < S [24]

$$
j=1
$$
 S-Gd₂(B) < H < S-Gd₁(B) [25]

$$
j = 1 - \frac{S - H - Gd_2}{Gd_3 - Gd_2}
$$
 S - Gd₃(B) < H < S - Gd₂(B) [26]

$$
j = 0
$$
 H < S-Gd₃(B) [27]

$$
T_{Gr} = \left(f_{T0} + (f_{T\text{max}} - f_{T0})\frac{S-H}{S-f_{TH}}\right) ET_{Gr}
$$
 [28]

$$
E_{Gr} = ET_{Gr} - T_{Gr}
$$
\n^[29]

Discharge is calculated as a linear reservoir when groundwater reaches above surface following (Van Der Velde et al., 2009)

$$
Q = Rw \cdot (H - S) + Of \text{ for H} > S, \qquad Q = Of \qquad \text{for H} < S \tag{30}
$$

$$
Rw = \max(f_{Rw1} - f_{Rw2} \cdot Sod, f_{Rw3})
$$
\n[31]

Specific yield of the soil is a thickness dependent linear combination of mineral and peatland specific yield:

$$
Sy = \min(Sy_0 + \frac{SOD}{f_p} (Sy_p - Sy_0), Sy_p)
$$
 [32]

Biomass

Living biomass is calculated on a yearly basis following a Water use efficiency approach following results of e.g. (Mueller et al., 2005; Tang et al., 2015) :

$$
\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = Npp - M - Wd \tag{2}
$$

Yearly averages and sums: nt

$$
\frac{1}{H} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} H(i)}{nt}
$$
 [33]

$$
\overline{\overline{T}_{Gr}} = \sum_{i=1}^{nt} T_{gr}(i) \tag{34}
$$

$$
\overline{T}_{S} = \left(f_{T0} + (f_{T \max} - f_{T0}) \frac{S - \overline{H}}{S - f_{H}} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{nt} Et_{S}(i)
$$
\n[35]

$$
\overline{\overline{E}} = \sum_{i=1}^{nt} E t_{S}(i) - \overline{T_{S}} + \sum_{i=1}^{nt} E_{Gr}(i)
$$
\n(35)

$$
\overline{T} = \overline{T_{Gr}} + \overline{T_s} \tag{36}
$$

$$
\overline{E_{stress}} = \overline{ET_p} - \overline{ET_{gr}} - \overline{ET_s} - \overline{E_T}
$$
\n
$$
T = T \left(1 - e^{-f_{TS}B}\right)
$$
\n
$$
(37)
$$

$$
T_{\text{resh}} = T_0 \cdot \left(1 - e^{-f_{TS}B}\right) \tag{38}
$$

Biomass Growth

$$
Npp = \frac{T - T_{\text{resh}}}{Wue} \tag{39}
$$

$$
Wue = Wue_{NS} + (1 - f_{WUE1}) \cdot f_{WUE2} \cdot \overline{E_{stress}}
$$
\n
$$
[40]
$$

Maintenance cost biomass:

$$
M(B) = f_M \cdot B \tag{41}
$$

Water stress related biomass death:

$$
WD = \frac{S - \min(\max(S - \overline{H}, 0), Gd_1)}{S - Gd_1} \cdot f_{WD1} \cdot B + Di
$$
 [42]

Where *Di* represents the fraction of *Npp* that ends up on the soil in the same year due to water stress. $\overline{}$

$$
Di = Npp - \frac{\overline{T} - T_{resh}}{Wue_{NS} + f_{WUE2} \cdot \overline{E_{stress}}}
$$
\n
$$
[43]
$$

Soil Organic matter

$$
\frac{\partial O}{\partial t} = M + Wd - D - Se \tag{3}
$$

Decomposition is calculated following the acrotelm and catotelm approach outlined by (Clymo, 1984) and for example applied by (Kleinen et al., 2012)

$$
O_{\text{dry}} = \min(\max\left(S - \overline{H}, 0\right), \text{Sod} \cdot \rho_0 + \frac{\rho_c}{2} \min(\max\left(S - \overline{H}, 0\right), \text{Sod})^2 \tag{44}
$$

$$
O_{\text{wet}} = O - O_{\text{dry}} \tag{45}
$$

$$
D = f_{0w} \cdot 2^{\frac{\overline{Tmp} - 10}{10}} \cdot O_{wet} + f_{Od} \cdot 2^{\frac{\overline{Tmp} - 10}{10}} \cdot O_{dry}
$$
 [46]

Stream export is calculated by assuming a water residence time dependent DOC concentration following (van der Velde et al., 2010):

$$
mtt = \frac{\min(Sod, f_{SE1}) \cdot Sy_p}{\overline{Q}}
$$
 [47]

$$
SE = Q \cdot C_{eq} \int_{0}^{\frac{Inf}{T}} \frac{1}{m t} e^{-\frac{x}{m t}} (1 - e^{-f_{SE2} x}) dx
$$

Table S1.2 All variables

Table S1.3 All parameters

Supplement 2. Model example.

An example model result for De Bilt, Netherlands (5.2Lon, 52.1Lat), is shown in figure S2.1. Panel A shows times series of living Biomass. Here we see that full switches from peatland to forest and vice versa may take several centuries. The bi-stability diagram in figure S2.1B plots the average biomass after 800-1000y of simulation (not shown in fig. A)

Figure S2.1) Example model run and its relations to the biomass bi-stability diagrams. A) time series of modelled biomass for different "Regional fluxes". B) Bi-stability diagram for biomass demonstrating the definition of "bi-stability range". Each point represents the average biomass for 800-1000Y simulation for 1 of the simulations shown in A. the green dots are initiated with a typical forest, while the brown points are initiated with a typical peatland C) Average soil organic matter after 800-1000Y of simulations for the simulations shown under A.

In figure S2.1A the biomass of the individual model runs for a single location are shown. The model is run with 2 starting conditions:1) a forest with high biomass, a high groundwater table and a thin organic soil and 2) peatland with low biomass, high groundwater table and a thick organic soil. For each of the starting conditions 40 model runs are performed with groundwater flow varying in equal steps from 2mm/d infiltration (negative) to 2 mm/d exfiltration (positive) Most model runs find their stable state within the first 100years of simulation. A few model runs switch form forest to peatland or from peatland to forest much later signaling that the generated weather (the years 1955-2015 were placed in random order to create a 1000 years of weather, all models were run with the same weather input) was such that switches were induced for example by the coincidence of having multiple wet or dry years in a row. The average biomass and soil organic carbon during the time period of 800- 1000y of simulation was plot in the bi-stability plots of figs S2.1B. The biomass of forest is constant for a groundwater flux more negative than -0.5mm/d (infiltration). For these groundwater fluxes, the groundwater table is below the rootzone of the trees and trees grow only with the water present in the unsaturated zone, thus unaffected by the groundwater flux. From a groundwater flux of -0.5 to $+0.5$ mm/d, the biomass of the forests increases nonlinearly (note the logscale of the y-axis of Fig S2.1B). Here, the trees can access the groundwater and grow to a higher biomass. Up to an exfiltration flux of 0.5mm/d the trees grow taller. The higher biomass of the trees and the more wet conditions also create the peak in soil organic carbon as function of groundwater flux (Fig 2.1C). Increasing the exfiltration even further shows a sudden drop in biomass. However, fig S2.1A shows that in time this is not a sudden drop in biomass and soil organic carbon but a transition that potentially takes hundreds of years.

Supplement 3 Model verification and validation,

S3.1 Water and carbon stores and fluxes.

We tuned the parameters that describe the relationships between biomass, water table evapotranspiration and growth within their uncertainty ranges to match observed data for Europe (Fig. S3.1). This setup was subsequently validated for Canadian datasets (Fig. S3.2) as the number of suitable datasets in Europe is limited. Moreover, demonstrating that the model works well under contrasting climatic conditions builds confidence in our model results.

S3.1.1 Verification for Europe

The full range of likely wetness condition was evaluated for each observation site. As it is difficult to assess the wetness condition for each observation site from literature, we aim our model to envelope the forest observations. To this end we plotted the highest (no water stress) and lowest (max water stress) simulated biomass, NPP and forest soil carbon and compared these with the observed values. Ideally our model envelopes the observations, which it does wel for Biomass, NPP and soil carbon (Fig S3.1). For waterfluxes, we compared primarily with observed river runoff in Sweden. These river discharges of more than400 rivers were first analyzed to yield water use (actual evapotranspiration, AET) of the forest and wetland parts of the catchments. These water fluxes, and the water fluxes obtained from several fluxnet-sites, were compared with the simulated water fluxes for forest and peatlands (Fig S3.1d). Lastly the simulated carbon fluxes of the peatlands were compared with data found through a literature review of peatland research within Europe.

Figure S3.1 Figs S3.1a,b,d,e are a copy of figure panels in Fig. 2 of the main text. For completeness they are repeated here. Model verification results for forest and wetland ecosystem properties.

*A) Modelled forest biomass were compared with 2 datasets of measured forest biomass.1) Forest biomass inventories of Sweden [\(ftp://salix.slu.se/download/skogskarta,](ftp://salix.slu.se/download/skogskarta) downloaded in 2015) on a 25*25m grid are upscaled to 10 by 10Km grid. For each 10 by 10 Km gridcell the 0.1 percentile (10%) and 0.9 percentile (90%) of forests biomass for forests that are more than 60 years*

old are calculated. The 0.1 percentile is assumed to compare to simulated forests that cannot use groundwater and hence are dry forests ("no-groundwater" scenario) , while the 0.9 percentile is assumed to correspond to simulated forests that are optimally supplied with water throughout the growing season ("optimal-water-supply" scenario). Both simulated and measured forests biomasses are shown and compare well. 2) Biomass of European forest fluxnet sites with trees older than 60 years are compared with simulated biomass (Luyssaert et al. 2007). Both model scenarios are expected to envelope the fluxnet sites as these sites are likely to have some degree of groundwater use and or water limitation during the growing season.

- *B) Net primary production (Npp) of the model were compared with forest Npp values from the fluxnet sites with trees older than 60y (Luyssaert et al. 2007). Just as under A, the "no-groundwater" and the "optimal-water-supply" scenarios of our model are expected to envelope the fluxnet sites.*
- *C) Simulated Forest soil organic carbon stocks were compared with published latitude- "forest-soil-carbon-stock" relationships for both moist and dry podsols in Sweden (Olsen et al., 2009). The moist podsol relationship is expected to correspond with the "optimal-water-supply" scenario of our model, while the "dry-podsol-forest-carbonstocks" are expected to correspond to our "No-groundwater" scenario. Note that the published average relationships have a large uncertainty. This uncertainty could not be quantified from the publication.*
- *D) Simulated forest and peatland water fluxes were compared to 2 types of measured water fluxes. 1) Forest and wetland water use derived from river discharges throughout Sweden (Van der Velde et al, 2013) 2) Forest water use derived from fluxnet sites (Williams et al,, 2012). For the forest compared the simulations with "regional flux" = 0.*
- *E) Peatland carbon fluxes were obtained through a literature review (see table S2.1).Net Atmospheric exchange (NAE), DOC export through rivers and LORCA (long term rate of carbon accumulation) were collected for a range of sites. In Finland a large number of Lorca values were determined by Turunen et al, 2002 (>1000). Here average values are used for the regions specified in the publication. The whiskers on the observations indicate the range in yearly values when multiple years are measured. The whiskers on the simultations indicate the standard diaviation between years in the simulation.*
- *F) Overview map of the used European sites*

Table S3.1 European peatland carbon flux data.

S3.1.2 Validation against Canadian datasets

Similar to the model verification in Europe, we validated the European model with Canadian datasets. Simulated standing forest biomass is compared to both a gridded forest biomass map and site measurements (fig S3.2). Our simulations envelope most site biomass observations (FECD) but suggests that most forests in the gridded forest biomass map are water stresses. However, other explanation are more likely, such as an averaging effect over 250 by 250m grid cells, cold soil and winter temperatures at locations with low reference evapotranspiration that affects biomass. The simulations accurately envelope observed forest NPP and forest soil carbon. The European model accurately describes the water usage of peatlands AET/PET ~0.6 that corresponds well with flux tower and water balance measurements. This peatland water use is controlled by the standing biomass and weather dynamics. The forest water use corresponds less well and the simulations seem to slightly overestimate water use of forest. A likely explanation is that winters in Canada are colder than in Europe. Cold soils may limit water use of trees, a process that is not incorporate in the model. The simulated NEE of peatlands is higher than carbon accumulation estimated by dating techniques (LORCA), but matches fairly well to fluxtower measurements (observed NEE). This discrepancy could be explained by long-term carbon-loss processes that were not accounted for in the model such as fires.

Figure S3.2 Model validation results for forest and wetland ecosystem properties with Canadian Datasets.

A) Modelled forest biomass was compared with 3 datasets of measured forest biomass. 1) Gridded forest biomass map at 250m×250m resolution (grey point clouds Beaudoin, et al., 2014); 2) Forest ecosystem carbon database (FECD; Shaw et al., 2005). 3) Luyssaert dataset (Luyssaert et al., 2007). For all observations tree locations with a standage older than 60 years were selected. Simulated biomass is shown for forests with optimal water supply (no water stress) and forests that cannot reach groundwater (max water stress).

- *B) Modelled forest net primary productivity (NPP) were compared with 1) Gridded forest NPP map at 0.01°×0.01° resolution (grey point clouds Thurner et al., 2017); and 2) Luyssaert dataset (Luyssaert et al., 2007).*
- *C) Modelled forest soil carbon were compared with observations from the Forest ecosystem carbon database (FECD; Shaw et al., 2005).*
- *D) Simulated forest and peatland water fluxes were compared to 2 types of measured water fluxes. Catchment level water fluxes derived from river discharges in the Boreal Plains (Devito et al., 2017), and the derived estimates for hypothetical catchments with 100% forest, peatland, or open water (the whiskers indicate the uncertainty). 2) Forest and peatland water use derived from fluxnet sites (Williams et al,, 2012). Simulated water fluxes are shown for forests with optimal water supply (no water stress), forests that cannot reach groundwater (max water stress), and peatlands.*
- *E) Modeled peatland net ecosystem exchange (NEE) of carbon was compared with observed long term rates of carbon accumulation (LORCA) for the last 1000 years, based on dating methods (Gallego-Sala et al., 2018), and observed NEE from a Canadian dataset (Webster et al., 2018).*

S3.2 Evapotranspiration

The reference evapotranspiration (*PEt*) is an important climate variable in the model. We applied a Priestly-Taylor-type equation and calibrated the parameters of this equations to long-term average *PEt*-values throughout Sweden published by Van der Velde et al. (2012) and daily Reported Makkink-reference evapotranspiration for a single site in the Netherlands.

$$
PEt = -0.0202 + \frac{1}{1280 \cdot 10^{6}} (0.5 \cdot [T \max + T \min] + 16.20) \cdot (T \max - T \min)^{0.51} \cdot S_{in}(lat)
$$

PEt = 0.81*Makkink PEt

Figure S3.3 The parameters of Eqs S2.1 and S2.2 were calibrated to both long term average values for Sweden (Van der Velde et al., 2012)(A) as well as daily Makkink-Et values published by the KNMI for the Bilt (B). Both datasets were reproduced satisfactory

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Supplement 4 Sensitivity analysis

We performed an exploratory sensitivity analysis for all model parameters for 14 locations ranging from wet and cold (PET/P<1) to dry and warm (PET/P>1, figure S4.1). The sensitivity of the main model variables to the model parameters and drivers can be different for any climate. To explore this spatial pattern in sensitivity, we selected 14 locations with a strong gradient in PET/P and for each location we evaluated and increase and decrease of 5% of each of the 40 model parameters. Ctemp and Cprecip represent a 1 degree and a 5% change in temperature and precipitation respectively. We plotted the 6 parameters with the largest average (over the 14 locations) effects on the model results. For all four bi-stability variables (threshold exfiltration forest, threshold infiltration peatlands, restoration resistance and critical flux), the parameters describing the relation between biomass and ET, and between transpiration and water table for wetlands are most sensitive, followed by precipitation and temperature. Next to weather and transpiration parameters, we see a slight effect of Specific yield difference (note that in the figures below $Pp = Sy_p$) between mineral soil and peat soil for "minimum drainage" forest".

*Figure S4.1:. Explorative sensitivity analysis. Parameter names relate to table S1.3. CTemp stands for a +1 and -1 degree change in temperature, Cprecip for a +5% and - 5% change in precipitation. All other parameters are varied from +5 to -5% of their estimated value. %change =([+5%] - [-5%])/[base]*100. The dots represent the actual calculated sensitivity values, while the lines are indicative for the spatial correlation*

between sensitivities. Any change of more than 10% indicates that a 10% change (- 5%+5%) in parameter value results in a larger effect on the variable. The 6 most influential parameters are shown in the legend sorted from high to low impact.

Additionally, a spatial correlation analysis of four model variables with climate was performed. For this analysis we correlated the climate (only driver for the spatial pattern)in a radius of 200km around each point to the model output 1) Threshold infiltration peatland, 2) Threshold exfiltration forests, 3) restoration resistance , and 4) Critical flux A correlation model was made for each location for each variable. We followed the order of the legend (Fig S4.2) with first the yearly average values and subsequently their standard deviation. When a subsequent variable had a 5% higher explained variance than the best explaining variable from the legend list upto that variable, this variable was assumed the strongest control. If no variable could explain more than 40% "no significant control" was assigned. . This figure shows that the restoration resistance range is controlled by the variability in yearly rainfall in western Europe, and by yearly average PET in Northern Europe. In eastern Europe the peat growth and its bi-stability range seems to be a complex balance between precipitation, temperature and Evapotranspiration. The critical flux is controlled both by the yearly average precipitation and PET for most of Europe.

Figure S4.1: Spatial correlation analysis between climate and bi-stability variables.

Model sensitivity analyses (S4.1) reveals that the threshold infiltration for peatlands and the restauration resistance are more sensitive to parameters that describe transpiration and thus growth difference between peatlands and forests than to water storage differences between peatlands and mineral forest soils. Next to evaporation parameters, the critical flux is also sensitive to the runoff resistance and the evaporation flux during ponding which directly relate to ponding dynamics. A higher degree of ponding leads to a lower critical flux and therefore a more resilient peatland. An additional spatial correlation analysis shows that the dominant climate control on resistance is yearly variability in precipitation and winter precipitation in West and Central Europe, potential evapotranspiration in Northern Europe, and a complex set of controls in Eastern Europe (fig. S4.2). Spatial differences in the critical flux are controlled by both precipitation and potential evapotranspiration in most of Europe. This indicates that there are many aspects of climate change that may affect resilience of peatlands, with potentially contrasting effects over relatively short distances, especially in Eastern Europe.

Supplement 5. Estimate of potential carbon loss.

We propose back-of-the-envelope estimates of the amount of carbon that we expect to be released to the atmosphere when the raised bogs in the "highly sensitive" zone shift to a "valley fen" landscape. We base our estimate on the detailed soilgrids database (Hengl et al., 2014) that give a global soil Carbon stock estimate with a 1x1 km resolution. It is a conservative estimate because this dataset only contains estimated carbon stocks for the first 2 meters of soil, while raised bogs are known to grow up to 12m thick. However, we are not aware of datasets better representing the carbon stocks of peatlands. As this dataset covers the first 2m of soil, compared to the 1m that many other datasets include, total global carbon stocks for this dataset are relatively high (518Pg versus e.g. 2470 Pg of the Harmonized World Soil Database(Hiederer & Köchy, 2011)). This has to be taken into account interpreting our numbers, but the overall high soil carbon store is not expected to affect relative numbers much. 66% of all soil carbon in the Soilgrids dataset is found north of 35° latitude and 32% north of 60° latitude.

We combined these estimates with the number of peatlands found in each of the simulated peatland zones based on the Natura2000 dataset. This dataset does not allow to calculate accurate peatland areas for entire Europe, but it is a completely in depend dataset based on vegetation recording and as such extremely valuable. For comparing simulated peatland types with observed peatland types in Fig. 2 we only used peatlands with Representativity-class "A": the peatlands truly representative for its type. For raised bogs the number of "representative" raised bogs are shown in table S5.1

Table S5.1 Summary Table of simulated potential peatland areas, their average carbon content, total carbon content and observed peatland numbers from the Natura2000 dataset.

	Area	Mean C		Nr	Nr "A"
	$(*10^6$	(kg/m ²)	(Ptg)	peatlands/10 ⁴ m ²	RB
	$km2$)				$/10^4$ km ²
BB	0.20	74	14.7	21.1	
BF	1.33	128	171	20.1	
RB	3.75	62	235	17.9	3.1
RBr	1.15	56.6	65.5	20.9	4.0
RBs	1.48	71	107	15.7	2.3
RBhs	1.10	57	63	12.8	1.8
VF	5.25	35	186	7.7	-
Tundra	0.55	90	50.1	5.9	-
Total	11.05	59	655	13.5	

BB= Blanket Bog, BF= Boreal Fen, RB= Raised Bog, RBr = robust Raised bog, RBs = Sensitive Raised Bog, RBhs= Highly sensitive Raised Bog, VF= Valley Fen

"highly sensitive" Raised bog zone Average carbon stock: **57** Kg C/m²

Total area: $1.100.000 \text{ km}^2$

"Valley fen" zone

Average carbon stock of the Valley fen zone with a dryness index (PET/P) smaller than 2. This is the zone just south of the "highly sensitive" zone: **35** kg C/m²

Our rough estimate of the amount of carbon released: $57 - 35 = 22$ kg C /m².

Potential amount of Carbon released due to shift between highly sensitive Raised bog and Valley fens: $\overline{(57-35)}$ * 1000 * 1.100.000 * 1*10⁶ = 24.2 Pg C

Estimated number of peatlands affected through this conversion: $(12.8 - 7.7) * 110 = 561$ Estimated number of "A"-type Raised bogs affected through this conversion: $1.8 * 110 = 198$

Supplement References

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