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1 **Warming effects on greenhouse gas fluxes in peatlands are modulated by vegetation**  
2 **composition**

3

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18

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20

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39

40 Authorship statement.

41 RDB and NJO conceived and designed the experiment, with input into the design from SEW.

42 SEW, SO, HQ performed the study, collected the data, and analysed the samples. SEW and

43 PAH analysed the data, and SEW, RDB, NO wrote the paper, to which all authors

44 contributed with discussions and text.

45

46 **ABSTRACT**

47 Understanding the effects of warming on greenhouse gas feedbacks to climate change  
48 represents a major global challenge. Most research has focused on direct effects of warming,  
49 without considering how concurrent changes in plant communities may alter such effects.  
50 Here, we combined vegetation manipulations with warming to investigate their interactive  
51 effects on greenhouse gas emissions from peatland. We found that although warming  
52 consistently increased respiration, the effect on net ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange depended on  
53 vegetation composition. The greatest increase in CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength after warming was when  
54 shrubs were present, and the greatest decrease when graminoids were present. CH<sub>4</sub> was more  
55 strongly controlled by vegetation composition than by warming, with largest emissions from  
56 graminoid communities. Our results show that plant community composition is a significant  
57 modulator of greenhouse gas emissions and their response to warming, and suggest that  
58 vegetation change could alter peatland carbon sink strength under future climate change.

59

60 **INTRODUCTION**

61 There is growing concern about how biosphere carbon dynamics will respond to expected  
62 climate change, with evidence suggesting that atmospheric warming will increase soil  
63 respiration and greenhouse gas feedbacks (Bardgett *et al.* 2008; Craine *et al.* 2010). At the  
64 same time, terrestrial ecosystems are being subjected to increasing environmental pressures  
65 and human demands that are affecting vegetation community composition and diversity  
66 globally (Thuiller *et al.* 2005; Stevens *et al.* 2010). Despite widespread recognition that both  
67 climate and vegetation change can act independently as drivers of ecosystem carbon  
68 dynamics (De Deyn *et al.* 2008; Dorrepaal *et al.* 2009), we know little about the potential role  
69 in the carbon cycle of interactions between them (Bardgett *et al.* 2013). Indeed, experiments  
70 that explore the independent and interactive effects of abiotic and biotic factors as controls  
71 over ecosystem functioning are few (Hooper *et al.* 2005; Kardol *et al.* 2010), despite the  
72 suggestion that the magnitude of effects of vegetation change on ecosystem processes can be  
73 comparable to that of environmental change (Hooper *et al.* 2012; Tilman *et al.* 2012).

74

75 Carbon rich peatlands provide an ideal model system in which to examine the influence of  
76 warming and vegetation change on ecosystem greenhouse gas emissions; they have a  
77 relatively simple plant community structure, are recognised as important global sinks and  
78 sources of the greenhouse gases CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> respectively, and are vulnerable to land use  
79 and climate change (Dise 2009). Climate change models predict that northern latitude  
80 peatlands will be subjected to higher temperatures with longer growing seasons (IPCC 2007),  
81 and that this change will be accompanied by an increase in vascular plants at the expense of  
82 bryophytes and lichens (Walker *et al.* 2006; Gallego-Sala & Prentice 2013). Recent work has  
83 shown that experimental warming can significantly increase rates of peatland ecosystem  
84 respiration (Dorrepaal *et al.* 2009; Briones *et al.* 2010), and that drought can induce carbon

85 loss *via* changes in soil enzyme activity (Fenner & Freeman 2011). Other peatland studies  
86 suggest that there are key differences in the ecophysiological traits of dominant plant  
87 functional groups, that have a strong regulatory role in ecosystem carbon dynamics (Ward *et*  
88 *al.* 2012). Despite this, it is not known whether changes in plant community structure, and  
89 the presence or absence of dominant peatland plant functional groups (*i.e.*, shrubs,  
90 graminoids and bryophytes), will modify the impact of warming on ecosystem greenhouse  
91 gas fluxes. This represents a serious knowledge gap, given that most plant communities  
92 globally are subject to both vegetation and climate change, but their combined impact on  
93 greenhouse gas fluxes is not known.

94

95 To redress this gap in knowledge, we established a unique field experiment in spring 2008  
96 with the aim of examining the independent and interactive effects of warming and plant  
97 functional composition on greenhouse gas exchange in a peatland ecosystem. We used a  
98 plant removal approach to manipulate vegetation composition (Diaz *et al.* 2003; Wardle &  
99 Zackrisson 2005) from an area of ombrotrophic blanket bog in northern England. Vegetation  
100 manipulations included removal of all possible combinations of the three dominant plant  
101 functional groups, namely ericoid shrubs, graminoids (sedges), and bryophytes/lichens.  
102 Warming was induced passively on half of the experimental plots, using randomly allocated  
103 hexagonal open-top chambers (OTCs) (Marion *et al.* 1997) which increased air temperatures  
104 by approximately 1°C over the mid-day period. We present results from field measurements  
105 of greenhouse gas fluxes, namely net ecosystem exchange (NEE) of CO<sub>2</sub>, ecosystem  
106 respiration, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes for all times of year spanning two growing seasons. We  
107 show that, although rates of ecosystem respiration were consistently increased by warming  
108 across all vegetation types, the effect of warming on NEE, once differences in photosynthetic  
109 uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> were taken into account, was dependent on plant community composition.

110 More specifically, the greatest increase in CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength after warming was observed  
111 when shrubs only (dominated by *Calluna vulgaris*) were present. Also, warming reduced  
112 mean CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength in the presence of graminoids, and increased CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength when  
113 graminoids were absent. In addition, we found that the efflux of CH<sub>4</sub> was more strongly  
114 controlled by plant community composition than by warming, with largest emissions coming  
115 from sedge (*Eriophorum vaginatum*) dominated communities. Taken together, these findings  
116 highlight the importance of plant community composition as a driver of carbon cycling  
117 processes, and show that plant community composition can modulate the effects of warming  
118 on net ecosystem exchange of CO<sub>2</sub>.

119

120 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

121

122 **Study site.**

123 The study site was situated on an area of ombrotrophic blanket bog within the Moor House  
124 National Nature Reserve in northern England (54°65' N, 2°45' W). The site altitude was  
125 550m, the mean annual temperature is 5.8°C, and the mean annual precipitation 2048mm  
126 (UK Environmental Change Network, [www.data.ecn.ac.uk](http://www.data.ecn.ac.uk)). The mean depth of peat at the  
127 site was 1.17m ( $\pm 0.01$ ), and the mean pH 4.07 ( $\pm 0.01$ ). Abiotic conditions, including air  
128 and soil temperature, solar radiation, photosynthetically active radiation and rainfall at the  
129 site were recorded by the Moor House automated weather station ([www.ecn.ac.uk](http://www.ecn.ac.uk))  
130 (Supporting information, Table S1).

131

132 **Vegetation manipulation and climate warming.**

133 Vegetation removals were undertaken by hand, from areas measuring 1.5 x 1.5m, separated  
134 by a buffer zone of at least 1m from adjoining plant removal plots. Shoots of shrubs and  
135 graminoids were cut back to litter layer level, and all green (photosynthetic) tissues of  
136 bryophytes were removed, taking care to minimise disturbance of the soil and remaining  
137 vegetation types. Wooden boardwalks were installed on two sides of each removal plot, to  
138 allow access to the sampling plots without damage by trampling. Plots were left to settle for  
139 a year before sampling to minimise effects of decomposition from roots. The use of this  
140 plant removal approach allowed us to measure the effects of plant functional groups *in situ* in  
141 their natural environment (Diaz *et al.* 2003). The plant functional group manipulations were  
142 from the three dominant vegetation types present: ericoid dwarf-shrubs (S), dominated by  
143 *Calluna vulgaris* (L.) Hull; graminoids (G), dominated by the sedge *Eriophorum vaginatum*  
144 L; and bryophytes/lichens (B) dominated by feather mosses (*Hypnum jutlandicum* Holm. &



145 Warncke; *Pleurozium schreberi* (Brid.) Mitt.) and *Sphagnum* mosses. There were 8 different  
146 plant manipulations: a control with all vegetation present, three single groups (S, G or B),  
147 three double groups (S&G, S&B, G&B) and a treatment where all above ground vegetation  
148 was removed. The experiment site had four blocks, containing randomly arranged warmed  
149 and non-warmed replicates of each plant manipulation treatment (n = 64).

150

151 Warming was achieved passively using hexagonal OTCs based on the ITEX design (Marion  
152 *et al.* 1997), modified for peatland vegetation by the addition of a 20cm high vertical  
153 galvanised steel base, on to which the transparent top sections were fixed using cable ties.  
154 Each transparent section making up the hexagonal OTC measured 80cm along the bottom  
155 edge, 62.5cm along the top edge and 40cm height, to give an internal diameter of 1m<sup>2</sup>,  
156 avoiding edge effects. The transparent material was 2mm thick Liteglaze clear acrylic sheet  
157 (Ariel plastics, UK), which allows 92% light transmission. The open-topped chamber  
158 method offers a robust means to examine effects of warming in remote environments, without  
159 the need for a power supply, and has been used frequently in arctic and peatland ecosystems  
160 (Walker *et al.* 2006; Dorrepaal *et al.* 2009). This methodology has its limitations, most  
161 notably that OTCs can act as a physical barrier to wind (Marion *et al.* 1997), which, in  
162 addition to changing temperature, has the potential to alter the width of the boundary layer  
163 and hence the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> surrounding photosynthesising leaves, thereby affecting  
164 rates of photosynthetic uptake of carbon. Despite these limitations, the technique provides a  
165 valid and useful way of quantitatively comparing the effects of warming between  
166 experimental vegetation removal treatments in the field.

167

168 The OTCs were fixed in place one month prior to commencement of sampling. Air  
169 temperatures at vegetation canopy height were recorded using temperature loggers (Lascar

170 Electronics, Salisbury, UK). Water table levels were measured from dip-wells made of 1m  
171 long perforated PVC pipe, installed in each of the 64 experimental plots. On average, the  
172 OTC's increased mean air temperatures by 0.88°C and 0.72°C over the midday period  
173 (during the gas sampling period between 11:00 and 14:00 hrs), for the growing and non-  
174 growing season respectively. Over 24 hours, the mean increase in temperature was 0.46°C  
175 and 0.21°C for the growing and non-growing seasons. We found no evidence of any  
176 difference in water table draw-down due to warming ( $F_{1,1476} = 0.2$ ,  $P = 0.87$ ), or due to  
177 vegetation type ( $F_{1,1476} = 0.9$ ,  $P = 0.33$ ). For full details of the abiotic conditions during all  
178 sampling dates, see Table S1.

179

#### 180 **Greenhouse gas flux measurements.**

181 In each sampling plot, a 30 cm diameter, 10cm high gas sampling base ring was fitted in  
182 place at 5cm depth, with care taken to minimise disturbance and to avoid severance of large  
183 plant roots. Boardwalks installed on two sides of each experimental plot allowed access to  
184 the sampling areas without compressing the surrounding peat, which could have created  
185 physical movement of gases. Measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> exchange were made over 120-s  
186 intervals with a PP systems EGM4 portable IRGA coupled to a customised chamber lid,  
187 30cm diameter and 35cm height (Ward *et al.* 2007). We used the dark and light flux method  
188 for ecosystem respiration and net CO<sub>2</sub> flux respectively (Ward *et al.* 2007). Measurements  
189 were taken between 11:00 and 14:00 hours from June 2009 to August 2010, at approximately  
190 monthly intervals during the growing season, and bi-monthly at other times. For CH<sub>4</sub> and  
191 N<sub>2</sub>O, bi-monthly gas samples were collected on closure of the chamber lid and at three  
192 additional time points up to 30 minutes closure. Gas samples (10ml) were taken from the  
193 chamber headspace using a gas syringe, and injected into evacuated 3ml exetainers (Labco,  
194 UK) for storage prior to analysis. Concentrations of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O were analysed by gas

195 chromatography, using Perkin Elmer Autosystem XL GCs with a flame ionisation detector  
196 for CH<sub>4</sub> and electron capture detector for N<sub>2</sub>O. GC detection limits were better than 0.2 ppm  
197 for all gases. For each sample, 2.5ml of gas was injected into the GC using an HTA  
198 Autosampler. Results were calibrated against certified gas standards, comprising 500ppm  
199 CO<sub>2</sub>, 10ppm CH<sub>4</sub> and 1ppm N<sub>2</sub>O (BOC, UK). All fluxes were adjusted for field sampling  
200 temperature, headspace volume and chamber area (Holland *et al.* 1999), and calculated by  
201 linear regression using all time points sampled (Levy *et al.* 2012).

202

### 203 **Soil properties**

204 Peat cores measuring 3cm diameter and 10cm depth were collected from each field plot in  
205 July of the final year of gas sampling, in order to gain a measure of microbial biomass and  
206 the availability of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and nitrogen (DON) in the peat. Peat was  
207 homogenised and hand sorted to remove any root material, then analysed for microbial  
208 biomass C and N using fumigation-extraction, and water extractable DOC and DON using  
209 methods described in Ward *et al.* (2007).

210

### 211 **Statistics.**

212 Data were checked for normality using residual plots method, and log-transformed where  
213 necessary before analysis. The effects of experimental warming and vegetation  
214 manipulations, and their interactions, were analysed by repeated measures ANOVA, using  
215 SAS Enterprise Guide 4, with sampling date nested within sampling block as random effects.  
216 Vegetation effects were analysed as the presence and absence of each of the three plant  
217 functional groups (shrubs, graminoids and bryophytes), and effects of vegetation diversity  
218 were analysed based on the number of plant functional groups present. After confirming a  
219 three way interaction between season, warming and plant functional group, data were

## Plants modulate warming effects on GHG fluxes

220 analysed as 2 separate models: 1) growing season data; and 2) non growing season data, with  
221 growing season defined as when the mean air temperature is greater than 6°C.

222

223 **RESULTS**224 **CO<sub>2</sub>**

225 Our results show that the effect of warming on NEE of CO<sub>2</sub> was modulated by the removal of  
226 different plant functional groups in the experimental communities (Fig 1, Table 1). A  
227 significant interaction ( $F_{1,744} = 6.4$ ,  $P = 0.0126$ ) between warming and plant functional group  
228 removal on NEE was observed during the growing season (*i.e.* when average air temperature  
229 was  $> 6^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). More specifically, mean CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength increased by 55% with warming in  
230 plots where shrubs were the only plant functional group present, and by 36% when shrubs  
231 were present with bryophytes, but without graminoids (Fig. 1). In the presence of  
232 graminoids, however, mean CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength was reduced by 20% with warming, whereas  
233 in the absence of graminoids, mean CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength was increased by 43% with warming.  
234 Vegetation diversity also influenced NEE ( $F_{3,744} = 18.3$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ), with strongest effects  
235 seen when comparing non-vegetated plots with those containing 2 or 3 plant functional  
236 groups, but there were no interactions between vegetation diversity and warming (Supporting  
237 information, Table S2).

238

239 Ecosystem respiration rates were consistently raised by warming across all vegetation  
240 treatments (Fig. 2), but there were no detectable interactions of warming with the removal of  
241 shrubs, graminoids or bryophytes (Table 1). Across all vegetation removal treatments,  
242 warming of  $\sim 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  over the year increased rates of ecosystem respiration in warmed relative to  
243 non-warmed treatment plots by a mean of 47% and 49%, during the growing and non-  
244 growing seasons respectively ( $F_{1,734} = 49.8$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ;  $F_{1,227} = 10.1$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ). There were  
245 also highly significant effects of shrub, graminoid, and bryophyte removal on ecosystem  
246 respiration rates, with strongest effects during the growing season, and interactions observed  
247 between graminoids and the other plant functional groups (Table 1). The highest rates of

248 respiration were measured in the presence of vascular plants, and there was a greater  
249 reduction in respiration from the removal of shrubs than from the removal of graminoids.  
250 When bryophytes were removed, rates of respiration increased, however this effect was only  
251 observed during the growing season (Table 1). Significantly lower rates of respiration were  
252 measured for bare plots compared to those with one or more plant functional group present  
253 ( $F_{3,734} = 21.1$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ), but there was no interaction of vegetation diversity with warming  
254 (Supporting information, Table S2).

255

### 256 **CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O**

257 We found that vegetation composition, particularly the presence of graminoids, was a  
258 stronger factor than warming in regulating peatland CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes (Fig. 3, Table 1), and that the  
259 presence and absence of graminoids and shrubs interacted to affect net CH<sub>4</sub> exchange all year  
260 round. Emissions of CH<sub>4</sub> were higher in the presence relative to absence of graminoids, but  
261 lower in the presence relative to absence of shrubs. We measured the highest CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes  
262 when graminoids (the sedge, *Eriophorum vaginatum*) were present without shrubs and  
263 without bryophytes (Fig. 3). Warming effects on CH<sub>4</sub> efflux were only significant during the  
264 growing season ( $F_{1,251} = 5.6$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ), but we detected no interactive effect of warming with  
265 vegetation removal on ecosystem CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for any of the three plant functional groups  
266 (Table 1). Outside the growing season, the peatland was seen to be a small sink for CH<sub>4</sub> in  
267 the absence of vegetation, and when shrubs and bryophytes only were present in warmed  
268 plots (Fig. 3).

269

270 For N<sub>2</sub>O, we found no significant effect of warming either during ( $F_{1,167} = 0.0$ ,  $P = 0.92$ ) or  
271 outside the growing season ( $F_{1,167} = 2.5$ ,  $P = 0.12$ ), although there was a trend for a greater  
272 N<sub>2</sub>O sink in warmed plots during the non-growing season (Fig. 4, Table 1). During the

273 growing season we detected an interactive effect between shrubs and bryophytes, whereby  
274 the greatest mean sink for N<sub>2</sub>O was measured when shrubs were present and bryophytes had  
275 been removed. There were no interactions between warming and vegetation removal, and no  
276 significant effect of plant diversity on N<sub>2</sub>O flux.

277

### 278 **Soil properties**

279 Warming increased concentrations of DOC ( $F_{1,64} = 6.1, P = 0.02$ ) and DON ( $F_{1,64} = 7.0, P =$   
280  $0.01$ ) in soil solution by 13% and 15% respectively (Table 2). Vegetation change was found  
281 to have a stronger effect on DOC and DON than warming, with the removal of shrubs  
282 increasing concentrations of DOC ( $F_{1,64} = 22.4, P < 0.0001$ ) and DON ( $F_{1,64} = 21.0, P <$   
283  $0.0001$ ) by 21%. In contrast, the graminoid or bryophyte removal had no detectable effect on  
284 DOC or DON, and no interactions between warming and vegetation change were detected  
285 (Supporting information, Table S3). Microbial biomass C and N did not respond to warming,  
286 although microbial N was affected by vegetation change: microbial biomass N was greatest  
287 when both shrubs and bryophytes were removed (Supporting information, Table S3), and  
288 microbial C:N ratio was 14% lower when shrubs were removed ( $F_{1,64} = 5.4, P = 0.02$ ).

289

290 **DISCUSSION**

291 It has long been recognised that carbon cycling processes in peatlands are highly sensitive to  
292 changes in climate (Dise 2009; Dorrepaal *et al.* 2009), and there is growing evidence that  
293 climate driven vegetation change in peatland and high latitude ecosystems is leading to an  
294 increase in vascular plants at the expense of bryophytes (Walker *et al.* 2006; Gallego-Sala &  
295 Prentice 2013). However, despite these concurrent changes in climate and vegetation, their  
296 interactive effects on greenhouse gas fluxes are virtually unknown. We, therefore, set out to  
297 examine the independent and interactive effects of warming and plant functional composition  
298 on greenhouse gas exchange in a peatland ecosystem, using a unique field plant manipulation  
299 and warming experiment. Our findings provide the first evidence that the response of  
300 peatland greenhouse gas exchange to warming is both modulated and strongly controlled by  
301 plant community composition.

302

303 Our results show that removal of different plant functional groups in the experimental  
304 communities modulated the effects of warming on NEE of CO<sub>2</sub>. In particular, we found that,  
305 during the growing season, a significantly greater increase in net CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength with  
306 warming was seen in the presence of shrubs when graminoids were absent, whereas warming  
307 had the opposite effect in the presence of graminoids. As the main terrestrial exchange of  
308 carbon from peatlands is as CO<sub>2</sub> (Roulet *et al.* 2007), quantifying NEE of CO<sub>2</sub> allows us to  
309 get a measure of the net ecosystem carbon balance of the system, and how this is affected by  
310 warming and vegetation community composition. The clear interactive effect of warming  
311 and plant functional group removal on NEE during the growing season (*i.e.* when average air  
312 temperature was > 6°C), suggests that responses were dependent on feedbacks from actively  
313 growing plants, supporting the idea that the composition of actively growing peatland  
314 vegetation is a key modulator of the response of ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes to climate change. In



315 contrast, although ecosystem respiration rates were consistently raised by warming across all  
316 vegetation treatments, no such interaction of warming with vegetation composition was  
317 detected. Given the similarity of the respiration responses of different plant functional groups  
318 to warming, we propose that observed differences in NEE are largely attributable to  
319 differences in photosynthetic CO<sub>2</sub> uptake, with shrubs growing alone, or shrubs with  
320 bryophytes, showing the greatest increase in photosynthesis relative to respiration and hence,  
321 increased net CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength, with warming. In contrast, in the presence of graminoids,  
322 warming led to a greater increase in rates of respiration relative to photosynthesis, leading to  
323 a reduction in net CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength. Differences in rates of assimilation of CO<sub>2</sub> and  
324 translocation of new photosynthates below-ground have previously been observed among  
325 dominant peatland plant functional groups (Ward *et al.* 2012), with vascular plants (shrubs  
326 and graminoids) showing greater rates of CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and transfer relative to  
327 bryophytes. This significant positive effect of warming on photosynthetic drawdown of CO<sub>2</sub>  
328 by shrubs is likely to be a consequence of their characteristic ecophysiological traits related to  
329 resource acquisition, including associations with ericoid mycorrhizal fungi (Read *et al.* 2004),  
330 and canopy height and bushy growth habit, which makes them better placed to intercept light  
331 and to shade vegetation beneath their canopy.

332

333 Another explanation for the differences in warming response of NEE across plant functional  
334 groups might be associated shifts in microbial communities in the peat, which could  
335 ultimately affect the balance between CO<sub>2</sub> uptake and release under warming (Bardgett *et al.*  
336 2008). It is known that shrubs and graminoids in peatlands differ in the rate that they allocate  
337 photosynthetic carbon below-ground (Ward *et al.* 2009; Ward *et al.* 2012), and such  
338 differences in allocation are likely to affect the quality and quantity of exudates released from  
339 roots, to mycorrhizal fungi, and ultimately to soil, thereby affecting the composition and

340 activity of microbial communities (De Deyn *et al.* 2008; Bardgett *et al.* 2013). Also,  
341 observed differences in the photosynthetic response of plant functional groups to warming are  
342 likely to have altered carbon flux to roots and rates of root exudation, thereby further  
343 contributing to shifts in the composition and activity of microbial communities across  
344 vegetation treatments, and potentially explaining differential responses of NEE to warming.  
345 We did not measure soil microbial community structure in this study, but we did find, albeit  
346 at one sample date, that microbial C:N was significantly affected by shrub removal, which  
347 could be indicative of a change in microbial communities. This is perhaps due to the high  
348 concentrations of phenolic compounds (Hattenschwiler & Vitousek 2000; Freeman *et al.*  
349 2001) and the presence of mycorrhizal fungi (Read *et al.* 2004; Orwin *et al.* 2011) associated  
350 with ericoid shrubs. More studies are clearly needed to unravel the mechanisms by which  
351 differences in vegetation modulate responses of NEE to warming, including studies on the  
352 potential role of shifts in microbial communities as determinants of the response of NEE to  
353 warming.

354

355 The mean increase in rates of ecosystem respiration in response to  $\sim 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  warming, of 47-  
356 49%, is consistent with other studies of warming effects in peatlands, observed in the field  
357 (Dorrepaal *et al.* 2009) and laboratory (Kim *et al.* 2012). As with our findings for NEE of  
358  $\text{CO}_2$ , the greatest effects of vegetation composition were observed during the growing season,  
359 with the highest respiration rates being measured when vascular plants (*i.e.*, shrubs and  
360 graminoids) were present in the plant community. We also observed warming effects on  
361 concentrations of DOC and DON in soil solution, which were found to be higher in soils  
362 from the warmed than unwarmed plots at the peak of the growing season, which is likely  
363 indicative of an increase in microbial activity in response to warming. Although the effects  
364 of warming and vegetation composition on ecosystem respiration were found to be

365 independent, our findings do highlight the importance of both warming and actively growing  
366 vegetation in controlling the release of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere by respiration.

367

368 Peatlands are a globally important source of CH<sub>4</sub> (Baird *et al.* 2009) and previous work has  
369 shown that both warming (van Winden *et al.* 2012) and vegetation (Levy *et al.* 2012; Gray *et*  
370 *al.* 2013) can have a measureable effects on ecosystem CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Our study provides  
371 the first *in situ* field experimental evidence that vegetation composition is a stronger factor  
372 than ~ 1°C warming in regulating peatland CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes. As with our findings for CO<sub>2</sub>, the  
373 effects of vegetation community composition were stronger during the growing season than  
374 for the rest of the year, which again, highlights the key role that actively growing vegetation  
375 can play in controlling GHG exchange. The relatively greater levels of CH<sub>4</sub> efflux when the  
376 graminoid *Eriophorum vaginatum* was present, may be explained by the recognised  
377 functional traits of this wetland sedge, namely the presence of aerenchymous tissues which  
378 act as a conduit for CH<sub>4</sub> from the catotelm (Strack *et al.* 2006; Green & Baird 2012). In  
379 addition, differences in the quality and quantity of root exudates entering the soil from  
380 contrasting plant functional groups (De Deyn *et al.* 2008) are likely to affect the activity of  
381 methanogenic bacteria in the peat, as well as respiration processes. Sedges in particular have  
382 been associated with enhanced CH<sub>4</sub> production due to an increased supply of available  
383 substrates, particularly acetate, to methanogens (Bellisario *et al.* 1999; Hornibrook 2009; Lai  
384 2009), providing an additional explanation for the increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions we observed in  
385 the presence of graminoids. Interestingly, we observed that the system was a small sink for  
386 CH<sub>4</sub> in the absence of vegetation, and also when shrubs and bryophytes only were present in  
387 warmed plots outside the growing season. This implies that, even out of the growing season,  
388 the presence of vegetation is still exerting controls on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, through either changes  
389 in microbial activity, or differences in physical conditions. Although peatlands are associated

390 with greater CH<sub>4</sub> productivity than consumption, there is some evidence of CH<sub>4</sub> consumption  
391 in peat, particularly by methylocystis-related species (Kolb & Horn 2012).

392

393 Whereas previous peatland observations of high CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from sedge dominated  
394 communities come from contrasting physical habitats (Strack *et al.* 2006; McNamara *et al.*  
395 2008), our plant manipulation approach allowed us to compare plant functional groups in the  
396 same habitat, providing new evidence of the importance of vegetation composition in  
397 controlling CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Although warming did increase the mean CH<sub>4</sub> efflux for all  
398 vegetation manipulation treatments by 90% during the growing season, these effects were  
399 much weaker than those observed due to vegetation composition, and we found no statistical  
400 evidence that warming effects differed between vegetation types.

401

402 Atmospheric exchange of N<sub>2</sub>O, the third greenhouse gas measured in this study, was  
403 relatively low, as would be expected in nutrient poor ecosystems such as peatlands (Reay *et al.*  
404 2012). These small fluxes, which varied between net emissions and net uptake (Fig. 4),  
405 are typical of northern ombrotrophic peatlands (Drewer *et al.* 2010). Despite this, vegetation  
406 composition was found to impact on sink strength for N<sub>2</sub>O during the growing season, being  
407 greatest when shrubs were present and bryophytes had been removed. Unlike for other  
408 greenhouse gases, however, we detected no response of warming on N<sub>2</sub>O, aside a weak  
409 increase in N<sub>2</sub>O sink strength, suggesting that climate warming is unlikely to affect the  
410 atmospheric exchange of N<sub>2</sub>O in peatland in this N poor blanket peatland. In contrast, studies  
411 of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from peatlands which are more nutrient-rich (Martikainen *et al.* 1993), or  
412 which have patches of bare soil with high nitrate content due to cryoturbation (Repo *et al.*  
413 2009), have shown that climate warming can have powerful effects on peat N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes.

414

415 In conclusion, our findings provide evidence from a unique field manipulation experiment  
416 that warming effects on greenhouse gas exchange in peatland are modulated by changes in  
417 plant community composition, with the greatest increase in net CO<sub>2</sub> sink strength with  
418 warming occurring when shrubs were present and graminoids were absent. A change in the  
419 rate of greenhouse gas exchange with the atmosphere, brought about by increased domination  
420 by vascular plants as peatlands warm, has the potential to feedback to global climate change  
421 by exacerbating radiative forcing. Furthermore, the observed interaction of climate warming  
422 with vegetation change could accelerate these feedbacks in peatland systems containing large  
423 stocks of globally important carbon (Gallego-Sala & Prentice 2013). Whilst the mechanisms  
424 that underlie our findings require further exploration, our results indicate that changes in  
425 vegetation community composition can act as a strong determinant of climate change effects  
426 on northern peatland carbon cycling. As such, these results highlight the importance of  
427 considering biotic as well as abiotic climate induced changes when predicting the future  
428 greenhouse gas sink/source strength of peatland ecosystems.

429

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437

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605

606

607 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

608 Additional supporting information may be downloaded via the online version of this article at  
609 Wiley Online Library ([www.ecologyletters.com](http://www.ecologyletters.com)).

610 **Table S1.** Abiotic conditions for all sampling dates.

611 **Table S2.** Effects of vegetation diversity on CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O.

612 **Table S3.** Statistical analysis for DOC, DON and microbial biomass C and N.

613

614 **TABLES**

615 **Table 1.** Statistical analysis for the effects of, and interactions between, warming and the  
616 presence/absence of plant functional groups on CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes by seasons: a)  
617 growing season May to September, b) non-growing season October to April.

618

619 Table 1

Source of variation	a) Growing season (May – Sept)			b) Non-growing season (Oct – April)		
	df	f	p	df	f	p
<b><i>Net ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange (mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>)</i></b>			(n = 744)			(n = 229)
Warming	1	0.0	0.86	1	3.1	0.08
Shrub presence/absence	1	151.4	<0.0001	1	21.1	<0.0001
Graminoid presence/absence	1	17.1	<0.0001	1	2.8	0.10
Bryophyte presence/absence	1	0.1	0.82	1	1.6	0.21
Warmed x shrub	1	0.5	0.48	1	2.5	0.12
Warmed x graminoid	1	8.0	0.005	1	0.0	0.97
Warmed x bryophyte	1	0.4	0.52	1	1.5	0.22
Shrub x graminoid	1	13.4	0.0004	1	0.0	0.95
Shrub x bryophyte	1	2.7	0.10	1	1.7	0.20
Graminoid x bryophyte	1	2.9	0.09	1	1.9	0.18
Warmed x shrub x graminoid	1	6.4	0.01	1	0.1	0.81
Warmed x shrub x bryophyte	1	0.0	0.87	1	1.4	0.25
Warmed x graminoid x bryophyte	1	0.2	0.67	1	0.1	0.77
<b><i>Ecosystem respiration (mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>)</i></b>			(n = 734)			(n = 227)
Warming	1	49.8	<0.0001	1	10.1	0.002
Shrub presence/absence	1	164.7	<0.0001	1	22.6	<0.0001
Graminoid presence/absence	1	32.8	<0.0001	1	6.1	0.016
Bryophyte presence/absence	1	5.4	0.022	1	0.4	0.55
Warmed x shrub	1	1.0	0.31	1	0.5	0.51
Warmed x graminoid	1	0.2	0.63	1	0.2	0.69
Warmed x bryophyte	1	0.5	0.50	1	0.1	0.72
Shrub x graminoid	1	14.3	0.0002	1	2.4	0.12
Shrub x bryophyte	1	0.0	0.90	1	1.3	0.26
Graminoid x bryophyte	1	19.3	<0.0001	1	2.0	0.16
(no significant 3 way interactions)						
<b><i>CH<sub>4</sub> (mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>)</i></b>			(n = 251)			(n = 218)
Warming	1	5.6	0.02	1	0.3	0.58
Shrub presence/absence	1	9.9	0.002	1	1.5	0.22
Graminoid presence/absence	1	10.1	0.002	1	15.9	0.0001
Bryophyte presence/absence	1	2.2	0.14	1	2.4	0.12
Warmed x shrub	1	0.1	0.78	1	2.8	0.10
Warmed x graminoid	1	0.4	0.55	1	0.6	0.44
Warmed x bryophyte	1	0.1	0.70	1	1.2	0.28
Shrub x graminoid	1	8.5	0.005	1	13.9	0.0003
Shrub x bryophyte	1	0.0	0.92	1	2.4	0.12
Graminoid x bryophyte	1	1.3	0.26	1	10.5	0.002
(no significant 3 way interactions)						
<b><i>N<sub>2</sub>O (mg m<sup>-2</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup>)</i></b>			(n = 164)			(n = 167)
Warming	1	0.0	0.92	1	2.5	0.12
Shrub presence/absence	1	0.1	0.82	1	0.5	0.50
Graminoid presence/absence	1	0.7	0.39	1	1.3	0.27
Bryophyte presence/absence	1	0.2	0.65	1	1.1	0.29
Warmed x shrub	1	0.1	0.76	1	2.2	0.14
Warmed x graminoid	1	1.1	0.31	1	0.2	0.63
Warmed x bryophyte	1	0.4	0.55	1	1.4	0.25
Shrub x graminoid	1	1.0	0.32	1	0.8	0.37
Shrub x bryophyte	1	4.2	0.04	1	0.4	0.51
Graminoid x bryophyte	1	0.1	0.71	1	0.2	0.63
(no significant 3 way interactions)						



621 **Table 2.** DOC and DON in soil solution, and microbial biomass C and N in soils, sampled  
 622 during the growing season. Values are means +/- s.e.

<b>Vegetation type</b>	<b>DOC</b> ( $\mu\text{g C g dry wt soil}^{-1}$ )	<b>DON</b> ( $\mu\text{g N g dry wt soil}^{-1}$ )	<b>Microbial Biomass C</b> ( $\text{mg C g dry wt soil}^{-1}$ )	<b>Microbial Biomass N</b> ( $\text{mg N g dry wt soil}^{-1}$ )
<b><i>Non-warmed</i></b>				
Control	1304 ( $\pm$ 188)	686 ( $\pm$ 99)	19.3 ( $\pm$ 2.7)	3.2 ( $\pm$ 0.2)
Shrub only	1514 ( $\pm$ 131)	814 ( $\pm$ 76)	11.8 ( $\pm$ 3.4)	2.6 ( $\pm$ 0.6)
Graminoid only	2135 ( $\pm$ 237)	1164 ( $\pm$ 199)	13.6 ( $\pm$ 2.6)	3.5 ( $\pm$ 0.6)
Bryophyte only	2115 ( $\pm$ 205)	1185 ( $\pm$ 128)	14.7 ( $\pm$ 2.6)	3.3 ( $\pm$ 0.5)
Shrub + Graminoid	1357 ( $\pm$ 179)	726 ( $\pm$ 86)	17.0 ( $\pm$ 1.3)	3.0 ( $\pm$ 0.2)
Shrub + Bryophyte	1928 ( $\pm$ 170)	1018 ( $\pm$ 79)	18.3 ( $\pm$ 2.2)	3.7 ( $\pm$ 0.5)
Graminoid + Bryophyte	2141 ( $\pm$ 161)	1128 ( $\pm$ 84)	13.5 ( $\pm$ 1.9)	2.5 ( $\pm$ 0.2)
No vegetation	2020 ( $\pm$ 306)	1065 ( $\pm$ 157)	16.8 ( $\pm$ 1.6)	3.4 ( $\pm$ 0.5)
<b><i>Warmed</i></b>				
Control	1901 ( $\pm$ 267)	1169 ( $\pm$ 235)	16.0 ( $\pm$ 0.9)	3.1 ( $\pm$ 0.2)
Shrub only	2331 ( $\pm$ 166)	1216 ( $\pm$ 98)	10.7 ( $\pm$ 1.9)	2.2 ( $\pm$ 0.7)
Graminoid only	2096 ( $\pm$ 149)	1108 ( $\pm$ 81)	11.7 ( $\pm$ 0.8)	3.0 ( $\pm$ 0.4)
Bryophyte only	1900 ( $\pm$ 56)	1026 ( $\pm$ 31)	9.2 ( $\pm$ 1.8)	2.1 ( $\pm$ 0.6)
Shrub + Graminoid	1722 ( $\pm$ 240)	951 ( $\pm$ 123)	16.8 ( $\pm$ 1.0)	3.0 ( $\pm$ 0.8)
Shrub + Bryophyte	1531 ( $\pm$ 104)	789 ( $\pm$ 51)	15.8 ( $\pm$ 3.2)	3.6 ( $\pm$ 1.3)
Graminoid + Bryophyte	2376 ( $\pm$ 134)	1302 ( $\pm$ 83)	17.2 ( $\pm$ 0.8)	3.7 ( $\pm$ 0.5)
No vegetation	2502 ( $\pm$ 336)	1363 ( $\pm$ 145)	13.7 ( $\pm$ 0.8)	3.6 ( $\pm$ 0.4)

623



624 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

625 **Figure 1. Net ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange from the plant manipulation and warming**

626 **experiment.** Data are means (mg CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup>) for all sampling dates +/- standard error.

627 White bars are for non-warmed and black bars are for warmed experimental field plots. Data

628 are split between: growing season of May to September (left), and non-growing season of

629 October to April (right). Negative values represent a net sink and positive values represent a

630 net source for CO<sub>2</sub>.

631

632 **Figure 2. Ecosystem respiration from the plant manipulation and warming experiment.**

633 Data are means (mg CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup>) for all sampling dates +/- standard error. White bars are

634 for non-warmed and black bars are for warmed experimental field plots. Data are split

635 between: growing season of May to September (left), and non-growing season of October to

636 April (right).

637

638 **Figure 3. Methane flux from the plant manipulation and warming experiment.** Data are

639 means (mg CH<sub>4</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup>) for all sampling dates +/- standard error. White bars are for non-

640 warmed and black bars are for warmed experimental field plots. Data are split between:

641 growing season of May to September (left), and non-growing season of October to April

642 (right).

643

644 **Figure 4. Nitrous oxide flux from the plant manipulation and warming experiment.**

645 Data are means (mg N<sub>2</sub>O m<sup>-2</sup> hr<sup>-1</sup>) for all sampling dates +/- standard error. White bars are

646 for non-warmed and black bars are for warmed experimental field plots. Data are split

647 between: growing season of May to September (left), and non-growing season of October to

648 April (right).







