



1 Vulnerability of soil organic matter of anthropogenically disturbed

2 organic soils

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16 Abstract

17 Drained peatlands are hotspots of carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions from agriculture. As a consequence of both drainageinduced mineralisation and anthropogenic mixing with mineral soils, large areas of former peatlands under agricultural use 18 19 now contain soil organic carbon (SOC) at the boundary between mineral and organic soils and/or underwent a secondary 20 transformation of the peat (e.g. formation of aggregates). However, low carbon organic soils have rarely been studied since 21 previous research has mainly focused on either mineral soils or true peat soils. The aim of the present study was to evaluate 22 the soil organic matter (SOM) vulnerability of the whole range of organic soils including very carbon rich mineral soils (73 g 23 $kg^{-1} < SOC < 569 g kg^{-1}$) and to identify indicators for mineralisation of such anthropogenically disturbed organic soils. 24 Using a large sample pool from the German Agricultural Soil Inventory, 91 soil samples were selected covering a broad 25 range of soil and site characteristics. Fen and bog samples were grouped into disturbance classes according to their pedogenetic features. Potential CO₂ production by aerobic incubation was then measured. Specific basal respiration rates 26 (SBR) per unit SOC showed the highest potential emissions for heavily disturbed fen $(12.1 \pm 5.0 \ \mu g \ CO_2-C \ g \ SOC^{-1} \ h^{-1})$ and 27 moderately disturbed bog samples (10.3 \pm 5.2 μ g CO₂-C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹). Surprisingly, SOM vulnerability increased with an 28 29 increasing degree of disturbance and a decreasing SOC content, indicating positive feedback mechanisms as soon as peat soils are disturbed by drainage. Furthermore, with increasing degree of disturbance the variability of the SBR increased 30 31 drastically, but correlations between soil properties and SBR could not be identified. Respiration rates increased more 32 strongly with an increasing degree of disturbance in bog than in fen samples. Peat properties that positively influenced the turnover of SOM in less disturbed soil samples were mainly pH value and nitrogen content, while phosphorus was important 33 34 for the mineralisation of increasingly disturbed samples and bog peat in general. Furthermore, a narrow carbon-to-nitrogen ratio correlated strongly with potential emissions. Given the high potential of CO_2 emissions from organic soils with a low 35 SOC content, mixing with mineral soil does not seem to be a promising option for decreasing emissions. 36





37 1 Introduction

38 Organic soils worldwide cover approximately 330 million ha or 2.2 % of the global terrestrial surface. One third of this area 39 is in Europe (Tubiello et al., 2016), corresponding to 3 % of the European landmass (Montanarella et al., 2006). Despite the 40 small extent of this area, peatlands store more than one third of global soil organic carbon (SOC) (Gorham, 1991). Moreover, 41 intact peatlands under waterlogged conditions are ongoing carbon (C) sinks in that their mineralisation rates are lower than 42 their biomass production rates (Clymo et al., 1998). Large areas of peatland are drained for agriculture, forestry and peat 43 mining for energy and horticulture. To date 25.5 million ha of peatlands worldwide have been drained for agriculture alone, of which around 60 % are in the boreal or temperate zone (Tubiello et al., 2016). The majority of the drained peatlands in 44 45 Russia, Belarus, Ukraine, Poland, the Netherlands and Germany are used for agricultural purposes, primarily as grassland (Joosten and Clarke, 2002). These anthropogenic impacts lead to a disturbance of the peatlands' hydrological and 46 biogeochemical cycles, e.g. to the destabilisation of the soil organic matter (SOM) (Holden et al., 2004). Thus drainage turns 47 48 peatlands into net greenhouse gas (GHG) sources, which emit large amounts of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and nitrous oxide 49 (N_2O) (Maljanen et al., 2010; Tiemeyer et al., 2016).

50 Furthermore, drainage alters physical and chemical peat properties considerably. The loss of buoyancy following drainage 51 leads to compaction and thus to an increase in bulk density and decrease in total porosity (Rovdan et al., 2002). Compaction 52 and mineralisation jointly cause subsidence of the soil surface. Mineralisation and transformation of SOM lead to the 53 formation of aggregates, shrinkage cracks, earthification and finally to the formation of a dusty, fine-grained ("moorshy") 54 horizon (e.g. Ilnicki and Zeitz, 2003). Consequently, the majority of topsoils of drained agricultural peatlands show a von 55 Post decomposition degree of H10 (von Post, 1924).

56 Drainage favours carbon over nitrogen (N) mineralisation and microbial N immobilisation during decomposition. Thus, the 57 concentrations of N increase, and both the C concentration and C:N-ratio decrease with increasing degrees of SOM 58 decomposition, especially in the topsoil (Wells and Williams, 1996). Phosphorus (P) concentrations usually increase after 59 drainage, while potassium (K), calcium (Ca) and iron (Fe) concentrations decrease (Sundström et al., 2000; Wells and 50 Williams, 1996; Zak et al., 2010). As aerobic decomposers preferably use the lighter ¹²C for respiration, the remaining peat 51 is enriched in ¹³C (Ågren et al., 1996). Similarly, drained peatlands are depleted in ¹⁴N and show increases in δ^{15} N values

- 62 (Krüger et al., 2015).
- Besides drainage, the conversion from pristine peatlands to agricultural land can comprise the active enrichment of the mineral soil fraction in the top peat layer in order to enhance trafficability. This can be achieved by mixing with mineral soil layers underlying the peat (deep ploughing) or by surface application of mineral soil with or without subsequent ploughing (Göttlich, 1990; Okruszko, 1996). As a consequence of both drainage-induced mineralisation and anthropogenic mineral soil
- 67 mixing, especially the topsoils of large areas of former peatlands under agricultural use contain SOC at concentrations
- 68 between those of mineral and organic soils (Schulz and Waldeck, 2015).





As previous investigations mainly have focused either on mineral (< 150 g SOM kg⁻¹ according to the German definition, 69 Ad-Hoc-AG Boden, 2005) or "true" peat soils (> 300 g SOM kg⁻¹), there are very few studies on soil properties or SOM 70 dynamics of "low C organic soils" (between 150 and 300 g SOM kg⁻¹). However, measurements of GHG emissions in the 71 field have shown that organic soils with a SOC content of around 100 g kg⁻¹ still emit large amounts of CO₂ similar to the 72 levels emitted by "true" peat soils (Leiber-Sauheitl et al., 2014; Tiemeyer et al., 2016). This is rather surprising as the 73 74 remaining organic matter should not be readily available for mineralisation, given that the SOC content at this stage of 75 decomposition is fairly low and CO₂ emissions and SOC content are closely related in mineral soils (Don et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2003). However, only a few field studies have been carried out and there is therefore very limited knowledge about the 76 77 separate effects of climate, hydrology and soil properties. The reasons behind the relatively high CO_2 emissions of the whole 78 continuum of organic soils, including those bordering mineral ones, are not yet clear. Peat properties and SOM quality obviously influence the CO₂ emissions of disturbed peatlands (Brouns et al., 2016; Laiho, 2006), but there is a lack of any 79 80 systematic evaluation of the vulnerability of a wide range of organic soils, including strongly disturbed ones.

The aims of this study, were i) to assess the sensitivity of SOM from anthropogenically disturbed organic soils under agricultural use to mineralisation under aerobic conditions and ii) to determine the indicators and drivers of the vulnerability of SOM. In this context, disturbance was defined as the effect of soil-forming processes induced by drainage and/or by the mixing of peat with mineral soil. For this purpose, 91 samples of soils were examined under cropland and grassland from across Germany, ranging from carbon-rich mineral soil (70 g SOC kg⁻¹) to "true" peatlands (up to 560 g SOC kg⁻¹). As a simulation of the potential effects of drainage, all the samples were aerobically incubated in the laboratory at standardised water content.

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89 2 Material and Methods

90 2.1 Sample selection

91 The samples used in this study came from the German Agricultural Soil Inventory, the aim of which is to improve 92 understanding of SOC stocks in agricultural soils. During the soil inventory, agricultural soils in Germany were sampled 93 following standardised protocols in an 8x8 km grid (> 3,000 sites) at seven depth increments per soil pit (10, 30, 50, 70, 100, 94 150 and 200 cm). All the samples were analysed for SOC and bulk density, as well as for basic explanatory soil properties (Table 1, see section 2.2). 91 samples of organic soil horizons from 67 sites were selected. The basic criteria were a SOC 95 96 content > 70 g kg⁻¹ and a sampling depth > 10 cm to reduce the influence of potential root biomass residues in the samples. 97 Roots have generally been separated by hand, but this might be challenging in organic soils. The final sample selection was 98 based on a cluster analysis to optimally cover the total parameter range, as well as land use, peat type (bog/fen) and geographical position. The selected samples included croplands (19%) and grasslands (81%), which correspond to the 99 dominant agricultural land use of organic soils in Germany. In addition to the 91 samples, ten samples of three 100 anthropogenically undisturbed peatlands (bog, transition bog and fen) were sampled. 101

102 **Table 1:** Soil properties of the selected soil samples as medians and standard errors. Standard parameters measured in the German 103 Agricultural Soil Inventory: SOC: soil organic carbon content, N_t: total nitrogen content, CaCO₃: calcium carbonate content, C:N-ratio: 104 carbon to nitrogen ratio, ρ : bulk density, pH-value, texture (* only determined for samples with SOC < 172 g kg⁻¹). Additional parameters 105 of this study: Fe₀: oxalate extractable iron oxide content, P_{CAL}: calcium acetate lactate (CAL) extractable phosphorus content, δ^{13} C and 106 δ^{15} N.

Parameter	Median	Min.	Max.	
SOC (g kg ⁻¹)	257.0 ± 15.5 73.4		568.9	
$N_t (g kg^{-1})$	11.7 ± 0.8	2.9	36.5	
$CaCO_3 (g kg^{-1})$	0.0 ± 1.2	0.0	580.0	
C:N-ratio	18.0 ± 1.2	9.9	72.6	
ρ (g cm ⁻³)	0.30 ± 0.03	0.07	0.99	
pH CaCl ₂	4.9 ± 0.1	2.5	7.4	
Sand content (%)*	44.7 ± 4.9	2.5	87.9	
Silt content (%)*	25.8 ± 2.5	6.4	62.1	
Clay content (%)*	20.9 ± 3.1	3.9	62.8	
$\operatorname{Fe}_{O}(\operatorname{g}\operatorname{kg}^{-1})$	11.8 ± 1.7	0.4	108.3	
$P_{CAL} (mg kg^{-1})$	12.4 ± 5.9	0.4	365.6	
δ ¹³ C (‰)	$\textbf{-28.14} \pm 0.10$	-30.42	-25.47	
δ^{15} N (‰)	2.05 ± 0.24	-2.55	11.23	





107 2.2 Soil properties

- 108 Concentrations of total C and N (N_t), as well as the total inorganic carbon content for samples with carbonate ($pH_{CaCl2} > 6.2$), 109 were measured by dry combustion (RC 612, LECO Corporation, St. Joseph, USA).
- 110 Stable isotope analysis (δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N) was performed using a mass spectrometer coupled with an elemental analyser
- 111 (Isoprime 100 and Vario Isotope, Elementar, Hanau, Germany) via a continuous flow system. Samples containing carbonates
- 112 underwent a carbonate destruction (volatilisation method) on the basis of Hedges and Stern (1984) and Harris et al. (2001)
- 113 prior to isotope analysis. The isotope ratios are expressed in per mill, δ^{13} C relative to VPDB standard and δ^{15} N relative to
- 114 atmospheric nitrogen standard.
- 115 Poorly crystalline and organically-bound iron oxides (Fe₀) were extracted with an acidic ammonium oxalate solution. The
- 116 extraction took place in the dark to avoid photo-reduction of ferrous iron oxides (Schwertmann, 1964). The concentration of
- 117 extracted Fe_o was measured by atomic absorption spectrometry (AA-280FS, Varian, Palo Alto, USA).
- 118 Plant-available concentrations of phosphorus were determined by calcium acetate lactate (CAL) extraction (Schüller, 1969).
- 119 P_{CAL} concentrations were measured using the molybdenum blue method (Murphy and Riley 1962).
- 120 The fractions of the texture classes sand, silt and clay were quantified by a semi-automated sieve-pipette machine (Sedimat
- 121 4-12, UGT, Müncheberg, Germany) after aggregate destruction and the removal of salt and SOM using H₂O₂ (Vos et al.,
- 122 2016). Undisturbed soil samples in rings were dried at 105 °C until constant mass and subsequently weighed to determine
- 123 bulk density (ρ). The pH values were measured using 0.01 mol/L CaCl₂ and a glass electrode. Electrical conductivity (EC)
- 124 was determined in a water solution.

125 2.3 Incubation experiments: Basal respiration and substrate-induced respiration

126 The soil samples were incubated aerobically under optimum moisture and constant temperature (23 °C) conditions to

- 127 determine basal soil respiration (BR) and substrate-induced respiration (SIR), which was used to calculate microbial biomass
- 128 (Anderson and Domsch, 1978).
- 129 The dried (40 °C) and 2 mm sieved soil samples were moistened to a standardised water content of 60 % water-filled pore 130 space. The apparent porosity of the dried and sieved sample was determined from the bulk density of the loose sample. The 131 necessary amount of water to reach 60 % water-filled pore space was then applied to the soil samples under continuous stirring to ensure uniform rewetting. Afterwards, the moistened samples were stored in darkness under aerobic conditions for 132 7 days at 6 °C and then for a further 7 days at 23 °C for pre-incubation. On day 14, the soil samples were prepared for 133 134 incubation in a semi-automatic incubation device using its flow-through mode (Heinemeyer et al., 1989). Three replicates 135 (20 g dry wt.) of each sample were put loosely in acrylic glass tubes (4 cm diameter) and enclosed at both ends with polystyrene foam stoppers. Humidified ambient air flowed through 24 independent lines containing the soil samples at flow 136
- 137 rates between 160 and 180 ml min⁻¹. An infrared CO₂ gas analyser (ADC-255-MK3, Analytical Development Co. Ltd.,





- 138 Hoddesdon, UK) was used to measure CO₂ concentrations. Each replicate sample was measured hourly over an incubation
- 139 time of at least 40 h or until a relatively constant BR was reached (up to 90 h).
- 140 Afterwards soil samples were amended with a mixture of 100 mg glucose and 100 mg talcum using an electronic stir for 30 s
- 141 to determine the active microbial biomass using the SIR method. The mixture was then incubated again for 6 h to obtain the
- 142 maximal initial respiratory response of the microbial biomass (Anderson et al., 1995).

143 2.4 Data analysis

144 Statistical analysis was performed using the R software environment (version R-3.1.3, R Core Team, 2015).

145 **2.4.1 Determination of basal soil respiration**

146 The measured BR is expressed as $\mu g \operatorname{CO}_2$ -C g soil⁻¹ h⁻¹ and the specific basal respiration (SBR) is normalised by the 147 sample's SOC content into $\mu g \operatorname{CO}_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹. An exponential model was fitted simultaneously to all three incubation

- 148 replicates to determine the equilibrium values of the SBR (Figure):
- 149 $CO_2 C(t) = a (a SBR) (1 e^{-k * t}),$ (1)
- 150 where CO₂-C (t) $[\mu g CO_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹] is the specific CO₂ production per hour, $a [\mu g CO_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹] is the initial
- 151 respiration and k [h⁻¹] is the change rate of SBR.
- 152 To achieve an objective quantification of the (specific) basal respiration and its uncertainty, the R package "dream" was used 153 (Guillaume and Andrews, 2012), which is based on the iterative Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach. This 154 method is basically a Markov chain that generates a random walk through the high-probability-density region in the parameter space, separating behavioural from non-behavioural solutions following the probability distribution (Vrugt et al., 155 156 2009b). The differential evolution adaptive metropolis (DREAM) algorithm is an efficient MCMC sampler that runs 157 multiple Markov chains simultaneously for global exploration of the parameter space. In doing so, DREAM uses a differential algorithm for population evolution and a metropolis selection rule to decide whether a population of candidate 158 159 points is accepted or not. After the burn-in period, the convergence of individual chains is checked using the Gelman and Rubin (1992) convergence criterion, which examines the variance between and within chains (Vrugt et al., 2008, 2009a). 160
- 161 Once the convergence criterion of Gelman and Rubin was < 1.01, another 500,000 simulations were run to determine the
- 162 posterior probability density functions of the model parameters, which were used to calculate the median and the 2.5 and 163 97.5 % quantiles.
- 164 For the evaluation of the SIR experiment, the value of the maximum initial respiratory response was identified manually and
- 165 then transcribed to microbial biomass (SIR- C_{mic}) [µg g⁻¹ soil] as follows (Kaiser et al., 1992):
- 166 SIR- $C_{mic} = \mu l CO_2 g^{-1} soil * 30.$

- (2)
- 167 To quantify the efficiency of microbial respiration per unit biomass, the metabolic or respiratory quotient $q(CO_2)$ [mg CO₂-168 C h⁻¹ g⁻¹ biomass SIR-C_{mic}] was calculated by dividing the BR by the SIR-C_{mic} (Anderson and Domsch, 1985):



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(3)

170 The higher the value of $q(CO_2)$, the higher the CO_2 emissions per unit microbial biomass, indicating a lack of available C for 171 metabolism in the soil.

172 2.4.2 Degree of disturbance

 $q(CO_2) = \frac{BR}{SIR - C_{mic}/1000}$

173 The present classification of anthropogenic disturbance is based on the mapped soil horizons from which the samples originated. The soil horizons and the degree of decomposition after von Post were mapped according to the German manual 174 175 of soil mapping (Ad-Hoc-AG Boden, 2005). While the original von Post scale was developed for undrained peat, the 176 German classification frequently uses the von Post scale for drained peat as well. The samples of peatland genesis were 177 divided into five different disturbance classes according to the severity of disturbance and (Table 2, based on Ilnicki and Zeitz (2003) and Ad-Hoc-AG Boden (2005)): no disturbance (D0F/D0B), slight disturbance (D1F/D1B), moderate 178 179 disturbance (D2F/D2B), strong disturbance (D3F) and heavy disturbance (D4F). Slightly disturbed horizons experience 180 drainage and are influenced by a fluctuating water table, thus they are temporarily subjected to aerobic conditions but there has not vet been a secondary transformation of the peat structure. Earthified topsoils are defined as "moderately disturbed". 181 182 Strong disturbance is characterised by blocky to prismatic aggregates and/or the formation of shrinkage cracks, and is only found in subsoils. In the present sample set, this level of disturbance only occurred in fen peat. Finally, both highly 183 decomposed dusty "moorsh" and mixtures of peat and mineral soil have been defined as "heavily disturbed". This class also 184 185 only occurred in fen peat. Overall there are five fen classes, three bog classes, and one class each for gyttja (organic or 186 calcareous sediments) and other samples. Samples from the class other were organic marsh soils or could not be assigned to 187 any disturbance class (e.g. buried organic soils). For further information see Table A1 in the appendix. Given that this classification was developed after the sample selection, the distribution among the groups is not uniform. The von Post scale 188 189 from H1 to H10 was altered by adding H11 for low C organic soils deriving from peat. Gyttja and other remaining samples 190 were not included in the van Post scale.





191 Table 2: Classification of the anthropogenic disturbance and corresponding median and standard error of soil properties: SOC: soil organic carbon content, C:Nratio: carbon to nitrogen ratio, δ^{15} N, N_t: total nitrogen content, P_{CAL}: calcium acetate lactate (CAL) extractable phosphorus content, pH-value, EC: electrical conductivity, Fe₀: oxalate extractable iron content, ρ : bulk density 192

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Degree of disturbance	Description	Peatland type	Label	n	SOC (g kg ⁻¹)	C:N	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	N_t (g kg ⁻¹)	P _{CAL} (mg kg ⁻¹)	pH	EC (µS cm ⁻¹)	Fe ₀ (g kg ⁻¹)	ρ (g cm ⁻³)
No Pristine or disturbance nearly natura	Pristine or	Fen	D0F	12	462 ± 37	23 ± 3	0.3 ± 0.5	19.4 ± 2.6	7.9 ± 2.2	5.5 ± 0.4	140 ± 38	5.5 ± 1.1	0.13 ± 0.01
	nearly natural	Bog	D0B	9	521 ± 13	57 ± 8	1.2 ± 1.0	9.1 ± 2.4	5.7 ± 5.7	3.2 ± 0.1	92 ± 23	0.9 ± 1.7	0.10 ± 0.01
Alternatin; Slight aerobic- disturbance anaerobic conditions	Alternating aerobic-	Fen	D1F	9	426 ± 19	18 ± 4	1.2 ± 1.0	21.8 ± 2.0	6.6 ± 3.9	5.2 ± 0.4	282 ± 124	13.4 ± 2.7	0.20 ± 0.02
	conditions	Bog	D1B	5	473 ± 13	46 ± 7	0.5 ± 0.7	10.7 ± 1.5	41.8 ± 13.2	3.5 ± 0.1	70 ± 11	3.3 ± 2.8	0.12 ± 0.02
		_		_									
Moderate disturbance Earthif	Earthification	Fen	D2F	7	340 ± 32	17 ± 1	1.2 ± 0.6	21.0 ± 1.9	12.4 ± 8.6	5.2 ± 0.2	292 ± 276	21.0 ± 4.7	0.30 ± 0.05
		Bog	D2B	6	333 ± 52	23 ± 2	2.0 ± 0.5	14.2 ± 2.6	77.3 ± 27.0	3.8 ± 0.3	121 ± 10	9.3 ± 1.8	0.18 ± 0.10
Strong disturbance	Polyhedral aggregates or cracks	Fen	D3F	5	320 ± 19	14 ± 1	1.9 ± 0.5	24.0 ± 1.8	24.2 ± 19.9	5.6 ± 0.6	271 ± 55	24.4 ± 14.1	0.26 ± 0.07
Heavy disturbance	Dusty moorsh or high content of mineral soil	Fen	D4F	19	142 ± 12	14 ± 1	3.3 ± 0.4	10.0 ± 1.1	30.9 ± 24.5	5.4 ± 0.3	209 ± 153	19.6 ± 2.7	0.65 ± 0.05
Gyttja	Organic or calcareous sediments	-	G	12	100 ± 19	20 ± 3	1.7 ± 0.6	5.4 ± 0.7	14.2 ± 7.5	4.7 ± 0.4	253 ± 206	17.1 ± 9.1	0.51 ± 0.08
Other	e.g. organic marsh soils, buried horizons	-	0	17	124 ± 15	16 ± 2	3.5 ± 0.5	7.0 ± 0.7	11.3 ± 6.1	5.2 ± 0.3	124 ± 146	21.8 ± 3.9	0.54 ± 0.05

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195 2.4.3 Statistical and multivariate analysis

In a first step, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient r_s was evaluated for the specific basal respiration and all measured explanatory variables using the R package "Hmisc" (Harrell, 2016). The p-values were adjusted using the method after Bonferroni. Differences between the results of disturbance classes for BR, SBR, SIR-C_{mic} and q(CO₂) were determined using an analysis of variance. P-values were computed with the Tukey 'honest significant differences' test ($\alpha = 0.05$) and adjusted with the Bonferroni correction using the R package "multcomp" (Hothorn et al., 2008). Correlation coefficients were classified as follows: $0.3 \ge r_s \ge 0.7$ is a moderate correlation and $r_s > 0.7$ a strong correlation.

202 In a second step, multi-variate linear regression was applied to identify the most crucial factors and interactions influencing 203 the specific basal respiration. The generalised least squares (gls) model was used with the exponential variance structure following the protocol of Zuur et al. (2009) using the R package "nlme" (Pinheiro et al., 2015). The SBR was set as the 204 dependent variable, with the explanatory variables of SOC, N_t, C:N-ratio, P_{CAL}, carbonate (CaCO₃), pH, δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, Fe₀, ρ , 205 soil depth and EC as well as the categorical variables of the degree of decomposition (von Post, 1924), the degree of 206 207 disturbance and peatland type. Important meaningful interactions were also incorporated. To achieve homoscedasticity of residuals, the data of EC and P_{CAL} were log10 transformed and the C:N-ratio log-transformed. Applying the top-down 208 209 strategy for the model selection, the complete generalised least squares model was run first and variables stepwise removed 210 until all the variables were significant with a p-value < 0.001 obtained by t-statistics. To identify the best model, Akaike's information criterion (AIC) was compared with the full model for all calculated models after each parameter drop. 211 212 Afterwards, the best model was cross-validated using the "leave-one-site-out" approach.

213 All the results given below are medians with standard errors, unless otherwise stated.

214





215 **3** Results

216 **3.1 Vulnerability of SOM as determined by respiration rates**

For all classes, BR was highly variable, ranging from 0.3 to 7.0 μ g CO₂-C g soil⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Fig. 1a). The BR rates of fen samples decreased with an increasing degree of disturbance due to concomitantly decreasing SOC content (Table 2), while bog samples behaved inversely. Overall, bog samples (2.0 ± 0.3 μ g CO₂-C g soil⁻¹ h⁻¹) had similar BR rates to fen samples (2.5 ± 0.2 μ g CO₂-C g soil⁻¹ h⁻¹). *Gyttja* (1.3 ± 0.3 μ g CO₂-C g soil⁻¹ h⁻¹) and *other* samples (1.1 ± 0.2 μ g CO₂-C g soil⁻¹ h⁻¹) showed significantly lower BR rates than undisturbed, slightly and strongly disturbed fen samples (D0F, D1F, D3F).

Overall, fen samples had significantly higher (p < 0.01) average SBR rates of $8.3 \pm 0.7 \ \mu g \ CO_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹ than bog 222 samples (5.1 \pm 0.9 µg CO₂-C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹). This difference was especially clear for undisturbed and slightly disturbed 223 samples. SBR rates were also highly variable between and within classes, and ranging from 1.5 to 25.1 µg CO₂-C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻ 224 ¹ (Fig. 1b). SBR rates tended to increase with increasing soil disturbance for both fen and bog. D0B samples had significantly 225 lower (p < 0.01) SBR rates than the classes D4F, gyttja and other with $3.7 \pm 0.6 \ \mu g \ CO_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹. The moderately 226 227 disturbed D2B samples showed much higher SBR rates $(10.1 \pm 2.1 \ \mu g \text{ CO}_2\text{-C} \text{ g soil-SOC}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1})$ than the other two bog classes, and were comparable to strongly and heavily disturbed fen samples (D3F, D4F). Both gyttja and other showed high 228 and variable SBR rates with $14.2 \pm 2.4 \ \mu g \ \text{CO}_2$ -SOC g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹ and $10.8 \pm 1.5 \ \mu g \ \text{CO}_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹ respectively. 229

230 **3.2.** Organic matter quality and soil characteristics determining SOM vulnerability

The significant Spearman correlation coefficients indicated moderate positive correlations between SBR rates and phosphorus concentration ($r_s = 0.52$), pH value ($r_s = 0.42$), iron oxides ($r_s = 0.42$) and carbonate concentration ($r_s = 0.36$). Significant negative dependence was found between SBR and the C:N-ratio ($r_s = -0.62$) and SOC content ($r_s = -0.49$) (Fig. 2). The most influencing factors on SBR rates as indicated by the best fitted *gls* model were SOC, C:N-ratio, P_{CAL} and ρ (all p < 0.001). With these four parameters the cross-validated model explained 42 % of the variability of the measured SBR rates.

While the correlation matrix shown in Fig. 2 gives a general overview on potential explanatory variables, a closer look is taken at some selected variables and their interaction with the disturbance classes (Figs. 3 and 4).

Overall, the variability and magnitude of SBR rates increased with decreasing SOC content (Fig. 3a) and an increasing degree of decomposition (Fig. 3b). The rates were highest and most variable for soil samples with a low SOC content, comprising the D4F, *gyttja* and *other* samples. Within disturbance classes, the strength of the negative correlations between SBR and SOC content tended to increase with increasing disturbance for fen peat, but became slightly positive for heavily disturbed D4F samples (Fig. 4). In contrast, bog, *gyttja* and *other* samples showed only weak correlations between SBR and

244 SOC.







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Figure 1: a) Median of basal respiration (BR) rates and b) specific basal respiration (SBR) rates for all disturbance classes: F=fen, B=bog, 246 G=gyttja, O=other, D0=no disturbance, D1=slight disturbance, D2=moderate disturbance, D3=strong disturbance, D4=heavy disturbance. 247 248 Bars show the standard error. Different letters represent significant differences (Tukey's test, p < 0.05).

With increasing von Post values, SBR rates showed a significantly linear increase (p < 0.001, Fig. 3b). Soil samples with a 249

von Post decomposition degree of H3 and H7 had significantly lower (p < 0.05) SBR rates of $6.3 \pm 1.0 \ \mu g \ CO_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹ 250

and 7.8 \pm 0.8 μ g CO₂-C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹, respectively, than samples mapped as H10 (13.4 \pm 1.2 μ g CO₂-C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹). 251

With decreasing C:N-ratios, SBR rates increased in an exponential manner (Fig. 3c). However, when splitting the samples 252

into two groups at C:N = 25, there was no longer any correlation for any of the groups. Again, the highest and most variable 253

rates of $10.4 \pm 0.6 \,\mu g \, \text{CO}_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹ were measured for highly disturbed samples with low C:N ratios < 25, which 254

- mainly belong to all fen classes, gyttja, D2B and other (see Table 2). In contrast, samples with a C:N-ratio > 25 were bog 255
- 256 samples with low or minimal disturbance, which had significantly lower (p < 0.001) and less variable SBR rates of $4.1 \pm 0.6 \ \mu g \ CO_2$ -C g SOC⁻¹ h⁻¹. In detail, there was a strong negative correlation between SBR rates and the C:N-ratio for
- 257
- D0F ($r_s = -0.73$) and gyttja samples ($r_s = -0.85$, p < 0.05). Moderate correlations were found for other ($r_s = -0.56$), D1F ($r_s = -0.56$) 258
- 0.47), D2F ($r_s = -0.32$) and D0B ($r_s = -0.47$) but these correlations were not significant (Fig. 4). 259







260

Even though there was no general relationship between N_t and SBR rates (Fig. 3d), N_t concentrations were positively correlated with the respiration rates of the disturbance classes D0F ($r_s = 0.57$), D4F ($r_s = 0.37$), D0B ($r_s = 0.47$) and *gyttja* samples ($r_s = 0.55$) (Fig. 4). In contrast, the samples of D3F ($r_s = -0.6$) were negatively correlated.

268 There was a significant (p < 0.001) difference in δ^{15} N values between samples from undisturbed and disturbed horizons

- 269 (Fig. 3e). The mean values for undisturbed horizons were 0.0 ± 0.6 % (D0B) and -0.3 ± 0.4 % (D0F) respectively. All the
- 270 other disturbance classes showed higher δ^{15} N values up to 11.2 ‰, and a slight overall increase in SBR rates with increasing
- 271 δ^{15} N. However, mainly within (relatively) undisturbed classes, there were negative correlations between δ^{15} N and SBR rates
- 272 for D0B ($r_s = -0.5$), D1B ($r_s = -0.7$) and D3F ($r_s = -0.3$) (Fig. 4). In contrast, there were slightly positive correlations in the
- 273 case of heavily disturbed D4F samples ($r_s = 0.33$).
- 274 Overall, P_{CAL} showed significant positive correlations with the SBR rates (Fig. 2) and, furthermore, P_{CAL} was the explanatory
- 275 variable with the highest number of positive correlations with SBR over all disturbance classes. This is visualised by the

Figure 2: Significant (p < 0.05) correlation coefficients after Spearman for the specific basal respiration rates (SBR) as well as the determined specific microbial biomass (SIR-C_{mic}) and all determined soil properties: C:N-ratio: carbon to nitrogen ratio, P_{CAL}: calcium acetate lactate (CAL) extractable phosphorus content, SOC: soil organic carbon content, pH-value, Fe₀: oxalate extractable iron content, CaCO₃: calcium carbonate content, ρ : bulk density, EC: electrical conductivity, $\delta^{15}N$, N_i: total nitrogen content and $\delta^{13}C$





276 linear increase of SBR with P_{CAL} (Fig. 3f). In the case of bogs, the correlation increased with increasing disturbance (D0B: 277 $r_s = 0.42$, D1B: $r_s = 0.5$, D2B: $r_s = 0.77$, Fig. 4). Overall the bog samples ($r_s = 0.71$, p < 0.05) had a significantly strong 278 dependence and the fen samples ($r_s = 0.49$, p < 0.01) a significantly moderate dependence on P_{CAL} . The effect of the 279 disturbance class was less consistent in the case of fens compared to bogs, with the strongest correlation in D3F ($r_s = 1$, 280 p < 0.001).

- Considering all the samples, SBR rates increased linearly with increasing pH (Fig. 3g), reflecting the general differences between bogs and fens. This increase in SBR was most distinctive for D0F ($r_s = 0.85$, p < 0.05), D1B ($r_s = 0.5$) and *gyttja* samples ($r_s = 0.78$). The correlation with pH values was moderate for D0B ($r_s = 0.47$), *other* ($r_s = 0.37$) and D2F samples ($r_s = -0.46$), which were negatively correlated (Fig. 4). Overall, the SBR rates of bog samples correlated strongly with pH ($r_s = 0.74$, p < 0.05), even though bog samples covered only a small range (3.5 ± 0.1) of the overall pH values, whereas *other*
- samples had the widest range (5.2 ± 0.3) followed by *gyttja* (4.8 ± 0.4) and *fen* samples (5.6 ± 0.2) .
- The concentration of iron oxides had a linear positive relationship with SBR rates (Fig. 2), which was especially noticeable in the strong correlation with D2F samples ($r_s = 0.96$, p < 0.05). Furthermore, rates of D1F ($r_s = 0.37$), D1B ($r_s = 0.4$) and *other* samples ($r_s = 0.36$) showed moderate positive dependence on Fe₀ (Fig. 3h; Fig. 4). However, this effect was not systematic as the SBR rates of samples of disturbance class D3F ($r_s = -0.5$) were negatively correlated with iron concentration.









Figure 3: Specific basal respiration (SBR) rates of all samples classified in disturbance classes (F=fen, B=bog, G=gyttja, O=other, D0=no disturbance, D1=slight disturbance, D2=moderate disturbance, D3=strong disturbance, D4=heavy disturbance) versus (a) soil organic carbon content, (b) decomposition degree after von Post, (c) carbon-to-nitrogen ratio, (d) total nitrogen content, (e) $\delta^{15}N$, (f) calcium acetate lactate (CAL) extractable phosphorus content, (g) pH value, (h) oxalate extractable iron content. Bars in (a) show 2.5 and 97.5 % quantiles of the DREAM-fit.







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Figure 4: Correlation coefficients after Spearman (significant correlations (p < 0.05) are marked with asterisks) for the specific basal respiration rates separated into the disturbance classes (F=fen, B=bog, G=gyttja, O=other, D0=no disturbance, D1=slight disturbance, D2=moderate disturbance, D3=strong disturbance, D4=heavy disturbance) and soil properties: SOC: soil organic carbon content, C:Nratio: carbon to nitrogen ratio, δ^{15} N, N_t: total nitrogen content, P_{CAL}: calcium acetate lactate (CAL) extractable phosphorus content, pHvalue, Fe₀: oxalate extractable iron content, ρ : bulk density, as well as the determined specific microbial biomass (SIR-C_{mic})

304 3.3 Relation between microbial biomass and mineralisation rates

Overall, the specific microbial biomass (Fig. 5a) was positively correlated with SBR ($r_s = 0.75$) and thus followed a similar pattern to SBR (Fig. 1b) across disturbance classes: values were higher for fen samples than for bog samples and tended to increase with increasing disturbance, especially in the case of bog samples. There were strong positive correlations between SIR-C_{mic} and SBR for all disturbance classes (Fig. 4), except D2F ($r_s = 0.45$), which was moderately correlated with SIR-C_{mic} and D3F. Samples of the classes D2B ($r_s = 1$, p < 0.001) and *gyttja* ($r_s = 0.88$, p < 0.05) showed the highest dependencies. Overall, specific SIR-C_{mic} was highest for D4F samples (3249 ± 411 µg C g⁻¹ SOC) followed by D3F (2293 ± 612 µg C g⁻¹ SOC) and D2B samples (2265 ± 400 µg C g⁻¹ SOC). *Gyttja* (1907 ± 339 µg C g⁻¹ SOC) and *other* samples





- 312 $(1528 \pm 533 \ \mu g \ C \ g^{-1} \ SOC)$ had relatively high values of microbial specific SIR-C_{mic}, with the latter being the most variable
- 313 of all the groups.
- 314 Specific SIR-C_{mic} showed similar relationships with explanatory variables as SBR (Fig. 2).
- 315 There were no significant differences in the metabolic quotient between disturbance classes (Fig. 5b). The values of the
- 316 classes D0F, D1F, D2F, D4F and D2B were slightly lower than those of the other classes, and there was a slight tendency for
- 317 a decreasing metabolic quotient with increasing disturbance for bog samples.



318

Figure 5: a) Median of specific microbial biomass (SIR- C_{mic}) determined via substrate induced respiration (SIR) and b) metabolic quotient (q(CO₂)) for different disturbance classes: F=fen, B=bog, G=gyttja, O=other, D0=no disturbance, D1=slight disturbance, D2=moderate disturbance, D3=strong disturbance, D4=heavy disturbance. Bars show the standard error. Different letters represent significant differences (Tukey's test, p < 0.05)

323





324 4 Discussion

325 4.1 Enhanced SOM vulnerability to decomposition with increasing disturbance of peat

326 The most striking result of the present experiment was that specific basal respiration rates increased both in magnitude and 327 variability with increasing degradation and disturbance of the peat soils, irrespective of whether this degradation was 328 expressed as a von Post value, a disturbance class or SOC content (Figs. 3 and 4). This finding was best illustrated in the bog 329 samples and manifested itself in the more variable specific basal respiration rates with a smaller SOC content. Second, in 330 contrast to less disturbed peat samples, it proved to be practically impossible to describe the specific basal respiration or 331 specific microbial biomass for heavily disturbed fen samples with the set of explanatory variables used here (Fig. 4). In 332 contrast to specific basal respiration, it is noteworthy that the basal respiration rates tended to increase with increasing 333 disturbance for bog samples, while there was a significant decrease for fen samples, i.e. the effects of disturbance on total 334 basal respiration were soil specific (Fig. 1a).

335 Glatzel et al. (2004) refer to the importance of the von Post value as an indicator of CO_2 production, however they identified 336 a negative correlation. Similarly Ilnicki and Zeitz (2003) found lower CO₂ production rates for samples with a high degree of decomposition and the lowest rates for moorshy peat soils. However, Brake et al. (1999) found increasing specific basal 337 338 respiration rates for increasingly disturbed peat samples. The most probable reason for the discrepancies is that the von Post 339 scale was originally developed for natural peatlands, where strong decomposition is caused by age as well as climatic 340 conditions during peat formation and peatland development, and not by anthropogenic impacts. Due to the lack of better, 341 widely accepted indicators, the von Post scale is frequently applied to drained peatlands as well. Consequently, the naturally 342 strongly decomposed peat of the study of Glatzel et al. (2004) underwent a completely different pedogenesis than the 343 samples from the drained peatlands in the present study. With regard to the results of Ilnicki and Zeitz (2003), the high 344 variability in the specific basal respiration of the strongly disturbed samples in the present study also includes "moorshy" samples with low respiration rates. 345

The higher specific basal respiration rates of fen samples compared to bog samples of similar disturbance, has been observed in previous studies (e.g. Bridgham and Richardson, 1992; Urbanova and Barta, 2015) and was expected here. Generally, faster decomposition processes occur under minerotrophic conditions and in peat dominated by vascular plants (Blodau, 2002). Undisturbed bogs are characterised by a lack of nutrients, strong acidity and peat substrates that hinder rapid mineralisation due to their chemical composition (Urbanová and Bárta, 2014; Verhoeven and Liefveld, 1997).

It has been found that after drainage the microbial communities increase in richness and diversity in bogs, but in contrast decrease for fens (Urbanová and Bárta, 2015), indicating the high sensitivity of bogs to anthropogenic impacts. The same authors also found that fens and bogs become more similar after long-term drainage as their characteristic differences in biogeochemical properties and microbial composition reduce. This could explain our observation that strong disturbance diminished differences in specific basal respiration rates between bog and fen peat. Additionally, increased nutrient supply





(Wells and Williams, 1996) and effects of physical disturbance (Ross and Malcolm, 1988; Rovdan et al., 2002) might contribute to this effect. Furthermore disturbance might reactivate enzymes that were previously inactive, thus enhancing mineralisation rates under favourable conditions (Freeman et al., 1996, 2001). Freeman et al. (2001) found that the enzyme phenol oxidase has a tremendous effect on increasing the peat decomposition under aerobic conditions. These effects might cause the strong increase in specific basal respiration rates and specific microbial biomass values from undisturbed/slightly disturbed to moderately disturbed bog samples.

Surprisingly, *gyttja* and *other* organic soils showed similarly high specific basal respiration rates as the heavily disturbed peat samples. To the authors' knowledge, there are no studies that have determined the respiration rates of gyttja before, as gyttja soils are most often covered by peat soils. However, organic gyttja soils have similar physical soil properties to heavily disturbed peat, including high bulk density, a high degree of decomposition and low pore volume (Chmieleski, 2006). Intensive microbial processes in drained organic gyttja soils as well as the presence of easily degradable SOM (Chmieleski, 2006) could explain the high respiration rates.

368 Overall, the structural and chemical changes of the peat properties seems to cause destabilising positive feedback processes, 369 as shown in specific basal respiration and, in the case of bogs, the absolute values of respiration increase as well.

370 4.2 SOM quality as an indicator of SOM vulnerability

While SOM quality is closely linked to the mineralisation of SOM, there is no commonly accepted quality index for SOM 371 (Reiche et al., 2010). To characterise SOM quality, C:N-ratio, degree of decomposition and $\delta^{15}N$ stable isotope values were 372 373 used in this study, as they are all indicators of the transformation stage of organic matter (Bohlin et al., 1989; Glatzel et al., 2004; Krüger et al., 2014; Reiche et al., 2010). The results pointed to a faster turnover of SOM in samples with a narrow 374 375 C:N-ratio, especially in fen samples. Specific basal respiration rates increased rapidly with falling C:N-ratios below a 376 threshold value of 25 (Fig. 3c). However this may only be an effect of preferential C release during decomposition at sufficient N supply (Kuhry and Vitt, 1996), i.e. a narrow C:N-ratio is also a product of fast turnover. In contrast, wider C:N-377 ratios seem to indicate a more stable SOM pool. This indicates that there is surprisingly no increased stabilisation with 378 increased degradation due to selective preservation of more stable SOC components (Lehmann and Kleber, 2015) that are 379 unattractive for decay, such as waxes, polyphenols, lignins and tannins (Verhoeven and Liefveld, 1997). Low δ^{15} N values 380 381 appear to be a good indicator of undisturbed or fresh SOM, especially in bog peat, due to the lack of SOM turnover processes that usually result in ¹⁵N enrichment (Nadelhoffer et al., 1996). For the increasingly disturbed samples, the 382 correlation between specific basal respiration and $\delta^{15}N$ became positive (Fig. 4), indicating that increased microbial 383 384 transformation under aerobic conditions altered the stable isotope signature of SOM. Mineralisation will therefore result in both increased δ^{15} N values and increased respiration rates, making it difficult to distinguish between cause and effect. 385

386 Overall, the greater the disturbance, the harder it proved to be to find possible patterns of SOM quality parameters and 387 specific basal respiration, especially in the case of fen samples. One reason for this could be that chemical and physical





changes during decomposition differ between peat-forming plants (Bohlin et al., 1989), that can no longer be identified and are more diverse in bogs than in fens. Furthermore, the class of heavily disturbed fen samples combines samples which have been amended by mineral soil by different processes (e.g. ploughing, application from external sources, or natural sedimentation in riverine fens) and those which have become "moorshy", but were not amended. To disentangle different processes, a larger number of samples and more detailed information on the sites' history will be required in future studies. Finally, the DREAM-fits showed the largest uncertainty for some of the samples of the class D4F (Fig. 3a), which might have contributed to the difficulty in finding appropriate explanatory variables.

395 4.3 Nutrients and acidity as indicators of SOM vulnerability

396 Agriculturally used peats drained for a long time are often enriched in N and (labile) P concentrations (Laiho et al., 1998; 397 Schlichting et al., 2002; Sundström et al., 2000) due to ongoing mineralisation of SOM and sorption of the resulting inorganic P forms to Fe(III) compounds (Zak et al., 2010). As P is needed for microbial growth, a lack of labile phosphorus 398 399 limits the decomposition of SOM, and this limitation may be due to both low P contents as well as sorption and fixation of P 400 to iron, calcium or aluminium minerals (Wells and Williams, 1996). This was also the case in the present sample set (Table 2). The results of the present study show that plant-available phosphorus (P_{CAI}) was the most important explanatory 401 402 variable for specific basal respiration rates, especially for bog samples. This confirms the results of Brake et al. (1999) who 403 also found that P strongly correlates with the respiration rates of disturbed bog samples. Due to the low pH and iron concentrations, bogs are frequently P-limited (Verhoeven et al., 1990), which is reflected in the correlation between specific 404 405 basal respiration and P_{CAL} (Fig. 4) Depending on the iron concentration (Zak et al., 2010), deeper and less disturbed peat 406 layers are potentially threatened by enhanced P mobilisation and leaching.

407 Nitrogen concentrations only increased for moderately disturbed bog samples, and even decreased for heavily disturbed fen 408 samples compared to undisturbed or slightly disturbed samples (Table 2). This might be due to accelerated N-mineralisation (Williams and Wheatley, 1988) or increased immobilisation of N since peat plants are decomposed under increasing oxygen 409 supply and disturbance levels (Wells and Williams, 1996). As indicated by the correlations (Fig. 4) specific basal respiration 410 rates seem only to be positively influenced by N concentrations in the case of undisturbed samples and gyttja. Gyttja samples 411 412 are fairly undisturbed in most cases too, due to the soil depth. This might indicate a shift from N to P limitation in the course of degradation processes since ongoing mineralisation increases the N supply. Furthermore Toberman et al. (2015) found a 413 positive correlation between N and P content in Sphagnum peat, pointing to the important role of P availability in N fixation. 414 Beside nutrient impacts, there was also a positive correlation between specific basal respiration rates and the pH of gyttja, 415 undisturbed fen and bog and slightly disturbed bog samples, probably reflecting lower microbial activity in an acidic 416 417 environment (Fig. 5a). The present study's findings of a positive relationship between specific basal respiration rates and pH value of undisturbed, slightly and moderately disturbed peat samples (Figs. 2 and 3g) are in an apparent contradiction to 418 419 earlier reports that have detected a negative correlation (Ausec et al., 2009; Fisk et al., 2003). The authors explain the





420 negative relationship by a restricted efficiency of C metabolism of the microbial biomass in bogs due to the acidic 421 environment, which was however not the case in the present study's samples set (see section 4.4; Fig. 5b), and contradict the 422 common observation that bogs show higher respiration rates than fens (e.g. Bridgham and Richardson, 1992; Urbanova and 423 Barta, 2015). Although all three studies used undisturbed peatland sites, their samples had a smaller pH range and they only 424 sampled to a depth of 30 cm, instead of up to 200 cm as in the present study. This and the fact that a broader sampling site 425 basis was used here could explain the contrasting correlation. However, with increasing disturbance the influence of pH 426 diminishes in the present samples, possibly due to better nutrient availability and increased pH-values overall in bogs.

As already mentioned, it was impossible to identify any strong correlations between soil properties and specific basal 427 respiration or SIR-C_{mic} of heavily disturbed fens samples (D4F Fig. 4). Since these soils have a comparably low SOC content 428 429 $(142 \pm 12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}, \text{ Table 2})$, they have become increasingly similar to mineral soils. It could therefore be expected that 430 stabilisation mechanisms for SOM become more similar to mineral soils. However, Feo, which has been shown to be important for SOM stabilisation (Wagai and Mayer, 2007 and references therein), is of minor importance for specific basal 431 respiration, even for samples at the boundary of mineral and organic soils (Fig. 4). Furthermore, numerous studies have 432 433 shown SOM stabilisation on clay minerals (e.g. Hassink, 1997; Saidy et al., 2012; Six et al., 2016). However, there was no 434 correlation between clay content and specific basal respiration in the present set of samples, despite the wide range of clay 435 content in the heavily disturbed samples (5-50 %).

436 4.4 Microbial biomass and activity

437 The specific microbial biomass increased with the increasing degree of anthropogenic disturbance for both fen and bog 438 samples (Fig. 5a). This is surprising since highly degraded peat should be energetically less attractive for microorganisms 439 than well conserved peat (Fisk et al., 2003). The transition from anaerobic to aerobic conditions increases mineralisation 440 (Bridgham and Richardson 1992; Glatzel et al. 2004; Holden et al. 2004 and references therein), and therefore improves the 441 availability of nutrients as well as readily available SOM since fertilisation causes changes in the community and in the amount of microbial biomass (Amador and Jones, 1993; Brouns et al., 2016). This is reflected in positive correlations of 442 specific microbial biomass with pH value and negative correlations with C:N-ratios. The metabolic quotient, i.e. the ratio of 443 444 basal respiration and microbial biomass, indicates the efficiency of microorganisms to transform SOM into microbial 445 biomass. Overall, there were no significant differences in the metabolic quotient between disturbances classes (Fig. 5b). However, gyttja and other samples have a high potential of respiring CO₂ although they have low microbial biomass and 446 SOC contents. In contrast, the slight tendency towards lower metabolic quotients of strongly disturbed bog and fen samples 447 compared to undisturbed samples indicate that these microorganisms are more efficient at using SOM for growth. Although 448 449 the metabolic quotients were lower compared to the undisturbed samples, the high amount of microbial active biomass and 450 the high specific respiration rates point towards accelerated mineralisation rates in the strongly and heavily disturbed peat 451 samples.





452 **4.5** Implications for peatland management

453 The high specific basal respiration rates of heavily disturbed samples confirm the vulnerability of "low C organic soils" that has already been identified in field studies (Leiber-Sauheitl et al., 2014; Tiemeyer et al., 2016). Potential emissions do not 454 reach a constant level, and do not always decrease or stop with increasing disturbance. The SOC content below which such 455 456 soils behave like mineral soils does not seem to be within the studied SOC range. However, there were heavily disturbed samples in this present study that showed low potential emissions which agrees with the finding that the variability of CO_2 457 458 emissions from "low C organic soils" field studies is high. Therefore mixing organic soil with mineral soil does not seem to 459 mitigate respiration rates by the potential stabilisation effect of clay, but on average increases the vulnerability of SOM. 460 However, for specific samples the respiration rates are still rather unpredictable. By ploughing mineral soil into the peat 461 layer, a whole new soil horizon develops, that may include modified microbial communities and potentially fresh SOM after disaggregation of the peat takes place (Ross and Malcolm, 1988). Applying N and especially P fertilisers on peatlands might 462 463 increase the specific basal respiration rates (Amador and Jones, 1993), because lower respiration rates of less disturbed peat 464 samples might be primarily caused by their nutrient limitation. However, it should be stressed that additional experiments 465 that could provide clearer answers to such questions were not carried out. Similarly, liming of acidy peat soils might have a 466 similar effect because increasing the pH value generates favourable microbial conditions for decomposition (Andersson and Nilsson, 2001; Fuentes et al., 2006). Finally, degradation of the topsoil might even influence the mineralisation of deeper 467 468 peat layers due to leaching of nutrients and dissolved organic matter. Rising water tables may prevent further decomposition 469 and reinstate the typical peatland environment, however severe disturbance might have a long-lasting effect on the biogeochemistry of rewetted peatlands. 470





471 **5** Conclusions

472 This study examined the vulnerability of SOM of organic soils to decomposition by determining the specific basal respiration rates under aerobic conditions in the laboratory. It was shown that the specific basal respiration increased in 473 magnitude and variability with increasing disturbance, and that it was at its highest and most variable at the boundary 474 475 between mineral and organic soils. At this boundary heavily degraded organic soil or peat soils mixed with mineral soil prevailed, and therefore it was surprising that a decreasing trend of specific basal respiration with higher SOC was identified. 476 477 Furthermore, bog samples seemed to be more sensitive to anthropogenic disturbance than fen samples as indicated by a stronger increase of specific respiration rates with increasing disturbance. Overall, the most important indicators for the 478 479 vulnerability of SOM identified in the present study were narrow C:N-ratios, higher pH-values, lower SOC content, and 480 higher concentrations of available phosphorus. There seems to be a positive feedback loop of disturbance and increased 481 mineralisation. However no explanation could be found for the very variable specific basal respiration of heavily disturbed 482 ("moorshy") fen peat and mineral soil-peat mixtures. For these types of soils, more sophisticated indicators of vulnerability 483 still need to be identified. Given the continued drainage and disturbance of peatlands and the considerable potential of CO_2 484 emissions from heavily disturbed organic soil presented here, future research needs to be concentrated on identifying 485 hotspots within these very heterogeneous soils for correctly targeting mitigation measures. Furthermore mixing peat with mineral soils does not seem to be a promising option to mitigate emissions. 486





487 Data availability

488 Results of the incubation experiment and the soil properties of the samples are available as supplementary data.





489 Appendix A



490

491 **Figure A1:** Specific CO₂ production of three incubation replicates over time. Corresponding median including quantiles (2.5 and 97.5 %)

492 and the equilibrium value of the SBR, as determined by the exponential model





Table A1: Classification of the degree of disturbance with corresponding soil horizons and description (Ad-Hoc-AG Boden, 2005; TGL
24300/04 in Succow and Joosten, 2001); abbreviations of soil horizons according to KA5 (Ad-Hoc-AG Boden, 2005)

Degree of disturbance	Soil horizon*	Description
No disturbance	Hr	Permanently saturated and anaerobic ("reduced") conditions, not altered by secondary pedogenetic processes, peat substrates can be identified. "Undisturbed horizons" may not be confused with "undisturbed peatlands" as such horizons may appear at greater depth of drained sites.
Slight disturbance	Hw	Alternating saturated-unsaturated conditions and thus temporarily subjected to aerobic conditions, peat structure not yet altered by secondary pedogenetic processes.
Moderate disturbance	Hv	Topsoil horizon of moderately drained sites, earthified, crumbly structure caused by aerobic decomposition, plant residuals not visible anymore, not dusty when dry.
Strong disturbance	Ht, Ha	Subsoil horizon of intensively drained sites, polyhedral aggregates caused by swelling and shrinkage, crumbly when dry (Ha) OR prismatic aggregates with vertical cracks (Ht) as transition horizon to underlying peat. Aggregate and shrinkage horizons have been combined in this class due to the very low number ($n = 2$) of shrinkage horizons in our sample set.
Heavy disturbance	Hm, Aa, Hvp	Topsoil horizon of intensively drained sites, "moorshy", dusty or small-grained structure when dry, intensive aerobic decomposition, plant residuals not visible anymore ("Mulm") OR horizons with a high content of mineral soil due to ploughing, mineralization, anthropogenic addition from external sources, or addition from natural sources (sedimentation in riverine fens or translocation by wind). All earthified ploughed horizons (Hvp) in our dataset had a low SOC content pointing to mixing with mineral soil and were thus classified as "heavily disturbed". Due to the strongly disturbed conditions of these topsoils, it was impossible to distinguish between the underlying different processes.
Gyttja	fF	Organic or calcareous lacustrine sediments mainly in terrestrialization peatlands. Due to the lack of an English translation of the German term "Mudde", the term "gyttja" was used here for all these sediments, although it describes calcareous sediments only in the German classification system.
Other	e.g.	Organic marsh soils, buried horizons, horizons without peatland genesis, but with SOC $>$ 8%.

^{495 *}Basic horizon symbols without additional geogenetic or pedogenetic attributes or combined horizons, for details see supplementary data S1





496 Competing interests

497 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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