



Nutrient release and flux dynamics of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O in a coastal peatland driven by actively induced rewetting with brackish water from the Baltic Sea

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Abstract. The rewetting of drained peatlands supports long-term nutrient removal in addition to reducing emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and nitrous oxide (N₂O). However, rewetting may lead to short-term nutrient leaching into adjacent water and high methane (CH₄) emissions. The consequences of rewetting with brackish water on nutrient and greenhouse gas
15 (GHG) fluxes remain unclear, although beneficial effects such as lower CH₄ emissions seem likely. Therefore, we studied the actively induced rewetting of a coastal peatland with brackish water, by comparing pre- and post-rewetting data from the peatland and the adjacent bay.

Both the potential transport of nutrients into adjacent coastal water and the shift of GHG fluxes (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) accompanying the change from drained to inundated conditions were analyzed based on measurements of the surface water
20 concentrations of nutrients (dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), phosphate (PO₄³⁻)), oxygen (O₂), components of the CO₂ system, CH₄, and N₂O together with manual closed-chamber measurements of GHG fluxes.

Our results revealed higher nutrient concentrations in the rewetted peatland than in the adjacent bay, indicating that nutrients leached out of the peat and were exported to the bay. A comparison of DIN concentrations of the bay with those of an unaffected reference station showed a significant increase after rewetting. The total nutrient export out of the peatland
25 ranged between 12.5 and 36.5 t yr⁻¹ for DIN-N and 0.2 ± 0.5 t yr⁻¹ for PO₄-P.

The peatland was also a source of GHG in the first year after rewetting. However, the spatial and temporal variability decreased and high CH₄ emissions, as reported for freshwater rewetting, did not occur. CO₂ fluxes decreased slightly from 0.29 ± 0.74 g m⁻² h⁻¹ (pre-rewetting) to 0.26 ± 0.29 g m⁻² h⁻¹ (post-rewetting). The availability of organic matter (OM) and dissolved nutrients were likely the most important drivers of continued CO₂ production. Pre-rewetting CH₄
30 fluxes ranged from 0.13 ± 1.01 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (drained land site) to 11.4 ± 37.5 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (ditch). After rewetting, CH₄ fluxes on the formerly dry land increased by 1 order of magnitude (1.74 ± 7.59 mg m⁻² h⁻¹), whereas fluxes from the former ditch



decreased to $8.5 \pm 26.9 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. These comparatively low CH_4 fluxes can likely be attributed to the suppression of methanogenesis by the available O_2 and sulfate, which serve as alternative electron acceptors. The post-rewetting N_2O flux was low, with an annual mean of $0.02 \pm 0.07 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$.

35 Our results suggest that rewetted coastal peatlands could account for high, currently unmonitored nutrient inputs into adjacent coastal water, at least on a short time scale such as a few years. However, rewetting with brackish water may decrease GHG emissions and might be favored over freshwater rewetting in order to reduce CH_4 emissions.

1. Introduction

Pristine peatlands are natural sinks for nutrients, in particular nitrate (NO_3^-), and greenhouse gases (GHG) such as carbon dioxide (CO_2) and nitrous oxide (N_2O) (Strack, 2008; Kaat and Joosten, 2009). Globally, peatlands store up to 550 Gt of carbon (C), which is twice the C stock of total forest biomass (Moore et al., 1998; Joosten and Clarke, 2002; Kaat and Joosten, 2009).

The drainage of peatlands leads to the remineralization of the topmost peat layer and the accumulation of nutrients (Cabezas et al., 2012). After rewetting, peatlands can therefore be sources of nutrients, especially ammonium (NH_4^+) and phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) (Lamers et al., 2002; Cabezas et al., 2012; Duhamel et al., 2017). Conversely, due to the anoxic conditions in the water-saturated peat, rewetted peatlands can also act as nutrient sinks, mainly for NO_3^- (Fisher and Acreman, 2004). Whether rewetting leads to nutrient release or uptake is, besides other factors, controlled by the degree of peat decomposition (Zak and Gelbrecht, 2007; Cabezas et al., 2012), the water level (Duhamel et al., 2017) and the salinity (Liu and Lennartz, 2019). Nutrient release is highest in strongly degraded peat in formerly drained peatlands (Zak and Gelbrecht, 2007; Cabezas et al., 2012). Therefore, removal of the topsoil before rewetting has been recommended as a measure to greatly reduce the release of PO_4^{3-} and nitrogen (N) (Harpenslager et al., 2015; Zak et al., 2017). However, nutrient release from peat after rewetting has mostly been assessed in laboratory and incubation studies. To our knowledge, field data on nutrient leaching and potential exports to adjacent waters are lacking.

The GHG exchange of peatlands is strongly influenced by the prevailing biogeochemical and physical conditions, which in turn are largely determined by vegetation and the water level and thus the ratio of oxic and anoxic conditions (Kaat and Joosten, 2009). In drained peatlands, the low water table enables the aerobic decomposition of peat, which is accompanied by increased CO_2 emissions (Joosten and Clarke, 2002). In rewetted peatlands, CO_2 emissions are regulated by photosynthesis, decomposition, and temperature within the upper oxygen-rich soil layer and the overlying water column (Parish, 2008; Oertel et al., 2016). In the anoxic water-saturated zones, the formerly oxygen-induced decomposition of organic matter (OM) is slowed and relies on alternative terminal electron acceptors (TEAs) such as NO_3^- , manganese (Mn^{4+}), iron (Fe^{3+}), and sulfate (SO_4^{2-}), leading to lowered CO_2 emissions (Strack, 2008; Dean et al., 2018). However, methanogenesis, as the last step in the remineralization of OM and a depletion of TEAs, may become more important in anoxic zones.



Methane (CH₄) emissions in drained peatlands are virtually negligible at water levels < 20 cm below the surface
65 (Jurasinski et al., 2016). Although CH₄ is formed in anoxic zones via methanogenesis, most of it is oxidized as it passes
through the oxic soil layer (Kaat and Joosten, 2009; Dean et al., 2018). Consequently, drained peatlands are a minor source
of atmospheric CH₄. In rewetted peatlands, CH₄ is microbially produced in water-saturated, anoxic soil layers mainly by
archaea, when all other TEAs are depleted (Schönheit et al., 1982; Oremland, 1988; Segers and Kengen, 1998), such that
rewetted peatlands are often significant sources of CH₄ (Hahn et al., 2015). However, in coastal peatlands that receive
70 marine water and therefore SO₄²⁻, the contribution of methanogenesis might be reduced, as methanogenic archaea are
outcompeted by sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) (Bartlett et al., 1987; Capone and Kiene, 1988; Oremland, 1988; Jørgensen,
2006). Additionally, any CH₄ produced may be oxidized by anaerobic methane oxidation coupled to SO₄²⁻ reduction (e.g.
Boetius et al., 2000).

N₂O is an intermediate in microbial processes, mostly nitrification, denitrification and nitrifier-denitrification (Kool
75 et al., 2011). In degraded peatland, all of these processes are fueled by the accumulated nutrients. Drained peatlands can be
weak (Martikainen et al., 1993) or strong sources of N₂O (Liu et al., 2019), depending mainly on the climate zone and land
use (Petersen et al., 2012; Leppelt et al., 2014). Rewetted, and thus water-saturated, peat usually acts as N₂O sink over long-
term scales, due to the formation of anoxic zones where N₂O is consumed (Strack, 2008). However, rewetting can increase
the N₂O production and thus its release into the atmosphere due to the high nutrient availability in strongly degraded peat,
80 which enables higher rates of nitrification and denitrification (Moseman-Valtierra et al., 2011; Chmura et al., 2016; Roughan
et al., 2018).

In temperate latitudes, coastal peatlands are widespread at the interface between marine and terrestrial ecosystems.
However, for many coastal peatlands, the sinking of their ground level due to degradation and peat shrinkage over decades
has made them vulnerable to rising sea level and sinking coasts (Jurasinski et al., 2018). In Mecklenburg-Vorpommern
85 (northeastern Germany), currently drained coastal peatlands along the low-lying coastline cover an area of ~360–400 km²
(Bockholt, 1985; Holz et al., 1996). Nowadays, peatlands are rewetted to restore their habitat function and biodiversity,
thereby preventing CO₂ and N₂O emissions and, in the long-term, reestablishing their C- and N-storage capacity (Strack,
2008; Zielinski et al., 2018).

Coastal drained peatlands may be rewetted in different ways depending on the available water source. The rewetting
90 can consist of permanent flooding with freshwater (from groundwater or rivers), episodic inundations with brackish water
and permanent brackish water flooding. While the effects of freshwater rewetting (Richert et al., 2000; Hogan et al., 2004;
Zak and Gelbrecht, 2007) and episodic inundations with brackish water on nutrient dynamics and GHG have been
investigated (Chmura et al., 2011; Neubauer et al., 2013; Hahn et al., 2015; Koebisch et al., 2019), less is known about the
impact of permanent brackish water flooding.

95 In this study we examined the immediate effects of rewetting with brackish water on nutrient (NO₃⁻, nitrite (NO₂⁻),
NH₄⁺ and PO₄³⁻) and GHG fluxes (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) in a low-lying, highly degraded coastal peatland at the German Baltic
Sea coast, by comparing pre- and post-rewetting conditions. Due to the unique formation of a permanent brackish water



column above formerly drained peat, this is the first study to combine marine shallow-water and terrestrial peatland research. We investigated how the rewetting with brackish water affects (1) nutrient leaching and the potential transport from a nutrient-enriched, flooded peatland to the adjacent bay driven by frequent water exchange, (2) the GHG dynamics in the surface water within the first year after rewetting and (3) the GHG fluxes along the transition from drained to inundated conditions.

2. Material and methods

2.1 Study area

The study area is a low-lying, highly degraded coastal peatland that had been transformed from a drained, agriculturally used polder to a brackish wetland. The “Polder Drammendorf” (referred to in the following as “peatland”) is located at the northeastern German Baltic Sea coast, on the western part of the island of Rügen (Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Germany), bordering on the Kubitzer Bodden (Figure 1). The climate is oceanic, with a mean annual air temperature of 9.1 °C and a mean annual precipitation height of 626 mm (Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD), 1991–2020). The central Kubitzer Bodden has a mean surface water temperature of 11.4 ± 6.6 °C and a mean surface salinity of 8.5 ± 1.4 (referred to in the following as “central bay”, data retrieved from a monitoring station of the Landesamt für Umwelt, Naturschutz und Geologie Mecklenburg Vorpommern (LUNG MV), 2006–2020, 54.40° N, 13.11° E, Figure 1b). For comparison, the Arkona Basin, a near-by open Baltic Sea basin, has a mean surface water temperature of 10.2 ± 5.6 °C and a mean surface salinity of 8.0 ± 0.5 (MARNET, data originator: Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde, Germany, 2006–2020, 54.88° N, 13.86° E).

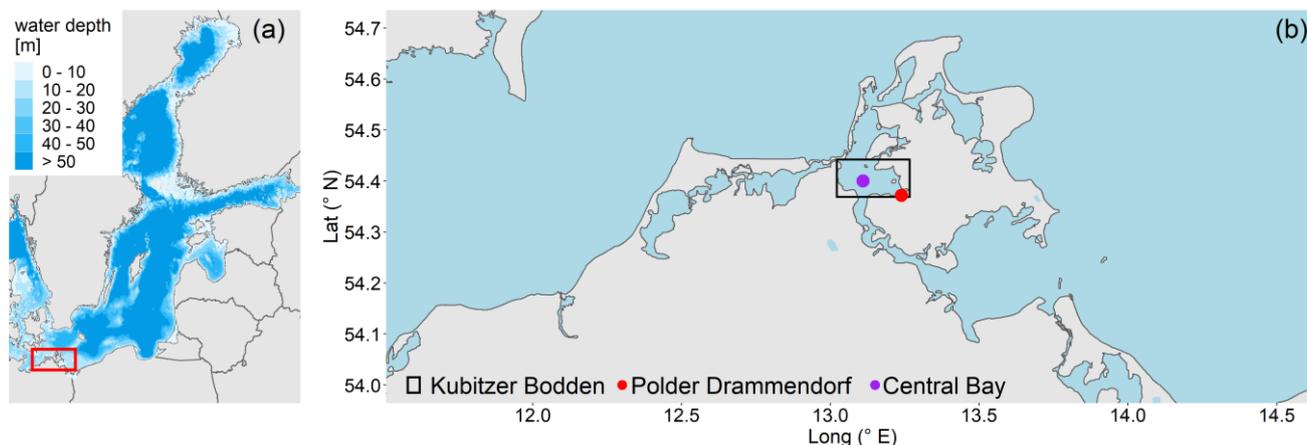
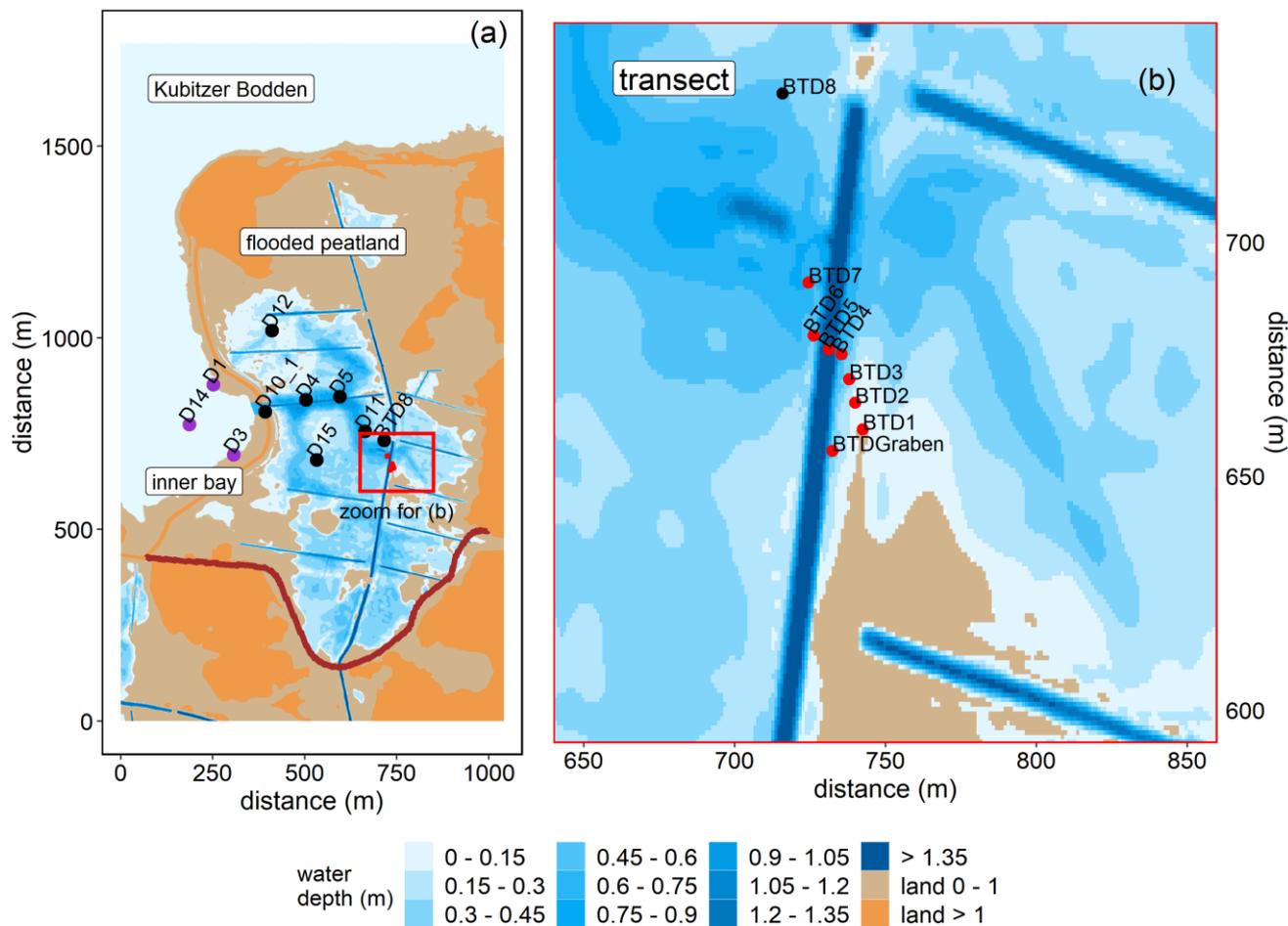


Figure 1. (a) Overview of the study area located in the southern Baltic Sea. (b) Coastline of northeast Germany in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern and study area location (“Polder Drammendorf”, red) on the island of Rügen, bordering on the Kubitzer Bodden, where a monitoring station served as reference (“central bay”, purple). Data retrieved from EEA, NOAA.

Like most peatlands in northern Germany, Drammendorf was artificially drained for agricultural use (pasture and grassland) in the 1960s, by establishing a sandy dike and an extensive ditch system that affected an area of 2.2 km². The northwestern



part (mostly mineral soil, higher elevation) served as grassland while the northeastern part was used for agriculture with seasonal fertilizer application only until the 1990s ($10 \text{ t N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). The southern compartment (organic soil) provided an area for cattle grazing (~ 30 cows). The topsoil of the central part consists of up to 50–70 cm highly degraded peat (Brisch, 2015), classified as H7 according to the von Post humification scale (Wang et al., 2021). This highly degraded topsoil layer was not removed prior to rewetting. Underneath the degraded topsoil follows a well-preserved peat layer with a thickness of ~ 100 cm. Peat deposits of up to 220 cm thickness are largest in the western part, near the former dike. The long-lasting drainage and ongoing peat degradation have led to the formation of a local land depression with an average soil elevation of around -0.5 meters above sea level (masl). To control the water expansion after rewetting, a new dike was built in the southern part before flooding (Figure 2a). Additionally, a drainage ditch that receives water from the catchment was rebuilt and a new pumping station was installed. A significant input of nutrients from this additional water supply can be excluded due to the low pumping activity and the absence of a permanent hydrological connection to the study area (Wasser- und Bodenverband Rügen (WBV), pers. comm., 2020).





135 **Figure 2.** Topography of the study area and overview of the stations in the inner bay (purple), the flooded peatland (black) and along the
transect (red). (a) Water coverage at mean sea level. The new dike is shown in dark red. (b) Transect stations that were sampled for
atmospheric chamber-based GHG flux measurements (before and after rewetting) and for surface water GHG concentration measurements
(after rewetting). Data from station BTD7 were used for a comparison of the chamber-based measurements with the calculated air-sea
fluxes after rewetting. Topography data retrieved from AfGVK, LAiV MV.

140 The area was rewetted by the targeted removal of a 20 m wide dike section in November 2019 that caused an immediate
flooding of the low-lying area behind the dike. The newly built channel represents the only permanent hydrological
connection between the peatland and the Kubitzer Bodden that allows major surface water exchange. The remaining section
of the dike (~650 m) was removed down to the surface elevation level and is hence only flooded at very high water levels.

The restored area covers ~0.8 km² in total and is characterized by a permanently water-covered area of ~0.5 km²,
145 with a mean water depth of ~0.5 m, compared to 1.0–1.5 m in the Kubitzer Bodden. The extent of the inundated area
depends directly on the water level of the Baltic Sea, which is highly dynamic despite the absence of regular tides (Figure
A1). Therefore, minor changes in the water level lead to major changes in the water-covered area. For instance, if the water
level rises from -0.5 to +0.5 masl, the water-covered area increases from 0.08 to 0.7 km² (Figure 3, Figure A2). The ditch
system and its surrounding vegetation (*Elymus repens* L. (Gould) (Couch grass), *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud.
150 (Common reed)) were only partly removed. Hence, some deeper areas with water depths of up to 4 m remained.

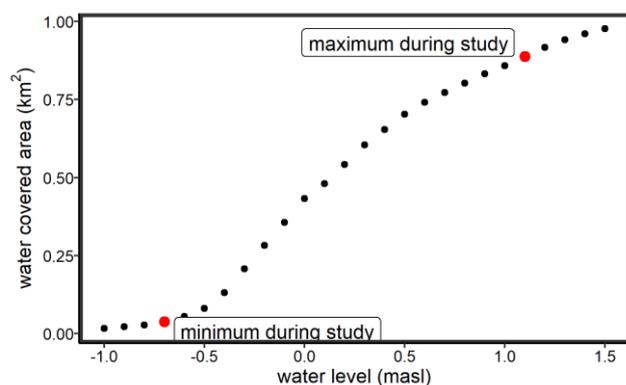


Figure 3. Hypsographic curve of the study area, in increments of 0.1 m. The red dots represent the observed range of the water level during the study. For a water level time series during the sampling period, see Figure A1.

2.2 Sampling

155 2.2.1 Surface water sampling

Before rewetting, surface water samples for nutrients (NO_3^- , NO_2^- , NH_4^+ , PO_4^{3-}) and chlorophyll a were collected from the inner Kubitzer Bodden (referred to in the following as “inner bay”) at station D1 (Figure 2a) and irregularly at a second station right in front of the now removed dike section, which was abandoned after rewetting and therefore merged with station D1. Both stations were reached from land and sampling was conducted monthly from June to November 2019, except
160 in August.



After rewetting, surface water samples were collected with a small boat and the sampled variables were extended for the concentrations of GHGs (CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC). The first sampling took place one week after the dike removal. Sampling was continued over one year (25 sampling dates until December 2020) at weekly (December 2019 to January 2020) or biweekly (February 2020 to September 2020, except for August) intervals. From 165 October 2020 to December 2020, sampling was conducted monthly. In the inner bay, three stations (D1, D3, D14), and in the flooded peatland six stations (D4, D5, D11, D12, D15, BT D8) were sampled (Figure 2a). The inner bay station “D14” was sampled from March 2020 onwards. DOC sampling started in April 2020. For the air-sea gas exchange calculation, data from station D10_1, located in the channel, were also included.

Moreover, surface water samples for the analysis of GHG concentrations (CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O) were sampled at eight 170 stations along a transect (Figure 2b). This sampling was carried out simultaneously with the sampling described in Sect. 2.2.2 to link GHG air-sea exchange calculations based on surface water samples with chamber-based flux measurements.

Surface water temperature, dissolved oxygen (O_2), and salinity were measured directly in the field using a HACH HQ40D multimeter (HACH Lange GmbH, Germany) equipped with two outdoor electrodes (LDO10105, CDC40105). Depending on the prevailing water depth, additional measurements were conducted in the peatland 15 cm above the soil 175 surface (excluding the ditches) on 22 of the 25 sampling dates. The precision of the electrodes was ± 0.3 °C, ± 0.8 %, and ± 0.1 for temperature, O_2 saturation, and salinity, respectively.

Surface water samples were taken using a horizontal 7 L Niskin bottle to sample the upper 20 cm of the water column. These included 250 ml subsamples for $\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2\text{O}$ analysis (bottles capped with butyl rubber stoppers and crimp-sealed), analysis of the CO_2 system (one bottle each for total CO_2 (C_T), total alkalinity (A_T), and pH) and 15 ml subsamples 180 for the analysis of nutrients and DOC. Water for chlorophyll a determination was taken using 3 L canisters.

In the lab, $\text{CH}_4/\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and CO_2 samples were poisoned with 500 μl and 200 μl of saturated HgCl_2 , respectively, and stored in the dark at 4°C until analysis. Subsamples for nutrients and DOC were filtered in the field with pre-combusted (450 °C for 4 h) 0.7 μm glass-fiber filters (GF/F, Whatman®) and stored at -20 °C. Samples for chlorophyll a were filtered in the lab with non-combusted 0.7 μm glass-fiber filters (GF/F, Whatman®) and likewise stored at -20 °C.

185 2.2.2 Chamber-based atmospheric GHG flux sampling for CO_2 and CH_4

Starting in June 2019, nearly 6 months before rewetting, GHG exchange was regularly measured using dynamic closed chambers (Livingston and Hutchinson, 1995) along a transect representing a soil humidity gradient (Figure 2b). The measurements were conducted twice a month, for a total of 11 sampling days at six peatland stations and two additional stations in the north-south-oriented main ditch. Each station was sampled up to eight times per sampling day, resulting in 190 overall 418 CO_2 and 184 CH_4 pre-rewetting flux measurements.

For each measurement, the chambers were placed on permanently installed collars and connected through an air-tight seal, with a closure period between 180 and 300 s. To ensure coverage of photosynthetic and respiration activity, CO_2 measurements were conducted using opaque and transparent chambers. To cover a broad spectrum of solar radiation, two



195 additional measurements were conducted with cloth-covered transparent chambers, resulting in a reduced photosynthetically active photon flux density (PPFD). Changes in GHG concentrations in the chamber headspace were measured using a portable laser-based analyzer (Picarro G4301, GasScouter, Santa Clara, USA; LI-820, LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, USA and an Ultraportable Greenhouse Gas Analyzer (UGGA), Los Gatos Research Inc., Mountain View, Calif., USA).

200 After rewetting, atmospheric GHG fluxes were measured twice a month using floating opaque chambers placed on the water surface above the same sampling locations of the flooded peatland. Since transparent chambers were no longer used, PPFD variation was no longer considered. Approximately six measurements per station were made during 23 sampling days between December 2019 and December 2020, with a total of 698 CO₂ and 482 CH₄ fluxes determined during the post-rewetting year.

2.3 Data processing, statistics, and definition of seasons and means

205 Data analysis and visualization were performed using R (R Core Team, 2020) and the packages *tidyverse* (Wickham et al., 2019), *lubridate* (Grolemund and Wickham, 2011), *patchwork* (Pedersen, 2020) *car* (Fox and Weisberg, 2019), and *flux* (Jurasinski et al., 2014). The relationships between environmental variables, nutrient concentrations, and GHG concentrations/fluxes were investigated in linear regression analyses. The significance level was set to $p < 0.05$.

For direct comparisons between pre- and post-rewetting, two pre-rewetting and four post-rewetting seasons were defined (Table 1).

210 **Table 1.** Defined seasons of the investigation period

	Pre-rewetting		Post-rewetting			
season	summer 2019	autumn 2019	winter 2019/2020	spring 2020	summer 2020	autumn 2020
months	June–August	September–November	December–February	March–May	June–August	September–December

We analyzed the data of the peatland and the inner bay stations, respectively, in order to verify the use of means for each sampling site and date. The difference between spatial (sampling stations) and temporal (sampling seasons) data variability was tested and indicated a higher temporal variability. Therefore, we decided to combine the stations of the peatland and the inner bay, respectively, to report mean values and standard deviations.

215 At station D3, in the inner bay, the pH, CH₄, and pCO₂ values differed significantly from those of the remaining stations of the inner bay during the year after rewetting (ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test). Since the differences in water temperature, salinity, and O₂ were not significant, we decided to include the data from D3 for these variables to obtain a larger data pool for the inner bay and to exclude D3 for all other variables.



220 2.4 Nutrients (NO_3^- , NO_2^- , NH_4^+ , PO_4^{3-}), chlorophyll a and DOC

2.4.1 Analysis

Nutrient analyses were carried out according to standard photometric methods (Grasshoff et al., 2009) by using a continuous segmented flow analyzer (SEAL Analytical QuAAtro, SEAL Analytical GmbH, Norderstedt, Germany). Detection limits were $0.2 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for NO_3^- , $0.05 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for NO_2^- , $0.5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for NH_4^+ and $0.1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for PO_4^{3-} . Chlorophyll a was
225 extracted from glass-fiber filters (GF/F, Whatman®) by incubation with 96 % ethanol for 3 h and afterwards analyzed by using a fluorometer (TURNER 10-AU-005, Turner Designs, San José, USA) at 670 nm after Edler (1979). DOC was analyzed after high-temperature combustion using a Multi 2100S instrument (Analytik Jena GmbH, Jena, Germany) and detected by non-dispersive infrared spectrometry after ISO 20236, ISO 8245 I, and EN 1484.

2.4.2 Use of reference data from a monitoring station

230 Coastal nutrient data (NO_3^- , NO_2^- , NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} concentrations) from a monitoring station in the Kubitzer Bodden (“central bay”, Figure 1b) ~15 km away from the study area were obtained as reference. Monitoring data from 2016 to 2020 were included. In detail, these data were used (1) to compare them with nutrient concentrations from the inner bay before and after rewetting to detect potentially higher concentrations, resulting from nutrient leaching within the peatland and a subsequent export into the inner bay and (2) to calculate the total possible export out of the peatland (Sect. 2.4.3) by using
235 the monitoring station as a second, unaffected endmember besides the inner bay, which is by contrast potentially affected by the rewetting.

2.4.3 Nutrient transport calculation (DIN-N and $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$)

To calculate the bulk exchanges of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN-N) and $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ between the flooded peatland and the inner bay/central bay, the water level was transformed to water volume by creating a hypsographic curve with increments of
240 0.1 m and a resolution of 1x1 m (Figure 3). Water level data from a nearby monitoring station (“Barhöft”, 54.43° N, 13.03° E) and topography data with a resolution of 1x1 m were obtained from the Wasserstraßen- und Schifffahrtsamt Ostsee (WSA) and the Landesamt für innere Verwaltung MV, respectively. To ensure that the water level data of the monitoring station were valid for the peatland, the water level data of the latter, measured between August and December 2020, were compared with the data from the monitoring station, which showed a strong correlation ($r_s = 0.95$, $p < 0.001$, 15-
245 min intervals, data not shown).

A water level of -1.6 masl, as the lowest recorded water level within the last 25 years, was used as the starting point to derive the cumulative water volumes of the peatland. The water volumes were then assigned to the corresponding water levels to finally calculate the water volume changes (Q , in $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) according to Eq. (1):

$$Q(t) = \frac{dV}{dt} \quad (1)$$



where V is the water volume and t the time. Positive volume changes ($Q > 0$) indicate an inflow of water into the peatland and *vice versa*. For each season, the mean inflow (Q_{in}) and outflow (Q_{out}) volumes were calculated according to Eqs. (2) and (3):

$$Q_{in} = \frac{1}{\Delta T} \int_t^{t+\Delta T} Q^{positive} dt \quad \text{for } Q > 0 \quad (2)$$

$$Q_{out} = \frac{1}{\Delta T} \int_t^{t+\Delta T} Q^{negative} dt \quad \text{for } Q < 0 \quad (3)$$

where ΔT denotes the season length. Note that Q_{out} is negative. Nutrient concentrations (DIN and PO_4^{3-}) were converted from $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ to kg m^{-3} by using the molecular masses of the basic elements N and P to derive $DIN-N$ and PO_4-P . After the conversion, nutrient masses of the peatland ($c_{peatland}$) and the inner bay (c_{IB}) vs. peatland and central bay (c_{CB}), respectively, were multiplied by Q_{out} and Q_{in} and integrated to calculate the net nutrient transport (NNT, in tonnes) according to Eqs. (4) and (5):

$$NNT = - \int_t^{t+\Delta T} Q_{in} c_{IB} dt + \int_t^{t+\Delta T} Q_{out} c_{peatland} dt \quad (4)$$

$$NNT = - \int_t^{t+\Delta T} Q_{in} c_{CB} dt + \int_t^{t+\Delta T} Q_{out} c_{peatland} dt \quad (5)$$

Negative values indicate a net nutrient export from the peatland into the inner/central bay, and positive values display a net nutrient import into the peatland.

2.5 GHG concentrations and fluxes

2.5.1 Inorganic carbon system analysis

Directly measured variables (C_T , A_T , pH)

The inorganic carbon system was determined by analyzing the total CO_2 (C_T), total alkalinity (A_T), and pH of the water samples. C_T was measured with an automated infrared inorganic carbon analyzer (AIRICA, S/N #027, Marianda, Kiel, Germany). The system acidifies a discrete sample volume (phosphoric acid, 10 %), whereby the inorganic carbon species of C_T are shifted to $CO_{2(g)}$. A carrier gas stream (99.999 % N_2) transfers the gaseous components to a Peltier device and a Nafion® drying tube (Perma Pure Nafion®, Ansyco GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany) to remove water residues. The produced $CO_{2(g)}$ is detected by an infrared detector (LICOR 7000; LI-COR Environmental GmbH, Bad Homburg, Germany). Certified reference materials (CRM; Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California, San Diego, USA) were used for calibration. Triplicate measurements were conducted for each sample, and a precision of $\pm 5 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ was achieved.

A_T was measured by potentiometric titration (glass electrode type LL Electrode plus 6.0262.100, Metrohm, Filderstadt, Germany) in the open-cell configuration, after Dickson et al. (2007). The system was calibrated with the same CRM used for C_T and resulted in the same precision.



The pH was analyzed spectrophotometrically using the pH-sensitive indicator dye m-cresol purple (mCP, 275 2 mmol L⁻¹, Contros System and Solution GmbH, Kiel, Germany). The measurement principle and instrumental setup are described elsewhere (Dickson et al., 2007; Carter et al., 2013). In brief, absorption was measured using the Agilent 8453 UV-visible spectroscopy system (Agilent Technology, Waldbronn, Germany); pH parameterization for brackish water was calculated following Müller and Rehder (2018). Quality control was performed by measuring buffer solutions (salinity of 20) prepared according to Müller et al. (2018). An external buffer solution with a salinity of 35 (Scripps Institution of 280 Oceanography, University of California, San Diego, USA) was additionally used. All pH values are reported given on the total scale (pH_T).

Calculated variables

The CO₂ partial pressure in the water phase (pCO₂), the value of which was required for the CO₂ air-water flux calculations (Sect. 2.5.3), was calculated from C_T and pH using the R packages *seacarb* (Gattuso et al., 2019), with K₁ and K₂ from 285 Millero (2010), K_s from Dickson (1990), and K_f from Dickson and Riley (1979). C_T and pH were preferred because non-oceanic components, in particular organic acid-base systems, contribute significantly to A_T. A_T was also calculated from C_T and pH and the values compared with measured values, thus revealing the magnitude of the contributions of those components to A_T.

2.5.2 Dissolved CH₄ and N₂O concentration analysis

290 Dissolved CH₄ and N₂O concentrations were determined by gas chromatography on an Agilent 7890B instrument (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) coupled to a flame ionization detector (FID) and an electron capture detector (ECD). A purge and trap technique, explained in detail in Sabbaghzadeh et al. (2021) was used. In brief, a helium gas stream was used to purge 10 ml of seawater to extract volatile compounds. The gas stream passed through a purifier (VICI Valco Instruments Co. Inc., Houston, USA) and was dried using a Nafion[®] tube (Perma Pure Nafion[®], Ansyco GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany) 295 and a SICAPENT[®] tube (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany). The relevant compounds were enriched by cryofocusing on a trap filled with HayeSep D[®] (CS Chromatographie Service GmbH, Langerwehe, Germany) maintained at -120 °C using an ethanol/nitrogen cooling bath. After 10 minutes of heating in a 95 °C water bath, the compounds were desorbed and separated by two capillary columns linked to the detectors by a Deans Switch (Pönisch, 2018).

For quality control, a calibration standard (gas composition: 9.9379 ppm CH₄ (± 0.0159 ppb) and 1982.07 ppm N₂O 300 (± 3.77 ppb)) was measured daily before and after the sample measurements; the standard deviation was < 1 %. The calibration range was adjusted using multi-loop injection of the calibration gas to ensure that the samples were within the limits of the calibration. The standard was recalibrated according to high-precision standards (ICOS-CAL laboratory, Max Planck Institute, Jena, Germany).

2.5.3 GHG flux calculations

305 Atmospheric fluxes based on closed-chamber measurements



CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes were calculated using the ideal gas law (Livingston and Hutchinson, 1995), as formulated in Eq. (6):

$$F = \frac{MpV}{RTA} * \frac{dc}{dt} \quad (6)$$

where F is the GHG flux (g m⁻² h⁻¹), M is the molar mass of the gas (g mol⁻¹), p is the standard air pressure (101,300 Pa), V is the chamber volume (m³), R is the gas constant (m³ Pa K⁻¹ mol⁻¹), T is the temperature in the chamber (K), A is the surface area of the measurement collar (m²), and dc/dt is the change in concentration over time. The latter was derived from the slope of a linear median-based regression. The atmospheric sign convention was applied; thus, positive fluxes indicated a release of GHG by the soil and negative fluxes GHG uptake by the soil. The fluxes were estimated using the function *fluxx()* of the R package *flux* (Jurasinski et al., 2014) and the SLP method.

Atmospheric fluxes based on air-sea gas exchange parameterization (velocity k model)

The air-sea gas exchange (F, g m⁻² h⁻¹) is a function of the gas transfer velocity (k) and the concentration difference between the bulk liquid (C_w) and the top of the liquid boundary layer adjacent to the atmosphere (C_a). It was calculated as reported in Wanninkhof (2014) and as shown in Eq. (7):

$$F = k (C_w - C_a) \quad (7)$$

where k was derived from an empirical relationship between a coefficient of gas transfer (0.251) and the wind speed <U²> (Wanninkhof, 2014) and Schmidt number (Sc), as expressed by Eq. (8):

$$k = 0.251 <U^2> (Sc/660)^{-0.5} \quad (8)$$

Wind speeds originated from the nearby (~15 km away) monitoring station Putbus and were measured at 10 m height (DWD; 54.3643° N, 13.4771° E, WMO-ID 10093). The average wind speed was defined in this study ± 3 h from midday, because the wind speed over 24 h was lowest at night and highest at midday and because sampling was usually conducted within the selected time interval. The Schmidt number was approximated by a linear interpolation between the freshwater and seawater values. Atmospheric-equilibrium conditions (C_a) were calculated using the atmospheric data for CO₂ and CH₄ obtained from the ICOS station “Utö” (Finnish Meteorological Institute, Helsinki). Due to the seasonal changes in the atmospheric dry molar fraction of CO₂ and CH₄, mean values for each season were computed. For N₂O, the atmospheric dry mole fraction from station Mace Head was selected (National University of Ireland, Galway; data from the NOAA GML carbon cycle cooperative global air sampling network (Dlugokencky et al., 2019a, 2019b)). A mean value of the atmospheric N₂O concentration during the investigation period was calculated due to its minor seasonality. Equilibrium concentrations were then calculated using the solubility coefficient (K₀) from Weiss and Price (1980).

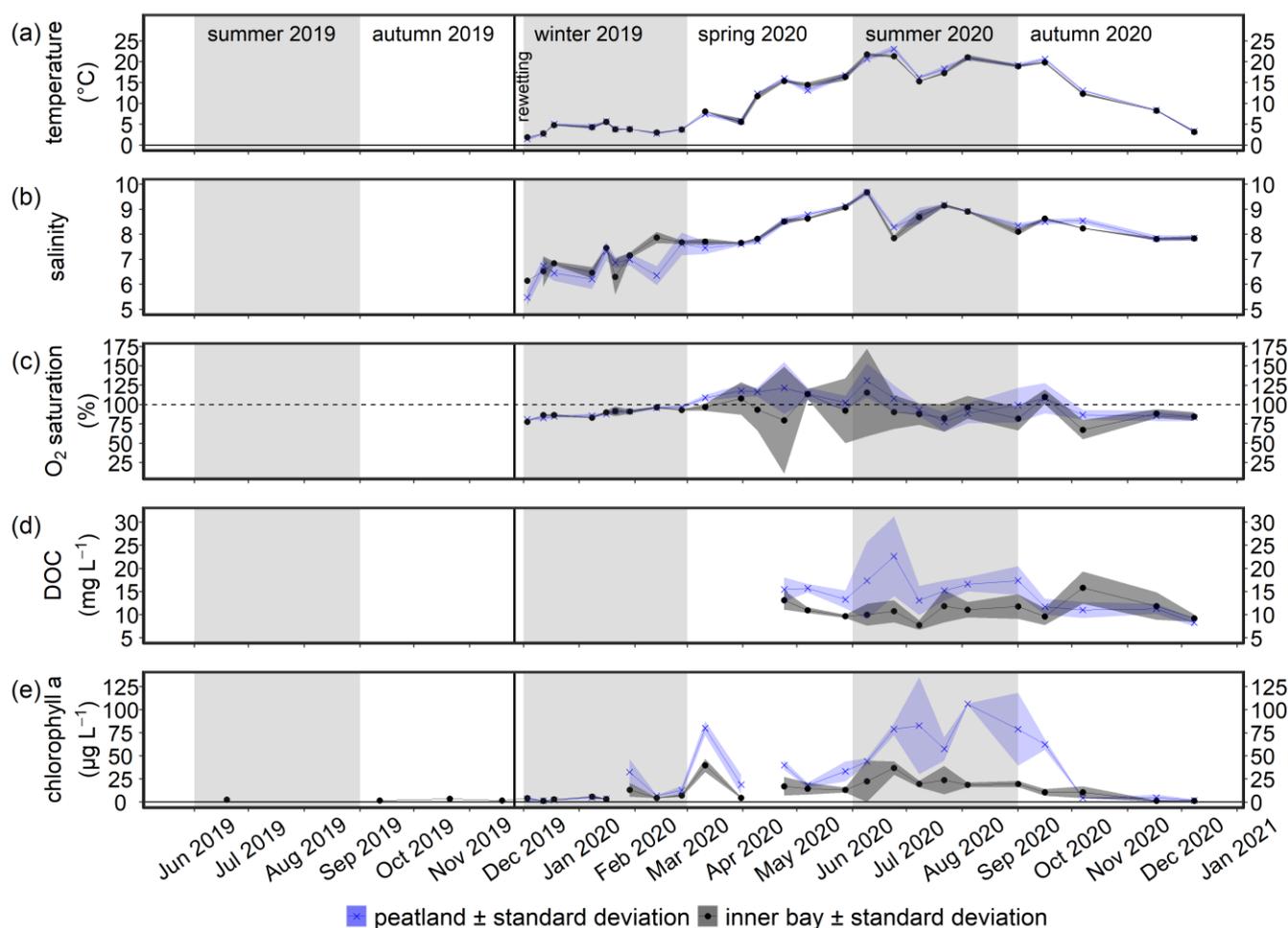


330 3. Results

3.1 Surface water properties (temperature, salinity, O₂, DOC, chlorophyll a)

In the first year after rewetting, there were no significant differences between the peatland and the inner bay with respect to surface water temperature, salinity and O₂ saturation (Figure 4a–c, Table 2), suggesting a pronounced water exchange between the peatland and the inner bay that was driven by frequent changes in the water level (Figure A1).

335 Temperature and salinity measurements near the peat surface showed no significant differences between the surface and bottom water over the year ($n_{\text{surface}} = 140$, $n_{\text{bottom}} = 86$, data not shown), which suggested that vertical exchange processes and mixing were highly pronounced. However, the significant difference in O₂ saturation between the surface and bottom water in summer ($p < 0.01$) indicated that local and temporary gradients are possible.



340 **Figure 4.** Time series of the mean (a) temperature, (b) salinity, (c) O₂ saturation, (d) DOC concentration and (e) chlorophyll a concentration (\pm standard deviations) in the surface water from June 2019 to December 2020. Data from the flooded peatland ($n = 6$) are



shown in blue and data from the inner bay ($n = 2$ or 3 , as explained in Sect. 2.3) in black. The vertical black line indicates the rewetting event.

DOC concentrations were significantly higher in the peatland than in the inner bay in spring and summer, with the highest concentration ($\sim 30 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) measured in the peatland (Figure 4d, Table 2). Chlorophyll a concentrations after rewetting showed clear seasonal and spatial differences, with significantly higher concentrations in the peatland in spring and summer (max. $\sim 125 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, Figure 4e, Table 2). A comparison of pre- and post-rewetting chlorophyll a concentrations in the inner bay in summer and autumn showed higher concentrations after rewetting (pre-rewetting: $2.5 \pm 0.9 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, post-rewetting: $15.4 \pm 11.5 \text{ } \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$).

350

Table 2. Seasonal means (\pm standard deviation) of the surface water in the peatland (“peat”) and the inner bay (“bay”) for all in situ variables. The number of observations is shown in parentheses. *, ** and *** indicate $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$.

		Pre-rewetting		Post-rewetting			
		summer 2019	autumn 2019	winter 2019	spring 2020	summer 2020	autumn 2020
temperature (°C)	peat	N/A	N/A	3.73 ± 1.25 (45)	12.03 ± 4.17 (35)	19.85 ± 2.44 (30)	12.94 ± 6.61 (30)
	bay	25.17 ± 3.27 (3)	13.95 ± 3.59 (6)	3.86 ± 0.99 (17)	12.17 ± 4.09 (17)	19.36 ± 2.68 (15)	12.52 ± 6.58 (15)
salinity	peat	N/A	N/A	6.67 ± 0.68 (45)	8.23 ± 0.66 (35)	8.96 ± 0.50 (30)	8.22 ± 0.33 (30)
	bay	9.21 ± 0.69 (4)	8.39 ± 0.38 (6)	6.99 ± 0.65 (17)	8.27 ± 0.56 (17)	8.86 ± 0.63 (15)	8.13 ± 0.32 (15)
O ₂ (mg L ⁻¹)	peat	N/A	N/A	11.19 ± 0.74 (45)	11.72 ± 1.93 (35)	8.60 ± 1.86 (30)	9.34 ± 1.35 (30)
	bay	7.66 ± 1.70 (3)	7.48 ± 3.87 (6)	11.18 ± 0.67 (17)	10.03 ± 3.48 (17)	8.26 ± 2.26 (15)	8.86 ± 1.80 (15)
chlorophyll a ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$)	peat	N/A	N/A	8.55 ± 10.80 (24)	40.03 ± 26.39 (12)**	74.03 ± 29.01 (10)***	30.57 ± 37.50 (10)
	bay	$2.66 \pm \text{N/A}$ (1)	2.42 ± 1.09 (3)	4.76 ± 2.31 (8)	13.52 ± 8.90 (8)**	21.91 ± 11.04 (10)***	8.83 ± 7.76 (10)
DOC ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	peat	N/A	N/A	N/A	14.82 ± 2.13 (18)**	16.95 ± 6.09 (27)***	12.07 ± 3.47 (29)
	bay	N/A	N/A	N/A	11.78 ± 2.12 (6)**	10.72 ± 2.73 (10)***	11.09 ± 2.54 (10)
NO ₃ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	peat	N/A	N/A	100.02 ± 57.66 (45)	41.97 ± 53.53 (21)	0.34 ± 0.10 (4)	4.39 ± 4.01 (25)
	bay	0.6 ± 0.11 (2)	2.31 ± 2.83 (6)	68.50 ± 40.67 (9)	21.11 ± 34.75 (8)	0.34 ± 0.19 (2)	4.20 ± 3.53 (8)
NO ₂ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	peat	N/A	N/A	1.49 ± 0.62 (45)*	0.44 ± 0.44 (34)	0.25 ± 0.11 (27)	1.03 ± 1.04 (29)
	bay	0.12 ± 0.06 (4)	0.19 ± 0.11 (6)	1.04 ± 0.49 (9)*	0.34 ± 0.34 (9)	0.19 ± 0.11 (8)	1.11 ± 1.20 (10)
NH ₄ ⁺ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	peat	N/A	N/A	30.02 ± 26.13 (45)	2.27 ± 1.55 (35)	5.72 ± 6.53 (28)	20.10 ± 19.53 (28)
	bay	1.67 ± 1.33 (3)	3.00 ± 1.70 (6)	21.47 ± 23.42 (9)	1.84 ± 1.10 (10)	2.82 ± 3.87 (10)	18.87 ± 22.26 (9)
PO ₄ ²⁻ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	peat	N/A	N/A	0.44 ± 0.42 (37)	0.33 ± 0.31 (25)	0.54 ± 0.21 (26)*	0.44 ± 0.32 (23)
	bay	1.70 ± 2.11 (3)	0.16 ± 0.09 (3)	0.29 ± 0.20 (6)	0.25 ± 0.17 (3)	0.33 ± 0.21 (6)*	0.45 ± 0.30 (5)
CH ₄ (nmol L ⁻¹)	peat	N/A	N/A	47.96 ± 49.52 (46)	300.49 ± 414.29 (35)	1502.36 ± 693.36 (30)***	733.74 ± 699.17 (30)**
	bay	N/A	N/A	81.37 ± 106.93 (7)	130.12 ± 190.54 (11)	502.47 ± 479.31 (10)***	194.70 ± 186.49 (20)**
N ₂ O (nmol L ⁻¹)	peat	N/A	N/A	85.53 ± 152.45 (46)	15.42 ± 4.97 (35)	6.95 ± 1.35 (30)***	14.34 ± 4.04 (30)
	bay	N/A	N/A	26.74 ± 9.69 (7)	13.13 ± 4.13 (11)	8.76 ± 1.26 (10)***	16.68 ± 5.27 (10)



pCO ₂ (µatm)	peat	N/A	N/A	1403.89 ± 674.79 (46)	925.64 ± 868.56 (35)***	4016.69 ± 2120.03 (30)***	2197.11 ± 1771.41 (30)
	bay	N/A	N/A	1050.00 ± 552.68 (7)	297.81 ± 93.57 (11)***	1161.74 ± 1275.46 (10)***	1151.68 ± 968.31 (10)
pH	peat	N/A	N/A	7.66 ± 0.21 (46)	8.01 ± 0.33 (35)***	7.35 ± 0.34 (30)***	7.60 ± 0.32 (30)*
	bay	N/A	N/A	7.78 ± 0.20 (7)	8.32 ± 0.13 (11)***	7.95 ± 0.48 (10)***	7.86 ± 0.36 (10)*
C _T (µmol kg ⁻¹)	peat	N/A	N/A	2153.61 ± 121.07 (46)	2471.11 ± 223.74 (35)***	2539.09 ± 225.34 (30)***	2273.41 ± 312.95 (30)
	bay	N/A	N/A	2113.87 ± 73.73 (7)	2201.63 ± 98.45 (11)***	2094.51 ± 208.11 (10)***	2106.76 ± 282.17 (10)
A _T (µmol kg ⁻¹)	peat	N/A	N/A	2154.43 ± 155.12 (46)	2614.86 ± 209.57 (35)**	2546.03 ± 239.96 (30)***	2290.59 ± 272.70 (30)
	bay	N/A	N/A	2144.41 ± 94.49 (7)	2414.45 ± 123.87 (11)**	2270.25 ± 125.07 (10)***	2187.83 ± 213.75 (10)

3.2 Nutrients (NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, NH₄⁺, PO₄³⁻)

3.2.1 Pre- and post-rewetting spatio-temporal dynamics and comparison with a nearby monitoring station

355 In the inner bay, all N-nutrient concentrations were substantially higher at the first sampling after rewetting than prior to rewetting, while PO₄³⁻ concentrations were only slightly higher post-rewetting (Figure 5). A comparison of the same pre- and post-rewetting seasons (summer and autumn 2019/2020) showed generally higher N-nutrient concentrations in the inner bay after rewetting. However, as there were fewer measurements before rewetting, this finding could not be confirmed statistically.

360 During winter, all N-nutrients were present at high concentrations in the peatland and inner bay. After a rapid decrease in spring, N-nutrient concentrations reached their lowest values during summer, with NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ then increasing in autumn again. PO₄³⁻ concentrations followed a different pattern, with the highest concentrations determined in summer and fewer fluctuations over the year.

365 The spatial differences in nutrients between the inner bay and the peatland after rewetting were significant only for NO₃⁻ concentrations, which were higher in the peatland ($p < 0.05$). The mean concentrations of NH₄⁺ and NO₂⁻ were also generally, but not significantly, higher in the peatland than in the inner bay (Table 2). Significantly higher PO₄³⁻ concentrations in the peatland occurred only during summer ($p < 0.05$).

370 Compared to the monitoring station (“central bay”, Sect. 2.4.2), only the NH₄⁺ concentrations were significantly higher in the inner bay shortly before rewetting (Figure 6.). After rewetting, NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ concentrations in the inner bay increased and were significantly higher than in the central bay ($p < 0.001$). In spring and summer, N-nutrient concentrations were similar at the two locations whereas in autumn they were significantly higher in the inner bay. PO₄³⁻ again followed a pattern different from that of the N-nutrients. Shortly before rewetting, its concentrations in the inner bay were significantly lower than those in the central bay ($p < 0.05$). After rewetting, PO₄³⁻ concentrations in winter were not significantly different in the central and inner bay whereas in spring and summer they were significantly higher in the inner bay ($p < 0.05$).

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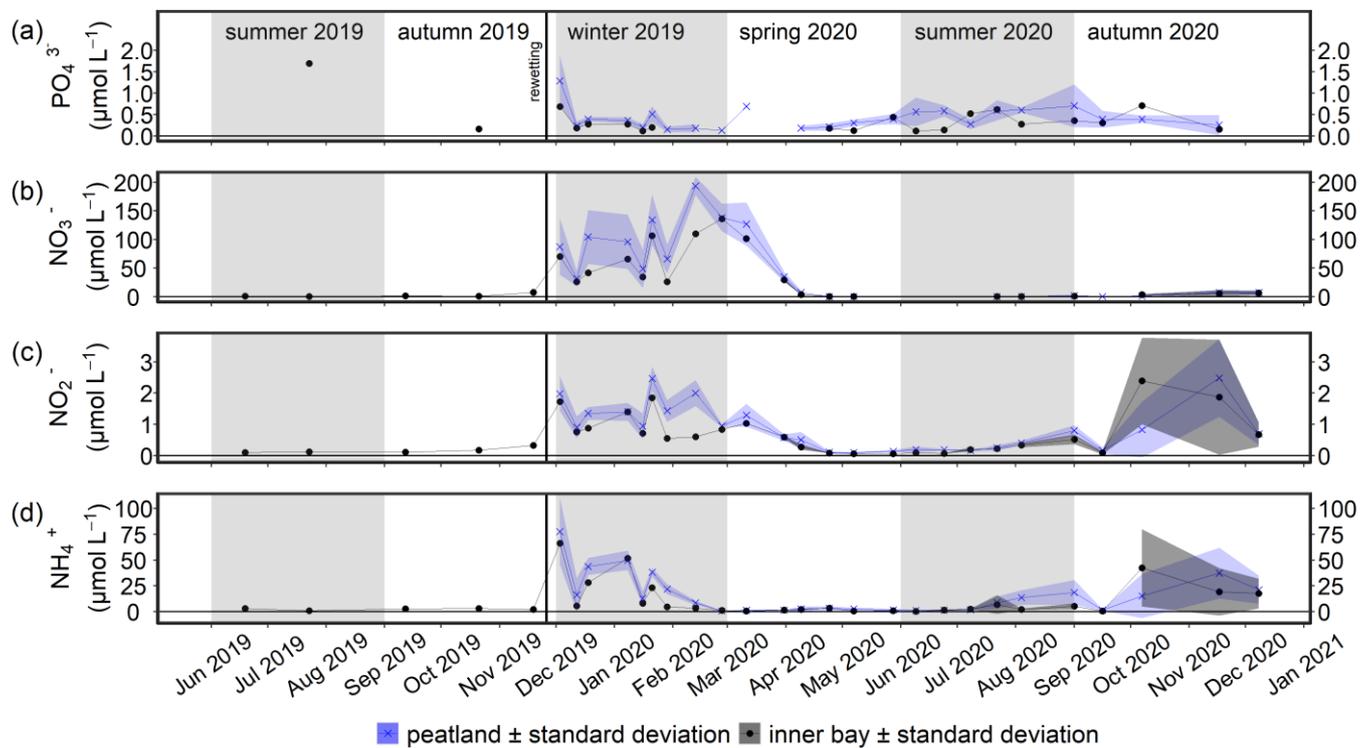
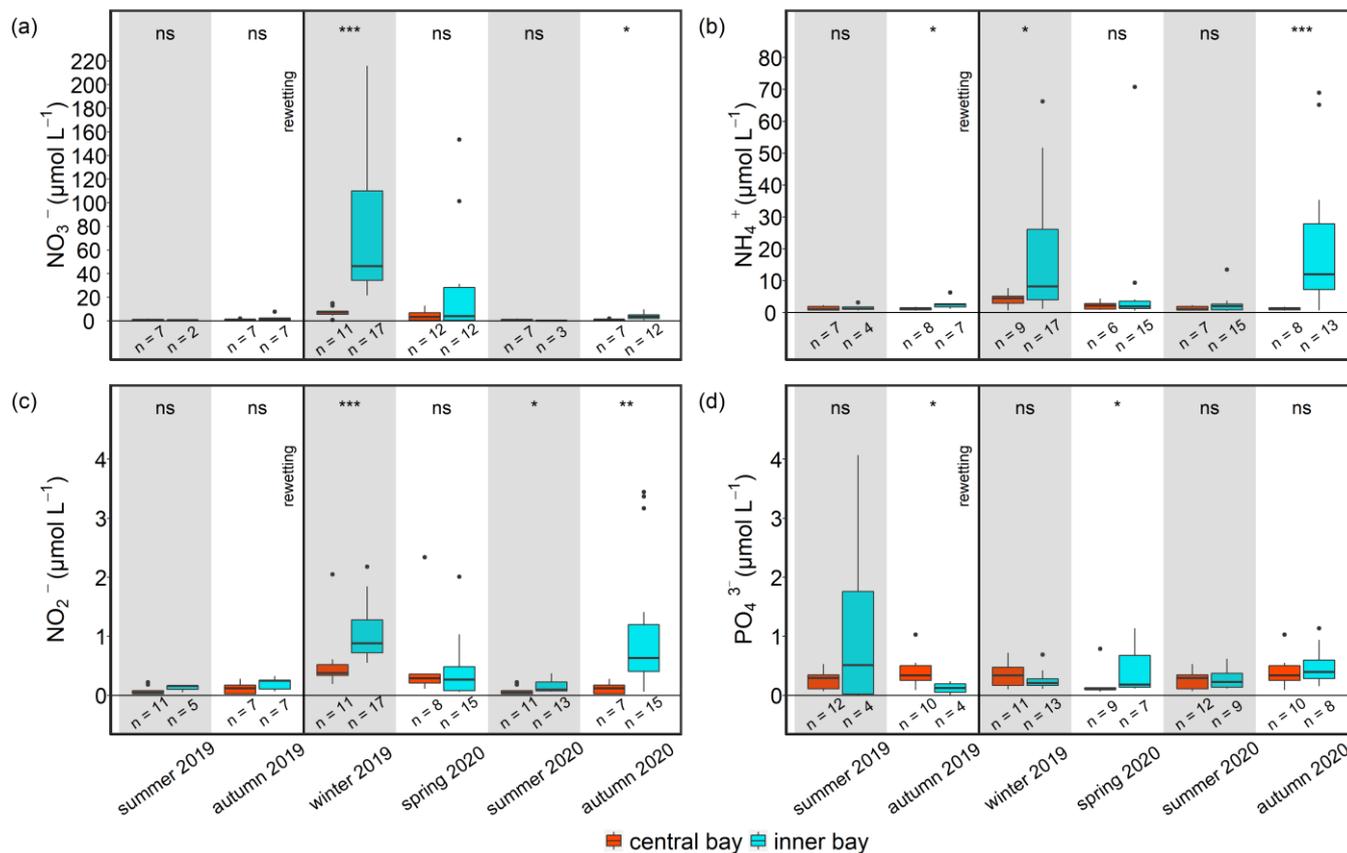


Figure 5. Time series of the mean (a) PO_4^{3-} , (b) NO_3^- , (c) NO_2^- , and (d) NH_4^+ concentrations (\pm standard deviations) in the surface water from June 2019 to December 2020. Data from the flooded peatland ($n = 6$) are shown in blue and data from the inner bay (until 11 March 2020: $n = 1$, thereafter: $n = 2$) in black. The vertical black line indicates the rewetting event.



380

Figure 6. Seasonal nutrient concentrations of (a) NO_3^- , (b) NH_4^+ , (c) NO_2^- , and (d) PO_4^{3-} at the nearby monitoring station (central bay, red) and in the inner bay (inner bay, blue) from pre- to post-rewetting. The vertical black line indicates the rewetting event. Note that 5-year-data (2016–2020) are shown for the central bay (see Sect. 2.4.2). ns = not significant, * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$.

3.2.2 Nutrient export from the rewetted peatland into the inner bay

385 The rewetted peatland was a net source of DIN-N and $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ for the inner bay (Table B1). During the first year after rewetting, $12.5 \pm 19.5 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ DIN-N and $0.2 \pm 0.5 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ were exported into the inner bay. DIN-N export was highest during the winter directly after rewetting ($8.6 \pm 9.9 \text{ t}$) and lowest during summer ($0.4 \pm 0.5 \text{ t}$). While DIN-N was only exported from the peatland, an import of $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ into the peatland occurred once in autumn.

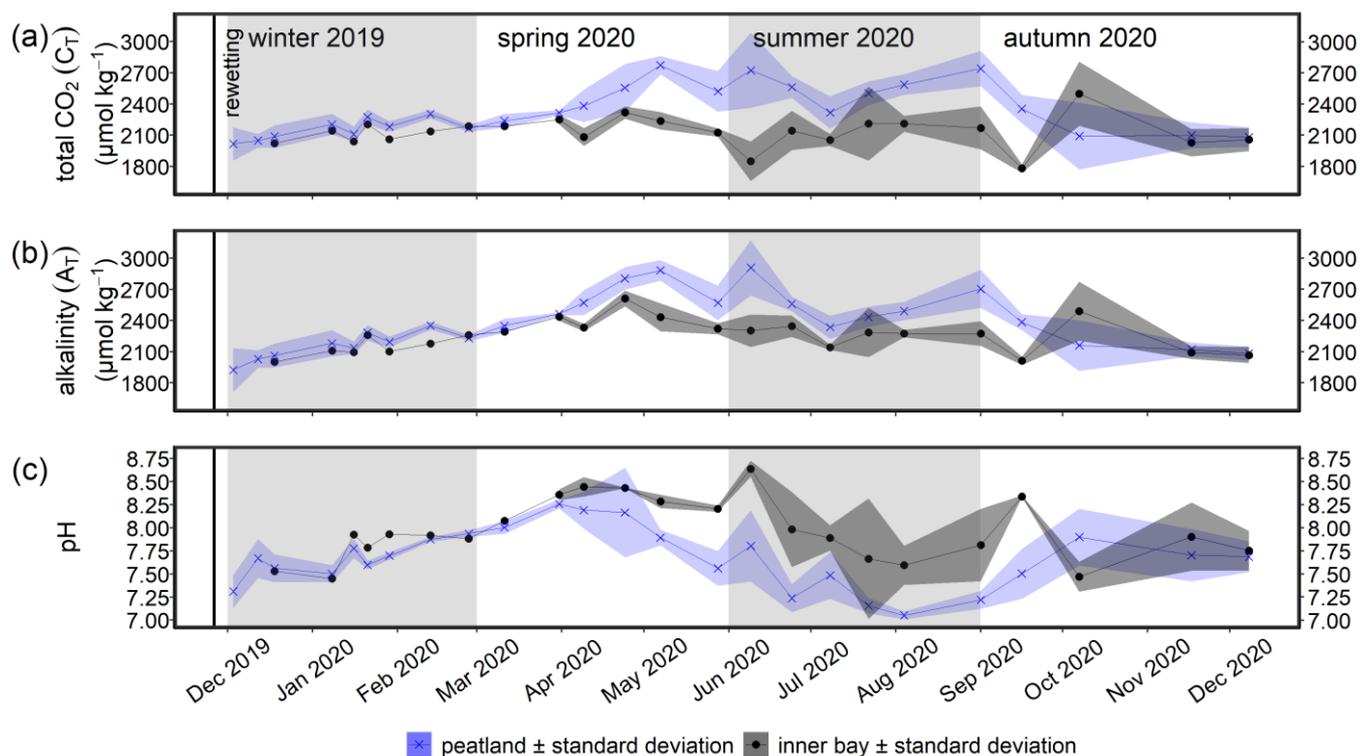
390 A gradient consisting mainly of N-nutrient concentrations occurred from the peatland through the inner bay to the central bay. Therefore, nutrient data from the central bay were also taken into account to estimate the total possible export from the peatland to the sea. This resulted in an estimated total net export of $36.5 \pm 10.9 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ DIN-N and $0.2 \pm 0.3 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$.



3.3 GHG in the surface water after rewetting

3.3.1 Inorganic C system

395 During the winter after rewetting, the differences in the CO₂ system (C_T, A_T, pH, pCO₂) between the inner bay and the
 peatland were not significant (Figure 7, Figure 8a). All variables increased slightly until spring, coinciding with a slight
 increase in salinity over the same period. From spring onwards, however, the components of the CO₂ system followed
 contrasting patterns, with C_T and A_T remained relatively constant in the inner bay but reaching significantly higher values in
 the peatland ($p < 0.05$), including maximum values in summer (Table 2). The pH also showed significant seasonal
 400 differences, with lower values and a minimum in summer in the peatland ($p < 0.05$). C_T and A_T values in the inner bay and in
 the peatland aligned in autumn whereas the pH remained significantly different ($p < 0.05$). The mean pCO₂ (calculated from
 C_T and pH) of the surface water in winter was $1050.0 \pm 55.7 \mu\text{atm}$ in the inner bay and $1403.9 \pm 674.8 \mu\text{atm}$ in the peatland
 (Figure 8a). The pCO₂ values were highest during the first few weeks after inundation and then steadily decreased, with the
 lowest mean values occurring in spring (peatland) and summer (inner bay). The summer was characterized by high pCO₂
 405 values in general, including earlier and stronger increases in the peatland than in the inner bay that resulted in significant
 differences in spring and summer ($p < 0.05$ for both seasons). pCO₂ values were highest in summer with
 $4016.7 \pm 2120.0 \mu\text{atm}$ (peatland) and $1161.7 \pm 1275.5 \mu\text{atm}$ (inner bay) (Table 2). In October, all of the examined CO₂
 quantities had a short-term inversion of the prevailing pattern.

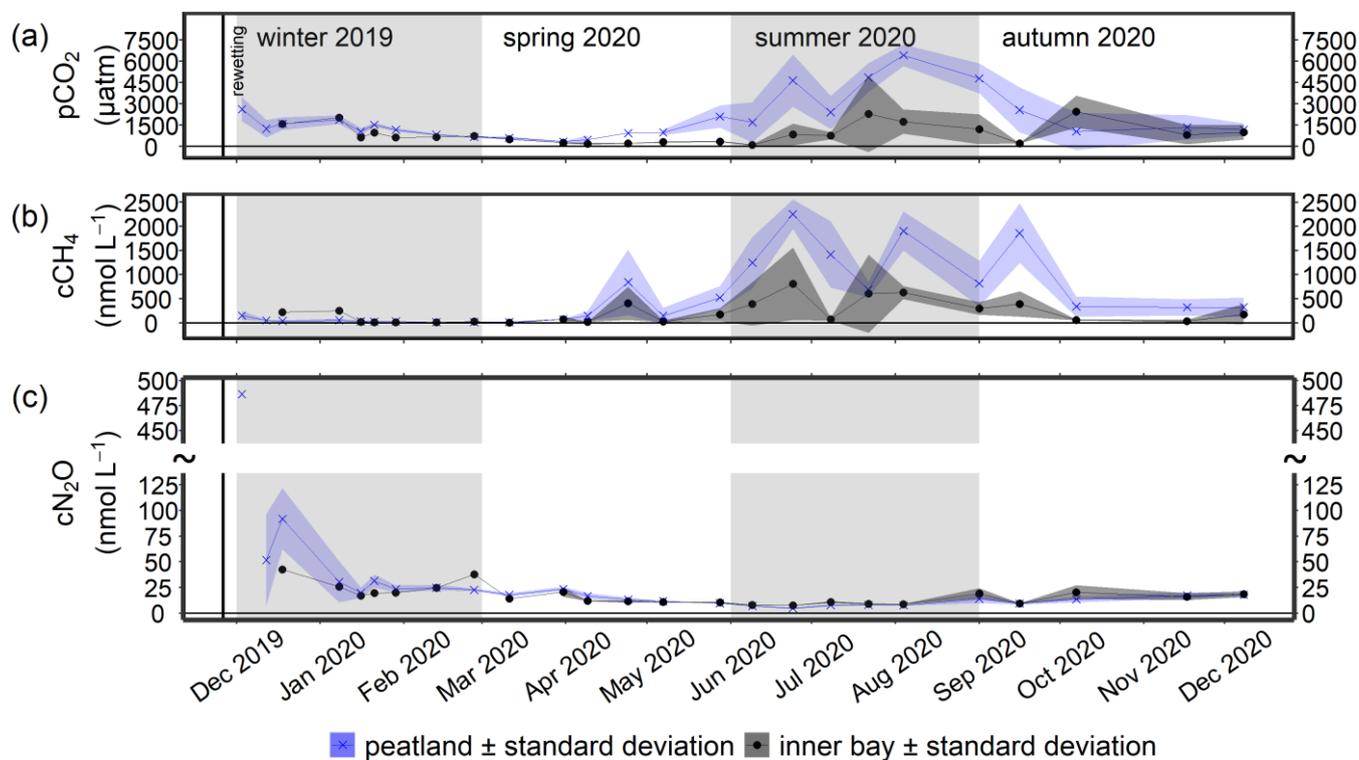




410 **Figure 7.** Time series of the mean (a) total CO₂ (C_T), (b) total alkalinity (A_T), and (c) pH (± standard deviations) in the surface water after
rewetting, as measured from December 2019 to December 2020. Data from the flooded peatland (n = 6) are shown in blue and data from
the inner bay (until 11 March 2020: n = 1, thereafter: n = 2) in black. The vertical black line indicates the rewetting event.

3.3.2 CH₄

During the first few months after flooding (thus, mainly in winter), the CH₄ concentrations in both the inner bay and the
peatland were low and did not differ significantly (Figure 8b, Table 2): 48.0 ± 49.5 nmol L⁻¹ (peatland) and
81.4 ± 107.0 nmol L⁻¹ (inner bay), respectively. From mid-spring onwards, CH₄ concentrations in the inner bay and the
peatland increased such that during summer and autumn 2020, the differences at the two areas were significant (*p* < 0.05).
Mean CH₄ values were highest in summer and amounted 1502.4 ± 693.4 nmol L⁻¹ in the peatland and
502.5 ± 479.3 nmol L⁻¹ in the inner bay. Further, the peatland was characterized by a considerable short-term variability in
spring and summer, expressed in four peaks representing elevated concentrations. A positive significant correlation (*r*_s =
0.73, n = 72, *p* < 0.001) was found in the peatland between the surface water CH₄ concentrations and a water temperature
> 10 °C, but not < 10 °C.



425 **Figure 8.** Time series of the mean (a) pCO₂, (b) CH₄ concentration (cCH₄), and (c) N₂O concentration (cN₂O) (± standard deviations) after
rewetting in the surface water from December 2019 to December 2020. Data from the flooded peatland (n = 6) are shown in blue and data from
the inner bay (until 11 March 2020: n = 1, thereafter: n = 2) in black. The vertical black line indicates the rewetting event.



3.3.3 N₂O

The highest N₂O concentration of 486.3 nmol L⁻¹ was measured in the peatland one week after rewetting (Figure 8c), followed by 4–5 of still elevated N₂O concentrations between 19.9 and 91.8 nmol L⁻¹. During winter, significant positive correlations were determined in the peatland between N₂O and NH₄⁺ ($r_s = 0.61$, $n = 45$, $p < 0.001$) and between N₂O and NO₂⁻ ($r_s = 0.46$, $n = 45$, $p < 0.01$). From spring onwards, N₂O decreased rapidly, both in the peatland and the inner bay, with the lowest values of 4.7 to 7.9 nmol L⁻¹ reached in summer. Other positive correlations of N₂O with N-nutrients in the peatland included NO₃⁻ ($r_s = 0.58$, $n = 21$, $p < 0.01$) and NO₂⁻ ($r_s = 0.69$, $n = 34$, $p < 0.001$) in spring and all N species in autumn (NO₃⁻: $r_s = 0.77$, $n = 25$, $p < 0.001$; NO₂⁻: $r_s = 0.67$, $n = 29$, $p < 0.001$; NH₄⁺: $r_s = 0.76$, $n = 28$, $p < 0.001$).

Spatial differences in N₂O concentrations between the inner bay and the peatland were low and not significant in winter, spring or autumn whereas significantly lower concentrations were measured in the peatland during summer (Table 2).

3.4 GHG fluxes (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O)

3.4.1 Comparability of two independent approaches to atmospheric flux determination

Since the gas transfer velocity k model (Sect. 2.5.3) requires a water-air interface and thus cannot be applied to dry conditions, before rewetting only atmospheric flux measurements obtained by manual closed-chambers along a representative transect (Figure 2b) were available to determine pre-rewetting GHG fluxes. After rewetting, data from manual closed-chambers (transect) and from surface water sampling for the k model (transect and peatland stations) were used. The two methodologies were applied at the same locations along the transect only after rewetting (Table 3).

Table 3. Overview of the method usage to determine the atmospheric GHG fluxes

Pre-rewetting	Post-rewetting	
transect (Figure 2b)	transect (Figure 2b)	peatland area (Figure 2a)
chamber-based	chamber-based ^{1,2}	k model ²
	k model ^{1,2}	

¹ inter-methodological comparison at station BTD7

² formed the data representing post-rewetting fluxes

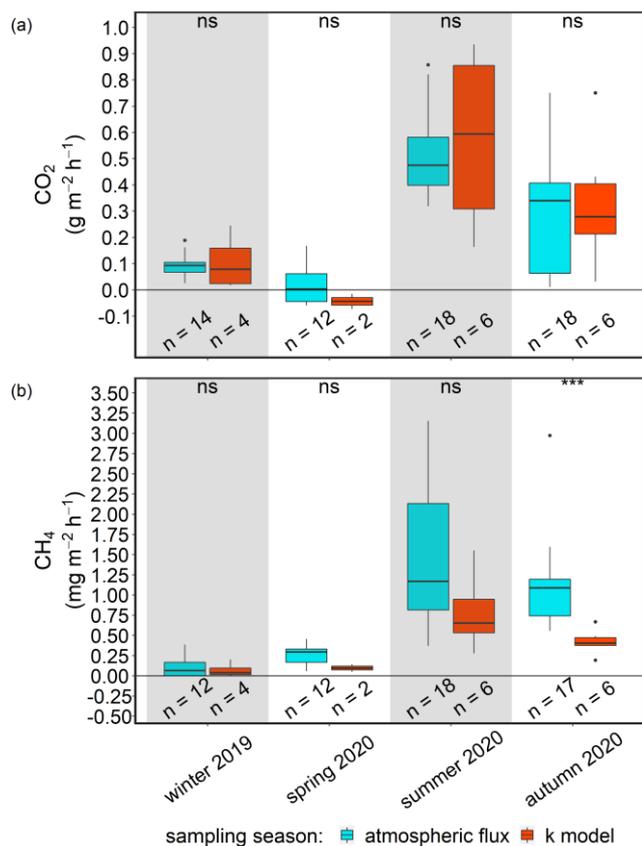
To evaluate the inter-comparability of the flux estimates obtained with the two methods, the results from station BTD7 were compared for each post-rewetting season. Data from this station were chosen because it was permanently flooded after rewetting and thus assured a valid baseline for comparison. The dynamics of the CO₂ fluxes determined by the two methods were the same and thus did not differ significantly in any of the seasons (Kruskal test, $p > 0.05$, Figure 9a).

CH₄ fluxes also did not differ significantly, except in autumn (Kruskal test, $p < 0.001$), when the average flux calculated according to the two methods differed by a factor of 2.7. However, the data of the k model had less impact, due to



the smaller number of measurements ($n = 6$). Given the smaller data set compared to that of the closed chambers ($n = 17$), the same statistical analysis was conducted without a seasonal division. The results showed no significant differences in the two methods for CH_4 fluxes (Kruskal test, CO_2 and CH_4). Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to combine the flux-estimation methods for each GHG into one post-rewetting data set, as this allowed the consideration of a broader range of possible flux amplitudes. In addition, the post-rewetting data acquired along the transect were pooled with data distributed throughout the peatland area. Although the area covered by the transect was smaller than the covered by the k-model data from the peatland, such that pooling of the post-rewetting-data risked spatial bias, two positive effects of pooling were identified: (1) The transect stations were representative of the entire area after flooding, because they covered a water-level-gradient (several cm to > 2 m in the ditch) that coincided with the conditions of the peatland stations. (2) The transect stations represented a large heterogeneity in the peatland before rewetting that decreased post-rewetting. This was also evident from the CO_2 flux measurements, which showed a high variability (data not shown) at each station before rewetting. After rewetting, there was less variability such that the stations became more similar in their atmospheric C-exchange patterns, likely due to the mixing patterns triggered by lateral exchange with the Baltic Sea (Sect. 3.1). Largely similar conditions were therefore assumed at all stations within the peatland.

The pooled post-rewetting flux values were compared with the pre-rewetting values to investigate the direct effect of rewetting on CH_4 and CO_2 fluxes.



470 **Figure 9.** Seasonal post-rewetting fluxes of (a) CO₂ and (b) CH₄ at station BTD7, which is part of the transect. Chamber-based atmospheric GHG fluxes are shown in blue and air-sea GHG fluxes from the k model in red. The methodological comparisons within seasons are based on a significance level of $p < 0.05$. ns: not significant; *** $p < 0.001$.

3.4.2 Pre- and post-rewetting GHG fluxes

475 Terrestrial CO₂ fluxes before rewetting, during summer and autumn 2019, were highly variable ranging from -3.3 to 3.0 g m⁻² h⁻¹ with a mean of 0.29 ± 0.74 g m⁻² h⁻¹ (Figure 10a). Within the ditch, pre-rewetting CO₂ fluxes ranged from -0.008 to 0.6 g m⁻² h⁻¹, but on average were comparable to the fluxes determined at the terrestrial (dry) surface.

480 After rewetting, formerly terrestrial CO₂ fluxes decreased in amplitude (-0.5 to 1.4 g m⁻² h⁻¹), while the summer and autumn averages were unchanged compared to the pre-rewetting fluxes. In the ditch, the mean and minimum post-rewetting CO₂ fluxes were within the range of those determined pre-rewetting (mean: 0.26 ± 0.29 g m⁻² h⁻¹, min: -0.02 g m⁻² h⁻¹) but the maximum flux (1.1 g m⁻² h⁻¹) was almost twice as high as the pre-rewetting ditch flux (max: 0.6 g m⁻² h⁻¹).

Pre-rewetting CH₄ fluxes in summer and autumn 2019 varied between -0.9 to 8.4 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (terrestrial) and -1.1 to 193.6 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (drainage ditch; Figure 10b). While mean terrestrial CH₄ fluxes were 0.13 ± 1.01 mg m⁻² h⁻¹, the mean ditch fluxes were 11.4 ± 37.5 mg m⁻² h⁻¹. In summer and autumn 2020, after rewetting, average CH₄ fluxes on formerly



485 terrestrial land increased slightly ($1.74 \pm 7.59 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$), whereas in the ditch they decreased ($8.5 \pm 26.9 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$). Flux
amplitudes at the ditch station before and after rewetting were comparable.

Data on N_2O fluxes are available only for the post-rewetting period. The rewetted peatland was a small source of
 N_2O , with an annual mean flux of $0.02 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ in the first year after rewetting (Figure 10c). The highest N_2O flux
of $0.4 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ occurred one week after rewetting, followed by lower N_2O fluxes between 0.007 and $0.2 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$
490 within the following 4–5 weeks. Afterwards, N_2O fluxes remained constantly close to zero. Negative fluxes, representing
 N_2O uptake, were measured only in summer.

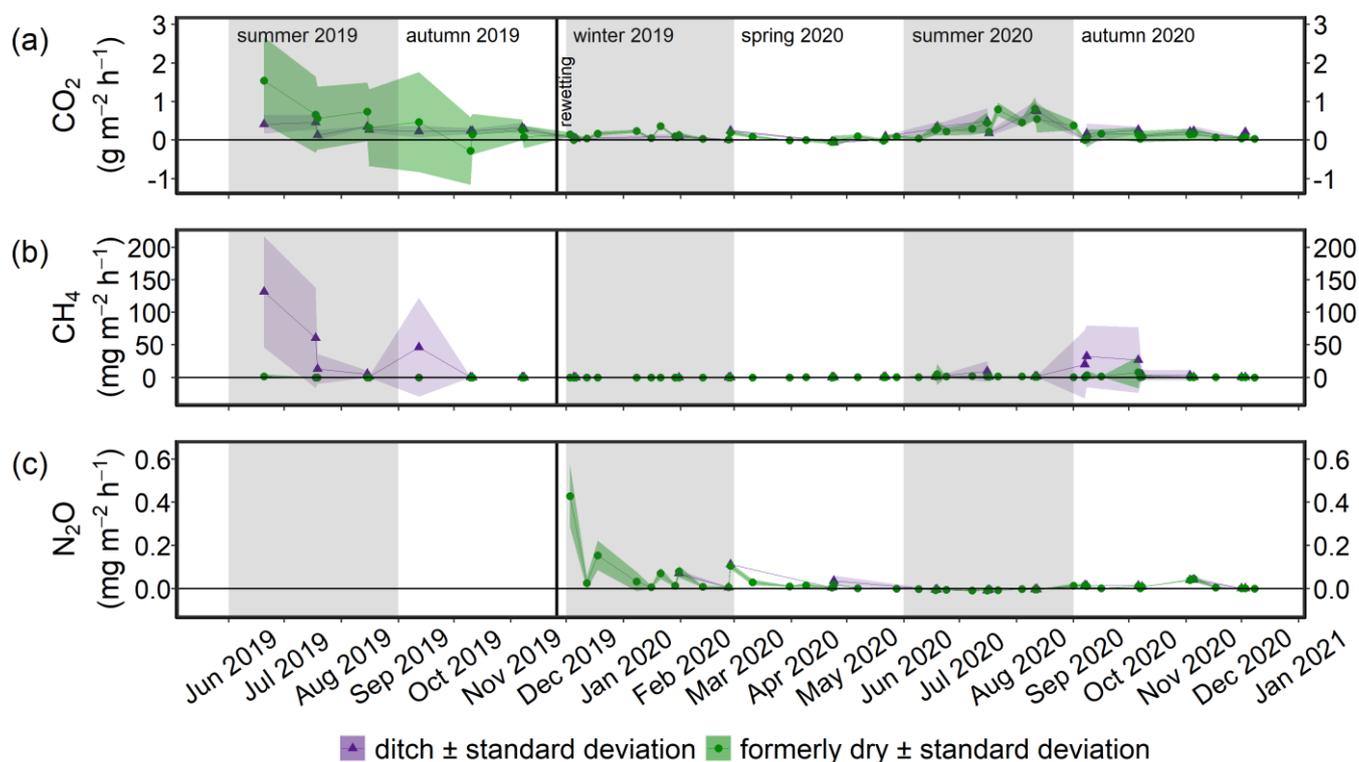


Figure 10. Time series of the mean (a) CO_2 , (b) CH_4 , and (c) N_2O fluxes (\pm standard deviations) from June 2019 to December 2020.
Fluxes of the permanently wet drainage ditch are shown in purple and those derived from the two methods employed in this study in green.
495 The vertical black line indicates the rewetting event.

4. Discussion

4.1 Nutrient dynamics and export

The seasonal dynamics of the nutrients followed a typical course over the year. Thus, after rewetting, NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and NO_2^-
concentrations were high in winter and autumn, which is typically due to the remineralization of OM followed by
500 nitrification (Voss et al., 2010). By contrast, the low DIN concentrations during spring and summer reflected the



consumption of nutrients by plants and phytoplankton. The very high chlorophyll a concentration (up to $125 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) in the peatland indicated the presence of a highly phototrophic community, likely driven by the higher availability of nutrients compared to the inner bay.

To assess whether the flooded peatland nonetheless served as a potential nutrient source for the inner bay, nutrient concentrations of the peatland were compared with those of the inner bay and of an unaffected monitoring station (“central bay”). Mean nutrient concentrations were generally higher in the peatland than in the inner bay but they increased in the latter after rewetting, suggesting rapid nutrient transport out of the peatland in the first 3 months (Figure 5). This was supported by significantly higher winter concentrations of all N-nutrients in the inner bay than in the central bay (Figure 6.) whereas before rewetting, only the NH_4^+ concentration was significantly higher in the inner bay compared to the central bay. According to this result, the rewetting likely increased NO_3^- and NO_2^- concentrations in the inner bay due to a nutrient transport out of the peatland.

The remineralization of upper peat layers can lead to an accumulation of nutrients within the soil due to drainage (Zak and Gelbrecht, 2007; Cabezas et al., 2012). After rewetting, nutrient concentrations in the porewater and ultimately in the overlying water increase (van de Riet et al., 2013; Harpenslager et al., 2015; Zak et al., 2017). The leaching of nutrients is driven by concentration differences across the soil-water interface, but it is also dependent on factors such as salinity (Rysgaard et al., 1999; Steinmuller and Chambers, 2018), the oxygen availability in the soil (Lennartz and Liu, 2019), and the effects of the latter on microbial processes (Burgin and Groffman, 2012), as well as on the degree of peat decomposition (Cabezas et al., 2012). For instance, highly degraded peat, such as at our study area, can store and release more nutrients than less degraded peat (Cabezas et al., 2012), meaning that the highly degraded peat of our study area was prone to leach high amounts of nutrients. Occasional measurements of porewater nutrient concentrations in the peat of your study area revealed DIN and PO_4^{3-} concentrations up to 1 order of magnitude higher than those in the surface water (Anne Breznikar, unpublished data), providing further support for the leaching of nutrients out of the peatland and into the inner bay.

The estimated annual nutrient exports from the peatland of $12.5 \pm 19.5 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ DIN-N and $0.2 \pm 0.5 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ (peatland/inner bay) and $36.5 \pm 10.9 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ DIN-N and $0.2 \pm 0.3 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ (peatland/central bay) were high, given the small size of the flooded peatland ($\sim 0.5 \text{ km}^2$ at 0 masl). For comparison, the Warnow, a small river that flows into the Baltic Sea near the city of Rostock, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, and drains an area of $\sim 3300 \text{ km}^2$, had a mean annual DIN-N and $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ export of $1200 \pm 500 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$ and $19.9 \pm 7.6 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$, respectively, over the last 25 years (HELCOM, 2019). When normalized to the same dimensions, our study area exported $25.0\text{--}73.0 \text{ t DIN-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $0.4 \text{ t PO}_4\text{-P km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, whereas the Warnow exported only $0.36 \text{ t DIN-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $0.01 \text{ t PO}_4\text{-P km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Overall, the total nutrient export from the flooded peatland to the inner bay and to the central bay in the first year after rewetting accounted for ~ 1 and ~ 3 %, respectively, of the annual DIN-N and $\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ loads of the Warnow. These results highlight the importance of currently still unmonitored and small, independently draining areas along the coastline of the Baltic Sea, in particular those that become intentionally flooded (HELCOM, 2019).



4.2 Assessment of the GHG dynamics

535 4.2.1 CO₂

The carbon system in our study area is governed by a variety of processes (e.g. Wolf-Gladrow et al., 2007; Kuliński et al., 2017; Schneider and Müller, 2018). C_T and A_T were transported with the brackish water from the central bay and ultimately from the Arkona Basin. Additional alkalinity can be added either by a supply of freshwater, which in the southwestern Baltic Sea is characterized by higher alkalinities than the brackish or even saltwater endmember (Beldowski et al., 2010; Müller et al., 2016), or can be introduced by mineralization processes from the seafloor. Primary production (i.e., carbon fixation) will decrease C_T, lower the pCO₂ and increase pH during the formation of organic matter. The mineralization of OM from various sources (new primary production, remineralization of the inundated former vegetation and from the underlying peat) will enhance C_T and A_T concentrations, increase pCO₂ and decrease pH. Air-sea exchange during our study is fostered by a pCO₂ that is above atmospheric levels throughout the year, except for a short period in spring in the inner bay and the peatland, where outgassing of CO₂ occurred, resulting in lower pCO₂ and a decrease in C_T.

We observed three main developments in the surface water CO₂ system and air-sea flux pattern: (i) in winter 2019/2020, the CO₂ system hardly differed between the peatland and the inner bay whereas pCO₂ decreased; (ii) from spring to autumn, there were significant differences in the CO₂ system between the peatland and the inner bay, with higher pCO₂, C_T and A_T values and lower pH in the peatland coinciding with an enrichment in chlorophyll a; (iii) overall, the first post-rewetting year showed sustained high, but less variable CO₂ fluxes compared to pre-rewetting conditions. In the following, we will discuss these three observations and set them into context.

(i) Initial post-rewetting CO₂ dynamics

The first weeks after the rewetting were characterized by high nutrient concentrations, a continuous increase in A_T, C_T and pH and a decrease in pCO₂ (Figure 5, Figure 7, Figure 8). The increase in C_T and A_T coincided with a steady increase in salinity (Figure 4), which is in line with a general increase of A_T with increasing salinity known for the western Baltic Sea (e.g. Kuliński et al., 2022).

Still, the A_T values at the given salinity were higher in the inner bay and the peatland than would be expected from a linear A_T/salinity relation found for surface waters in the open Baltic Sea from the central Gotland Sea to the Kattegat (Beldowski et al., 2010; Müller et al., 2016). Thus, the high A_T in the inner bay and peatland were likely associated with local carbonate (CaCO₃) weathering from terrestrial sources and/or a transport by groundwater (Schneider and Müller, 2018). C_T and A_T values during this period were consistently higher by ~70–80 μmol kg⁻¹ in the peatland than in the inner bay, consistent with enhanced leaching from the recently inundated peat.

The oversaturation in pCO₂ and potentially the excess leaching of alkalinity from the soil might have contributed to the decrease in pCO₂ and increase in pH in the peatland in winter 2019/2020. This was apparently reinforced by a short episode of primary production mid/end January, indicated by a steeper decline of the pCO₂ and a steeper pH increase. This coincided with a short increase in chlorophyll a (~30 μg L⁻¹) and a slight intermittent increase of the surface water



temperatures (Figure 4). This short, unusually early productive period might have resulted from the high nutrient availability induced by the rewetting of the peatland (Sect. 3.2.1), in particular the high NH_4^+ levels, which simultaneously showed a sharp intermittent minimum.

570 (ii) Production and mineralization governance over the productive period (spring to autumn)

In late winter and the first half of spring, pCO_2 continuously decreased in the peatland as well as in the inner bay. Lowest pCO_2 was measured between March and May and coincided with enhanced chlorophyll a concentrations and a high availability of nutrients in the peatland and in the inner bay, which decreased until mid spring. This resulted in a slight CO_2 uptake in the peatland of $-0.005 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for a short period of time, so that spring was the only season when pCO_2 was on average below atmospheric concentrations in the inner bay (Figure 10). This finding can be attributed to the onset of the productive period, at still moderate surface water temperatures below 10°C until mid April. During this period, productivity clearly dominated remineralization, as suggested by the decreasing pCO_2 and increasing pH, despite rising temperatures, as well as increasing O_2 oversaturation in the surface waters. These trends were slightly more pronounced in the peatland than in the inner bay, in accordance to higher nutrient concentrations available for production. It is noteworthy that in the first spring after rewetting, there were negligible stands of emergent macrophytes, and the peatland area appeared like a shallow bay. The primary production can therefore be attributed to the water column.

From mid spring until late summer, the peatland was characterized by increased pCO_2 and a variable CO_2 system together with high mean chlorophyll a concentrations of up to $106.0 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. N-nutrients were very low and the system was clearly nitrogen-limited, with only slightly elevated NH_4^+ concentrations in late summer, (Figure 4, Figure 5). Furthermore, the O_2 saturation shifted from over- to undersaturated conditions. These observations suggest that the peatland and the inner bay were characterized by simultaneous production and mineralization processes from mid spring until autumn that kept the N-nutrients (except PO_4^{3-}) low. Remineralization of OM in the water column, sediment and soil clearly dominated over production, leading to the observed high pCO_2 , lowered pH, and enhanced A_T and C_T concentrations. Remineralization during this period was clearly more pronounced in the peatland than in the inner bay, leading to the higher pCO_2 , A_T , and C_T values in the peatland, and a stronger and more pronounced reduction of the pH. This stronger remineralization, in particular in the warm summer months, also led to higher DOC concentrations in summer, with a maximum in June/July coinciding with maximum surface water temperatures. The enhanced remineralization in the peatland was likely fueled by higher OM availability from high decomposition rates of fresh plant substrate from inundated plant residuals (Glatzel et al., 2008; Hahn-Schöfl et al., 2011), and also due to the omission of topsoil removal before the rewetting. In addition, aerobic and anaerobic oxidation of CH_4 , that was produced in anoxic zones, might have led to increased CO_2 production, especially during increased water temperatures (e.g. Treude et al., 2005; Dean et al., 2018), due to the availability of SO_4^{2-} and O_2 .

The calculated A_T (from C_T and pH) in the peatland was consistently lower than the measured A_T with a difference in the range of $55\text{--}122 \mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ and thus of $2.7\text{--}4.7\%$ (data not shown). This difference was higher than in the Baltic Sea, where the contribution of organic A_T is estimated to be $1.5\text{--}3.5\%$ (Kuliński et al., 2014). Due to closer vicinity to the coast and the high amount of degradable OM, this higher contribution of organic A_T seems evident. The highest discrepancy



between measured A_T values and those calculated from pH and C_T occur in early summer, simultaneously to the highest values in DOC, in particular in the peatland (Figure 4). This suggests that the organic A_T related to the occurrence of DOC (and thus DOM), contributed to the excess of A_T . The higher DOC formation in summer in the peatland might partly explain the difference in A_T between the inner bay and the peatland.

605 (iii) Sustained high CO_2 fluxes but less variability caused by brackish water flooding

The amplitude of the CO_2 fluxes from formerly drained parts of the study area decreased after rewetting with brackish water, while the amplitude of CO_2 fluxes from the ditch (inundated after flooding but with deeper, probably incompletely exchanged water) did not differ strongly before and after rewetting (Figure 10). An increased water table is the main driver for the reduction of CO_2 emissions on formerly drained locations. A similar scenario has been reported for terrestrial sites
610 (Bubier et al., 2003; Strack, 2008). In a nearby coastal peatland, both photosynthesis and ecosystem respiration were strongly reduced after rewetting (Koebisch et al., 2013). The rewetting of our study area probably caused a die-back of the highly productive grassland vegetation at a rate faster than that occurring after freshwater rewetting (Hahn-Schöfl et al., 2011), which in turn would have led to a reduction of the CO_2 flux amplitude.

Average CO_2 fluxes were still relatively high after rewetting, with an annual mean of $0.26 \pm 0.29 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$. A
615 comparison of the values from summer/autumn of 2019 with those of 2020 showed that CO_2 fluxes remained relatively high. They were also higher than the fluxes determined in studies of shallow coastal or near-shore waters in the northwestern Bornholm Sea of up to $0.01 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Thomas and Schneider, 1999) or the Bothnian Bay of around $\sim 0.0007 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Löffler et al., 2012). In a nearby coastal fen recently influenced by brackish water inflow, ecosystem respiration was 2 orders of magnitude lower (Koebisch et al., 2020) compared to our study site, where the ongoing decomposition of
620 submerged substrate from plant residuals and the fresh soil may have fueled the continuously high CO_2 fluxes in the first year after rewetting (Hahn-Schöfl et al., 2011). The remineralization of OM from primary production driven by the high initial nutrient availability, as well as aerobic and anaerobic (SO_4^{2-}) oxidation (Dean et al., 2018) of easily degradable substrates or CH_4 (see above), might have additionally contributed to these CO_2 fluxes. We expect that CO_2 emissions will further decrease, likely because substrates become exhausted and a novel ecosystem will be established (Kreyling et al.,
625 2021), with developing algae fostering CO_2 fixation.

4.2.2 CH_4

We observed three developments in surface water methane concentrations and flux patterns as well: (i) a short-term, very moderate increase in CH_4 concentrations directly after rewetting in winter 2019/2020; (ii) an increase in the CH_4 concentrations mainly from spring to autumn, that was significantly higher and more variable in the peatland than in the
630 inner bay and correlated with water temperature; (iii) in the first year after rewetting, much lower CH_4 fluxes than reported for nearby peatlands rewetted by freshwater. These three observations are discussed and set into context in the following.

(i) Short-term, moderate increase in the CH_4 concentrations in the winter after rewetting



The measurements in winter, immediately after rewetting, showed a short-term increase in the CH₄ concentrations, although it remained low (Figure 8). Rewetting with brackish water inundated both the degraded peat and the remaining vegetation. While this implies the instant availability of labile OM, the intensity of methanogenesis depends not only on the total amount but also on the quality of the OM (Heyer and Berger, 2000; Parish, 2008). Inundated plant material and its subsequent die-back provide high-quality OM, such that in our study the availability of OM was not a limiting factor. Nevertheless, the CH₄ concentration remained low and was associated with low temperature, which is an important factor controlling microbial processes and CH₄ production. A study of a shallow coastal area in a nearby shallow coastal area of the Baltic Sea, between the islands of Rügen and Hiddensee showed that water temperature was the primary driver of the temporal variability in CH₄ emissions, with low rates associated with low temperatures (Heyer and Berger, 2000).

The rewetting with brackish water transported water with a salinity of 6–7.4 into the peatland such that there were no significant differences in salinity compared to the inner bay in winter (same for temperature; Table 2). Thus, sulfate reached the peatland immediately after rewetting. As a terminal electron acceptor (TEA), SO₄²⁻ promotes the establishment of sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB), which outcompete methane-producing microorganisms (methanogens) for substrates (Segers and Kengen, 1998; Jørgensen, 2006; Segarra et al., 2013). This process has been shown to play an important role in flat brackish water systems (e.g. Heyer and Berger, 2000). The availability of other TEAs, such as NO₃⁻ that had high concentrations in our study of $\sim 100 \pm 58 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, could have further suppressed methanogenesis (Table 2) (Jørgensen, 2006). Beside competitive mineralization, aerobic and anaerobic CH₄ oxidation may have reduced the CH₄ concentrations (Heyer and Berger, 2000; Reeburgh, 2007; Knittel and Boetius, 2009; Steinle et al., 2017), supported by the effective exchange of water masses. Overall, the rewetting with brackish water and while winter apparently inhibited methanogenesis and/or effective oxidation resulted in low CH₄ concentrations and a reduction of the CH₄ flux into the atmosphere.

(ii) Increased and variable CH₄ concentrations during the vegetation period

The increasing temperature from spring to autumn was accompanied by an enhanced and albeit variable CH₄ concentrations. Temperature is crucial in controlling CH₄ cycling in shallow coastal/near-shore waters as well as in wetlands, and a distinct relationship between temperature and CH₄ concentrations has been reported for brackish shallow water systems (Bange et al., 1998; Heyer and Berger, 2000) and for the organic-rich sediments in the North Sea (e.g. Borges et al., 2018). Similar relationships describe the CH₄ exchange in permanently inundated wetlands (e.g. Koebsch et al., 2015) and in a peatland close to our peatland during the first year after rewetting (Hahn et al., 2015). Moreover, CH₄ concentrations in the peatland ($r_s = 0.75$, $n = 74$, $p < 0.05$) and the inner bay ($r_s = 0.55$, $n = 29$, $p < 0.05$) correlated significantly and positively with temperature. In the study of Heyer and Berger (2000) the temperature range influenced the temporal variability in CH₄ emissions, which were highest in late spring. Since the temperature range in the peatland of our study was variable (e.g., maximum difference of ~ 6 °C between samplings), with the highest values between spring and autumn (7.4–23.1 °C), this variability may have contributed to the observed CH₄ dynamics.

The peatland and the inner bay were clearly influenced by the same hydrographic conditions, evidenced by their very similar salinities and temperatures. However, the peatland showed higher CH₄ concentrations from spring to late



autumn, possibly due to the high availability of OM as described by Heyer and Berger (2000) and Bange et al. (1998). Incubation experiments of a degraded fen grassland demonstrated the accumulation of fresh plant litter in a new sediment layer after flooding that resulted in high rates of CH₄ and CO₂ production (Hahn-Schöfl et al., 2011). A further potential driver of OM availability is the sedimentation of freshly produced OM originating from primary production, as described for shallow areas in the Baltic Sea (Bange et al., 1998) and for a shallow bight in the North Sea, which in the latter led to a yearly peak in the seasonal CH₄ cycle (Borges et al., 2018). Although our observations were not made in OM-poor sediments, an impact of primary production on enhanced CH₄ concentrations in the OM-rich Drammendorf peatland was likely, given the significant positive correlation of the surface CH₄ concentrations and the chlorophyll a concentration (r_s = 0.41, n = 56, p < 0.05). Furthermore, aerobic CH₄ production cannot be excluded, as its occurrence has been reported in oxic freshwater (Bogard et al., 2014) and during NO₃⁻ limitation and PO₄³⁻ availability (Damm et al., 2010), and it also occurred in spring and summer at our study area.

(iii) Brackish water rewetting and low CH₄ emissions

Despite high surface water CH₄ concentrations in the peatland and their inter-seasonal and spatial variability, rewetting with brackish water resulted in CH₄ emissions considerably lower than those from temperate fens rewetted with freshwater, where CH₄ emissions strongly increased (Augustin and Chojnicki, 2008; Couwenberg et al., 2011; Hahn et al., 2015; Franz et al., 2016; Jurasinski et al., 2016).

At our study site, although average CH₄ fluxes on formerly terrestrial locations increased by 1 order of magnitude after rewetting, the overall increase from 0.13 ± 1.01 to 1.74 ± 7.59 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (Figure 10) was lower than that reported for freshwater rewetted fens under similar climatological boundary conditions (e.g. Hahn et al., 2015; Franz et al., 2016). Even several years after rewetting, the annual CH₄ budgets of a shallow lake on a formerly drained fen varied between 4.0 and 91.0 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Franz et al., 2016), corresponding to 11.0–249.3 mg m⁻² h⁻¹. Our CH₄ fluxes were also lower than the emissions reported from coastal-near shallow water of the Baltic Sea, where fluxes in June/July are 39.9–104.2 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (Heyer and Berger, 2000). For the same months the mean fluxes at the formerly dry stations in our study were 0.5–4.9 mg m⁻² h⁻¹. However, compared to CH₄ fluxes from continental shelves (0.015–0.024 mg m⁻² h⁻¹; adapted from Bange et al., (1994), the fluxes of our study area were 2 orders of magnitude higher. Despite low average fluxes, emission peaks could be distinguished with the highest flux from the now inundated ditch of 149.2 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in September 2020 and 108.3 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in October 2020. While, these values were still lower than the maximum value of 243.0 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ reported by Heyer and Berger (2000), it is important to stress that our study site was a source of CH₄ already in its drained state, especially within the drainage ditch, where CH₄ fluxes were comparable to the ~0.2 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ reported from undrained fens (Danevčič et al., 2010).

The lower CH₄ emissions of the brackish rewetted Drammendorf peatland can be attributed to the availability of TEAs, especially SO₄²⁻, which (1) may have contributed to a reduction in methanogenesis by competitive inhibition (Segers and Kengen, 1998; Jørgensen, 2006; Segarra et al., 2013) or (2) fostered the anaerobic oxidation of methane (AOM) as an effective pathway to reduce CH₄ emissions, and by (3) fast aerobic CH₄ oxidation mediated by oxygen-rich water.



705 Significant CH₄ production rates in marine and brackish water settings have been reported only where SO₄²⁻ is depleted, such as in the porewater of an inundated and degraded fen (Hahn-Schöfl et al., 2011) or below the SO₄²⁻ penetration zones in marine settings (e.g. Boetius et al., 2000; Reeburgh, 2007). At our study area, the depth of SO₄²⁻ penetration was probably low, due to the short impact of the brackish water. Moreover, AOM is sensitive to the introduction of O₂ mediated by wind-driven resuspension (Treude et al., 2005). Since our study area was shallow and likely experiences regular wind-driven resuspension, spatially and temporally dynamic AOM can be assumed. However, the CH₄ fluxes suggested that an effective aerobic and anaerobic oxidation of CH₄ was more likely. Moreover, higher CH₄ concentrations in the peatland compared to the inner bay in combination with the high lateral water exchange due to frequent changes in the water level (Figure 3) should have driven a net advective export of CH₄-enriched water to the inner bay. This would have further contributed to the low peatland CH₄ emissions and the observed high variability.

715 While CH₄ production and emission were likely prevented by rewetting with oxygen-rich, sulfate-containing brackish water, the possibility remains that the total CH₄ release was underestimated by not sufficient accounting for ebullition. In the marine environment, bubble-mediated transport is attributed to gassy sediments and an effective mechanism of CH₄ transport (e.g. Borges et al., 2016). Although neither of the methods used to determine CH₄ fluxes specifically account for ebullition, we estimated that 6.9 % of all analyzed chamber-based fluxes were partly bubble-influenced. We observed further that another 9.6 % of the chamber-based flux measurements the CH₄ concentration patterns indicated ebullition, but these were not accounted for in the final calculations of diffusive flux. Thus, given that only 16.5 % of the chamber-based flux measurements indicated bubble-mediated CH₄ transport and in almost half of those cases, the resulting perturbation was small and was included in the flux amplitude, the magnitude of the ebullition-driven underestimation of our flux estimates was considered to be small.

720 In summary, the increase in CH₄ concentrations after rewetting in winter was small, short-lived and associated with the die-back of plants. CH₄ fluxes in the first year after rewetting remained relatively low and were lower than is typical of post-rewetting conditions. They also following a seasonal pattern common to for shallow organic-rich systems, with a strong correlation with temperature in spring and summer. The ongoing depletion of OM after the initial post-rewetting shock and a new start of the ecosystem will likely lead to a decrease in CH₄ emissions, as seen in the long-term data from other rewetted coastal fens (unpublished long-term series).

4.2.3 N₂O

730 The rewetted peatland was a source of N₂O in the first year after rewetting, although the mean annual N₂O flux of 0.02 ± 0.07 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ was very low (Figure 10). This was expected since permanent inundation leads to anoxic conditions in the peat, preventing the production of N₂O (e.g. Succow and Joosten, 2001; Strack, 2008). However, the range of post-rewetting N₂O fluxes in the first 3 months (winter) was clearly much larger than during the rest of the year, which indicated that N₂O was strongly and immediately affected by the rewetting, as shown elsewhere Goldberg et al. (2010); Jørgensen and Elberling (2012). The highest N₂O flux (0.4 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) and the highest NH₄⁺ concentration (78.0 μmol L⁻¹) were measured one week



735 after rewetting. Additionally, there was a significant positive correlation between these two variables in winter. These results suggested that N₂O was produced as a side product of nitrification, either in the surface water or in the peat. The accumulation of N₂O, but also of NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ in winter can be interpreted as a result from shifting O₂ conditions in the freshly inundated ecosystem, such that incomplete process chains of e.g. nitrification and denitrification were favored (Rassamee et al., 2011).

740 During late spring and early summer, undersaturation of the surface water with N₂O, compared to the atmosphere, pointed to consumption within suboxic/anoxic zones of the peat. Consumption in the surface water was unlikely because anoxic conditions were never found near the peat surface. The undersaturation of N₂O a few months after rewetting evidenced the change in O₂ conditions in the peat, from oxic to hypoxic/anoxic, turning the rewetted peatland into an N₂O sink, at least temporarily. This change was likely driven by the higher availability of fresh OM (measured as chlorophyll a) in the peatland compared to the inner bay, finally leading to significantly lower N₂O concentrations in the peatland in 745 summer ($p < 0.001$, Table 2).

Previously reported N₂O fluxes in drained peatlands range from 0.002 to 0.45 mg m⁻² h⁻¹, with a clear trend towards higher fluxes in fertilized or naturally N-rich areas (Flessa et al., 1998; Glatzel and Stahr, 2001; Augustin, 2003; Strack, 2008; Minkkinen et al., 2020). Augustin et al. (1998) examined multiple degraded fens in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern and Brandenburg (Germany) and calculated N₂O fluxes of 0.04 to 0.10 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ in extensively and intensively used fen 750 grasslands, respectively (Augustin et al., 1998). The mean post-rewetting N₂O flux determined in our study area (0.02 ± 0.07 mg m⁻² h⁻¹) is in the lower range of fluxes from drained peatlands. Therefore, as shown in other studies (Succow and Joosten, 2001; Minkkinen et al., 2020), the rewetting very likely reduced the N₂O fluxes.

In general, the N₂O fluxes in rewetted peatlands are in the same range as fluxes from pristine ones (Minkkinen et al., 2020), indicating that rewetting is a very effective measure to reduce N₂O emissions to natural levels. Literature values 755 range from up to 0.01 and 0.02 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ for rewetted and undrained boreal peatlands (Minkkinen et al., 2020), respectively, to 0.08 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ for a rewetted riparian wetland near a freshwater meadow (Kandel et al., 2019). Although it is difficult to compare the N₂O fluxes determined in this study to those of other sites with different salinities, hydrologies and also histories of usage, our mean annual post-rewetting value also lies in the lower range of N₂O fluxes reported for rewetted and pristine peatlands.

760 5. Conclusions

The effects of rewetting a drained coastal peatland with brackish water in winter and the subsequent formation of a permanently inundated area were studied over one year.

We found a strong pulse of DIN leaching out of the peat followed by the transport of DIN into the inner bay, leading to a high export especially in winter compared to the Warnow, a nearby river. However, due to a rapid decrease of



765 nutrient concentrations in spring, the rate of nutrient export after a rewetting in spring or summer would likely be lower, at least during the first few months thereafter.

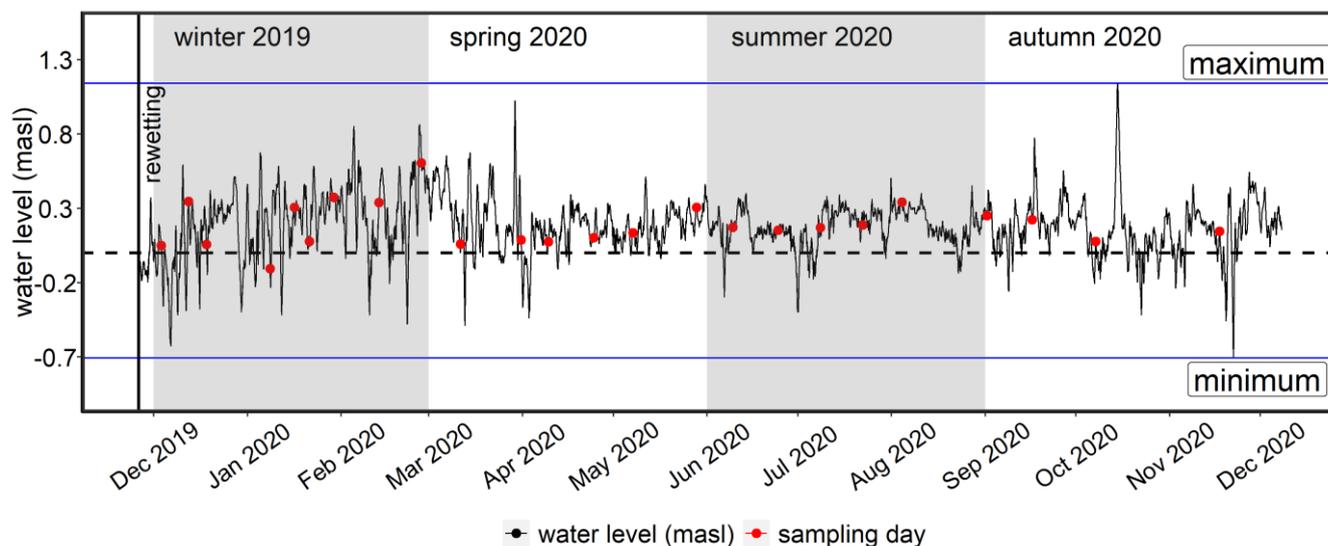
Further, CO₂ concentrations and emissions seem to remain relatively high after the rewetting with brackish water compared to the dry conditions before rewetting. This was likely driven by the high OM availability from the residual vegetation but also by the high rate of primary production. However, the flux amplitude decreased after rewetting and thus, peak emissions during the vegetation period were prevented. The lack of a strong increase of CH₄ emissions in the first year after rewetting with brackish water, in contrast to nearby areas rewetted with freshwater, suggests that especially during the colder months, rewetting with brackish water or seawater would minimize CH₄ emissions and thus maximize the effect on integrated GHG emission reduction. Moreover, a rapid elevation of the water level, as occurred at our study area, will promote the oxidation of peat-derived CH₄ in the water column. Future CH₄ emissions will depend on processes, such as the development of vegetation and will likely decrease. According to literature, it is likely that the peatland was a rather large source of N₂O before rewetting due to its drainage for agricultural use. However, the permanent inundation initialized a rapid decrease in N₂O emissions and converted the peatland into a N₂O sink during summer, with fluxes similar to pristine peatlands.

780 With the ongoing formation of salt grass meadows, livestock farming at our study area can and will continue. However, the area's use has not hindered its positive development towards an ecosystem with the potential to eventually become a carbon and nutrient sink in the future. We expect that both the nutrient export and GHG emissions will slowly decrease due to a shrinking reservoir of substrates. Nonetheless, because degraded peat is both nutrient- and OM-enriched, this decrease will occur slowly, given that the topsoil was not removed prior to flooding to diminish nutrients and OM as was demonstrated by other studies.

785 Nutrient export from peatlands and the re-establishment of the nutrient and C-sequestration functions of highly degraded coastal peatlands after rewetting are complex processes whose elucidation requires long-term investigations. The pronounced seasonal dynamics highlight the need for approaches that include a high temporal resolution, such as achieved with sensor-based or eddy-supported measurements.

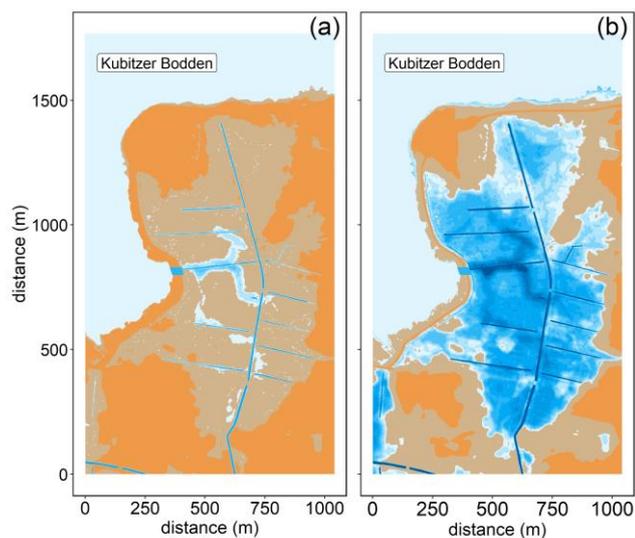


Appendix A: Study area



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Figure A1. Water level data from the monitoring station “Barhöft” (WSA Ostsee), representing the Kubitzer Bodden, from the beginning of rewetting (26 November 2019) until the end of the investigation period. The red dots indicate the sampling days. The dashed horizontal line represents 0 masl. The minimum and maximum water levels of the investigation period are shown by the blue horizontal lines (-0.7 masl and 1.1 masl, respectively). See also Figure 3 and Figure A2



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Figure A2. The changing water level and its effect on the water coverage of the study area, shown for (a) -0.5 masl to (b) 0.5 masl. Topography data retrieved from AfGVK, LAiV MV.



Appendix B: Nutrient export calculation

800 **Table B1:** Seasonal water volume exchanges (Q_{in}/Q_{out} , $m^3 s^{-1}$) and nutrient masses ($kg m^{-3}$) \pm standard error in the inner bay (c_{IB}), the central bay (c_{CB}), the peatland ($c_{peatland}$), and the resulting net nutrient transport (NNT, in tonnes) for DIN-N and PO_4 -P. Negative values of NNT indicate an export from the peatland into the inner bay/central bay and *vice versa*.

season	Q_{in} ($m^3 s^{-1}$)	Q_{out} ($m^3 s^{-1}$)	c_{IB}		NNT DIN-N (t)	c_{IB}		NNT PO_4 -P (t)
			DIN-N ($kg m^{-3}$)	$c_{peatland}$ DIN-N ($kg m^{-3}$)		PO_4 -P ($kg m^{-3}$)	$c_{peatland}$ PO_4 -P ($kg m^{-3}$)	
winter	1.9 ± 0.1	-1.9 ± 0.1	1270×10^{-6} $\pm 505 \times 10^{-6}$	1840×10^{-6} $\pm 259 \times 10^{-6}$	-8.6 ± 9.9	9.0×10^{-6} $\pm 6.5 \times 10^{-6}$	13.6×10^{-6} $\pm 4.3 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.1 ± 0.1
spring	1.3 ± 0.1	-1.3 ± 0.1	326×10^{-6} $\pm 407 \times 10^{-6}$	626×10^{-6} $\pm 341 \times 10^{-6}$	-3.1 ± 5.5	7.8×10^{-6} $\pm 13.0 \times 10^{-6}$	10.2×10^{-6} $\pm 4.0 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.03 ± 0.1
summer	1.1 ± 0.1	-1.1 ± 0.1	46.9×10^{-6} $\pm 38.8 \times 10^{-6}$	88.3×10^{-6} $\pm 35.6 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.4 ± 0.5	10.2×10^{-6} $\pm 6.8 \times 10^{-6}$	16.7×10^{-6} $\pm 2.5 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.1 ± 0.07
autumn	1.2 ± 0.1	-1.2 ± 0.1	339×10^{-6} $\pm 243 \times 10^{-6}$	374×10^{-6} $\pm 116 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.5 ± 3.6	14.0×10^{-6} $\pm 11.5 \times 10^{-6}$	13.6×10^{-6} $\pm 4.7 \times 10^{-6}$	0.002 ± 0.2
total (peatland / inner bay)					-12.5 ± 19.5			-0.2 ± 0.5
season	Q_{in} ($m^3 s^{-1}$)	Q_{out} ($m^3 s^{-1}$)	c_{CB}		NNT DIN-N (t)	c_{CB}		NNT PO_4 -P (t)
			DIN-N ($kg m^{-3}$)	$c_{peatland}$ DIN-N ($kg m^{-3}$)		PO_4 -P ($kg m^{-3}$)	$c_{peatland}$ PO_4 -P ($kg m^{-3}$)	
winter	1.9 ± 0.1	-1.9 ± 0.1	172×10^{-6} $\pm 45.2 \times 10^{-6}$	1840×10^{-6} $\pm 259 \times 10^{-6}$	-26.2 ± 5.3	10.1×10^{-6} $\pm 4.7 \times 10^{-6}$	13.6×10^{-6} $\pm 4.3 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.04 ± 0.1
spring	1.3 ± 0.1	-1.3 ± 0.1	95.3×10^{-6} $\pm 42.6 \times 10^{-6}$	626×10^{-6} $\pm 341 \times 10^{-6}$	-5.4 ± 3.6	5.6×10^{-6} $\pm 5.6 \times 10^{-6}$	10.2×10^{-6} $\pm 4.0 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.1 ± 0.1
summer	1.1 ± 0.1	-1.1 ± 0.1	32.8×10^{-6} $\pm 13.3 \times 10^{-6}$	88.3×10^{-6} $\pm 35.6 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.5 ± 0.4	8.4×10^{-6} $\pm 2.8 \times 10^{-6}$	16.7×10^{-6} $\pm 2.5 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.1 ± 0.04
autumn	1.2 ± 0.1	-1.2 ± 0.1	32.6×10^{-6} $\pm 8.3 \times 10^{-6}$	374×10^{-6} $\pm 116 \times 10^{-6}$	-4.5 ± 1.6	12.7×10^{-6} $\pm 5.9 \times 10^{-6}$	13.6×10^{-6} $\pm .7 \times 10^{-6}$	-0.01 ± 0.1
total (peatland / central bay)					-36.5 ± 10.9			-0.2 ± 0.3

805 *Data availability.* The data used in this study are archived at <http://doi.io-warnemuende.de/10.12754/data-2022-0003>. The GHG emission data used in this study are archived at <http://doi.io-warnemuende.de/10.12754/data-2022-0004>.

Author contributions. All authors designed the concept of the study. DLP, AB and CNG conducted the field work, data analysis, and interpretation. DLP created the figures and organized the data. AB conducted the statistical analysis. CNG wrote sections of the manuscript. All authors contributed to manuscript revision and approved the submitted version.

810 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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