- ¹ Title: Carbon cycling in mature and regrowth forests globally: a macroecological synthesis based on the
- 2 Global Forest Carbon (ForC) database

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Summary

- Background. Earth's climate is closely linked to forests, which strongly influence atmospheric carbon dioxide
- ²⁷ (CO₂) and climate by their impact on the global carbon (C) cycle. However, efforts to incorporate forests
- 28 into climate models and CO₂ accounting frameworks have been constrained by a lack of accessible,
- 29 global-scale data on how C cycling varies across forest types and stand ages.
- 30 Methods/Design. Here, we draw from the Global Forest Carbon Database, ForC, to provide a macroscopic
- overview of C cycling in the world's forests, giving special attention to stand age-related variation.
- ³² Specifically, we use 11923 ForC records from 865 geographic locations representing 34 C cycle variables to
- 33 characterize ensemble C budgets for four broad forest types (tropical broadleaf evergreen, temperate
- broadleaf, temperate conifer, and taiga), including estimates for both mature and regrowth (age <100 years)
- ₃₅ forests. For regrowth forests, we quantify age trends for all variables with sufficient data.
- 36 Review Results/Synthesis. For Cv3.0 yielded a comprehensive picture of C cycling in the world's major
- ₃₇ forest biomes. The rate of C cycling generally increased from boreal to tropical regions in both mature and
- 38 regrowth forests, whereas C stocks showed less directional variation. The majority of flux variables, together
- ³⁹ with most live biomass pools, increased significantly with stand age. Importantly, there was generally good
- closure of C budgets, i.e., internal consistency in the ForC data.
- Discussion. As climate change accelerates, understanding and managing the carbon dynamics of forests is
- critical to forecasting, mitigation, and adaptation. This synthetic and internally consistent global overview of
- 43 C stocks and fluxes across biomes and stand ages will help to advance these efforts.
- 44 Key words: forest ecosystems; carbon cycle; stand age; productivity; respiration; biomass; global

45 Background

- 46 Forest ecosystems are shaping the course of climate change through their influence on atmospheric carbon
- dioxide (CO₂; Bonan 2008, Friedlingstein et al 2019, IPCC 2018). Despite the centrality of forest C cycling
- 48 in regulating atmospheric CO₂, important uncertainties in climate models (Friedlingstein et al 2006, Krause
- ⁴⁹ et al 2018, Bonan et al 2019, Di Vittorio et al 2020) and CO₂ accounting frameworks (Pan et al 2011) can be
- traced to lack of accessible, comprehensive data on how C cycling varies across forest types and in relation to
- stand history. These require large-scale databases with global coverage, which runs contrary to the nature in
- 52 which forest C stocks and fluxes are measured and published. Large-scale synthesis is critical to
- benchmarking model performance with global data (Clark et al 2017, Luo et al 2012), quantifying the the role
- of forests in the global C cycle (e.g., Pan et al 2011), or using book-keeping methods to quantify actual or
- scenario-based exchanges of CO₂ between forests and the atmosphere (Griscom et al 2017, Houghton 2020).

56 Forests in the global C cycle: current and future

- ⁵⁷ A robust understanding of forest impacts on global C cycling is essential. Annual gross CO₂ sequestration in
- forests (gross primary productivity, GPP) is estimated at >69 Gt C yr⁻¹ (Badgley et al 2019), or >7 times
- ₅₉ average annual fossil fuel emissions from 2009-2018 (9.5 \pm 0.5 Gt C yr⁻¹; Friedlingstein et al 2019). Most of
- this enormous C sequestration is counterbalanced by CO₂ releases to the atmosphere through ecosystem
- respiration (R_{eco}) or fire, with forests globally dominant as sources of both soil respiration (Warner et al.
- $_{62}$ –2019) and fire emissions (van der Werf et al 2017). In recent years, the remaining CO $_2$ sink averaged 3.2 \pm
- 63 0.6 GtC yr⁻¹ from 2009-2018, offsetting 29% of anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions (Friedlingstein et al 2019).
- Yet, this sink is reduced by deforestation, estimated at ~1 Gt C yr⁻¹ in recent decades (Pan et al 2011,
- Tubiello et~al~2020), reducing the net forest sink to ~1.1-2.2 Gt C yr $^{-1}$ across Earth's forests (Friedlingstein et~al~2020)
- 66 al 2019).
- The future of the current forest C sink is dependent both upon forest responses to climate change itself and
- 68 human land use decisions, which will feedback and strongly influence the course of climate change.
- 69 Regrowing forests in particular will play an important role (Pugh et al 2019), as almost two-thirds of the
- ₇₀ world's forests were secondary as of 2010 (FAO 2010). As anthropogenic and climate-driven disturbances
- impact an growing proportion of Earth's forests (???, McDowell et al 2020), understanding the carbon
- dynamics of regrowth forests is increasingly important (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2013). Although age trends
- in aboveground biomass have been relatively well-studied and synthesized globally (Cook-Patton et al 2020),
- ⁷⁴ a relative dearth of data and synthesis on other C stocks and fluxes in secondary forests points to an
- under-filled need to characterize age-related trends in forest C cycling. Such understanding is particularly
- 76 critical for reducing uncertainty regarding the potential for carbon uptake and climate change mitigation by
- 77 regrowth forests (Krause et al 2018, Cook-Patton et al 2020). Understanding, modeling, and managing
- ₇₈ forest-atmosphere CO₂ exchange is thus central to efforts to mitigate climate change (Grassi et al 2017,
- ⁷⁹ Griscom et al 2017, Cavaleri et al 2015).

80 Evolution of forest C cycle research

- For more than half a century, researchers have sought to understand how forest carbon cycling varies across
- stands, including those of different biomes (e.g., Leith, Luyssaert et al 2007) and stand ages (e.g., Odum
- 1969 Odum, Luyssaert 2008). increasingly refined understanding of the elements of ecosystem C cycles,
- standardization of definitions, (which were vague at the time of Odum) Expanding set of variables,

- notably including the development of the eddy-covariance technique to measure ecosystem-atmosphere CO₂ exchange (REFS), NEP, soil respiration, Also various techniques for measuring belowground C cycling. critical review of methods and their sources of errors Increasing standardization of methods: allometries, which are highly influential to any measurement including woody biomass or changes therein, but until recently have not been standardized Further standardization made possible through research networks such as ForestGEO (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2015, e.g., Lutz et al 2018), GEM (Malhi), NEON (Schimel et al 2007), or FLUXNET (Baldocchi et al 2001, e.g., Novick et al 2018). While remote sensing measurements are increasingly useful for global- or regional-scale estimates of a few critical variables (e.g., aboveground biomass: Hu et al 2016, Spawn et al 2020, gross primary productivity, GPP: Li and Xiao 2019, Saatchi et al 2011), measurement and validation of most forest C stocks and fluxes require intensive on-the-ground data collection.
- Alongside these conceptual and methodological developments, there has been a proliferation of measurements across the world's forests. The result of decades of research on forest C cycling is that tens of thousands of records have been distributed across literally thousands of scientific articles –often behind paywalls– along with variation in data formats, units, measurement methods, etc. In this format, the data are effectively inaccessible for many global-scale analyses, Data synthesis began,...
- To address the need for global-scale analyses of forest C cycling, we recently developed ForC 101 (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016, 2018). For C contains published estimates of forest ecosystem C stocks and 102 annual fluxes (>50 variables), with the different variables capturing the unique ecosystem pools (e.g., woody, 103 foliage, and root biomass; dead wood) and flux types (e.g., gross and net primary productivity; soil, root, and 104 ecosystem respiration). These data are ground-based measurements, and ForC contains associated data 105 required for interpretation (e.g., stand history, measurement methods). Data have been amalgamated from 106 original peer-reviewed publications, either directly or via intermediary data compilations. Since its most 107 recent publication (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018), For C has grown to include two additional large databases: 108 the Global Soil Respiration Database (SRDB; Bond-Lamberty and Thomson 2010) and the Global 109 Reforestation Opportunity Assessment database (GROA: Cook-Patton et al 2020) that also synthesized 110 published forest C data. Following these additions, ForC currently contains 39762 records from 10608 plots 111 and 1532 distinct geographic areas representing all forested biogeographic and climate zones. This represents 112 an 129% increase in records from the prior publication (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018). 113

114 Biome differences

- Forest C cycling varies enormously across biomes... Biome is an artificial categorical distinction convenient for categorizing the world's forests according to major differences in climate and vegetation.
- The most important gradient for defining biomes is climate. Since (Humboldt?), it has been recognized that climate plays a dominant role in shaping differences among forests.
- Lieth (1973) synthesized differences in NPP across gradients of mean annual temperature and precipitation.
- Banbury Morgan et al (n.d.)
- Recently, machine learning draws on global maps in combination with ground-based data to create global maps of C cycling (e.g., REFS; Cook-Patton *et al* 2020).
- While current data and technology allow increasingly fine-scale resolution for understanding differences

across forests, cateogorization into biomes remains useful for applications where data do not yet support robust analysis across finer-scale axes of variation.

Age trends and their variation across biomes

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In 1969, Eugene Odum published ... (Odum 1969). Although the conceptualization of the C cycle in this paper is simplistic by current standards, the paper was foundational... (Corman et al 2019). ... (Need for a synthetic update.)

In the past couple of/several decades, researchers have started asking how age trends-mostly in biomass accumulation- vary across biomes. (look up early work on this-citations in Anderson et al (2006)) Anderson et al (2006) Chazdon et al (2016) Cook-Patton et al (2020) There has been little synthesis of differences in variables other than C stocks or their accumulation rates. Given the important role of secondary forests in the current and future global C cycle, concrete understanding of age trends in C fluxes and stocks and how these vary across biomes is critical to better understanding of the global C cycle.

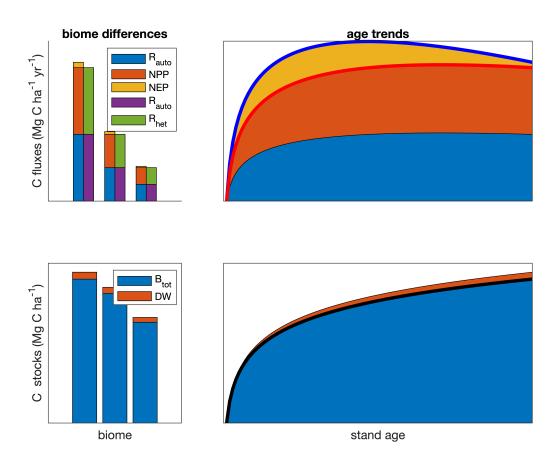


Figure 1 | DRAFT Schematic diagram summarizing current understanding of biome differences and age trends in forest C cycling. Plotted values are realistic with respect to the results of this synthesis, but schematic is not intended to be quantitatively precise.

Here, conduct a data-based review of carbon cycling from a stand to global level, and by biome and stand age, using the largest global compilation of forest carbon data, which is available in our open source Global

Carbon Forest database (*ForC*; Fig. 2). Our primary goal is to provide a comprehensive synthesis on broad trends in forest C cycling that can serve as a foundation for improved understanding of global forest C cycling and highlight where key sources of uncertainty still reside.

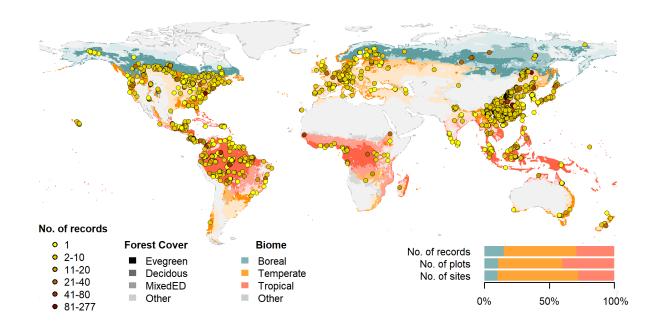


Figure 2 | Map of sites included in this analysis. Symbols are colored according to the number of records at each site. Underlying map shows coverage of evergreen, deciduous, and mixed forests (from SYNMAP; Jung et al. 2006) and biomes. Distribution of sites, plots, and records among biomes is shown in the inset.

$_{\scriptscriptstyle 1}$ Methods/ Design

This review synthesizes data from the ForC database (Fig. 2; https://github.com/forc-db/ForC; Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016, 2018). For c amalgametes numerous intermediary data sets (e.g., Luyssaert et al 2007, Bond-Lamberty and Thomson 2010, Cook-Patton et al 2020) and original studies. Original 144 publications were referenced to check values and obtain information not contained in intermediary data sets, 145 although this process has not been completed for all records. The database was developed with goals of understanding how C cycling in forests varies across broad geographic scales and as a function of stand age. 147 As such, there has been a focus on incorporating data from regrowth forests (e.g., Anderson et al 2006, Martin et al 2013, Bonner et al 2013) and obtaining stand age data when possible (83% of records in v.2.0; 149 Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018). Particular attention was given to developing the database for tropical forests 150 (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016), which represented roughly one-third of records in ForC v2.0 151 (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018). Since publication of ForC v2.0, we added the following data to ForC: the 152 Global Database of Soil Respiration Database (SRDB v4, 9488 records; Bond-Lamberty and Thomson 2010), 153 the Global Reforestation Opportunity Assessment database (GROA v1.0, 10116 records; Cook-Patton et al 2020, Anderson-Teixeira et al 2020). We have also added data from individual publications, with a particular 155 focus on productivity (e.g., ???), dead wood, and ForestGEO sites (e.g., Lutz et al 2018, p 156 @johnson climate 2018). The database version used for this analysis has been tagged as a new release on

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To facilitate analyses, we created a simplified version of ForC, ForC-simplified
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    (https://github.com/forc-db/ForC/blob/master/ForC_simplified), which we analyzed here. In generating
    For C-simplified, all measurements originally expressed in units of dry organic matter (OM) were converted
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    to units of C using the IPCC default of C = 0.47 * OM (IPCC 2018). Duplicate or otherwise conflicting
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    records were reconciled as described in Appendix S1, resulting in a total of 22265 records (56% size of total
    database). Records were filtered to remove plots that had undergone significant anthropogenic management
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    or major disturbance since the most recent stand initiation event. Specifically, we removed all plots flagged
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    as managed in ForC-simplified (13.9%). This included plots with any record of managements manipulating
    CO<sub>2</sub>, temperature, hydrology, nutrients, or biota, as well as any plots whose site or plot name contained the
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    terms "plantation", "planted", "managed", "irrigated", or "fertilized". Plots flagged as disturbed in
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    For C-simplified (5.6%) included stands that had undergone any notable anthropogenic thinning or partial
    harvest. We retained sites that were grazed or had undergone low severity natural disturbances (<10\%
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    mortality) including droughts, major storms, fires, and floods. We removed all plots for which no stand
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    history information had been retrieved (5.7%). In total, this resulted in 17349 records (43.6% of the records
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    in the database) being eligible for inclusion in the analysis.
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    We selected 23 annual flux and 11 C stock variables for inclusion in the analysis (Table 1). These different
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    flux and stock variables represent different pools (e.g., aboveground biomass, root biomass, dead wood) and
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    levels of combination (e.g., total net primary productivity, NPP, versus the individual elements of NPP
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    such as foliage, roots, and branches). Note that two flux variables, aboveground heterotropic (R_{het-ag}) and
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    total (R_{het}) respiration, were included for conceptual completeness but had no records in ForC (Table 1).
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    Records for our focal variables represented 90.3% of the total records eligible for inclusion. For this analysis,
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    we combined some of ForC's specific variables into more broadly defined variables. Specifically, net ecosystem
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    exchange (measured by eddy-covariance; Baldocchi et al 2001) and biometric estimates of NEP were
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    combined into the single variable NEP (Table 1). Furthermore, for NPP, aboveground NPP (ANPP),
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    and the litterfall component of ANPP (ANPP<sub>litterfall</sub>), ForC variables specifying inclusion of different
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    components were combined (e.g., measurements including or excluding fruit and flower production and
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    herbivory). Throughout ForC, for all measurements drawing from tree census data (e.g., biomass,
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    productivity), the minimum diameter breast height (DBH) threshold for tree census was < 10cm. All records
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    were measured directly or derived from field measurements (as opposed to modeled).
    We grouped forests into four broad biome types based on climate zones and dominant vegetation type
    (tropical broadleaf, temperate broadleaf, temperate needleleaf, and boreal needleleaf) and two age
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    classifications (young and mature). Climate zones (Fig. 2) were defined based on site geographic coordinates
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    according to Köppen-Geiger zones (Rubel and Kottek 2010). We defined the tropical biome as including all
    equatorial (A) zones, temperate biomes as including all warm temperate (C) zones and warmer snow
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    climates (Dsa, Dsb, Dwa, Dwb, Dfa, and Dfb), and the boreal biome as including the colder snow climates
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    (Dsc, Dsd, Dwc, Dwd, Dfc, and Dfd). Any forests in dry (B) and polar (E) Köppen-Geiger zones were
    excluded from the analysis. We defined leaf type (broadleaf / needleleaf) was based on descriptions in
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    original publications (prioritized) or values extracted from a global map based on satellite observations
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    (SYNMAP; Jung et al 2006). For young tropical forests imported from GROA but not yet classified by leaf
    type, we assumed that all were broadleaf, consistent with the rarity of naturally regenerating needleleaf
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    forests in the tropics. We also classified forests as "young" (< 100 years) or "mature" (\ge 100 years or
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Github (v3.0) and assigned a DOI through Zenodo (DOI: TBD).

Table 1. Carbon cycle variables included in this analysis, their sample sizes, and summary of biome differences and age trends.

Variable	Description	N records				
		records	plots	geographic areas	biome differences*	age trend ^{\dagger}
Annual fluxes						
NEP	net ecosystem production or net ecosystem exchange (+ indicates C sink)	329	146	88	n.s.	+; xB
GPP	gross primary production $(NPP + R_{auto} \text{ or } R_{eco} - NEE)$	303	115	84	${\rm TrB} > {\rm TeB} \geq {\rm TeN} \geq {\rm BoN}$	+; xB
NPP	net primary production $(ANPP + BNPP)$	214	112	74	${\rm Tr}{\rm B} > {\rm Te}{\rm B} \geq {\rm Te}{\rm N} > {\rm BoN}$	n.s.
ANPP	aboveground NPP	343	236	131	$TrB > TeB \ge TeN > BoN$	+; xB
$ANPP_{woody}$	woody production $(ANPP_{stem} + ANPP_{branch})$	64	53	37	n.s.	+
$ANPP_{stem}$	woody stem production	217	190	117	$TrB > TeN \ge TeB \ge BoN$	n.s.
$ANPP_{branch}$	branch turnover	69	59	42	$TrB > TeB \ge TeN$	n.s.
$ANPP_{foliage}$	foliage production, typically estimated as annual leaf litterfall	162	132	88	$TrB > TeB \ge TeN > BoN$	+
$ANPP_{litterfall}$	litterfall, including leaves, reproductive structures, twigs, and sometimes branches	82	70	55	n.s.	+
$ANPP_{repro}$	production of reproductive structures (flowers, fruits, seeds)	51	44	34	n.t.	n.t.
$ANPP_{folivory}$	foliar biomass consumed by folivores	20	12	11	n.t.	n.t.
M_{woody}	woody mortality–i.e., B_{ag} of trees that die	18	18	18	n.t.	n.t.
BNPP	below ground NPP ($BNPP_{coarse} + BNPP_{fine}$)	148	116	79	$TrB > TeN \ge TeB \ge BoN$	+
$BNPP_{coarse}$	coarse root production	77	56	36	$TeN \ge TrB$	n.s.
$BNPP_{fine}$	fine root production	123	99	66	n.s.	+
R_{eco}	ecosystem respiration $(R_{auto} + R_{het})$	213	98	70	$TrB > TeB \ge TeN$	+
R_{auto}	autotrophic respiration $(R_{auto-ag} + R_{root})$	24	23	15	n.t.	n.t.
$R_{auto-ag}$	aboveground autotrophic respiration (i.e., leaves and stems)	2	2	1	n.t.	n.t.
R_{root}	root respiration	181	139	95	$TrB \ge TeB$	+
R_{soil}	soil respiration $(R_{het-soil} + R_{root})$	627	411	229	$TrB > TeB > TeN \ge BoN$	n.s.
$R_{het-soil}$	soil heterotrophic respiration	197	156	100	$TrB > TeB \ge TeN$	n.s.
$R_{het-ag} \\ R_{het}$	above ground heterotrophic respiration heterotrophic respiration $(R_{het-ag} + R_{het-soil})$	0	0	0	-	-
Stocks	-net-ay vict-sou)					
B_{tot}	total live biomass $(B_{ag}+B_{root})$	188	157	87	$TrB \ge TeB > BoN$	+; xB
B_{ag}	above ground live biomass $(B_{ag-wood} + B_{foliage})$	4466	4072		$TrB \ge TeD > BoN$ $TrB \ge TeN \ge TeB > BoN$	
$B_{ag-wood}$	woody component of aboveground biomass	115	102	64	$\mathrm{TeN} > \mathrm{TrB} \geq \mathrm{BoN}$	+; xB
$B_{foliage}$	foliage biomass	134	115	72	$\mathrm{TeN} > \mathrm{TrB} \geq \mathrm{BoN} \geq \mathrm{TeB}$	+; xB
B_{root}	total root biomass $(B_{root-coarse} + B_{root-fine})$	2329	2298	360	n.s.	+; xB
$B_{root-coarse}$	coarse root biomass	134	120	73	$TeN > TeB \ge BoN$	+; xB
$B_{root-fine}$	fine root biomass	226	180	109	n.s.	+; xB
DW_{tot}	deadwood $(DW_{standing} + DW_{down})$	79	73	42	n.t.	+; xB
$DW_{standing}$	standing dead wood	36	35	22	n.t.	n.t.
DW_{down}	fallen dead wood, including coarse and sometimes fine woody debris	278	265	37	n.t.	+; xB
OL	organic layer / litter/ forest floor	474	413	115	n.s.	+; xB

^{*} Tr: Tropical, TeB: Temperate Broadleaf, TeN: Temperate Needleleaf, B: Boreal, n.s.: no significant differences, n.t.: not tested

classified as "mature", "old growth", "intact", or "undisturbed" in original publication). Assigning stands to these groupings required the exclusion of records for which ForC lacked geographic coordinates (0.4% of sites

 $^{^{\}dagger} + \text{or -: significant positive or negative trend, xB: significant age x biome interaction, n.s.: no significant age trend, n.t.: not tested$

in full database) or records of stand age (5.7% of records in full database). We also excluded records of stand age = 0 year (0.8% of records in full database). In total, our analysis retained 76.1 of the focal variable records for forests of known age. Numbers of records by biome and age class are given in Table S1.

Data were summarized to produce schematics of C cycling across the eight biome by age group combinations identified above. To obtain the values reported in the C cycle schematics, we first averaged any repeated measurements within a plot. Values were then averaged across geographically distinct areas, defined as plots clustered within 25 km of one another (sensu Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018), weighting by area sampled if available for all records. This step was taken to avoid pseudo-replication.

We tested whether the C budgets described above "closed"-i.e., whether they were internally consistent. Specifically, we first defined relationships among variables: for example, $NEP = GPP - R_{eco}$, $BNPP = BNPP_{coarse} + BNPP_{fine}$, $DW_{tot} = DW_{standing} + DW_{down}$). Henceforth, we refer to the variables on the left side of the equation as "aggregate" fluxes or stocks, and those that are summed as "component" fluxes or stocks, noting that the same variable can take both aggregate and component positions in different relationships. We considered the C budget for a given relationship "closed" when component variables summed to within one standard deviation of the aggregate variable.

To test for differences across mature forest biomes, we also examined how stand age impacted fluxes and stocks, employing a mixed effects model ("lmer" function in "lme4" R package; Bates *et al* 2015) with biome as fixed effect and plot nested within geographic area as random effects on the intercept. When Biome had a significant effect, we looked at a Tukey's pairwise comparison to see which biomes were significantly different from one another. This analysis was run for variables with records for at least seven distinct geographic areas in more than one biome, excluding any biomes that failed this criteria (Table 1).

To test for age trends in young (<100yrs) forests, we employed a mixed effects model with biome and $\log 10[\text{stand.age}]$ as fixed effects and plot nested within geographic.area as a random effect on the intercept. This analysis was run for variables with records for at least three distinct geographic areas in more than one biome, excluding any biomes that failed this criteria (Table 1). When the effect of stand age was significant at $p \leq 0.05$ and when each biome had records for stands of at least 10 different ages, a biome × stand.age interaction was included in the model.

To facilitate the accessibility of our results and data, and to allow for rapid updates as additional data become available, we have automated all database manipulation, analyses, and figure production in R (???).

31 Review Results/ Synthesis

232 Data Coverage

Of the 39762 records in ForC v3.0, 11923 met our strict criteria for inclusion in this study (Fig. 2). These records were distributed across 5062 plots in 865 distinct geographic areas. Of the 23 flux and 11 stock variables mapped in these diagrams, ForC contained sufficient mature forest data for inclusion in our statistical analyses (i.e., records from \geq 7 distinct geographic areas) for 20 fluxes and 9 stocks in tropical broadleaf forests, 15 fluxes and 8 stocks in temperate broadleaf forests, 14 fluxes and 7 stocks in temperate conifer forests, and 8 fluxes and 7 stocks in boreal forests. For regrowth forests (<100 yrs), ForC contained sufficient data for inclusion in our statistical analyses (i.e., records from \geq 3 distinct geographic areas) for 11 fluxes and 10 stocks in tropical broadleaf forests, 16 fluxes and 10 stocks in temperate broadleaf forests, 16

241 fluxes and 10 stocks in temperate conifer forests, and 14 fluxes and 9 stocks in boreal forests.

242 C cycling in mature forests

- ²⁴³ Average C cycles for mature tropical broadleaf, temperate broadleaf, temperate conifer, and boreal forests ≥
- ²⁴⁴ 100 years old and with no known major natural or anthropogenic disturbance are presented in Figures 2-5
- $_{245}$ (and available in tabular format in the ForC release accompanying this publication:
- ForC/numbers_and_facts/ForC_variable_averages_per_Biome.csv).
- For variables with records from ≥ 7 distinct geographic areas, these ensemble C budgets were generally
- consistent. That is, component variables summed to within one standard deviation of their respective
- ²⁴⁹ aggregate variables in all but one instance. In the temperate conifer biome, the average composite measure of
- root biomass (B_{root}) was less than the combined average value of coarse and fine root biomass $(B_{root-coarse})$
- and $B_{root-fine}$, respectively). This lack of closure was driven by very high estimates of $B_{root-coarse}$ from
- 252 high-biomass forests of the US Pacific Northwest.

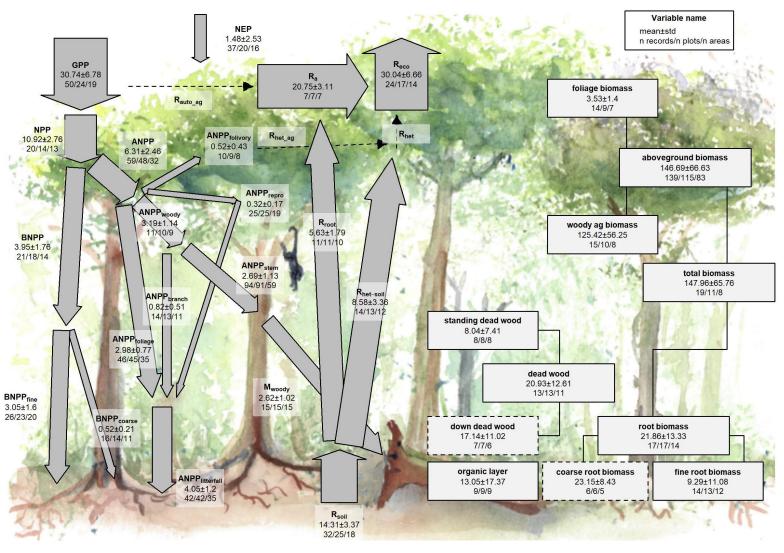


Figure 3 | C cycle diagram for mature tropical broadleaf forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha^{-1} yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha^{-1}), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines indicate variables with records from <7 distinct geographic areas, and dashed arrows indicate fluxes with no data. To illustrate the magnitude of different fluxes, arrow size is proportional to the square root of corresponding flux. Asterisk after variable name indicates lack of C cycle closure.

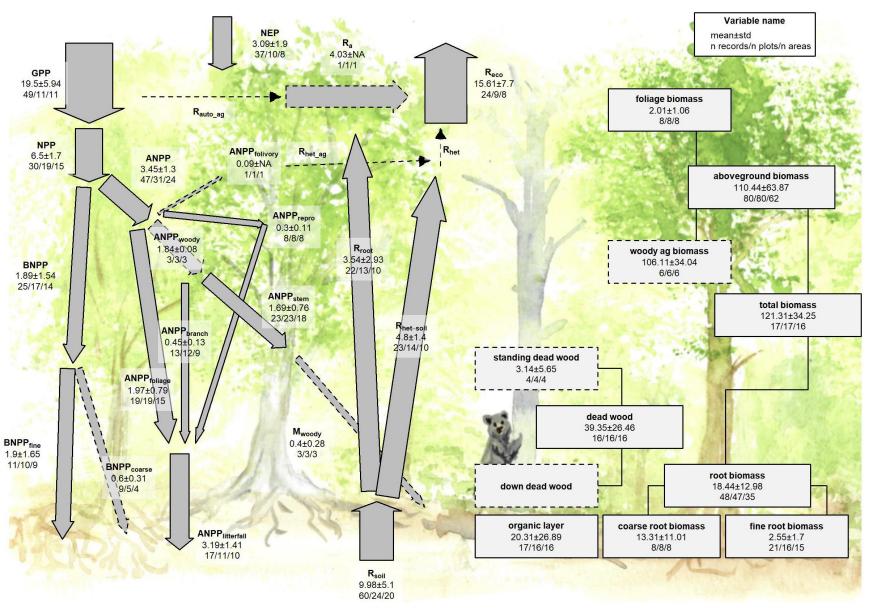


Figure 4 | C cycle diagram for mature temperate broadleaf forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha⁻¹), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines indicate variables with records from <7 distinct geographic areas, and dashed arrows indicate fluxes with no data. To illustrate the magnitude of different fluxes, arrow size is proportional to the square root of corresponding flux. Asterisk after variable name indicates lack of C cycle closure.

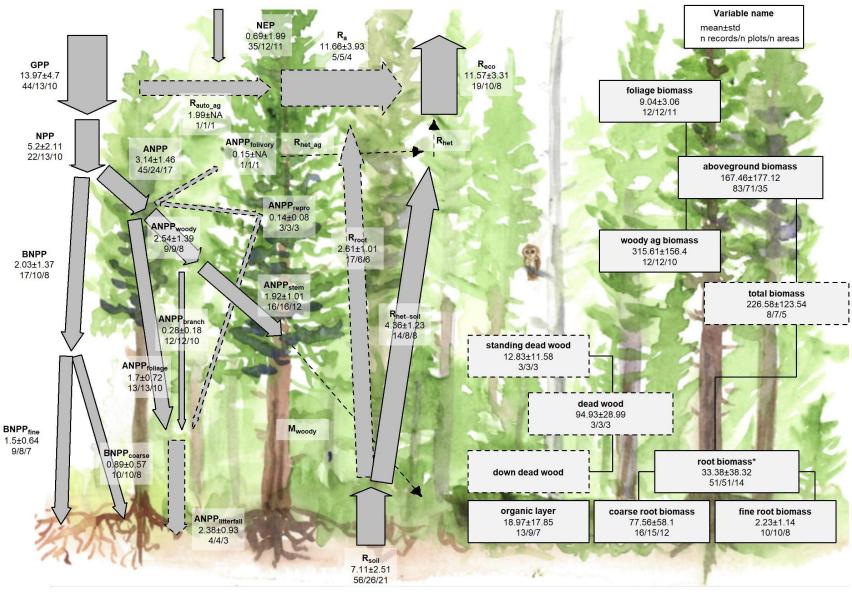


Figure 5 | C cycle diagram for mature temperate conifer forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha^{-1} yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha^{-1}), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines indicate variables with records from <7 distinct geographic areas, and dashed arrows indicate fluxes with no data. To illustrate the magnitude of different fluxes, arrow size is proportional to the square root of corresponding flux. Asterisk after variable name indicates lack of C cycle closure.

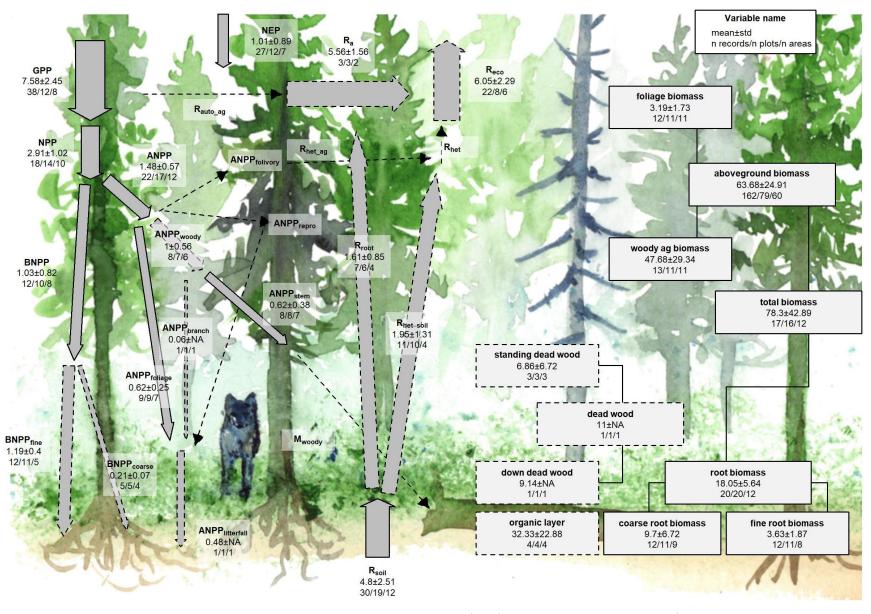


Figure 6 | C cycle diagram for mature boreal conifer forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha^{-1} yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha^{-1}), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines indicate variables with records from <7 distinct geographic areas, and dashed arrows indicate fluxes with no data. To illustrate the magnitude of different fluxes, arrow size is proportional to the square root of corresponding flux. Asterisk after variable name indicates lack of C cycle closure.

There were sufficient data to assess mature forest biome differences for 15 flux variables, and significant differences among biomes were detected for 12 variables (Table 1). In all of these cases-including C fluxes into, within, and out of the ecosystem-C fluxes were highest in tropical forests, intermediate in temperate 255 (broadleaf or conifer) forests, and lowest in boreal forests (Table 1, Figs. 7, S5-S19). Differences between 256 tropical and boreal forests were always significant, with temperate forests intermediate and significantly different from one or both. Fluxes tended to be numerically greater in temperate broadleaf than conifer 258 forests, but the difference was never statistically significant. This pattern held for the following variables: 259 $GPP, NPP, ANPP, ANPP_{stem}, ANPP_{branch}, ANPP_{foliage}, BNPP, R_{eco}, R_{root}, R_{soil}, and R_{het-soil}.$ 260 For two of the variables without significant differences among biomes ($ANPP_{litter\,fall}$ and $BNPP_{fine}$; Figs. 261 S12 and S15, respectively), the same general trends applied but were not statistically significant. Another 262 exception was for $BNPP_{root-coarse}$, where all records came from high-biomass forests in the US Pacific 263 Northwest, resulting in marginally higher values for the temperate conifer biome (Table 1, Fig. S14; 264 differences significant in mixed effects model but not in post-hoc pairwise comparison). 265

The most notable exception to the pattern of decreasing flux per unit area from tropical to boreal biomes was NEP, with no significant differences across biomes but with the largest average in temperate broadleaf forests, followed by tropical, boreal, and temperate conifer forests (Figs. 7, S5).

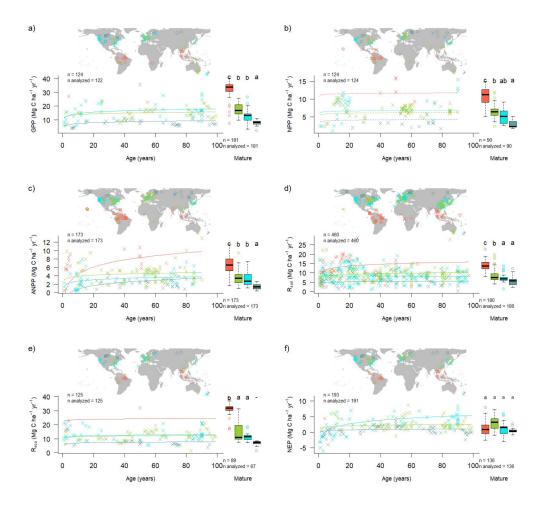


Figure 7 | Age trends and biome differences in some of the major C fluxes: (a) GPP, (b) NPP, (c) ANPP, (d) R_{soil} , (e) R_{eco} , and (f) NEP. Map shows data sources (x and o indicate young and mature stands, respectively). In each panel, the left scatterplot shows age trends in forests up to 100 years old, as characterized by a linear mixed effects model with fixed effects of age and biome. The fitted line indicates the effect of age on flux (solid lines: significant at p<0.05, dashed lines: non-significant), and non-parallel lines indicate a significant age x biome interaction. The boxplot illustrates distribution across mature forests, with different letters indicating significant differences between biomes. Data from biomes that did not meet the sample size criteria (see Methods) are plotted, but lack regression lines (young forests) or test of differences across biomes (mature forests). Individual figures for each flux with sufficient data are given in the Supplement (Figs. S4-S19).

There were sufficient data to assess mature forest biome differences for nine stock variables, and significant differences among biomes were detected for five variables (B_{tot} , B_{ag} , $B_{ag-wood}$, $B_{foliage}$, $B_{root-coarse}$; Table 1). C stocks had less consistent patterns across biomes (Figs. 8, S20-S30). For B_{tot} and B_{ag} , tropical broadleaf forests had the highest biomass and boreal forests the lowest, with temperate broadleaf and needleleaf (B_{ag} only) intermediate. For three variables that had been disproportionately sampled in the high-biomass forests of the US Pacific Northwest ($B_{ag-wood}$, $B_{foliage}$, and $B_{root-coarse}$), temperate conifer forests had significantly higher stocks than the other biomes, which were not significantly different from one another.

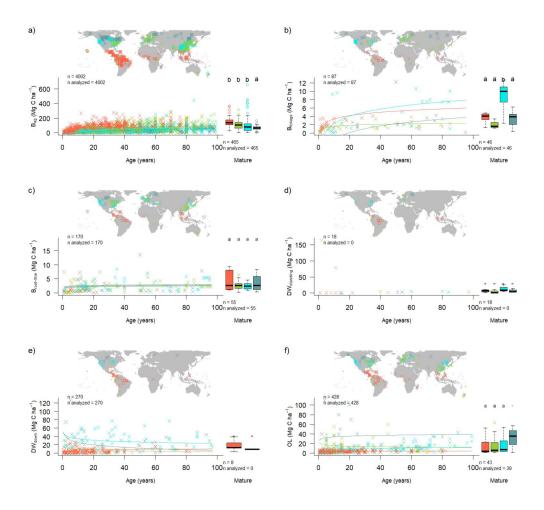


Figure 8 | Age trends and biome differences in some of the major forest C stocks: (a) above ground biomass, (b) foliage, (c) fine roots, (d) dead wood. Map shows data sources (x and o indicate young and mature stands, respectively). In each panel, the left scatter plot shows age trends in forests up to 100 years old, as characterized by a linear mixed effects model with fixed effects of age and biome. The fitted line indicates the effect of age on flux (solid lines: significant at p<0.05, dashed lines: non-significant), and non-parallel lines indicate a significant age x biome interaction. The boxplot illustrates distribution across mature forests, with different letters indicating signifiant differences between biomes. Data from biomes that did not meet the sample size criteria (see Methods) are plotted, but lack regression lines (young forests) or test of differences across biomes (mature forests). Individual figures for each stock with sufficient data are given in the Supplement (Figs. S20-S30).

77 C cycling in young forests

- Average C cycles for forests <100 years old are presented in Figures 8-11. Both C stocks and fluxes commonly increased significantly with stand age (Tables 1, S2, Figs. 7- 8, S5-S30; detailed below).
- 280 For C contained 16 C flux variables with sufficient data for analyses of age trends in young forests (see
- ²⁸¹ Methods) (Figs. 7, S5-S19). Of these, ten increased significantly with age: NEP, GPP, ANPP,
- 282 $ANPP_{woody}$, $ANPP_{foliage}$, $ANPP_{litterfal}$, BNPP, $BNPP_{fine}$, R_{eco} , and R_{root} . The remaining six-NPP,
- $ANPP_{stem}$, $ANPP_{branch}$, $BNPP_{coarse}$, $R_{soil-het}$, and $R_{soil-het}$ -displayed no significant relationship to
- 284 stand age.
- Differences in C fluxes across biomes typically paralleled those observed for mature forests, with C cycling generally most rapid in the tropics and slowest in boreal forests. The single exception was $ANPP_{stem}$, for
- which temperate broadleaf and conifer forests had similar flux rates than tropical forests. Notably, and in

contrast to the lack of biome differences in NEP for mature forests (Fig. 7), the tendency for temperate 288 forests to have greater fluxes than boreal forests held for NEP in regrowth forests (tropical forests excluded because of insufficient data). 290 In terms of C stocks, ten variables (all but standing deadwood, $DW_{standing}$) had sufficient data to test for 291 age trends (Table 1, Figs. 8, S20-S30). All of these displayed a significant overall increase with with 292 log10[stand.age]. There were sufficient data to model age \times biome interactions were also significant for all ten of these C stock variables (Table S2), with living C stocks tending to accumulate more rapidly during the 294 early stages of forest regrowth in tropical forests (Figs. 8, S20-S30). In the case of two non-living C stocks 295 $(DW_{down} \text{ and } OL)$, age \times biome interactions were such that Specifically, DW_{down} declined with age in temperate and boreal forests, compared to an increase with age in tropical forests (Figs. 8, S29). Similarly, 297

OL declined slightly with age in temperate broadleaf forests, contrasting an increase in the other three

298

biomes (Figs. 8, S30).

300 Discussion

For V v3.0 provided unprecedented coverage of most major variables, yielding an internally consistent picture 301 of C cycling in the world's major forest biomes. Carbon cycling rates generally increased from boreal to 302 tropical regions and with stand age. Specifically, the major C fluxes were highest in tropical forests, 303 intermediate in temperate (broadleaf or conifer) forests, and lowest in boreal forests – a pattern that 304 generally held for regrowth as well as mature forests (Figs. 7-8). In contrast to C fluxes, there was little 305 directional variation in mature forest C stocks across biomes (Figs. 2-5, 8). The majority of flux variables, together with most live biomass pools, increased significantly with stand age (Table 1: Figs. 7-8, S5-S30). 307 Together, these results indicate that, moving from cold to tropical climates and from young to old stands, 308 there is a general acceleration of C cycling, whereas C stocks and NEP of mature forests are correlated with 300 a different set of factors. 310

311 C variable coverage and budget closure

The large number of C cycle variables covered by ForC, and the general consistency between them, provide confidence that our overall reported means provide accurate and useful baselines for analysis – with the caveats that they are unlikely to be accurate representations of C cycling for any particular forest, and that these sample means almost certainly do not represent true biome means (particularly for temperate conifer forests where high-biomass stands are over-represented in *ForC*).

There are of course notable holes in the ForC variable coverage (Fig. 2) that limit the scope of our inferences here. Notably, ForC currently has sparse—if any—coverage of fluxes to herbivores and higher consumers, along with the woody mortality (M_{woody}) and dead wood stocks (Table 1, Figs. S27-S29). Geographically, all variables are poorly covered in Africa and Siberia, a common problem in the carbon-cycle community (Xu and Shang 2016, ???). ForC does not include soil carbon, which is covered by other efforts (e.g., Köchy $et\ al$ 2015). ForC is not intended to replace databases that are specialized for particular parts of the C cycle analyses, e.g., aboveground biomass (Spawn $et\ al\ 2020$), land-atmosphere fluxes (Baldocchi $et\ al\ 2001$), soil respiration (Jian $et\ al\ 2020$), or the human footprint in global forests (Magnani $et\ al\ 2007$).

In this analysis, the C cycle budgets for mature forests (Figs. 3-6) generally "close"—that is, the sums of 325 component variables do not differ from the larger fluxes by more than one standard deviation. On the one 326 hand, this reflects the general fact that ecosystem-scale measurements tend to close the C budget more easily 327 and consistently than, for example, for energy balance (Stov et al 2013). On the other, however, For C 328 derives data from multiple heterogeneous sources, and standard deviations within each biome are high; as a 329 result, the standard for C closure is relatively loose (c.f. Houghton 2020). Nonetheless, the lack of closure, in the one instance where it occurs, is probably more reflective of differences in the representation of forest 331 types (i.e., disproportionate representation of US Pacific NW for $B_{root-coarse}$ relative to B_{root} ; Fig. 5) than 332 of methodological accuracy. The overall high degree of closure implies that ForC gives a consistent picture of C cycling within biomes. This is an important and useful test, because it allows for consistency checks within 334 the C cycle, for example leveraging separate and independently-measured fluxes to constrain errors in 335 another (Phillips et al 2017, Williams et al 2014, Harmon et al 2011), or producing internally consistent global data products (Wang et al 2018).

338 C cycling across biomes

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Our analysis reveals that carbon cycling is most rapid in the tropics and slowest in boreal regions, including
339
    C fluxes into (GPP), within (e.g., NPP and its components), and out of (e.g., R_{soil}, R_{eco}) the ecosystem.
340
    For mature forests, this is consistent with a large body of previous work demonstrating that C fluxes
341
    generally decline with latitude (or increase with temperature) on a global scale (e.g., Luyssaert et al 2007,
342
    Gillman et al 2015, Li and Xiao 2019, Banbury Morgan et al n.d.). The consistency with which this occurs
343
    across numerous fluxes is not surprising, but has never been simultaneously assessed across such a large
    number of variables (but see Banbury Morgan et al n.d. for nine autotrophic fluxes).
345
    The notable exception to the pattern of fluxes decreasing from tropical to boreal regions is NEP (Fig. 7),
346
    which showed no significant differences across biomes. Unlike the other C flux variables, NEP does not
    characterize the rate at which C cycles through the ecosystem, but is the balance between C sequestration
348
    (GPP) and respiratory losses (R_{eco}) and represents net CO_2 sequestration (or release) by the ecosystem.
349
    NEP tends to be relatively small in mature forest stands (discussed further below), which accumulate
    carbon slowly relative to younger stands, if at all (Luyssaert et al 2008, ???, Besnard et al 2018). It is
351
    therefore unsurprising that there are no pronounced differences across biomes, suggesting that variation in
352
    NEP of mature forests is controlled less by climate and more by other factors including moderate
    disturbances (???) or disequilibrium of R_{soil} relative to C inputs (e.g., in peatlands where anoxic conditions
354
    inhibit decomposition; Wilson et al 2016).
355
    In contrast to the patterns observed for NEP in mature stands, NEP of stands between 20 and 100 years of
356
    age varied across biomes, being lowest in boreal forests, intermediate in temperate broadleaf forests, and
    highest in temperate conifer forests (with insufficient data to assess tropical forests; Figs. 7, S5). This is
358
    consistent with findings that live biomass accumulation rates (e.g., \Delta B_{ag} or \Delta B_{tot}) during early secondary
359
    succession decrease with latitude (Figs. 7a, S16-S22; Anderson et al 2006, Cook-Patton et al 2020). Note,
360
    though, that NEP includes not only \Delta B_{tot}, but also changes in DW_{tot}, OL, and soil carbon, and biome
361
    differences in the accumulation rates of these variables have not been detected, in part because these
362
    variables do not consistently increase with stand age (Figs. 8, S27-S30, and see discussion below;
363
    Cook-Patton et al 2020).
364
    For regrowth forests, little is known about cross-biome differences in carbon fluxes, and we are not aware of
365
    any previous large-scale comparisons of C fluxes that have been limited to regrowth forests. Thus, this
366
    analysis was the first to examine flux trends in regrowth forests across biomes. The observed tendency for
367
    young forest fluxes to decrease from tropical to boreal regions paralleled patterns in mature forests (Figs. 7,
368
    S5-S19), suggesting that regrowth forests follow latitudinal trends in carbon cycling similar to those of
369
    mature forests (e.g., Banbury Morgan et al n.d.).
    In contrast to C fluxes and biomass accumulation rates in regrowth forests, stocks showed less systematic
371
    variation across biomes. For aboveground biomass, which is the variable in ForC with broadest geographical
372
    representation, the modest trend of declining biomass from tropical to boreal regions mirrors observations
    from spaceborne lidar that reveal a decline in aboveground biomass (for all forests, including secondary) with
374
    latitude across the N hemisphere (Hu et al 2016). The highest-biomass forests on Earth are, however, found
375
    in coastal temperate climates of both the southern and northern hemisphere (Keith et al 2009, Smithwick et
    al 2002, Hu et al 2016). Disproportionate representation of forests in one such region—the US Pacific
377
    Northwest-inflated estimates of temperate conifer fluxes and stocks for some variables and was responsible
378
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for all of the anomalous results described here (e.g., lack of complete C budget closure, anomalous trend across biomes for $BNPP_{coarse}$). Thus, biome differences should always be interpreted relative to the geographic distribution of sampling, which only rarely covers the majority of forested area within a biome. 381 Whereas biomass can be remotely sensed and receives significant research attention, far less is known about 382 geographical variation in deadwood and organic layer (OL) across biomes, which has proved a limitation for 383 C accounting efforts (Pan et al 2011). Although these stocks can be important-exceeding 100 Mg C ha⁻¹ in some stands (Figs. 8, S27-S29), this study is the first to synthesize deadwood data on a global scale (but see 385 Cook-Patton et al 2020 for young forests). Unfortunately, data remain too sparse for statistical comparison 386 across biomes (Figs. 8, S27-S29; but see below for age trends), pointing to a need for more widespread quantification of both standing and downed deadwood. For C coverage of OL stocks is more comprehensive, 388 revealing no significant differences across temperate and tropical biomes, but a tendency towards higher OL389 in boreal forests, consistent with the idea that proportionally slower decomposition in colder climates results in more buildup of organic matter (Allen et al 2002, ???). Further research on non-living C stocks in the 391 world's forests will be essential to completing the picture. 392

393 Age trends in C cycling

Our study reveals that most C fluxes quickly increase to a plateau as stands age (Fig. 7), consistent with 394 current understanding of age trends in forest C cycling (e.g., Anderson-Teixeira et al 2013, ???, Magnani et 395 al 2007). While limited records in very young (i.e., <5 year old) stands resulted in poor resolution of the 396 earliest phases of this increase for many variables (sometimes detecting no age trend; Table 1), any 397 autotrophic C flux (e.g., GPP, NPP and its components, R_{auto}) would be minimal immediately following a stand-clearing disturbance. These would be expected to increase rapidly with the most metabolically active 300 components of biomass, foliage and fine roots, which also increase rapidly with stand age (Fig. 8). In contrast, 400 soil heterotrophic respiration $(R_{het-soil})$ and total soil respiration (R_{soil}) are expected to be non-zero following stand-clearing disturbance, although these may decrease with a reduction of root respiration (R_{soil} 402 only) and C exudates or increase in response to an influx of dead roots and litter (Ribeiro-Kumara et al 2020. 403 Maurer et al 2016, ???). In this study, we detect no significant age trends in either variable. 404 Notably, net carbon sequestration (NEP) increases with age up to the 100-yr threshold examined here, with 405 more pronounced patterns in temperate than boreal forests (Fig. 7). This finding is largely consistent with, 406 but built from a far larger dataset than, previous studies showing an increase in NEP across relatively 407 young stand ages (Pregitzer and Euskirchen 2004, Baldocchi et al 2001, Luyssaert et al 2008). However, 408 NEP has been observed to decline from intermediate to old stands (Luyssaert et al 2008), and the NEP 409 estimated by our model for 100-year-old temperate conifer stands (~5 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) exceeds the mean of 410 mature forests in the same biome (0.7 Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; Fig. 5). A decrease in NEP is consistent with the 411 observed deceleration of biomass accumulation as stands age, although both biomass and non-living C stocks 412 will often continue to increase well beyond the 100-yr threshold used here to delimit young and mature 413 stands (Luyssaert et al 2008, McGarvey et al 2014, Lichstein et al 2009). 414 In terms of stocks, our study reveals consistent increases in live biomass stocks with stand age-a pattern that 415 is well-known and expected (e.g., Lichstein et al 2009, Yang et al 2011)—and more variable age trends in 416 deadwood and OL. The latter are particularly sensitive to the type of disturbance, where disturbances that 417 remove most organic material (e.g., logging, agriculture) result in negligible deadwood in young stands, 418 followed by a buildup over time (tropical stands in Fig. 8; e.g., Vargas et al 2008). In contrast, natural 419

disturbances (e.g., fire, drought) can produce large amounts of deadwood (mostly $DW_{standing}$) that slowly decomposes as the stand recovers, resulting in declines across young stand ages (e.g., temperate and boreal stands in Fig. 8; e.g., Carmona *et al* 2002). Again, further study and synthesis of non-living C stocks across biomes and stand ages will be valuable to giving a more comprehensive picture.

Relevance for climate change prediction and mitigation

The future of forest C cycling (Song et al 2019) will shape trends in atmospheric CO_2 and the course of climate change (???). Our findings, and more generally the data contained in ForC and summarized here, can help to meet two major challenges.

First, improved representation of forest C cycling in models is essential to improving predictions of the future course of climate change, for the simple reason that by definition future projections extend our existing observations and understanding to conditions that do not currently exist on Earth (McDowell et al 2018, Bonan and Doney 2018, Gustafson et al 2018). To ensure that models are giving the right answers for the right reasons (Sulman et al 2018), it is important to benchmark against multiple components of the C cycle that are internally consistent with each other (Collier et al 2018, Wang et al 2018). For C's tens of thousands of records are readily available in a standardized format, and our analyses here indicate that their internal consistency is reasonably high. Integration of For C with models will be valuable to improving the accuracy and reliability of models (Fer et al 2021).

Second, ForC can serve as a pipeline through which information can flow efficiently from forest researchers to
decision-makers working to implement forest conservation strategies at global, national, or landscape scales.
This is already happening: ForC has contributed to updating the IPCC guidelines for carbon accounting in
forests (IPCC 2019, Requena Suarez et al 2019), mapping C accumulation potential from natural forest
regrowth globally (Cook-Patton et al 2020), and informing ecosystem conservation priorities (Goldstein et al
2020).

It is also interesting to consider the complementary utility of global-scale but spatially discontinuous databases such as ForC and remote wall-to-wall remote sensing products. The latter provide unparalleled 444 insight into aboveground carbon stocks, but less constraint on belowground stocks or carbon fluxes in general 445 (Bond-Lamberty et al 2016, Anav et al 2015). Combining observational data and remote observations may provide a much more comprehensive and accurate picture of global forest C cycling, particularly when used 447 in formal data assimilation systems (Konings et al 2019, Liu et al 2018). Biomass is the largest C stock in 448 most forests, and most of the emphasis has traditionally been on this variable. Remote-sensing driven biomass estimates (e.g., Saatchi et al 2011), calibrated based on high-quality ground-based data 450 (Schepaschenko et al 2019, ???), are well suited for this task. Note, however, that factors such as stand age 451 and disturbance history are difficult, if possible, to detect remotely, and can only be characterized for very recent decades (???, ???, ???). Ground-based data such as ForC are therefore valuable in defining 453 age-based trajectories in biomass, as in Cook-Patton et al (2020), and thus constraining variables such as 454 carbon sink potential (Luyssaert et al 2008).

In contrast, carbon allocation within forest ecosystems and respiration fluxes cannot be remotely sensed.

Efforts such as the Global Carbon Project (Friedlingstein *et al* 2019) and NASA's Carbon Monitoring

System (Liu *et al* 2018) typically compute respiration as residuals of all other terms (Bond-Lamberty *et al* 2016, Harmon *et al* 2011). This means that the errors on respiration outputs are likely to be large and

certainly poorly constrained, offering a unique opportunity for databases such as ForC and SRDB (Jian et al 2020) to provide observational benchmarks. For example, Konings et al (2019) produced a unique top-down estimate of global heterotrophic respiration that can both be compared with extant bottom-up estimates (Bond-Lamberty 2018) and used as an internal consistency check on other parts of the carbon cycle (Phillips et al 2017).

465 Conclusions

As climate change accelerates, understanding and managing the carbon dynamics of forests-notably including dynamics and fluxes that cannot be observed by satellites—is critical to forecasting, mitigation, and 467 adaptation. The C data in ForC, as summarized here, will be valuable to these efforts. Notably, the fact that 468 tropical forests tend to have both the highest rates of C sequestration in young stands (Fig. 8; Cook-Patton et al 2020), fueled by their generally high C flux rates (Table 1; Fig. 7), and the highest mean biomass (Fig. 470 8; Table 1; Hu et al 2016, Jian et al 2020) reinforces the concept that conservation and restoration of these 471 forests is a priority for climate change mitigation, along with high-biomass old-growth temperate stands (Grassi et al 2017, Goldstein et al 2020). It is also important to note the trade-off in climate mitigation 473 potential of restoration of young forests, with high rates of CO₂ sequestration (NEP; Cook-Patton et al 474 2020), versus conservation and management of mature forests, with low NEP but high C stocks that could 475 not be recovered on a time scale relevant to climate change mitigation (Goldstein et al 2020). Generally 476 speaking, the conservation of mature forests will yield greater climate benefits (Anderson-Teixeira and 477 DeLucia 2011), but both approaches are critical to avoiding catastrophic climate change (IPCC 2018).

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Data availability statement

Materials required to fully reproduce these analyses, including data, R scripts, and image files, are archived in Zenodo (DOI: TBD]. Data, scripts, and results presented here are also available through the open-access ForC GitHub repository (https://github.com/forc-db/ForC), where many will be updated as the database develops.

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