- Title: Carbon cycling in mature and regrowth forests globally
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24 Summary

- ²⁵ Background. Forests are major components of the global carbon (C) cycle and thereby strongly influence
- ²⁶ atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) and climate. However, efforts to incorporate forests into climate models
- 27 and CO₂ accounting frameworks have been constrained by a lack of accessible, global-scale synthesis on how
- ²⁸ C cycling varies across forest types and stand ages.
- 29 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.
- ₃₁ Specifically, we use 11923 ForC records for 34 C cycle variables from 865 geographic locations to characterize
- ensemble C budgets for four broad forest types tropical broadleaf evergreen, temperate broadleaf,
- temperate conifer, and boreal. We calculate statistics for both mature and regrowth (age <100 years) forests,
- 34 and quantify trends with stand age in regrowth forests for all variables with sufficient data.
- 35 Review Results/Synthesis. The rate of C cycling generally decreased from tropical to boreal regions in both
- mature and regrowth forests, whereas C stocks showed less directional variation. Net ecosystem production
- of mature forests was indistinguishable across biomes. The majority of flux variables, together with most live
- biomass pools, increased significantly with stand age when fit with logarithmic functions.
- ³⁹ Discussion. As climate change accelerates, understanding and managing the carbon dynamics of forests is
- critical to forecasting, mitigation, and adaptation. This comprehensive and synthetic global overview of C
- stocks and fluxes across biomes and stand ages will help to advance these efforts.
- 42 Key words: forest ecosystems; carbon cycle; stand age; productivity; respiration; biomass; global

43 Background

- Forest ecosystems are shaping the course of climate change through their influence on atmospheric carbon
- 45 dioxide (CO₂; Bonan 2008, Friedlingstein et al 2019, IPCC 2018). Despite the centrality of forest C cycling
- in regulating atmospheric CO₂, important uncertainties in climate models (Friedlingstein et al 2006, Krause
- et al 2018, Bonan et al 2019, Di Vittorio et al 2020) and CO₂ accounting frameworks (Pan et al 2011, IPCC
- ⁴⁸ 2019) can be traced to lack of understanding on how C cycling varies across forest types and in relation to
- 49 stand history. This requires accessible, comprehensive, and large-scale databases with global coverage, which
- 50 runs contrary to the traditional way forest C stocks and fluxes have been 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), and using
- book-keeping methods to quantify actual or potential exchanges of CO₂ between forests and the atmosphere
- ⁵⁴ (Griscom et al 2017, Houghton 2020).

55 Forests in the global C cycle: current and future

- 56 A robust understanding of forest impacts on global C cycling is essential. Total annual photosynthesis in
- ⁵⁷ forests (gross primary productivity, GPP) is estimated at approximately 69 Gt C yr⁻¹ (Badgley et al 2019),
- more than seven times the average annual fossil fuel emissions during 2009-2018 (9.5 \pm 0.5 Gt C yr⁻¹;
- ⁵⁹ Friedlingstein et al 2019). Most of this enormous C uptake is counterbalanced by releases to the atmosphere
- through ecosystem respiration (R_{eco}) and fire, with forests globally dominant as sources of both soil
- espiration (Warner et al 2019) and fire (van der Werf et al 2017). In recent years, total forest C uptake has
- exceeded releases, such that globally forests have been a C sink (Harris et al 2021). Considering only areas
- remaining in forest, this C sink has averaged 3.2 ± 0.6 Gt C yr⁻¹ for 2009-2018, offsetting 29% of
- anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions (Friedlingstein et al 2019). However, deforestation, estimated at ~ 1 Gt C
- ₆₅ yr⁻¹ in recent decades (Pan *et al* 2011, Tubiello *et al* 2020), reduces the net forest sink to ~1.1-2.2 Gt C yr⁻¹
- (Friedlingstein et al 2019, Harris et al 2021).
- 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 (Friedlingstein et al 2006). Regrowing forests in particular will play an important role (Pugh et al 2019), as
- almost two-thirds of the world's forests were secondary as of 2010 (FAO 2010). As anthropogenic and
- climate-driven disturbances impact an growing proportion of Earth's forests (Andela et al 2017, McDowell et
- ₇₂ al 2020), understanding the carbon dynamics of regrowth forests is increasingly important
- 73 (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2013). Although age trends in aboveground biomass have been well-studied and
- ₇₄ synthesized globally (Cook-Patton et al 2020), a relative dearth of data and synthesis on other C stocks and
- 75 fluxes in secondary forests points to an under-filled need to characterize age-related trends in forest C cycling.
- ₇₆ Such understanding is particularly critical for reducing uncertainty regarding the potential for carbon uptake
- ₇₇ and climate change mitigation by regrowth forests (Krause et al 2018, Cook-Patton et al 2020).
- ⁷⁸ Understanding, modeling, and managing forest-atmosphere CO₂ exchange is thus central to efforts to
- mitigate climate change (Grassi et al 2017, 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., Lieth 1973, Luyssaert et al 2007) and stand ages (e.g.,

Odum 1969, Luyssaert et al 2008). Over this time, an increasingly refined conceptual understanding of the elements of ecosystem C cycles has developed, as a growing number of variables have been defined (e.g., Chapin et al 2006), along with appropriate measurement methods (e.g., Clark et al 2001). New technology has also enabled researchers to directly measure an expanding set of variables, notably including the development of continuous measurements of soil CO₂ efflux (Kuzyakov 2006) and ecosystem-atmosphere CO₂ exchange (Baldocchi et al 2001). Measurement techniques have been increasingly standardized; for example, of the biomass allometries that strongly influence estimates of most C cycle variables (e.g., Chave et al 2014). 89 Further standardization has been made possible through research networks such as ForestGEO (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2015, Davies et al 2021), NEON (Schimel et al 2007), and FLUXNET (Baldocchi et 91 al 2001, Novick et al 2018). Remote sensing technology has become increasingly useful for global- or 92 regional-scale estimates of a few critical variables (e.g., aboveground biomass, B_{aq} : Saatchi et al 2011, Hu et al 2016, Spawn et al 2020, gross primary productivity, GPP: Li and Xiao 2019), yet measurement and validation of most forest C stocks and fluxes necessarily requires intensive on-the-ground data collection. 95 Alongside these conceptual and methodological developments, there has been a proliferation of measurements 96 across the world's forests. The result of decades of research on forest C cycling is tens of thousands of records 97 distributed across thousands of scientific articles, varying in data formats, units, measurement methods, etc. To address global-scale questions, researchers began synthesizing data into increasingly large databases (e.g., Lieth 1973, Luyssaert et al 2007, Bond-Lamberty and Thomson 2010, Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016, 2018, Cook-Patton et al 2020). The current largest, most comprehensive database on forest C cycling is ForC 101 (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016, 2018), which contains published estimates of forest ecosystem C stocks and 102 annual fluxes (>50 variables), with different variables capturing distinct ecosystem pools (e.g., woody, foliage, and root biomass; dead wood) and flux types (e.g., gross and net primary productivity; soil, root, and 104 ecosystem respiration). These data represent ground-based measurements, and ForC contains associated 105 data required for interpretation (e.g., stand history, measurement methods). Since its most recent publication (For Cv2.0-Ecology; Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018), For C has grown 129%, primarily through the 107 incorporation of two additional large databases that also synthesized published forest C data: the Global Soil 108 Respiration Database (SRDB; Bond-Lamberty and Thomson 2010, Jian et al 2020) and the Global Reforestation Opportunity Assessment database (GROA; Cook-Patton et al 2020). Following these additions, 110 For C currently contains 39762 records from 10608 plots and 1532 distinct geographic areas representing all 111 forested biogeographic and climate zones, making it ideal for assessing how forest C cycling varies across 112 biomes and with respect to stand age. 113

114 Biome differences

Forest C cycling varies enormously across biomes, which cateogrize the world's forests according to major 115 differences in climate, vegetation, etc. Since the early 19th century, it has been recognized that climate plays 116 a dominant role in shaping differences among forests on a global scale (Humboldt and Bonpland 1807, 117 Holdridge 1947). Global scale data syntheses have shown that C fluxes including GPP, net primary 118 productivity (NPP), and soil respiration (R_{soil}) decrease with latitude or, correspondingly, increase with 119 mean annual temperature (Fig. 1; e.g., Lieth 1973, Luyssaert et al 2007, Hursh et al 2017, Banbury Morgan 120 et al n.d.). C stocks of mature forests show less directional variation (Fig. 1). On average, aboveground 121 biomass (B_{aq}) tends to decrease with latitude, but not as dramatically as fluxes, and with the highest B_{aq} 122 forests in relatively cool, moist temperate regions (Keith et al 2009, Smithwick et al 2002, Hu et al 2016). In contrast, standing and downed dead wood $(DW_{standing})$ and DW_{down} , respectively, summing to DW_{tot}) and the organic layer (OL) tend to accumulate more in colder climates where decomposition is slow relative to NPP (Harmon et al 1986, Allen et al 2002).

Correlative analyses relating C cycle variables to climate and other environmental variables have recently 127 been taken to a new level through use of machine-learning algorithms that relate ground-based C cycle data 128 to global maps of environmental covariates, making it possible to create fine-scale global maps of C cycling (e.g., Warner et al 2019, Cook-Patton et al 2020). This approach can be particularly effective when paired 130 with satellite measurements that correlate to C cycle variables of interest; for example, solar-induced 131 chlorophyll fluorescence is useful for fine-scale mapping of gross primary productivity (GPP; Li and Xiao 2019), while LiDAR, radar, and optical imagery are being used to estimate B_{ag} at regional to global scales 133 (e.g., Saatchi et al 2011, Hu et al 2016). Any such analysis is however constrained by the quality and 134 coverage of ground-based estimates of forest C fluxes or stocks (e.g., Schepaschenko et al 2019). While estimates of some variables (e.g., B_{aq} , GPP, NPP, R_{soil}) are widely available, many remain poorly 136 characterized (e.g., DW_{tot} ; OL; autotrophic respiration, R_{auto}) –even at the coarse resolution of biomes. 137 This is a critical limitation not only for understanding forest C cycling, but also for quantifying forest-based 138 climate change mitigation across forest biomes or ecozones (e.g., IPCC 2019). 139

140 Age trends and their variation across biomes

Stand age is another important axis of variation in forest C cycling (Fig. 1). In 1969, E.P. Odum's "The 141 Strategy of Ecosystem Development" laid out predictions as to how forest energy flows and organic matter 142 stocks vary with stand age (Odum 1969). Although the conceptualization of the C cycle in this paper was simplistic by current standards, the paper was foundational in framing the theory around which research on 144 the subject still revolves (Corman et al 2019), and the basic framework still holds, albeit with modest 145 modifications (Fig. 1; Anderson-Teixeira et al 2013). Following stand-clearing disturbance, GPP, NPP, and biomass of leaves $(B_{foliage})$ and fine roots $(B_{root-fine})$ increase rapidly and thereafter remain relatively 147 stable $(B_{foliage}, B_{root-fine}, \text{ sometimes } GPP)$ or decline slightly $(NPP, \text{ sometimes } GPP; \text{ e.g., Law } et \ al$ 148 2003, Pregitzer and Euskirchen 2004, Amiro et al 2010, Goulden et al 2011). The decline in NPP occurs because R_{auto} increases relative to GPP as forests age, corresponding to declining carbon use efficiency with 150 stand age (DeLucia et al 2007, Collalti et al 2020). Heterotrophic respiration, most of which originates from 151 the soil $(R_{het-soil})$ remains relatively constant with stand age (Law et al 2003, Pregitzer and Euskirchen 2004, Goulden et al 2011), with the result that net ecosystem production ($NEP = GPP - R_{eco}$, where R_{eco} 153 is total ecosystem respiration) is initially negative, increases to a maximum at intermediate ages, and 154 declines-typically to a small positive value-thereafter (Law et al 2003, Pregitzer and Euskirchen 2004, Amiro 155 et al 2010, Goulden et al 2011, Luyssaert et al 2008). The result is that biomass accumulates rapidly in young 156 forests, followed by a slow decline to near zero in old forests (e.g., Lichstein et al 2009, Yang et al 2011). 157 While these trends have been subject of fairly recent qualitative review (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2013), there is need for a synthetic, quantitative review taking advantage of the greatly expanded data now available.

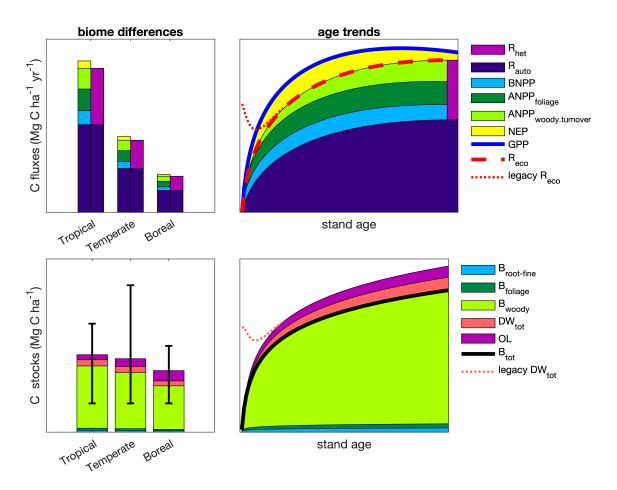


Figure 1 | Schematic diagram summarizing current understanding of biome differences and age trends in forest C cycling. Variables are defined in Table 1. Age trends, which represent idealized dynamics following a disturbance that removes all living vegetation, are an updated version of the classic figure from Odum (1969), with heavy lines corresponding to those in Odum's figure and NEP corresponding to Odum's 'net production'. Here, NEP conists primarily of woody aboveground net primary production $(ANPP_{woody})$, while $ANPP_{woody,turnover}$ is the sum of woody mortality and branch turnover. Dotted lines refer to decomposition of potential 'legacy' organic material produced prior to the disturbance and remaining at the site (e.g., standing and fallen dead wood, DW_{tot} ; soil organic matter). Error bars on C stocks plot represent within-biome variability, wherein mean biomass is highest in the tropics, but maximum biomass is highest in temperate regions.

In the past few decades, researchers have started asking how age trends-mostly in B_{ag} or total biomass (B_{tot}) accumulation- vary across biomes. Early research on this theme showed that biomass accumulation rates during secondary succession increase with temperature on a global scale (Johnson et al 2000, Anderson et al 2006) and with water availability in the neotropics (Poorter et al 2016). Most recently, Cook-Patton et al (2020) reinforced these earlier findings with a much larger dataset and created a high-resolution global map of estimated potential C accumulation rates. However, there has been little synthesis of cross-biome differences in variables other than biomass and its accumulation rate (but see Cook-Patton et al (2020) for DW, OL, and soil C accumulation in young stands). 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. Accurate estimates of C sequestration rates by regrowth forests are also critical for national greenhouse gas accounting under the IPCC framework (IPCC 2019, Requena Suarez et al 2019) and to quantifying the value of regrowth forests for climate change mitigation (Anderson-Teixeira and DeLucia 2011, Goldstein et al 2020).

Here, we 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 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.

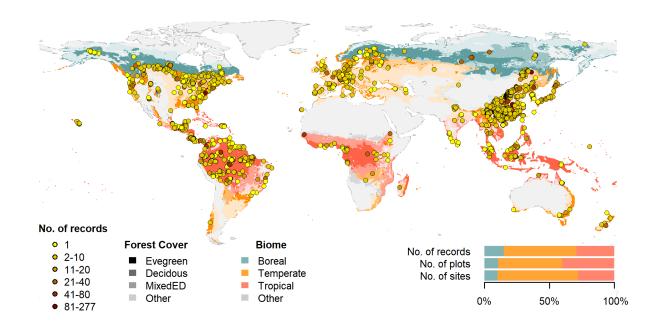


Figure 2 | Map of sites included in this analysis. Symbols are colored according to the number of records at each site. Underlying map shows coverage of evergreen, deciduous, and mixed forests (shading differences; data from Jung et al. 2006) and biomes (color differences). Distribution of sites, plots,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

8 Methods/ Design

This review synthesizes data from the ForC database (Fig. 2; https://github.com/forc-db/ForC; 179 Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016, 2018). For amalgamentes numerous intermediary data sets (e.g., Luyssaert et 180 al 2007, Bond-Lamberty and Thomson 2010, Cook-Patton et al 2020) and original studies. Original 181 publications were referenced to check values and obtain information not contained in intermediary data sets, 182 although this process has not been completed for all records. The database was developed with goals of 183 understanding how C cycling in forests varies across broad geographic scales and as a function of stand age. 184 As such, there has been a focus on incorporating data from regrowth forests (e.q., Anderson et al 2006, 185 Martin et al 2013, Bonner et al 2013) and obtaining stand age data when possible (83% of records in v.2.0; 186 Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018). Particular attention was given to developing the database for tropical forests 187 (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016), which represented roughly one-third of records in ForC v2.0 188 (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018). Since publication of ForC v2.0, we imported three large additional databases into ForC via a combination of R scripts and manual edits. First, we imported (via R script) the Global 190 Database of Soil Respiration Database (SRDB v4, 9488 records; Bond-Lamberty and Thomson 2010), and 191 corrections and improvements to SRDB arising from this process were incorporated in SRDB v5 (Jian et al

2020). Second, we imported (via R script) the Global Reforestation Opportunity Assessment database (GROA v1.0, 10116 records; Cook-Patton et al 2020, Anderson-Teixeira et al 2020), which itself had drawn on an earlier version of ForC. Because all records in GROA were checked against original publications, these 195 records were given priority over duplicates in ForC (Appendix S1). Third, we incorporated records of annual 196 NEP, GPP, and R_{eco} from the FLUXNET2015 dataset (Pastorello et al 2020), treating these records as authoritative when they duplicated earlier records (Appendix S1). We have also added data from individual 198 publications, with a particular focus on productivity (e.g., Taylor et al 2017), dead wood, and ForestGEO 199 sites (e.g., Lutz et al 2018, Johnson et al 2018). A record of data sets added to ForC over the course of its 200 development is available at https://github.com/forc-201 db/ForC/blob/master/database management records/ForC data additions log.csv. The database 202 version used for this analysis has been tagged as a new release on Github (v3.0) and assigned a DOI through Zenodo (DOI: TBD). 204 All measurements originally expressed in units of dry organic matter (OM) were converted to units of C 205 using the IPCC default of C = 0.47 * OM (IPCC 2018). Duplicate or otherwise conflicting records were 206 purged as described in Appendix S1, resulting in a total of 22265 records (56% size of total database). 207 Records were filtered to remove plots that had undergone significant anthropogenic management or major 208 disturbance since the most recent stand initiation event. Specifically, we removed plots with any record of 209 managements manipulating CO₂, temperature, hydrology, nutrients, or biota, as well as any plots whose site 210 or plot name contained the terms "plantation", "planted", "managed", "irrigated", or "fertilized" (13.9% of 211 duplicate-purged records). We also removed stands that had undergone any notable anthropogenic thinning 212 or partial harvest (5.6% of duplicate-purged records). We retained sites that were grazed or had undergone 213 low severity natural disturbances (<10% mortality) including droughts, major storms, fires, and floods. We 214 removed all plots for which no stand history information had been retrieved (5.7% of duplicate-purged 215 records). In total, this resulted in 17349 records (43.6% of the records in the database) being eligible for inclusion in the analysis. 217 We selected 23 annual flux and 11 C stock variables for inclusion in the analysis (Table 1). These different 218 flux and stock variables represent different pools (e.g., aboveground biomass, root biomass, dead wood) and 219 levels of combination (e.g., total net primary productivity, NPP, versus the individual elements of NPP220 such as foliage, roots, and branches). We did not analyze soil carbon, which is not a focus of the ForC 221 database. Note that two flux variables, aboveground heterotropic respiration (R_{het-ag}) and total respiration (R_{het}) , were included for conceptual completeness but had no records in ForC (Table 1). Records for our 223 focal variables represented 90.3% of the total records eligible for inclusion. For this analysis, we combined 224 some of ForC's specific variables into more broadly defined variables. Specifically, net ecosystem exchange (measured by eddy-covariance; Baldocchi et al 2001) and biometric estimates of NEP were combined into 226 the single variable NEP (Table 1). Furthermore, for NPP, aboveground NPP (ANPP), and the litterfall 227 component of ANPP (ANPP_{litter fall}), ForC variables specifying inclusion of different components were combined (e.g., measurements including or excluding fruit and flower production and herbivory). 229 Throughout ForC, for all measurements drawing from tree census data (e.g., biomass, productivity), trees 230 were censused down to a minimum diameter breast height (DBH) threshold of 10 cm or less. All records were 231 measured directly or derived from field measurements. 232 We grouped forests into four broad biome types based on climate zones and dominant vegetation type 233

(tropical broadleaf, temperate broadleaf, temperate needleleaf, and boreal needleleaf) and two age

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 †
Annual fluxes						
NEP	net ecosystem production or net ecosystem exchange (+ indicates C sink)	329	146	88	n.s.	+; xB
GPP	gross primary production $(NPP + R_{auto} \text{ or } NEP + R_{eco})$	303	115	84	$\mathrm{TrB} > \mathrm{TeB} \geq \mathrm{TeN} \geq \mathrm{BoN}$	+; xB
NPP	net primary production $(ANPP + BNPP)$	214	112	74	$\mathrm{TrB} > \mathrm{TeB} \geq \mathrm{TeN} > \mathrm{BoN}$	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	$TrB > TeB \stackrel{-}{\geq} TeN > BoN$	+
$ANPP_{litterfall}$	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	$\mathrm{TrB} > \mathrm{TeN} \geq \mathrm{TeB} \geq \mathrm{BoN}$	+
$BNPP_{coarse}$	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}	aboveground heterotrophic respiration	0	0	0	-	-
R_{het}	heterotrophic respiration $(R_{het-ag} + R_{het-soil})$	0	0	0	-	-
Stocks						
B_{tot}	total live biomass $(B_{ag}+B_{root})$	188	157	87	$TrB \ge TeB > BoN$	+; xB
B_{ag}	aboveground live biomass $(B_{ag-wood} + B_{foliage})$	4466	4072	621	$TrB \ge TeN \ge TeB > BoN$	+; xB
$B_{ag-wood}$	woody component of aboveground biomass	115	102	64	$TeN > TrB \ge BoN$	+; xB
$B_{foliage}$	foliage biomass	134	115	72	$TeN > TrB \ge BoN \ge TeB$	+; 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	$\text{TeN} > \text{TeB} \ge \text{BoN}$	+; 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

^{*} TrB: Tropical, TeB: Temperate Broadleaf, TeN: Temperate Needleleaf, BoN: Boreal, n.s.: no significant differences, n.t.: not tested † + or -: significant positive or negative trend, xB: significant age x biome interaction, n.s.: no significant age trend, n.t.: not tested

classifications (young and mature). Climate zones (Fig. 2) were defined based on site geographic coordinates according to Köppen-Geiger zones (Rubel and Kottek 2010). We defined the tropical biome as including all

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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
    (Dsc, Dsd, Dwc, Dwd, Dfc, and Dfd). Any forests in dry (B) and polar (E) Köppen-Geiger zones were
239
    excluded from the analysis. We defined leaf type (broadleaf / needleleaf) based on descriptions in original
240
    publications (prioritized) or values extracted from a global map based on satellite observations (SYNMAP;
    Jung et al 2006). For young tropical forests imported from GROA but not yet classified by leaf type, we
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    assumed that all were broadleaf, consistent with the rarity of naturally regenerating needleleaf forests in the
243
    tropics. We also classified forests as "young" (< 100 years) or "mature" (> 100 years or classified as
    "mature", "old growth", "intact", or "undisturbed" in original publication). Assigning stands to these
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    groupings required the exclusion of records for which ForC lacked geographic coordinates (0.4% of sites in
246
    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 11923 records. Numbers of
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    records by biome and age class are given in Table S1.
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    Data were summarized to produce schematics of C cycling for mature forests of each biome. To obtain the
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    values reported in the C cycle schematics, we first averaged any repeated measurements within a plot. Values
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    were then averaged across geographically distinct areas, defined as plots clustered within 25 km of one
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    another (sensu Anderson-Teixeira et al 2018), weighting by area sampled if available for all records. This
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    step was taken to avoid pseudo-replication.
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    We tested whether the C budgets described above "closed"-i.e., whether they were internally consistent.
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    Specifically, we first defined relationships among variables: for example, NEP = GPP - R_{eco},
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    BNPP = BNPP_{coarse} + BNPP_{fine}, DW_{tot} = DW_{standing} + DW_{down}). Henceforth, we refer to the
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    variables on the left side of the equation as "aggregate" fluxes or stocks, and those that are summed as
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    "component" fluxes or stocks, noting that the same variable can take both aggregate and component positions
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    in different relationships. We considered the C budget for a given relationship "closed" when component
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    variables summed to within one standard deviation of the aggregate variable.
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    To test for differences across mature forest biomes, we also examined how stand age impacted fluxes and
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    stocks, employing a mixed effects model ("lmer" function in "lme4" R package; Bates et al 2015) with biome
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    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
265
    from one another. This analysis was run for variables with records for at least seven distinct geographic areas
266
    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
    log10[stand age] as fixed effects and plot nested within geographic area as a random effect on the intercept.
269
    This analysis was run for variables with records for at least three distinct geographic areas in more than one
270
    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 \times stand.age
272
    interaction was included in the model. We note that the logarithmic function fit in this analysis does not
273
    always correspond to theoretical expectations (Fig. 1); however, data limitations did not support fitting of
    functions with more parameters or reliable comparison of different functional forms. Within the data
275
    constraints, we deemed a logarithmic function to be the most appropriate functional form for the majority of
    variables.
277
```

To facilitate the accessibility of our results and data, and to allow for rapid updates as additional data become available, we automated all database manipulation, analyses, and figure production in R (Team 2020).

281 Review Results/ Synthesis

282 Data Coverage

Of the 39762 records in ForC v3.0, 11923 met our strict criteria for inclusion in this study (Fig. 2). These 283 records were distributed across 5062 plots in 865 distinct geographic areas. Of the 23 flux and 11 stock 284 variables mapped in our C cycle diagrams (Figs. 3-6, S1-S4), For C contained sufficient mature forest data for 285 inclusion in our statistical analyses (i.e., records from > 7 distinct geographic areas) for 20 fluxes and 9 stocks 286 in tropical broadleaf forests, 15 fluxes and 8 stocks in temperate broadleaf forests, 14 fluxes and 7 stocks in 287 temperate conifer forests, and 8 fluxes and 7 stocks in boreal forests. For regrowth forests (<100 yrs), ForC 288 contained sufficient data for inclusion in our statistical analyses (i.e., records from ≥ 3 distinct geographic 289 areas) for 11 fluxes and 10 stocks in tropical broadleaf forests, 16 fluxes and 10 stocks in temperate broadleaf 290 forests, 16 fluxes and 10 stocks in temperate conifer forests, and 14 fluxes and 9 stocks in boreal forests. 291

292 C cycling in mature forests

Average C cycles for mature tropical broadleaf, temperate broadleaf, temperate conifer, and boreal forests \geq 100 years old and with no known major natural or anthropogenic disturbance are presented in Figures 3-6 (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 met our criteria for budget "closure". That is, component variables summed to within one standard deviation of their respective 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 high-biomass forests of the US Pacific Northwest (Fig. S25).

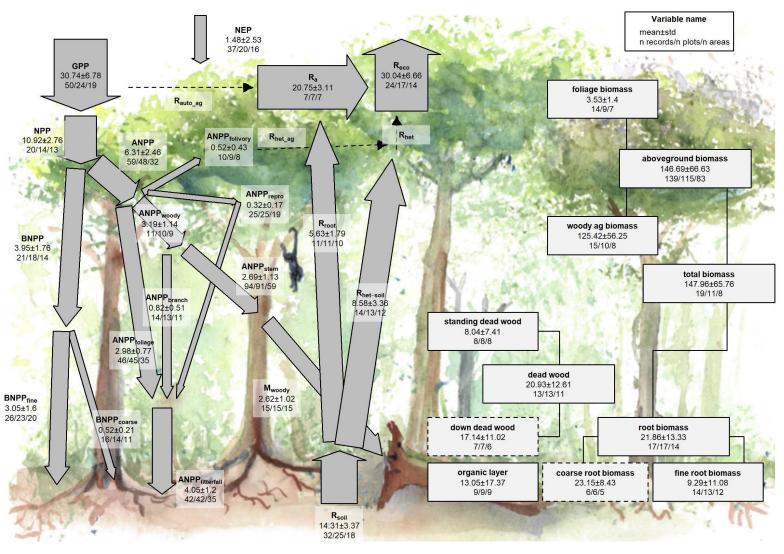


Figure 3 | C cycle diagram for mature tropical broadleaf forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha⁻¹), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines 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 width is proportional to the square root of the corresponding flux. Mean component fluxes do not necessarily add up to the mean total fluxes because different sets of sites are included depending on availability of data (Figs. S5-S30).

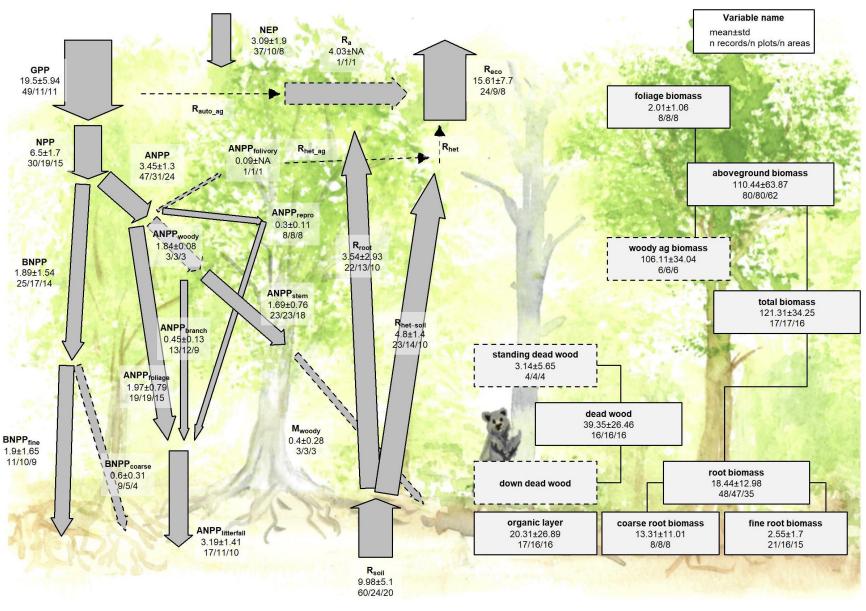


Figure 4 | C cycle diagram for mature temperate broadleaf forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha⁻¹), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines 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 width is proportional to the square root of the corresponding flux. Mean component fluxes do not necessarily add up to the mean total fluxes because different sets of sites are included depending on availability of data (Figs. S5-S30).

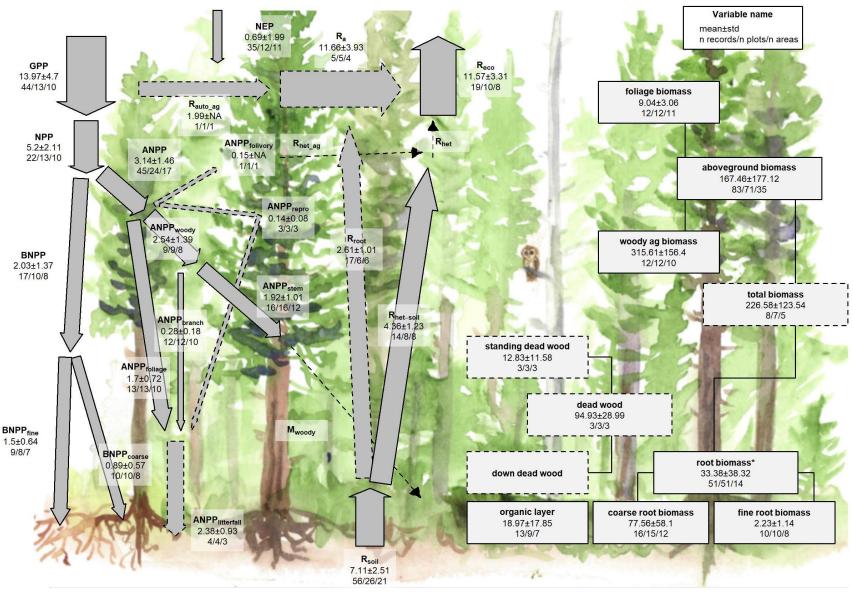


Figure 5 | C cycle diagram for mature temperate conifer forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha⁻¹), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines 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 width is proportional to the square root of the corresponding flux. Mean component fluxes do not necessarily add up to the mean total fluxes because different sets of sites are included depending on availability of data (Figs. S5-S30). The temperate conifer biome in particular is subject to high variability, with highest fluxes and stocks in the high-biomass forests of the US Pacific Northwest. An asterisk after a variable name indicates lack of C cycle closure.

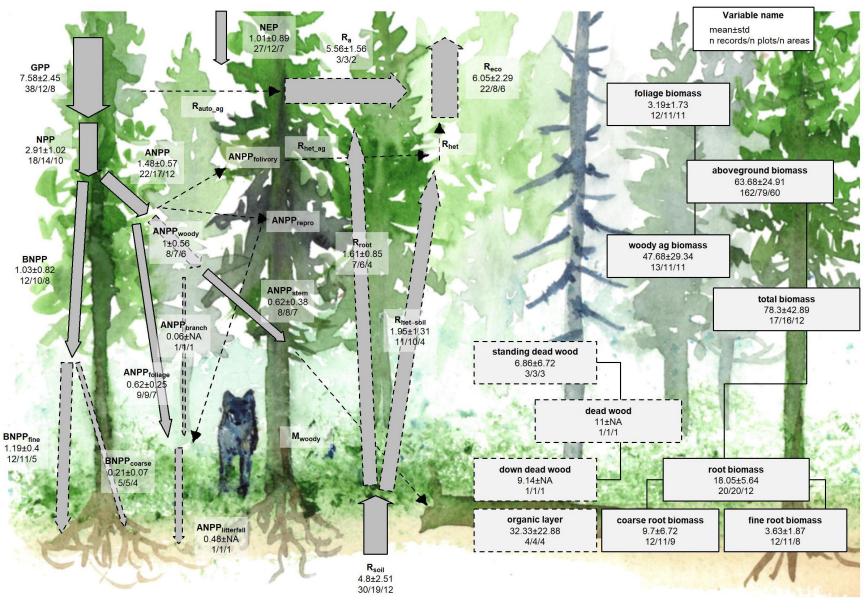


Figure 6 | C cycle diagram for mature boreaal conifer forests. Arrows indicate fluxes (Mg C ha^{-1} yr⁻¹); boxes indicate stocks (Mg C ha^{-1}), with variables as defined in Table 1. Presented are mean \pm std, where geographically distinct areas are treated as the unit of replication. Dashed shape outlines 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 width is proportional to the square root of the corresponding flux. Mean component fluxes do not necessarily add up to the mean total fluxes because different sets of sites are included depending on availability of data (Figs. S5-S30).

There were sufficient data to assess differences among biomes in mature forest values 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 305 temperate (broadleaf or conifer) forests, and lowest in boreal forests (Table 1, Figs. 7, S5-S19). Differences 306 between tropical and boreal forests were always significant, with temperate forests intermediate and 307 significantly different from one or both. Fluxes tended to be numerically greater in temperate broadleaf than 308 temperate conifer forests, but the difference was never statistically significant. This pattern held for the 309 following variables: GPP, NPP, ANPP, ANPP, $ANPP_{stem}$, $ANPP_{branch}$, $ANPP_{foliage}$, BNPP, R_{eco} , R_{root} , 310 R_{soil} , and $R_{het-soil}$. For two of the variables without significant differences among biomes $(ANPP_{litter\,fall})$ 311 and $BNPP_{fine}$; Figs. S12 and S15, respectively), the same general trends applied but were not statistically 312 significant. Another exception was for $BNPP_{root-coarse}$, where all records came from high-biomass forests in 313 the US Pacific Northwest, resulting in marginally higher values for the temperate conifer biome (Fig. S14; 314 differences significant in mixed effects model but not in post-hoc pairwise comparison). 315 The most notable exception to the pattern of decreasing flux per unit area from tropical to boreal biomes 316 was NEP, with no significant differences across biomes but with the largest average in temperate broadleaf 317 forests, followed by tropical, boreal, and temperate conifer forests (Figs. 7, S5). For all biomes, NEP was 318

positive, with 95% confidence intervals excluding zero.

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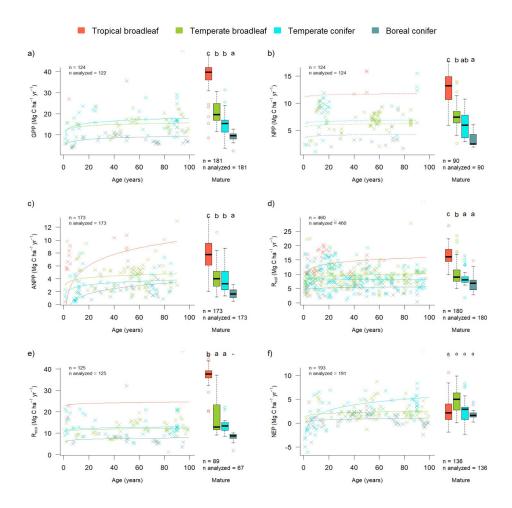


Figure 7 | Age trends and biome differences in some of the major C fluxes: (a) GPP, (b) NPP, (c) ANPP, (d) R_{soil} , (e) R_{eco} , and (f) NEP. In each panel, the left scatterplot shows age trends in forests up to 100 years old, as characterized by a linear mixed effects model with fixed effects of $\log 10(\text{age})$ and biome. The fitted line indicates the effect of age (solid lines: significant at p<0.05, dashed lines: non-significant), and non-parallel lines indicate a significant $\log 10(\text{age})$ 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, along with maps showing geographic distribution of the data, are given in the Supplement (Figs. S5-S19).

Biome differences were less consistent across C stocks than fluxes (Figs. 8, S20-S30). 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). For B_{tot} and B_{ag} , tropical broadleaf forests had the highest mean biomass and boreal forests the lowest, with intermediate means for temperate broadleaf and needleleaf forests (temperate needleleaf excluded from B_{tot} analysis becuase of insufficient data; Figs. S20, S21). However, maximum values for these variables – along with all other stocks including live or standing woody biomass ($B_{ag-wood}$, B_{root} , $B_{root-coarse}$, DW_{tot} , $DW_{standing}$) – consistently occurred in temperate biomes (Figs. 1, 8, S20-S30). For variables that were disproportionately sampled in such high-biomass forests ($B_{ag-wood}$, $B_{foliage}$, and $B_{root-coarse}$; disproportionately sampled in the US Pacific Northwest), temperate conifer forests had significantly higher stocks than the other biomes.

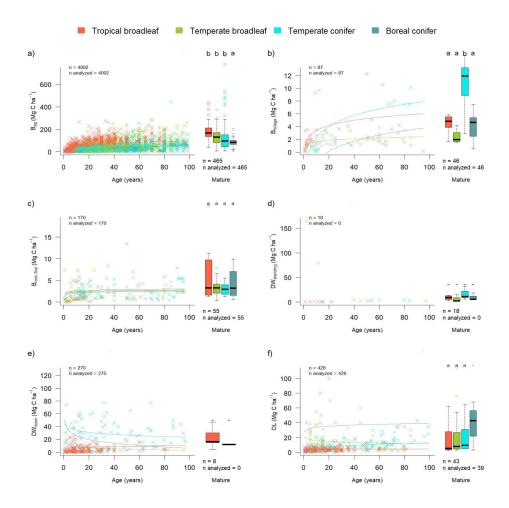


Figure 8 | Age trends and biome differences in some of the major forest C stocks: (a) aboveground biomass, (b) foliage, (c) fine roots, (d) dead wood. In each panel, the left scatterplot shows age trends in forests up to 100 years old, as characterized by a linear mixed effects model with fixed effects of log10(age) and biome. The fitted line indicates the effect of age (solid lines: significant at p<0.05, dashed lines: non-significant), and non-parallel lines indicate a significant log10(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 stock with sufficient data, along with maps showing geographic distribution of the data, are given in the Supplement (Figs. S20-S30).

C cycling in young forests

- C fluxes commonly increased significantly with stand age (Tables 1, S2, Figs. 7, 9, S5-S30). For C contained 16 C flux variables with sufficient data for analyses of age trends in young forests (see Methods). Of these, 332 ten increased significantly with log10[age]: NEP, GPP, ANPP, $ANPP_{woody}$, $ANPP_{foliage}$, 333 $ANPP_{litterfal}$, BNPP, $BNPP_{fine}$, R_{eco} , and R_{root} . The remaining six – NPP, $ANPP_{stem}$, $ANPP_{branch}$, 334 $BNPP_{coarse}$, R_{soil} , and $R_{het-soil}$ – displayed no significant relationship to stand age. 335 Differences in C fluxes across biomes typically paralleled those observed for mature forests, with C cycling 336 generally most rapid in the tropics and slowest in boreal forests (Table 1, Figs. 7, S5-S30). The single 337 exception was $ANPP_{stem}$, for which temperate broadleaf and conifer forests had flux rates similar to tropical 338
- forests. Notably, and in contrast to the lack of biome differences in NEP for mature forests (Fig. 7), the 339
- tendency for temperate forests to have greater fluxes than boreal forests held for NEP in regrowth forests

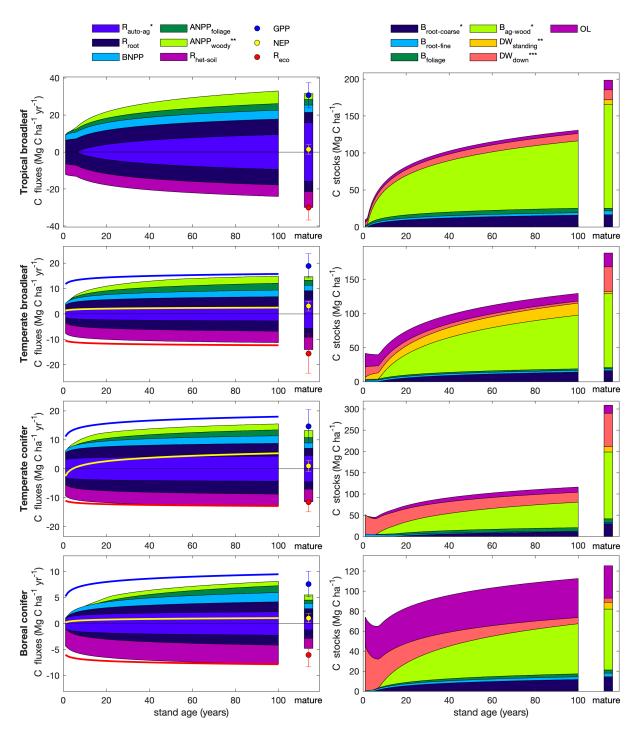


Figure 9 | Age trends in C cycling. Selection of variables for plotting seeks to maximize sample size and broad geographic representation while representing all elements of C cycle. Error bars on mature forest flux estimates indicate \pm 1 standard deviation. Asterisks indicate variables whose age trends were calculated based on other variables (* young and mature forests; ** young forests only; *** mature forests only), as follows. For all forests: $B_{ag-wood} = max(0, B_{ag} - B_{foliage})$, $B_{root-coarse} = max(0, B_{root} - B_{root-fine})$, $DW_{standing} = max(0, DW_{tot} - DW_{down})$. For tropical forests: $ANPP_{woody} = max(0, ANPP - ANPP_{foliage})$, $R_{auto-ag} = R_{auto} - R_{root}$, where $R_{auto} = NPP(1/CUE - 1)$ and CUE = 0.46 (Collati et al. 2020). For non-tropical forests: $ANPP_{woody} = min(ANPP_{stem}, ANPP_{woody})$, $R_{auto-ag} = R_{eco} - R_{soil}$. Note that there remain substantial uncertainties as to the functional form of age trends and discrepencies in closure among related variables.

"Closure" and internal consistency of the C flux budget was less successful for young than mature forests (Figs. 9). Summed regression equations for $R_{soil-het}$ and R_{root} were generally very close to R_{soil} . In assessing the C budget of young forests, we calculated $R_{auto-aq}$ as the difference between R_{eco} and R_{soil} (except for 344 tropical forests, which had insufficient R_{eco} data), effectively guaranteeing near-closure of the CO₂ efflux 345 (respiration) portion of the budget (negative values in Figs. 9). In contrast, the CO₂ influx portion of the budget generally did not "close": the sum of R_{auto} ($R_{root} + R_{auto-aq}$, as described above) and components 347 of NPP consistently fell short of GPP, particularly in in young stands (range across forest types and ages: 348 $0.9-7.6 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Moreover, there was not consistent budget closure among the components of NPP, and substantially different age trends resulting from the sum of components versus total NPP (Figs. 9). 350 Although age trends of young forests often converged towards mature forest averages, there were also some 351 discrepancies between young forest trends and mature forest averages (Figs. 7, 9, S5-S30), most notably 352 including a tendency for higher fluxes in regrowth boreal forests than in their mature counterparts (Fig. 9). 353 In terms of C stocks, ten variables (all but standing deadwood, $DW_{standing}$) had sufficient data to test for 354 age trends (Table 1, Figs. 8, S20-S30). All of these displayed a significant overall increase with with 355 log10[stand.age]. Age \times biome interactions were also significant for all ten of these C stock variables (Table 356 S2), with living C stocks tending to accumulate more rapidly during the early stages of forest regrowth in 357 tropical forests (Figs. 8, 9, S20-S30). In the case of two non-living C stocks (DW_{down} and OL), age \times biome 358 interactions were such that age trends were positive in some biomes and negative in others. Specifically, 359 DW_{down} declined with age in temperate and boreal forests, compared to an increase with age in tropical 360 forests (Figs. 8,9, S29). Similarly, OL declined slightly with age in temperate broadleaf forests, contrasting 361 an increase in the other three biomes (Figs. 8, 9,S30). Again, there were some discrepancies between young forest trends and mature forests, most notably including generally higher C stocks in mature forests relative 363 to their 100-year counterparts, particularly for temperate conifer forests (with discrepancies again driven by 364 differences in geographic representation) and, to a lesser extent, tropical broadleaf forests (FIg. 9).

Discussion

For V v3.0 provided unprecedented coverage of most major variables, yielding a broad picture of C cycling in 367 the world's major forest biomes. Carbon cycling rates generally increased from boreal to tropical regions and 368 with stand age (Figs. 1, 9). Specifically, most C fluxes were highest in tropical forests, intermediate in 369 temperate (broadleaf or conifer) forests, and lowest in boreal forests – a pattern that generally held for 370 regrowth as well as mature forests (Figs. 1, 7-8, 9). The notable exception was mature forest NEP, which, 371 as the difference between GPP and R_{eco} , was statistically indistinguishable across biomes (Fig. 7f). There 372 was also little directional variation in mean mature forest C stocks (biomass, dead wood, and organic layer) 373 across biomes, although maximum values for the majority of stocks (all including live or standing woody 374 biomass) occurred in temperate biomes (Figs. 1, 3-6, 8). Consistent with theory and previous studies (Fig. 375 1), the majority of flux variables, together with most live biomass pools, increased significantly with stand 376 age (Table 1; Figs. 7-9, S5-S30). Together, these results indicate that, moving from cold to tropical climates 377 and from young to old stands, there is a general acceleration of C cycling, whereas C stocks and NEP of 378 mature forests, which are defined by the differences between in- and out- fluxes, do not vary systematically 379 across biomes. Together, these results refine and expand out understanding of C cycling in mature forests, 380 while providing the first global-scale analysis of age trends in multiple forest C stocks and fluxes (Figs. 9). 381

Our analysis reveals that carbon cycling is most rapid in the tropics and slowest in boreal regions, including

C fluxes into (GPP), within (e.g., NPP and its components), and out of (e.g., R_{soil} , R_{eco}) the ecosystem.

For mature forests, this is consistent with a large body of previous work demonstrating that C fluxes

382 C cycling across biomes

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generally decline with latitude – or increase with temperature – on a global scale (e.g., Luyssaert et al 2007, 386 Gillman et al 2015, Li and Xiao 2019, Banbury Morgan et al n.d.). This consistency is not surprising, 387 particularly given commonality in the data analyzed or used for calibration. The finding that these patterns 388 hold consistently across across numerous fluxes, while consistent with theoretical expectations (Fig. 1), is novel to this analysis (but see Banbury Morgan et al n.d. for nine autotrophic fluxes). 390 The notable exception to the pattern of fluxes decreasing from tropical to boreal regions is NEP, which 391 showed no significant differences across biomes, albeit with the highest mean in temperate broadleaf forests 392 (Fig. 7f). Unlike the other C flux variables, NEP does not characterize the rate at which C cycles through 393 the ecosystem, but, as the balance between GPP and R_{eco} , represents net CO_2 sequestration (or release) by 394 the ecosystem (Fig. 1). NEP tends to be relatively small in mature forest stands, which accumulate carbon slowly relative to younger stands, if at all (Fig. 1; Luyssaert et al 2008, Amiro et al 2010, Besnard et al 396 2018). It is therefore consistent with theory – and with previous research (Luyssaert et al 2007) – that there 397 are no pronounced differences across biomes. Rather, variation in NEP of mature forests appears to be controlled less by climate and more by other factors including moderate disturbances (Curtis and Gough 399 2018) or disequilibrium of R_{soil} relative to C inputs (e.g., in peatlands where anoxic conditions inhibit 400 decomposition; Wilson et al 2016). The fact that mature temperate broadleaf forests have a higher mean than the other biomes may reflect the fact that most of these forests are older secondary forests that, while 402 classified here as mature, are still accumulating carbon (Curtis and Gough 2018). 403 In contrast to the patterns observed for NEP in mature stands, NEP of stands between 20 and 100 years of 404

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

consistent with findings that live biomass accumulation rates (ΔB_{ag} or ΔB_{tot}) during early secondary 407 succession decrease with latitude (Figs. 8a, S20-S30; Anderson et al 2006, Cook-Patton et al 2020). Note, though, that NEP includes not only ΔB_{tot} , but also changes in DW_{tot} , OL, and soil carbon (not analyzed 409 here). Biome differences in the accumulation rates of DW, OL, and soil C have not been detected, in part 410 because these variables do not consistently increase with stand age (Figs. 1, 8, S27-S30, and see discussion below; Cook-Patton et al 2020). 412 For regrowth forests, little was previously known about cross-biome differences in carbon fluxes, and we are 413 not aware of any previous large-scale comparisons of C fluxes that have been limited to regrowth forests. 414 Thus, this analysis was the first to examine flux trends in regrowth forests across biomes. The observed 415 tendency for young forest fluxes to decrease from tropical to boreal regions paralleled patterns in mature 416 forests (Figs. 7, 9, S5-S19), suggesting that regrowth forests follow latitudinal trends in carbon cycling 417 similar to those of 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 variation across biomes (c.f. Fig. 1). For aboveground biomass, which is the variable in ForC with broadest 420 geographical representation, the modest trend of declining biomass from tropical to boreal regions mirrors 421 observations from spaceborne lidar that reveal a decline in aboveground biomass (for all forests, including 422 secondary) with latitude across the N hemisphere (Hu et al 2016). The highest-biomass forests on Earth are, 423 however, found in coastal temperate climates of both the southern and northern hemisphere (Figs. 1, 8a; 424 Keith et al 2009, Smithwick et al 2002, Hu et al 2016). Disproportionate representation of forests in one such 425 region—the US Pacific Northwest—inflated estimates of temperate conifer fluxes and stocks for some variables 426 and was responsible for all of the anomalous results described here (e.g., lack of complete C budget closure, 427 anomalous trend across biomes for $BNPP_{coarse}$). Thus, biome differences should always be interpreted 428 relative to the geographic distribution of sampling, which only rarely covers the majority of forested area 429 within a biome. 430 Whereas aboveground biomass can be remotely sensed (albeit with significant uncertainties; Ploton et al 431 2020) and receives significant research attention, far less is known about geographical variation in deadwood 432 and organic layer (OL) across biomes, which has proved a limitation for C accounting efforts (Pan et al 433 2011). Although these stocks can be important-exceeding 100 Mg C ha⁻¹ in some stands (Figs. 8, S27-S29). 434 this study is the first to synthesize deadwood data on a global scale (but see Cook-Patton et al 2020 for 435 young forests). Unfortunately, data remain too sparse for statistical comparison across biomes (Figs. 8, 436 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, revealing no significant 438 differences across temperate and tropical biomes, but a tendency towards higher OL in boreal forests, 439 consistent with the idea that proportionally slower decomposition in colder climates results in more buildup of organic matter (Fig. 1; Allen et al 2002, Anderson-Teixeira et al 2011). Further research on non-living C 441 stocks in the world's forests will be essential to completing the picture. 442

443 Age trends in C cycling

Our study reveals that most C fluxes quickly increase and then decelerate as stands age (Figs. 7, 9),
consistent with current understanding of age trends in forest C cycling (Fig. 1; e.g., Anderson-Teixeira et al
2013, Amiro et al 2010, Magnani et al 2007). While limited records in very young (i.e., <5 year old) stands
resulted in poor resolution of the earliest phases of this increase for many variables (sometimes detecting no

immediately following a stand-clearing disturbance (Fig. 1). These would be expected to increase rapidly, along with the most metabolically active components of biomass, foliage and fine roots, which also increase 450 rapidly with stand age (Figs. 1, 7-9). In contrast, soil heterotrophic respiration $(R_{het-soil})$ and total soil 451 respiration (R_{soil}) -and therefore R_{eco} are expected to be non-zero following stand-clearing disturbance (Fig. 1), although these may decrease with a reduction of root respiration $(R_{soil} \text{ only})$ and C exudates or increase 453 in response to an influx of dead roots and litter (Ribeiro-Kumara et al 2020, Maurer et al 2016, 454 Bond-Lamberty et al 2004). In this study, we detect no significant age trends in either $R_{het-soil}$ or R_{soil} , consistent with previous findings (Law et al 2003, Pregitzer and Euskirchen 2004, Goulden et al 2011). 456 Notably, net carbon sequestration (NEP) exhibits an overall increase with age across the first 100 years of 457 stand development, with more pronounced patterns in temperate than boreal forests (Fig. 7). This finding is 458 consistent with previous studies showing an increase in NEP across relatively young stand ages (Pregitzer and Euskirchen 2004, Baldocchi et al 2001, Luyssaert et al 2008). However, NEP is theoretically expected 460 to peak in intermediate-aged stands and thereafter decline, consistent with decelerating C accumulation as 461 stands age (Fig. 9; Odum 1969), and such declines have been observed (Law et al 2003, Luyssaert et al 462 2008). The fact that NEP values estimated by our models for 100-year-old stands were not systematically 463 different from those of mature stands (lower for temperate broadleaf, higher for temperate conifer, and equal 464 for boreal; Fig. 9) may be driven by differences in geographical representation across age classes or by the fitting of an inappropriate functional form. Moreover, both biomass and non-living C stocks often continue 466 to increase well beyond the 100-yr threshold used here to delimit young and mature stands (Luyssaert et al 467 2008, McGarvey et al 2014, Lichstein et al 2009). Additional data, including on age trends of deadwood, the organic layer, and soil C will be important to parsing the timing and extend of an age-related NEP decrease 469 across forest biomes. In terms of stocks, our study reveals consistent increases in live biomass stocks with stand age, a pattern that 471 is well-known and expected (e.g., Lichstein et al 2009, Yang et al 2011), contrasting with more variable age 472 trends in deadwood and the organic layer (Fig. 9). The latter are particularly sensitive to the type of 473 disturbance, where disturbances that remove most organic material (e.g., logging, agriculture) result in 474 negligible deadwood in young stands, followed by a buildup over time (e.g., tropical stands in Figs. 8, 9; e.g., 475 Vargas et al 2008). In contrast, natural disturbances (e.g., fire, drought) can produce large amounts of 476 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 Figs. 8, 9; Carmona et al 2002). Again, further study 478 and synthesis of non-living C stocks across biomes and stand ages will be valuable to giving a more 479 comprehensive picture. 480

age trend; Table 1), any autotrophic C flux (e.g., GPP, NPP and its components, R_{auto}) would be minimal

481 C variable coverage and budget closure

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The large number of C cycle variables covered by ForC, and the relatively high consistency among them
(Figs. 3-6, 9), provide confidence that our reported mature forest means provide 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*).

In this analysis, the C cycle budgets for mature forests usually come close to closure—that is, the sums of component variables do not differ from the larger fluxes by more than one standard deviation (Figs. 3-6, 9).

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On the one hand, this reflects the general fact that ecosystem-scale measurements tend to close the C budget
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    more easily and consistently than, for example, for energy balance (Stoy et al 2013). On the other, however,
    For C derives data from multiple heterogeneous sources, and standard deviations within each biome are high;
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    as a result, the standard for C closure is relatively loose (c.f. Houghton 2020). The one instance where the C
492
    budgets does not close according to our criteria is likely due to differences in the representation of forest
    types (i.e., disproportionate representation of US Pacific NW for B_{root-coarse} relative to B_{root}; Fig. 5)
494
    rather than issues of methodological accuracy. The overall high degree of closure implies that ForC gives an
495
    at least roughly consistent picture of C cycling within biomes for mature forests. This is an important and
    useful test, because it allows for consistency checks within the C cycle, for example leveraging separate and
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    independently-measured fluxes to constrain errors in another (Phillips et al 2017, Williams et al 2014,
498
    Harmon et al 2011), or producing internally consistent global data products (Wang et al 2018).
    In contrast, age trends for young forests generally remain less clearly defined, in large part because their data
    records remain relatively sparse (i.e., have low representation of different geographical regions for any given
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    age) for most variables, particularly in the tropics (Anderson-Teixeira et al 2016). While this review provides
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    a first analysis of age trends in forest C cycling for multiple variables at a global scale, improved resolution of
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    these trends will require additional data.
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    There are of course notable holes in the ForC variable coverage that limit the scope of our inferences here.
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    Notably, For C currently has sparse—if any—coverage of fluxes to herbivores and higher consumers, along with
506
    the woody mortality (M_{woody}) and DW (Table 1, Figs. S27-S29). For C does not include soil carbon, which
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    is covered by other efforts (e.g., Köchy et al 2015). For C is not intended to replace databases that are
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    specialized for particular parts of the C cycle analyses, e.g., aboveground biomass (Spawn et al 2020),
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    land-atmosphere fluxes (Baldocchi et al 2001), soil respiration (Jian et al 2020), or the human footprint in
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    global forests (Magnani et al 2007).
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    Importantly, For C and the analyses presented here cover the forests that have received research attention,
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    which are not a representative sample of the world's existing forests, either geographically or in terms of
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    human impacts (Martin et al 2012). Geographically, all variables are poorly covered in Africa and Siberia
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    (Fig. 2), a common problem in the carbon-cycle community (Xu and Shang 2016, Schimel et al 2015). In
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    terms of human impacts, research efforts tend to focus on interior forest ecosystems (Martin et al 2012),
    often in permanently protected areas (e.g., Davies et al 2021). Studies of regrowth forests tend to focus on
517
    sites where recurring anthropogenic disturbance is not a confounding factor. Yet, fragmentation and
518
    degradation impact a large and growing proportion of Earth's forests (FAO and UNEP 2020). Fragmentation
    and the creation of edges strongly impacts forest C cycling (e.g., Chaplin-Kramer et al 2015, Remy et al
520
    2016, Reinmann and Hutyra 2017, Smith et al 2019, Reinmann et al 2020, Ordway and Asner 2020). Partial
521
    logging and other forms of non-stand clearing anthropogenic disturbance also alter forest C cycling (e.g.,
    Huang and Asner 2010, Piponiot et al 2016), but are under-studied (Sist et al 2015) and excluded from this
523
    analysis. Fragmented and degraded forests do not fit the idealized conceptual framework around which this
524
    review is structured (Fig. 1), yet their representation in models, sustainability assessments, and C accounting
    systems is critical to accurate accounting of C cycling in Earth's forests (e.g., Huang and Asner 2010,
526
    Reinmann and Hutyra 2017, Smith et al 2019, Piponiot et al 2019). Finally, plantation forests account for
527
    approximately 3% of Earth's forests (FAO and UNEP 2020) but are not included in this analysis. While it is
    known that these tend to accumulate biomass faster than naturally regenerating forests (Anderson et al 2006,
529
    Bonner et al 2013), their global scale C cycling patterns remain less clearly understood (c.f. Cook-Patton et
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al 2020). Additional research and synthesis are needed to fill these critical gaps in our understanding of forest C cycling.

Relevance for climate change prediction and mitigation

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The future of forest C cycling (Song et al 2019) will shape trends in atmospheric CO₂ and the course of climate change (Schimel et al 2015). Our findings, and more generally the data contained in ForC and 535 summarized here, can help to meet two major challenges. 536 First, improved representation of forest C cycling in models is essential to improving predictions of the future 537 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, 539

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 542

of records are readily available in a standardized format, along with all code used in the analyses presented 543 here, and we recommend that researchers use these resources to identify and summarize data specific to the

analysis at hand. Integration of ForC with models will be valuable to improving the accuracy and reliability 545 of models (Fer et al 2021). 546

Second, For 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. 548 This is already happening: For C has contributed to updating the IPCC guidelines for carbon accounting in 549 forests (IPCC 2019, Requena Suarez et al 2019), mapping C accumulation potential from natural forest 550 regrowth globally (Cook-Patton et al 2020), and informing ecosystem conservation priorities (Goldstein et al 551 2020). 552

It is also interesting to consider the complementary utility of global-scale but spatially discontinuous 553 databases such as ForC and wall-to-wall remote sensing products. The latter provide insight into aboveground carbon stocks, but less constraint on belowground stocks or carbon fluxes in general 555 (Bond-Lamberty et al 2016, Anav et al 2015). Combining observational data and remote observations may 556 provide a much more comprehensive and accurate picture of global forest C cycling, particularly when used 557 in formal data assimilation systems (Konings et al 2019, Liu et al 2018). Biomass is the largest C stock in 558 most forests, and most of the emphasis has traditionally been on this variable. Remote-sensing driven 559 aboveground biomass estimates (e.g., Saatchi et al 2011), calibrated based on high-quality ground-based data (Schepaschenko et al 2019, Chave et al 2019), provide the most promising approach, but significant 561 uncertainties remain (Ploton et al 2020). Note, however, that factors such as stand age and disturbance 562 history are difficult, if not impossible, to detect remotely, and can only be characterized for very recent decades (Hansen et al 2013, Song et al 2018, Curtis et al 2018). Ground-based data such as ForC are 564 therefore valuable in defining age-based trajectories in biomass, as in Cook-Patton et al (2020), and thus 565 constraining variables such as 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 569 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).

576 Conclusions

As climate change accelerates, understanding and managing the carbon dynamics of forests-including dynamics and fluxes that cannot be observed by satellites—is critical to forecasting, mitigation, and 578 adaptation. The C data in ForC, as summarized here, will be valuable to these efforts. Notably, the fact that 579 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. 581 8; Table 1; Hu et al 2016, Jian et al 2020) reinforces the concept that conservation and restoration of these 582 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 584 potential of restoration of young forests, with high rates of CO₂ sequestration (NEP; Cook-Patton et al 585 2020), versus conservation and management of mature forests, with low NEP but high C stocks that could not be recovered on a time scale relevant to climate change mitigation (Goldstein et al 2020). Generally 587 speaking, the conservation of mature forests will yield greater climate benefits (Anderson-Teixeira and 588 DeLucia 2011), but both approaches are critical to avoiding catastrophic climate change (IPCC 2018).

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Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study are openly available. 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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