

# No leeway to enhance carbon sequestration and stock capacity via changes to forest management

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30

31 **Abstract**

32 Forest management interventions can act as value-based agents to remove CO<sub>2</sub> from the  
33 atmosphere and slow anthropogenic climate change and thus might play a strategic role in the  
34 framework of the EU forestry-based mitigation strategy. To what extent diversified  
35 management actions could lead to quantitatively important changes in carbon sequestration  
36 potential and stocking capacity at the tree level remains to be thoroughly assessed. To that  
37 end, we used a state-of-the-science bio-geochemically based forest growth model to assess  
38 effects of multiple alternative forest management scenarios on plant net primary productivity  
39 (NPP) and potential carbon woody stocks (pCWS) under differing scenarios of climate  
40 change. The experiments indicated that the capacity of trees to assimilate and store  
41 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in recalcitrant standing woody tissue is already being attained as its  
42 optimum under business-as-usual forest management conditions regardless of the different  
43 climate change scenarios investigated. Nevertheless, on the long-term and under increasing  
44 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and warming, managed forests show both higher productivity  
45 and a larger pool of stored carbon than unmanaged ones as long as forest thinning and tree  
46 harvesting are of moderate intensity.

47 **Keywords:** alternative forest management, modeling, virtual forests, climate change, carbon  
48 sequestration

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## 54      **1. | Introduction**

55      Forest ecosystems have the capability to mitigate anthropogenic climate change by slowing  
56      the rate of atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) increase (Pugh et al., 2019; Friedlingstein et al.,  
57      2020). A net reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is the cornerstone and topmost priority in view of  
58      climatic neutrality, which is expected to be reached by 2050, and in this context there are  
59      important questions about whether forest management may provide a concrete, cost-effective  
60      toolset for enhancing land-based mitigation actions at both the ecosystem/landscape (Kauppi  
61      et al., 2001; Pussinen et al., 2002; Nolè et al., 2015; Tong et al., 2020) and wood stocks levels  
62      (i.e. material substitution purposes; Leskinen et al., 2018; Howard et al., 2021).

63      European (EU) forests have been shaped through the centuries by human activities, which,  
64      affecting carbon (C) fluxes and stocks, have in turn influenced their potential for enhanced C  
65      sequestration (Nabuurs et al., 2008). In the EU *circa* 165 Mha of forest lands are managed  
66      which contribute to  $\sim -286$  Mt CO<sub>2</sub> year<sup>-1</sup> of the LULUCF net fluxes (Grassi et al., 2017;  
67      2021). Past management strategies were designed to attain the 'normal forest', creating forest  
68      conditions where maximum yield and products can be achieved perpetually (Leslie, 1966),  
69      specifically aimed at stimulating commercial yield rather than maximizing biomass  
70      sequestration and production (Tahvonen, 2016). Present EU country policies envision a move  
71      from predominantly wood-based climate neutrality management actions, to more proactive  
72      and sustainable forest management portfolios (EU Forest Strategy, 2015) to enhance forest C  
73      storage in a changing climate (Churkina et al., 2020; Favero et al., 2020). Substantial  
74      uncertainty remains about the effective capacity of managed forests to even hold the current  
75      sink under the global changes and thus contribute to climate change mitigation through their  
76      sequestration potential in the near-future, as classical silvicultural schemes are shaped on past  
77      environmental conditions. In the past decades European forests registered increased

78 productivity and sustained stock increments exceeding the harvesting rates (Ciais et al., 2008;  
79 State of Europe's forests 2020). Such increases are the results of combinations of several  
80 factors, primarily climate (through the lengthening of the growing season), increased  
81 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (stimulating photosynthesis through 'CO<sub>2</sub>-fertilization'),  
82 nitrogen deposition (stimulating growth through nitrogen fertilization) and forest  
83 management (Bellassen et al., 2011; Piao et al., 2020; Walker et al., 2021). There is concern,  
84 however, that recent harvesting rates may be approaching, or even exceeding, net tree growth  
85 rates (Nabuurs et al., 2013; Ceccherini et al., 2020; Schulze et al., 2020; State of Europe's  
86 forests 2020). Past positive trends in gross primary productivity (GPP; photosynthetic  
87 assimilation of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>), and vegetation productivity in the northern hemisphere  
88 might not be sustained in the future if the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect is not persistent (Körner,  
89 2005; Walker et al., 2021) or if this is down-regulated or counteracted by direct effects of  
90 climate trends including warming and drying (Yuan et al., 2019; Grossiord et al., 2020),  
91 disturbances (McDowell et al., 2020; Senf & Seidl, 2021; Gampe et al., 2021), or by age-  
92 related effects on net primary productivity (NPP; the balance of photosynthesis and plant  
93 respiratory release of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere)(Ryan et al., 2006; Zaehle et al., 2006; Luysaert  
94 et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2014; Pugh et al., 2019). Hence, a reduction in vegetation sink  
95 capacity and a turning point in its capability of loosening anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> might be  
96 already approaching (Duffy et al., 2015; Peñuelas et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020), which  
97 would likely trigger a double negative effect, by lowering the short- to medium-term potential  
98 of vegetation to sequester carbon and leveraging a non-persistent increase of carbon woody  
99 stocks (CWS, i.e. the sum of standing woody biomass and harvested woody products) in the  
100 medium- to long-term.

101 Forest models are extensively used to investigate and to project the effects of climate and  
102 management on forest productivity and sustainability with local to regional scale  
103 applications, including the support of policymaking (Mäkelä et al., 2000; Morales et al.,  
104 2005; Fontes et al., 2010, 2011; Temperli et al., 2012; Vacchiano et al. 2012; Collalti et al.,  
105 2018; Maréchaux et al., 2021). In this context, forest models can be used to assess potential  
106 effects of climate change on forest carbon storage, how different management strategies can  
107 influence that carbon storage, and therefore how management can support climate change  
108 mitigation.

109 This study aimed at questioning the debated role of past-current forest management practices  
110 in ensuring forest productivity under future climate conditions. A validated process-based  
111 modeling approach was used to better understand controls on CO<sub>2</sub> uptake and C storage in a  
112 composite matrix of managed forests taking into account how combinations of climate  
113 change and management affect those controls. Specifically, we questioned whether: *i*)  
114 relative to the business-as-usual (BAU) management scenarios or, alternative forest  
115 management practices can maximize NPP while at the same time maintaining and/or  
116 increasing pCWS (potential Carbon Woody Stocks: i.e. when no harvested wood decay is  
117 assumed); *ii*) we tried to quantitatively assess and to discuss around the effective role of  
118 forests and forest management in respectively responding to and mitigating climate change.

## 119 **2. | Materials and Methods**

### 120 **2.1 | 3D-CMCC-FEM Model**

#### 121 *2.1.2 | Model description*

122 The 3D-CMCC-FEM v.5.5 (Three Dimensional - Coupled Model Carbon Cycle - Forest  
123 Ecosystem Model; Collalti et al., 2014; Marconi et al., 2017; Engel et al., 2021) simulates

124 daily gross photosynthesis (GPP) through the Farquhar-von Caemmerer-Berry biochemical  
125 model (Farquhar et al., 1980), modified for sun and shaded leaves (de Pury & Farquhar,  
126 1997), and acclimated for temperature (Kattge & Knorr, 2007). Plant respiration ( $R_a$ ) is  
127 simulated explicitly and partitioned into growth ( $R_g$ ), and maintenance respiration ( $R_m$ ) as in  
128 the growth-and-maintenance-respiration paradigm (Amthor, 2000; McCree, 1970; Thornley,  
129 2000).  $R_g$  is considered a fixed fraction (i.e. 30%) of the remaining C once tissue  $R_m$  is  
130 accounted for and removed from GPP.  $R_m$  is computed, for each functional-structural tree C  
131 pool (i.e. live wood, leaves and fine roots), using a temperature-acclimated  $Q_{10}$  relationship  
132 (for details on thermal acclimation see Tjoelker et al., 2001; Atkin et al., 2003; Smith &  
133 Dukes, 2012; Collalti et al., 2018) and a mass-based approach using N-content of the specific  
134 live respiring tissues (with the base rate of maintenance respiration ( $m_R$ ) = 0.218 g C g N<sup>-1</sup>  
135 day<sup>-1</sup>; Ryan et al., 1991; Drake et al., 2011; Oleson et al., 2013; Collalti et al., 2016, 2020a).  
136 The sum of daily  $R_g$  (if any) and  $R_m$  gives  $R_a$ . Daily NPP is then GPP less  $R_a$ . Allocation of  
137 NPP among tree C pools is performed daily, with preference to non-structural carbon (NSC,  
138 i.e. starch and sugars), which is used directly to fuel  $R_m$ , up to a minimum NSC threshold  
139 level. The minimum NSC-threshold level is a fraction (a model parameter) of the live wood  
140 C-content (Collalti et al., 2020a). Once (and if) the threshold is reached, C is allocated  
141 preferentially for biomass growth (G) for the different tree C-pools depending on the  
142 phenological phase as formerly described in Collalti et al. (2016). The only phenological  
143 phase during which NSC has no priority in allocation is during bud break, when recent GPP  
144 is completely allocated for growth of leaves up to a maximum annual leaf area index (LAI,  
145 m<sup>2</sup> m<sup>-2</sup>), which is computed at the beginning of each year of simulation through the pipe-  
146 model (Shinozaki et al., 1964; Mäkelä, 1997), and growth of fine roots. This NSC allocation  
147 scheme reflects a quasi-active role of NSC (NSC usually has priority over growth of new  
148 structural tissues), as described by Sala (2011), Merganičová et al. (2019) and Collalti et al.

149 (2020a), and implies that any asynchrony between C-demand (i.e.  $R_a$  and  $G$ ) and C-supply  
150 (i.e.  $GPP$ ) is buffered by tapping the pool of NSC. When NSC pools cannot be refilled (for  
151 any reason) and NSC approaches zero, carbon starvation occurs, and tree death is simulated.  
152 This overall C-allocation scheme in the 3D-CMCC-FEM model follows the functional  
153 balance theory of allocation, similarly to other models (Merganičová et al., 2019). Age  
154 related mortality, carbon starvation, and a background mortality (i.e. the as-yet unexplained  
155 mortality), represent the different types of mortality simulated by the model; the last one is  
156 turned off when forest management is applied. An in-depth description of the model's  
157 underlying characteristics, effects of climate change and model parameter sensitivity and  
158 uncertainty, as well as model limitations, is in Collalti et al. (2020a) (and references therein).

### 159 *2.1.2 / Forest management routine*

160 Historically, a large share of the actively managed European forests has been shaped via  
161 thinning and clear-cutting which resulted in the establishment of even-aged, often mono-  
162 specific stands when the main aim was prioritizing productivity (see Campioli et al., 2015,  
163 and references therein; State of Europe's forests 2020). Therefore, in such configurations,  
164 forests carbon pools and fluxes strongly depend on rotation lengths (tree age-class  
165 distribution), thinning interval, and thinning intensity (Nabuurs et al., 2008).

166 In this study we varied the three key management variables associated with European  
167 managed forests: thinning intensity, thinning interval and rotation age (following Reyer et al.,  
168 2020). Thinning intensity is represented in the model by the percentage of stand basal area to  
169 remove based on total stand basal area. Thinning interval stands for the number of years  
170 between two consecutive operations. Rotation age represents the stand age at which the final  
171 harvest occurs, after which the stand is replanted with saplings of the same species as exactly  
172 as adopted into the Inter-Sectoral Impact Model Intercomparison Project (ISIMPI,



173 <https://www.isimip.org>, Warszawski et al., 2014) protocol. The model benchmark was the  
174 *Business-as-Usual* (BAU) forest management scheme for the most common European  
175 species as described in Reyer et al. (2020) and applied in three contrasting forest stands as in  
176 Collalti et al. (2018).

## 177 **2.2. | Sites, data and experimental design**

178 The model was parameterized for, and simulated C fluxes and tree growth in three even-aged,  
179 long-monitored, managed European forest sites which are part of the Fluxnet network  
180 (Pastorello et al., 2020), the ISIMIP initiative and the PROFOUND database (Reyer et al.,  
181 2020). Specifically, abovementioned sites are: (1) the temperate European beech (*Fagus*  
182 *sylvatica* L.) forest of Sorø, Denmark; (2) the Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) H. Karst)  
183 stand of Bílý Kříž in Czech Republic, and (3) the boreal Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) forest  
184 of Hyytiälä, Finland (Table 1). These sites were selected because they represent the dominant  
185 forest types in Europe and their management best corresponds to ‘the intensive even-aged  
186 forestry’ as defined by Duncker et al. (2012).

187 As input daily forcing data, we used the climate simulation data from the ISIMIP Fast Track  
188 initiative based on the Climate Model Intercomparison Project 5 (CMIP5) in which five Earth  
189 System Models (ESMs; i.e.: HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, GFDL-  
190 ESM2M, and NorESM1-M) were driven by four Representative Concentration Pathways  
191 (RCPs) of atmospheric greenhouse gas concentration trajectories, namely RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5,  
192 RCP 6.0, and RCP 8.5 (Moss et al., 2010; van Vuuren et al., 2011). The future annual  
193 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> time series for the period 2016 to 2500 are based on Meinshausen et al.  
194 (2011) as described in Reyer et al. 2020. The RCP atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration values  
195 were used to drive the biogeochemical photosynthesis model with values varying at the end  
196 of the century from 421.4  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  (RCP 2.6) to 926.6  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  (RCP8.5). Daily

197 meteorological forcing-data for each site used by 3D-CMCC-FEM were available as bias-  
198 corrected/downscaled variables (air temperature, precipitation, solar irradiance) and as non-  
199 corrected variables (relative humidity) according to Hempel et al. (2013).

### 200 2.2.1. / *Virtual stands*

201 Given that the European forested area is composed of a mix of differing-aged stands, and  
202 since forest C cycle processes may respond differently to climate factors at different ages  
203 (e.g. Vanninen & Makela, 2005; Ryan et al., 2006; Reich et al., 2008; Bouriaud et al., 2015;  
204 Collalti & Prentice, 2019; Collalti et al., 2020b; Huber et al., 2018, 2020; Migliavacca et al.,  
205 2021), we developed a composite forest matrix (CFM) consisting of a mixture of stands of  
206 different age, structure and associated biomass. Starting from the real stands, we generated a  
207 prescribed number of virtual stands in order to obtain representative model outputs of a larger  
208 set of different age-classes (with their associated forest attributes) to cover an entire rotation  
209 period (~140 years, depending on species), similarly as in Bohn & Huth (2017). A Composite  
210 Forest Matrix (CFM) was then created by running at each site the model from 1997 to 2199  
211 (to cover the entire rotation length for each species) under a contemporary climate (no  
212 climate change) scenario (de-trended and repeated cycles of 1996-2006 weather), with fixed  
213 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (368.865 μmol mol<sup>-1</sup>) and BAU management practices. From  
214 each of these simulations data needed to reinitialize the model at every *rotation length*/10  
215 were extracted (Figure 1). Thus, in total, ten virtual additional stands representing different  
216 age classes of the composite matrix were selected and included into the CFM. The  
217 management scenario analysis was then carried out by means of this new larger number of  
218 forest stands (hereafter named ‘*virtual stands*’) as proxy of our representative forest.

### 219 2.2.2. / *Alternative management (AM) schemes*

220 Overall, we considered at each real and virtual stand, and for each of the three sites, 28  
221 management scenarios: the Business-as-Usual and ‘no management’ (NO-MAN: stands left  
222 developing in undisturbed conditions) schemes plus 26 alternative management schemes.  
223 These alternative forest management scenarios represent all the possible combinations of two  
224 different thinning *intensities*, two different thinning *intervals*, and two different *rotation*  
225 durations than the ones adopted to simulate BAU. The schemes were grouped (Tables 1 and  
226 Table S1) into combinations of: (1) ‘*more intensive*’ (‘AM+’), where at least one out of the  
227 three management variables reflect an intensified management case relative to BAU (e.g.  
228 higher thinning intensity and/or shortened interval and/or shortened rotation than BAU), and  
229 the other one or two (or no) variables are kept as in BAU; (2) ‘*less intensive*’ (‘AM-’), where  
230 at least one variable reflects lower thinning intensity and/or prolonged interval and/or  
231 prolonged rotation, compared to the BAU case; and (3) ‘*mixed schemes*’ (‘MIX’), where at  
232 least one management variable was more intensive and at least one management variable was  
233 less intensive than the BAU scheme. In the ‘*no management*’ scheme forest stands are left to  
234 develop without any human interventions or change in species composition.

### 235 2.2.3 / *Model runs and evaluation*

236 The starting year for all simulations was 1997, consistent with the availability of measured  
237 stand carbon flux data used for the model initialization and evaluation. After creation of the  
238 virtual stands, based on de-trended weather time series for period 1996-2006, final climate  
239 change simulations were created from 2006 to 2100. Overall, in total – by considering all  
240 potential combinations of management and climate change scenarios under different ESMs  
241 climate forcing – at each of the three sites we performed 6,160 simulations (i.e.: 5 ESMs \* 4

242 RCPs \* 11 stands \* 28 management schemes) corresponding overall to 18,480 different  
243 model runs for all of the three sites.

244 Additionally, to gauge model sensitivity to factors controlling our model results we organized  
245 the analysis according to factorial design (Mason et al., 2003; Collalti et al., 2018) across a  
246 matrix of different factors (i.e. Stand, ESMs and RCPs, generating seven possible  
247 combinations from each factor in total) in order to identify the most influential factor among  
248 forest structure (as modified also by management) and climate/scenarios used over the main  
249 modeled autotrophic carbon variables (GPP, Ra, NPP, CUE,  $NPP_{\text{woody}}$ , and potential Carbon  
250 Woody Stocks). The model was evaluated using 1997-2005 annual GPP and the annual net  
251 woody productivity ( $NPP_{\text{wood}}$ ) data for Sorø and Hyytiälä and 2000-2005 for Bílý Kříž by  
252 comparing simulated GPP against eddy covariance estimates (<http://fluxnet.fluxdata.org/>;  
253 Pastorello et al., 2020), and compared modeled wood growth against measured  $NPP_{\text{wood}}$   
254 (Principal Investigator's site for Hyytiälä and Bílý Kříž under *personal communication*, and  
255 Wu et al., 2013 for the site of Sorø) and stem diameter at breast height (DBH; Reyer et al.,  
256 2020). Subsequent years were excluded from the model evaluation since the scenario period  
257 in the ESMs started in 2006, and hence, ESMs are driven by different atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
258 concentration trajectories after 2006.

### 259 **2.3 | Effects of climate change and management on carbon fluxes and biomass**

260 As carbon fluxes do not scale linearly to stocks (Schulze et al., 2020) data analyses focused  
261 on the variables NPP and the pCWS, the sum of standing and previously harvested woody  
262 stocks. Net primary productivity can be used as good proxy for evaluating the forest net  
263 active carbon sink process (Sha et al., 2022), and the net biomass input to forest ecosystems  
264 (Trotsiuk et al., 2020), with decomposition (decay) processes representing the active carbon  
265 source process. Net primary production is a dynamic balance between photosynthesis (GPP)

266 and plant respiration ( $R_a$ ), which respond separately and/or in combination to a range of  
267 climatic factors and, in managed forests, to management practices (Collalti et al., 2020a)  
268 which are not generally amenable to *in situ* quantification over long periods, especially for  
269 climate change issues, hence raising the need for process-based modeling. Harvested wood  
270 products are considered here without decay; hence we aim at evaluating only the potential  
271 maximum attainable total woody standing stocks under a wide spectrum of possible  
272 management schemes without any consideration of the longevity of harvested wood. Data  
273 were averaged over the emission scenario simulation period 2006-2099 and aggregated over  
274 virtual and real stands and over ESMs but distinguished between RCPs. In spite of site-  
275 specific differences in magnitude of response to the different management schemes and  
276 climate (see Section S.2 in the Supporting material) the main emerging pattern with  
277 increasing intensity of intervention is of similar magnitude. For these reasons, data were also  
278 aggregated over sites. Therefore, alternative management results are presented first  
279 aggregated according to the groups AM+ and AM- to better highlight the pattern direction  
280 when moving from the current management schemes toward a more intensive or a less  
281 intensive scenario.

## 282 **3. | Results**

### 283 **3.1 | Model evaluation**

284 The 3D-CMCC-FEM model was evaluated in the three sites separately and at different  
285 temporal scales with robust results regarding both the carbon fluxes, i.e. GPP and  $NPP_{woody}$ ,  
286 and the structural variables, i.e. average stand DBH (Figures S1-S3 and Table S2 and S3 in  
287 Supplementary Material). Simulations forced with both observed local climate and with an  
288 ensemble of outputs produced by modeled climate under the present day climate compare

289 both well with the eddy-covariance based estimated daily GPP values in the sites of Sorø  
290 (period: 1997-2005; mean absolute error, MAE = 1.43 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with observed climate,  
291 and MAE = 1.91 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with the ensemble across ESMs forcing; Root Mean Square  
292 Error, RMSE = 2.15 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with local climate, and RMSE = 2.98 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with  
293 the ensemble across ESMs forcing;  $r > 0.86$  and  $n = 3092$ ), as well as for Hyytiälä (period:  
294 1997-2005; MAE = 1.05 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with observed climate, and MAE = 1.29 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>  
295 with the ensemble across ESMs forcing; RMSE = 1.48 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with local climate, and  
296 RMSE = 1.91 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with the ensemble across ESMs forcing;  $r > 0.78$  and  $n = 3092$ )  
297 and Bílý Kříž (period: 2000-2005; MAE = 1.52 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with observed climate, and  
298 MAE = 1.99 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with the ensemble across ESMs forcing; RMSE = 2.07 g C m<sup>-2</sup>  
299 day<sup>-1</sup> with local climate, and RMSE = 2.69 g C m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> with the ensemble across ESMs  
300 forcing;  $r > 0.67$  and  $n = 1390$ ), respectively (see Supplementary Material Figure S1, S2 and  
301 Table S2).

302 Model performs robustly for GPP even at annual scale at Sorø ( $1665.7 \pm 171.1$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>  
303 and  $1584.9 \pm 189.6$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> under observed and modelled climate vs.  $1731.41 \pm 184.4$   
304 g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> measured; here and elsewhere,  $\pm$  denotes one standard deviation), as well as  
305 for Hyytiälä ( $894.3 \pm 57.3$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> and  $871.1 \pm 52.6$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> under observed and  
306 modelled climate vs.  $1028.4 \pm 50.1$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> measured), and at Bílý Kříž ( $893.5$  g C  $\pm$   
307  $251.8$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> and  $893.3 \pm 222.2$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> under observed and modelled climate  
308 vs.  $1024.48 \pm 354.5$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> measured), respectively. Similarly, model shows to  
309 reproduce reasonably well the annual values of the net primary productivity fluxes into the  
310 tree woody pools (i.e. NPP<sub>woody</sub>) at Sorø ( $350.8 \pm 61.2$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> and  $274.7 \pm 63.2$  g C  
311 m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> under observed and modelled climate vs.  $346.9 \pm 36$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> measured), a  
312 bit less well at Hyytiälä ( $316.6 \pm 20.7$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> and  $290.4 \pm 24.3$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> under  
313 observed and modelled climate vs.  $228.4 \pm 23.3$  g C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> measured), and satisfactorily

314 well at Bílý Kříž ( $442.1 \pm 78.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  and  $405 \pm 36.1 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  under observed  
315 and modelled climate vs.  $379.9 \pm 38.41 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  measured), respectively. The mean  
316 diameter increase, which was only qualitatively compared, is only slightly underestimated at  
317 the site of Bílý Kříž (Figure S3). Comparisons with literature data for NPP and  $R_a$  as well as  
318 for CUE (i.e. NPP/GPP) between modelled with observed climate and with ESMs' climate  
319 are shown in Table S3. Notably, results generated with the 3D-CMCC-FEM forced by the  
320 ESMs' climates are close to the ones generated by observed weather data in the evaluation  
321 period with the observed values falling, in almost the cases, inside the range of variability of  
322 the results generated with different ESMs.

### 323 **3.2 | Lesser intensive management vs. BAU**

324 Simulated average NPP in the less intensive management scenario group (i.e. AM-) is close  
325 to the reference BAU values, ranging between  $495.4 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  (-1.2%; here and  
326 elsewhere, percentages refers to difference when compared to BAU) to  $524.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$   
327 (-3.1%) when compared to  $502 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  and  $542 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  for RCP 2.6 and 8.5  
328 under BAU, increasing only slightly with increasing warming and atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   
329 concentration scenarios and more steeply toward the end of the century and without  
330 significant differences across RCPs, respectively (Figure 2 and Figure S4, Table 2).  
331 Simulated pCWS values increase steadily along the simulation time for all the alternative  
332 management scenarios, with time-averaged values between  $179.8 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  (-6.6%) and  $198.5$   
333  $\text{t C ha}^{-1}$  (-7.3%) compared to  $192.9 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  and  $198.5 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  for RCP 2.6 and 8.5 under  
334 BAU, respectively (Figure 3 and Figure S4, Table 2). In Figure 4, NPP and pCWS data are  
335 reported considering values averaged over the simulation period and with differences to the  
336 reference BAU, plotting the NPP versus the pCWS values. Results for each of the RCPs  
337 scenarios and all the alternative management options combined are reported separately across

338 the sites in the Supplementary Material (Table S4). Interestingly, a lower reduction in NPP (–  
339 0.7%) and higher values of pCWS (2.6%) when compared to BAU are only in the case of a  
340 prolonged rotation period under RCP 8.5, while there are higher losses in NPP (–6.1%) with a  
341 prolonged rotation and thinning regime, including a reduction in the intensity, under RCP 8.5.  
342 Conversely, pCWS shows the greatest reduction (–13.9%) when both thinning intensity and  
343 regime only are set to simulate a decreased management intensity under RCP 8.5 (Table S5).  
344 In summary, results from AM– simulations show as for both NPP and pCWS, and in most of  
345 the cases, there are lower values with reducing intensity of forest management than the  
346 reference BAU. These differences vary only slightly across the emissions scenario  
347 considered.

### 348 **3.3 | More intensive management vs. BAU**

349 The AM+ simulations results are characterized by a significant spread within the different  
350 modelled schemes, and returning, on average, lower NPP values than the reference BAU  
351 scenario, with values ranging between  $350.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  (–30.2%, RCP 2.6) and  $388.1 \text{ g C}$   
352  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  (–28.4%, RCP 8.5), and the other values in between, thus, significantly lower  
353 values when compared to the  $502 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  and  $542 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  for BAU for the  
354 same climate scenarios (Figure 2 and Figure S4, Table 2). Conversely, values of pCWS  
355 between AM+ and BAU are closer, with values of about  $184.3 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  (–4.4% for RCP 2.6)  
356 and  $189.7 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  (–4.4% for RCP 8.5) compared to  $192.9 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  and  $198.5 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  for  
357 BAU under the same climate scenarios, respectively (Figure 3 and Figure S4, Table 2).  
358 Results for each of the RCPs scenarios and under all the alternative management options  
359 combined are reported separately across the sites in the Supplementary Material (Table S4).  
360 Noteworthy, a lower reduction in NPP (–4.6%) when compared to BAU is in the case of the  
361 shortening rotation period only under RCP 8.5 while higher losses in NPP (–55.6%) under a



362 shortened thinning regime including an increase in the intensity, are modelled under RCP 8.5.  
363 Conversely, pCWS shows the a net gain (4.14%), compared to the BAU, when only the  
364 thinning intensity is set to simulate an increased management intensity under RCP 8.5, while  
365 the greatest reduction in pCWS (−14%) is when the full set of management variables are  
366 parameterized to simulate an intensified management under RCP 8.5 (Table S5). Ultimately,  
367 both NPP and pCWS results from the AM+ schemes are, on average, lower than the ones  
368 from the reference BAU. Interestingly, despite management scenarios showing high  
369 variability between the several AM+ schemes, there are no significant differences across  
370 RCPs scenarios more than the ones across management scenarios.

### 371 **3.4 | No management vs. BAU**

372 The NPP values in the NO-MAN scenario are, on average, lower than the reference BAU  
373 scenario varying from −14.5% (RCP 2.6) to −19.5% (RCP 8.5), with other values in between,  
374 and varying across emissions scenarios with values ranging from 429.1 g C m<sup>−2</sup> year<sup>−1</sup> (RCP  
375 2.6) to 444.8 g C m<sup>−2</sup> year<sup>−1</sup> (RCP 6.0) when compared to values varying from 502 g C m<sup>−2</sup>  
376 year<sup>−1</sup> 530.5 g C m<sup>−2</sup> year<sup>−1</sup> for BAU under the same climate scenarios, respectively (Figure  
377 2, Table 2). However, a site specific variability in the NPP response to the management  
378 scenarios applied exists, with differences between NO-MAN and BAU options ranging from  
379 9.0% (for Hyytiälä) to −41.7% (for Bílý Kříž) both under the warmest emission scenario  
380 (Table S4). Differences between NO-MAN and BAU become more evident along the  
381 simulation and across RCPs scenarios, with the mean NPP value stabilizing or slightly  
382 increasing under the BAU (and AM−) option. Conversely, in the NO-MAN scenario the  
383 values steadily decreased (Figure 2).

384 The simulated pCWS, which is represented by the only standing biomass in the NO-MAN  
385 scenario, are, on average, lower than in the BAU scenario, with differences in the order of,

386 overall, about  $-30.0\%$  (from  $-21.6\%$  to  $-40\%$  across the different sites) and with values  
387 varying between  $192.9 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  and  $198.5 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$  for BAU. Along the simulation pCWS  
388 values in the NO-MAN option increase slightly at the beginning of the simulation and then  
389 decrease significantly toward the end of the century (Figure 3, Table 2). The NO-MAN case  
390 returns the lowest average amount of total woody stocks under every emission scenario  
391 (Figure 4 and Table 2).

### 392 **3.5 | Mixed management alternatives and the factorial analysis**

393 A mixed combination of management schemes (namely ‘MIX’) was also performed (all of  
394 the possible combinations are shown in the Table S1). While data were not shown here (but  
395 see in Supplementary Material Figure S5 and Table S4, S5), there are no options with  
396 simultaneously increases both in NPP and pCWS than the BAU scenarios. Values for NPP  
397 range from  $-1.38\%$ , with both a prolonged thinning regime and rotation, and, at the same  
398 time, an increase in thinning intensity under RCP 2.6. On the other side, a reduction in NPP  
399 of about  $-58.4\%$  with prolonged rotation but a shortened thinning regime and increased  
400 thinning intensity is shown under RCP 2.6. Similarly, with the same management schemes  
401 pCWS shows to decrease of about  $-16.1\%$  under RCP 6.0, when compared to BAU, while,  
402 conversely, pCWS shows to increase of  $5.7\%$  under RCP 8.5 by prolonging the regime and  
403 increasing the thinning intensity.

404 The factorial analysis performed over all the main carbon fluxes and stocks variables  
405 produced by the model and separated by site, indicates that a significant fraction of the total  
406 variability of the key carbon flux variables was mainly driven by the stand factor (i.e. the  
407 forest structure as generated by different age classes and management schemes, including  
408 different above- and below-ground biomass, Figure S6 and Table S6).

## 409 **4. | Discussions**

### 410 **4.1 | Limited leeway to increase carbon uptake and woody stocks with alternative** 411 **management scenarios**

412 The variables NPP and pCWS stand for two sides of the same coin because one (i.e. NPP)  
413 represents the short- to medium term active carbon sequestration capacity while pCWS the  
414 sequestered (and maintained) carbon over the medium- to long-term. The simulations clearly  
415 indicate that even under future climate change scenarios managing forests can support trees  
416 in maintaining their carbon sequestration potential, enhancing the plant capability to respond  
417 to changing conditions, and increasing, for instance, their productivity compared to the no-  
418 management option. Reducing to some degree tree density allows plants to benefit firstly  
419 from alleviated competition for potentially limiting resources such as light and soil moisture,  
420 responding with an increase of their photosynthesis activity and growth rate (Zeide et al.,  
421 2001). This outcome, combined with the fertilization effects of increased atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
422 concentration and less ‘respiring’ (live) biomass per unit of photosynthetic (leaf) area  
423 (because of shift toward younger stands), potentially drives more productive and efficient  
424 forests. This is mirrored in the capability for trees to allocate (partition) more of the  
425 photosynthetically assimilated carbon into new woody biomass rather than into nonstructural  
426 carbon pools to maintain living woody tissues (Vicca et al. 2012; Campioli et al., 2015; Malhi  
427 et al., 2015; Pappas et al., 2020; Martínez-Vilalta et al., 2016; Collalti et al., 2020a; Huang et  
428 al., 2021). This is directly mirrored by the increasing HWP over time with more frequent  
429 thinning, reduced tree density, replacement and presence of younger forest stands (a  
430 component of the pCWS, see for HWP dynamic Figure S7) which potentially can remain in  
431 the system (the other component of the pCWS, see for standing woody biomass dynamic

432 Figure S8). Overall, the model indicates that on average pCWS is expected to be the highest  
433 under the BAU management scheme, even in the future.

434 The potential to extract more wood and more often, i.e. to shorten the harvest interval, and at  
435 the same time maintain at least the current forest biomass depends on NPP under the different  
436 scenarios. We found, however, that the benefit of BAU forest management under future  
437 environmental conditions remains the most favorable scheme and might already be a close-  
438 to-optimum management approach for different RCP scenarios (Figure 4) and across the  
439 individual sites (Figs. S9-S11). This is an endorsement of past research arriving at today's  
440 management practices. With more frequent harvesting and replanting and increasing intensity  
441 of intervention compared to the benchmark BAU, the NPP is not shown to increase any  
442 further under any RCP scenario, in spite of an average younger and, in theory, more  
443 productive forest stand. The net growth rate does not compensate for the increased fellings,  
444 while in parallel there is a limited yield in terms of increased carbon woody stocks, as  
445 reflecting in a low standing biomass and a likely sign of a critically low tree density. Albeit  
446 the BAU reference benchmark is already an intensive management approach with tree  
447 fellings as a percentage of net annual increment of 84%, 77% and 101% for Czech, Finland  
448 and Denmark, respectively, as reported for 2005 (State of Europe's forests 2020), the first  
449 year of our RCP-based climate change response simulations. Similarly, Pussinen et al. (2009)  
450 showed that increasing the total harvested products led to a decrease in both NPP and forest  
451 standing biomass in some European areas. The difficulties associated with simultaneously  
452 increasing both forest standing biomass and wood products were shown in the seminal  
453 modeling study of Thornley & Cannell (2000).

454 An important factor contributing to the apparent lack of significant differences in forest  
455 responses across RCPs scenarios, compared to the differences across different management  
456 schemes, might come from the combination of counteracting key drivers of plant physiology

457 (e.g. lengthening of the growing season by warming and, in parallel, an increased respiration  
458 rate from that same warming) which are considered in the model despite temperature  
459 acclimation. Although experimental evidence for the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect on plants sink  
460 capacity is strong, and is typically predicted by vegetation models albeit with different  
461 degrees of uncertainties, the probability for its persistence into the longer-term future is a  
462 hotly debated issue (Nabuurs et al., 2013; Habau et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020; Gatti et al.,  
463 2021; Walker et al., 2021). The biochemical model of photosynthesis used here (Farquhar et  
464 al. 1980) itself assumes a theoretical CO<sub>2</sub> acclimation, yet, other environmental drivers, such  
465 as temperature and vapor pressure deficit (which scales exponentially with warming), and  
466 water availability were shown to interact to down-regulate the positive CO<sub>2</sub> effect on GPP  
467 (Grossiord et al., 2020). Data at the biome scale (see Luyssaert et al., 2007) indicated a  
468 potentially higher sensitivity of plant respiration to warming that may stabilize NPP over a  
469 temperature threshold with no further gains. Warming in low-temperature-limited forest  
470 biomes would be expected instead to have a positive effect on annual GPP and NPP  
471 (Henttonen et al., 2017; Sedmáková et al., 2019). However a warming-induced increased  
472 respiration cost might curb these trends and even offset a positive GPP and/or NPP response  
473 to increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, as also shown in some other modeling and  
474 experimental studies (Way et al., 2008; Gustavson et al., 2017; Collalti et al., 2018, but see  
475 Reich et al., 2016). For example, Mathias & Trugman (2021) showed a potential future  
476 unsustainable growth for boreal and temperate broadleaved forests, with the net overall effect  
477 of decreased NPP. Other studies already indicated that combined impacts of warming and  
478 increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration might cause forests to grow faster and mature  
479 earlier but also to die younger (Kirschbaum, 2005; Collalti et al. 2018). With the increasing  
480 standing biomass and accumulation of more respiring tissue in older trees, plant respiration  
481 might increase more quickly than GPP, as the canopy closure would be reached earlier,

482 capping GPP but with sustained respiratory needs. The use here of many virtual stands of  
483 different ages in our simulations might have compensated for (counterbalanced) any different  
484 stand-age, biomass and structural related responses to climate change across a landscape. To  
485 the extent that that is true, the patterns described the simulations should be related to the  
486 effect of climate and forest management (and their multiple combinations) only.

487 Ultimately, these simulations indicate that increasing the harvest/growth ratio above current  
488 values will be difficult. As such, the possibility of simultaneously increasing both carbon  
489 sequestration rate and tree carbon (standing biomass) storage capacity while managing forests  
490 in a sustainable way may be very limited. A steady intensification or intervention frequency –  
491 alone or in combination – compared to the business-as-usual scheme might come at the price  
492 of a substantial loss of primary productivity. While the amount of potential harvested woody  
493 products still would be significant, we would *de facto* end up reducing the active forest  
494 carbon sink and thus the forest's potential to assimilate and sequester CO<sub>2</sub> from the  
495 atmosphere.

#### 496 **4.2 | Role of forest management in the context of climate change**

497 In the context of climate uncertainty and because of policy intentions: management practices  
498 may no longer prioritize only productivity – which traditionally includes rotation times being  
499 adjusted to maximize value of timber – without preserving the forest carbon sink, and  
500 ensuring the long-term functionality of forests and the continued provision of their many  
501 ecosystem services (Krofcheck et al., 2019). The selection of alternative management  
502 practices has been suggested as a mechanism to potentially enhance the climate change  
503 mitigation potential of forest ecosystems (Tahvonen, 2016; Yousefpour et al., 2017). Our  
504 model results highlight, for Central and Northern European forests, the importance of forest  
505 structure to productivity and carbon storage which in turn indicates that management

506 practices may be quantitatively more important than future climate and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
507 concentration trends in regulating the carbon sink strength of forests, and this is in line with  
508 some previous modeling studies (Garcia-Gonzalo et al., 2007; Pussinen et al., 2009;  
509 Kindermann et al., 2013; Pukkala, 2017; Akujärvi et al., 2019). These simulations indicate  
510 that silvicultural practices included in the model will persist as key factors in the regulation of  
511 carbon sequestration through the end of this century – for any of the CMIP5 RCP scenarios.  
512 In accordance with the modeling study of Kindermann et al. (2013), our results specify the  
513 need to sustain the increment of forest growth and hence productivity rather than maximizing  
514 the stocks. Our results also point out, however, a narrow operational space surrounding the  
515 *business-as-usual* scheme which can be designated as a potentially near-the-optimum  
516 condition over a wide and diversified portfolio of alternative management schemes across  
517 every expected RCP/ESM-based climate change scenario. Conversely, other studies (Garcia-  
518 Gonzalo et al., 2007; Luyssaert et al., 2018) showed that harvest intensity should be loosened  
519 in order to maximize the carbon sink. Similarly, Schelhaas et al. (2015), showed how even  
520 through changes in species by replanting more suited ones under an adaptive framework,  
521 would result, in any case, with a reduction of the net increments without changes in the  
522 woody products amount. On the other hand, Pussinen et al. (2009), suggested that it would be  
523 possible to increase the fellings and the product and still maintain the same current forest  
524 standing biomass under future climate scenarios.

525 The present simulation study reveals more modest, almost even beneficial, effects of climate  
526 change in combination with CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization on NPP with the higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentration  
527 pathway scenarios through 2099 for the BAU and AM– management schemes though NPP  
528 declined over time for AM+ and the unmanaged schemes. Others have suggested that past  
529 and/or future climate change did, or could, negatively affect NPP (Reich & Oleksyn, 2008) in

530 a range of forested and non-forested ecosystems through increased frequency and/or  
531 magnitude of large-scale disturbances (e.g. heat waves, windstorms, weather-based pest  
532 outbreaks), with significant variation in effects in different ecosystems or forest types and  
533 locations (e.g. Thom et al., 2017; Nabuurs et al., 2019; McDowell et al., 2020; Senf & Seidl,  
534 2021; Gampe et al., 2021). Should such increase in disturbance occur and negatively affect a  
535 significant fraction of European forests, the robustness of the BAU management scheme  
536 specified by our simulations should be called critically questioned, being that the current  
537 carbon-sink status of European forests might decline. However, the unmanaged-forest  
538 scenario in our simulations resulted the alarmingly and steady decline in NPP through the  
539 year 2099 for the average response to the climates projected by all five ESMs driven by all  
540 four RCPs.

#### 541 **4.3 | Outlooks and further considerations**

542 In this study pure stands were considered with no species transition/migration under climate  
543 change allowed, even in the no-management scenario. The rates of possible species migration  
544 or replacement, however, may be incompatible with expected rates of climate change, at least  
545 for the high RCP scenarios (Settele et al., 2014) thus perhaps limiting that as a natural  
546 mitigation factor. The main evidence of the present study could be further substantiated by  
547 dynamic vegetation modeling studies which allow for a much broader geographical extent by  
548 means of up-scaling techniques (Fritsch et al., 2020).

549 In addition, we are aware that our modeled forests only represent a subset of boreal and  
550 temperate European forests, although an important subset that currently plays a significant  
551 role in European carbon exchange with the atmosphere.



## 552 **5. | Conclusions**

553 To our knowledge this is the first study of the possibilities and limitations of altering forest  
554 management practices to achieve the twofold objective of maximizing forest NPP while at  
555 the same time maintaining and/or increasing pCWS in the face of future climate change. The  
556 results clearly indicate that there may be little scope to meet this twofold objective because  
557 business-as-usual management practices may already be nearly optimal in terms of carbon  
558 use and storage, a testament to previous silvicultural research.

559 Beside the economic value of the extractable wood and the potential for substitution purpose,  
560 it is today crucial for the EU countries to ensure forests functionality to maintain and preserve  
561 the carbon sink strength of trees in combination with the provision of their derived wood  
562 products. Forest management based on scientific principles remains a valuable tool for local,  
563 regional and global strategies to maintain forest carbon sinks and provide products under  
564 climate change. To date, based on our results, we believe that generating higher expectations  
565 on autotrophic forests' capacity to reduce climate change effects and, at the same time, to  
566 provide wood products through forest management (more than forests and forest management  
567 can already provide), as analyzed here, could be a risky and a potentially failing bet.

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603 requests for additional materials should be addressed to corresponding authors.

604

## 605 **Credit authorship contribution statement**

606 D. Dalmonech, G. Marano and A. Collalti performed conceptualization, data curation, formal  
607 analysis, investigation, writing the original draft, and editing; C. Trotta ran the model code; J.  
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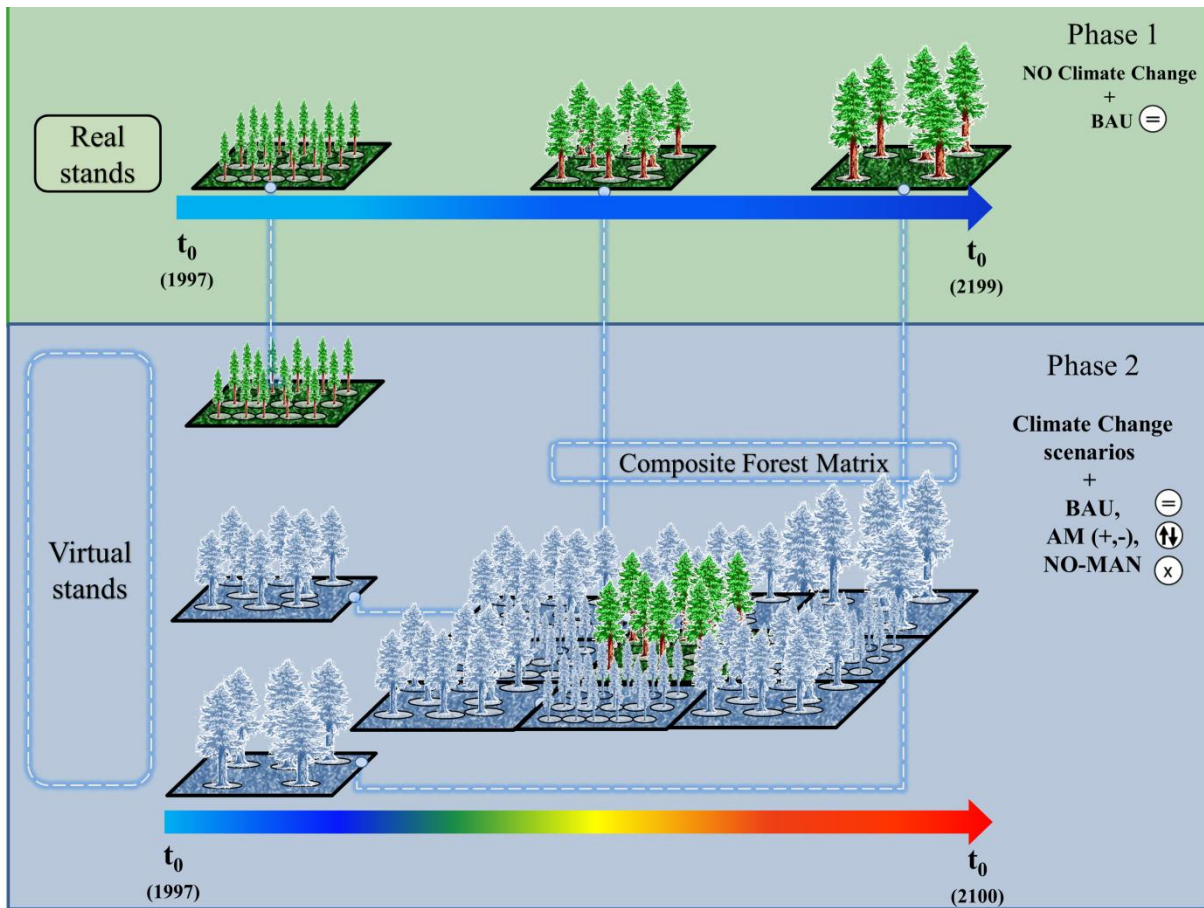
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1050 **Figures**

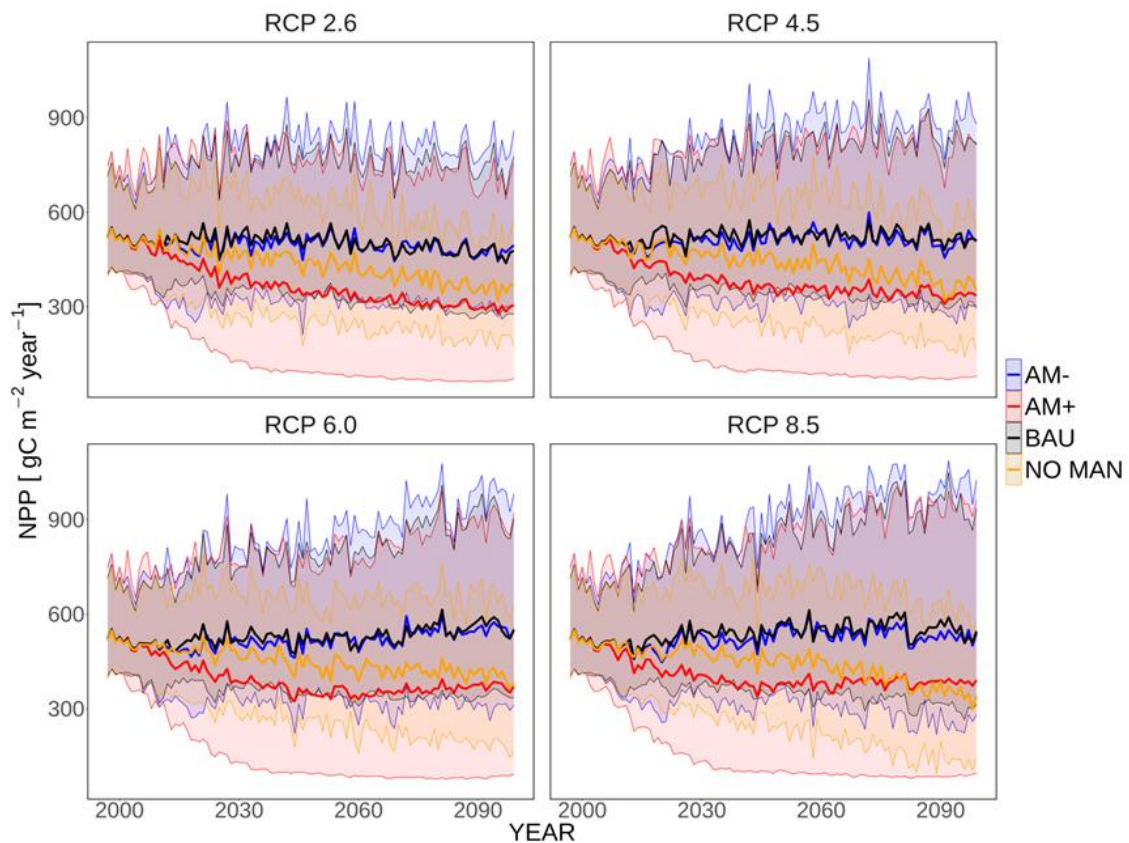


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1052 **Figure 1** | Conceptual scheme of the virtual stands creation: in Phase 1 the model is  
1053 initialized with data from the actual forest stands and then simulations are carried out for 202  
1054 years of contemporary (1996-2006) weather and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. In Phase 2,  
1055 multiple stands are drawn from the simulations in Phase 1 and used to build the Composite  
1056 Forest Matrix (CFM) composed of representative forest stands. The climate change (RCPs)  
1057 and management scenarios (BAU, Alternative Managements, No-Management) simulations  
1058 are then applied to the CFM.

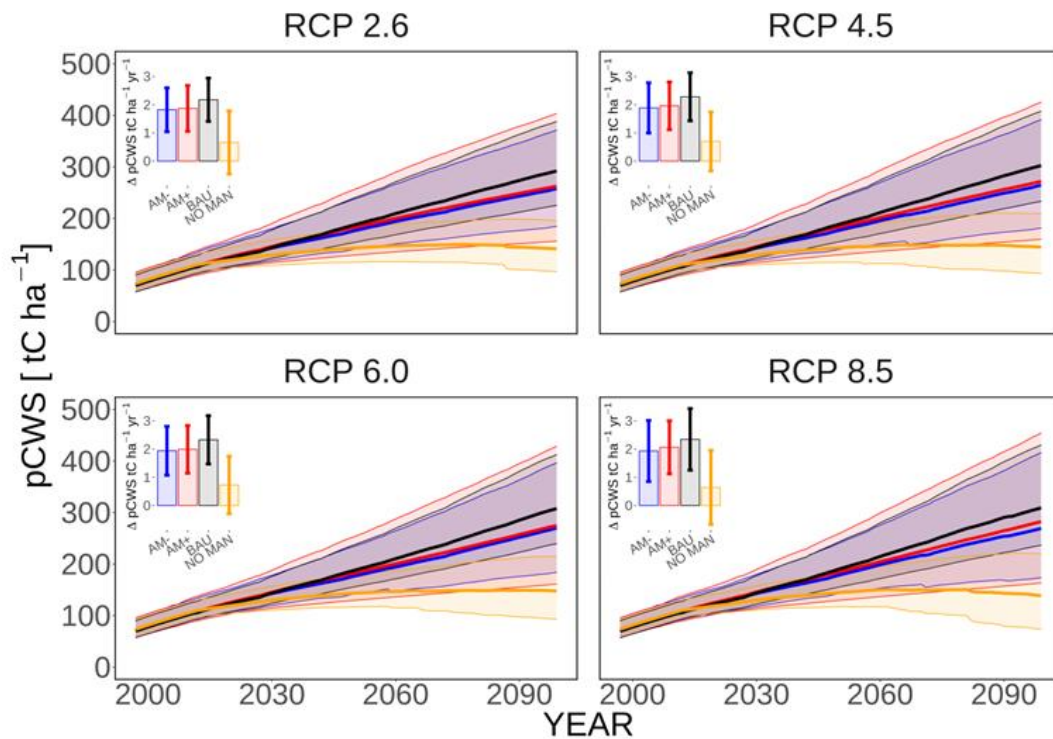


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1061 **Figure 2** | NPP (Net primary productivity,  $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) simulations under different  
1062 management scenarios (AM+, BAU, AM-) and the NO-MAN scenario for each of the four  
1063 atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration pathways (RCPs). NPP, solid line, is averaged across the  
1064 representative forests, different ESMs and aggregated according to the management regime.  
1065 Shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum values (5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentiles) across the  
1066 representative forests, different ESMs and aggregated according to the management regime.



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1068 **Figure 3** | pCWS (potential Carbon Woody Stock = standing and potential harvested woody  
1069 biomass; tC ha<sup>-1</sup>) simulations under different management scenarios (AM+, BAU, AM-) and  
1070 the NO-MAN scenario divided by different emission scenario RCPs. pCWS, solid line, is  
1071 averaged across the representative forests, different ESMs and aggregated according to the  
1072 management regime. Shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum values (5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup>  
1073 percentiles) across the representative forests, different ESMs and aggregated according to the  
1074 management regime. Carbon sequestration rates (as annual increase of CWS, tC ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>)  
1075 in the potential total woody stocks (mean and standard deviation) are reported in the bar  
1076 plots.

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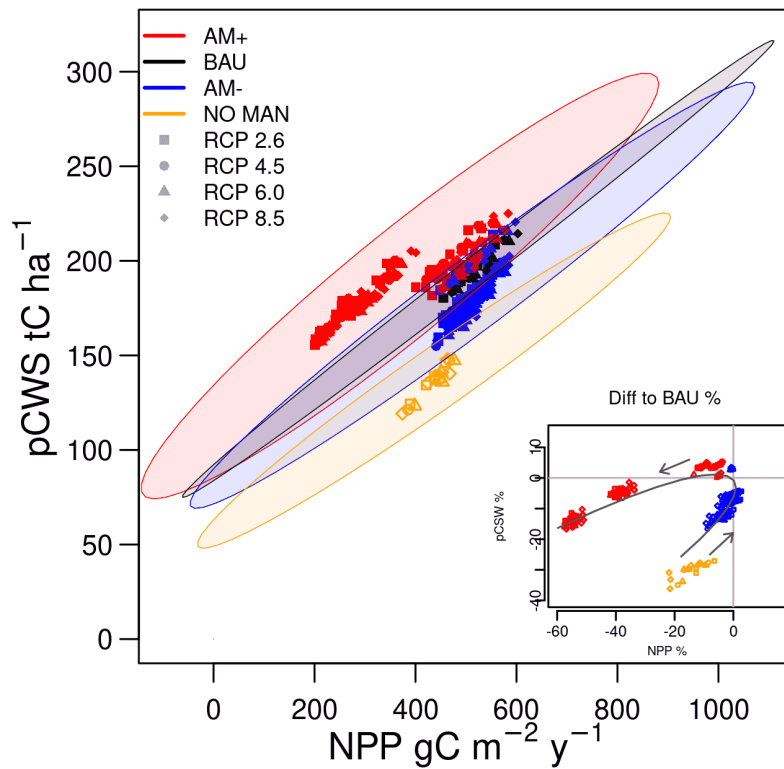
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1084 **Figure 4** | Average NPP (net primary productivity,  $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) vs. pCWS (the sum of  
1085 standing and potential harvested woody products;  $\text{tC ha}^{-1}$ ) over the period 2006-2099, for the  
1086 three management scenarios: AM+, AM-, BAU; and the NO-MAN for the 4 RCPs. Reported  
1087 values refer to data averaged across real and virtual stands and across species. Data ellipses  
1088 are also reported in shaded colors and refer to all data. NOTE: each single scenario according  
1089 to Table S1 is reported here (16 in total excluding the mixed ones). In the subplot the  
1090 differences are expressed as % and are reported along a parametric curve (third order  
1091 polynomial) with the point (0, 0) representing the reference BAU. Arrows indicate the  
1092 increasing intensity of management intervention. No significant differences across RCPs  
1093 were detected.

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1096 **Tables**

1097 **Table 1** | Site description for model initialization data (corresponding to the year 1997 for  
 1098 Sorø and Hyttiälä and 2000 for Bílý Kříž) to the real stands' characteristics, and management  
 1099 variables used in simulations (see also Collalti et al., 2018; Reyer et al., 2020). Values in  
 1100 brackets represent bounds of variability (the maximum and the minimum absolute values)  
 1101 adopted for alternative management simulations. Re-planting information for the sites in the  
 1102 simulation experiments, according to ISI-MIP protocol as in Reyer et al. (2020). The real  
 1103 stands refer to the monitoring sites in Sorø (*F. sylvatica*, Denmark), Bílý Kříž (*P. abies*,  
 1104 Czech Republic) and Hyttiälä (*P. sylvestris*, Finland).

1105

Species	DBH (cm)	Age (years)	Tree height (m)	Density (trees ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Thinning intensity (% basal area)	Thinning interval (years)	Rotation age (years)	Replanting Species	Density (trees ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Age (years)	Tree height (m)
<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>	25	80	25	400	30 (20-40)	15 (5-25)	140 (120-160)	<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>	6000	4	1.3
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	10.3	36	10	1800	20 (10-30)	15 (5-25)	140 (120-160)	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	2250	2	1.3
<i>Picea abies</i>	7.1	16	5.6	2408	30 (20-40)	15 (5-25)	120 (100-140)	<i>Picea abies</i>	4500	4	1.3

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1108 **Table 2** | NPP and pCWS computed as average over the simulation period 2006-2099, across  
 1109 all stands and ESMs climate forcing but grouped across RCPs. Mean differences (in  
 1110 percentage) are reported in parenthesis for NPP and pCWS between the alternative  
 1111 management scenarios and the *Business-As-Usual* (BAU) practices used here as the  
 1112 benchmark scenario.

MANAGEMENT type	RCP	NPP gC m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup>	pCWS tC ha <sup>-1</sup>
BAU	RCP 2.6	501.7	192.9
BAU	RCP 4.5	522.1	195.6
BAU	RCP 6.0	530.5	196.0
BAU	RCP 8.5	542.0	198.5
AM+	RCP 2.6	350.0 (-30.2%)	184.3 (-4.4%)
AM+	RCP 4.5	366.8 (-29.7%)	186.5 (-4.6%)
AM+	RCP 6.0	372.0 (-29.8%)	186.4 (-4.8%)
AM+	RCP 8.5	388.1 (-28.4%)	189.7 (-4.4%)
AM-	RCP 2.6	495.4 (-1.2%)	179.8 (-6.6%)
AM-	RCP 4.5	510.6 (-2.1%)	181.6 (-7.1%)
AM-	RCP 6.0	519.9 (-1.9%)	182.2 (-6.9%)
AM-	RCP 8.5	524.7 (-3.1%)	183.8 (-7.3%)
NO-MAN	RCP 2.6	429.1 (-14.4%)	136.2 (-29.3%)
NO-MAN	RCP 4.5	436.4 (-16.4%)	136.6 (-30.1%)
NO-MAN	RCP 6.0	444.8 (-16.1%)	137.1 (-30.0%)
NO-MAN	RCP 8.5	436.5 (-19.4%)	136.8 (-31.0%)

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