



Scoping review of climate-smart forestry for carbon sequestration in boreal and temperate forests

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Abstract

Afforestation, reforestation, conservation, and restoration represent nature-based solutions (NBS) for carbon sequestration. These forest management options, aimed at advancing global targets outlined in international agreements, may limit the provision of specific ecosystem services and generate trade-offs, posing notable challenges for silviculture. In this context, we conducted a scoping review to collect and map evidence from studies evaluating management strategies for establishing, preserving, and restoring forest carbon sinks within a climate-smart framework in boreal and temperate ecoregions. We gathered data on forest types, the scale and duration of the analysis, carbon sequestration estimation methods, carbon pool types, disturbances, synergies and trade-offs. Our search, covering the period 1990–2025, revealed an increase in peer-reviewed research on afforestation, reforestation, conservation, and restoration outcomes since 2012, with occasional declines (e.g., 2014–2015 and 2019) indicating fluctuations in research intensity. Most of the studies were conducted in Europe (49%), North America (39%), and Asia (12%). Aboveground biomass and soil were the most frequently assessed carbon pools, with most studies employing wood or soil sampling and modelling approaches (e.g., the Gap-type forest ecosystem model, Yasso07 model, Forest Vegetation Simulator model) to estimate carbon sequestration. Our analysis revealed a critical gap in comprehensive assessments of synergies and trade-offs between climate-smart and conventional land management practices, particularly regarding their carbon sequestration potential and the effectiveness of climate-smart strategies in mitigating risks to forest carbon capture and storage functions. Additionally, uncertainty in climate projections limits the ability to optimise benefits and minimise trade-offs through silvicultural strategies. This scoping review highlights a scarcity of studies that explicitly address trade-offs among management strategies and goals. Greater empirical evidence, cross-sectoral integration (e.g., forestry and agriculture), and concurrent consideration of climate impacts and market dynamics are needed.

Keywords Carbon forestry · Carbon farming · Environmental disturbance · Forest ecology · Nature-based solutions

Introduction

Climate-smart forestry as a strategy for enhancing carbon storage

The global atmospheric CO₂ concentration increased from 417.2 ppm in 2022 to 419.3 ppm in 2023 and 422.45 ppm in 2024, exceeding pre-industrial levels by 51 and 52%, respectively (Friedlingstein et al. 2023, 2025). This rise, primarily driven by fossil fuel combustion, is further exacerbated by wildfires and deforestation, which together account for approximately 11% of annual CO₂ emissions (Friedlingstein et al. 2022). Conversely, forests function as critical carbon sinks, sequestering approximately 29% of total emissions and thereby playing an indispensable role

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in climate mitigation (Friedlingstein et al. 2022; Pan et al. 2011, 2024). Strengthening these sinks provides a vital buffer, temporarily offsetting emissions while enabling broader societal transitions toward sustainability (Steffen et al. 2018; Armstrong McKay et al. 2022). Beyond their inherent capacity, targeted forest management offers substantial potential to enhance CO₂ uptake through increased photosynthetic activity (Waring et al. 2020). Numerous studies have demonstrated that forest-based solutions, such as reducing deforestation and expanding forest cover, provide cost-effective pathways for climate change mitigation (Kindermann et al. 2008; Davies-Barnard et al. 2015). However, in degraded ecosystems, such as Mediterranean forest landscapes, effective mitigation requires a participatory process that restores ecological function while enhancing human well-being, as advocated by the Forest and Landscape Restoration framework (Garrett et al. 2022; FAO 2024). This perspective ensures that carbon objectives do not undermine biodiversity or ecosystem resilience (Tognetti et al. 2022b). By prioritising the restoration of ecological functions alongside carbon sequestration, FLR offers a framework that safeguards non-wood forest products, preserves biodiversity and enhances ecosystem stability (Nabuurs et al. 2017).

Given that forest management, clearing, and abandonment have already significantly impacted around 70% of the global forested area (FAO 2010), and natural disturbance regimes are increasingly influencing all forests (Seidl et al. 2017; McDowell et al. 2020), it becomes imperative to incorporate disturbance and regeneration dynamics into long-term planning. Rather than assuming stable conditions, management must proactively anticipate these processes by implementing adaptive strategies that account for the increasing frequency and severity of events like wildfires, pest outbreaks, and drought. This foresight is crucial for offsetting tree mortality, sustaining forest ecosystems, and maintaining the provision of essential ecosystem services (Hanbury-Brown et al. 2022). Climate-smart forestry is a strategic, long-term approach aimed at maximising the climate benefits of forests and forest products while safeguarding the provision of ecosystem services and functions (Nabuurs et al. 2017; Bowditch et al. 2020; Cooper and MacFarlane 2023). This approach can reduce forest vulnerability to disturbances, thereby enhancing carbon storage. Key climate-smart forest management activities include maintaining and expanding forest extent, promoting forest stability and natural regeneration, restoring ecosystem functions, conserving forest biodiversity, encouraging sustainable harvesting practices, balancing timber supply and wood utilisation with tree growth, optimising age structure and diameter distribution across forest landscapes, assisting species migration, planning conservation and rewilding strategies, and preparing for the impacts of future disturbances

(Papa et al. 2023). However, ongoing debates persist regarding the most effective management practices for strengthening forests' mitigation and adaptation capacities (Tognetti et al. 2022a). This has led to a wide range of recommendations for adapting forest management to climate change; nevertheless, there has been a lack of a comprehensive synthesis to guide forest researchers and land managers in navigating these diverse options.

Key aspects of climate-smart forestry for sustaining carbon sequestration and ecosystem services

Demand for forest resources has increased over the past century, driven by population growth (Betts et al. 2021). Historical forest management practices, initially designed to satisfy the demand for wood products, have led to the simplification of forest structure and composition. These effects influence It is essential to acknowledge that the intensification of disturbances raises concerns about the long-term sustainability the functions, processes, and services of forest ecosystems over an extended period, leading to a reduction in the diversity and complexity of forest ecosystems and to their fragmentation, causing a decrease in both the quantity and connectivity of habitats (Lecoq et al. 2021; Himes et al. 2022). The degradation of forest complexity and the loss of biodiversity affect the capacity of forest ecosystems to withstand environmental disturbance and secure carbon sequestration (Muys et al. 2022). Concurrently, land degradation threatens biogeochemical cycles and the integrity of species communities (Gámez-Virués et al. 2015). Effectively balancing carbon sequestration with forest resilience and the continued provision of ecosystem services is a complex challenge. Developing management strategies for these multi-objective goals requires a foundation of empirical evidence from diverse spatial and temporal scales (Ameray et al. 2021). This evidence base provides the fundamental understanding necessary to design interventions that remain robust across a range of projected climate uncertainties. The importance of forests to the global carbon cycle and the Earth's climate system has prompted intense interest in management strategies to increase carbon sequestration (Zhao et al. 2022). Considering the extensive interest among policymakers in utilising forests to offset CO₂ emissions, the obligations outlined in the Paris Agreement to mitigate the increase in atmospheric CO₂ levels have spurred a shift towards a carbon-focused approach to forest management (Ferreira 2018), such as carbon forestry and carbon farming. Carbon forestry refers to forest management approaches explicitly oriented towards maximising climatic benefits, encompassing decisions on harvesting intensity, rotation length, stand density, and the fate of wood products, all of which jointly determine whether a forest functions as a

net carbon sink or source (Pukkala 2018). Carbon farming, applied to forest systems, extends this logic by treating the forest landscape as an integrated production system where carbon sequestration in living biomass, dead organic matter, soil, and harvested wood products is explicitly accounted for and optimised alongside other land management objectives. These concepts acknowledge that the carbon balance of forestry is shaped not only by in-forest accumulation but also by the substitution effects of wood products replacing fossil-based materials, and that trade-offs between near-term and long-term carbon gains depend critically on the time horizon considered (Pukkala 2018). The intensification of disturbances raises concerns about the long-term sustainability of the forest carbon sink, potentially undermining the effectiveness of management strategies aimed at enhancing carbon sequestration (Dye et al. 2024). Reliable quantification of the sources and sinks of atmospheric CO₂, including their trends, is crucial for monitoring progress in mitigating anthropogenic emissions under international agreements. While many countries routinely report forest carbon stocks through established frameworks like the FAO's Global Forest Resources Assessment (FRA), achieving a high degree of certainty remains challenging. Significant discrepancies often persist when reconciling national forest inventory data with long-term ecosystem studies and vegetation model assumptions, leading to large uncertainties in global integrated estimates (Petrescu et al. 2021). Improving the alignment between these diverse data streams is essential for verifiable climate mitigation. The most widely promoted CO₂ removal strategies, which entail enhancing forest and soil carbon sinks, are seldom explicitly quantified (Smith et al. 2022). Based on integrated ground and Earth observation data from 2001 to 2019, global forests were estimated to be a net carbon sink of -7.6 ± 49 Gt CO₂ e yr⁻¹ (Harris et al. 2021). However, since 2019, the increasing frequency of disturbances, such as droughts, heatwaves, and catastrophic wildfires, has threatened the stability of this sink (e.g., Knutzen et al. 2025). These escalating climate-driven pressures complicate forest management assessment, making it difficult to distinguish the benefits of intentional mitigation strategies from the losses caused by natural disturbances. Consequently, the net impact of forest management on long-term climate mitigation remains a subject of ongoing debate.

Natural climate solutions (NCS), including conservation, restoration, and improved land management, have been proposed to provide significant climate mitigation potential, accounting for 37% of the cost-effective CO₂ mitigation needed by 2030 to keep warming below 2 °C (Griscom et al. 2017). In 2018, forests and harvested wood products removed approximately 360 Mt CO₂eq in the EU-27, offsetting about 10% of total greenhouse gas emissions (Grassi et al. 2021), and 547 Mt CO₂eq in the USA, compensating

for 14% of fossil-fuel emissions (Domke et al. 2020). Climate-smart forestry and optimising stocking levels on understocked productive forestlands could further enhance carbon sequestration by 9–20%. This poses high expectations for forests and forest products, as well as afforestation and reforestation solutions to climate change (Zhang et al. 2023). As an example, the new EU forest strategy aims to contribute to achieving a greenhouse gas emission reduction target of at least 55% by 2030 ($+50$ Mt CO₂eq yr⁻¹) and climate neutrality by 2050 ($+170$ Mt CO₂eq yr⁻¹), recognising the central and multifunctional role of forests, and the contribution of the entire forest-based value chain.

The Paris Agreement aims to hold the increase in global average temperature below 2 °C above pre-industrial levels. However, limiting warming to 1.5 °C rather than 2.0 °C would be required to avoid risks to forest ecosystems and social systems (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2019; Alawode et al. 2026). Achieving climate targets requires integrating societal decarbonization with forest management by establishing, conserving, and restoring carbon sinks. Additionally, carbon storage in wood products and their substitution for fossil-based materials contribute to mitigation efforts, highlighting the need to enhance their use for material and energy substitution (Osborne et al. 2023). However, only a few studies have actively promoted, integrated, and linked the carbon-sink and substitution effects of wood value chains to enhance synergies between climate benefits and other advantages, such as supporting the bioeconomy and preserving biodiversity (Nabuurs et al. 2019). Although harvested wood products can contribute to climate mitigation by substituting for fossil-fuel-intensive materials, a reliance on bioenergy carries risks of local overharvesting (Yousefpour et al. 2018). In contrast, maintaining living tree biomass in the forest sequesters atmospheric CO₂, though this strategy avoids the immediate carbon release associated with harvesting. These divergent approaches highlight the trade-offs inherent in mitigation options; the most effective strategy is often a mixed approach that optimises a suite of region-specific solutions (Grassi et al. 2017).

Scoping review objectives and research questions

Although forests are increasingly recognised as vital for carbon sequestration and for complementing societal decarbonisation efforts, the pursuit of maximising carbon benefits has been criticised for causing trade-offs and conflicts with other ecosystem services (Waring et al. 2020; Gregor et al. 2022). Despite increasing interest in the forest sector for climate change mitigation, the effectiveness and potential of mitigation strategies remain debated, with forest carbon management still largely theory-driven rather than evidence-based. Several reviews have provided broad insights

into research applications and trends in this field (e.g., Jandl et al. 2007; Ameray et al. 2021; Mäkelä et al. 2023; Dye et al. 2024). However, given the long-term impact of forest management practices on ecosystem functions, processes, and services, a deeper examination of the intersection between environmental management and decarbonization, known as the decarbonization nexus, is essential for assessing climate-smart forestry (Alfieri et al. 2024, 2025).

Although extensive research has addressed forest-based climate change mitigation, it remains uncertain whether, and to what extent, trade-offs between management practices designed to enhance CO₂ sequestration and those intended to sustain a broader array of ecosystem services beyond regulatory functions have been examined in an integrated manner. To our knowledge, no previous review has synthesised emerging evidence and research gaps in climate-smart forestry, particularly regarding the establishment, conservation, and restoration of forest carbon sinks to reconcile climate change mitigation, adaptive forest management, and ecosystem service provision (Fig. 1).

A synthesis of climate-smart forestry's potential to enhance carbon sequestration is essential for balancing trade-offs among carbon storage, wood production, and biodiversity conservation (Paillet et al. 2010; Schall et al. 2018). A comprehensive, evidence-based projection of carbon dynamics across various management strategies and spatial–temporal scales is needed to optimise climate-smart forestry for multiple ecosystem services while accounting

for uncertainty (Lindner et al. 2014; Luysaert et al. 2018; Knoke et al. 2020).

To map the scope of peer-reviewed literature analysing and assessing options for establishing, conserving, and restoring forest carbon sinks within a climate-smart framework, we conducted a scoping review. A scoping review is a methodological approach to evidence synthesis that systematically explores and describes the extent of knowledge on a specific topic, particularly when questions extend beyond the effectiveness of interventions (Sharma and Goyal 2023). Its purpose is to identify and map the breadth of available evidence, across sources and contexts, on a given concept, field, or issue (Arksey and O'Malley 2005; Peters et al. 2015, 2022; Munn et al. 2022). By providing a comprehensive overview, scoping reviews help determine whether further analyses, such as systematic reviews or meta-analyses, are warranted and highlight existing research gaps (Munn et al. 2018). They are especially valuable when the literature is heterogeneous, underexplored, or when the aim is to examine how research has been conducted (Sharma and Goyal 2023).

We conducted a scoping review to map the evidence base and identify key characteristics of climate-smart forestry interventions that enhance carbon sequestration in boreal and temperate ecoregions, drawing on peer-reviewed publications from 1990 to 2025.

We intended to address the following research questions:

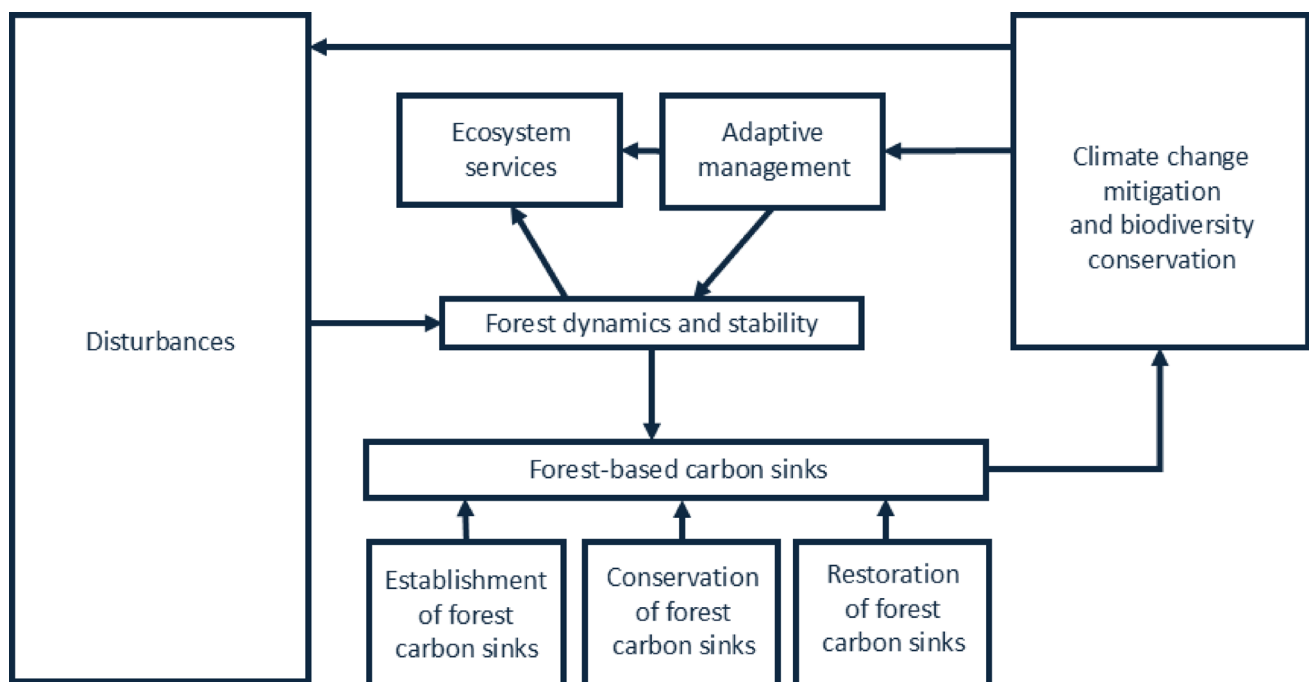


Fig. 1 Conceptual framework under the scoping review: disturbances shape the dynamics and stability of forest-based carbon sinks, which can be established, conserved or restored. In turn, climate change miti-

gation and biodiversity conservation influence the adoption of adaptive forest management strategies, which impact the ecosystem services provided by forests

- which management interventions have been studied in peer-reviewed publications to assess the reported impacts of climate-smart forestry strategies in conserving (i.e., protecting), establishing, and restoring carbon sinks in forest ecosystems?
- what descriptive elements (e.g., indicators, metrics, qualitative dimensions) have been considered in the literature when assessing the effectiveness of climate-smart forestry strategies?
- how does the reviewed literature address limitations, synergies, and trade-offs in the implementation of climate-smart forestry strategies for protecting, establishing, and restoring forest carbon sinks?

Methods

Protocol

For our scoping review, we followed the methodology developed by the Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) and its five collaborating centres (Peters et al. 2015), along with subsequent updates (Veroniki et al. 2025). According to this guidance, a scoping review protocol—defined as a comprehensive plan for conducting and reporting the review—should be finalised before the review begins and, ideally, submitted for publication. However, this is not mandatory (Peters et al. 2022). In our case, a protocol has not been published in previous papers and can be considered part of the present article.

Table 1 Eligibility criteria for inclusion in the review for population, concept, context and type of evidence source

Eligibility criterion	Value
Population	Forests in boreal and temperate ecoregions All forest types, regardless of their composition, structure, etc.
Concept	All types of methods to assess the effectiveness of climate-smart forestry strategies in establishing, conserving, and restoring carbon sinks Explicit scale of analysis (i.e., single tree, plot, stand, landscape, region, country) Explicit duration of the analysis Explicit sample size Explicit size of the reference Explicit nature of the carbon sink (i.e., carbon pool) Explicit method of carbon sequestration estimation
Context	Interventions conducted from 1990 to August 4th, 2025
Type of evidence source	Only published in peer-reviewed journals and books (i.e., not grey literature) Primary studies Only papers published (or pre-printed) in English

In the following sections, as foreseen in the JBI guidance, we describe how we identified the eligibility criteria, defined the search strategy, selected relevant sources of evidence, defined the data extraction process, and completed data analysis and presentation.

Identification of the eligibility criteria

The eligibility (or inclusion) criteria for our scoping review are presented in Table 1.

We considered all forest management scenarios applied in boreal and temperate ecoregions to assess the effectiveness of strategies for establishing, conserving, and restoring forest carbon stocks. In this context, establishing a carbon sink involves creating a new stock through reforestation (replanting on land recently lacking tree cover) or afforestation (planting on land that has lacked tree cover for over 50 years) (IPCC 2022). Conserving refers to maintaining or protecting existing carbon sinks under favourable conditions, while restoring involves active or passive management to improve the condition of a degraded sink.

We included all methods, e.g., forest inventories, dendrochronology, eddy covariance, modelling, and remote sensing, to assess the effectiveness of forestry strategies in establishing new and conserving and restoring existing forest carbon stocks.

The scale and duration of analysis, the sample size, the size of the reference, and the type of carbon pool had to be explicitly stated.

We excluded studies focusing on the financial and economic viability of forest plantations, afforestation, reforestation, or carbon sequestration projects, as well as studies assessing land potential for carbon sequestration. Because scoping reviews aim to map a body of literature comprehensively, the results of methodological quality assessment have not been used to determine inclusion or exclusion from the review.

We did not include grey literature in our scoping review, as searching for it online remains challenging due to the lack of standardised indexing, controlled vocabulary, and archiving, as well as the vast, unstructured nature of online information.

Only papers published (or pre-printed) in English have been considered for inclusion in the scoping review due to a lack of experience in non-English languages. In our search, the publication date was limited to between 1990 and the day of the search, i.e., August 4, 2025.

Definition of the search strategy

To develop a preliminary search strategy, an initial general search in Google Scholar was undertaken to identify

potentially relevant keywords and terms for creating a final search strategy across an “official” electronic database (Peters et al. 2022). Relevant terms from the titles and abstracts were identified and used to develop a comprehensive search strategy for the Web of Science (www.webof-science.com) and Scopus (www.scopus.com) databases.

In Table 2, the search strings used in the query builder Web of Science and Scopus platforms are reported. To document and manage search results, we exported the lists using the tools available in Web of Science and Scopus.

Selection of the relevant sources of evidence

The selection of sources of evidence obtained by the search was based on whether they met the inclusion criteria reported in Table 1.

The screening of the identified sources of evidence was conducted first at the title and abstract level by one of the

Table 2 Specific search strings used in the Advanced Search Query Builder web page of Scopus (TITLE-ABS-KEY=Doc Title-Abstract-Keyword, PUBYEAR=Year of Publication) and Web of Science (TS=Topic=Title-Abstract-Keyword plus-Author keywords, PY=Year Published)

Database	Query string
Scopus	TITLE-ABS-KEY ("carbon sequestration" OR "carbon sink*" OR "carbon storage" OR "carbon stock*" OR "carbon uptake" OR "carbon balance") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY ("climate-smart forestry" OR "climate-smart forestry" OR "climate change mitigation" OR "forest management" OR "management intervention*" OR "silvicultur*" OR "management strateg*" OR "management practic*" OR "silvicultural strateg*" OR "silvicultural practic*" OR "carbon management") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (establish* OR creat* OR afforestation OR reforestation OR plantation* OR conservation OR proforestation OR protection OR restoration OR genet*) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (boreal OR temperate) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (limitation* OR barrier* OR constraint* OR synerg* OR "co-benefit*" OR "trade-off*" OR tradeoff* OR effectiveness OR impact* OR assessment) AND PUBYEAR > 1989
Web of Science	TS=("carbon sequestration" OR "carbon sink*" OR "carbon storage" OR "carbon stock*" OR "carbon uptake" OR "carbon balance") AND TS=("climate-smart forestry" OR "climate-smart forestry" OR "climate change mitigation" OR "forest management" OR "management intervention*" OR "silvicultur*" OR "management strateg*" OR "management practic*" OR "silvicultural strateg*" OR "silvicultural practic*" OR "carbon management") AND TS=(establish* OR creat* OR afforestation OR reforestation OR plantation* OR conservation OR proforestation OR protection OR restoration OR genet*) AND TS=(boreal OR temperate) AND TS=(limitation* OR barrier* OR constraint* OR synerg* OR "co-benefit*" OR "trade-off*" OR tradeoff* OR effectiveness OR impact* OR assessment) AND PY = 1990–2025

two authors of the present scoping review. The authors conducted a comprehensive review of the relevant sources and selected the final evidence sources. To streamline and synchronise the process, we independently reviewed studies in batches of five, compared and evaluated the examination approaches, and held iterative discussions to achieve homogeneous selections, until all the screened papers were examined. Disagreements regarding study eligibility were resolved through discussion between the two primary reviewers. To mitigate individual bias, each reviewer presented their rationale based strictly on the pre-defined inclusion and exclusion criteria. If consensus could not be reached, a third senior reviewer was consulted to provide an independent assessment and serve as an arbitrator, ensuring that the final selection remained objective and consistent with the study protocol.

To graphically depict the movement of sources through the search process to eventual inclusion, we decided to produce a flowchart of the article screening and selection process that conforms to the PRISMA 2020 Statement (Page et al. 2021).

Due to the nature of scoping reviews, it was likely that searching, screening, and selection could have revealed new, potentially relevant terms, concepts, and even evidence locations. We did not modify and expand the scoping review process to account for these eventualities.

Data extraction

We extracted basic descriptive data about the selected sources of evidence (e.g., authors and publication year, DOI) and data consistent with the review questions and the inclusion criteria. We first produced a draft table detailing the extracted data, along with potential field names for data items that aligned with the previously described review questions, population, concept, and context (see Table 1). The field names were refined progressively to better match the content of the inclusion criteria. In the end, the data extrapolated through the full-text level analysis of the paper were used to valorise the location of the study area, the forest type, the scale of analysis, the size and number of the reference area, the duration of the study, the method used to estimate the carbon sequestration, and the carbon pool considered in the study. We decided to report in the final table not only the values referred to as parameters of the inclusion criteria, but also information and data about the eventual climate scenario, disturbances, synergies, and trade-offs in the implementation of climate-smart forestry strategies for protecting, establishing, and restoring forest carbon sinks considered in the study.

A cross-check was conducted to verify the information each author extracted. Discrepancies in data extraction

between authors were resolved through joint review of the evidence until consensus was reached, with particular attention to accurately capturing the study area location for the corresponding table field.

A critical appraisal or risk of bias assessment was not performed because it is generally not recommended in scoping reviews, which aim to map rather than appraise the available evidence (Hart et al. 2023).

Data analysis and presentation

To synthesise the collected data, we conducted a frequency analysis and presented the results in diagrams and tables. This approach enabled us to identify and illustrate trends in publication output, geographical scope, and interdisciplinary patterns in line with the research objectives.

Results

Our search, spanning from 1990 to 2025, returned a list of 368 publications from Web of Science and 265 publications from Scopus published over 28 years (1997–2025). Following the removal of duplicate records and the initial screening of identified sources at the title and abstract level, a total of 411 reports were selected for retrieval. Of these, 4 could not be obtained despite attempts to contact the corresponding authors; consequently, 407 reports were available for eligibility assessment, and 61 studies were included in the scoping review (Fig. 2).

The scoping review revealed a strong skew toward carbon sink conservation strategies ($n=39$), with comparatively fewer studies addressing establishment ($n=13$), restoration ($n=2$), or integrated approaches ($n=7$), highlighting an

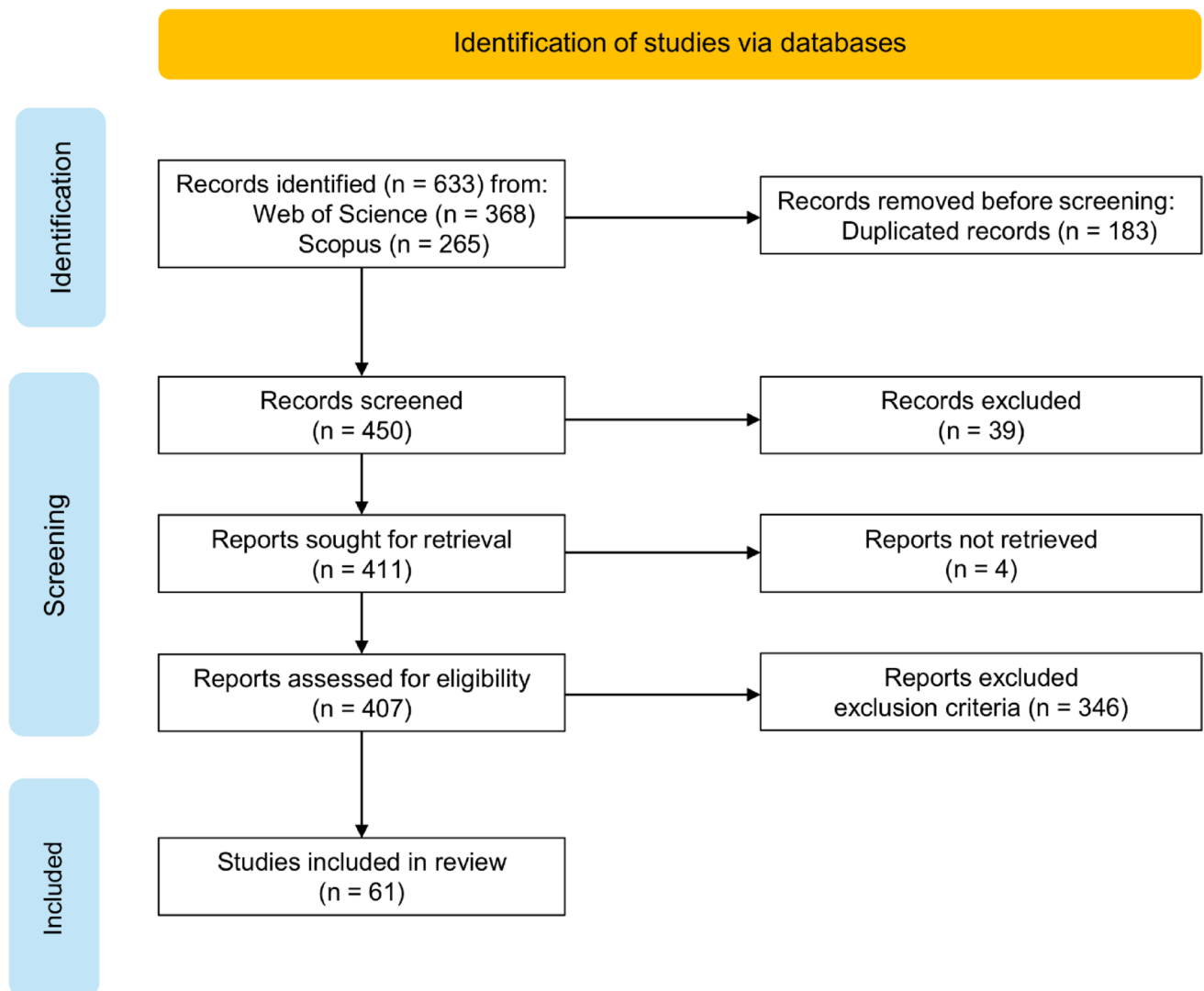


Fig. 2 Flow chart of the article screening and selection process. The systematic workflow follows the ROSES reporting standards (Haddaway et al. 2022). In accordance with Page et al. (2021), a 'record'

refers to the metadata (title/abstract) indexed in databases, whereas a 'report' refers to the full document retrieved for eligibility assessment

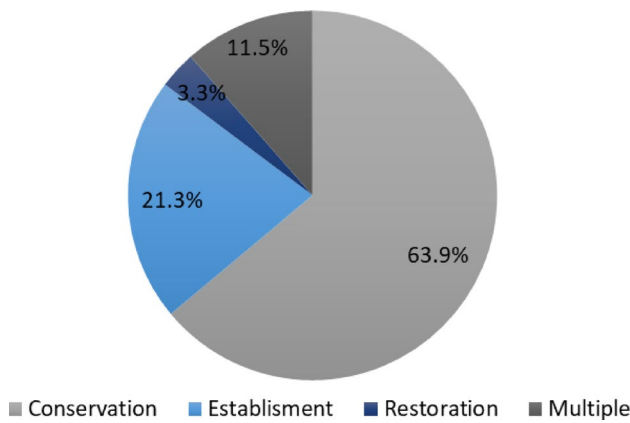


Fig. 3 Distribution of reviewed studies across carbon sink strategies, showing a clear predominance of conservation-focused approaches (n=39) compared to establishment (n=13), restoration (n=2), and integrated strategies combining multiple approaches (n=7)

imbalance in research focus across management pathways (Fig. 3).

The final subset comprised data from 19 countries (Fig. 4). Evidence was primarily concentrated in Europe (49%, n=33) and North America (39%, n=26), with only 12% (n=8) of studies focused on Asia, highlighting a significant geographic evidence gap (Fig. 4). To facilitate further analysis, the reviewed literature is organized in the Appendix and within the main text. Table 1A in the Appendix provides an exhaustive overview of all studies, detailing methodological parameters such as management goals, silvicultural practices, climate scenarios, carbon-sequestration estimation methods, and ancillary measures (e.g., disturbances). Table 3 groups the studies by their strategic approach—conserving, establishing, or restoring carbon sinks—and summarises key metadata, including geographic coverage, the carbon sequestration estimation method and the authors. Comprehensive study characteristics, including the scale of analysis, the duration of interventions, and the specific carbon pools, are fully detailed in the Appendix.

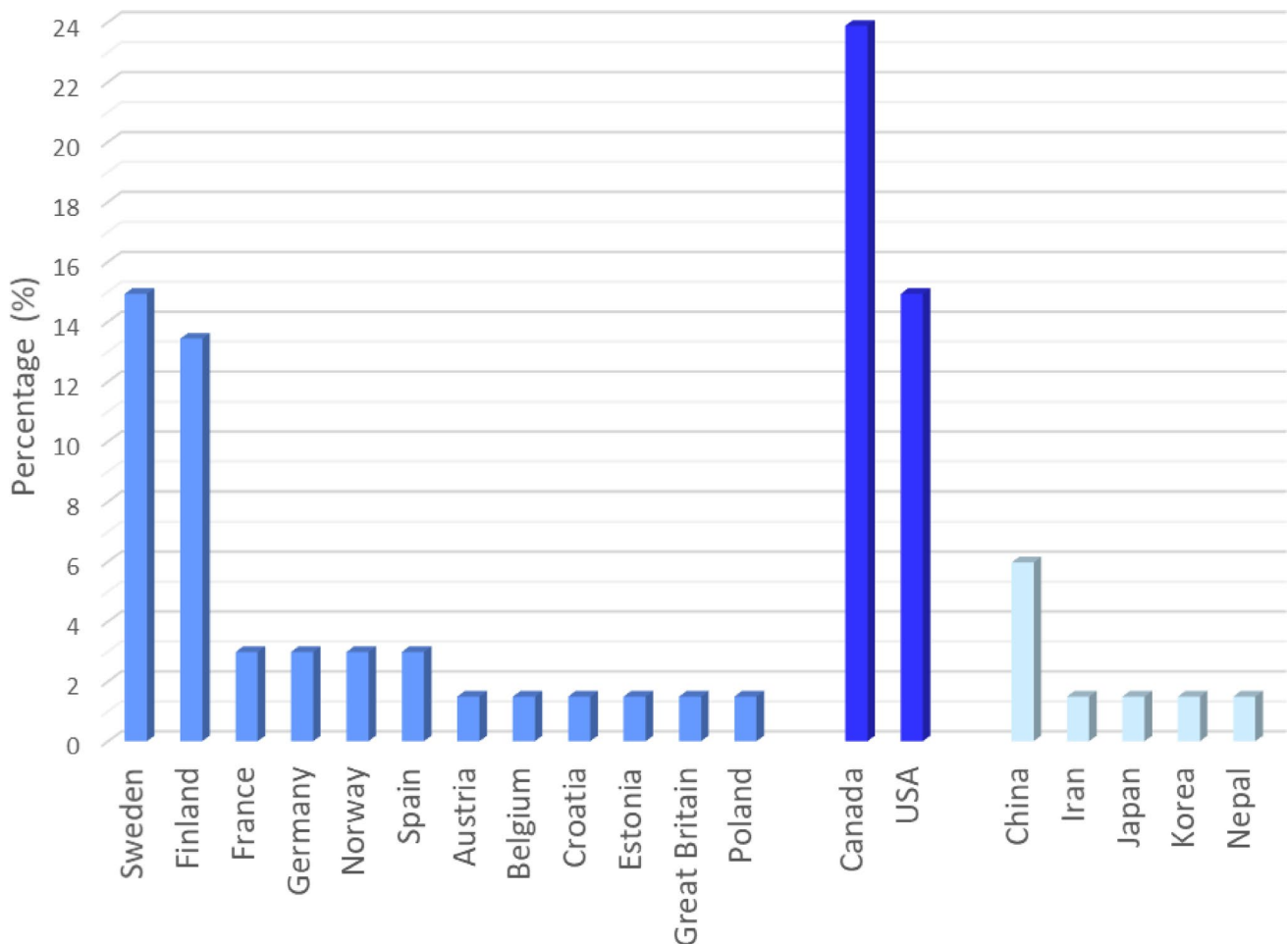


Fig. 4 Percentage distribution of peer-reviewed studies per country in our final subset of articles (n=61). Data are grouped by region (Europe, North America, and Asia), reflecting the geographic concen-

tration of research. Note: the studies by Osei et al. (2022) and Labadie et al. (2024) encompass multiple countries

Table 3 Information gleaned from the ultimate subset of studies in peer-reviewed publications that assessed the effectiveness of climate-smart forestry strategies in conserving (i.e., protecting), establishing, and restoring carbon sinks in forest ecosystems

Strategy	No. of studies	Locations	Carbon sequestration estimation methods	Authors
Carbon sink conservation	39	Finland, Canada, USA, Sweden, China, Nepal, Germany, Norway, Iran, Estonia, multi-country (Europe)	Model-based: LPJ-GUESS, LANDIS-II, FVS, MOTTI, SIMO, CBM-CFS3, timber supply models, ecosystem models Empirical: allometric equations, soil sampling, forest inventories, dendrometric measurements, remote sensing Hybrid: model calibration with field data, combined modelling + soil/biomass measurements	Alrahaheh et al. (2017), Botroh et al. (2023), Buotte et al. (2020), Burton et al. (2013), Colombo et al. (2012), Dymond et al. (2010), Eyvindson et al. (2018), Giasson et al. (2023), Griess et al. (2019), Gunn et al. (2014), Harris and Betts (2023), Islam et al. (2024), Jurevics et al. (2016), Labadie et al. (2024), Laganière et al. (2015), Lagergren and Jönsson (2017), Larsson et al. (2025), Liu et al. (2018a, b, 2025a, b), Lutz et al. (2016), Måren and Sharma (2021), Matsuzaki et al. (2013), Mazziotta et al. (2022), Moreau et al. (2022), Nabhani et al. (2024), Osei et al. (2022), Pang et al. (2017), Petersson et al. (2022), Pikkarainen et al. (2024), Pingoud et al. (2018), Pohjanmies et al. (2017), Price et al. (1997), Rana et al. (2024), Repo et al. (2024), Rosenvald et al. (2025), Santaniello et al. (2017), Sasanifar et al. (2024), Triviño et al. (2017), Ziter et al. (2013)
Carbon sink establishment	13	USA, Norway, Korea, China, France, Japan, Sweden, Canada, Spain, Croatia	Model-based: SiTree, LANDIS-II, CO2Fix, CBM-CFS3 Empirical: eddy covariance, biomass measurements, allometric equations, soil/lab analyses Hybrid: model+field/lab data integration (e.g., biomass + soil + simulation outputs)	Bracho et al. (2012), Bright et al. (2020), Choi et al. (2002), Fang et al. (2013), Fanin et al. (2025), He et al. (2018), Hotta et al. (2023), Jörgensen et al. (2021), Ménard et al. (2022), Perez-Cruzado et al. (2012), Poirier et al. (2016), Ostrogović Sever et al. (2019), Yu et al. (2021)
Carbon sink restoration	2	Great Britain, USA	Model-based: FVS Empirical: soil analysis, allometric equations, forest structure measurements Hybrid: empirical data used within simulation frameworks	Beckert et al. (2016), Quick et al. (2024)
Multiple (Conservation, Establishment, Restoration)	7	Sweden, USA, Canada, Germany, Finland	Model-based: LPJ-GUESS, CBM-CFS3, FVS Empirical: allometric equations, eddy covariance, dendrometric measurements Hybrid: mass-balance approaches, remote sensing + modelling, integrated ecosystem assessments	Bergkvist et al. (2025), Law et al. (2018), Ma et al. (2022), Dore et al. (2010), Krause et al. (2020), Triviño et al. (2015), Smyth et al. (2014)

The temporal distribution of included publications indicates a sparse output between 1997 and 2010, followed by a marked increase from 2011 onwards (Fig. 5). While this trend reflects a growing research focus on the intersection of forest management and climate goals, the sharp increase in recent years is also linked to the formalisation of 'Climate-Smart Forestry' as a specific conceptual framework. Earlier research addressing similar objectives may have been categorised under related terms such as 'adaptive management' or 'carbon-oriented silviculture.' Nevertheless, the peaks observed in 2017, 2022, 2024 and 2025, reaching up to 7 publications annually, suggest an accelerating rate of scientific production and a more unified approach to addressing the relevance of forest-based climate solutions.

Forest types ranged from species-specific systems (e.g., spruce, pine, beech) to broader mixed or regional classifications. The spatial scale of analysis extended from stand-level

investigations to national or regional projections: in detail, of the final total subset, 34% (n=21) of studies reported on studies at the plot level, 23% (n=14) at the stand level, 18% (n=11) at the landscape and region level, while 7% refers to studies at the country level (n=4). The temporal coverage ranged from short-term interventions of less than a decade to century-long simulations under alternative climate scenarios. A variety of approaches were employed to estimate carbon sequestration, including process-based forest ecosystem models, empirical sampling methods, and, less frequently, remote sensing techniques (Table 3). Across all strategies, model-based approaches dominated, often combined with empirical data, highlighting a strong reliance on hybrid frameworks for carbon sequestration assessment (Fig. 6). The scope of carbon pools considered varied considerably: while aboveground biomass was consistently assessed, fewer studies accounted for soil carbon, litter, or

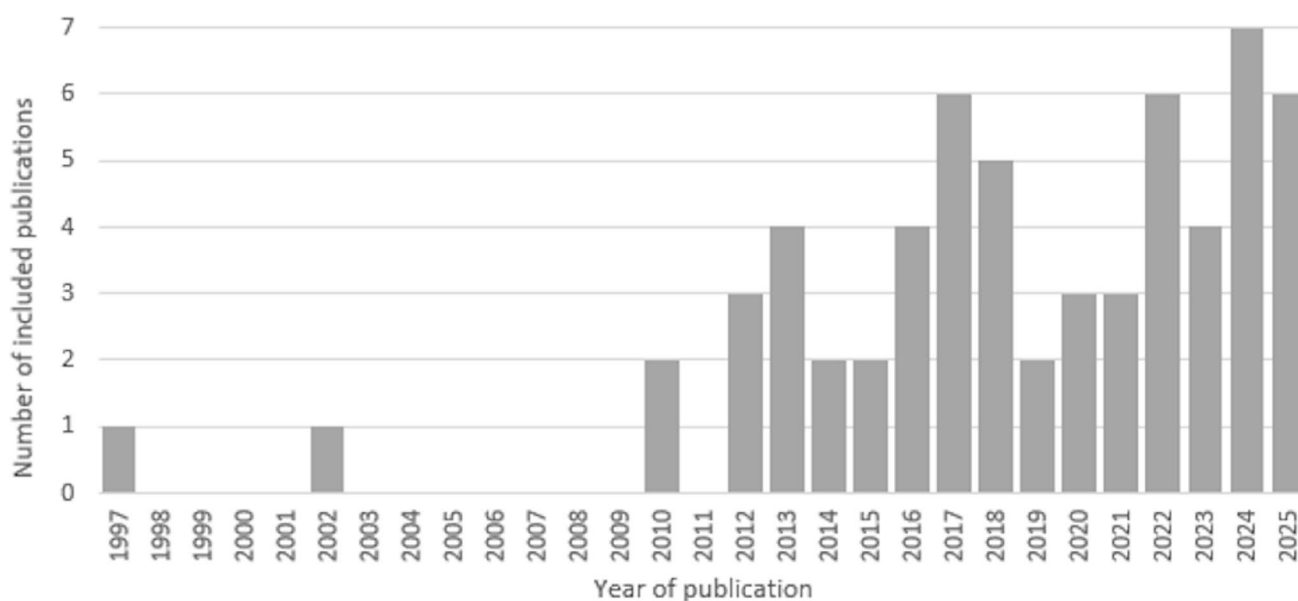


Fig. 5 Number of papers in our final subset ($n=61$) published per year between 1997 and 2025

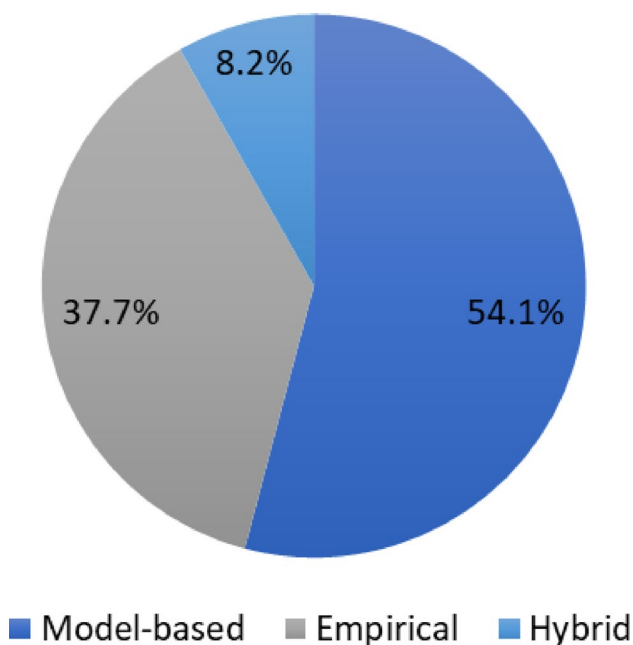


Fig. 6 Proportional distribution of methodological approaches used to estimate carbon sequestration across our final subset of articles ($n=61$). Model-based approaches represent the majority ($n=33$), followed by empirical methods ($n=23$) and hybrid approaches combining modelling and empirical data ($n=5$), highlighting the predominance of modelling frameworks in carbon sequestration assessments

deadwood. Finally, while some studies have explored synergies and trade-offs—most notably between carbon storage, timber yield, and biodiversity—such assessments have not been systematically addressed, highlighting an essential gap in the literature.

Discussion

Navigating climate-smart complexity

Sustainable forest management is a pivotal component of climate change mitigation strategies aimed at achieving the global targets outlined in international agreements (Verkerk et al. 2022; Ellison et al. 2024; Pan et al. 2024; Bava and Caselli 2025). However, forest ecosystems are currently under increasing pressure due to the combined impacts of human activities and natural disturbances (Patacca et al. 2023). Our synthesis highlights the diverse climate-smart management strategies available to enhance forest carbon sinks, along with the complex mitigation and adaptation pathways they entail (see the references listed in Table 1A). It also highlights the trade-offs involved in balancing these strategies with the provision of ecosystem services (Tognetti et al. 2022a). We observed a modest increase in peer-reviewed research addressing the outcomes of forest sink conservation/protection, establishment, and restoration studies since 2012. While much of this research supports the notion that forest management options can rapidly and extensively increase carbon sinks (Ameray et al. 2021), we also noted limitations in the generalisability of the results due to contextual factors and geographical biases (Nabuurs et al. 2018; Gregor et al. 2022).

Additionally, the complexity involved in quantifying carbon sequestration outcomes across various social-ecological domains and spatial and temporal resolutions remains a significant limiting factor (Ali 2023; Wu et al. 2023; Alawode et al. 2026). This difficulty is largely due to the challenge of scaling local measurements to broader resolutions and the

historical reliance on static variables for carbon accounting. For example, rather than being a constant parameter, wood density, which is fundamental to carbon stock estimation, is mediated by long-term drought dynamics and growth traits (Torresan et al. 2024). These changes underscore the dynamic nature of wood properties and emphasise the need to account for temporal variability to avoid errors in forest carbon estimation.

Conservation, establishment, and restoration of carbon sinks to hold the line

Forest protection is a key strategy for mitigating anthropogenic impacts. Although 27% of the global net forest carbon sink is located within protected areas (Harris et al. 2021), substantial uncertainty persists regarding the extent to which unmanaged forests contribute to climate change mitigation through avoided deforestation (e.g., Soares-Filho et al. 2010; Grassi et al. 2022). Moreover, the specific contribution of protected areas to global climate targets remains insufficiently quantified in the literature (Table 1A). While forest growth facilitates carbon sequestration, the net climatic impact is governed by a complex interplay between carbon dynamics and biophysical properties. In boreal and temperate ecosystems, rising CO₂ and temperatures may enhance net photosynthesis; however, this response is frequently constrained by nitrogen availability, which limits the capacity for sustained increases in biomass (Finzi et al. 2007; Norby et al. 2010). Beyond CO₂ uptake, forests regulate the surface energy budget through albedo, evapotranspiration, and surface roughness (Bonan 2008; Devaraju et al. 2015). For instance, feedback mechanisms such as increased evapotranspiration can have opposing effects: amplifying warming via atmospheric water vapour or promoting cooling through enhanced cloud cover and water recycling (Singh et al. 2021; Ellison et al. 2024). Conversely, deforestation disrupts these processes, reducing surface roughness and boundary-layer turbulence, thereby intensifying local warming regardless of carbon flux (Davin and de Noblet-Ducoudré 2010).

While conservation sentiments may be relevant to highly developed societies, local ambitions for carbon preservation must contend with the global expansion of wood consumption (Daigneault et al. 2022; Gregor et al. 2022). Without human intervention, existing global forests could increase their aboveground biomass by up to 44.1 petagrams of carbon (161.4 Gt CO₂eq) under current climate and CO₂ conditions. This represents a 15–16% increase over current levels, equivalent to approximately four years of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Roebroek et al. 2023). Therefore, without substantial reductions in emissions, releasing forests from management has low mitigation potential, adding

to uncertainties about the costs of climate change mitigation and changes in land surface albedo (Fargione et al. 2021; Ellison et al. 2024). The forest sink should therefore be preserved to offset residual carbon emissions (i.e., those that persist after implementing all technically feasible measures to reduce carbon emissions through extensive and comprehensive gross emissions reductions) rather than to compensate for present emissions (Buck et al. 2023).

Forest harvests may result in substantial soil carbon losses, particularly in hardwood stands compared to conifer mixed stands (Nave et al. 2010). In contrast to secondary forests or tree plantations, logging in pristine primary and old-growth forests raises concerns for both biodiversity and climate, as it releases CO₂ that has accumulated over centuries (Liu et al. 2018a, b). Indeed, some older forests continue to sequester soil organic carbon (Zhou et al. 2006), binding soil organic matter more tightly than younger ones (Lacroix et al. 2016). As large-diameter and old trees consistently enhance biomass growth and contribute to carbon sequestration under changing climatic conditions (Begović et al. 2023), their dynamics and sensitivities to environmental changes have the potential to exert significant control over global forest carbon cycling (Lutz et al. 2018). Nevertheless, whereas large trees store most of the forest biomass and carbon, small trees make a significant contribution to forest dynamics (Piponiot et al. 2022). If young forests sequester more carbon than older ones due to the maximisation of wood production and carbon storage, carbon storage increases with forest age as ecosystem structural and biotic complexity increases (Keeton et al. 2007). While old trees and old-growth forests may persist in accumulating and storing carbon (Luyssaert et al. 2008; Stephenson et al. 2014), thereby challenging the long-standing belief that they are carbon-neutral, these forest systems are vulnerable to disturbances (Qie et al. 2017), and carbon stocks in protected forests can be unpredictable. Nevertheless, restricting tree harvests and lengthening rotation periods may increase net ecosystem carbon balance in temperate managed forests (Nunery and Keeton 2010; Motta et al. 2011; Law et al. 2018).

As forests age, these forests may accumulate ecosystem services and provide habitats for various species (Moomaw et al. 2019). Allowing existing forests to reach their ecological (and social) potential may represent a cost-effective nature-based solution (Buotte et al. 2020). This approach, termed proforestation, may maximise carbon sequestration and biodiversity enhancement (Seddon et al. 2021), though reducing harvests in regions more inclined to conservation (advanced regions) may increase harvests from forests outside those regions. While managed forests can reduce pressure on unmanaged forests and provide wood products that serve as additional carbon stocks, contributing to fossil fuel

displacement, the same wood cannot simultaneously be used for both material and energy substitution.

Among forest management options for mitigation, afforestation and reforestation practices are the most frequently reported in the reviewed studies (see the list of references reported in Table 1A). Suppose forest conversion (degradation of sink) is the most significant loss in carbon. In that case, active reforestation (establishing sinks where they previously existed) and afforestation (establishing new carbon sinks) on marginal land can yield the most significant benefits. However, the effectiveness of commercial forestry involving young tree plantations is a subject of debate (Lewis et al. 2019). Even though the incorporation of sustainable wood products may constitute a viable NBS (Zhang et al. 2023), considering the impact of escalating natural disturbances. Life cycle assessment studies indicate that forest growth rate is the primary determinant of cumulative mitigation potential, regardless of whether trees are harvested (Forster et al. 2021). Mitigation from harvested stands typically exceeds that of unharvested stands, and commercial afforestation may provide an effective mitigation strategy (Grassi et al. 2017). The establishment of large-scale forest carbon sinks, through reforestation of degraded lands and planting one trillion trees, may help mitigate climate change (Bastin et al. 2019). This controversial modelling exercise, which estimates that 205 Gt of carbon would be sequestered globally by planting trees, was deemed unrealistic due to the overestimation of soil organic carbon gains (Veldman et al. 2019; Taylor and Marconi 2020), assumption of degraded lands (Veldman et al. 2015, 2019), and warming effect of trees due to decreased albedo (Mykleby et al. 2017; Rohatyn et al. 2022). Equalising carbon uptake and surface albedo across temporal and spatial scales may help reduce warming, but its effectiveness in cooling needs to be tested (Graf et al. 2023).

Large-scale global planting efforts would require the production of a massive number of tree seedlings annually; in turn, this necessitates expanding seed collection and implementing adequate pre- and post-planting practices (Fargione et al. 2021). Adaptive traits may vary with the climate of origin of the population, highlighting the need to enhance common-garden studies to assess trade-offs between growth and tolerance traits under both indoor and outdoor conditions (e.g., Bolte et al. 2016; Versace et al. 2022). These experiments may guide ecological applications and plantation efforts (Schwinning et al. 2022). However, the mortality rate of planted trees can be high in the first few years after planting (Banin et al. 2022). The mortality of trees induced by warming may counteract the benefits of plantation efforts, leading to reduced canopy cover. This reduction, in turn, directly affects forest evapotranspiration, canopy interception, and surface albedo, which indirectly

alter hydrologic processes (e.g., Anderegg et al. 2013). Ultimately, this leads to reduced land evapotranspiration and carbon sequestration (Jung et al. 2010). Moreover, competition for land is intense. Thus, while there is considerable enthusiasm for tree planting, the regrowth of natural forests can be a more cost-effective and efficient way to capture carbon, promote the re-establishment of local biodiversity, and do so more rapidly and securely than plantations (Cook-Patton et al. 2020).

Forest restoration, primarily through natural regeneration, is a key NBS for mitigating climate change and land degradation. This approach differs from active reforestation and afforestation in that it relies on natural ecological processes to recover forest ecosystems. Expanding forest cover can enhance mitigation benefits while also improving regulation of the water cycle (Hoek van Dijke et al. 2022; Ellison et al. 2024). However, forest restoration approaches, including the emerging FLR framework (Garrett et al. 2024; FAO 2024), are underrepresented in the studies reviewed regarding carbon-sink targets (see the list of references reported in Table 1A). The structure, composition, and function of forest sinks, including soils, can also be restored through various proactive measures that involve integrating forests into landscape management (Chakraborty et al. 2024). This integration facilitates the restoration of ecological functionality (Marshall et al. 2023). For example, the emphasis on preserving mature stands for carbon storage may limit options aimed at actively restoring old-growth forest attributes in forests managed for purposes other than conservation (D'Amato and Palik 2021).

Reinstating natural processes that occur in the absence of human activity may require an active approach, including protection from further damage from grazing or fire, and the selective reintroduction of missing species—a controversial rewilding approach to conserving biodiversity (Pettoirelli et al. 2019). Relying on natural forest regrowth, in conjunction with the preservation of natural disturbance regimes, would prevent inappropriate tree establishment in native non-forest areas, such as grasslands, savannas, and open-canopy woodlands (Veldman et al. 2015). Indeed, plant species diversity can be higher in forests that are still managed than in those that are no longer managed (Langridge et al. 2023).

Forest carbon recovery after a disturbance (fire, outbreaks, or utilisation) requires time, and increasing disturbance frequency and intensity have long-term effects on carbon storage (Kashian et al. 2006; Mikoláš et al. 2021). In wildfire scenarios, while disturbances cause short-term carbon losses, long-term carbon balance can benefit from forest thinning and prescribed burning. These management practices help restore stand structure and fire regimes, reducing the risk of high-intensity fires and enhancing ecosystem resilience (Hurteau et al. 2016). Vegetation carbon

sequestration varies across different land management practices, and implementing climate-smart forestry practices, such as forest restoration, may help increase carbon sequestration. The global land vegetation could sequester an additional 13.74 Pg carbon per year if location-specific optimal land management practices are implemented (Sha et al. 2022). In the long term, with changing climatic conditions, managed forests may exhibit higher productivity and store more carbon than unmanaged forests, provided that thinning and tree harvesting are conducted at moderate intensities (Dalmonech et al. 2022). Whether managed forests are carbon sources or sinks will, therefore, depend on their management. Biomass and GPP (Gross Primary Productivity) of sustainably managed forests at the time of harvest can be as high as they would be without management (Herbst et al. 2015; Schulze et al. 2022). Nonetheless, trade-offs are inevitable when leveraging forests for climate mitigation, such as land use leakage, and these must be carefully evaluated when formulating concrete strategies for climate-smart forestry (Luyssaert et al. 2018; Gregor et al. 2022; Alawode et al. 2026). Certainly, forest management can alter forest cover, stand structure, and species composition, thereby affecting carbon, water, and energy exchange (Bonan 2008; Naudts et al. 2016).

Forest management as the encompassing framework maximising carbon storage

Improved forest management aims to enhance stand adaptation to climate change while mitigating CO₂ increases by promoting species and structural diversity, thereby enhancing resilience and sustaining carbon storage for mitigation (Haya et al. 2023; Daigneault et al. 2024). Forest productivity and carbon storage benefits may result from transitioning from pure to mixed species stands and from stock size to stock resilience (Liang et al. 2016; Pretzsch and Hilmers 2024), although contrasting evidence also exists (Grossiord et al. 2014; Conte et al. 2018). Productivity improvements in mixed species stands may not be strongly influenced by tree age or stand species composition. Still, they could increase significantly with the availability of additional resources, such as increased local precipitation leading to greater water availability (Jactel et al. 2018). In favourable environments, therefore, tree species diversity may increase the intensity of competitive interactions through higher productivity, thereby increasing the risk of tree mortality. On the other hand, in forests with lower species diversity, mortality may increase more significantly as climate moisture availability decreases. In contrast, both growth and mortality may increase as the climate warms, regardless of species diversity (Hisano et al. 2019).

While intercropping with N-fixing species may enhance the productivity and water-use efficiency of the target tree species in agroforestry systems, it is essential to note that species interactions can change over time and space (Battipaglia et al. 2017). These interactions may also vary regionally (Versace et al. 2020), and they should be considered when establishing management criteria to maximise tree performance. Although promoting tree diversity has positive effects on stand productivity, increasing diversity in forest stands may also increase the probability of tree mortality (Searle et al. 2022). It is uncertain whether higher tree species diversity reduces tree mortality by minimising intraspecific competition, or if the increased competitive pressures resulting from higher productivity in more diverse stands ultimately lead to an overall increase in tree vulnerability to climate change (Condés et al. 2025). Productivity may increase with species richness until reduced evenness (similarity of species abundances) limits the increases in community diversity (Torresan et al. 2020; Hordijk et al. 2023).

Altered stand age is a fundamental consequence of forest management and a powerful predictor of structure and function (Bradford and Kastendick 2010). Higher structural complexity may reduce individual mortality probabilities because vertical stratification among trees reduces direct competition (Gough et al. 2019). Nevertheless, the relationship between stand age and either complexity or carbon storage and sequestration, especially trade-offs between the two, is not well characterised. Age-related stand dynamics, driven by past management and natural disturbances, may affect forests' contributions to mitigation outcomes. The carbon dynamics of forests following the cessation of management are poorly understood. While high tree stocking, structural complexity, and abundant deadwood are forest stand structural conditions associated with high carbon storage (Lewis et al. 2013; Nagel et al. 2023), it is essential to note that higher carbon stocks do not automatically equate to high forest ecological complexity.

Economically mature stands, characterised by high aboveground carbon density and low complexity, differ from old-growth forests, which exhibit the highest aboveground carbon density and the highest complexity, highlighting the mismatch between timber production and biodiversity management (Hilmers et al. 2018). High relative density and low stand complexity have implications for stock vulnerability and forest resilience. Ensuring the long-term stability of forest carbon benefits requires considering factors that enhance resilience in dynamic systems. Comparing the relative density based on the forest's current size-density relationship with a hypothetical maximum, using the coterminous US National Forest inventory data from 1999 to 2020, suggests opportunities to increase live tree stocking in understocked

stands (Woodall and Weiskittel 2021). Additionally, density management can be employed to address tree mortality and enhance resilience to disturbances in increasingly dense forests.

A static forest land area with reduced tree abundance but significantly increased wood volume, tree biomass, and carbon storage, and therefore higher relative density, may contribute to reaching a threshold of canopy closure and self-thinning-induced mortality, especially in areas prone to drought conditions (Bradford et al. 2021). Adaptive management, rather than a passive approach, may become desirable to retain forests' carbon under warming-induced drought stress. The population density of trees may influence growth during drought (i.e., resistance) and growth after drought (i.e., resilience) compared to pre-drought growth (Bottero et al. 2017). If there is a negative relationship between relative tree population density and drought resistance and resilience, trees growing at lower densities can be less vulnerable to drought. Therefore, managing forest ecosystems with low tree density represents a promising adaptive strategy to reduce the adverse impacts of drought on forest growth and carbon sequestration in the years to come.

The emphasis on forests as carbon stores has often overshadowed other conservation goals, such as species richness and ecosystem complexity (Buřivalová et al. 2023). While these aspects are intrinsically linked to climate outcomes, they have not kept pace with the scale and diversification of forest conservation. Aligning local-scale co-benefits with global carbon objectives remains a key challenge and a priority for future forest conservation efforts. Nevertheless, trade-offs exist between carbon sequestration and biodiversity conservation (Ezquerro et al. 2024). While habitat restoration is considered a key strategy for recovering imperilled species, ecosystem restoration may collide with maximising carbon storage. For example, promoting early successional forest conditions does not maximise stand-level carbon storage, whereas uniformly promoting high stocking or mature forest conditions in the name of carbon storage may exclude species that require open or young stands (Littlefield and D'Amato 2022).

Prioritising climate targets may conflict with national policies and negatively impact ecosystem services and biodiversity, as observed in several EU countries (Blatter et al. 2023). In European forests, the stand volume growth and forest carbon sink remain high on fertile sites (e.g., Pretzsch et al. 2014). However, no direct transformation of the increased volume growth trend into carbon sequestration and biomass production can be generalised (Pretzsch et al. 2018). Additionally, emerging signals of sink saturation are evident in tree rings and forest inventories (Nabuurs et al. 2013). Global CO₂ fertilisation effects have declined

across most terrestrial regions of the globe from 1982 to 2015 (Wang et al. 2020), in association with changing water availabilities, indicating a significant decline in the beneficial effects of elevated atmospheric CO₂ on terrestrial carbon absorption. This decline may diminish the capacity of land-based climate mitigation, potentially hastening global warming and intensifying the measures needed to achieve climate goals. Climate-smart practices and new forest areas may help reverse this trend, thereby increasing the annual net increment in forest growth and enhancing the potential for storing carbon in harvested wood products and through material substitution (Verkerk et al. 2022). However, high carbon stocks incentivised by carbon market baseline standards may encourage stand densities that are more vulnerable to carbon loss due to tree mortality, thereby harming the climate (Dye et al. 2024). In fact, carbon sequestration differs from temperature mitigation (Don et al. 2024), and it necessitates a comprehensive climate perspective to complement the carbon-centric approach.

A pathway to forest stability under intensified disturbances emerges from the literature

The finite nature of forest carbon sinks, influenced by factors such as tree ageing, increasing temperatures, and sink saturation, may offset the additional tree growth resulting from rising atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Peñuelas et al. 2008; Silva et al. 2010; Pretzsch et al. 2017). Nevertheless, these conclusions remain controversial (McMahon et al. 2010; Tognetti et al. 2014; Pretzsch et al. 2017). The rise in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, driven by anthropogenic emissions, has overshadowed the broader role of forest ecosystems in water regulation, soil protection, and biodiversity conservation, often relegating these functions to secondary co-benefits in sustainable forest management (e.g., Piazza et al. 2024). Climate change-driven chronic stress at global scales, namely drought, contributes to substantial tree mortality each year (e.g., Allen et al. 2010). Recent observations of elevated tree mortality following climate extremes, such as heat and drought, raise concerns about the risks of climate change to global forest health (Cailleret et al. 2017; Hartmann et al. 2022). While simulation models predict that tree growth will continue to result in net carbon uptake in the coming decades, increased growth rates may shorten their lifespans (Liu et al. 2025a, b). Consequently, recent increases in forest carbon stocks can be temporary due to delayed increases in tree mortality and forest die-back, which might ultimately offset the carbon gains resulting from growth stimulation (Brienen et al. 2020).

Furthermore, water stress may shift species composition toward drought-tolerant but slower-growing trees (Csilléry et al. 2020). Competition for water may intensify the

ecosystem's response to declining water availability, as the most competitive species under dry conditions tend to have lower biomass than less competitive ones (Zhang et al. 2018). Climate change is also influencing long-term ecological processes (e.g., vegetation shift), pushing forest tree species to the edge of their natural climate envelopes (Hanewinkel et al. 2013; Antonucci et al. 2017). Future disturbance-adapted species may restore tree spatial patterns shaped by forest gap dynamics (Wikle and D'Amato 2023) but could replace economically valuable, high-carbon-sequestering trees with gap specialists. However, forest management can facilitate this transition, helping maintain ecosystem functions and services while adapting to changing conditions (Millar et al. 2007). For example, regulating and driving species mixtures and size heterogeneity may result in stable stand productivity and carbon stock, despite species-specific changes (Diaci et al. 2017; Hilmers et al. 2020; Torresan et al. 2020). However, discrete extreme disturbance events have increased in recent decades (Ummenhofer and Meehl 2017; Patacca et al. 2023). Extreme events, such as outbreaks or heatwaves, exert disproportionately large and sometimes irreversible impacts on tree growth and forest productivity at large scales (Fierravanti et al. 2015; Salomón et al. 2022). Drought-induced tree die-off resulting from a megadrought is expected to bring about profound alterations in the structure, function, and composition of forest stands, as well as in the ecosystem services they deliver (Field et al. 2020). Carbon storage may gradually recover to peak levels over centuries following its release from disturbance (Mikoláš et al. 2021). Individual disturbances, their interactions, and climate variability collectively influence the resilience of forest ecosystems and their capacity to store carbon (Johnstone et al. 2016).

Reorienting forest management is necessary to maintain existing carbon sinks, enhance future sequestration capacity, and balance trade-offs and explore synergies between resilience mechanisms within social-ecological systems across spatial and temporal scales (Millar et al. 2007; Larsen et al. 2022; Alawode et al. 2026). Increasing forest fragmentation and tree mortality, as well as the loss of system resilience and species diversity, necessitate a shift in current management practices towards more flexible silvicultural strategies to enhance the adaptation and mitigation potentials of managed forests (Puettmann et al. 2015; Messier et al. 2019). Forest management options, maximising carbon sequestration, have been proposed to accomplish the range of objectives and scales in terms of conservation, establishment, and restoration of carbon sinks under climate change scenarios (e.g., Jacobsen 2001; Bergeron et al. 2002; Mason et al. 2003; Franklin et al. 2007; Putz et al. 2008; Baker and Read 2011; Bauhus et al. 2013; Donoso and Promis 2013;

Nagel et al. 2017; Halofsky et al. 2018; Larsen et al. 2022, Weatherall et al. 2022).

A climate-smart perspective has been recently endorsed to identify good practice examples and recommend suitable metrics to effectively adopt and monitor the stability of forests, i.e., the ability of forests to maintain functioning over time and in the face of environmental stressors (Schnabel et al. 2021), and for safeguarding carbon sequestration, among other ecosystem services forests provide (Nabuurs et al. 2017; Yousefpour et al. 2018; Bowditch et al. 2020; Verkerk et al. 2020; Sterck et al. 2021; Cooper and MacFarlane 2023; Nagel et al. 2023). Climate-smart forestry aims to guide sustainable forest management towards increasing ecosystem resilience and addressing natural disturbances, based on indicators that inform decision-making (Santopuoli et al. 2021; Tognetti et al. 2022b). Integrating remote sensing and terrestrial monitoring is crucial for determining the extent to which an adaptation strategy diverges from current practices and the necessity of innovative transition approaches (Torresan et al. 2021).

To avoid interferences among mitigation options and adaptation strategies, a mosaic forest landscape that combines multifunctionality with production and conservation requirements can be envisioned to help ensure a positive carbon balance (Seymour and Hunter 1992; Ceddia et al. 2014; Schall et al. 2018; Muys et al. 2022). It is therefore valuable to determine which forest management option has the greatest potential for carbon sequestration and how to balance the different options at the landscape scale, while accounting for trade-offs related to landscape fragmentation and habitat loss. Given the growing concern over tree mortality driven by climate change, enhancing tree functional trait diversity and stand structural complexity may play a crucial role in mitigating the impacts of drought and supporting climate-smart forestry practices (Hisano et al. 2024).

Current limitations and future needs

Scoping reviews do not aim to provide an exhaustive survey of all available literature; instead, they follow a rigorous methodological framework to systematically map the scope, key concepts, and knowledge gaps within a specific field of interest (Munn et al. 2022; Peters et al. 2022). By documenting both existing literature and research gaps, they provide valuable insights into the panorama of knowledge within a given area (Tricco et al. 2016). Furthermore, scoping reviews can serve as invaluable tools for informing the design and execution of subsequent systematic reviews (Munn et al. 2018). A systematic review is the most valid approach for assessing the feasibility, appropriateness, meaningfulness, or effectiveness of a treatment or practice. However, if the goal is to identify, map, report, or discuss

specific characteristics or concepts in the literature, a scoping review is more appropriate (Peters et al. 2020). Given the increasing urgency to maximise carbon benefits from forests and the heightened expectations for achieving a sustainable, climate-neutral economy, the volume of studies in this domain is steadily expanding. Consequently, we deemed it essential to situate the methodological and reporting issues of this expanding field within the ongoing debate on the trade-offs and synergies characterising closer-to-nature forestry scenarios (Larsen et al. 2022). By doing so, our review assesses the capacity of current research to inform synthesis and policy, and identifies routes to enhanced methodological consistency and transparency (Peters et al. 2020, 2022).

We analysed how climate-smart forestry studies report outcomes related to the establishment, conservation, and restoration of carbon sinks, assessing the consistency of methodologies for cross-study comparison. Our review revealed a notable dearth of comprehensive analyses of synergies and trade-offs, specifically juxtaposing climate-smart management approaches against conventional land management practices and their respective capacities for carbon sequestration. Presently, the literature provides scant references to management tactics aimed at mitigating the risks inherent in forests' carbon capture and storage functions (Bowditch et al. 2020; Verkerk et al. 2020; Littlefield and D'Amato 2022; Weatherall et al. 2022; Blattert et al. 2023; Cooper and MacFarlane 2023; Nagel et al. 2023; Alawode et al. 2026). The validation of recommendations and conclusions will be paramount in identifying any gaps in conceptualisation and evidence, thereby providing essential insights to inform further research, practical applications, and policy development (Weatherall et al. 2022).

Conclusion

As global warming persists and natural disturbances accumulate, the task of evaluating forests' contributions to mitigating climate change becomes increasingly complex. With disturbances becoming increasingly significant, the long-term impact of forest management on carbon sequestration potential remains uncertain (Nabuurs et al. 2013; Pretzsch et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2022; Patacca et al. 2023). While forest-based measures are key components of mitigation strategies, a decrease in the rate of carbon sequestration coincides with the need for increased climate-neutrality objectives. Minimising human intervention can enhance forest carbon sinks, but it offers limited mitigation potential (Roebroek et al. 2023). Alternatively, harvested wood products and material substitution may provide additional benefits, though uncertainties remain regarding their utilisation (Grassi et al. 2018).

Forestry was initially viewed as a victim of climate change, with increasing disturbance regimes posing new threats to forest ecosystems. However, it has also been recognised as a contributor, with deforestation generating greenhouse gas emissions, alongside those from agriculture and land-use change. Forestry is increasingly recognised as a solution to climate change due to its role in climate mitigation. Climate-smart forestry can integrate adaptation and mitigation across scales, contributing to effective land-use strategies that support climate targets. This review emphasises the growing significance of forests in achieving climate targets, particularly through the establishment of carbon sinks via afforestation and reforestation practices. However, the research impact on the conservation and restoration of carbon sinks remains constrained by significant factors, including the lack of empirical evidence on effectiveness, unresolved trade-offs in application, and substantial geographic evidence gaps. Given the interconnected nature of the silvicultural and agricultural sectors, future analyses of carbon sequestration potential could benefit significantly from a more comprehensive examination of intersectoral dynamics (Bravo et al. 2024). Additionally, conducting simultaneous impact assessments of climate change alongside the dynamics of wood and food product markets will be crucial for generating more robust projections of climate mitigation potentials through NBS within global climate commitments.

A climate-smart perspective should adopt a holistic and quantitative approach to sustain carbon sequestration in the future, recognising that, while valuable, it may not fully offset trade-offs with other ecosystem services (Gregor et al. 2022). This approach should account for the inherent trade-offs in conserving, establishing, and restoring carbon sinks. Effectively assigning value to management measures aimed at maintaining or enhancing forest carbon sinks necessitates comparison with overarching principles such as sustaining ecosystem functions and processes, minimising species loss, optimising social-ecological resilience to disturbances, moderating temperature increases, and reducing land degradation. This evaluation can be facilitated through analytic hierarchy processes (Prober et al. 2019). Consequently, the most effective mitigation strategy may be one that attains the highest ranking as the most flexible and optimal landscape-specific combination. While these considerations hold for boreal and temperate forests, it is important to note that significant uncertainties hinder verification of management options in tropical forests, where substantial carbon sinks are located (Erb et al. 2018).

Currently, predetermined climate and biodiversity targets are shaping forest policies in temperate and boreal countries. However, the prevailing discourse on the governance of agricultural and silvicultural systems is characterised by

sectoral approaches rather than harmonious ones. This sectoral approach, which also encompasses research, hinders the development of integrated, synergistic management schemes that foster mosaic landscapes in which primary production, biodiversity conservation, and multifunctional uses can coexist seamlessly (Bravo et al. 2024). Enhancing efficiency in production, protection, adaptation, and mitigation within landscapes requires a complementary approach to landscape management forms. As climate-smart forestry evolves, future research should address sectoral integration, explore innovative forestry-agroforestry-agriculture models, including emerging carbon farming frameworks, and assess the long-term impacts of climate-smart practices on ecosystem stability and food security. Researchers must explore innovative and creative strategies for harmonising land management regimes. This endeavour is crucial for informing policy decision-making and aiding practitioners in implementing comprehensive, balanced management plans.

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Data availability No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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