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### Title

The effects of crop tree thinning intensity on the ability of dominant tree species to sequester carbon in a temperate deciduous mixed forest, northeastern China

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Peer reviewed

1 **The effects of crop tree thinning intensity on the ability of dominant tree species**  
2 **to sequester carbon in a temperate deciduous mixed forest, northeastern China**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Forest management is one of the important nature-based solutions for climate mitigation. Thinning can  
12 indirectly influence tree physiology by changing the microclimate and directly change the stand biomass,  
13 which can impact forest carbon sequestration. However, previous results about how thinning might influence  
14 carbon stocks remain inconsistent regarding post-thinning carbon accretion. In this study, crop tree release  
15 (CTR) thinning in four intensities (CK: 0% of basal area removal, LT: 17.25%, MT: 34.73%, and HT: 51.87%)  
16 were conducted in a temperate deciduous forest in Jiaohe, northeastern China in 2011. Plot inventories in  
17 2011, 2013, 2015, 2018 and 2021 and tree cores collected in 2017 and 2018 offered the opportunity to  
18 examine how are the interannual carbon sequestration ability of Korean pine and Manchurian ash responded  
19 to CTR thinning in four intensities. We quantify the carbon sequestration ability of trees by calculating  
20 individual stem carbon stock and annual carbon stock rate to examine whether the previous inconsistency was

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21 attributed to different responses of species, and the ignorance of frozen carbon content. The results show: (1)  
22 after thinning, the underestimation of carbon stocks of Manchurian ash decreased with the increasing thinning  
23 intensity. The greatest underestimation of Manchurian ash reaches 2922kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, while that of Korean pine only  
24 reaches 283kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Compared with Manchurian ash, the conventional carbon fraction of 0.5 for Korean pine  
25 is more appropriate, and the misestimation of Korean pine didn't show an obvious pattern with the intensity of  
26 thinning. (2) Under light thinning, both species maintained a stable carbon stock growth, and the frozen  
27 carbon content of Korean pine was significantly increased. During the 10 years after light thinning, the  
28 individual stem carbon of Korean pine increased from 57 kg to 81 kg, and Manchurian ash increased from 201  
29 kg to 268 kg. The average rate of increase of individual stem carbon is positively related to tree size.  
30 Removing such large-diameter trees from the stand is likely to decrease carbon stock rate. Therefore, it is  
31 essential to design carbon-friendly silviculture prescriptions worldwide under the consideration of species,  
32 sizes, and intensities.

33

34 **Key words:** crop tree release thinning, thinning intensity, frozen carbon content, carbon stocks, carbon  
35 sequestration ability, carbon capture

36

# 37 **1 Introduction**

38 Global warming is receiving unprecedented concern, and the huge potential of forests in climate change  
39 mitigation has been widely discussed (Canadell and Raupach, 2008; Pan et al., 2011; Sitch et al., 2015):  
40 forests constitute an important global carbon sink with an estimated 296 Gt of carbon in both above- and  
41 below- ground biomass (FAO, 2018). Improved forest management is perceived as the third largest natural  
42 pathway for climate mitigation and plays a pivotal role in limiting global warming to below 2 °C (Griscom et  
43 al., 2017). Compared with forest regeneration and reforestation, forest management is more cost-effective and  
44 can be implemented rapidly since it doesn't involve land-use change or tenure change (Griscom et al., 2017).  
45  
46 Thinning is one of the most important silvicultural operations in a managed forest. Through intentionally  
47 removing trees to regulate competition, thinning reallocates the growing space, improve growing conditions  
48 (ex: light, temperature, water, nutrients) for residual trees, support vigorous tree growth, minimize tree  
49 mortality and thus increase forest growth, timber productivity and economic value (Eriksson, 2006; Geng et  
50 al., 2021; Saarinen et al., 2020). Many studies have examined the effects of thinning on carbon stocks (del Río  
51 et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2018; Schaedel et al., 2017; Shuyong et al., 2017), but previous results remain  
52 inconsistent. The rapid regeneration of understory vegetation and the fast growth of post-thinning survivors  
53 could lead to greater carbon sequestration rates (Briceño et al., 2006; Hoover and Stout, 2007; López et al.,  
54 2003; Schilling et al., 1999; Zheng et al., 2019). Longer rotation may also enhance carbon sequestration,  
55 because it allows the biomass production to recover to avoid making the forest a net carbon source (Kaipainen  
56 et al., 2004; Nepstad et al., 1999). However, precommercial thinning and thinning in young forests were found  
57 to have no influence on aboveground carbon stocks (Lin et al., 2018; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014). The carbon  
58 storage may even be reduced when forests are managed for maximum biomass yield (Cooper, 1983). The

59 inconsistencies may be attributed to different thinning types, intensities, and timing involved in studies  
60 (Eriksson, 2006)). Different thinning plans have been designed to achieve various management goals (Ashton  
61 and Kelty, 2018; Saarinen et al., 2020). As a special type of thinning, crop tree release (CTR) thinning intends  
62 to reduce competition around selected trees so that they can improve in vigor, remain competitive in the stand,  
63 and provide desired future benefits (Miller et al., 2007). In a natural mixed forest, not only the stand density  
64 and tree size distribution are influenced, but also the composition of tree species (Ameha et al., 2016; Zhang  
65 et al., 2014). If the selected trees are light and drought-tolerant species, the reduced stand density and changed  
66 canopy complexity can benefit the carbon sequestration because of higher transmitted solar radiation  
67 (Hardiman et al., 2011; F. Wang et al., 2020). Since various species and trees in different sizes may have  
68 inconsistent responses to thinning, the effect of CTR thinning on forest carbon stocks was case-dependent.  
69 However, few studies paid attention to how might CTR thinning impact forest carbon stocks (Li et al., 2021).  
70  
71 When estimating carbon stocks on a large scale, more attention has been paid to biomass estimation. However,  
72 the carbon stock is determined by multiplying the biomass with a carbon fraction value (Guerra-Santos et al.,  
73 2014; Nizami, 2012; Pan et al., 2011; Tang et al., 2018), which has long been assumed to be 50% (Fang et al.,  
74 2007; Zhang et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2015, 2017). Under such simplicity, many large-scale studies have  
75 estimated the national and global vegetation carbon stock (Fang et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2011), but the result  
76 varies. The estimates of the carbon sink of Chinese terrestrial ecosystem varies from 0.19 - 0.26 PgC year<sup>-1</sup>  
77 (Fang et al., 2018; Piao et al., 2009) to 1.11 PgC year<sup>-1</sup> (Wang et al., 2020). The under representation of survey  
78 data and the difference of methodology used could partially explaining this variation (Li et al., 2021). Besides,  
79 frozen carbon content observed in early 2000s (Lamloom and Savidge, 2003; Thomas and Malczewski, 2007)  
80 was also considered to be a non-negligible part of carbon content (Alvarez et al., 2014; Martin and Thomas,

81 2011; Thomas and Malczewski, 2007). Traditional carbon content is measured after the sample is oven dried.  
82 The high temperature could result in loss of volatile carbon, which is constituted by certain low molecular  
83 weight compounds, such as alcohols, phenols, terpenoids and aldehydes (Lamlom and Savidge, 2003). Frozen  
84 carbon content, however, is the carbon content measured after frozen-drying method. It is believed that  
85 freezing can maintain the volatile carbon content in wood sample, thereby avoiding misestimation. Frozen  
86 carbon content may vary substantially among tree species and increase the uncertainties in calculating carbon  
87 stock (Bert and Danjon, 2006; Lamlom and Savidge, 2003). Nevertheless, the variation of carbon content after  
88 thinning has rarely been examined and few studies take frozen carbon into account.

89  
90 The natural coniferous and broad-leaved mixed forest in northeastern China account for about one-third of the  
91 total national carbon stock and are crucial for China's climatic system (State Forestry and Grassland  
92 Administration, 2019; Wang, 2006): the net CO<sub>2</sub> sink during the 2007 growing season was 247 g C m<sup>-2</sup> (Wang  
93 et al., 2010). It is characterized by distinctive species composition and high biodiversity (Qian et al., 2019).  
94 Korean pine (*Pinus koraiensis* Siebold & Zucc) and Mandshurica ash (*Fraxinus mandshurica* Rupr.) are  
95 dominant tree species in this forest. They are also important components of the carbon stocks in northeastern  
96 China, because under continuing climate warming, the dominance of Korean pine was predicted to decrease  
97 and that of Manchurian ash might increase (Dai et al., 2013). Moreover, they are important timber and  
98 economic species, having optimal wood quality and huge economic value. Additionally, Korean pine is a  
99 conifer, and Manchurian ash is an angiosperm (Zhang, 2008), so they may have different responses to  
100 thinning disturbance. Meanwhile, research into 14 native tree species in northeast China found their volatile  
101 carbon value, which was calculated as the difference between frozen carbon content and oven-dried carbon  
102 content, was on average 2.2% (Thomas and Malczewski, 2007). Neglecting it would cause incorrect estimates

103 of C stocks by approximately 4~6% (Thomas and Malczewski, 2007). Thus, understanding how the carbon  
104 sequestration ability of the two species is affected by thinning with frozen carbon content considered is  
105 essential for evaluating how temperate mixed deciduous and evergreen forest will respond to forest  
106 management.

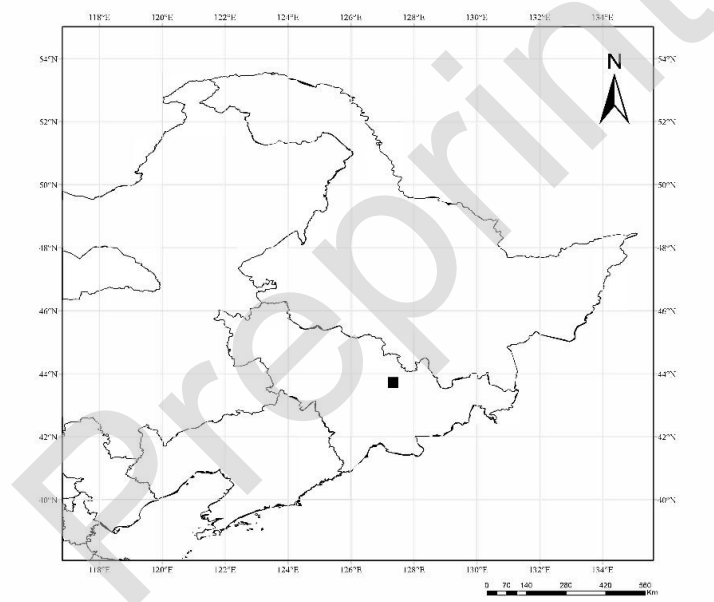
107  
108 The objective of this study is to investigate how the frozen carbon stocks of Korean pine and Manchurian ash  
109 would respond to CTR thinning in different intensities. The dominant species in temperate deciduous mixed  
110 forest, Korean pine and Manchurian ash, were studied to provide insight into the following questions: (1) how  
111 much carbon stock will be overestimated or underestimated if frozen carbon content is not taken into  
112 consideration before and after thinning? (2) Does an individual tree's ability to sequester carbon vary under  
113 different thinning intensities (light, medium, heavy, and no thinning), species, and tree size? Here, we take the  
114 frozen carbon content into consideration by measuring the frozen carbon content, and then quantify the carbon  
115 sequestration ability of trees by calculating individual stem carbon stock and annual carbon stock rate. Based  
116 on previous studies on thinning, forest carbon stocks and frozen carbon content, we hypothesize: (1) carbon  
117 stocks will be underestimated using conventional carbon content; (2) under light thinning the individual  
118 timber carbon stocks and its rate would be highest.

## 119 **2 Methods**

### 120 **2.1 Study area description**

121 The study area is located in the Jiaohe Management Bureau of the Jilin Province Forest Experimental Zone,  
122 northeastern China (43°57'~ 43°58'N, 127°43'~127°44'E, Figure 1). It is a temperate continental monsoon  
123 climate area. The mean annual temperature is 3.8°C; the average monthly temperature ranges from -18.6°C in  
124 January to 21.7°C in July. Mean annual precipitation is approximately 700~800mm. The forest soil is dark

125 brown, around 20~100cm deep (He et al., 2018). The vegetation type is coniferous and broad-leaved mixed  
126 forest. The dominant species are *Pinus koraiensis*, *Fraxinus mandshurica*, *Juglans mandshurica* Maxim.,  
127 *Acer mono* Maxim., *Tilia amurensis* Rupr., *Quercus mongolica* Fisch. ex Turcz. and *Carpinus cordata* Blume.  
128 According to the historical records, the last recorded timber harvesting activities took place during the 1960s  
129 when approximately 50% of the stock was extracted (Hao et al., 2018). The forest had been strictly protected  
130 from human activities since the launch of China's Natural Forest Protection Project in 1998. Commercial  
131 logging, hunting, and road construction are not allowed to limit human disturbance to a minimum (Geng et al.,  
132 2021).



133  
134 **Figure 1** The location of the study area

## 135 **2.2 Thinning treatments and plot inventory**

136 In July 2011, four permanent plots with a size of 1 ha (100 m × 100 m) were established for thinning. Sites  
137 with the same topographical conditions and similar community structures were chosen to establish plots to  
138 avoid uncertainty caused by the structural differences. The plots were distributed in field shape and were 100  
139 m apart. Before thinning, a pre-thinning inventory of trees >1 cm in diameter at breast height was carried out  
140 to investigate the forest condition. For the convenience of field inventory, each plot was divided into 25



141 continuous smaller quadrats (20 m × 20 m) using a total station. The species names of woody plants, diameter  
 142 at breast height (DBH), tree height (H), crown width, and spatial coordinates of all trees were recorded. All  
 143 these trees were numbered and tagged for long-term observation.

144

145 In December 2011, the four plots were designed to have CTR thinning in four intensities respectively: CK (no  
 146 thinning, 0% of basal area removal), LT (light thinning, 15%), MT (medium thinning, 30%), and HT (heavy  
 147 thinning, 50%). The smallest thinning DBH is 10 cm. The thinning aimed to maintain crop trees by removing  
 148 the nearest competing trees or unhealthy trees. Competition among canopies was released. Dominant species  
 149 like Korean pine and Manchurian ash are mostly retained considering their high economic value. After  
 150 thinning, the chopped trees were left in the plot to imitate the process of self-thinning, during which the dead  
 151 trees or fallen trees would stay in the forests, becoming coarse wood debris and providing habitats and  
 152 protection for various organisms such as insects and fungi (Bunnell and Houde, 2010; Khan et al., 2021). The  
 153 tree codes of fallen trees were recorded to calculate the actual thinning intensities, which are 0% (CK), 17.25%  
 154 (LT), 34.73% (MT) and 51.87% (HT) (Table 1). Four repeated plot inventories were done in July 2013, 2015,  
 155 2018 and June 2021, respectively.

156

**Table 1** The characteristics of four plots before and after thinning

Site	Stem-number	Total Basal Area	Average Individual	Thinned	Thinned Total	Thinned Individual
	(ha <sup>-1</sup> )	(m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Basal Area (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> tree <sup>-1</sup> )	stem-number (ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Basal Area (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Basal Area (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> tree <sup>-1</sup> )
	Pre- / post-thinning	Pre- / post-thinning	Pre- / post-thinning			
CK	1106 / 1106	30.07 / 30.07	0.0272 / 0.0272	—	—	—
LT	1044 / 958	29.47 / 23.43	0.0282 / 0.0245	86	6.04	0.0703
MT	1004 / 823	30.38 / 18.07	0.0303 / 0.022	181	12.31	0.0680
HT	1331 / 901	30.64 / 12.26	0.023 / 0.0136	430	18.38	0.0428

### 157 **2.3 Samples for annual growth measurement**

158 In 2017, tree cores are collected from four plots. Trees with crooked stems, substantial heart-rot, stem  
159 abrasion, fungal infections were not sampled. The increment core borer with a bit diameter of 5.15 mm was  
160 used to collect the tree cores. All the cores were sealed in plastic straws and taken back to the lab. Cores were  
161 mounted in wooden frames using water-soluble glue with the transverse surface facing up. The surface was  
162 sanded and polished using successively finer grades of sandpaper (100–1,000 grit size) until optimal surface  
163 resolution allowed annual rings visible. Tree-ring widths, which indicates the annual growth, were measured  
164 to within 0.001 mm, using the TSAP-Win program (version 0.59 Rinntech) and LINTAB TM6 measuring  
165 device (Rinntech, Heidelberg, Germany). All cores were cross-dated by matching patterns of relatively wide  
166 and narrow rings to account for the possibility of ring-growth anomalies (e.g.: missing or false rings) or  
167 measurement error (Fritts, 1976). The accuracy of assigned dates was further checked by the computer  
168 program COFECHA (Holmes, 1983). Tree-ring series poorly correlated with the master series or cannot show  
169 clear rings were removed from the final dataset. After removal, 114 cores of Korean pine (DBH:  $27.52 \pm 1.66$   
170 cm; mean  $\pm$  SE) and 164 cores of Manchurian ash (DBH:  $29.84 \pm 0.88$ cm) are qualified for future analysis.

### 171 **2.4 Samples for carbon measurement**

172 Cores used for measuring annual frozen carbon content were collected in the summer of 2018. They were kept  
173 with ice bags to minimize the loss of volatile carbon during transportation from field to laboratory (Gao et al.,  
174 2016). Since the plots don't allow large quantities of tree core collection after 2017 for the purpose of  
175 maintaining forest health, we only selected trees with  $DBH \geq 30$  cm, considering the large-diameter trees  
176 contribute more to the total carbon stocks. After cross-dating, 12 Korean pine cores and 14 Manchurian  
177 Ash cores were selected to measure frozen carbon content. For each core, annual tree segments from 1987-  
178 2016 (30 years) were separately excised with clean sharp razor blade under a stereo microscope. The oxidized  
179 tissue was removed considering it may have lost volatile carbon or been contaminated.

180

## 181 2.5 Chemical analysis

182 All segments were placed in open containers and dried by a vacuum freeze dryer (BiLon FD-1A-50) for more  
183 than 48 hours. The segments from the same year, same plot, and same species were mixed and kept in one  
184 centrifuge tube (2 mL) for the next step. They were ground into a homogenous fine powder using a Retsch  
185 MM20 (Germany) grinding machine with 2~4 steel balls (diameter=4 mm). Then, 2~3 mg sample powder  
186 from each year was transferred into a clean, dry tin container (a 5 × 9 mm cup, CHNOS) and weighted using a  
187 balance with 1/100,000 precision. Frozen carbon content (C, %) was measured by PE2400 SERIESII  
188 (Maryland, United States). Three replications were conducted for each sample and once outliers occurred,  
189 additional repetitions were tested to ensure accuracy.

## 190 2.6 Statistical analysis

### 191 2.6.1 Stand condition

192 The mean basal area at breast-height (BA [m<sup>2</sup>]) for Korean pine and Manchurian ash were calculated by  
193 Equation 1:

$$194 \quad \overline{BA} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\pi D_i^2}{40000}}{n} \quad (1)$$

195 where  $D_i$  [cm] is the diameter at breast height of individual tree  $i$  and  $n$  is the number of trees. Then, Equation  
196 2 was used to calculate the-mean diameter at breast height ( $D_g$  [cm]) for the two species:

$$197 \quad D_g = \sqrt{\frac{4}{\pi} \overline{BA}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

198 The proportion of one species in the plot is defined as BA of one species divided by BA of the whole plot.

199 These values are used to estimate the relative dominance of two species in the plots before and after thinning.

200

## 201 **2.6.2 Stem biomass allometric equations**

202 Here, we used the species-specific stem biomass (SB) allometric equations to estimate stem biomass of  
203 Korean pine and Manchurian ash (Equation 3 and Equation 4; Wang, 2006).

$$204 \log_{10}(SB) = 1.908 + 2.258 \log_{10}(D) \quad (3)$$

$$205 \log_{10}(SB) = 2.116 + 2.316 \log_{10}(D) \quad (4)$$

206 where  $D$  is diameter at breast height (cm). Using these equations, we estimated the individual stem biomass  
207 for 2011, 2013, 2015, 2018 and 2021 based on their diameter measured in plot inventory.

## 208 **2.6.3 Individual stem carbon calculation**

209 Individual stem carbon of 2011, 2013, 2015, 2018 and 2021 was calculated by multiplying the biomass with  
210 frozen carbon content of that year measured in section 2.5 (Equation 5). Since the frozen core were collected  
211 in 2018, the frozen carbon value of 2018 and 2021 used for calculation is the average of frozen carbon value  
212 of 2011, 2013, and 2015.

$$213 S_{ai} = C_a \times SB_{ai} \quad (5)$$

214 where  $S_{ai}$  is individual stem carbon of tree  $i$  of year  $a$ ,  $C_a$  (%) is frozen carbon content of year  $a$ ,  $SB_{ai}$  is stem  
215 biomass of individual tree  $i$  of year  $a$  and  $a$  can be 2011, 2013, 2015, 2018 or 2021. Then, conventional  
216 carbon stocks of 2011, 2013, 2015, 2018 and 2021 was calculated by multiplying the biomass with 0.5  
217 (Korean pine) or 0.48 (Manchurian ash) as the carbon fraction. 0.5 has been widely used as the conversion  
218 coefficient of biomass and carbon stocks (Fang et al., 2007, 2001; Murillo, 1997). However, the carbon  
219 content of broad-leaved trees is generally smaller than that of conifers, thus in this study, we used 0.48, a  
220 value suggested by IPCC, to be the conventional carbon fraction of Manchurian ash (IPCC,2006).

## 221 **2.6.4 Annual carbon stocks rate from 1987 to 2016**

222 Based on the DBH of 2015, we reconstructed historical tree diameters from 1987 to 2016. Also, the frozen  
223 carbon content of this 30 years was measured year by year according to section 2.5. Then, we estimated the

224 individual stem carbon stock of this 30 years using Equation 3, 4, 5. The difference of the carbon stocks of  
225 adjacent years of each tree was considered as annual carbon stocks rate [kg tree<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>]. For each year we  
226 take the average value of all cores in that plot to be the carbon stocks rate for that year.

### 227 **2.6.5 Average annual carbon increase calculation**

228 Individual stem carbon stocks for each tree of 2011, 2013, 2015, 2018 and 2021 can be calculated by Equation  
229 5. The individual stem carbon value of 2011 and 2021 was used to calculate average annual carbon increase  
230 during the 10 years after thinning according to:

$$231 \quad \bar{V} = \frac{SB_{2021} - SB_{2011}}{2021 - 2011} \quad (6)$$

232 where  $SB_{2021}$  and  $SB_{2011}$  are stem biomass of 2021 and 2011, respectively.

233 All analyses were conducted using R software version 3.4.5 (R Core Team, 2020) and figures were plotted  
234 using Sigmaplot 14.0.

## 235 **3 Results**

### 236 **3.1 The influence of CTR thinning on the stand structure**

237 After the stand structure adjusted by CTR thinning, Korean pine and Manchurian ash were at a more dominant  
238 position. Both Korean pine and Manchurian ash have a higher proportion of the basal area in the plot after  
239 thinning than before thinning (Table 2). They together compose more than 48% of the forest in the plot.

240 Before thinning, in the LT, MT, and HT plots, the proportions of the basal area of Korean pine were less than  
241 20%, but after thinning, the proportion reaches 20.3%, 26.1%, and 23.0% respectively. As for Manchurian ash,  
242 its proportion of the basal area increased to 34.3%, 28.0%, and 25.2% in the LT, MT, and HT plots.

243 Under four treatments, no Korean pine was cut, so its mean DBH didn't change after thinning (Table 3). The  
244 mean DBH of Korean pine in MT (33.12 cm) is larger than that in the other three plots (CK: 15.30 cm, LT:

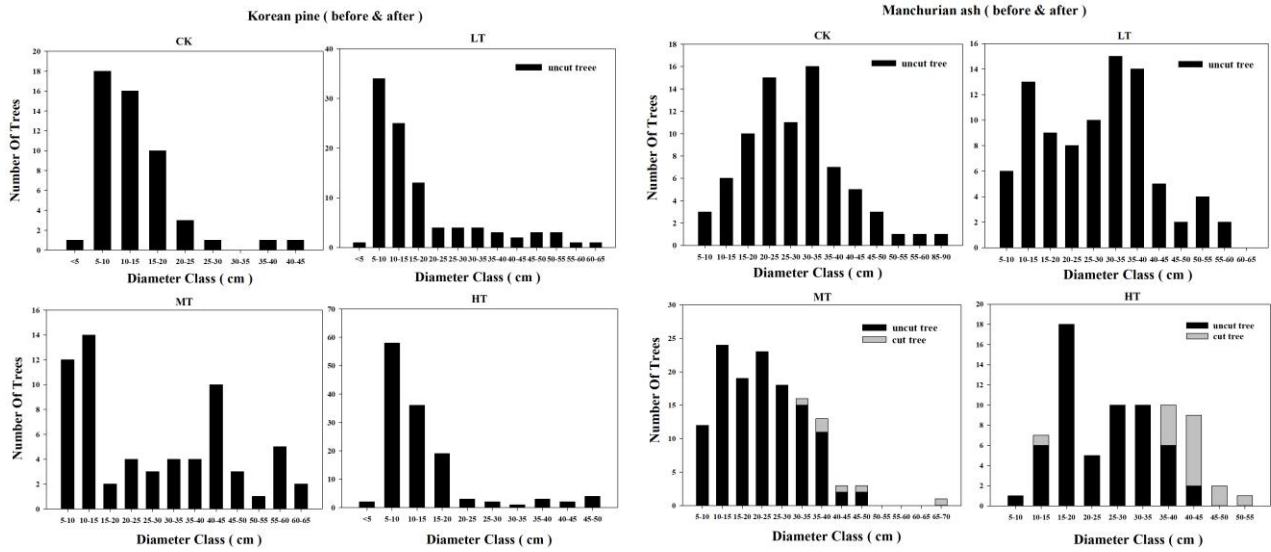
245 22.49 cm; HT: 16.64 cm; Table 2). Manchurian ash was cut only in MT and HT (Table 2). Before thinning,  
 246 the mean DBH of Manchurian ash is similar in CK, LT, and HT. After thinning, the mean DBH in MT and  
 247 HT are decreased to 24.47cm and 26.08cm and are lower than CK and LT. In both MT and HT, the removed  
 248 Manchurian ash belong to large diameter class (DBH > 30 cm). The detailed diameter class distributions of  
 249 four plots are shown in Figure 2.

250 **Table 2** The proportion of the basal area of Korean pine and Manchurian ash (%) before and after thinning

		Site			
		CK	LT	MT	HT
Species	Before	3.1	15.5	18.2	9.2
	After	3.1	20.3	26.1	23.0
Manchurian ash	Before	20.1	26.1	22.7	17.0
	After	20.1	34.3	28.0	25.2

251 **Table 3** Characteristics of Korean pine and Manchurian ash in four plots before and after thinning

Site	Species	Stem number	Mean diameter	Mean diameter	Basal area	Basal area
		Pre- / post-thinning (ha <sup>-1</sup> )	before thinning (cm) (±SE)	after thinning (cm) (±SE)	before thinning (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	after thinning (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )
CK		51 / 51	15.30(±1.03)	15.30(±1.03)	0.9377	0.9377
LT	Korean pine	98 / 98	22.49(±1.38)	22.49(±1.38)	3.8920	3.8920
MT		64 / 64	33.12(±2.23)	33.12(±2.23)	5.5123	5.5123
HT		130 / 130	16.64(±0.84)	16.64(±0.84)	2.8272	2.8272
CK		79 / 79	31.22(±1.40)	31.22(±1.40)	6.0458	6.0458
LT	Manchurian ash	88 / 88	30.81(±1.34)	30.81(±1.34)	6.5602	6.5602
MT		132 / 126	25.80(±0.95)	24.47(±0.88)	6.9033	5.9245
HT		75 / 58	29.80(±1.22)	26.08(±1.15)	5.2296	3.0975



253

254

**Figure 2** The diameter class distribution of Korean pine and Manchurian ash before and after thinning

255

### **3.2 The effects of different thinning intensities on carbon stocks**

256

#### **3.2.1 Frozen carbon stocks estimation**

257

Our study shows that using 0.5 as the carbon fraction of Korean pine will lead to underestimation of 282.8 kg

258

ha<sup>-1</sup>. Using 0.48 as the carbon fraction of Manchurian ash will lead to underestimation of 2921.9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>.

259

260

Before thinning, the underestimations of the carbon stocks of Manchurian ash in the four plots were similar,

261

ranging from 949.8 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in CK to 1171.8 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in LT. After thinning, the underestimation of carbon

262

stocks decreased with greater thinning intensities (Figure 3: LT > MT > HT). After light and medium thinning,

263

the underestimation of the carbon stocks of Manchurian ash was increased, while after heavy thinning, the

264

underestimation decreased. In CK, the underestimation of the carbon stocks of Manchurian ash even doubled

265

from 2011 to 2013 (Figure 3, 2011: 1902.2 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, 2013: 3913.9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>).

266

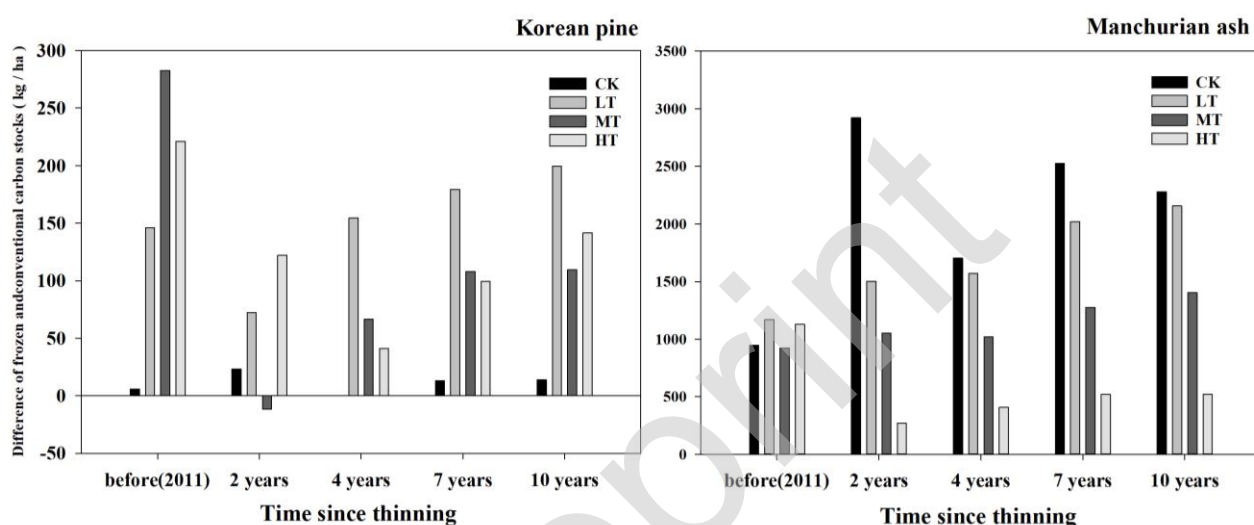
267

Compared with Manchurian ash, the conventional carbon fraction of 0.5 for Korean pine is more appropriate.

268

In MT, using conventional carbon fraction underestimated the carbon stocks of Korean pine in 2011 by 282.8

269 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> but overestimated its carbon stocks in 2013 by 11.6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Also, the misestimation of Korean pine  
 270 didn't show an obvious pattern with the intensity of thinning. However, after thinning, especially after light  
 271 thinning and during 2015-2018, the underestimation is enlarged (LT: 2015: 154.6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>; 2021: 199.6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>;  
 272 MT: 2015: 66.6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>; 2021: 109.6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>; HT: 2015: 41.2 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>; 2021: 141.6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>), so taking frozen  
 273 content into carbon estimation may be necessary when there is a thinning disturbance.



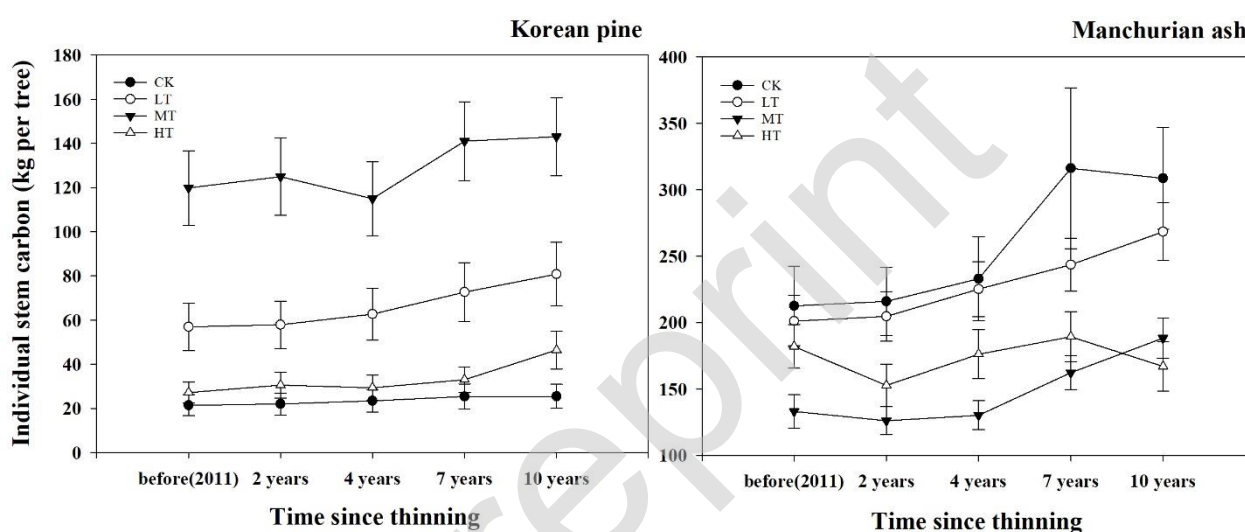
274  
 275 **Figure 3** The difference between frozen carbon stocks and conventional carbon stocks in four plots within 10  
 276 years after thinning

### 277 3.2.2 Individual stem carbon stocks

278 Thinning can influence carbon stocks at the individual level, and the effect varies with thinning intensities and  
 279 species. In CK, without thinning disturbance, the individual stem carbon of Korean pine in CK doesn't  
 280 increase much, from 21.4 kg in 2011 to 25.5 kg in 2021. With light thinning, the individual stem carbon of  
 281 Korean pine increases steadily during the 10 years after thinning, from 56.9 kg in 2011 to 80.8 kg in 2021  
 282 (Figure 4). In MT, the carbon stock decreased in 2013-2015, then increased during 2015-2021, reaching 143.1  
 283 kg. Under heavy thinning, Korean pine shows a similar pattern as CK in 2011-2018 and doesn't show an  
 284 increasing trend until 2018-2021 (Figure 4).



285 The individual stem carbon of Manchurian ash steadily increases from 2011 to 2018 in the CK plot without  
 286 thinning disturbance. Light thinning also leads to a steady increase of individual carbon stocks, from 201.1 kg  
 287 in 2011 to 268.4 kg in 2021. The average increase is 6.7kg year<sup>-1</sup>. In both MT and HT, the individual stem  
 288 carbon decreased a little in 2013, which can be attributed to the fact that large trees were removed in these two  
 289 plots (Figure 2). Nevertheless, in MT, the individual stem carbon soon made up the deficits and got the  
 290 surplus in 2015, while in HT, it never recovered to the pre-thinning level (Figure 4).



291  
 292 **Figure 4** The change of individual stem carbon stocks from 2011 to 2021 in the four plots. Mean  $\pm$  SE (error  
 293 bar) is given.

294 **3.2.3 The trend of annual carbon stocks rate from 1987-2016**

295 To further analyze how the annual carbon stocks rate changes with time and the effects of thinning, we  
 296 reconstructed the historic diameters through tree ring width. Then, we multiplied annual biomass growth,  
 297 which was calculated by allometric equations (Wang, 2016), with annual carbon content to get annual carbon  
 298 stocks. The difference between two adjacent years is identified as annual carbon stock rate.

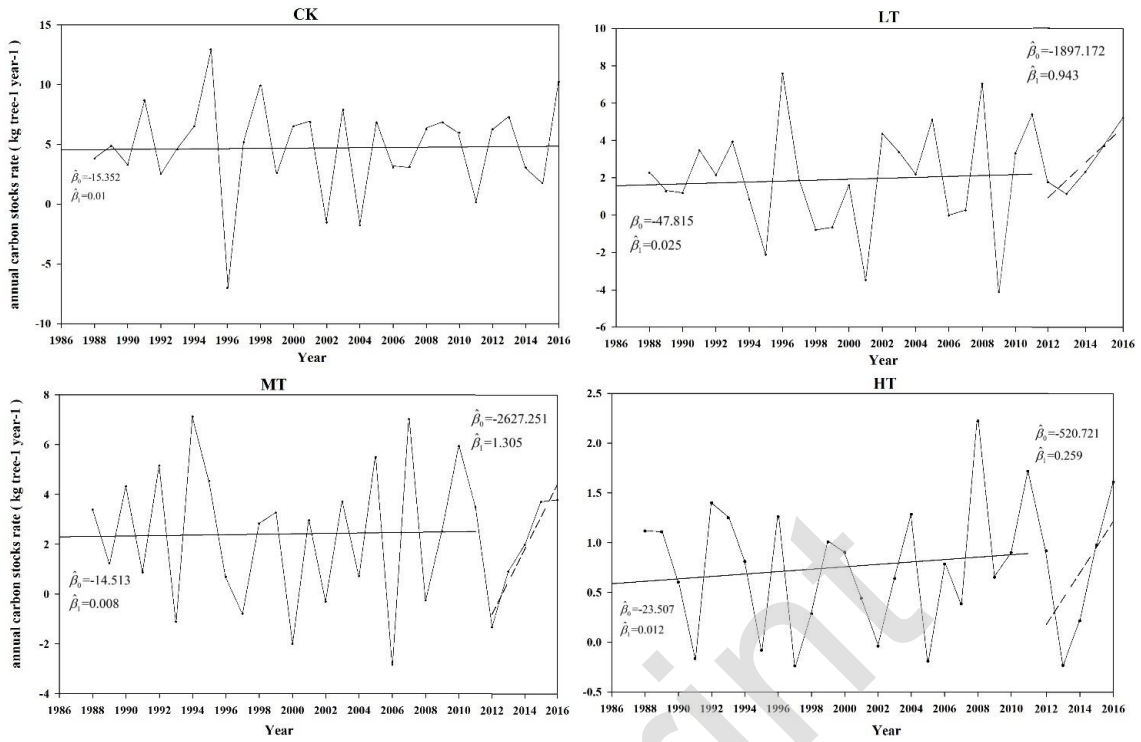
299

300 Usually, the annual carbon stock rate presents periodic variation. The annual carbon stock rate of Korean pine  
301 shows a continuous increasing trend during the five years after thinning. After light thinning, the annual  
302 carbon stock rate steadily increased from 1.8 kg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2012 to 5.2 kg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2016. In the MT plot, it  
303 increased from -1.3 kg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2012 to 3.8 kg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2016. In the HT plot, the annual carbon stock rate  
304 firstly decreased to -0.2 kg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2013 and then increased to 1.6 kg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2016. Before thinning (1987-  
305 2011), the annual carbon stock rate didn't show an obvious trend (Figure 5).

306

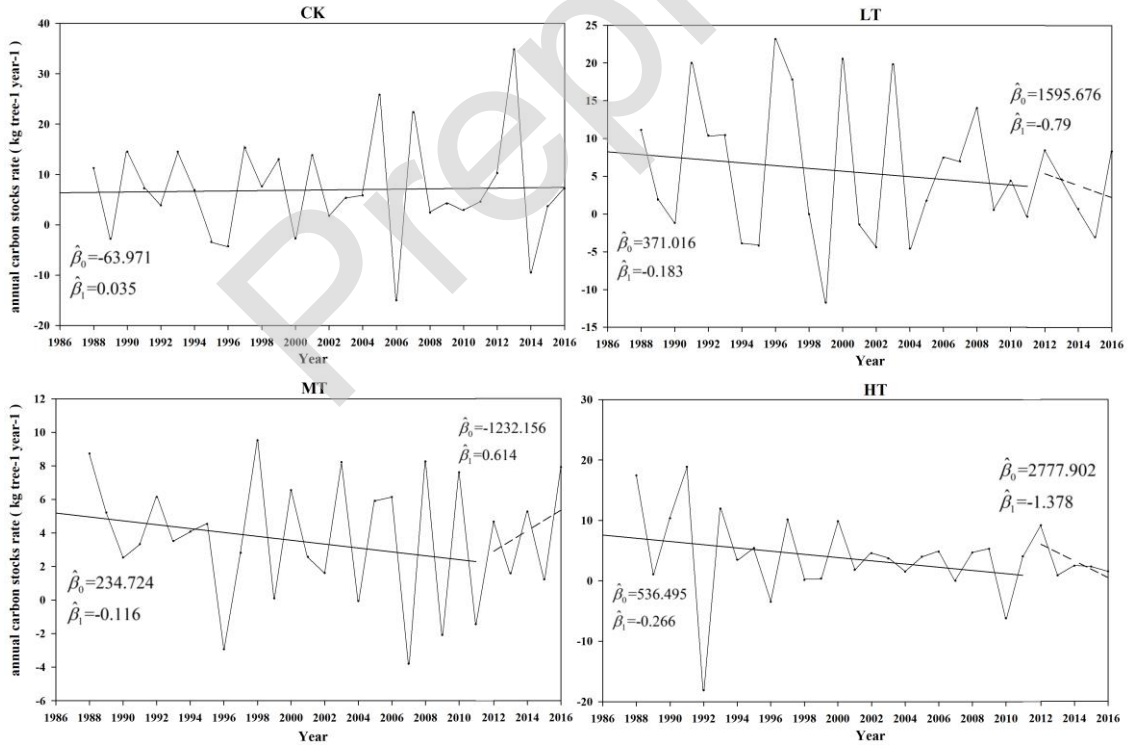
307 Manchurian ash shows a different pattern. Before thinning, the annual carbon stock rate of Manchurian ash  
308 presented a decreasing trend in the three thinning plots. Even though the trend in the CK plot is a slight  
309 increase, the slope is about 0. Thinning didn't change the decreasing trend except in the MT plot, and  
310 Manchurian ash in the LT and HT plot even showed a smaller slope after thinning (LT: before: -0.183, after: -  
311 0.79; HT: before: -0.266, after: -1.378). With the annual carbon stock rate rises undulating, Manchurian ash in  
312 the MT plot transited to have a positive slope after thinning (before: -0.116, after: 0.614). However, even if  
313 Manchurian ash presents a decreasing trend in annual carbon stock rate (Figure 5), it holds a higher amount of  
314 carbon stock than Korean pine, which shows its carbon sequestration value in the stand.

Korean pine



315

Manchurian ash



316

317

**Figure 5** The annual carbon stocks rate from 1987 to 2016 in four plots

318

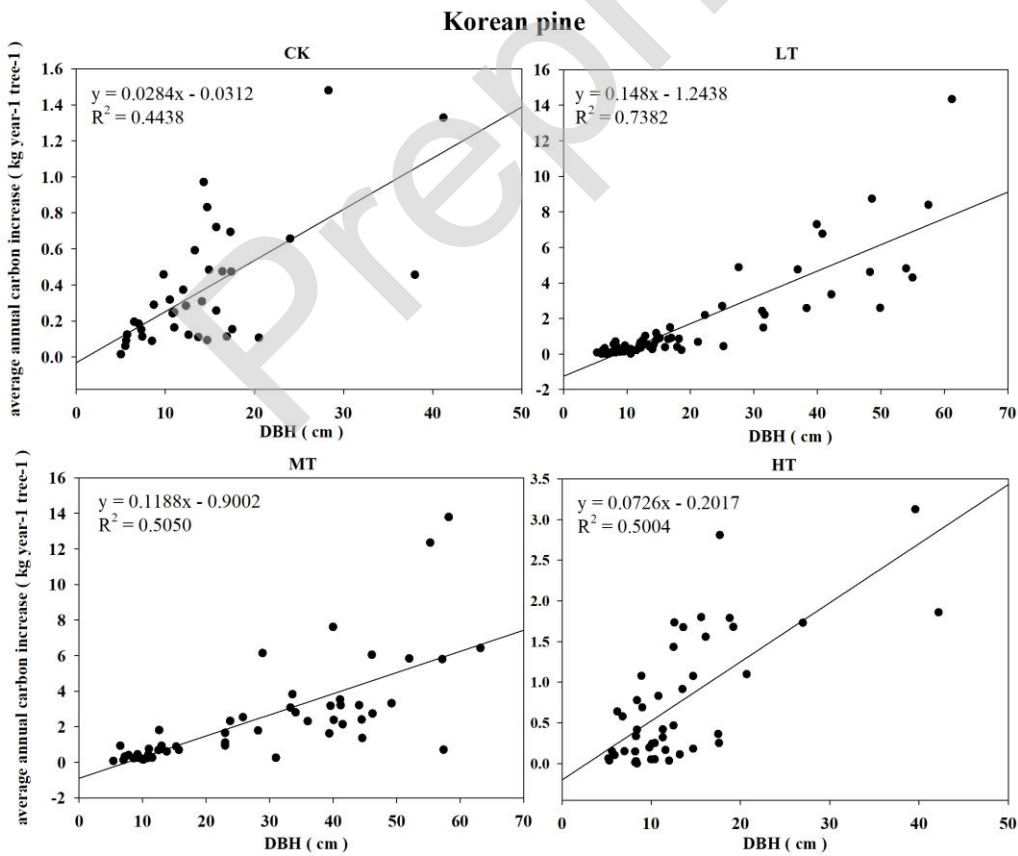
Note:  $\beta_0$  refers to the intercept,  $\beta_1$  refers to the slope of the fitted simple linear regression. Thinning was conducted in the

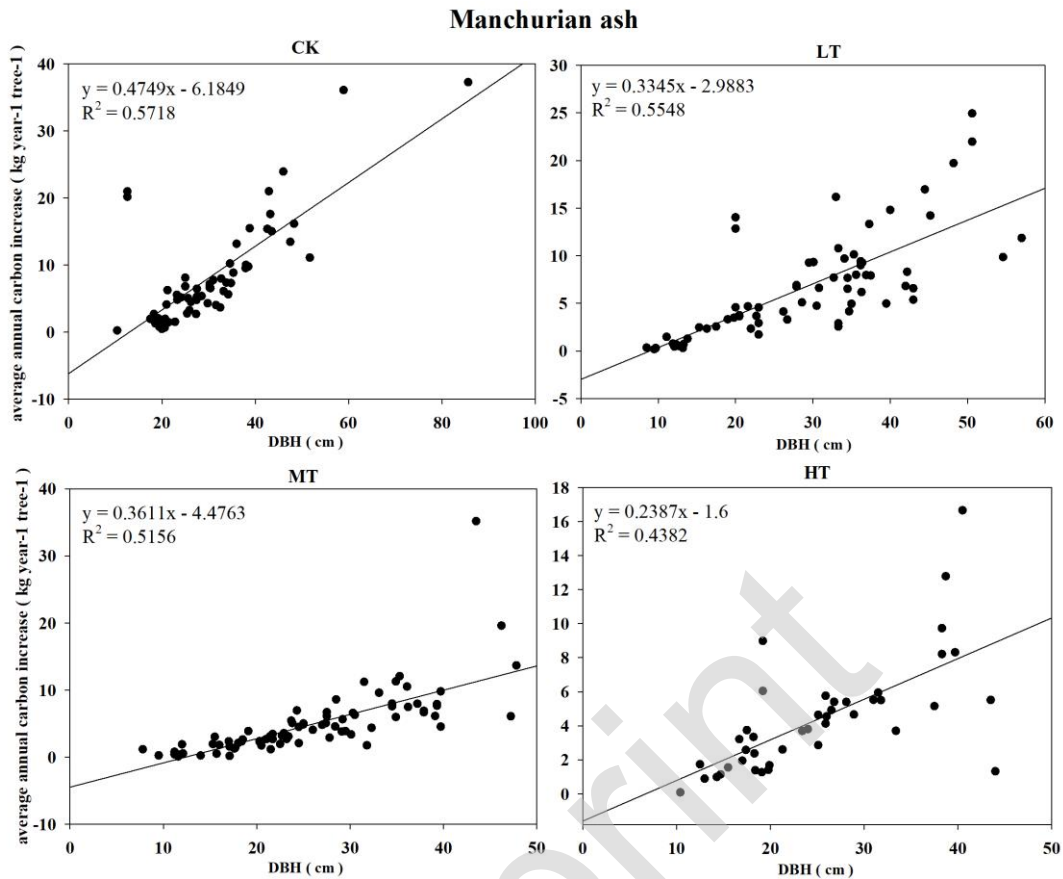
319

winter of 2011. The lines of dashes begin from 2012.

320 **3.3 The relationship between average annual carbon increase with diameter class**

321 Korean pine and Manchurian ash in different plots show the same trend with diameter class: the average  
322 individual stem carbon increase rate rises with the tree size. This shows that large size trees may have better  
323 carbon sequestration ability. Here, the slope of the regression line shows that in the same size class, how much  
324 individual stem carbon increase one can get. The slope in LT is highest (slope: LT: 0.148, CK: 0.0284, MT:  
325 0.1188, HT: 0.0726), which indicates that light thinning may be most beneficial for the accumulation of  
326 carbon of Korean pine in different diameter classes. Manchurian ash generally has a larger slope than Korean  
327 pine. Its largest slope is 0.4749 and occurs in the CK plot. The smallest slope is 0.2387 in HT. One interesting  
328 thing is that Manchurian ash remains fast growth speed in CK. This may attribute to the initial large mean  
329 diameter in CK, which is very competitive.





331

332 **Figure 6** The relationship between average annual carbon increase and diameter class between 2011 and 2021

## 333 4 Discussion

334 The objective of this study was to examine how CTR (crop tree release) thinning in different intensities would

335 influence frozen carbon stocks of Korean pine and Manchurian ash. The results showed that using

336 conventional carbon content will underestimate the carbon stocks of the two species, especially Manchurian

337 ash. In this study, the largest underestimation of Manchurian ash's carbon stock reaches 2921.9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Also,

338 thinning can impact stem carbon stocks at the individual level. The effect varies with thinning intensities,

339 species, and tree diameter. Finally, thinning may have long-term positive effects on the carbon stocks of

340 Korean pine but have negative effects on Manchurian ash by influencing its average carbon stocks rate.

341

342 Variation in carbon content can lead to inconsistency in carbon stocks estimation because carbon stock is  
343 determined by multiplying the biomass with the carbon content value (Guerra-Santos et al., 2014; Ma et al.,  
344 2018; Nizami, 2012; Wang et al., 2020). The conventional carbon fraction for Korean pine and Manchurian  
345 ash are considered as 0.5 and 0.48 respectively. However, this study found that using 0.48 as the carbon  
346 fraction of Manchurian ash will lead to the underestimation of carbon stocks reaching 2921.9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> and  
347 using 0.5 as the carbon fraction of Korean pine will lead to underestimation of carbon stocks reaching 282.8  
348 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Based on the inventory data of 2018, if one were to use conventional carbon content to estimate the  
349 carbon stocks of coniferous and broad-leaved mixed forest in northeastern China, this will lead to  
350 underestimation of 6.9 billion kg when no thinning occurs. When thinning in different intensities occurs, this  
351 will lead to underestimation of 7.1 billion (LT), 4.6 billion (MT), 2.0 billion (HT) kg respectively.

352

353 Thinning can influence the carbon sequestration ability of trees at the individual level, and the effect varies  
354 with thinning intensities and species (Figure 4). Light thinning was found to help both species maintain a  
355 stable individual stem carbon growth, yet Korean pine and Manchurian ash still have different responses to  
356 other thinning intensities. Thinning may promote individual stem carbon stock of Korean pine. During the 10  
357 years after thinning, Korean pine showed increases in individual stem carbon stock in different degrees, while  
358 in the CK plot, Korean pine didn't show an obvious trend (Figure 4). When examining the annual carbon stock  
359 rate from 1987 to 2016, one will find that Korean pine shows a continuous increasing trend during the five  
360 years after thinning (Figure 5). As for Manchurian ash, its individual stem carbon kept a steady rise after light  
361 and medium thinning but declined sharply at 10 years from its value at 7 years (Figure 4). Only in the MT plot,  
362 the annual carbon stock rate of Manchurian ash transferred from decreasing to increasing (Figure 5). The  
363 differential response of Korean pine and Manchurian ash to thinning offers some explanation to previous

364 inconsistent results about thinning's impacts on forest carbon stocks (del Río et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2018;  
365 Schaedel et al., 2017; Shuyong et al., 2017).

366

367 Since climate is also a potential influencing factor to carbon stock, the correlations between climatic factors  
368 and the annual carbon stock rate were examined. The result shows that carbon stock rate rarely has significant  
369 correlation with climatic factors at year level, such as annual average temperature, annual average  
370 precipitation, SPEI, extreme temperature, annual range of temperature etc. Only the annual maximum and  
371 minimum vapor pressure deficit (VPD) have significantly positive effects on carbon stocks. This is because  
372 low atmospheric VPD can promote stomatal aperture and stomatal conductance, thus increasing leaf and  
373 canopy photosynthetic rates (Wang et al., 2021; Yuan et al., 2019). The annual carbon stock rate have some  
374 significant correlations with climatic factors at monthly level, which is consistent with previous research (Yu  
375 et al., 2013). Generally, precipitation during the growing season has a positive effect on Korean pine. The  
376 annual carbon stock rate of Korean pine is positively correlated to monthly maximum precipitation (CK: April,  
377 October; LT: June). Manchuria ash, conversely, is more related to temperature. The monthly lowest  
378 temperature in winter has significantly negative effects on carbon stock rate (MT, LT: February; HT:  
379 September), while in spring and summer, the monthly annual temperature tends to have positive effect (HT:  
380 April, May; MT: May). Moreover, inconsistent correlation between climatic factors and annual carbon stocks  
381 rate in each plot indicates that other than climatic factors, the changes of microclimate or competition caused  
382 by thinning play much more important role in influencing carbon stocks.

383

384 Thinning not only influences forest carbon stocks through impacting tree growth and changing stand biomass  
385 but also by influencing carbon content. With the microclimate changed after thinning, the efficiency of carbon

386 sequestration may change (Wang et al., 2020), resulting in variation in annual carbon content. This study  
387 found that thinning can increase the water-use efficiency at the tree-level and stand-level especially in a  
388 drought year (Wang et al., 2020). Using analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare the carbon content of five  
389 years before thinning (2007-2011) and five years after thinning (2012-2016), we found that light thinning  
390 significantly increased the frozen carbon content of both species ( $P<0.05$ ). The 5-year average frozen carbon  
391 content of Korean pine increased from 50.62% to 51.43%, and that of Manchurian ash increased from 52.30%  
392 to 53.08%. Since light thinning is widely conducted in forest management (Geng et al., 2021), it is necessary  
393 to take frozen carbon content into account when thinning occurs. Interestingly, in CK without disturbance, the  
394 change of frozen carbon content resulted in the underestimation of the carbon stocks of Manchurian ash  
395 almost doubled (Figure 4, 2011: 1902.2 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, 2013: 3913.9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>). This further emphasizes that frozen  
396 carbon content should be considered in a wider range of scenarios, because natural factors like topography  
397 and the initial diameter class of tree can also influence the carbon fraction (Tang et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2019).  
398  
399 Initial diameter class can influence trees' response to thinning too. For example, Manchurian ash showed even  
400 faster individual stem carbon increase when there is no thinning disturbance (Figure 3). This may be attributed  
401 to the initial larger diameter class. Through analyzing the relationship between DBH and individual stem  
402 carbon increase rate, we found that Korean pine and Manchurian ash in different plots show the same trend:  
403 the individual stem carbon increase rate rises with the diameter class (Figure 6), which means large size tree  
404 could have a better carbon sequestration ability. This corresponds with previous research: Stephenson et al,  
405 2014 found that the aboveground tree mass growth rate (or, rate of carbon gain) is positively related to tree  
406 size (log(mass)) (Stephenson et al., 2014). Compared with Korean pine, Manchurian ash in this study  
407 generally has a larger diameter class and benefited less from thinning. Indeed, Manchurian ash had a



408 decreasing trend in its annual carbon stock rate after thinning (Figure 5). This indicates that when managing  
409 natural forests, we must consider the development stage of trees. For large-size mature or old trees, thinning  
410 may not have a large influence or may even have negative effects. The positive effects of thinning on tree  
411 growth and carbon sequestration may only occur at a certain stage or under certain weather (ex: drought)  
412 (Wang et al., 2020).

413

414 Forest management is considered to be a cost-effective measure for climate mitigation (Griscom et al., 2017).  
415 As a management tool, thinning influences stand structure, and the degree of misestimating also depends on  
416 the thinning method. In this study, we conducted CTR thinning to adjust density structure, release competition  
417 and provide a better environment to the large crop trees. Even the tree number is decreased, the large crop  
418 trees have the chance to achieve a faster carbon sequestration rate. Under such kind of thinning, the dominant  
419 species: Korean pine and Manchurian ash are almost left untouched, and their carbon sequestration ability was  
420 increased. This provides double benefits: the crop trees can provide high-quality wood products, which can  
421 store the carbon for 70-100 years and can offset the carbon emissions by fossil fuels (Lindroth et al., 2018;  
422 Finkral and Evans, 2008). Moreover, in this treatment, the fallen trees are left in the forests to imitate the  
423 natural self-thinning process and become coarse wood debris. Despite the small carbon efflux through the  
424 respiration of coarse wood debris, the complete degradation of coarse wood debris takes years to centuries.  
425 Even after degrading completely, certain amount of the carbon from wood debris would enter the soil,  
426 enhancing the soil carbon content. Thus, leaving the dead wood or fallen wood in the forests could contribute  
427 to the forest carbon sequestration (Gough et al., 2007; Magnússon et al., 2016). This indicates that forest  
428 management can benefit and augment forest carbon storage. Some have argued that proper thinning and

429 harvests may also bring climate benefits and that carbon-efficient uses of wood should be encouraged

430 (Bellassen and Luysaert, 2014; Churkina et al., 2020).

431

432 In this study, even though the annual carbon stock rate of Manchurian ash decreased in some years, it still

433 holds a higher amount of carbon stock than Korean pine. This emphasizes large trees contribute more to the

434 stand carbon stocks due to their fast growth and overall higher annual carbon stocks rate. Also, recent research

435 found that in temporal forest, large trees drive aboveground biomass and its gain and loss better than species

436 diversity and trait composition (Yuan et al., 2021). However, it's crucial to notice here that large tree is not

437 synonym for old tree. "Large tree" or "big-sized tree" can be defined as the largest 1% of trees  $\geq 1$  cm

438 diameter at breast height (DBH) or all trees  $\geq 60$  cm DBH depending on the diameter structure of the forest

439 (Ali et al., 2019; Lutz et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2021). Since one of the aim of CTR thinning is to keep forest

440 healthy and achieve sustainable use, large trees that are no longer in good condition, or trees that have become

441 "over-mature", showing a slowing or stopping growth rate are necessary to be removed. Forest managers are

442 encouraged to maintain those healthy large trees in the stand instead of cutting them down too early.

443 Therefore, it is essential to design silviculture plans under the consideration of species, age, climate, and

444 management goals. Indeed, in both mono-species and multi-species forests, there occur more and more

445 silvicultural prescriptions aiming at sustainable use of forests (Dore et al., 2012; Pretzsch and Zenner, 2017).

446 Exploring the carbon-friendly thinning strategies and the appropriate rotation is important for the carbon

447 budget of forests in northeastern China.

448

449 With the world asking for natural climate solutions and the carbon markets gradually being accepted, higher

450 accuracy in carbon estimation is required. Frozen carbon content should be considered for estimating forest

451 carbon stocks. Our hypothesis about using conventional carbon content may lead to misestimating and light  
452 thinning might promote carbon stocks is supported by the data from this study. Korean pine and Manchurian  
453 ash show different responses to thinning, which may help explain the inconsistent previous research results. In  
454 the future, with more data, we can continue to analyze how thinning would influence the carbon content of all  
455 the species in temperate deciduous mixed forest, to get a better idea of the carbon sequestration ability of this  
456 kind of forest.

457

## 458 **5 Conclusion**

459 This article investigates how the carbon sequestration ability of Korean pine and Manchurian ash would  
460 respond to CTR thinning in different intensities and considers the contribution of frozen carbon content. To  
461 quantify the individual carbon sequestration ability of trees, we calculate the individual stem carbon stock and  
462 annual carbon stock rate by combining plot inventory data and dendroecological methods. The results show  
463 that ignoring frozen carbon content may lead to underestimation of the carbon stocks of Manchurian ash by  
464 2921.9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. Using 0.5 as carbon content for Korean Pine may be more appropriate, but still can lead to  
465 underestimation of 282.8 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. The present findings confirm that using a uniform value may be an  
466 oversimplification and frozen carbon is an indispensable part of large-scale carbon stock estimation.  
467 Manchurian ash and Korean pine have different response patterns to CTR thinning. Light thinning was found  
468 to promote the carbon sequestration of both species and can even significantly increase the frozen carbon  
469 content of Korean pine. Despite the intensity, the initial tree diameter also matters. Large trees tend to have a  
470 higher individual stem carbon increase rate and contributes more to the stand carbon stocks. This study adds  
471 to a growing corpus of research showing that thinning could have the chance to promote forest sequestration if  
472 species, tree size, and intensity are all considered.

473 Future studies should consider the potential effects of frozen carbon content more carefully, and more  
474 experiments can be done to see what kind of thinning designs are beneficial to carbon sequestration. Small-  
475 scale carbon research focused on several species or locations can benefit large-scale estimation by offering  
476 field-based data and giving reference to ecosystem modeling. Accurate forest carbon measurement method  
477 can not only help elucidate the global carbon cycle under climate change, but also provide suggestions for  
478 sustainable forest management and ecological conservation. Forest conservation may not be the only allowed  
479 way in natural forest, proper management may also promote carbon stocks. It is essential to design silviculture  
480 plans under the consideration of species, size, climate, and management goals. Although this study is limited  
481 to the carbon stocks of two dominant species in temperate deciduous mixed forest in northeast China, the  
482 research methods of this paper expanded the scope of future research and will be helpful to accurately  
483 evaluate the dynamics of forest carbon reserves.

#### 485 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

486 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could  
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