

1 **Updated estimation of forest biomass carbon pools in China, 1977–2018**

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11

12 **Abstract.** China is one of the major forest countries in the world and the accurate estimation  
13 of its forest biomass carbon (C) pool is critical for evaluating the country's C budget and  
14 ecosystem services of forests. Although several studies have estimated China's forest biomass  
15 using national forest inventory data, most of them were limited to the period of 2004–2008. In  
16 this study, we extended our estimation to the most recent period of 2014–2018. Using datasets  
17 of eight inventory periods from 1977 to 2018 and the continuous biomass expansion factor  
18 method, we estimated that the total biomass C pool and average biomass C density in Chinese  
19 forests increased from 4717 Tg C (1 Tg =  $10^{12}$  g) in the period of 1977–1981 to 7975 Tg C in  
20 the period of 2014–2018 and 38.2 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> to 45.8 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> (1 Mg =  $10^6$  g), respectively,  
21 with a net increase of 3258 Tg C and an annual sink of 88.0 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>. Over the recent 10  
22 years (2009–2018), the average national forest biomass C density and C sink were 44.6 Mg C  
23 ha<sup>-1</sup> and 154.8 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, much larger than those of 39.6 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> and 63.3 Tg  
24 C yr<sup>-1</sup> in the period 1977–2008. These pronounced increases were largely attributed to  
25 afforestation practices, forest growth, and environmental changes. Our results have  
26 documented the importance of ecological restoration practices, provided an essential basis for  
27 assessing ecosystem services, and helped to achieve China's C neutrality target.

28 **Keywords:** Forest biomass; C sink; C density; China; Ecological restoration projects

29

## 30 **1 Introduction**

31 Terrestrial ecosystems carbon (C) sinks, which absorb approximately 30% of annual  
32 anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emissions, are mostly contributed by forests (Pan et al.,  
33 2011; Terrer et al., 2021). Globally, forests cover ~30% of the land area (Fahey et al., 2010;  
34 Guo et al., 2013), and sequester large amounts of C in woody biomass and soils (Pugh et al.,  
35 2019). Even small changes in the forest C pool could induce profound feedback on the  
36 climate system of the planet (He, 2012). Thus, forests play fundamental roles in regulating the  
37 global C balance and mitigating climate change (Pan et al., 2011; Harris et al., 2021).

38 China has a forest area of ~0.2 billion hectares, accounting for 5.51% of the global total  
39 forest and ranking fifth among countries (FAO, 2021). The forests in China are distributed  
40 over a wide range of climatic conditions and are diverse in forest types, which makes them  
41 unique for forest C cycle research (Fang et al., 2010). Meanwhile, China's forests especially  
42 planted forests are generally young with low biomass C density, implying a great C  
43 sequestration potential in the future (Xu et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2019). In 2020, the Chinese  
44 government announced a goal to achieving C neutrality by 2060, for which sequestering more  
45 C through forest C sinks have been regarded as an essential part of China's action plans (Yu et  
46 al., 2021). Therefore, accurate estimates of the forest biomass C pool and sink capacity are  
47 crucial for China's aim of reducing net greenhouse gas emissions (Xu et al., 2010) and in  
48 reaching national C neutrality.

49 However, there are several limitations in the previous studies. On the one hand, most of  
50 the estimates of China's forest biomass C pool (and the corresponding C sink) were based on  
51 the national forest inventory data no later than the 7<sup>th</sup> National Forest Inventory (2004–2008)  
52 (e.g., Fang et al., 1996, 2001, 2007; Fang & Chen, 2001; Xu et al., 2010; Guo et al., 2013;  
53 Zhang et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015). Nevertheless, China's large-area  
54 planted forests formed by extensive afforestation since the 1980s have just grown into the  
55 rapid-growing middle-aged stage in the most recent decade (2009–2018) (Lu et al., 2018),  
56 thus clarifying how China's forest C pool has changed since the 2010s is of vital importance  
57 to accurately evaluate the C sink formed by large-scale afforestation. Meanwhile, a  
58 four-decade long estimate of the forest C pool can also provide necessary information for  
59 exploring the driving mechanism of China's forest C sink and validating the conclusions from  
60 various models. On the other hand, the estimated C pool and/or sinks of China's forest  
61 differed considerably among their dedicated periods. For example, the estimate of the forest C  
62 sink during 1994–1998, ranged from -2.9 to 108 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (Fang et al., 2007; Zhang et al.,  
63 2013; Li et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2019). This large discrepancy could be due to limitations in

64 sample size and data representativeness, diversity of data sources, inconsistent  
65 biomass-volume fit relationships (Li et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2018), or particularly  
66 divergences in the methodologies. Therefore, it is necessary to adopt a unified and  
67 well-validated method to update the estimations of the forest biomass C pool at the national  
68 scale over the past four decades, especially the most recent decade (2009–2018), to fill gaps  
69 in our knowledge regarding China’s forest C pool and its changes.

70 In this study, we used eight national forest inventories compiled during the period 1977–  
71 2018, and conducted a well-validated biomass expansion factor (BEF) method to update the  
72 estimate of China’s forest biomass C pool. Three major aims of the study are to (1)  
73 objectively describe the long-term changes in China’s forest biomass C pool and C sink at the  
74 national scale, especially focusing on the changes in the most recent decade (2009–2018), (2)  
75 clarify the contributions of different forest zonal types, age-groups and forest stand origins to  
76 China’s forest biomass C pool and its changes, and (3) qualitatively evaluate the potential  
77 influencing factors of China’s forest C sink by comparing the changes in biomass C stocks in  
78 the most recent decade with those in the earlier 30 years (1977–2008).

79

## 80 **2 Methods**

81

### 82 **2.1 Methods for estimation**

83 Mean biomass density (MBD), remote sensing, and BEF are three common methods for  
84 estimating large spatial-scale forest biomass C stocks (Guo et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2013).  
85 The MBD method, defined as multiplying the mean biomass density value of each forest type  
86 by its area, is widely used to estimate the biomass C stocks at different spatial scales.  
87 However, because of investigators’ intentional tendencies to choose better-growing stands  
88 during forest censuses, the MBD method usually overestimates the C pool (Fang et al., 2006;  
89 Guo et al., 2010). The remote sensing method can provide the large-scale information of  
90 vegetation, while there are several inherent methodological issues that must be addressed,  
91 such as atmospheric and background noises, similar spectral characteristics of different  
92 vegetation, and saturation of signals in dense vegetation (Zhang et al., 2013). Different from  
93 the above two methods, the BEF method is based on the internal relationship between the  
94 biomass and timber volume of forests (Fang et al., 2002). By establishing proper regression  
95 models between biomass and timber volume, the BEF method can incorporate the effects of  
96 forest age, forest stand density, and forest site quality on biomass density, thus achieving

97 appropriate estimates of the forest biomass C pool (Fang et al., 2002; Guo et al., 2010). Thus,  
98 the BEF method has obvious advantages in estimating forest biomass at regional and national  
99 scales (Fang et al., 1998; Fang & Wang, 2001; Guo et al., 2010; Teobaldelli et al., 2009).

100 Here, we used the continuous BEF method suggested by Fang et al. (2001) to estimate  
101 China's forest biomass C stocks during 1977–2018, which is a well-validated approach that  
102 enables upscaling estimates from field plots to a regional level. In this approach, the BEF is  
103 calculated by the first-order derivative formula [Eq. (1)] using the ground survey data of  
104 forest volume, and then BEF is used to calculate biomass [Eq. (2)]:

$$105 \quad \text{BEF} = a + b/x \quad (1)$$

$$106 \quad y = \text{BEF} \cdot V \quad (2)$$

107 where  $x$ , and  $V$  are the stock volume density and stock volume of a forest type at a certain age  
108 in each province, and  $a$  and  $b$  are BEF function coefficients. BEF is the biomass expansion  
109 factor, and  $y$  is the biomass of a forest type at a certain age. The coefficients in Eq. (1) were  
110 retrieved from previous studies (Fang et al., 1998, 2002; Fang & Wang, 2001) (Table S1). A  
111 constant C conversion factor of 0.5 was used to convert biomass into C (Fang et al., 2001).

## 112 113 2.2 Data sources

114 Eight national forest inventory datasets compiled by the Chinese Ministry of Forestry  
115 Administration from 1977 to 2018 were used in this study. Forests' dominant tree species,  
116 area, timber volume, forest age, and stand origins were reported for all provinces. According  
117 to Fang (2000), five zonal forest types including cold-temperate coniferous, temperate  
118 coniferous, temperate deciduous broad-leaved, temperate/subtropical mixed, and evergreen  
119 broad-leaved are dominant tree species. To quantify age-related tree growth, forests were  
120 further divided into five subgroups: young, middle-aged, premature, mature, and overmature.  
121 Forest area and C stocks were calculated for each province. Chongqing Municipality, which  
122 was separated from Sichuan Province in 1997, was merged into Sichuan here. The detailed  
123 data of Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Macau are missing from the inventory datasets; thus, the  
124 calculations did not account for these three regions.

## 125 126 2.3 Data correction

127 Since 1994, the canopy coverage criterion of forests in the national forest inventory has  
128 been changed from  $>0.3$  to  $>0.2$ . We unified the criterion by adopting the power functions  
129 [Eqs. (3) and (4)] provided by Guo et al. (2013):

$$130 \quad \text{AREA}_{0.2} = 1.290 \times \text{AREA}_{0.3}^{0.995} \quad (R^2 = 0.996) \quad (3)$$

131  $CARBON_{0.2}=1.147\times CARBON_{0.3}^{0.996}$  ( $R^2=0.996$ ) (4)

132 where  $AREA_{0.2}$  and  $AREA_{0.3}$  are the forest areas ( $10^4$  ha) with canopy coverages of 0.2 and 0.3,  
133 respectively, and  $CARBON_{0.2}$  and  $CARBON_{0.3}$  are the biomass C pools (Tg C) with crown  
134 densities of 0.2 and 0.3, respectively.

135

### 136 **3 Results**

137

#### 138 **3.1 Forest biomass C pool and its changes**

139 The total forest biomass C stock, average biomass C density, and biomass C sink during  
140 1977–2008 were 5447 Tg C, 39.6 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup>, and 63.3 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Table 1). The  
141 corresponding values were 7525 Tg C, 44.6 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup>, and 154.8 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively,  
142 during 2009–2018, making an **increasing** C sink of 91.5 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (Table 1; Table S3).

143 **Compared with the forest biomass C pool during 1977–1981, it increased by 3258 Tg C**  
144 **(69.1%) during the four decades up to 2014–2018. The C density of forest biomass increased**  
145 **by 7.61 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> (19.9%) during 1977–2018 (Table 1, Figure 1). Meanwhile, the forest area**  
146 **increased by 41.0% from  $1.24\times 10^8$  ha during 1977–1981 to  $1.74\times 10^8$  ha during 2014–2018**  
147 **(Table 1). All these changes had led to a large C sink of 180.2 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2014–2018 (Table**  
148 **1, Figure 1). In addition, the forest biomass C pool varied considerably across the different**  
149 **periods. It was found to have decreased by 2.9 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> over 1994–1998, which was thought**  
150 **to have been due to the decrease in the area of natural forest from 1994–1998 (Table 1 and 2,**  
151 **Figure 1).**

152 The biomass C pools of planted forests and natural forests increased significantly during  
153 the study periods (Table 2). The biomass C pool of the planted forest increased from 250 Tg C  
154 in 1977–1981 to 1470 Tg C in 2014–2018. This indicated that biomass C sinks had an **average**  
155 **increase** of 33.0 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>. The biomass C density of planted forests increased from 15.6 Mg  
156 C ha<sup>-1</sup> during 1977–1981 to 28.3 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> during 2014–2018. **Compared with the previous**  
157 **three decades (1977–2008), the average biomass C density and C sink in the recent decade**  
158 **(2014–2018) increased by 4.6 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> and 10.0 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.** For natural forests,  
159 the biomass C pool increased in most timesteps during the study periods. Especially in the  
160 recent 10 years, the biomass C sink of natural forests has grown rapidly, indicating 100.8 Tg  
161 C yr<sup>-1</sup> during 2009–2013 and 128.1 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> during 2014–2018 (Table 2). **Compared with the**  
162 **previous three decades (1977–2008), the average biomass C density and C sink in the recent**  
163 **decade (2014–2018) increased by 7.8 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup> and 81.5 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.** From 1977  
164 to 2018, the increase in the biomass C pool of natural forests was 2037 Tg C, indicating C

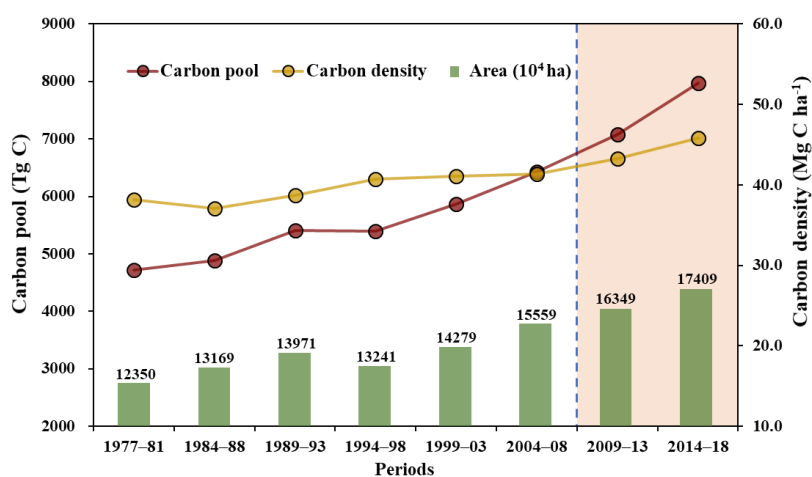
165 sinks of 55.1 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> on average.

166

167 **Table 1** Forest area, biomass C pool, C density, and C sinks from 1977 to 2018

Period	Forest parameter			
	Area 10 <sup>4</sup> ha	C pool Tg C	C density Mg C ha <sup>-1</sup>	C sink Tg C yr <sup>-1</sup>
1977–1981	12350	4717	38.2	
1984–1988	13169	4885	37.1	23.9
1989–1993	13971	5402	38.7	103.5
1994–1998	13241	5388	40.7	-2.9
1999–2003	14279	5862	41.1	94.9
2004–2008	15559	6427	41.3	112.9
<b>Average</b>				
<b>1977–2008</b>	<b>13762</b>	<b>5447</b>	<b>39.6</b>	<b>63.3</b>
2009–2013	16349	7074	43.3	129.4
2014–2018	17409	7975	45.8	180.2
<b>Average</b>				
<b>2009–2018</b>	<b>16879</b>	<b>7525</b>	<b>44.6</b>	<b>154.8</b>
<b>Overall change</b>				
<b>1977–2018</b>	<b>5059</b>	<b>3258</b>	<b>7.61</b>	<b>88.0</b>

168



169

170 **Figure 1** Changes in the area, biomass C pool, and C density of forests from 1977 to 2018.

171 The pink box highlights the results of the recent decade.

172

**Table 2** Area, biomass C pool, C density, and C sink of planted and natural forests

Period	Planted forest				Natural forest			
	Area	C pool	C density	C sink	Area	C pool	C density	C sink
	10 <sup>4</sup> ha	Tg C	Mg C ha <sup>-1</sup>	Tg C yr <sup>-1</sup>	10 <sup>4</sup> ha	Tg C	Mg C ha <sup>-1</sup>	Tg C yr <sup>-1</sup>
1977–1981	1595	250	15.6		10755	4468	41.5	
1984–1988	2347	418	17.8	24.1	10822	4467	41.3	-0.1
1989–1993	2675	526	19.7	21.6	11296	4876	43.2	81.9
1994–1998	2914	642	22.0	23.3	10326	4746	46.0	-26.2
1999–2003	3229	836	25.9	38.7	11049	5026	45.5	56.2
2004–2008	4000	1067	26.7	46.2	11559	5360	46.4	66.7
<b>Average 1977–2008</b>	<b>2794</b>	<b>623</b>	<b>22.3</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>10968</b>	<b>4824</b>	<b>44.0</b>	<b>33.0</b>
2009–2013	4665	1183	25.4	23.3	11685	5864	50.2	100.8
2014–2018	5193	1470	28.3	57.3	12212	6505	53.3	128.1
<b>Average 2009–2018</b>	<b>4931</b>	<b>1327</b>	<b>26.9</b>	<b>40.3</b>	<b>11948</b>	<b>6185</b>	<b>51.8</b>	<b>114.5</b>
<b>Overall change 1977–2018</b>				<b>33.0</b>				<b>55.1</b>

174

### 175 3.2 Changes in biomass C pools in different zonal forest types

176 Compared with 1977–2008, temperate coniferous forest, temperate deciduous  
177 broad-leaved forest and evergreen broad-leaved forest all presented larger area during 2009–  
178 2018. With the exception of the temperate deciduous broad-leaved forest, the C sinks of four  
179 of the five forest types increased in the recent 10 years (2009–2018) in comparison to 1977–  
180 2008 (Table 3). In particular, the biomass C sink of evergreen broad-leaved forests during  
181 2009–2018 was 84.6 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, which is much higher than the average C sink for the previous  
182 30 years (22.8 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, 1977–2008). The C pool of the evergreen broad-leaved forest  
183 reached 2747 Tg C during 2014–2018 (Table 3, Table S2). Overall changes in the biomass C  
184 pools from 1977 to 2018 indicated that, with the exception of cold-temperate coniferous  
185 forests, the biomass C pools of four out of the five forest types all increased. The largest  
186 increase took place in the evergreen broad-leaved forest (1463 Tg C), which had an average  
187 annual C sink of 39.5 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (Table S2). For more details about the area, C pool, C density  
188 and C sinks between 1977 and 2018, please refer to Table S2.



190 **Table 3** Area, biomass C pool, C density, and average C sink of different zonal forest types in  
 191 the recent decade compared to the previous 30 years\*

Zonal forest types	Periods	Area 10 <sup>4</sup> ha	C pool Tg C	C density Mg C ha <sup>-1</sup>	C sink Tg C yr <sup>-1</sup>
Cold-temperate coniferous forest	1977–2008 2009–2018	2080 1844	1461 1321	70.2 71.6	-8.2 11.3
Temperate coniferous forest	1977–2008 2009–2018	1125 1740	381 652	33.9 37.5	9.9 13.7
Temperate deciduous broad-leaved forest	1977–2008 2009–2018	3614 3714	1430 1730	39.6 46.6	26.2 19.5
Temperate/subtropical mixed forest	1977–2008 2009–2018	3989 3834	975 1308	24.4 34.1	12.6 25.7
Evergreen broad-leaved forest	1977–2008 2009–2018	2953 5748	1200 2515	40.7 43.7	22.8 84.6

192 \* The average C sink for the previous 30 years was calculated by dividing the difference  
 193 between the 2004–2008 and 1977–1981 C pools by 27. The average C sink over the recent  
 194 decade was calculated by dividing the difference between the 2014–2018 and 2004–2008 C  
 195 pools by 10.

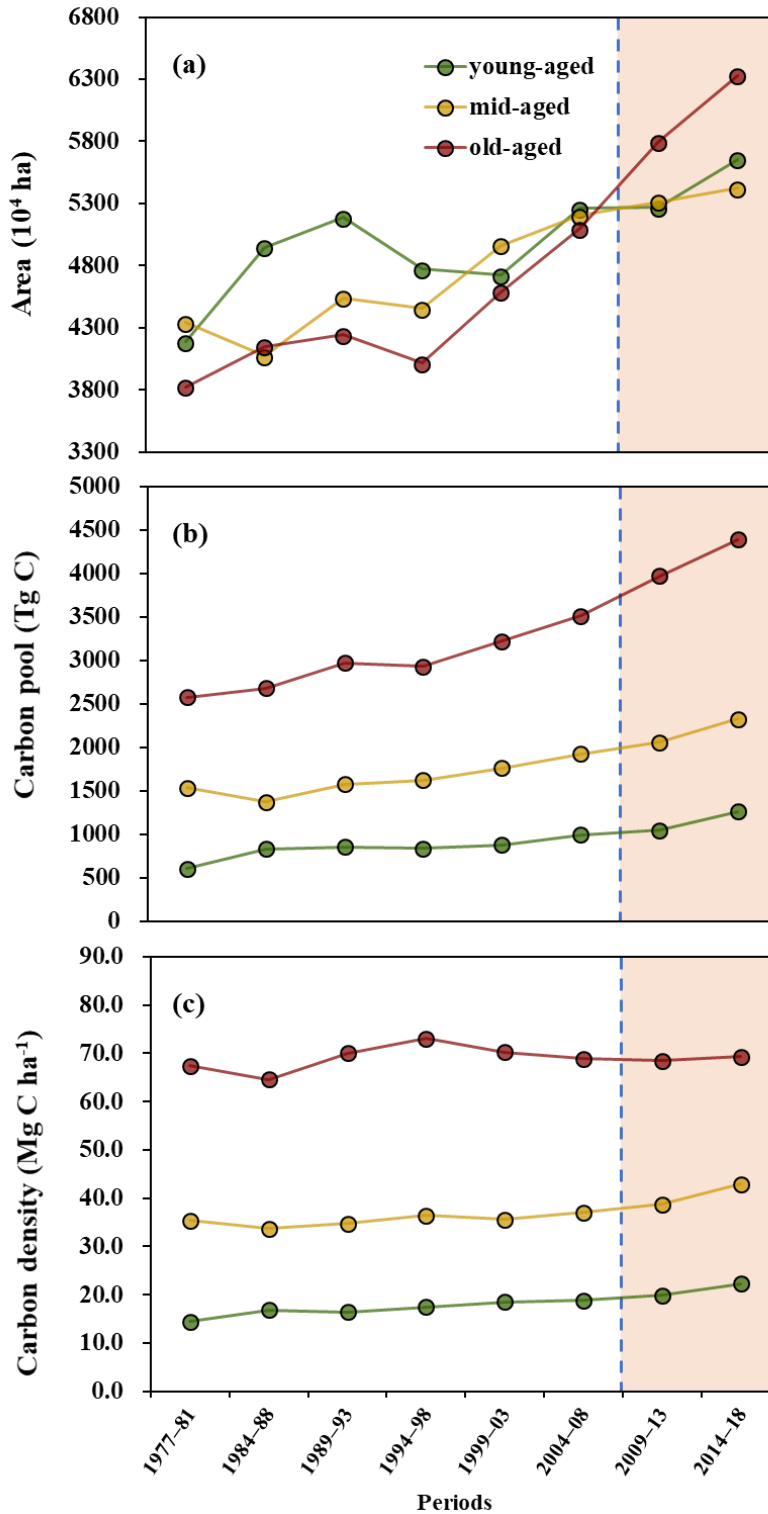
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### 197 3.3 Biomass C sequestration in different forest age groups

198 In the original national forest inventory, only three age groups were recognised, namely  
 199 young forests, middle-aged forests, and old-aged forests. In the subsequent inventories (after  
 200 1984), forests were categorized into five different age groups as we mentioned above (Table  
 201 S6). To facilitate the comparison of different periods, we grouped the premature forest, mature  
 202 forest, and overmature forest into one forest age group—old-aged forest. The young and  
 203 middle-aged forests remained unchanged. The 3 classes are aggregated from the 5 classes.

204 The growth rate by area and C pool of all forest age groups over the recent 10 years  
 205 (2009–2018) were higher than those for the previous 30 years (1977–2008). In addition, the  
 206 forest area and C pool for each age group reached the highest level recorded during 2014–  
 207 2018. The area and C pool of old-aged forests were both the largest, at  $6.33 \times 10^7$  ha and 4387  
 208 Tg C, respectively (Figure 2). The area of young, middle-aged, and old-aged forests increased  
 209 from 1977 to 2018 by  $1.47 \times 10^7$  ha,  $1.08 \times 10^7$  ha, and  $2.51 \times 10^7$  ha, respectively (Figure 2,

210 **Table S5**). Meanwhile, the C pools increased by 657 Tg C, 791 Tg C, and 1810 Tg C,  
 211 respectively (**Figure 2, Table S5**). The biomass C densities of young, middle-aged, and  
 212 old-aged forests increased by 7.9, 7.5, and 1.9 Mg C ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (**Figure 2, Table S5**).



213  
 214 **Figure 2** Changes in area (a), C pool (b) and C density (c) of forest for each age group from  
 215 1977 to 2018. The pink box highlights the latest results from the recent ten years.

216

## 217 4 Discussion

218

### 219 4.1 China's forest C sink size

220 National forest inventories provide the most comprehensive **statistical** and temporal  
221 datasets for investigating forest change. Using data from eight forest inventories including the  
222 most recent forest inventory period of 2014–2018, this study provided an updated estimate of  
223 **China's** forest biomass C pool, and obtained how it has varied over the last 40 years (1977–  
224 2018). Our results showed that the latest forest biomass C pool (7975 Tg C, 2014–2018) was  
225 much larger than 4717 Tg C from 1977–1981, with an increase of 3258 Tg C (69.1%), and  
226 accordingly, the C sink averaged 88.0 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>. **In particular, the biomass C pool increased**  
227 **by 154.8 Tg C per year during the period of 2009–2018, which was significantly higher than**  
228 **the average C sequestration rate of 63.3 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> in the earlier three decades (1977–2008). In**  
229 **summary, China's forests acted as a significant C sink in biomass during 1977–2018, while**  
230 **the C sink was further enhanced in the most recent decade.**

231 In terms of the order of magnitude, our estimates of biomass C stocks are comparable  
232 with those from previous studies (e.g., Fang et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2013; Li et al., 2015;  
233 Zhang et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2019, 2021), while there are some discrepancies between the  
234 size of the C pool in this study and those reported by others. In particular, most studies  
235 provided smaller estimates than ours in the periods prior to 1994 (Table S7). This may be due  
236 to methodological differences in the conversion of canopy coverage criteria. Some studies did  
237 not consider the shift from the old criterion (>0.3 canopy coverage) to the new criterion (>0.2  
238 canopy coverage), which led to shrinking forest areas and thus significant underestimation of  
239 the C pool in the earlier periods (e.g., Li et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2021). Others used a linear  
240 model proposed by Fang et al. (2007) to correct the inventory data (e.g., Zhang et al., 2013;  
241 Zhao et al., 2019, 2021), while the linear conversion equations would underestimate forest  
242 areas and biomass C stocks in the provinces with large amounts of forests (Figure S1).  
243 Obviously, these underestimates would inevitably induce previous studies to report higher C  
244 sinks than those of this study. Moreover, the divergences in BEF model parameters, root to  
245 shoot ratio, and C conversion factor would also contribute to the discrepancies among the  
246 estimates of C stocks, thus inducing the different C sequestration rates (e.g., Zhao et al., 2019,  
247 2021).

248 Despite the differences in the estimates of biomass C stocks and their changes, most  
249 previous studies, and this work all agreed that the average biomass C sink of China's forests

250 since the 1980s is approximately 100 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>. In addition, several studies based on field  
251 investigations pointed out that both the dead organic matter and soils in China's forest also  
252 functioned as C sinks over the past four decades, with average values of 6.7 and 57.3 Tg C  
253 yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Zhu et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2014; Fang et al., 2018). Together with the  
254 biomass C sink estimated in this study, it suggested that China's forest ecosystems would  
255 sequester approximately 100–200 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> in total over the last four decades. Recently, some  
256 studies based on “top-down” atmospheric inversions reported that the net land C sink of  
257 China could reach 0.8–1.1 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> during the 2010s, and suggested that this large sink was  
258 mainly attributed to forest ecosystems (Wang et al., 2020, 2022). However, according to the  
259 size of the forest C sink we mentioned above, that large C sink could not be supported by this  
260 and other studies based on field investigations including national forest inventories.

261

#### 262 **4.2 Potential influencing factors of biomass C sinks**

263 As we mentioned above, China's forests presented an enhanced biomass C sink in most  
264 provinces during the recent decade (Table S3). Further analyses of this study showed that the  
265 enhancement of the biomass C sink widely occurred in China's forests during 2009–2018  
266 (Table S3), although the enhancing extent would be different between forest stand origins or  
267 among forest zonal types/age-groups (Table 2, 3, S7). It has been demonstrated that forest  
268 area expansion and increased forest growth jointly contributed to the enhancement of China's  
269 forest C sink, in which area expansion contributed more to planted forests while forest growth  
270 was a great contributor to natural forests (Fang et al., 2014a; Li et al., 2016). This conclusion  
271 could also explain the enhanced C sink during the period of 2009–2018 observed in this study.  
272 Our results showed that between the 7<sup>th</sup> Forest Inventory (2004–2008) and the 9<sup>th</sup> Forest  
273 Inventory (2014–2018), the area of planted forest increased by 30% (from 0.40×10<sup>8</sup> to  
274 0.52×10<sup>8</sup> ha), while the C sink increased by only 24% (from 46.2 to 57.3 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) during the  
275 same period, indicating that area expansion is the main factor driving the enhanced C sink of  
276 planted forests (Table 2). In contrast, the area of natural forest increased by only  
277 approximately 6% (from 1.15×10<sup>8</sup> to 1.22×10<sup>8</sup> ha), but the corresponding C sink nearly  
278 doubled (from 66.7 to 128.1 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Table 2), suggesting that the enhanced C sink of  
279 natural forests is mainly contributed by forest growth rather than area expansion.

280 The area expansion of China's forest could be largely due to national ecological projects.  
281 Since the late 1970s, China has launched six key national ecological projects to restore  
282 degraded ecosystems, and to protect the country's environment (Lu et al., 2018). Within the  
283 framework of these projects, large-scale afforestation and reforestation have been conducted,

284 which contributed 71.2% of the total forest area expansion in China during 1977–2018 (Table  
285 2), resulting China having the largest planted forest area in the world (Guo et al., 2013; Lu et  
286 al., 2018). Obviously, such area expansion, which was mainly led by ecological projects,  
287 would promote the increase in the biomass C sink in China’s forests, especially in planted  
288 forests.

289 The increased growth in China’s forest could be due to several reasons. On the one hand,  
290 environmental changes (e.g., elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, climatic change, nitrogen deposition, etc.) may be  
291 an important reason for the increase in China’s forest growth over the recent decade (Piao et  
292 al., 2009a, b; Tian et al., 2011; Pan et al., 2011, 2013; Fang et al., 2014b; Liu et al., 2021). We  
293 noticed that differing from what happened in the old-aged forest, in which the C density  
294 remained roughly steady, the C densities in the young- and middle-aged forests showed a  
295 significant increase from 1977 to 2018, especially during 2009–2018 (Figure 2). A previous  
296 study pointed out that such an increase in the C density of the forest at an age-stage often  
297 means accelerated tree growth induced by environmental changes (Fang et al., 2014b).  
298 Meanwhile, after excluding the potential impacts from tree species and forest age, our  
299 regression analysis showed that the average C density presented significantly positive  
300 relationships with atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, mean annual temperature (MAT), and  
301 nitrogen deposition (Figure S2), which could also reflect the promoting effect of elevated CO<sub>2</sub>,  
302 rising temperature and increased nitrogen deposition on forest growth. Over the past four  
303 decades, China’s forests have experienced significant increases in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (Global  
304 Monitoring Laboratory, <https://www.gml.noaa.gov/>), MAT (China Meteorological Data  
305 Service Center, <https://data.cma.cn/data/index.html>) and nitrogen deposition (Eyring et al.,  
306 2013), which have increased from 342 ppm, 10.5 °C and 0.8 g N m<sup>-2</sup> during the first five  
307 years of the 1980s to 404 ppm, 11.6 °C and 1.4 g N m<sup>-2</sup> during 2014–2018, respectively. In  
308 particular, the annual mean growth rates of CO<sub>2</sub> and MAT in the most recent decade (2.29  
309 ppm yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.07 °C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) were greater than those in the previous three decades  
310 (1.68 ppm yr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.04 °C yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). All these changes would accelerate the growth  
311 of forests in China, and thus lead to the enhanced biomass C sink in the past 40 years,  
312 especially in the most recent decade.

313 On the other hand, the implementation of ecological projects could be another important  
314 reason for the increased forest growth in China. These projects implemented a series of forest  
315 management practices, such as forest enclosure, tending, and reduction of timber harvesting,  
316 to promote the growth of forests and achieved remarkable effects (Xu et al., 2017; Fang et al.,  
317 2018; Lu et al., 2018). For example, due to the illegal occupation of forestland and vast

318 excessive logging, China's natural forest experienced a sharp decline in the area during the  
319 period of 1994–1998 (Table 2) (National Forestry Administration, 2000). Although the stock  
320 volume density and C density continued to rise, the severely shrinking area induced  
321 reductions in forest stock volumes and C stocks (Table 2). Thus, the government launched the  
322 Natural Forest Protection project in 1998 (National Forestry Administration, 2000). As a  
323 result, the area and biomass C pool of natural forests increased greatly from  $1.03 \times 10^8$  ha and  
324 4746 Tg C during 1994–1998 to  $1.22 \times 10^8$  ha and 6505 Tg C during 2014–2018, respectively  
325 (Table 2). Meanwhile, in the recent decade, extensive young forests planted by these projects  
326 have gradually entered the middle-aged or premature stages, in which forests usually have  
327 rapid growth rates (Guo et al., 2013). Our results showed that during 1977–2018, the areas of  
328 middle- and old-aged forests expanded from  $4.3 \times 10^7$  and  $3.8 \times 10^7$  ha to  $5.4 \times 10^7$  and  $6.3 \times 10^7$   
329 ha, respectively (Figure 2, Table S5), suggesting that a large area of young forests entered a  
330 rapid growth stage with high C sequestration ability. The large C sinks brought by these  
331 forests could be an important source of power for China's forest C sinks after 2010 (Cai et al.,  
332 2021; Yu et al., 2021).

333

#### 334 **4.3 Effects of human intervention on forest C sink management**

335 In current forest C sink management, human intervention exists in many aspects, among  
336 which the most important is the cultivation of planted forest. Planted forests play a critical  
337 role in enhancing ecosystem services, absorbing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, and mitigating climate  
338 change (Fang et al., 2001; Li et al., 2018, 2019; Lu et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2018). In this  
339 study, we found that China's planted forest is an important C sink, acting as the main source  
340 of the forest C sink in nearly half of China's provinces (Table S4), and currently contributing  
341 more than 30% of the total forest biomass C sink across the whole country (Table 2). This  
342 result proved that afforestation indeed promoted the growth of China's forest C sink.

343 However, it could be easy to fall into the misunderstanding of using this result to prove  
344 the success of China's afforestation and further overemphasize its importance in forest C sink  
345 management. The national forest inventory only records the forest stands that are successfully  
346 established and last retained, thus the area of planted forest would be much less than the  
347 actual afforestation area. From 1977 to 2018, the cumulative afforestation area in China was  
348 approximately  $1.9 \times 10^8$  ha, nearly four times the current planted forest (National Forestry and  
349 Grasslands Administration, 2019a). This implied that most of the trees cultivated in  
350 afforestation projects have failed to survive to the current moment. This situation is  
351 particularly widespread in the vast arid and semi-arid regions of China. Compared with

352 natural forests, planted forests are more sensitive and vulnerable to drought stress because of  
353 their high transpiration rate, high plant density and low biodiversity (Isbell et al., 2015;  
354 Martin-Benito et al., 2010; Zhong et al., 2021). Therefore, planted forests in arid and semi-arid  
355 regions such as Northwest China generally present low survival rates due to frequent drought  
356 events (Cao et al., 2008, 2011; Wang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). Although people try to  
357 improve the survival rate of trees by selecting an appropriate afforestation method, choosing  
358 proper tree species, and cooperating with a series of management measures, such as the  
359 application of fertilizer and irrigation, tending operations, etc. (Liu et al., 2016; Zhou et al.,  
360 2013), it is still a significant challenge to achieve successful afforestation in the arid and  
361 semi-arid regions of China (Wang et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2019; Zhong et al., 2021; Zhou et al.,  
362 2013). Currently, most of the land available for afforestation in China is distributed in arid and  
363 semi-arid regions or other regions with poor site conditions (Zhang et al., 2018a), which  
364 would be bound to greatly decrease in the success rate of afforestation. Thus, the realizability  
365 of enhancing forest C sinks through large-scale afforestation must be carefully evaluated in  
366 the future.

367       Compared with the implementation of large-scale afforestation, our results suggested that  
368 enhancing the regeneration of old-growth forests, especially those in natural forests, would be  
369 of greater significance for the future management of forest C sinks. We noticed that from  
370 1977 to 2018, the biomass C density of old-aged forests generally remained stable (Table 2).  
371 This result suggested that the observed C sink of old-aged forests would mainly derive from  
372 their area expansion, i.e., the transformation from young- and middle-aged forests to old-aged  
373 forests, rather than forest growth. Due to the high mortality rate of old-growth trees, old-aged  
374 forests, especially overmature forests would even present a decline in C density, thus leading  
375 to a negative contribution to the C sink (Zhao et al., 2021). Therefore, for old-aged forests, it  
376 is necessary to properly adopt practices such as thinning, selective cutting, sanitary cutting,  
377 and reforestation (Zhao et al., 2021) to maintain a healthy state, avoid C release caused by the  
378 large-scale death of trees, and promote their regeneration to function as a significant C sink.  
379 This would be critical for the maintenance and management of forest C sinks. Of course, such  
380 artificial regeneration practices would inevitably remove biomass C from forests, but it does  
381 not mean an equivalent amount of C release because C in harvesting timbers is often turned  
382 into deposited C in wood products, e.g., furniture, house building, instruments, etc., which  
383 could exist for tens or even hundreds of years (Skog, 2008; van Deusen, 2010; Zhang et al.,  
384 2018b), providing sufficient growth time for young trees after regeneration. However, it  
385 should be noted that several studies have found that ageing forests could still maintain rising



386 C densities, although their biomass C accumulation rates gradually decreased (Cao et al.,  
387 2012; Luysaert et al., 2008; Yue et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2014). Thus, the adoption of  
388 artificial regeneration practices in old-aged forests also needs to be carefully evaluated to  
389 avoid unnecessary C release.

390

#### 391 **4.4 Uncertainty of estimations**

392 The estimation involved in the study is presented with some uncertainties. In general, the  
393 national forest inventory data were assumed to have small errors of less than 5% (Fang et al.,  
394 2001). The survey accuracy of the forest area and timber volume was over 90% (National  
395 Forestry and Grasslands Administration, 2019b). The method used to calculate biomass from  
396 surveyed stand volume data, and the  $R^2$  of the BEF function [Eq. (1) and (2)] of the dominant  
397 tree species was higher than 0.80 (Table S1), suggesting that our estimates of forest biomass  
398 were statistically reliable. Previous studies have shown that the estimated error of forest  
399 biomass at the national scale using the BEF function is unlikely to exceed 3% (Fang & Chen,  
400 2001; Fang et al., 1996, 2002). **A constant C conversion factor of 0.5 may introduce a**  
401 **systematic error of -5.9%–2.5% (Ma et al., 2020).** Despite these uncertainties, the results of  
402 this study provide relatively high accuracy and a comprehensive assessment of the forest C  
403 budget.

404

#### 405 **5 Conclusions**

406

407 In this study, we estimated forest biomass C storage and its changes in China over the  
408 past 40 years (1977–2018) and updated their estimates in the most recent decade (2009–2018)  
409 using the biomass expansion factor method and eight national forest inventories conducted  
410 every five years. We concluded that the Chinese forest biomass C pool increased by 3258 Tg  
411 C with an annual C sink of 88.0 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup> from 1977 to 2018. The biomass C pool and C sink  
412 in the recent 10 years (7525 Tg C and 154.8 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, 2009–2018) were much higher than  
413 those of the previous 30 years (5447 Tg C and 63.3 Tg C yr<sup>-1</sup>, 1977–2008), although the C  
414 sink strength displayed large variations in different periods. Afforestation practices, forest  
415 growth, and environmental changes were proposed as the main drivers of this significant C  
416 increase especially in the recent decade. Our study updates the previous estimates of **China's**  
417 forest C storage and its changes and provides an essential basis for policy-making for  
418 ecosystem services and the carbon neutrality target in China.

419



420 **Author contribution**

421 JY Fang and C Yang designed the study, C Yang and Y Shi analysed the data, ZD Guo  
422 provided part of datasets, WJ Sun, Y Shi, JL Zhu, CJ J, YH Feng, SH Ma, and JY Fang wrote  
423 the manuscript and gave final approval for publication.

424

425 **Competing Interest**

426 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
427 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

428

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433

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