

1 **Effects of forest management intensity and climate change severity on volume growth, timber yield,**
2 **carbon stocks, and the amount of deadwood in Scots pine, Norway spruce and silver birch stands in**
3 **boreal conditions**

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53 Abstract:

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55 We studied how management intensity and climate severity affect volume growth, timber yield, carbon
56 stocks, and the amount of deadwood in Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* (L.), Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) Karst.)
57 and silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.) dominated stands in the Republic of Karelia and Arkhangelsk region
58 of northwest Russia. Using the forest ecosystem model (SIMA) under different climates (current and
59 representative concentration pathway scenarios, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5), no-thinning, low, medium, and high
60 intensity thinning rotational forestry regimes were simulated. Under RCPs, the volume growth and timber
61 yield (5-53%), carbon stocks (1-22%), and deadwood amounts (11-75%) increased for all Scots pine and silver
62 birch stands. The use of low intensity management increased volume growth and carbon stocks (3-16%) and
63 deadwood amount (up to 60%) under RCPs, but not timber yield ($\pm 3\%$) in these stands. For Norway spruce
64 stands, the volume growth (5-26%), timber yield (23-75%), and carbon stocks (5-15%) decreased under
65 RCP8.5, but deadwood amount increased (up to 142%). Intensive management increased volume growth (4-
66 19%), timber yield (4-63%), carbon stocks (up to 14%) and deadwood amounts (up to 49%). Our results
67 highlight that effects of climate severity and management intensity are site and species-specific for Eurasian's
68 boreal forests.

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70 Keywords: Boreal tree species, ecosystem carbon stock, deadwood, timber yield, volume growth.

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75 1. Introduction

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77 With 30% of the world's forest area, boreal forests have a large potential in provisioning multiple ecosystem
78 services (Gauthier et al. 2015), including biodiversity, timber, recreation, and climate change mitigation
79 through sequestering and storing carbon from the atmosphere. A variety of studies have assessed the effects
80 of climate change on dynamics of boreal forests of northern Europe (e.g. in Finland) and the provisioning of
81 ecosystem services under various environmental conditions and management regimes (Tikkanen et al. 2012;
82 Mazziotta et al. 2014; Leppä et al. 2020; Shanin et al. 2021; Triviño et al. 2023). However, few studies have
83 addressed such impacts in boreal forests of Russia, which account for 20% of global growing stock (FAO and
84 UNEP 2020) and have a large timber production and carbon sink capacity (Leskinen et al. 2020;
85 Schepaschenko et al. 2021).

86 Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* (L.)), Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) H. Karst.), Silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.)
87 and Downy birch (*Betula pubescens* Ehrh.) are economically the most important tree species in boreal forests
88 of continental Europe. Currently, their growth is limited by a relatively short growing season (typically from
89 May to August), low summer temperatures, and the supply of nutrients (Hyvönen et al. 2007). Under a
90 changing climate, in addition to the warming and lengthening of the growing season, increasing atmospheric
91 CO₂ concentration may also increase the growth of forests regardless of tree species (Ellsworth et al. 2012;
92 Kellomäki et al. 2008, 2018). However, e.g. in southern Finland, the climatological growing environment has
93 already been optimum for Norway spruce and near to optimum for Scots pine (Kellomäki et al. 2018). While
94 deciduous tree species (e.g. birches) are expected to benefit the most from climate warming (Kellomäki et
95 al. 2018).

96 Overall, the provisioning of ecosystem services is affected by different factors such as prevailing
97 environmental conditions (climate, site), the magnitude of projected climate change, forest structure (age,
98 tree species composition), and forest management intensity as well as natural disturbances (Briceño-Elizondo
99 et al. 2006a, b; Alrahahleh et al. 2017, 2018; McDowell et al. 2020). Provisioning of a variety of ecosystem

100 services in managed forests may also have both synergies and trade-offs (Díaz-Yáñez et al. 2021). For
101 example, forest carbon stocks positively correlate with the amount of deadwood, which is an important
102 biodiversity indicator as boreal forests accommodate numerous saproxylic (deadwood demanding) species
103 (Tikkanen et al. 2007; Stokland 2012). In turn, carbon stocks and deadwood amounts are negatively affected
104 by timber harvesting (Triviño et al. 2015; Pohjanmies et al. 2017; Díaz-Yáñez et al. 2021).

105 In boreal forests of continental Europe, northwest Russia is unique in that it retains large intact areas of
106 primary forests (Yaroshenko et al. 2001). In such forests, timber harvesting has been noted to entail
107 biodiversity loss (Naumov et al. 2018). It is assumed that increasing forest management intensity in other
108 forests will reduce the need to harvest primary forests (Shorohova et al. 2019; Dobrynin et al. 2021).
109 However, forest management practices in northwest Russia have typically relied on use of clear-cuts followed
110 by natural regeneration without site preparation (Senko et al. 2018). Artificial forest regeneration with
111 planting of seedlings and site preparation, and use of pre-commercial and commercial thinning, have been
112 less common (Karjalainen et al. 2009; Nordberg et al. 2013). Interest in implementing higher intensity
113 silvicultural practices, like those used in Finland and Sweden, has been increasing in northwest Russia, due
114 to expected increases in merchantable timber yield and its economic profitability (Senko 2021). Yet, there
115 are no systematic studies available on how use of higher intensity management together with the impacts of
116 climate change may affect the volume growth, timber yield, ecosystem carbon stocks and the amount of
117 deadwood in different boreal tree species stands in northwest Russia. This knowledge is important, as
118 depending on the magnitude of climate change, prevailing environmental conditions, and forest structure
119 (age, species), different and even opposing forest management measures may be needed.

120 This study assessed how forest management intensity, and climate change severity, affect volume growth,
121 timber yield, ecosystem carbon stocks, and the amount of deadwood in boreal Scots pine, Norway spruce,
122 and silver birch dominated stands grown on medium fertile site types in the Republic of Karelia and
123 Arkhangelsk region of Russia. Forest ecosystem model (SIMA) simulations were performed at the stand level
124 using i) no-thinning with final felling, ii) low or iii) medium intensity pre-commercial thinning together with
125 commercial thinnings, and final felling (all cases), following regional forest management recommendations

126 in Russia. Additionally, for comparison, iv) high intensity pre-commercial thinning together with commercial
127 thinning and final felling, following forest management recommendations for Finnish forestry was used in
128 simulations. A current climate (reference period of 1986-2005) and changing climates using representative
129 concentration pathways, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios by 2100 were utilized. We expected that there may
130 exist large differences in tree species-specific responses to forest management intensity and climate change
131 severity, affecting volume growth, timber yield, carbon stock and the amount of deadwood.

132

133 2. Materials and methods

134 2.1 Outline of the forest ecosystem model

135 A gap-type forest ecosystem model (SIMA, Kellomäki et al. 2008, 2018) was used to simulate the
136 development of tree stands under different forest management intensities and climate projections. In the
137 model, the annual diameter growth of trees is influenced by maximum (potential) diameter growth and
138 environmental growth multipliers. Maximum diameter growth is calculated based on tree diameter and the
139 atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentration (for details, see Appendix A1), while environmental
140 conditions determine if diameter growth is either restricted (multiplier <1) or allows for maximum diameter
141 growth (multiplier = 1) based on species-specific responses to temperature sum (degree days > 5°C) of the
142 growing season (April to September), light availability within a stand (along a vertical light gradient), soil
143 moisture, and nitrogen availability within a stand (for details, see Appendix A1 and Fig. A1).

144

145 Tree height is calculated based on tree diameter and temperature sum of the growing season under the
146 current climate to consider genotype differences in height to diameter ratios of trees at different latitudes
147 (for details, see Appendix A1). Tree mass of foliage, branches, stem, and roots is calculated based on tree
148 diameter. The probability of tree mortality is affected mainly by stand basal area and density in addition to
149 the maximum age of trees. Independently, if no growth occurs for two consecutive years (induced by

150 environmental growth multiplier responses), the probability of mortality increases (for details, see Appendix
151 A1). Upon tree mortality, the mass of foliage and roots is accounted for as soil organic matter (litter), while
152 depending on tree species, branch and stem mass remain as standing deadwood for a given number of years
153 (dependent on probability, stem diameter, and environmental conditions contributing to stem mass decay),
154 prior to being transferred to soil organic matter.

155 At the beginning of simulations, the properties of a tree stand are described in terms of tree species, with
156 the number of trees per hectare in each diameter class of each tree species. The initial amount of soil organic
157 matter (and carbon) and the nitrogen available for growth are given based on the site fertility type and
158 regional temperature sum of the current climate. In the simulations, forest management may include control
159 of stand density with pre-commercial and commercial thinning, final felling (clear-cut), and planting of
160 seedlings with desired spacing and tree species. Timber is harvested, using minimum stem diameters of 16.5
161 and 6 cm for sawlog and pulpwood. The model simulations are carried out with a time step of one year on
162 an area of 100 m², based on the Monte Carlo technique (i.e. certain events, such as the birth and death of
163 trees, are stochastic events and only the mean tendency of many iterations is considered).

164 The model has been originally developed for Finnish conditions and validated against measured values of
165 volume growth in National Forest Inventory plots of Finland and predicted values of volume growth with the
166 empirical growth and yield model Motti (Hynynen et al. 2002) for the main boreal tree species of Finland (see
167 Kellomäki et al. 2008, Routa et al. 2011a, b, 2012). The maximum diameter growth and height growth models
168 of SIMA (see Appendix A1) have earlier been calibrated in the study of Ulianova (2018) for northwest Russia
169 with growth and yield table data for unmanaged stands of Scots pine, Norway spruce, and silver birch (see
170 Appendix A1). As a result of this calibration, simulated height and diameter of different tree species differed
171 by less than 12% from corresponding values reported in growth and yield data (Ulianova 2018). Based on
172 this, we assume that SIMA model can simulate reasonably well the development of boreal tree species stands
173 in the Republic of Karelia and the Arkhangelsk region of northwest Russia.

174

175 2.2 Description of study locations, layout for model simulations, and data analyses

176 Stand level simulations were conducted for stands located at the Medvezhegorskoe forest district of the
177 Republic of Karelia (northern site location) and the Cheremushkoe forest district of the Arkhangelsk region
178 (southern site location) of Russia, belonging to the middle and southern boreal vegetation zones (Bonh et al.
179 2000; 2003). Three climate alternatives were used in the simulations to correspond to specific climatic
180 conditions of the northern and southern site locations: A current climate (CU, reference period 1986-2005),
181 and two climate change scenarios representing moderate (RCP4.5) and severe (RCP8.5) climate change.
182 Climate change scenarios were represented by multi-model mean projections (% change in temperature,
183 precipitation, and atmospheric CO₂ sums based on a standard spatial grid of 1°x 1°) extracted from 15 general
184 circulation models (GCMs) under representative concentration pathway forcing scenarios of the Climate
185 Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) for 2005-2100 (IPCC, 2013). Within each climate scenario,
186 annual monthly data (temperature, precipitation, and atmospheric CO₂) was grouped within four distinct
187 time periods: the reference period 1986-2005, an early 21st century (2005-2045), a mid-21st century (2046-
188 2065), and an end 21st century period (2080-2100). CU data for mean monthly temperature, precipitation
189 sums, and variation by month was derived from two meteorological stations representing the northern
190 (63.27°N, 33.42°E) and southern (61.27°N, 46.72°E) locations. For RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, the annual monthly
191 temperature and precipitation sums were created based on their percentage deviations from CU, using the
192 same standard deviations established under CU to represent natural variation in climatic means. Transient
193 annual climate projections were then created from linearly fitted mean temperature and precipitation values
194 for the four time periods to form a continuous period for each climate projection (CU, RCP4.5, and RCP8.5).
195 Based on RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 reference periods, the annual mean temperature may increase by 2.25-3.70°C
196 (4.5-7.4 °C), precipitation by 19-33% (114-191 mm), and atmospheric CO₂ concentration by 48-123% (172-
197 442 ppm) by 2080-2100, compared to CU (Table 1).

198

199 (Table 1)

200

201 In this simulation study, forest site types corresponded to medium fertile mesic heath site types (Myrtillus,
202 MT) with a field capacity of 25% and wilting point of 5% (e.g. Kellomäki et al. 2018) and sample plot data
203 represented seedlings of 5 to 14 years in age (e.g. Gromtsev et al. 2003). Upland medium fertility forest site
204 types were used in the simulations, as they were equally suitable environments for the studied tree species,
205 allowing for comparison of tree species responses to different forest management alternatives and climates
206 at northern and southern site locations. Initial composition of naturally regenerated stands consisted of a
207 mixture of tree species and tree sizes that were managed to favor either Scots pine, Norway spruce, or silver
208 birch in pre-commercial thinning (Table 2). The amount of deadwood (mortality induced standing and fallen
209 trees) included only the deadwood formed during the simulation period, as information on initial deadwood
210 amounts were not available for stands at the beginning of the simulations.

211

212 (Table 2)

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214 The forest management alternatives used in the simulations employed site location- and tree species-specific
215 treatments representing different management intensities, and rotation lengths present at the northern and
216 southern site locations. Management alternatives included: i) no-thinning (NT) with final felling, ii) low (MK,
217 MA1) or iii) medium (MA2) intensity pre-commercial thinning and commercial thinning with final felling,
218 following regional forest management recommendations in Russia, and iv) high intensity (MF) pre-
219 commercial thinning and commercial thinning with final felling, following forest management
220 recommendations of Finland (e.g. Äijälä et al. 2019) (Table 3). The NT alternative represented a commonly
221 used practice at both site locations. Management regimes with low intensity pre-commercial thinnings (MK,
222 MA1) were also simulated for both areas, while management regimes with medium (MA2) intensity pre-
223 commercial thinnings were available and simulated only at the southern site. Treatments were initiated
224 according to the age of the stand and its basal area. In pre-commercial thinning, seedlings of non-target tree

225 species were removed from overly dense seedling stands to achieve the desired stand density targets (stems
226 ha^{-1}). Giving preference to either Scots pine, Norway spruce, or birch seedlings effectively removed multi-
227 species components of managed stands during pre-commercial thinning. In commercial thinning, living trees
228 with the lowest breast height diameter (cm) were removed until the desired basal area of the target species
229 (predominantly Scots pine, Norway spruce, or silver birch) and management objectives were met (Table 3).
230 In NT stands, high initial stocking of the target tree species (Table 2) combined with reduction of non-target
231 tree species stocking density through high natural mortality (i.e. stem exclusion) decreased or removed
232 entirely tree species mixtures by the end of the simulations.

233 Simulation results were analyzed for each study stand in terms of mean gross annual volume growth ($\text{m}^3 \text{ha}^{-1}$
234 yr^{-1}), total harvested timber yield ($\text{m}^3 \text{ha}^{-1}$, pulpwood and sawlogs) from thinnings and final felling, mean
235 forest ecosystem (tree and soil) carbon stock (Mg ha^{-1}), and the mean deadwood amount (fallen and standing
236 volumes resulting from tree mortality, tons ha^{-1}) over the simulation period. Current climate (CU) was used
237 as a reference for comparison of results for each tree species between climates for different forest
238 management regimes used at the northern and southern site locations. MK and MA1 were used as a
239 reference for comparison of results between management regimes under each climate at each site location.

240

241 (Table 3)

242

243 3. Results

244 3.1 Volume growth

245 Under the current climate, the mean annual volume growth of Scots pine, Norway spruce, and birch stands
246 were at northern and southern site locations in the ranges of $4.9\text{-}7.1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and $7.7\text{-}10.8 \text{ m}^3 \text{ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$,
247 respectively, depending on management regime (Figs. 1 and 2). Volume growth of Scots pine (dominated)
248 stands increased under the RCPs by 28-47% and 10-21% at the northern and southern site locations,

249 compared to current climate, depending on management regime (Figs. 3 and 4). In Norway spruce
250 (dominated) stands, volume growth increased by 10-14% under RCP4.5 and decreased by 5-13% under
251 RCP8.5 at the northern site location (Fig. 3), while decreases of 4-26% were found at the southern site
252 location under both RCPs (Fig. 4). In birch (dominated) stands, volume growth increased by 33-53% and by
253 32-41% at the northern and southern site locations under RCPs (Figs. 3 and 4).

254 Compared to MK at the northern and MA1 at the southern site location, volume growth of NT was 4-12%
255 higher for Scots pine stands across all climates, being slightly higher at the northern site location (Figs. 3 and
256 4). Negligible differences in volume growth of Scots pine stands were found between MF and MK at the
257 northern site location, while MF was 6-11% lower and MA2 displayed minor differences compared to MA1
258 at the southern site location, regardless of climate. For Norway spruce stands, volume growth of NT was 3-
259 12% higher compared to MK at the northern site location across climates, while for the southern site location,
260 MA1 remained at the same approximate level as MA1 under CU and RCP4.5 and decreased (4%) under
261 RCP8.5. For MF and MA2, volume growth of Norway spruce was higher (up to 19%) compared to MK and
262 MA1. In birch stands under NT, volume growth increased by 6-19% and 13-15% at the northern and southern
263 site locations, compared to MK and MA1, regardless of climate. For MF, volume growth decreased by 8-10%
264 and 13-14% at the northern and southern sites across climates, compared to MK and MA1.

265 3.2 Timber yield

266 Timber yields of Scots pine, Norway spruce, and silver birch stands were at northern and southern site
267 locations in the ranges of 146-550 m³ ha⁻¹ and 266-601 m³ ha⁻¹, respectively, under CU and depending on
268 management regime (Figs. 1 and 2). Timber yields increased under the RCPs in Scots pine stands by 21-38%
269 and 5-19% at the northern and southern site locations, compared to current climate, and to a lesser degree
270 under RCP8.5 at both site locations (Figs. 3 and 4). In Norway spruce stands, timber yield increased under
271 RCP4.5 at the northern site, but otherwise decreased across management regimes at northern and southern
272 sites, with the largest decreases (23-75%) observed under RCP8.5 (Figs. 3 and 4). In birch stands, timber yield

273 increased by 20-44% at northern and southern site locations along with the increasing severity of climate
274 change.

275 When comparing timber yield of NT to MK and MA1, NT had 20-56% lower timber yields, regardless of climate
276 and tree species with the largest decreases found in Norway spruces stands under RCP8.5 at northern and
277 southern site locations (Figs. 3 and 4). Timber yield of MF and MA2 generally increased for Scots pine and
278 Norway spruce across climates, compared to MK and MA1. This was particularly evident for Norway spruce
279 at the northern site location under RCP8.5 (56%) and at the southern site location under both RCP4.5 and
280 RCP8.5 (10-63%). In birch stands, use of MF and MA2 displayed minor timber yield differences compared to
281 MK and MA1, regardless of climate and site location (Figs. 3 and 4).

282 3.3 Ecosystem carbon stocks

283 Under the current climate, ecosystem carbon stocks of Scots pine, Norway spruce, and birch stands were at
284 the northern and southern site locations in the range of 58-97 tons ha⁻¹ and 67-113 tons ha⁻¹, respectively,
285 depending on management regime (Figs. 1 and 2). Carbon stocks were in Scots pine stands under RCPs 12-
286 19% and 1-9% higher at the northern and southern site locations, compared to CU. In Norway spruce stands,
287 carbon stocks increased only at the northern site location under RCP4.5. Under RCP8.5, decreases were
288 observed at both site locations with the largest decreases found with low intensity management (NT),
289 especially at the southern site location (Figs. 3 and 4). For birch stands, carbon stocks increased at both site
290 locations under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 with the largest increases found at the southern site location (20-44%).
291 Carbon stocks were for Scots pine and birch stands higher among lower intensity management (NT and MF)
292 compared to MK and MA1 at northern and southern site locations, regardless of climate (Figs. 3 and 4).
293 However, this was not the case for Norway spruce stands at the southern site location under RCP8.5, where
294 MF resulted in slightly higher carbon stocks than MA1 (Fig. 4).

295 3.4 Deadwood

296 The total amount of dead standing and dead fallen trees of Scots pine, Norway spruce, and birch stands was
297 in the range of 4.5-24.7 tons ha⁻¹ and 4.1-24 tons ha⁻¹ at the northern and southern site locations under the

298 current climate (Figs. 1 and 2). In Scots pine stands, deadwood amount increased by 11-46% under RCPs at
299 both site locations, compared to the current climate. At the northern site location, the amount of deadwood
300 for Norway spruce stands increased by 10-28% and 54-142% under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, whereas it decreased
301 at the southern site location under both RCPs. For birch stands, the amount of deadwood was 25-75% higher
302 under RCPs at both site locations.

303 Management intensity affected the amount of deadwood to a large degree. Regardless of climate, for NT the
304 amount of deadwood was for Scots pine stands 124-205% larger than for MK and MA1, at both site locations.
305 For Norway spruce stands, NT displayed 45-191% larger amounts of dead wood at both site locations than
306 MK and MA1. While for birch stands, the amount of deadwood under NT was 89-176% larger than for MK
307 and MA1, depending on site location. With increasing management intensity for Scots pine and birch stands
308 under MA2 and MF, deadwood amounts were typically lower (up to 60%) than for MK and MA1, at both site
309 locations. At the southern site location, the amount of deadwood was for MA2 larger compared to MF for
310 Scots pine and birch stands, regardless of climate. For Norway spruce stands at the northern site location,
311 the amount of deadwood for MF was 12-59% larger than for MK across climates. The opposite was found to
312 occur at the southern site location, where the amount of deadwood was for MF and MA2 lower than for
313 MA1, regardless of climate (Figs. 3 and 4).

314 (Fig. 1)

315 (Fig. 2)

316 (Fig. 3)

317 (Fig. 4)

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319

320 4. Discussion and Conclusions

321 High intensity rotational forestry, analogous to common management practices applied in Finland and
322 Sweden, is often conveyed as the most prudent option for managed forest stands in boreal continental
323 Europe, particularly from the timber production point of view. However, forest management intensity affects
324 together with environmental (climate, site) conditions, the provisioning of different ecosystem services and
325 their trade-offs (e.g. Briceño-Elizondo et al. 2006a; Felton et al. 2016; Alrahaheh et al. 2017, 2018;
326 Pohjanmies et al. 2017; Diaz et al. 2021; Trivino et al. 2015, 2023), as was also found in this study.
327 Management intensity also has a larger effect on development of forests and provisioning of ecosystem
328 services (e.g. Alrahaheh et al. 2017; Heinonen et al. 2017; Diaz et al. 2021; Trivino et al. 2023) than the
329 gradual climate change.

330 In this study, the mean annual gross volume growth (10-53%), timber yield (5-44%), ecosystem carbon stock
331 (1-22%), and the amount of deadwood (11-75%) increased in Scots pine and birch dominated stands,
332 regardless of management regime under climate change at both site locations. In the case of Norway spruce
333 dominated stands, they increased (10-14%, 6-10%, 0-6%, and 10-28%) only at the northern site location and
334 primarily under moderate climate change (RCP4.5). Under severe climate change (RCP8.5), decreases in
335 volume growth (5-26%), timber yield (23-75%) and ecosystem carbon stocks (5-15%) were found for Norway
336 spruce at both site locations, while increases in the amount of deadwood primarily occurred at the northern
337 site location (54-142%).

338 Varied growth and mortality responses of tree species can be explained primarily by their differences in
339 optimum growing conditions. In this study, early and severe mortality for Norway spruce and to a lesser
340 degree for Scots pine decreased tree stocking under RCP8.5, particularly at the southern site location due to
341 a combination of sustained reduction in growth from occurrence of high temperature sums (Fig. A1, Table
342 A5) and higher likelihood of mortality from successive years below growth minimums, especially for Norway
343 spruce (Appendix A1, Eq.2). Higher frequency in occurrence of high temperature sums, however, increased
344 growth within the model for silver birch and Scots pine (RCP4.5) under climate warming (Table A5). Current

345 temperature sum conditions were more optimal for forest growth at the southern site than at the northern
346 site location, while mean monthly precipitation of the growing season remained similar (Table 1). For this
347 reason, the differences in responses of tree species at the southern and northern site locations can also be
348 partially explained by differences in prevailing environmental conditions (mainly temperature sum) of the
349 two latitudes.

350 Although the volume growth of Norway spruce growth has been shown to be more sensitive to reduction of
351 soil moisture than increase in temperature sum (Torssonen et al. 2015; Kellomäki et al. 2018), in this study
352 reduction of growth due to soil moisture was found to be limited. The relatively high water holding capacity
353 of the Myrtillus site type and low occurrence of dry days (days below the wilting point) led to a maximum of
354 2% of the growing season below the wilting point, far below species-specific maximum values that would
355 severely limit growth through the multiplier effect (Fig. A1, Table A5).

356 The results of this study exhibit the same trend with findings of previous stand level simulation studies in
357 Finland (e.g. Alrahahleh et al. 2018), where volume growth (39%) and timber yield (87%) decreased in Norway
358 spruce stands, due to increased mortality (particularly at the southern site) under RCP8.5. The opposite
359 development was observed for birch and Scots pine stands under moderate climate change (RCP4.5). In
360 addition, results of this study aligned with forest simulation studies conducted in central Russia, where severe
361 climate change (e.g. A1F1 emission scenario of HadCM3 model, IPCC, 2000) increased the net primary
362 production by about 15% more in forests of northern than southern gradients (e.g. Shanin et al., 2011;
363 Komarov and Shanin 2012), compared to the current climate. In this study, the mean annual gross volume
364 growth of Scots pine and Norway spruce stands with NT were 20-26% higher under RCP8.5 at the northern
365 site, compared to the southern site. However, the mean annual gross volume growth for birch remained
366 relatively stable across both site locations.

367 In Finland and Sweden, pre-commercial and commercial thinnings are usually used in managed forests to
368 decrease natural mortality, improve tree diameter growth and timber quality of trees, and to provide income
369 for forest owners prior to final felling. In this simulation study, due to larger mortality, NT resulted in up to

370 21-40% lower timber yields for birch, Scots pine, and Norway spruce stands compared to other management
371 regimes, regardless of climate and site location. However, NT resulted in the highest volume growth,
372 ecosystem carbon stocks, and amount of deadwood in Scots pine and birch stands regardless of climate and
373 site location. Observed decrease of annual volume growth at the stand level in relation to reduction of stand
374 basal area (Mäkinen and Isomäki 2004) explains the higher mean annual volume growth of the NT treatments
375 by comparison to more intensive treatments (including pre-commercial and commercial thinning), due to the
376 relatively high density of remaining trees and their contribution to mean annual volume growth over the
377 rotation. For NT, higher mean annual volume growth up to 3-31% for Scots pine and birch dominated stands
378 as well as higher carbon stocks (8-41%) and amount of deadwood (88-467%) was present compared to other
379 management regimes. For Norway spruce dominated stands, NT similarly displayed higher carbon stocks (7-
380 31%) and amounts of deadwood (46-192%), but not consistently higher volume growth (up to 15% lower).
381 This was due to high temperature sums increasing mortality under RCP4.5 (southern site location) and
382 RCP8.5. NT also had a higher share of deciduous trees at the beginning of stand development compared to
383 managed stands, which may have affected results.

384 Predicted increase in mortality under climate change, especially with NT but also with other management
385 regimes, can be expected to provide suitable habitats for many saproxylic species (Hyvärinen et al. 2019), as
386 they prefer sites with quantities of deadwood $> 20 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$. In Finland, the amount of deadwood in managed
387 forests is approximately $6.4 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ based on latest national forest inventory (NF13) (Kulju et al. 2023).
388 Whereas, in natural forests the amount of deadwood may be up to $60\text{-}120 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ (Peuhu and Siitonen 2011).

389 Low intensity management of Scots pine and birch stands under RCPs increased volume growth and carbon
390 stocks (3-16%) and deadwood (up to 60%) with little difference between timber yields ($\pm 3\%$), compared to
391 intensive management across site locations. For Norway spruce stands, the opposite occurred, as intensive
392 management treatments displayed higher mean annual volume growth (4-19%) and timber yield (4-63%),
393 while carbon stocks (up to 14%) and deadwood (up to 49%) with increased primarily at the northern site
394 location, particularly under RCPs. The combination of higher temperature sums under RCPs influencing

395 mortality and lower stand densities positively influencing individual tree growth generally benefited more
396 intensive stand management for Norway spruce. In this study, initial stand characteristics and forest
397 management regimes differed among and between tree species at the northern and southern site locations,
398 which partially affected simulation outcomes and made generalization of findings difficult.

399 Depending on the severity of climate change, site- and region-specific management of different tree species
400 will be crucial to sustain forest productivity and growth in the future. Use of low to medium intensity
401 management regimes for birch and Scots pine may be suggested to balance provisioning of ecosystem
402 services (i.e. ecosystem carbon stocks) and timber yield across site locations and climates. For Norway spruce
403 higher intensity management with shorter rotations than used in our simulations are recommended,
404 especially for southern site locations under climate change. Under severe climate change, to maintain forest
405 growth, carbon stocks, timber yield, and to decrease mortality, increasingly growing Scots pine or birch
406 stands and mixtures of deciduous and coniferous species may also be recommended as opposed to pure
407 stands of Norway spruce, if forest site fertility is suitable (e.g. Felton et al. 2016; Pretzsch and Schütze, 2016;
408 Huuskonen et al. 2021).

409 Climate change may also induce multiple damage risks to boreal forests (e.g. windthrow, heavy snow loads,
410 drought, forest fires, and bark beetles), particularly at southern boreal latitudes and in unmanaged forests
411 due to increased mortality of trees under severe climate change (e.g. Venäläinen et al. 2020). Such
412 disturbances, may also, partially cancel out climate change induced productivity increases in managed boreal
413 forests (Reyer et al. 2017). Considering the extent of existing boreal forests in Russia, silvicultural treatments,
414 not limited to rotational forestry and their effect on not only stand, but landscape level ecosystem services
415 should be further studied.

416

417

418

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428

429 Competing interests:

430 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

431

432 Data availability:

433 Data located and available upon request from the Faculty of Science, Forestry and Technology, University of
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608 Appendix A1. Outline of the forest ecosystem model and the calibrated model utilized for the Republic of
609 Karelia and Arkhangelsk region of northwest Russia.

610 In the gap-type forest ecosystem model (SIMA, Kellomäki et al. 2008, 2018), the annual diameter growth (D_G)
611 (Eq. 1) is modeled as a function of 1) maximum diameter growth (D_{Gmax}), which is influenced by tree diameter
612 (DBH) and the atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2) concentration (see Table A1), and 2) environmental growth
613 multipliers, namely growing season (April to September), temperature sum (degree days > 5°C), light
614 availability within a stand (along a vertical light gradient), soil moisture, and nitrogen availability within a
615 stand (Table A2):

616

$$617 \quad D_G = D_{GMax} \times (M_{Tsum} \times M_L \times M_{SM} \times M_{NS}), \quad (1)$$

618

619 where D_{Gmax} is the maximum diameter growth, M_{Tsum} is the temperature sum multiplier, M_L is the multiplier
620 based on light availability, M_{SM} is the soil moisture availability multiplier, and M_{NS} is the multiplier based on
621 nitrogen supply.

622 If environmental conditions for growth are optimum, the multiplier = 1, and if suboptimal the multiplier is <
623 1 and negatively influences maximum growth (see Fig. A1). In the model, tree height (T_H) is calculated based
624 on tree diameter and temperature sum of the growing season (under current climate) as shown in Table A3.
625 As a result, trees at the southern site location have higher height to diameter ratios than at the northern site
626 and vice versa (reflecting genotype differences). The probability of tree mortality is affected by stand basal
627 area, stand density, and the maximum age of trees (Eq. 2) (see Kellomäki et al. 1992):

628

$$629 \quad Mt = \left(\frac{\left(\frac{BA \times \left(\frac{tpa}{100} \right)^{0.7}}{37} \right)}{AgeMax} \right), \quad (2)$$

630 where mortality probability (Mt) is a function of basal area (BA), stand density (trees ha^{-1} (tpa)), and tree age
631 ($AgeMax$) influences the probability of death.

632 The resulting probability is compared against a randomly generated number to determine if the mortality
633 event occurs each year within each iteration (i.e. $Mt < \text{random number between 0 and 1}$). A maximum age
634 would yield on average a 2% probability of survival in any given year. Furthermore, age independent mortality
635 will occur if there exists diameter growth below a minimum species-specific threshold for two consecutive
636 years, in which case the probability of mortality increases to 38% in any given year.

637

638 (Fig. A1)

639 (Table A1)

640 (Table A2)

641 (Table A3)

642 (Table A4)

643 (Table A5)

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685 Figure Captions:

686

687 Fig 1. Mean gross annual volume growth, harvested timber yield, mean ecosystem carbon stock, and mean
688 amount of deadwood in Scots pine, Norway spruce, and Silver birch dominate forest stands of the northern
689 site location (Republic of Karelia) simulated under different management regimes (NT (No-thinning); MK
690 (low intensity pre-commercial thinning); MF (high intensity pre-commercial thinning) and climates.

691

692 Fig 2. Mean gross annual volume growth, harvested timber yield, mean ecosystem carbon stock, and mean
693 amount of deadwood in Scots pine, Norway spruce, and Silver birch dominate forest stands of the southern
694 site location (Arkhangelsk region) under different management regimes (NT (No-thinning); MA1 (low
695 intensity pre-commercial thinning); MA2 (medium intensity pre-commercial thinning); MF (high intensity
696 pre-commercial thinning) and climates.

697

698 Fig 3. Percentage change in mean gross annual volume growth, harvested timber yield, mean ecosystem
699 carbon stock and mean amount of deadwood in Scots pine, Norway spruce, and Silver birch dominate
700 forest stands of northern site location (Republic of Karelia) under different management regimes (NT (No-
701 thinning); MK (low intensity pre-commercial thinning); MF (high intensity pre-commercial thinning) when
702 comparing RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 to CU (left) and when comparing management regime to MA1 (right) under
703 CU, RCP4.5, and RCP8.5.

704

705 Fig 4. Percentage change in mean gross annual volume growth, harvested timber yield, mean ecosystem
706 carbon stock and mean amount of deadwood in Scots pine, Norway spruce, and Silver birch dominate
707 forest stands of southern site location (Arkhangelsk region) under different management regimes (NT (No-
708 thinning); MA1 (low intensity pre-commercial thinning); MA2 (medium intensity pre-commercial thinning);
709 MF (high intensity pre-commercial thinning) when comparing RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 to CU (left) and when
710 comparing management regimes to MA1 (right) under CU, RCP4.5, and RCP8.5.

711

712 Fig A1. Diameter growth response multipliers applied within the forest ecosystem model (SIMA) and their
713 relationship to environmental conditions of temperature, light, soil moisture, and nitrogen and for Scots
714 pine, Norway spruce, and silver birch trees species.

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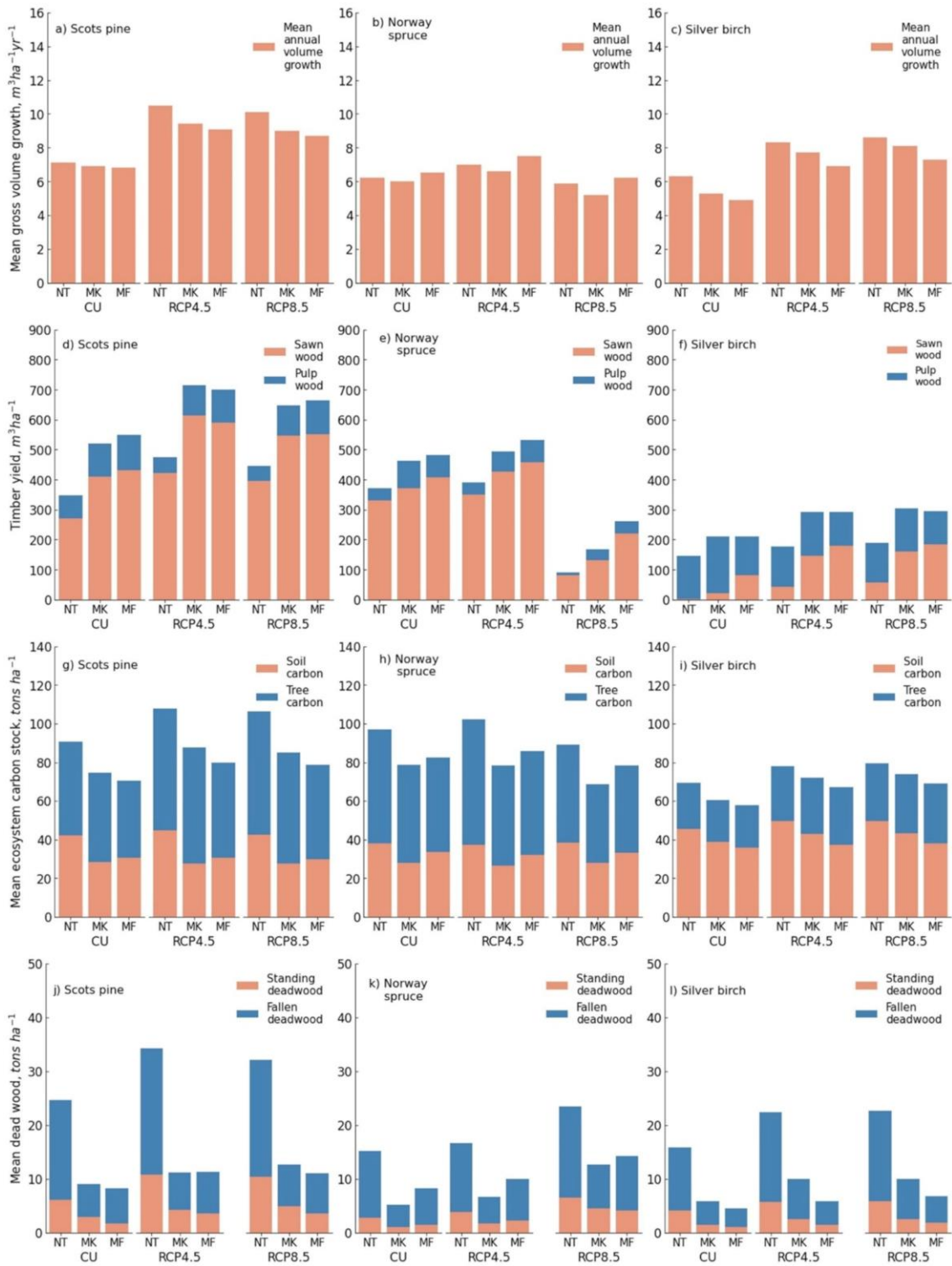
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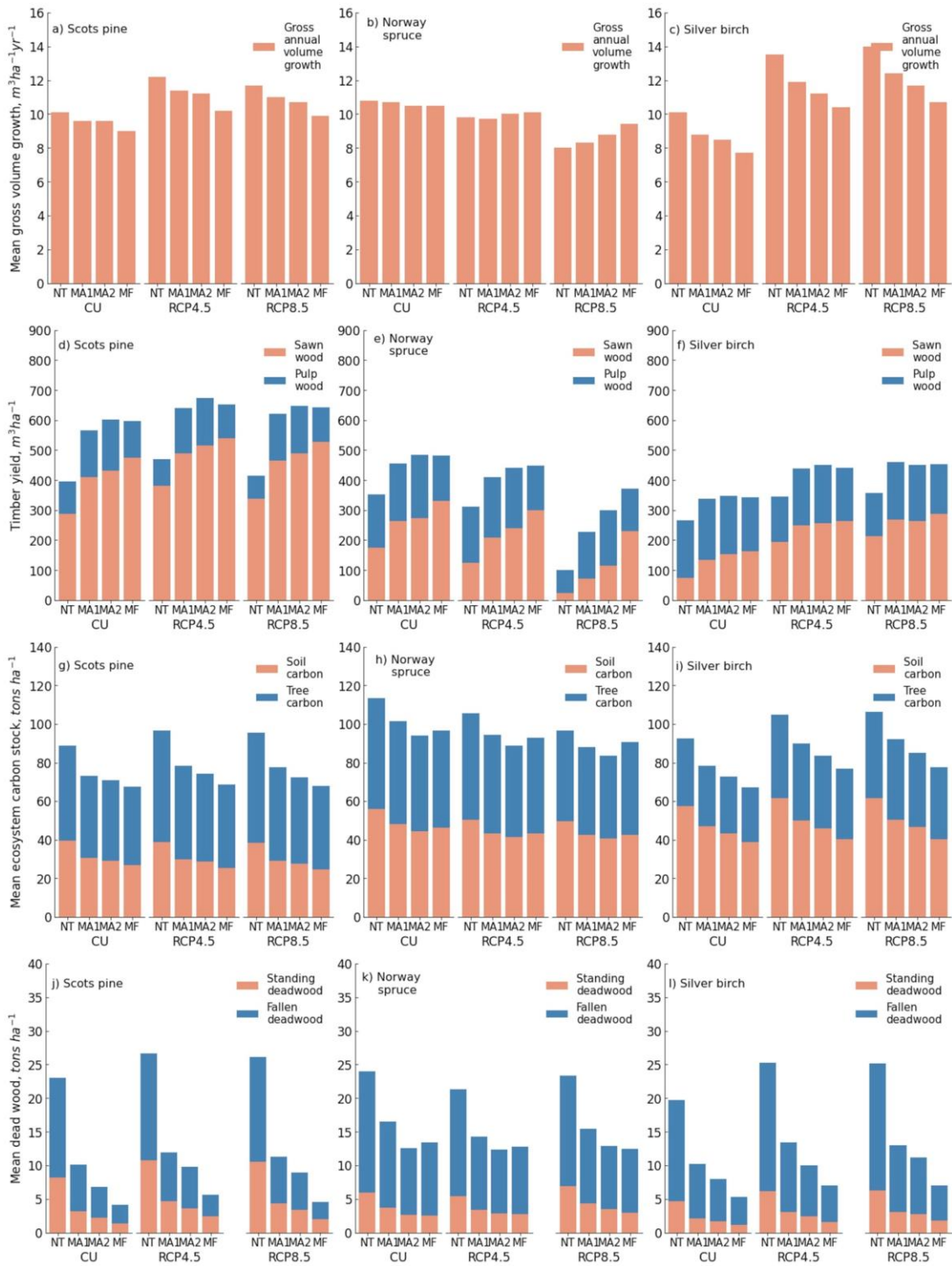
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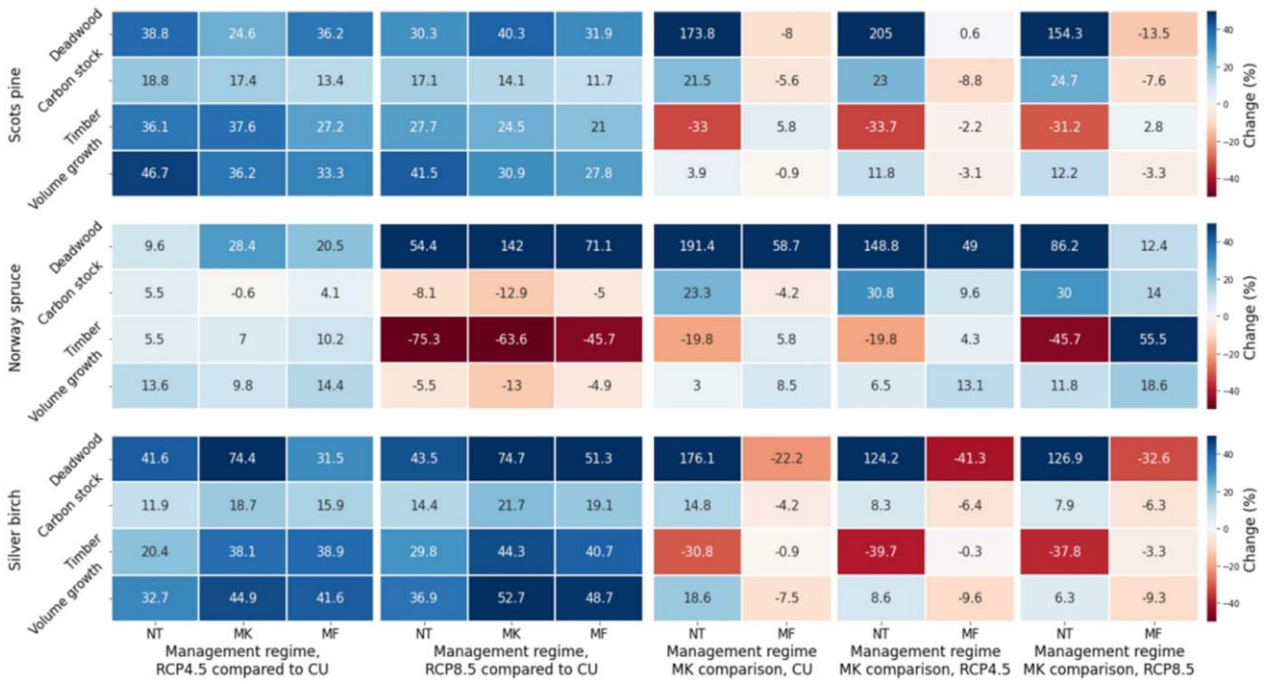
Fig. 2

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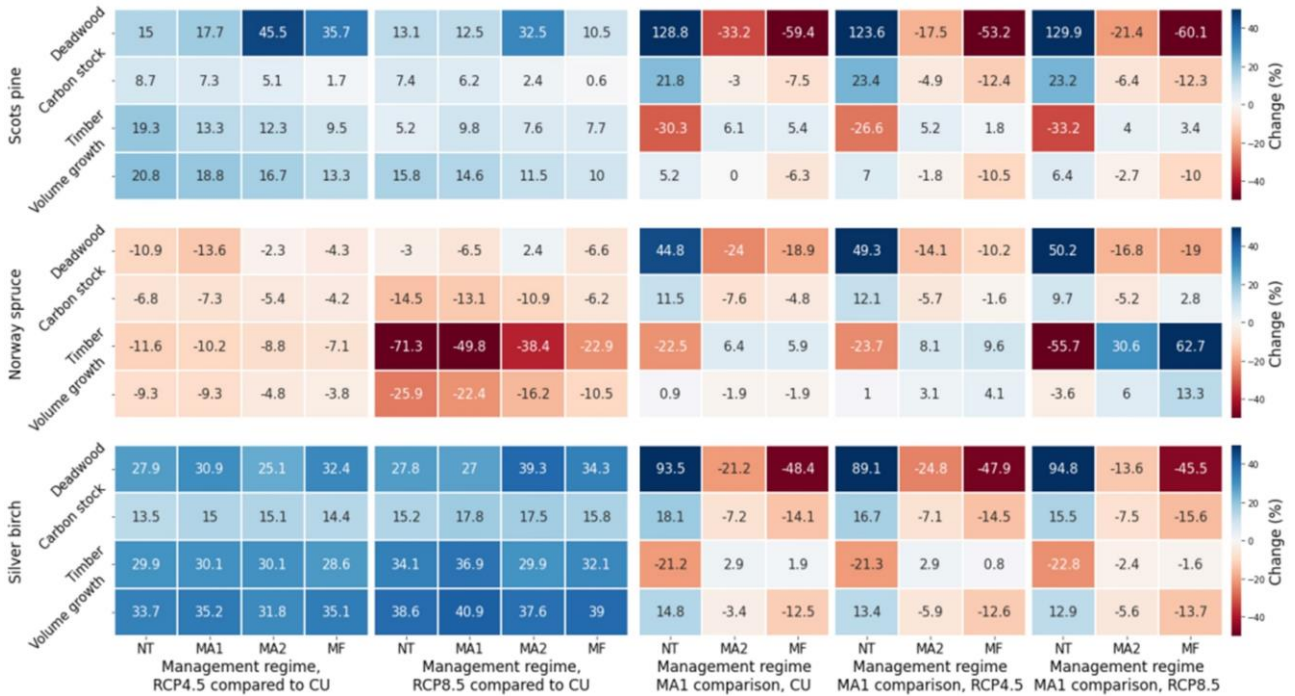


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737 Fig 3.

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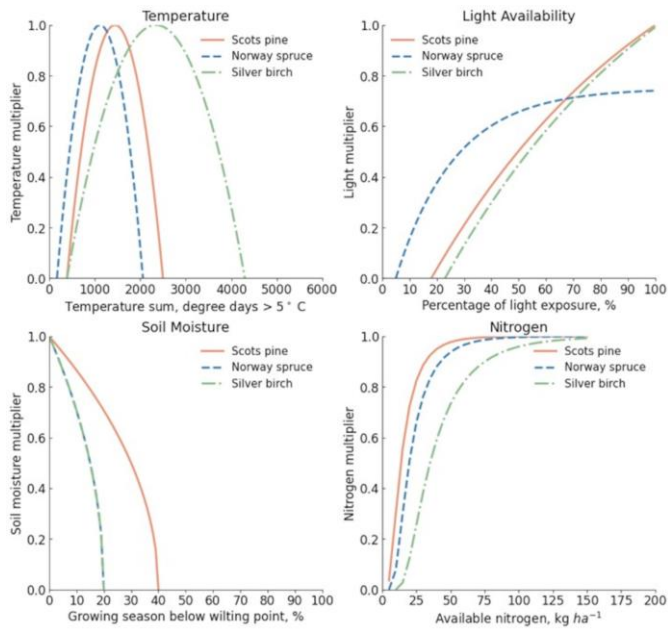
741 Fig. 4

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747 Fig. A1

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765 Tables:

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Table 1. Development of temperature and precipitation by climate scenario and reference periods (mid- to end-century periods) by region.

Study site location	Climate and reference period	Mean monthly temperature, °C yr ⁻¹	Mean Tsum, degree days (> 5°C April-September) yr ⁻¹	Mean monthly precipitation (April-September), mm yr ⁻¹	Precipitation, mm yr ⁻¹
Northern	CU				
	1986-2005	2.2	1034	55.3	577
	RCP4.5				
	2046-2065	5.5	1370	60.3	654
	2080-2100	6.8	1524	59.6	675
	RCP8.5				
	2046-2065	6.1	1441	61.2	666
	2080-2100	9.6	1876	62.8	734
Southern	CU				
	1986-2005	2.0	1202	57.7	608
	RCP4.5				
	2046-2065	5.3	1559	62.7	685
	2080-2100	6.5	1725	62	706
	RCP8.5				
	2046-2065	5.8	1641	63.6	697
	2080-2100	9.3	2096	65.1	765

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Table 2. Initial stand conditions for simulations of Scots pine (Sp), Norway spruce (Ns), and Silver birch (Sb) target species stands (desired primary species at final felling) by study site location.

Study site location	Target species	Age	Number of trees (stem ha ⁻¹) and mean diameter (dbh, cm in parenthesis) per tree species
Northern	Scots pine	5	1,800 (1cm) Sp; 334 (4cm) Ns; 3,000 (4cm) Sb
	Norway spruce	7	668 (3cm) Ns; 377 (2cm) Sp; 379 (4cm) Sb; 875 (6cm) Ea*
	Silver birch	10	7,000 (2cm) Sb; 1,200 (1cm) Ns; 600 (1cm) Sp
Southern	Scots pine	5	7,800 (1cm) Sp; 1,600 (2cm) Ns; 9,200 (1cm) Sb
	Norway spruce	14	7,300 (4cm) Ns; 3,000 (4cm) Sb; 300 (6cm) Ea*
	Silver birch	5	6,900 (2cm) Sb; 1,400 (2cm) Ea; 1,500 (1cm) Ea*

769 *Eurasian aspen (*Populus tremula* (L.))

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Table 3. Stand management alternatives (MA) and their pre-commercial and commercial thinning treatments (i.e. age, removal percentage (in parenthesis)), and rotation lengths (Rot) used in target species stands at each site location. In pre-commercial thinning, removals are based on density of stems ha⁻¹ and for commercial thinning, stand basal area. Variation in basal area removal percentages under MF is due to influence of climate on growth, as thinning thresholds were contingent on dominant height versus basal area relationships, while with MK, MA1, and MA2 thinning occurred at fixed stand ages.

Site location	Target species	MA	Pre-commercial thinning		Commercial thinning			Final felling Rot, age
			1 st , age (r %)	2 nd , age (r %)	1 st , age (r %)	2 nd , age (r %)	3 rd , age (r %)	
Northern	Scots pine	NT	-	-	-	-	-	101
		MK	11(45)	21(45)	41(35)	61(35)	-	101
		MF	5(60)	-	40(31-32)	58-61(42-43)	75-81(43-44)	101
	Norway spruce	NT	-	-	-	-	-	97
		MK	11(40)	21(40)	41(35)	61(23)	-	97
		MF	5(70)	-	44(42)	67-69(40-43)	-	97
	Silver birch	NT	-	-	-	-	-	61
		MK	10(25)	20(25)	30(25)	50(30)	-	61
		MF	10(81)	-	40(42-43)	-	-	61
Southern	Scots pine	NT	-	-	-	-	-	81
		MA1	11(45)	21(45)	41(35)	61(35)	-	81
		MA2	5(73)	15(25)	35(37)	55(50)	-	81
		MF	5(89)	-	24(25-35)	48(38-39)	63-65(44-45)	81
	Norway spruce	NT	-	-	-	-	-	81
		MA1	-	21(35)	41(25)	61(23)	-	81
		MA2	-	21(47)	41(40)	61(40)	-	81
		MF	14(81)	-	39-40(29-30)	61(32-34)	-	81
	Silver birch	NT	-	-	-	-	-	61
		MA1	5(25)	15(25)	25(25)	45(30)	-	61
		MA2	5(55)	15(10)	30(30)	45(30)	-	61
		MF	5(81)	-	30(31-32)	42-45(38-39)	-	61

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777 Table A1. Maximum diameter growth (D_{GMax} , cm year⁻¹) parameters by tree species for Finnish conditions
778 based on Kellomäki et al. (2008; 2018) and as calibrated for Russian conditions in a study of Ulianova (2018),
779 where a, b, and c are location specific parameters, and DBH (cm year⁻¹) is diameter at breast height.
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Maximum diameter growth eq.		$D_{GMax} = \exp\left(a - \frac{b}{0.01 \times CO_2}\right) \times DBH \times e^{c \times DBH}$		
Model	Species	Parameters		
		a	b	c
Original	Scots pine	-1.307	1.643	-0.0719
	Norway spruce	-1.307	1.643	-0.0562
	Silver birch	-1.307	1.643	-0.0706
Calibrated	Scots pine	-1.307	1.643	-0.0590
	Norway spruce	-1.307	1.643	-0.0500
	Silver birch	-1.307	1.643	-0.0950

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Table A2. Growth multipliers contributing to diameter growth calculation in equation (1).

Growth Multiplier	Growth multiplier function descriptions and equations																																																
Temperature sum, M_{Tsum}	<p>Mean annual ($Tsum$), minimum ($MinT$), and maximum ($MaxT$) temperature sums (degree days > 5°C from April to September) are represented by species-specific parabolas as a function of temperature and define the geographic temperature distribution by tree species for any given year (Kellomäki et al. 2008, 2018). Species-specific $MinT$ and $MaxT$ have been adapted to the model based on Kienast (1987) and Nikolov and Helmisaari (1992).</p> $M_{Tsum} = \frac{(4 \times (Tsum - MinT) \times (MaxT - Tsum))}{(MaxT - MinT)^2}$																																																
Light availability, M_L	<p>Light availability limits tree specific growth, as the height and foliage mass of each tree, cumulative foliage mass of trees taller than any given tree, and the proportion of light (LR) penetrating through the foliage influence available light for individual tree growth, where $A1, \dots, A3$ are location specific parameters (Kellomäki et al. 1992).</p> $M_L = A1 \times \left(1 - \exp \left(A2 \times \left(\frac{LR}{100 - A3} \right) \right) \right)$																																																
Soil moisture, M_{SM}	<p>The ratio of dry days (Wt) below the wilting point within the growing season (GS_{days}, April-September) and species-specific drought tolerances (D_T) determine growth response to moisture, while the field capacity and wilting point define the availability of soil moisture for growth on different soil and site types as a function of precipitation and evaporation (Kellomäki et al. 1992).</p> $M_{SM} = \left(\left(\frac{D_T \times GS_{days} - Wt}{D_T \times GS_{days}} \right) \right)^{0.5}$																																																
Nitrogen availability, M_{NS}	<p>Nitrogen supply (N_s) is affected by nitrogen content of foliage ($NCon$), where $CM1, \dots, CM5$ are location specific parameters. Nitrogen concentration in foliage is related to the available soil nitrogen (nitrate and ammonium) for tree growth, as litter and mortality of trees transfer carbon and nitrogen into the soil, where decomposition of litter and soil organic matter releases nitrogen for tree growth (Kellomäki et al. 1992).</p> $M_{NS} = \left(1 - \left(\frac{CM1}{NCon - 1} \right) \times \left(\frac{CM5}{CM4} \right) \right)^{\left(\frac{CM5}{CM4} \right) \times \left(\frac{CM1}{NCon} \right)}$ $NCon = CM1 \times (1 - 10^{(-CM3 \times (-170 + 4 \times N_s + CM2))})$																																																
Parameters	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Scots pine</th> <th>Norway spruce</th> <th>Silver birch</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$MinT$</td> <td>390</td> <td>170</td> <td>390</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$MaxT$</td> <td>2500</td> <td>2060</td> <td>4300</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$A1$</td> <td>1.65</td> <td>0.75</td> <td>1.7</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$A2$</td> <td>-1.136</td> <td>-4.64</td> <td>-1.136</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$A3$</td> <td>0.18</td> <td>0.5</td> <td>0.23</td> </tr> <tr> <td>D_T</td> <td>0.4</td> <td>0.2</td> <td>0.2</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$CM1$</td> <td>1.77</td> <td>1.77</td> <td>2.93</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$CM2$</td> <td>175</td> <td>171</td> <td>172</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$CM3$</td> <td>0.0036</td> <td>0.0028</td> <td>0.0016</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$CM4$</td> <td>0.07</td> <td>0.06</td> <td>0.25</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$CM5$</td> <td>0.004</td> <td>0.006</td> <td>0.029</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Scots pine	Norway spruce	Silver birch	$MinT$	390	170	390	$MaxT$	2500	2060	4300	$A1$	1.65	0.75	1.7	$A2$	-1.136	-4.64	-1.136	$A3$	0.18	0.5	0.23	D_T	0.4	0.2	0.2	$CM1$	1.77	1.77	2.93	$CM2$	175	171	172	$CM3$	0.0036	0.0028	0.0016	$CM4$	0.07	0.06	0.25	$CM5$	0.004	0.006	0.029
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Table A3. Tree height (T_H) model parameters by site and tree species as derived from Finnish Forest Inventory data (Kellomäki et al. 2008) and as calibrated for Russian conditions in a study of Ulianova (2018), where T_{sum} is the temperature sum of the growing season (under current climate), DBH is diameter at breast height, and a , b , and c are location specific parameters.

Height model eq.

$$T_H = \left[\frac{T_{sum}}{1000} \right]^c \times \left[1.3 + \frac{DBH^2}{a + b \times DBH^2} \right]$$

Model	Species	Parameters		
		a	b	c
Original	Scots pine	2.117	0.166	0.435
	Norway spruce	2.137	0.159	0.669
	Silver birch	1.669	0.169	0.730
Calibrated	Scots pine	2.117	0.166	2.0856
	Norway spruce	2.137	0.159	2.94316
	Silver birch	1.669	0.169	3.13986

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Table A4. Growth and yield table variables by tree species and stand age used in a study by Ulianova (2018) to calibrate SIMA model for Russian sites.

Species	Stand age, years	Height, m	Diameter at breast height (DBH), cm	Density, trees ha ⁻¹	Basal area, m ² ha ⁻¹	Volume, m ³ ha ⁻¹
Scots pine	20	7.2	7.2	4,610	18.9	72
	30	10.6	10.8	2,729	25.2	136
	40	14	14.2	1911	30.1	208
	50	16.8	17.5	1378	33.2	269
	60	19.2	20.8	1050	35.7	321
	70	21.1	23.5	862	37.4	367
	80	22.6	25.6	757	39	409
	90	23.8	28	657	40.5	445
	100	24.7	30.3	580	41.8	476
	110	25.4	32	532	42.8	501
	120	26	33.6	489	43.4	521
	130	26.5	35	456	43.9	536
	140	26.9	36	432	44	546
	Norway spruce	20	6.8	6.8	6,060	22
30		10.4	9.1	4,081	26.2	150
40		14.4	12.6	2,213	27.6	215
50		16	16.5	1,406	30.1	281
60		20.7	20.2	1,012	32.4	342
70		23	23.4	793	34.1	396
80		24.6	26.2	668	36	444
90		25.9	28.4	592	37.5	486
100		27	30.1	546	38.9	525
110		27.9	31.7	517	40.8	569
120		28.6	33	492	42.3	594
Silver birch		10	5.7	4	9,524	12
	20	11.4	9	2,850	18.2	100
	30	15.9	12.4	1,926	23.3	170
	40	19.5	18	1,032	26.2	230
	50	22.4	21	807	28	277
	60	24.4	23.5	678	29.4	320
	70	25.4	25.3	612	30.6	345
	80	26.2	26.5	572	31.6	370

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Table A5. Mean temperature sum, days below wilting point, and frequency of >75% of maximum Tsum and D_T (% growing season below wilting point) values assuming 90-year simulation period by location and climate.

Site location	Climate	Mean Tsum, degree days	Mean days below wilting point	Tsum > 75% of Max Tsum, years			D _T > 75% of Max D _T , years		
				Scots pine	Norway spruce	Silver birch	Scots pine	Norway spruce	Silver birch
Northern	CU	1046	0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0
	RCP4.5	1353	0.01	0	9	0	0	0	0
	RCP8.5	1492	0.03	12	39	0	0	0	0
Southern	CU	1208	0.00	0	0	0	0	0	0
	RCP4.5	1540	0.04	0	51	0	0	0	0
	RCP8.5	1690	0.26	29	59	0	0	0	0

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