REVIEW

The biological controls of soil carbon accumulation following wildfire and harvest in boreal forests: A review

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Abstract

Boreal forests are frequently subjected to disturbances, including wildfire and clearcutting. While these disturbances can cause soil carbon (C) losses, the long-term accumulation dynamics of soil C stocks during subsequent stand development is controlled by biological processes related to the balance of net primary production (NPP) and outputs via heterotrophic respiration and leaching, many of which remain poorly understood. We review the biological processes suggested to influence soil C accumulation in boreal forests. Our review indicates that median C accumulation rates following wildfire and clear-cutting are similar (0.15 and 0.20 Mg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, respectively), however, variation between studies is extremely high. Further, while many individual studies show linear increases in soil C stocks through time after disturbance, there are indications that C stock recovery is fastest early to mid-succession (e.g. 15-80 years) and then slows as forests mature (e.g. >100 years). We indicate that the rapid build-up of soil C in younger stands appears not only driven by higher plant production, but also by a high rate of mycorrhizal hyphal production, and mycorrhizal suppression of saprotrophs. As stands mature, the balance between reductions in plant and mycorrhizal production, increasing plant litter recalcitrance, and ectomycorrhizal decomposers and saprotrophs have been highlighted as key controls on soil C accumulation rates. While some of these controls appear well understood (e.g. temporal patterns in NPP, changes in aboveground litter quality), many others remain research frontiers. Notably, very little data exists describing and comparing successional patterns of root production, mycorrhizal functional traits, mycorrhizal-saprotroph interactions, or C outputs via heterotrophic respiration and dissolved organic C following different disturbances. We argue that these less frequently described controls require attention, as they will be key not only for understanding ecosystem C balances, but also for representing these dynamics more accurately in soil organic C and Earth system models.

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(Gauthier et al., 2015; Figure 1). The net impact of rotational forest management on the C sink-source balance is frequently debated, and the magnitude to which short-term soil C losses following clearcutting are balanced by long-term gains is central to this discussion (Bellassen & Luyssaert, 2014; Lindroth, 2023; Peichl et al., 2023).

decomposition, disturbance, forest succession, heterotrophic respiration, humus, mycorrhizae,

In this review, we explore the range of biological mechanisms that can impact soil C accumulation patterns following wildfire or clear-cutting, independent of other major state factors (topography, parent material, and climate), which have already been emphasized in previous reviews (Bradshaw & Warkentin, 2015; DeLuca & Boisvenue, 2012). While we focus on post-fire and even-aged stands initiated via clear-cutting, our discussion is relevant to other important disturbance types, such as wind and insect outbreaks, as well as other ecosystems dominated by ectomycorrhizal tree species (e.g. temperate conifer forests). We focus primarily on soil organic horizon C stocks, which are the largest, most vulnerable, and most dynamic soil C pool during intra-disturbance recovery cycles in boreal forests. We discuss plant and microbial properties and processes that influence rates of soil C stock accumulation over decades to century timescales, and compare and contrast how each mechanism may differ between wildfire versus even-aged forest management. In doing so we aim to advance fundamental understanding of soil C dynamics in boreal forests following anthropogenic and natural disturbance, and identify key knowledge gaps to guide future research efforts.

2 | TEMPORAL PATTERNS OF C STOCK RECOVERY AFTER DISTURBANCE

We searched the literature for data on soil organic horizon C accumulation rates from chronosequence studies following wildfire and clear-cutting (see Supporting Information). Estimates of soil C accumulation rates following fire and clear-cutting are highly variable between boreal forest study sites (Table 1). Soil C stock derived from 24 chronosequences over a median duration of 108 years following wildfire ranged between -0.6 and $1.7 \text{ Mg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$, with a median accumulation rate of 0.15 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Table 1). A metaanalysis of post-fire chronosequences by Palviainen et al. (2020), which included a combination of unpublished data and some studies listed in Table 1, indicated that soil C accumulation follows an asymptotic relationship during the first ca. 80 years following wildfire, with a similar average rate of 0.28 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. Similarly, a meta-analysis by Pregitzer and Euskirchen (2004) found that organic horizon C accumulation reached an asymptote somewhere between 71 and 120 years after fire. A 5000-year post-fire chronosequence investigated by Wardle et al. (2003) indicated accumulation of ca. 0.05 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, that is considerably lower than the majority

1 | INTRODUCTION

Boreal forests are expansive carbon (C) rich landscapes that serve as strong net C sinks, and therefore play a pivotal role in the global C cycle (Watts et al., 2023). They cover approximately 17% of the terrestrial land surface area, and account for somewhere between 20% to 40% of terrestrial C stocks (Anderson, 1991; Bradshaw & Warkentin, 2015; Lorenz et al., 2010; Tarnocai et al., 2009), with around 80% of the C in boreal forests found belowground (Pan et al., 2011). Boreal soil C stock sizes vary greatly among sites and regions, with major drivers of stock variation including topography (i.e. affecting hydrology), climate, and parent material (Jandl et al., 2007; Sothe et al., 2022). As such, boreal forests on peat or permafrost soils can contain as much as 1200 and 600 Mg Cha⁻¹, respectively (Bradshaw & Warkentin, 2015; DeLuca & Boisvenue, 2012), whereas those on young and poorly developed boreal Cambisols may contain as little as 130 Mg Cha⁻¹ (DeLuca & Boisvenue, 2012). Indeed, the influence of topography, climate, and parent material, compounded over time, serve as four of the five primary soil development factors (Jenny, 1994).

In addition to these state factors, boreal forests are also commonly subjected to natural and anthropogenic disturbances, including wildfire and clear-cutting, which determine C dynamics on the scale of decades to centuries. The development and succession of vegetation and its associated soil communities following these disturbances also serve as major controls on soils (i.e. "biota"; Jenny, 1994), through determining soil C stock accumulation between disturbance cycles. Approximately 1% of the boreal biome burns every year (Wooster & Zhang, 2004), often resulting in large releases of soil C (Bill et al., 2023; Granath et al., 2021; Shao et al., 2023); however, burning severity and soil Closs shows substantial spatial variation both among and within fires (Pérez-Izquierdo et al., 2023). In recent decades, boreal fires are becoming more frequent, extensive, and severe because of climate warming and summer drought (Balshi et al., 2009; de Groot et al., 2013; Kasischke & Turetsky, 2006; Turetsky et al., 2011). High severity fires generally release greater quantities of soil C, sometimes also releasing C that accumulated during previous burn intervals, referred to as "legacy C" (Walker et al., 2019). Further intensification of the fire regime could eventually change boreal forests from net C sinks to sources (Walker et al., 2019). However, recovery of vegetation and soil communities, and natural transitions in forest cover types, can counter-balance these losses on the scale of decades to centuries, with rapid accumulation of new organic matter (Mack et al., 2021). In addition to fire, commercial management is now an expansive disturbance in boreal forests, where more than half of the boreal region is subjected to some form of management activity, often even-aged rotational silvicultural systems that are initiated via clear-cutting

FIGURE 1 Photos from Canada and Sweden (left and right column, respectively), depicting recent clear-cuts (a, b), soil scarification (c, d), wildfire (e, f), and mature *Pinus contorta* forest (g), and 375 year old *Pinus sylvestris* & *Picea abies* forest. Photo credits: a, e, f: (Anne McIntosh), b, f, h: (Vincent Buness), c: (Victor Leifers), and d: (Göran Hallsby).



of shorter chronosequences, further indicating that accumulation rates appear to slow down after ca. 100 years (Table 1). Following logging disturbance, short-term C losses on the scale of decades are sometimes observed, as indicated by parabolic accumulation curves (Table 1). However, over longer time scales ranging from decades to a full stand rotation age (often around one century), average C accumulation rates are positive and show a similar magnitude to those of post-fire chronosequences (median rate of 0.20 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ over a median chronosequence duration of 74 years, derived from 15 chronosequences; Table 1).

A few research priorities emerge from these data compilation. First, similar chronosequence studies are needed from other disturbance types, such as following insect outbreaks, which our literature review identified were nearly completely absent for the boreal forest zone. Further, a clear research priority is to understand the mechanisms underlying the large variation that exists among chronosequences. While some of this variation could be due to site selection error in individual chronosequences (i.e. chronosequences constructed from stands with inherently different site properties), the initial soil C stock size and the effect of stand removal on soil moisture, among other factors, may also influence whether soil C stocks increase or decrease through time. We now discuss the key controls on these accumulation patterns.

3 | CARBON INPUTS

While plants serve as the origin of soil C, different aspects of plant production have been emphasized as dominant controls on soil C accumulation. First, net primary productivity (NPP) has long been considered the ultimate driver of soil C stock accumulation in ecosystem ecology, whereby biomass production and soil C accumulation are /ILEY- 🚍 Global Change Biology

TABLE 1 Reported organic horizon C accumulation rates from chronosequence studies initiated via wildfire or clear-cutting in boreal forests. Studies for each disturbance type (fire vs. even-aged management) are ordered in rank from lowest to highest C accumulation rate. The column "relationship" refers to the shape of the response curve, linear, hump shaped, parabolic, or asymptotic. Asymptotic refers to C accumulation patterns that decelerate through time, whereas parabolic relationship initially decrease and then increase. When an asymptotic relationship was found, the approximate inflection point is reported in parentheses, when possible to distinguish. Reported accumulation rates are estimated averages covering the whole time-series, except for relationships that reached an asymptote, in which case the time to the asymptote was instead used to estimate the average rate. When relationships were asymptotic, but the asymptote was not reached within the time series, then the entire time series was used to estimate an average. Data used for the two meta-analysis include a combination of studies listed in the table, non-chronosequence references, and unpublished data. Search methods and references are reported in the Supporting Information.

Reference	Mg C ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹	Relationship (inflection)	Species	Time series	Location
Fire					
Bill et al. (2023)	-0.56	Linear	Mixed (hydric shield)	100	Northwest Territories, CA
Moroni et al. (2010)	-0.07	Hump	P. mariana	74	Newfoundland, CA
Trumbore and Harden (1997)	-0.05	Asymptotic (–)	P. banksiana	100	Manitoba, CA
Wardle et al. (2003)	0.05	Linear	Mixed forest	5000	Sweden
Trumbore and Harden (1997)	0.03	Asymptotic (–)	P. mariana poorly drained	117	Manitoba, CA
Wirth et al. (2002)	0.02	Asymptotic (ca. 70)	Pinus sylvestris	95	Siberia, RU
Goulden et al. (2011)	0.07	Asymptotic	Picea mariana	154	Manitoba, CA
Larjavaara et al. (2017)	0.10	Linear	Larix mixed	218	Siberia, RU
Trumbore and Harden (1997)	0.12	Asymptotic (–)	P. mariana well drained	117	Manitoba, CA
Andrieux et al. (2018)	0.13	Linear	Picea mariana	300	Quebec, CA
Mack et al. (2021)	0.13	Linear	Mixed	100	Alaska, USA
Mack et al. (2021)	0.14	Linear	Deciduous	100	Alaska, USA
Mack et al. (2021)	0.15	Linear	P. mariana	100	Alaska, USA
Harden et al. (2012)	0.20	Linear	Picea mariana	116	Alaska, USA
Harden et al. (2012)	0.20	Linear	Picea mariana	116	Alaska, USA
Rapalee et al. (1998)	0.28	Asymptotic (–)	P. mariana & P. banksiana	100	Manitoba, CA
Harden et al. (2012)	0.29	Linear	Picea mariana	198	Alaska, USA
Harden et al. (2012)	0.30	Linear	Picea mariana	132	Manitoba, CA
Bill et al. (2023)	0.31	Linear	Mixed (xeric shield)	100	Northwest Territories, CA
Bill et al. (2023)	0.38	Linear	Mixed (mesic shield)	100	Northwest Territories, CA
Bill et al. (2023)	0.44	Linear	Mixed (plains)	100	Northwest Territories, CA
O'Neill et al. (2003)	0.50	Linear	P. mariana	140	Alaska, USA
Lecomte et al. (2006)	0.58	Linear	P. mariana	750	Quebec, CA
Seedre et al. (2014)	1.73	Linear	Mixed	27	Ontario, CA
Median value	0.15			108	
Even-aged management					
Martin et al. (2005)	-0.58	Linear	Mixed	30	Manitoba, CA
Howard et al. (2004)	-0.23	Negative exponential	Pinus banksiana	79	Saskatchewan, CA
Krause (1998)	-0.16	Parabolic	Pinus banksiana	18	New Brunswick, CA
Senez-Gagnon et al. (2018)	-0.02	Linear	Abies balsamea	80	Quebec, CA
Moroni et al. (2010)	0.00	Parabolic	P. mariana	74	Newfoundland, CA
Peltoniemi et al. (2004)	0.05	Linear	Pinus sylvestris	124	Finland
Taylor et al. (2007)	0.05	Hump	Picea rubens	140	Nova Scotia, CA

TABLE 1 (Continued)

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Reference	Mg C ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹	Relationship (inflection)	Species	Time series	Location
Grunzweig et al. (2014)	0.20	Linear	Picea glauca	110	Alaska, US
Lindroos et. al. (2022)	0.33	Asymptotic (–)	Picea abies	21	Finland
Lindroos et. al. (2022)	0.40	Asymptotic (–)	Pinus sylvestris	21	Finland
Seedre et al. (2014)	0.48	Parabolic	Mixed	27	Ontario, CA
Hagemann et al. (2010)	0.50	Asymptotic (ca. 17)	Picea mariana	ca. 140	Labrador, CA
Strukelj et al. (2015)	0.66	Unknown	Populus tremuloides	9	Quebec, CA
Krause (1998)	0.78	Parabolic	Picea mariana	18	New Brunswick, CA
Martinez-Garcia et al. (2022)	0.80	Asymptotic (ca. 100)	P. abies & P. sylvestris	200	Sweden
Median value	0.20			74	
Meta-analyses					
Palviainen et al. (2020)	0.28	Asymptotic (ca. 80)	Multiple species-Fire	150	Boreal-wide (16)
Pregitzer and Euskirchen (2004)	~0.29	Asymptotic (ca. 71–120)	Multiple species & disturbance types	>200	Boreal-wide (7)

predicted to positively co-vary (Pregitzer & Euskirchen, 2004). This perspective, originating from Odum's theory of ecosystem succession (Odum, 1969), predicts that NPP follows a hump-shaped relationship, whereas heterotrophic respiration is less variable and gradually increases through time as organic matter accumulates. Second, in contrast to this production-focused perspective, emphasis has more recently been placed on the quality of litter inputs. Here, a negative trade-off between plant growth and defense is emphasized, whereby species with highly defended biomass have inherently lower production rates and produce litter inputs that are more recalcitrant (e.g. higher lignin content, C:N ratios and lignin:N ratios; Cornwell et al., 2008; Jonsson & Wardle, 2010). Here, variation in heterotrophic respiration (i.e. decomposition) due to litter quality is emphasized as a strong control on the C accumulation rate. Third, increasing emphasis has been placed on the key role of belowground C inputs (e.g. root turnover and exudation) relative to above ground inputs in controlling soil C accumulation, as well as on mycelial production and necromass traits of mycorrhizal fungi (Clemmensen et al., 2013; Fernandez & Kennedy, 2015). Each of these aspects of C inputs may influence the trajectory of soil C accumulation following disturbance, as discussed in further detail below.

3.1 | Quantity of carbon input (net primary productivity)

The various components contributing to total forest NPP include the above- and belowground biomass production of trees and understory vegetation, C transferred through herbivory, litter, emission of volatile organic compounds and methane, and exudation from roots allocated to mycorrhizal fungi (Clark et al., 2001; Luyssaert et al., 2007). Most commonly, empirical estimates of NPP are limited to the components of above- and belowground tree biomass production (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021; Luyssaert et al., 2007). In

the currently most comprehensive Global Forest Carbon Database (ForC), mean NPP of mature (i.e. >100 years) boreal forests is $2.7 \pm 0.9 \text{ Mg C}$ ha⁻¹year⁻¹ (n=23; Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021). Across boreal forests, NPP has been estimated to average $(\pm SD)$ at $2.8 \pm 1.6 \text{ Mg C}$ ha⁻¹year⁻¹ (n=7; Pregitzer & Euskirchen, 2004), $4.2 \pm 2.2 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ (n = 24; Gower et al., 2001) and $3.7 \pm 1.5 \text{ Mg}$ C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (n = 21; Pappas et al., 2020), with considerable variation between boreal humid evergreen (2.7 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹; n = 38), semiarid evergreen (3.3 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹; n = 14) and semiarid deciduous $(5.4 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}; n=6)$ forests (Luyssaert et al., 2007). Mean NPP for boreal forests in Siberia is at the lower end with 1.2 Mg C ha⁻¹year⁻¹ (n=4; Schulze et al., 1999) compared to $3.6 \pm 1.1 \text{ Mg C}$ $ha^{-1}year^{-1}$ (n = 50; Peichl et al., 2023) and 5.6 ± 1.8 Mg C $ha^{-1}year^{-1}$ (Zheng et al., 2004) estimated for managed boreal forests in Scandinavia. The largest uncertainty in empirical NPP estimates lie in the challenge of quantifying fine root production (representing about 30%-70% of NPP; Kalyn & Van Rees, 2006; Yuan & Chen, 2010), various other plant C loss components (Clark et al., 2001; Luyssaert et al., 2007), and contributions from ground vegetation, which sometimes accounts for over 50% of NPP (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2004b; Gower et al., 2001; Nilsson & Wardle, 2005; Peichl et al., 2022).

Regarding disturbance, estimates of boreal forest NPP ranges from <1.0 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ soon after stand-replacing disturbance (i.e., via harvest, fire, or wind throw) to peak rates of 6.0 to 9.0 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ after initial stand development (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021; Gower et al., 2001; Luyssaert et al., 2007; Peichl et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2004). While differences in stand development stage (i.e., stand age) is clearly a major driver for the observed range (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2002; Goulden et al., 2011; Peichl et al., 2022), climate (Luyssaert et al., 2007; Schulze et al., 1999), site fertility (Chen et al., 2002; Schulze et al., 1999; Wirth et al., 2002), and types of tree species (e.g. deciduous vs. coniferous; Gower et al., 2001; Mack et al., 2021) are also important. After a sharp reduction in NPP following stand-replacing disturbance, a rapid increase in ground vegetation production occurs (Amiro et al., 2003; Peichl et al., 2022), followed by the recovery of tree NPP (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2004b; Goulden et al., 2011; Hicke et al., 2003; Peichl et al., 2022; Wirth et al., 2002). During stand development, NPP has been reported to peak at approximately 50-100 years across different studies (Chen et al., 2002; Goulden et al., 2011; Peichl et al., 2022; Pregitzer & Euskirchen, 2004; Wirth et al., 2002). In older stands (i.e. 150–200 years-old), NPP decreases (Chen et al., 2002; Wirth et al., 2002) but may remain as high as 2.0 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in natural (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2004b; Chen et al., 2002; Goulden et al., 2011; Pregitzer & Euskirchen, 2004) and >3.0 Mg C ha⁻¹year⁻¹ in managed stands (Peichl et al., 2022). For more productive sites, forest NPP increases rapidly and culminates at an earlier age, and thereafter declines more rapidly (Chen et al., 2002). Many mechanisms have been proposed to explain age-related growth declines in forests (e.g. lower C use efficiency or hydrological limitation), and this notably includes age related declines in N availability in boreal forests (Blasko et al., 2015; DeLuca et al., 2008; Trugman et al., 2016). The hump-shaped temporal NPP pattern can in part explain temporal patterns in soil C accumulation, especially during the first century following disturbance, where a rapid increase in NPP corresponds with a rapid increase in soil C (Table 1; Figure 2).

At present, our knowledge of differences in the NPP dynamics and rates following clear-cutting versus wildfire is limited due to a deficiency of comparative chronosequence studies. Although active stand re-establishment via planting of tree seedlings after clearcutting could be expected to promote faster NPP recovery rates (Peichl et al., 2023), relatively fast NPP recovery rates following wildfire have also been observed (Hicke et al., 2003; Wirth et al., 2002). possibly due to enhanced soil N availability after burning (DeLuca et al., 2006; Gundale et al., 2005), which sometimes coincides with greater deciduous tree dominance (discussed below). For example, in a study in central Canada, litterfall production was not found to differ between young stands following fire versus logging (Chen et al., 2017). However, the considerable variation within burnt areas due to spatial variability of burning intensity and site conditions complicates such comparisons (Harden et al., 2000; Hicke et al., 2003; Mack et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2001). For instance, for Chines boreal Larix stands, Wang et al. (2001) found that while total NPP did not differ between lightly burned and unburned stands, aboveground NPP of heavily burned stands was up to 92%-95% lower. Further, Mack et al. (2021) showed that severe burning of organic soils shifted tree dominance from slow-growing Picea mariana to fastgrowing deciduous broadleaf trees in Alaska, which exhibited higher productivity and whole ecosystem C accumulation rates. Further, higher post-fire NPP was reported in wet compared to dry boreal stands in Canada (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2004b), indicating the importance of site characteristics. Recovery of NPP after wildfire can also differ among ecoregions, where climate and soil conditions appear to be important regulators (Amiro et al., 2000, 2003). While it is clear that NPP usually recovers quickly after both wildfire and clearcutting disturbances, there is a critical need for paired experimental

studies to facilitate direct comparisons of temporal NPP trajectories of wildfire versus management in different environments.

3.2 | Belowground C inputs

As mentioned above, boreal forests allocate as much as 70% of their assimilated C belowground, suggesting that these below-ground inputs are of great importance for soil C accumulation in boreal ecosystems (Ågren et al., 1980; Heinonsalo et al., 2010; Pumpanen et al., 2009; Yuan & Chen, 2010). As such, total belowground C allocation (estimated as the difference between soil C inputs and soil respiration) in boreal conifer forests is around 3Mg C ha⁻¹year⁻¹, while total aboveground litterfall is around 0.5 Mg C ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2021). Live fine roots turnover relatively fast (depending on species), within the range of 0.6 to 1.3 year⁻¹ (Yuan & Chen, 2010). Consequently, to maintain root biomass, a large part of belowground C is directed towards fine roots and associated mycorrhizal fungi, and a smaller portion supports the development of coarse roots. The remaining portion enters the soil in the form of root exudates, which can play a role in soil C accumulation by fostering the development of specific rhizosphere microbial communities but can sometimes also stimulate decomposition of litter and soil organic matter (Chen et al., 2019).

Despite the importance of belowground C inputs to soil C accumulation, how these inputs change through successional time remains little studied (Smyth et al., 2013). In a managed Pinus sylvestris chronosequence in Finland, mean annual root production was found to increase with increasing stand age (Makkonen & Helmisaari, 2001). In a Canadian Picea mariana chronosequence, fine root production peaked 71 years after fire (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2004a). In another Canadian mixed forest post-fire chronosequence, root production was more than twice as high 48 compared to 232 years post-fire, although these differences were not statistically significant due to very high spatial variability (Finer et al., 1997); whereas, fine root production peaked after 3-11 years in a Canadian mixed-forest post-fire chronosequence, then decreased and remained relatively invariable thereafter (Yuan & Chen, 2012). Differences in sampling depth among studies is a potential source of variation in reported data (Wasyliw & Karst, 2020). Despite the substantial variation among studies, a recent broad meta-analysis by Anderson-Teixeira et al. (2021) concluded that root production generally increased with time in forests up to ca. 100 years age, in line with observed patterns for aboveground biomass growth. Comparable data on root exudates are lacking.

As with other biomass compartments, a key determinant of root contributions to soil C accumulation depend not just on biomass input, but also on the stability of the necromass produced (see "Section 3.3" below). Some studies have found that fine root turnover and necromass production declines in older post-fire stands (Makkonen & Helmisaari, 2001; Yuan & Chen, 2012). In line with this, a long-term chronosequence (ca. 5000 years) in northern Sweden showed that while standing root biomass modestly declined in very FIGURE 2 A hypothesized depiction of multiple factors controlling the rate and pattern of soil organic horizon C stock accumulation following disturbance in boreal forests, including: net primary productivity (NPP), root production, plant lignin, nitrogen (N), carbon (C) content, and their ratios, N availability, ectomycorrhizal fungi (EMF) production and carbon use efficiency (CUE), oxidative enzymes, Gadgil suppression by EMF and ericoid mycorrhizal fungi (ERM), hyphal melanization, EMF exploration types, hyphal morphology and hydrophobicity, hydrolytic enzymes, heterotrophic respiration, and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) outputs. The red line indicates an asymptotic temporal C accumulation response, whereas the dashed blue line indicates a higher C accumulation trajectory over a longer duration. Controlling factors shaded in red depict factors promote a temporal C accumulation patterns following the red line, whereas factors shaded in blue depict factors that would promote long term C accumulation following the blue line. Shade intensity of each factor indicates the level of certainty and consensus in the literature, with more intense shades indicating greater consensus, and lighter shades indicating more urgent research frontier.



old forest ecosystems, roots and associated fungi contributed more to soil C accumulation in these forests due to slower decomposition of the necromass produced (Clemmensen et al., 2013). Across the few existing studies on fine root biomass and turnover over successional time, there is large variation in tree and understory species composition, type of disturbance, and chronosequence time-span. This, in combination with the high uncertainties inherent in belowground input measurements, make it exceptionally difficult at this point to confidently isolate the influence of various belowground inputs on soil C accumulation.

3.3 | Plant litter quality

Plants vary considerably in their functional traits related to resource acquisition strategies, and the composition of these traits change substantially through forest succession. The primary axis of evolutionary specialization among land plants spans from "acquisitive" or "fast" strategies to "conservative" or "slow" strategies. The former is characterized by functional traits associated with rapid growth and resource capture (such as high specific leaf area, high leaf N and P), while the latter are characterized by functional traits associated with resource conservation (such as high levels of structural defense; Díaz et al., 2016; Grau-Andres et al., 2022; Reich et al., 1997). Plants with acquisitive traits generally prefer more fertile environments, are more productive, and turn over their tissues faster than do plants with conservative traits (Díaz et al., 2016; Reich et al., 1997). Evidence is also accumulating that plants exhibit some level of trait coordination across the whole plant, such that conservative or acquisitive plants have analogous root, stem, and leaf traits (Weigelt et al., 2021). Functional trait spectra change during forest succession (Harrison & LaForgia, 2019; Lohbeck et al., 2013; Pérez-Ramos et al., 2019; Silva et al., 2015), whereby "fast" strategies usually dominate early in succession when N and light availability is higher, and "slow" strategies gradually become dominant later in succession when nutrient availability declines (Aerts & Chapin, 2000; Bond-Lamberty et al., 2006). This shift in trait spectra during succession can have consequences for decomposition, such

that necromass of early-successional species with acquisitive traits decompose more rapidly, and late-successional conservative species decompose more slowly (Berg et al., 1993; Cornelissen et al., 2004; Cornwell et al., 2008; de la Riva et al., 2019; Freschet et al., 2012; Reich et al., 1997).

Fire severity and frequency serve as important determinants of species-trait transitions. For high-frequency low-severity ground fires, which are typical in Northern Europe and Western Eurasian boreal coniferous forests, tree mortality is often low, and thus changes in forest species composition are more subtle, leaving the quality of litter inputs relatively unchanged between fire intervals. In the case of stand-replacing fire, where mortality is high and a significant portion of the soil organic layer is often consumed, much stronger forest transitions occur, often resulting in deciduous tree dominance early in succession (Mack et al., 2021; Pérez-Izquierdo et al., 2023). Transitions to deciduous species, which exhibit "fast" trait characteristics, have been linked to more rapid recovery of whole ecosystem C stocks, while the impact on soil C recovery remains less clear (Mack et al., 2021). Dominance of "fast" species results in a higher rate of litter production, which may be counteracted by greater decomposability. However, in late successional communities (>100 years), reductions in litter quality (e.g. related to greater abundance of mosses, Ericaceous shrubs, and Picea species) could potentially offset the effect that declining NPP may have on soil C, and thereby promote positive soil C accumulation over longer time scales, although this has seldom been tested. In a rare comparison of these two factors. Wardle et al. (2003) and Jonsson and Wardle (2010) used a ca. 5000 year Swedish boreal forest chronosequence to show that a continual decline in NPP was more than offset by a corresponding decline of litter quality and decomposability, leading to a small persistent net positive soil C accumulation rate. These studies therefore suggest that high NPP associated with "fast" species serve as a strong control on the relatively rapid C accumulation observed during the first century of succession, whereas recalcitrant litter traits associated with "slow" species may serve as a stronger control over longer time scales (centuries to millennia).

In managed boreal forests, which typically experience rotation periods of 100 years or less, natural regeneration of deciduous tree species can quickly dominate stands opened up by clear-cutting (Harvey & Bergeron, 1989; Ilintsev et al., 2020), similar to stand replacing wildfire. However, management often prioritizes specific tree species through active planting and multiple thinning events over the stand rotation. Here, the productivity and litter traits of the prioritized tree species have a greater potential to influence soil C accumulation than successional turnover of species through time. Vesterdal et al. (2013) summarized soil C stock data from published boreal and temperate forest common garden experiments that allows direct comparison of effects of different species while holding environmental and historical legacies constant. They found that the total amount of accumulated soil C did not consistently differ among tree species, but deciduous trees tended to accumulate more C in the mineral soil, while evergreen species promoted C accumulation in the organic horizon. Updating the approach of Vesterdal

et al. (2013) for boreal forests specifically, we compiled data from 17 boreal tree species experiments (Table 2; Supporting Information). These studies covered major boreal genera, Picea, Pinus, Betula, and to a lesser extent Populus and Larix. In contrast to the conclusion by Vesterdal et al. (2013), a majority of these studies showed that Picea promoted greater soil C accumulation in both the organic and mineral soil horizons, although with several exceptions. A generally higher C accumulation associated with Picea in Table 2 seemingly contradicts the chronosequence study by Mack et al. (2021), where soil C stocks appeared unaffected by dominant tree species, and no clear differences in soil C accumulation trajectories were found between deciduous versus Picea successional trajectories. This suggests that species by site fertility interactions are likely important in driving soil C accumulation. More specifically, species with "slow" traits may promote soil C accumulation to a greater extent in lowerfertility environments where they are most competitive.

3.4 | Mycorrhizal mycelial production and necromass

As mycorrhizal fungi have numerous influences on soil C cycling processes in boreal forests, their community compositional dynamics following clear-cutting or wildfire has important implications for understanding soil C stock recovery patterns. Most boreal tree species form symbioses with ectomycorrhizal fungi (EMF), whereas many understory shrubs form symbioses with ericoid mycorrhizal (ERM) fungi. Mycorrhizal fungi are important in regulating the fate of soil C inputs in boreal forests via their mycelial production and necromass stability (Ekblad et al., 2013). Globally, it has been estimated that approximately 7%–10% of NPP supports mycorrhizal fungal growth (Ekblad et al., 2013; Hobbie, 2006; Mäkelä et al., 2022). Peak EMF mycelial production has been found to coincide with canopy closure, after which production declines (Hagenbo et al., 2017). Biomass production of EMF has often been assumed to correlate with mycelial exploration types, which categorizes fungal species according to the presence, length, and branching patterns of hyphae emanating from root tips (Agerer, 2001). Taxa classified as "contact" or "shortdistance" exploration types have less visible mycelia emanating from root tips than do those classified as "medium-distance" or "longdistance" exploration types. It is often assumed that long-distance and medium-distance "fringed" exploration types have higher rates of biomass production than do contact or medium distance types (Weigt et al., 2012), but this assumption has been questioned (Jörgensen et al., 2021).

Necromass production and differences in necromass stability among mycorrhizal taxa are important determinants of soil C accumulation. Some EMF fungi produce hydrophobic mycelium, which is considered to promote more stable necromass than hydrophilic mycelium (Ekblad et al., 2013; Rillig et al., 2007). Further, small-diameter hyphae have been found to decompose more slowly than large diameter hyphae (McCormack et al., 2010). Previous work suggests that medium- and long-distance exploration hyphal types are more often

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TABLE 2 Summary of studies evaluating tree species effects on soil organic carbon in boreal forests. Three experiment types were considered, common garden (CG), paired stand (PS), and single-tree plot (ST) designs. Genera are ranked according to C stock size in humus and mineral soil. Search methods and references are reported in the Supporting Information.

Reference	Location	Design	Site age (year)	Organic horizon C stock size	Mineral soil C stock size
Smolander and Kitunen (2021)	Finland	CG	45	Picea > Betula	NA
Blasko (2020)	Sweden	CG	63	Pinus > Picea	Pinus = Picea
Segura et al. (2019)	Sweden	CG	51	Betula = Picea = Larix = Pinus	Forest floor and mineral soil together
Olsson et al. (2012)	Finland	CG	79	Picea > Pinus > Betula	Forest floor and mineral soil together
Smolander et al. (2005)	Finland	CG	35	Picea > Betula	NA
Alriksson (1998)	Sweden	CG	27	Betula = Pinus = Larix = Picea	Betula = Pinus = Larix = Picea
Alban (1982)	Minnesota, USA	CG	50-60	Pinus = Picea > Populus	Pinus = Picea > Populus
Paré et al. (2022)	Québec, Canada	PS	50-120	Picea = Abies	Picea = Abies
Kjönaas et al. (2021)	Norway	PS	45-103	Picea > Betula	Picea = Betula
Laganiere et al. (2015)	Ontario, Canada	PS	92	Pinus = Populus	Populus > Pinus
Laganiere et al. (2015)	Québec, Canada	PS	99	Picea > Populus	Picea > Populus
Langaniere et al. (2015)	Québec, Canada	PS	96	Picea > Populus	Picea > Populus
Bjarnadottir (2009)	Iceland	PS		NA	Picea > Pinus > Larix
Ritter (2007)	Iceland	PS	14-97	NA	Betula = Larix
Snorasson et al. (2002)	Iceland	PS	16-54	Very little C stock in humus	Picea > Larix > Betula
Sigurðardóttir (2000)	Iceland	PS	43-65	Pinus > Betula = Larix	Pinus = Betula = Larix
Legaré et al. (2005)	Québec, Canada	ST	139	Picea > Populus	NA

hydrophobic, while contact and short-distance types are more often hydrophilic (Lilleskov et al., 2011). A growing body of evidence also suggests that hyphal content of the pigment melanin plays a central role in necromass stability and soil C accumulation (Fernandez et al., 2016, 2019). Several studies have demonstrated that highly melanized necromass persists longer than less melanized necromass (Certano et al., 2018; Fernandez & Kennedy, 2018). In boreal forests, the widespread ascomycetous EMF species *Cenococcum geophilum* and *Hyaloscypha finlandica*, as well as most ERM, are known to possess high melanin content (Fernandez et al., 2019), and may therefore disproportionately contribute to soil C accumulation.

Potential trait trade-offs across EMF species regarding their mycelial production rates, and necromass stability will influence EMF contribution to soil C following wildfire and harvesting disturbances, but our knowledge regarding the presence or strength of such tradeoffs is currently limited (Figure 2). Ectomycorrhizal fungal communities in young secondary forests have low diversity and are dominated by the Atheliacea family, including the genera *Tylospora Amphinema*, as well as for example *Suillus brevipes* and *Tomentella/Thelephora* species (Kyaschenko et al., 2017; Twieg et al., 2007; Wallander et al., 2010). These "early stage" EMF fungal taxa tend to be more tolerant to high levels of inorganic N (Jörgensen et al., 2024; Lilleskov et al., 2019) with faster mycelial growth (Jörgensen et al., 2023) and higher biomass turnover (Hagenbo et al., 2018) relative to "late stage" taxa. The gradual development of N limitation during stand development appears to favor the genera *Cortinarius* and *Russula*, which possess key traits (discussed later) for N acquisition in older forests (Hagenbo et al., 2018; Kyaschenko et al., 2017). Shifts in EMF composition toward these late-stage taxa appear to correspond with reduced mycelial production rates, but mycelial biomass is maintained at high levels by slow turnover (Hagenbo et al., 2018). Declining mycelial production and turnover in older N-limited forests may be coordinated with declining needle production and turnover (Reich et al., 2014). Differences in hyphal traits between early and late successional EMF communities (e.g. melanin content, hyphal diameter, hydrophobicity) may influence necromass stability, but data on how these traits change through time are limited.

The effects of wildfire versus clear-cut harvesting on mycelial production and stability remain poorly understood, but differences are likely related to tree and understory plant species composition. Cord-forming EMF species may initially increase with stand age before declining as stands approach old-growth characteristics, and ERM fungi become more dominant (Clemmensen et al., 2015; Fanin et al., 2022). As Ericaceous shrubs become more dominant over time, studies have demonstrated that ERM necromass favors soil C accumulation, in part due to its higher melanin content (Clemmensen et al., 2015). Because broadleaf-dominated boreal forests are less often associated with ericaceous understories than coniferdominated forests (Hart & Chen, 2008), owing to their "fast" trait characteristics (as previously discussed), severely burned stands that become dominated by broadleaf species may exhibit prolonged shifts toward ERM dominance. In contrast, clear-cut harvesting and

conifer tree planting may favor earlier dominance of Ericaceous understories in some situations, which could result in more stable necromass production via ERM fungi. Understanding the temporal dynamics of fungal necromass production and stability during forest development clearly remains a research frontier.

4 | CARBON OUTPUT

4.1 | Heterotrophic respiration

Total soil respiration (R_s) is typically divided into two main components. The first component consists of autotrophic respiration of belowground plant parts plus associated mycorrhizal fungi (usually referred collectively as autotrophic respiration, R_a, due to impracticality of separating roots and mycorrhizal mycelium). The second component consists of heterotrophic respiration $(R_{\rm b})$ of free-living microorganisms that decompose litter and existing soil organic matter. In boreal forests, the ratio of autotrophic to heterotrophic soil respiration can vary widely over the succession of a developing forest (Martinez-Garcia et al., 2022) but has been shown to be nearly even in mid-rotational managed forests (Högberg et al., 2001). Carbon respired through R_2 has a very short residence time, and its large signal can obscure measurement of heterotrophic efflux from microbial breakdown of organic matter, which is much more relevant for understanding the dynamics of soil C stock changes through time. Partitioning these different soil CO₂ sources is difficult in practice, and various experimental techniques such as tree girdling (Högberg et al., 2001), trenching, incubations, and ¹⁴C signature analysis have been used to attempt this (e.g. Czimczik et al., 2006). Because it is so difficult to measure, variation in R_h remains one of the most enigmatic controls of soil C stock changes following disturbance. This has led to controversy regarding the degree to which soil C loss following clear-cutting influences the break-even point of net ecosystem production (Lindroth, 2023; Peichl et al., 2023). Further, there are a wide range of environmental controls on R_b, (e.g. temperature, moisture, nutrient availability, substrate chemistry, rate of detrital inputs, and soil community composition; Harmon et al., 2011) that are known to vary from site to site and through time, which can make temporal trends difficult to describe.

In one of the first studies to describe temporal patterns of R_h in boreal forests, Pregitzer and Euskirchen (2004) employed a meta-analysis approach of studies conducted in forests of different ages and disturbance types. While not distinguishing between disturbance types, their meta-analysis indicated that R_h in boreal forests was substantially less variable through time than was NPP, a key finding reinforced by later studies (Peichl et al., 2022; Uri et al., 2022). In a recent comprehensive meta-analysis, Anderson-Teixeira et al. (2021) found no clear change in R_h with stand age up to 100 years. By contrast, Pregitzer and Euskirchen (2004) found that R_h ranged between 1.5 and 3.5 Mg C ha⁻¹, with highest rates observed in the intermediate age class (>200 years since disturbance), lowest in the oldest age class (>200 years since disturbance),

and intermediate in recently disturbed forests; however, $R_{\rm h}$ was much less variable than NPP.

There are several reasons to expect that temporal change in $R_{\rm h}$ may differ in response to fire versus clear-cutting disturbances. While both disturbance types can reduce vegetation cover and thus increase soil temperatures (promoting $R_{\rm h}$), they also differ substantially in the amount and quality of soil organic matter available for decomposition. Fire often consumes a substantial portion of surface soil organic matter, leaving behind a smaller C stock for saprotrophic organisms to respire. Further, fire can convert organic matter into pyrogenic C (i.e. "black C"), which is substantially more resistant to decomposition following disturbance. In a Canadian Pinus banksiana forest, Santín et al. (2015) estimated that as much as 28% of biomass affected by fire was converted to pyrogenic C. Pyrogenic C stocks have been estimated in the range of 3-10 Mg C ha⁻¹ (Ohlson et al., 2009; Preston et al., 2017; Santín et al., 2015), which, due to its recalcitrance, can slow down site level R_h rates. Numerous studies have demonstrated short-term reductions in R_s after wildfire, with high-intensity or high-frequency fires causing more severe reductions, coinciding with tree death, loss of soil organic matter, and production of pyrogenic C (Kelly et al., 2021; Sawamoto et al., 2000; Singh et al., 2008). Many such studies have not actually determined the contribution of $R_{\rm b}$ to $R_{\rm c}$ following fire; however, those that have generally showed reduced R_h (Gui et al., 2023; Song et al., 2019). Utilizing longer-term chronosequences, Bond-Lamberty et al. (2004a) showed that $R_{\rm h}$ decreased sharply 7 years after wildfire in a well-drained forest chronosequence, but increased in a poorly drained chronosequence, indicating that the short-term $R_{\rm b}$ response can be influenced by site characteristics. However, over a longer duration, they found that both chronosequences exhibited relatively constant R_h. Similarly, using a long-term Canadian wildfire chronosequence, Goulden et al. (2011) found that R_h was relatively invariable through time, even as NPP strongly recovered. In another chronosequence in central Canada, Czimczik et al. (2006) found that $R_{\rm b}$ remained relatively low for decades after fire (<20% of $R_{\rm c}$), but then increased substantially in mid-successional stands (>40 years following fire). Collectively, these studies suggest that fire initially reduces R_b, which eventually rebounds, and then remains relatively invariable over longer time scales in the absence of another disturbance.

In contrast to fire, clear-cutting typically does not involve direct removal of soil C, and instead often involves a large input of fresh logging residues (e.g. branches, leaves, and dead roots) that have the potential to stimulate short term R_h . Further, clear-cutting eliminates mycorrhizal fungi through loss of host trees, which can further impact decomposition (discussed in the following section). It is clear that clear-cut forests act as C sources for years to decades following cutting due to R_h exceeding NPP; however, the issue of whether R_h increases or remains constant following clear-cutting remains unresolved, even though it has important implications for understanding net forest C balance and is the source of much debate (Lindroth, 2023; Peichl et al., 2023). Few studies have actually partitioned R_h along post-clear-cut chronosequences. Some studies employing chronosequence approaches have shown that R_h does in fact temporarily increase following clear-cutting (Howard et al., 2004; Uri et al., 2022), while other studies have shown that R_h is not markedly stimulated by clear-cutting (Mäkiranta et al., 2010; Martinez-Garcia et al., 2022).

In addition to the common practice of clear-cutting in boreal forests, even-aged management systems typically include some form of mechanical scarification or "site preparation" to improve regeneration of seedlings (Figure 1). This can include practices such as disc trenching, mounding, soil inversion, or harrowing, which serve as major disturbances to soils (Cardoso et al., 2020). The effect of these practices on $R_{\rm h}$ or decomposition are highly variable, with some studies reporting significant reductions (Maillard et al., 2010; Simola, 2018; Strömgren et al., 2017), some indicating minimal or no impact on soil C stocks (Mjöfors et al., 2015, 2017; Strömgren et al., 2013), and yet others indicating that decomposition accelerates (Lundmark-Thelin & Johansson, 1997; Mallik & Hu, 1997; Mjöfors et al., 2015). Given the highly variable patterns of R_h and decomposition following clear-cutting and site preparation, and substantial debate surrounding this topic, a clear research priority is to determine fundamental factors that explain temporal variation in R_b among studies, such as climate, hydrology, or fertility.

4.2 | Influence of mycorrhiza on heterotrophic respiration

After stand death, EMF generally disappear, regardless of whether the disturbance agent is forestry (Kyaschenko et al., 2017), severe fire (Pérez-Izquierdo et al., 2023) or insect outbreaks (Stursová et al., 2014). This loss may be partially mitigated by tree retention in managed stands (Sterkenburg et al., 2019) or by tree survival following fire (Pérez-Izquierdo et al., 2021). Because symbiotic fungi receive C from host plants, they are generally expected to have a more positive influence on soil C build-up than saprotrophs, which instead rely on organic matter breakdown as their energy source. However, root-associated fungi not only contribute to organic matter accumulation through their own necromass production, but can also influence existing soil C and nutrient dynamics through two opposing mechanisms (Frey, 2019), specifically by acting as strong competitors for soil N, or via production of oxidative enzymes that can destabilize soil organic matter.

It is recognized that EMF are strong competitors for nutrients by efficiently occupying soil space (Bödeker et al., 2016), and by selectively removing and immobilizing N from soil organic matter (Kyaschenko et al., 2019; Näsholm et al., 2013). As a result, they restrict N availability for other organisms, including saprotrophic Agaricomycetes (Sterkenburg et al., 2018), thus limiting saprotrophic activity. This phenomenon is referred to as the "Gadgil effect" (Gadgil & Gadgil, 1971). Direct measurements in boreal forests have found that a significant but small Gadgil effect impairs litter decomposition. Sterkenburg et al. (2018) showed that *Pinus* litter decomposition was – 🚍 Global Change Biology – ${
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11% slower when mycorrhizal fungi and roots were present, compared to when they were excluded. Likewise, Maaroufi et al. (2019) showed an approximately 10% decrease in litter decomposition in the presence of mycorrhizal roots compared to inside trenched plots that lacked roots, and that trenching significantly reduced N export from decomposing litter substrates. Given the control that EMF have on saprotrophic activity, disturbance-induced death of EMF is usually followed by proliferation of opportunistic fungi, which decompose recently dead roots, mycorrhizal mycelium, and soil C (Kim et al., 2021; Kohout et al., 2018; Lindahl et al., 2010; Sterkenburg et al., 2018) (Kim et al., 2021) (Kim et al., 2021) (Kim et al., 2021) (Kim et al., 2021). These opportunistic saprotrophs appear to have a low capacity to decompose recalcitrant C pools, but nonetheless may contribute modestly to increased R_h following disturbance (Kyaschenko et al., 2017).

In addition to the "Gadgil effect" that impairs organic matter decomposition, some EMF taxa have the ability to produce enzymes that carry out extracellular oxidation. Pronounced capacity to decompose large aromatic complexes, such as lignin, has evolved exclusively in the fungal class Agaricomycetes (Floudas et al., 2012). A majority of EMF belong to the Agaricomycetes, where most EMF lineages have lost their capacity to decompose lignocellulose, and instead obtain more easily available sugars directly from their host trees (Kohler et al., 2015). However, some EMF genera have retained their ancestral capacity for oxidative depolymerization of aromatic soil compounds (Bödeker et al., 2014; Nicolás et al., 2019). These may be referred to as "EMF decomposers", as they combine oxidative decomposition with symbiotic C acquisition. They generally lack enzymes to hydrolyse cellulose and primarily forage organic matter for N rather than metabolically useful C (Forsmark et al., 2024; Lindahl & Tunlid, 2015; Maillard et al., 2023).

Ectomycorrhizal decomposers in the species-rich genus Cortinarius are a diverse and often dominant group in older N poor forests (>50 years) where they appear to be actively involved in organic matter decomposition (Bödeker et al., 2014). The presence of certain common Cortinarius species has been linked to a 33% reduction in local C storage in the organic horizon (Lindahl et al., 2021). Ectomycorrhizal fungal communities substantially change following disturbance, and remain altered for at least 50 years after clear-cutting (Kyaschenko et al., 2017; Varenius et al., 2017). Many Cortinarius species in particular are sensitive to forestry-related disturbance (Kyaschenko et al., 2017; Twieg et al., 2007; Varenius et al., 2017), potentially due to their slow mycelial growth and high demand of host C (Jörgensen et al., 2021). Their decline after disturbance has been linked to an almost complete loss of oxidative enzyme activity in the more recalcitrant deeper parts of the organic horizon (Pérez-Izquierdo et al., 2021; Sterkenburg et al., 2018). Thus, whereas losses of EMF after disturbance may stimulate short-term (0-10 years) C losses via the Gadgil effect, rapid growth of EMF (Hagenbo et al., 2017; Wallander et al., 2010) may hamper decomposition in developing stands (10-50 years old) if the community is depleted in species with decomposer capacity (Kyaschenko et al., 2017). At later successional stages (>50 years), proliferation

TABLE 3 A description of major fungal groups, and their capacity to decompose organic matter, supress saprotrophs (i.e. Gadgil effect), and their expected net effect on soil organic matter accumulation.

Description	Principal taxonomy	Root association	Decomposer capacity	Gadgil effect	Effect on organic matter
Ericoid mycorrhizal fungi and other root-associates	Ascomycota	Symbiotic, melanin rich	Hydrolytic	Strong	Strongly positive
Ectomycorrhizal non- decomposers; early stage	Agaricomycetes	Symbiotic	Low	Strong	Positive
Opportunistic moulds and yeasts	Ascomycota and others	Free-living	Hydrolytic		Neutral
Ectomycorrhizal decomposers; late stage	Agaricomycetes (e.g. Cortinarius)	Symbiotic	Oxidative	Weak	Negative
Saprotrophic Agaricomycetes	Agaricomycetes	Free-living	Hydrolytic and oxidative		Strongly negative

of EMF decomposers may maintain organic matter turnover and nutrient cycling under intensifying N-limitation (Forsmark et al., 2020, Lindahl et al., 2021; Figure 2; Table 3).

In a longer time perspective (>100 year time-scales), changing vegetation composition and increasing N-limitation (Gundale et al., 2011) are commonly linked to increasing abundance of rootassociated ascomycetes, including those that form mycorrhizal association with ericoid shrubs (Clemmensen et al., 2015). Ericoid roots and their associated mycorrhizal fungi are efficient in immobilizing N (Mielke et al., 2022), which may lead to competitive suppression of both EMF and saprotrophic decomposers, analogous to Gadgil suppression for EMF (Fanin et al., 2022). Although ERM have a wide repertoire of hydrolytic enzymes that should provide them some flexibility to persist as saprotrophs, they lack the oxidative systems required to be efficient decomposers (Martino et al., 2018). Low activity of EMF decomposers relative to ERM can lead to continued long-term soil C accumulation (Ward et al., 2022). These studies indicate that the trajectory of soil C accumulation is influenced by the shifting balance between fungal functional groups during succession, with sequential dominance of saprotrophs (ca. 0-15 years), EMF taxa incapable of decomposition (ca. 15-50 years), EMF decomposers (ca. 50-100+ years), and finally ericoid dominance (100+ years; Figure 2; Table 3).

4.3 | Dissolved organic carbon

Exports of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) from boreal soils are generally considered small compared to heterotrophic respiration fluxes. For example, a recent C budget in a boreal forest in northern Sweden found negligible DOC in lysimeters (Marshall et al., 2023). Further, in three 40-year old *Picea abies* stands in Sweden, 95% of the DOC flux from the organic horizon to the mineral layer (9.3 to $28 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$) was captured through sorption in the top 50 cm of the mineral soil (Kleja et al., 2008). Since there are a variety of methods for measuring DOC fluxes, such as lysimeters and sampling wells, and also variation among studies in which soil layers and depths are measured, direct comparison among studies and

models predicting DOC pools and fluxes can be challenging (e.g. Kleja et al., 2008; Neff & Asner, 2001). Nevertheless, there is an increasing amount of literature highlighting the importance of including DOC export in boreal C budgets (Cole et al., 2007; Öquist et al., 2014; Regnier et al., 2013). For example, a recent global and biome level modelling study by Nakhavali et al. (2021) estimated that of the total net ecosystem production of boreal forests (0.23 Pg C year⁻¹), approximately 10.4% is lost through DOC export, suggesting that DOC is not a trivial flux that can be overlooked. Further, it is now well documented that DOC exports in boreal streams has been steadily increasing over decades (leading to "stream brownification"), suggesting these exports are becoming increasingly important (e.g. Fork et al., 2020; Kritzberg et al., 2020).

The effect of disturbances such as wildfire and clear-cutting can have varying and sometimes large impacts on DOC outputs from terrestrial boreal forest systems. For example, immediate effects of wildfire on DOC concentrations in stream water can vary greatly, and be both positive, negative, or neutral (see reviews by Betts & Jones, 2009; Granath et al., 2021; Rodríguez-Cardona et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2011). In contrast to fire, DOC exports directly following clear-cutting are more consistently reported to increase (see review by Kreutzweiser et al., 2008). For example, in Picea abies forests in Sweden, DOC in headwater streams has been shown to increase immediately after clear-cutting (Schelker et al., 2012), resulting in a 70% increase in terrestrial DOC exports (Laudon et al., 2009). France et al. (2000) studied 116 lakes across Canada and found that DOC concentrations increased in relation to past disturbances (4-13 years prior), including forest fire and partial and full forest harvesting, with the greatest effects following clear-cutting. Following this increase immediately after clear-cutting, several studies have suggested that DOC exports decrease during initial stand development. For example, Clarke et al. (2007) showed that DOC concentrations beneath the organic horizon decreased to a minimum 10-30 years after harvest, when stand development is very rapid. Further, Fork et al. (2020) suggested that older conifer forests in northern Sweden are a relatively large source of DOC exports to streams.

While there is clearly a scarcity of studies that allow thorough evaluation of how time since disturbance in natural versus managed boreal forest systems influences DOC outputs, available literature suggests that DOC exports are highest directly after clear-cutting, and potentially also later in forest succession as forests reach maturity. Factors affecting temporal change in DOC export may include precipitation, changing NPP and soil respiration (Pumpanen et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2022), and changes in NPP and soil respiration. Further, mycorrhizal processes discussed in the previous section may play an important role on DOC production in boreal forests. Specifically, the higher oxidative activities associated with saprotrophs early in succession (i.e. due to the loss of Gadgil suppression), as well as the higher oxidative enzyme activities associated with EMF decomposers later in succession, could help to explain patterns of DOC production and export during succession (Figure 2). Such relationships, while currently speculative, may not only be useful to understand patterns of soil C accumulation but also boreal streamwater brownification trends.

5 | CONCLUSIONS

Soil C accumulation in boreal forests is highly dynamic following disturbance, with evidence suggesting that asymptotic relationships are not necessarily universal, but nonetheless appear common. Our literature search also highlighted that soil C accumulation data from other types of disturbances (e.g. insect outbreaks) are urgently needed to complement the larger body of literature from chronosequences after wildfire and clear-cutting. Our review also highlights several key drivers of these temporal patterns. High rates of soil C accumulation early in succession appear to be driven by high NPP, mycorrhizal mycelial production, associated Gadgil suppression of saprotrophs, and the disappearance of disturbance-sensitive mycorrhizal decomposers. As forests mature, N availability declines, and the abundance of EMF decomposers increases, which together act to slow C accumulation rates. However, the soil C recovery dynamics of mature forests can depend on the balance between EMF decomposers, which promote carbon loss, versus key traits associated with ericaceous shrubs that promote C accumulation. Our review suggests that soil communities dominated by EMF decomposers will greatly limit C accumulation, whereas communities dominated by ERM will promote long-term soil C accumulation due to their highly melanized hyphae, and their suppression of saprotrophic and EMF decomposers.

Further, some key differences in soil C development after fire and clear-cutting are clear. Firstly, while fire is generally characterized by high loss rates during the actual disturbance, followed by low short-term heterotrophic respiration (R_h), clear-cutting sometimes appears to promote early successional (<10 years) soil C losses in some forests via higher R_h . However, the magnitude and consistency of this response appears to be highly variable among studies. Over longer time scales, median C accumulation rates appears to be relatively similar between these disturbance types (Table 1). Our review also identified major knowledge gaps regarding the biological controls on soil C accumulation following 🚍 Global Change Biology – WILEY

disturbance (Figure 2). Notably, while studies measuring total soil respiration (R_c) are numerous, few studies have directly compared the short- and long-term response of $R_{\rm h}$ to fire and management. In particular, there is a need for robust temporal data on the contribution of $R_{\rm b}$ to net ecosystem production, to better inform ongoing scientific and policy debate about C balances following clear-cutting. Regardless of these knowledge gaps, the temporal pattern of soil C accumulation has implications for understanding the importance of disturbance intervals for the landscape-level soil C balance (Flannigan et al., 2009). Our literature search implies that shortening of disturbance intervals to under 100 years may result in a reduction in landscape-level soil organic C stocks, because soil C accumulation has not yet reached an asymptotic inflection point by that time. While important for all disturbance types, the consequence of shortened disturbance intervals may be especially important when disturbance causes severe initial soil carbon losses, for example in response to severe wildfire or specific management practices (e.g. organic horizon removal).

Finally, while it is clear that soil fungal communities can change substantially during stand development, much remains unknown about how relationships and trade-offs between key fungal traits (e.g. mycorrhizal exploration types, hyphal morphology, melanization, necromass stability and decomposer capacities) shift as fungal communities change. Further, the competitive controls between EMF decomposers versus ERM are crucial for understanding long-term soil C accumulation rates with increasing time since disturbance, given that the literature currently emphasizes the C destabilizing and stabilizing mechanisms of these functional group, respectively. An improved understanding of these key frontiers will facilitate better representation of boreal forest C dynamics in soil organic C and Earth system models as well as guide land use decisions. This is urgently needed given the clear role of boreal soils in the global C cycle, and the changes they are experiencing from natural and anthropogenic disturbance.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Michael J. Gundale: Writing – review and editing. E. Petter Axelsson: Writing – review and editing. Vincent Buness: Writing – review and editing. Timon Callebaut: Writing – review and editing. Thomas H. DeLuca: Writing – review and editing. Stefan F. Hupperts: Writing – review and editing. Theresa S. Ibáñez: Writing – review and editing. Daniel B. Metcalfe: Writing – review and editing. Marie-Charlotte Nilsson: Writing – review and editing. Matthias Peichl: Writing – review and editing. Clydecia M. Spitzer: Writing – review and editing. Zsofia R. Stangl: Writing – review and editing. Joachim Strengbom: Writing – review and editing. Maja K. Sundqvist: Writing – review and editing. David A. Wardle: Writing – review and editing. Björn D. Lindahl: Writing – review and editing.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declair no conflicts of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analyzed in this study.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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