

Topic 1

Integrating climate change into forestry

USAID-CIFOR-ICRAF Project
Assessing the Implications of Climate Change for USAID Forestry Programs (2009)



Objectives

- To present the links between climate change, forests and agriculture
- To identify ways to address climate change issues in the case of existing forestry and agriculture programs
- To develop a conceptual framework about the linkages between land use programs and climate change

Topic 1, Slide 2 of 47



Narration: This presentation is an overview of the issue of climate change for forestry programs. The objectives are to present the links between climate change and forests and to identify ways to address climate change issues within existing forestry programs. We also develop a conceptual framework about the linkages between forestry and climate change. This conceptual framework will help to analyse the possible ways to integrate climate change related activities into forestry programs.

Outline

1. Ecosystem services of forests and agricultural lands
2. Forests and mitigation
3. Forests and adaptation
4. Payments for ecosystem services: Carbon storage and the UNFCCC
5. Conceptual framework
6. Group work

Topic 1, Slide 3 of 47



Narration: *The presentation consists of six parts.*

Presentation of the outline.

- 1 Brief introduction to the difference between adaptation to and mitigation of climate change
- 2 and 3. Links between forestry and mitigation / adaptation
4. Policies
5. Conceptual framework
6. Group work

1. Ecosystem services and climate change

- **Landscapes provide ecosystem services**
 - Carbon storage → mitigation
 - Water regulation and quality → adaptation
 - Microclimate regulation → adaptation
 - Economic opportunities → adaptation
 - Biodiversity, cultural values → adaptation
- **Landscapes and their ecosystem services are vulnerable to climate variability and change**
 - Practices to reduce landscape vulnerabilities → adaptation

Topic 1, Slide 4 of 47



Narration: Both forested and agricultural landscapes provide a variety of ecosystem services which can either be enhanced and protected by management or can be degraded. Ecosystems can store carbon in trees and other biomass as well as in the soil. In climate change terms, this is called mitigation because better management results in lower emissions or in increased removal of carbon from the atmosphere, thus lowering the CO₂ in the atmosphere. At the same time, these same landscapes can provide benefits that increase resiliency to climate change. Such adaptation benefits include improved storage and release of water, maintained local and regional rainfall patterns and diversified economic opportunities through agricultural products, timber, nontimber products and tourism. These same landscapes can also provide services such as biodiversity maintenance and places where local people uphold cultural or religious values. The services and landscapes are themselves vulnerable to climate variability and change, such as increased risk of forest fires. Thus forest or agricultural management itself needs to be adapted to become more resilient.

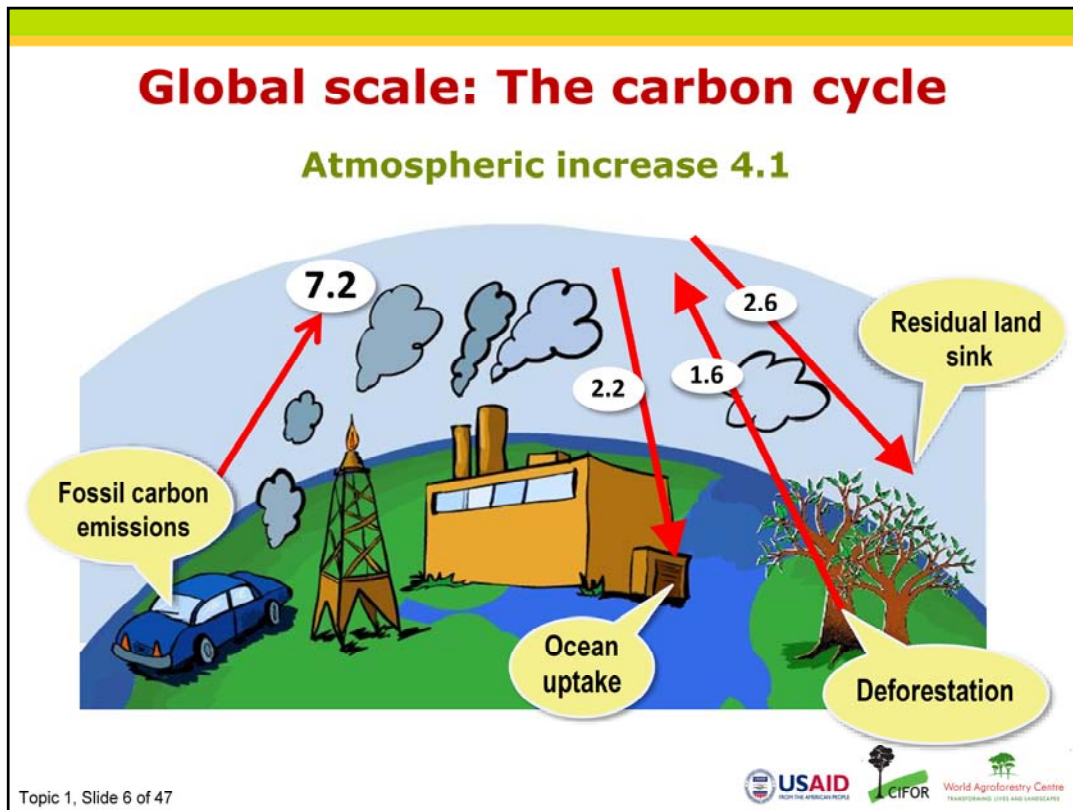
Both forested and agricultural landscapes provide a variety of ecosystem services which can either be enhanced and protected by management or can be degraded. Ecosystems can store carbon in trees and other biomass as well as in the soil. In climate change terms, this is called mitigation because better management results in lower emissions or in increased removal of carbon from the atmosphere, thus lowering the CO₂ in the atmosphere. At the same time, these same landscapes can provide benefits that increase resiliency to climate change. Such adaptation benefits include improved storage and release of water, maintained local and regional rainfall patterns and diversified economic opportunities through agricultural products, timber, nontimber products and tourism. These same landscapes can also provide services such as biodiversity maintenance and places where local people uphold cultural or religious values. The services and landscapes are themselves vulnerable to climate variability and change, such as increased risk of forest fires. Thus forest or agricultural management itself needs to be adapted to become more resilient.

In the rest of this presentation, we will review mitigation and adaptation as it relates to landscapes, with a focus on the forest sector. While we treat these issues separately in some of the presentation, our main message is that on the ground, the same management action, like setting up local community fire patrols, will both provide mitigation benefits through reduced emissions from deforestation, and will bring adaptation benefits through greater climate resiliency to local communities from continued regulation of local water supplies.

2. Forests and mitigation: Storing carbon on land

Topic 1, Slide 5 of 47





Narration: First, you will learn about the carbon cycle at the global scale before downscaling to the forest scale. Today, the use of fossil fuels is responsible for an emission of 7.2 billion tonnes of carbon per year; 4.1 billion tonnes accumulate in the atmosphere. The unaccumulated carbon—2.2 billion tonnes per year—is absorbed by the oceans. However, a terrestrial sink of 1 billion tonnes is still missing. Deforestation, mainly tropical, emits 1.6 billion tonnes. This means that 2.6 billion tonnes of carbon are absorbed by the biosphere every year.

This absorption is the result of expanding forests in developed countries, the enhancement of ecosystem productivity by higher atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, and a longer growing season in northern latitudes.

What is a tonne of CO₂?

- Examples from daily life footprint
 - Flying roundtrip from New York to Los Angeles = 0.9 tCO₂/person
 - Driving an average car in the USA = 5.4 tCO₂/year
- National averages
 - One person in the USA = 25 tCO₂/yr
 - One person in India = 1 tCO₂/yr

www.epa.gov/climatechange/emissions/ind_calculator.html
www.nature.org/initiatives/climatechange/calculator/

Topic 1, Slide 7 of 47



Narration: To give a clearer idea of what a ton of CO₂ is, here are some examples of emissions from daily life.

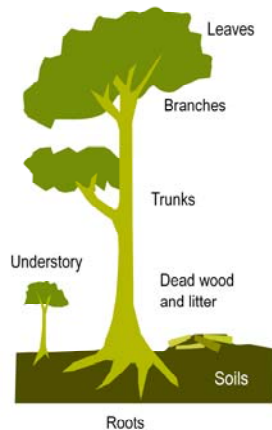
Forest scale: Stocks and fluxes

A forest = carbon stocks

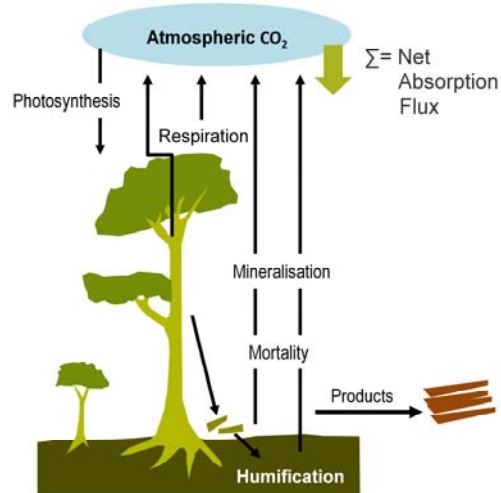
1 kilogram of dry wood \approx 0.5 kg of carbon

Tropical wet forest (IPCC, 2003):

- Aboveground biomass: 65 to 430 tC/ha
- Soils: 44 to 130 tC/ha



A forest = carbon fluxes

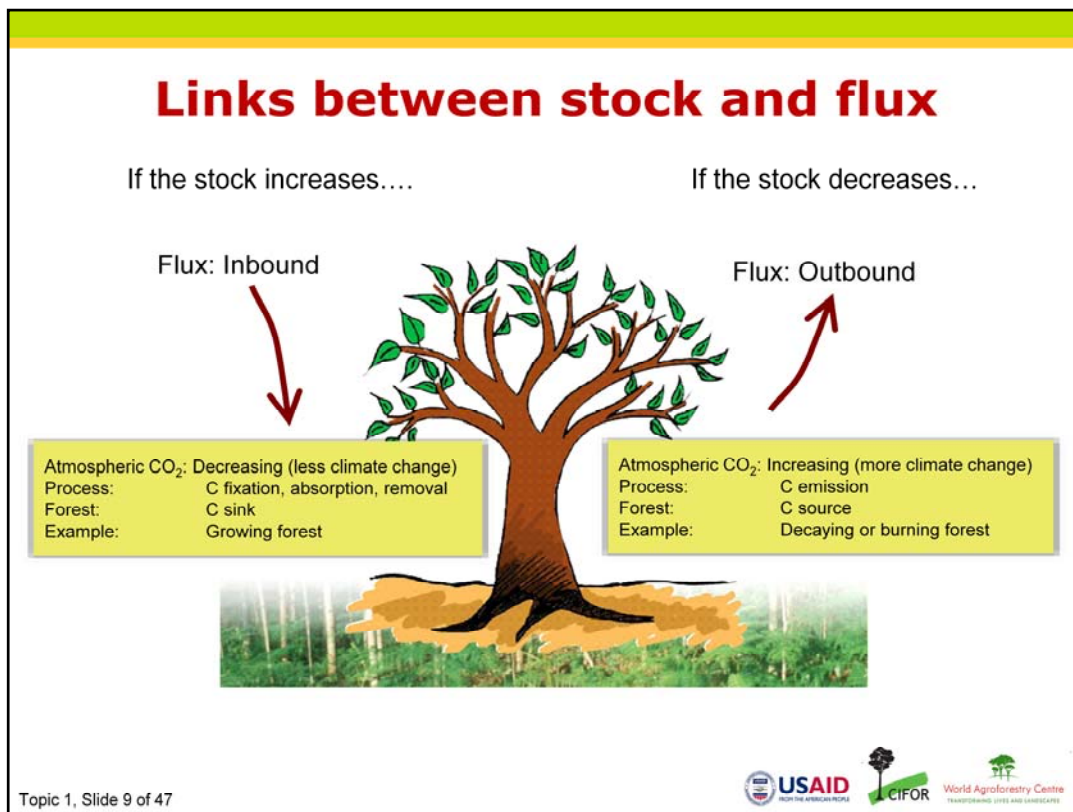


Topic 1, Slide 8 of 47



Narration: At the forest scale, forests affect the carbon cycle in two ways. First, a forest, like any ecosystem, is a set of carbon stocks. Carbon is everywhere, from the leaves to the soil. A good way to visualize a stock of carbon is to think of the biomass stored in the ecosystem. Almost 50% of the dry biomass is carbon. If the dry biomass of a tree is 2 tonnes, then it contains around 1 tonne of carbon. A tropical wet forest can store up to 430 tonnes of carbon per hectare in the aboveground biomass.

Second, a forest is a set of carbon fluxes. Using sunlight as a source of energy, the leaves absorb carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and transform it through the process of photosynthesis. The products of photosynthesis will be distributed to the plant and will move to the litter and soil when branches or leaves fall down and decompose. Other fluxes are returning CO₂ to the atmosphere through respiration and soil mineralisation. Products exported from the ecosystem also affect carbon fluxes. Among these fluxes, those that interest us most are the ones between the atmosphere and the biosphere. The difference between inbound, photosynthesis, and outbound fluxes, respiration and mineralisation, is the net absorption flux.



Narration: When an ecosystem absorbs carbon dioxide, the carbon stock increases and climate change is reduced. When carbon dioxide is released into the atmosphere the carbon stock decreases and climate change increases.

Stock and flux are two important variables, but how are they linked? If the stock increases, it means that the ecosystem absorbs carbon. This fact comes from the mass conservation law. As an example, if your bank account is growing, it means there is more money entering than going out. In the case of a growing ecosystem, the net balance of flux is an inbound flux. It means that CO₂ is removed from the atmosphere, the atmospheric concentration of greenhouse gas emissions is decreased and climate change is reduced. In that case, the process is called carbon fixation, absorption or removal and the ecosystem is called a carbon sink. Conversely, if the stock decreases (for instance in a decaying or burning forest), an outbound flux will increase atmospheric greenhouse gas emissions concentrations and increase climate change. The process is called carbon emission and the ecosystem is called a carbon source.

Quiz Which figure represents the simplified evolution of aboveground carbon stock?

You answered this correctly!

The correct answer is:

Your answer:

Correct
Click anywhere to continue

Incorrect
Click anywhere to continue

You did not answer this question completely

You must answer the question before continuing

Carbon

Carbon

Carbon

years

years

years

6 Non-forested land

5 Forest conversion to non-forested land use

4 Unsustainably managed forest

3 Plantation established on non-forested land and harvested regularly

2 Forest converted to a plantation

1 Conserved primary forest

Submit Clear

Topic 1, Slide 10 of 47

USAID
FROM THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

CIFOR

World Agroforestry Centre
TRANSFORMING LIVES AND LANDSCAPES

Narration: After these basic definitions of stocks and fluxes, you can imagine the evolution of carbon stock under different management. Charts 1 to 6 represent the evolution of aboveground carbon stocks in different ecosystems. Match each carbon stock graph with its description to the right. Then share your answers.

Quiz answers:

First, the most simple ones. Non-forested land has constant levels of low carbon content: 6.

Conserved primary forest has constant levels of high carbon content: 2.

When forest is converted to non-forested land use the carbon content abruptly changes, from high carbon content before the conversion to low carbon content after: 5.

When a forest is converted to a plantation, the high carbon content before the conversion abruptly drops then builds up again: 3. (Note that the carbon content at the end could be higher or lower than the level before conversion)

Plantation established on non-forested land and harvested regularly has low carbon content at the beginning then cycles: 1.

Unsustainably managed forest begins with high carbon content that gradually decreases: 4.

Quiz

Your Score	{score}
Max Score	{max-score}
Number of Quiz Attempts	{total-attempts}

Question Feedback/Review Information
Will Appear Here

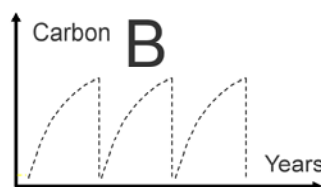
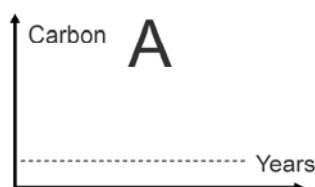
Continue

Review Quiz

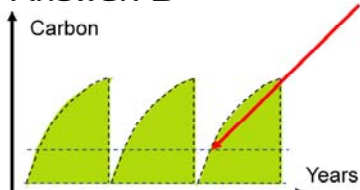
Comparing scenarios

For climate change mitigation, which is the best alternative?

- A degraded pasture (A)
- A forest plantation that is destroyed or burned regularly (B)



Answer: B



Additional stored carbon in alternative B compared to A = carbon that does not contribute to climate change (even if it is temporary)

- Mean of B
- Mean of A

Topic 1, Slide 12 of 48

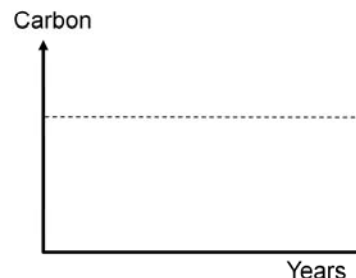


Narration: In this example, Graph A represents a degraded pasture with low and constant carbon stock. Graph B represents a forest plantation, which is destroyed or burnt regularly. Comparing the carbon stocks under the two scenarios shows that there is more carbon in B. The difference with A is the amount of carbon that does not contribute to climate change if we choose to create a plantation in a degraded pasture.

To understand how land use contributes to climate change mitigation, you can compare these scenarios. In this example, Graph A is a degraded pasture with a low and constant carbon stock. Graph B is a forest plantation that is destroyed or burnt regularly. The comparison of carbon stocks under the two scenarios shows that there is more carbon in B. The difference with (A) is the amount of carbon that does not contribute to climate change if we choose to create a plantation in a degraded pasture. The fact that the storage in the plantation is not permanent does not mean that there is no contribution to climate change mitigation. Temporary storage can reduce the concentrations of greenhouse gases during a fixed period of time.

Undisturbed forests

- An undisturbed forest:
 - A large stock
 - But not a large sink
 - +/- equilibrium (climax)
 - Scientific debate on this point
 - Measurement: sinks (CO₂ fertilisation, recuperation from past disturbances, spatial sampling)
 - Even if an undisturbed forest does not absorb GhG from the atmosphere, it is better to conserve it than to convert it to other uses
 - See next slide



Topic 1, Slide 13 of 48



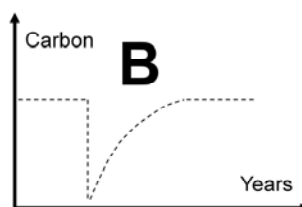
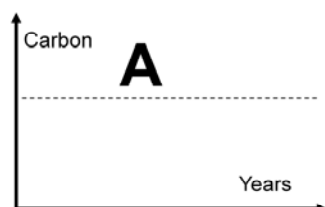
Narration: Although scientists debate whether or not undisturbed forests are carbon sinks, they agree that these forests should be conserved rather than converted to other uses.

We have seen that a growing ecosystem is a carbon sink. Undisturbed forests are more or less in equilibrium, as their biomass cannot grow indefinitely. If the carbon stock is fairly constant, the ecosystem is not a sink any more. This is a simplified view, and many scientific debates revolve around this point. In fact, current flux measurements show that undisturbed forests are sinks, mainly because of CO₂ fertilisation, recuperation from past disturbances, or problems of spatial sampling. The future of these sinks is also highly debated: With climate change impacts, will undisturbed forests become a source? In any case, even if an undisturbed forest does not absorb greenhouse gases from the atmosphere, it is better to conserve it than to convert it to other uses (see next slide).

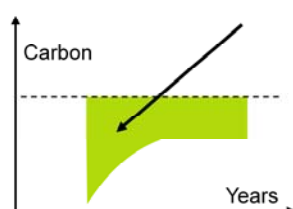
Comparing scenarios

For climate change mitigation, which is the better alternative?

- Conserving an undisturbed forest (A)
- Converting this forest to forest plantation (B)?



Answer: A



Carbon emitted into the atmosphere under scenario B compared with A = Carbon that contributes to climate change

Topic 1, Slide 14 of 48



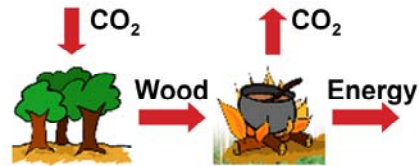
Narration: A primary forest stores large quantities of carbon and should be conserved rather than converted to a forest plantation.

We have seen that a primary forest usually has a larger carbon stock than a plantation, although it may not absorb as much carbon from the atmosphere as the plantation does. Primary forest has a large carbon pool and a low sequestration rate. A plantation has a smaller carbon pool and a high sequestration rate. Does this mean that a primary forest is useless for climate change mitigation, and a better option would be to replace it by a growing plantation that absorbs carbon? The answer is, no. The important fact is that primary forests store a great quantity of carbon, so destroying them for other uses will release a lot of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. Comparing alternatives A (primary forest) and B (conversion of a primary forest to a plantation) shows that B would release more carbon into the atmosphere, making a greater contribution to climate change.

Forest products

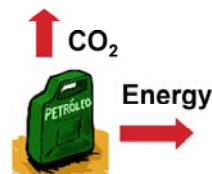
- Forest products can substitute for:

- Materials, such as steel and aluminium, whose production emits a lot of greenhouse gases
- Energy, such as oil, coal and gas



- Fuelwood:

- There is a low CO₂ balance if harvesting is sustainable and the yield is high.



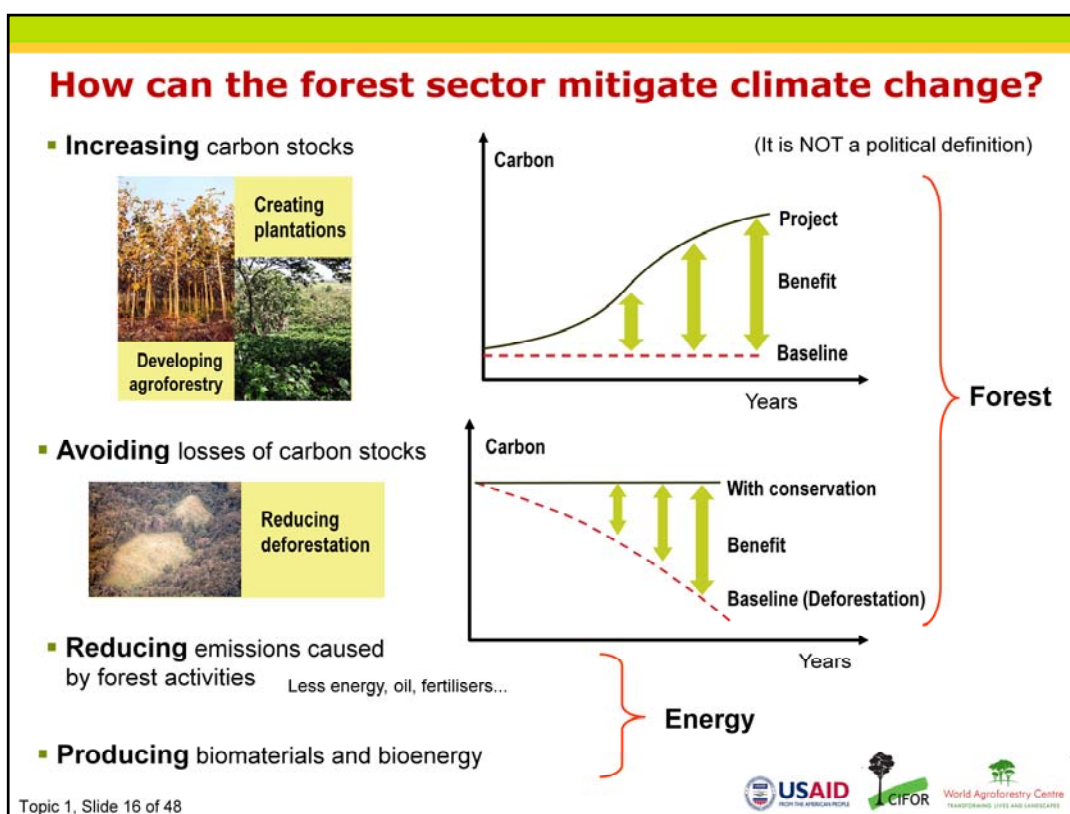
Topic 1, Slide 15 of 48



Narration: Forest products store carbon over a long period of time. But their main contribution to climate change mitigation is through substitution. Forest products can substitute for other materials such as steel or aluminium, whose production emits a large quantities of greenhouse gases. Forest products can also substitute for other energy sources such as oil, coal or gas. Fuelwood emits fewer greenhouse gases than fossil fuels do, as long as the fuelwood is sustainably managed and the technology for transforming it into energy is efficient.

We mentioned previously that forest products store carbon. In fact, forest products can store carbon over a long period of time—for example, in a building made from wood—but their main contribution is through substitution. Forest products can substitute for other material such as steel or aluminum, whose production emits a large quantities of greenhouse gases, or uses other energy sources such as oil, coal or gas.

The figure shows that the greenhouse gas balance of fuelwood is better than fossil fuel because carbon dioxide absorption occurs when the wood is produced. However, some conditions must be fulfilled for fuelwood to aid in mitigating climate change. First, the forest resource must be sustainably managed: if the forest disappears, absorption can no longer take place. Second, the technology for transforming wood into energy must be efficient.



Narration: Many forest activities contribute to climate change mitigation. Carbon stocks can be increased through plantations or agroforestry. Existing stocks can be conserved through reducing deforestation. These two activities relate to carbon sequestration in the ecosystem. Emissions caused by forest activities can be reduced, for example, by using less energy or fertiliser in forest operations. Biomaterials and bioenergy can be produced to substitute materials or energy that generate greenhouse gases. The last two activities refer to energy-related emissions.

The benefit of these activities is the difference between the growing stock and the baseline, as show on the graph.

In this case, the benefit of conserving is estimated with reference to the degradation or deforestation scenario. 3. Emissions caused by forest activities can be reduced, for example, by using less energy or fertilisers in forest operations. 4. Biomaterials and bioenergy can be produced to substitute materials or energy that generate greenhouse gases. The first two activities refer to carbon sequestration in the ecosystem, while the last two refer to energy-related emissions.

3. Forests and adaptation: Supportive ecosystem services

- Climate change forest discussions focus on mitigation
- The role of forests in adaptation is underestimated
- Why?
 - Adaptation is a local issue
 - Not easily quantifiable
 - More uncertainties
- Two reasons for considering forests in adaptation
 - Forests provide ecosystem services that are important for adaptation
 - Adaptation is important for forests because they are vulnerable to climate impacts

Topic 1, Slide 17 of 48



Narration: So far the international discussions about climate change and forest have dealt mostly with mitigation. The links between adaptation and forests are underestimated. Why?

First, adaptation has received less attention than mitigation because it is more a local or national issue while mitigation is a global one. If a forest project reduces deforestation, it will be beneficial to the whole world. If a forest project increases income for vulnerable communities or protects water quality, it will produce local benefits. For this reason, mitigation has been addressed extensively at the international level, and financial mechanisms that promote mitigation are being created.

Other reasons why adaptation is neglected relative to mitigation are related to the difficulty of measuring the impacts of an adaptation project. There is a way to measure mitigation: by comparing the tonnes of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. With adaptation efforts there are also uncertainties about underlying vulnerability and impacts.

However, there are two reasons which justify considering forests in adaptation: 1. Forests provide ecosystem services that help human communities and biodiversity adapt to climate change, and 2. Adaptation is important for forests because they are vulnerable to climate impacts themselves. You will learn more about these two reasons.



Forests are important for adaptation

Forests provide important global goods and ecosystem services

- Regulating erosion and landslides for infrastructure, hydroelectricity
- Regulating water cycle (flood reduction, dry season flow conservation) for infrastructure, settlements
- Providing wood and non-timber food products for community consumption or trade, and health

Topic 1, Slide 18 of 48

 **USAID**
FROM THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

 **CIFOR**

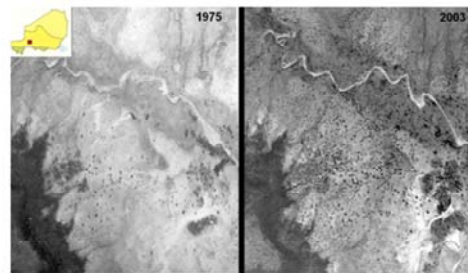
 **World Agroforestry Centre**
TRANSFORMING LIVES AND LANDSCAPES

Narration: *Forests are important for adaptation: they provide goods and ecosystem services that are crucial for local and global populations, especially in the context of climate change.*

The first reason for including forests into adaptation is that forests are important for adaptation. Forests produce goods and ecosystem services that are crucial for local and global populations, especially in the context of climate change.

Increased resiliency in Niger

- Enabling Framework for Transformational Change in Niger
 - USAID
- Impacts:
 - Over 4 million hectares of Niger are visibly greener and covered with more trees now than in the 1970s
 - Increased diversity of food sources and livelihoods
 - Less poverty
 - More resilience to regularly occurring droughts and locust swarms
 - Landscapes with trees improve livelihoods and reduce degradation




Topic 1, Slide 19 of 48



Narration: A USAID programme implemented in the harsh environment of Niger resulted in greener landscapes that have boosted the diversity of food sources and livelihoods, reduced poverty and increased resilience.

A 15 year commitment by USAID in Niger supported a process of reform in land management that resulted in over 4 million hectares of Niger being visibly greener and covered with more trees now than in the 1970s. By enabling increased diversity of food sources and livelihoods, these trees helped farmers move out of poverty as well as survive regularly occurring droughts and locust swarms, such as the one that devastated Niger in 2005. The trees provide an alternate source of livelihood during such difficult times through the sale of firewood, building materials, rope, dye, and medicines. Trees also provide food directly such as pods and fruits as well as fodder. The trees also may help protect crops from high temperatures and high winds during droughts.


This farmer-led, self-sustaining, landscape-level investment in tree cover was accomplished by reforming the legal framework to give farmers rights and access over trees, combined with promotion of low-cost, effective technologies. Over time, the Government of Niger's forester to farmer relationship was changed from one of enforcement to one of expertise and service delivery. The approach was based on natural regeneration which is cheaper, more sustainable, and more useful to farmers than large replanting programs.





Adaptation is important for forests

- Forests are vulnerable ecosystems
 - Direct climate stresses:
 - Changing precipitation, temperature, wind...
 - Indirect stresses:
 - Increased fires, pests, floods...
 - Consequences:
 - Loss of productivity, biodiversity, carbon, soil protection...
 - Loss of goods and ecosystem services

Topic 1, Slide 20 of 48

 **USAID**
FROM THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

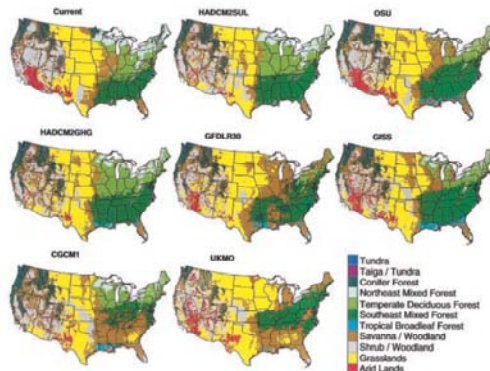
 **CIFOR**

 **World Agroforestry Centre**
TRANSFORMING LIVES AND LANDSCAPES

Narration: In addition to the importance of forests for adaptation, another point is about of the importance of adaptation for forests. Indeed, forests are vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. They are vulnerable to direct and indirect stresses, with consequences on productivity, biodiversity, carbon, soil protection (i.e. loss of goods and ecosystem services).

Examples of potential impacts

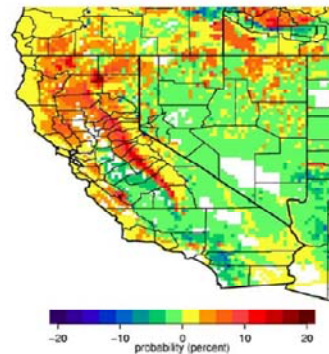
■ Vegetation distribution



Potential changes in vegetation distribution in the US
(Model from Bachelet et al. 2001)

■ Fires

A2 GFDL 2070-99 minus 1961-90



Difference (2070–2099 minus 1961–1990) in estimated average annual probabilities of at least one fire > 200 hectares in California
(Model from Westerling and Bryant 2006)

Topic 1, Slide 21 of 48



Narration: These two models show that climate change could affect vegetation distribution and increase the risk of fires in some regions of the United States.

Example of some potential impacts of climate change on ecosystems in the US.

Left: prediction of changes in vegetation distribution under different climate change scenarios. For the UKMO global circulation model, there is a strong reduction in the area covered by southeast mixed forests and temperate deciduous forests and an increase of grassland area.

Right: increase in fire probability in California.

Adaptation actions to increase forest and landscape resiliency

- Use species or varieties with greater heat tolerance
- Manage to reduce fire, insect, flood risk through
 - thinning, prescribed burns, deadwood removal, harvesting adjustments, landscape planning, patrols
- Adjust wood processing to use altered wood size and quality
- Increase soil organic matter, agroforestry practices
- Provide room for range expansion and movements up altitudinal gradients (adjust boundaries, corridors)
- More controversial: Relocations, ecosystem redesign

Topic 1, Slide 22 of 48



Narration: Forests and landscapes can be made more resilient through a variety of changes in management practices. At the lowest scale and in managed systems, we can choose species or varieties that are better able to deal with increased temperatures, or periods of flooding or periods of drought. At the stand level, we can implement practices that reduce risks of fire, insect outbreaks or windfalls—threats that are increasing due to climate change. Actions at this level could include thinning, prescribed burns, adjusting harvesting schedules and increased patrolling. These changes may require adaptations to the associated processing if the species or the size of wood products have changed. At the landscape level and particularly for natural ecosystems with high biodiversity, we may need to change the borders of our parks or management areas to allow for species to change their ranges and to move seasonally. Corridors between natural areas can also allow this flexibility. In particular, in locations where there are areas of higher altitude we need to create ways for species to move up in altitude to avoid temperature changes. Finally, ecologists are exploring the possibilities of relocating natural species or creating “new” ecosystems. The effectiveness of these measures, particularly considering the risk and expense, makes them controversial.

At the lowest scale and in managed systems, we can choose species or varieties that are better able to deal with increased temperatures, or periods of flooding or periods of drought.

At the stand level, we can implement practices that reduce risks of fire, floods and insect outbreaks—threats that are increasing due to climate change. Actions at this level could include thinning, prescribed burns, adjusting harvesting schedules and increased patrolling. These changes may require adaptations to the associated processing if the species or the size of wood products have changed.

At the landscape level and particularly for natural ecosystems with high biodiversity, we may need to change the borders of our parks or management areas to allow for species to change their ranges and to move seasonally. Corridors between natural areas can also allow this flexibility. In particular, in locations where there are areas of higher altitude we need to create ways for species to move up in altitude to avoid temperature changes.

Finally, ecologists are exploring the possibilities of relocating natural species or creating “new” ecosystems. The effectiveness of these measures, particularly considering the risk and expense, makes them controversial.

Obtaining multiple ecosystem services: An integrated landscape approach for adaptation and mitigation

- Forests are part of the landscape matrix
- Agriculture in adjacent areas is often the main driver of deforestation
- Often, to address deforestation it is necessary to address land tenure issues and improve agricultural productivity as part of an integrated approach
- Increasing soil carbon and adding trees to the agricultural system can raise agricultural productivity, while providing mitigation and adaptation benefits

Topic 1, Slide 23 of 48



Narration: *As you consider actions to reduce climate vulnerabilities, you need to consider how they integrate with actions to increase or maintain carbon storage. An integrated landscape management approach recognises the linkages between agriculture and forests and between mitigation and adaptation.*

Improving agricultural productivity can reduce pressures for deforestation, thus lowering carbon dioxide emissions. In addition one of the key ways to increase agricultural productivity is through soil conservation and incorporation of trees through agroforestry practices. One reason these practices increase productivity is that they increase water infiltration and holding ability of soils which is itself an adaptation to future climate impacts.

And how do we pay for all this? Many people are excited about the potential of carbon markets, the subject of the next part of this presentation.

4. Payments for ecosystem services: Carbon storage and the UNFCCC

- Main international agreements on climate change
 - 1992: UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)
 - 1997: Kyoto Protocol
 - Complemented by other CoP agreements
e.g. Marrakesh CoP7 2001, Milan CoP9 2003
- Adaptation in the international agreements
 - Almost nothing
 - Impacts and adaptation in national communications
 - National Adaptation Programs of Actions for Least Developed Countries
- Emphasis on mitigation



Topic 1, Slide 24 of 48



Narration: *International agreements emphasise mitigation rather than adaptation. Let's examine the ways in which forests are considered under these agreements.*

In this section we look at how forests, especially tropical forests, have been included in climate change policies. The main international agreements on climate change are the UNFCCC, adopted in 1992, and the Kyoto Protocol, elaborated in 1997. The Protocol was complemented by other decisions taken by the Conference of the Parties (CoP), e.g. the CoP7 in Marrakesh in 2001.

Compared to mitigation, adaptation is not well addressed in international agreements. Adaptation is mentioned in the Framework Convention, specifically regarding the national communications which must include sections on impacts and adaptation. Least Developed Countries must also develop National Adaptation Programmes of Actions (NAPAs) to assess their vulnerability and propose adaptation project ideas.

Kyoto Protocol status of ratification



Source: Wikipedia 2008, permission granted under the GNU Free Documentation license

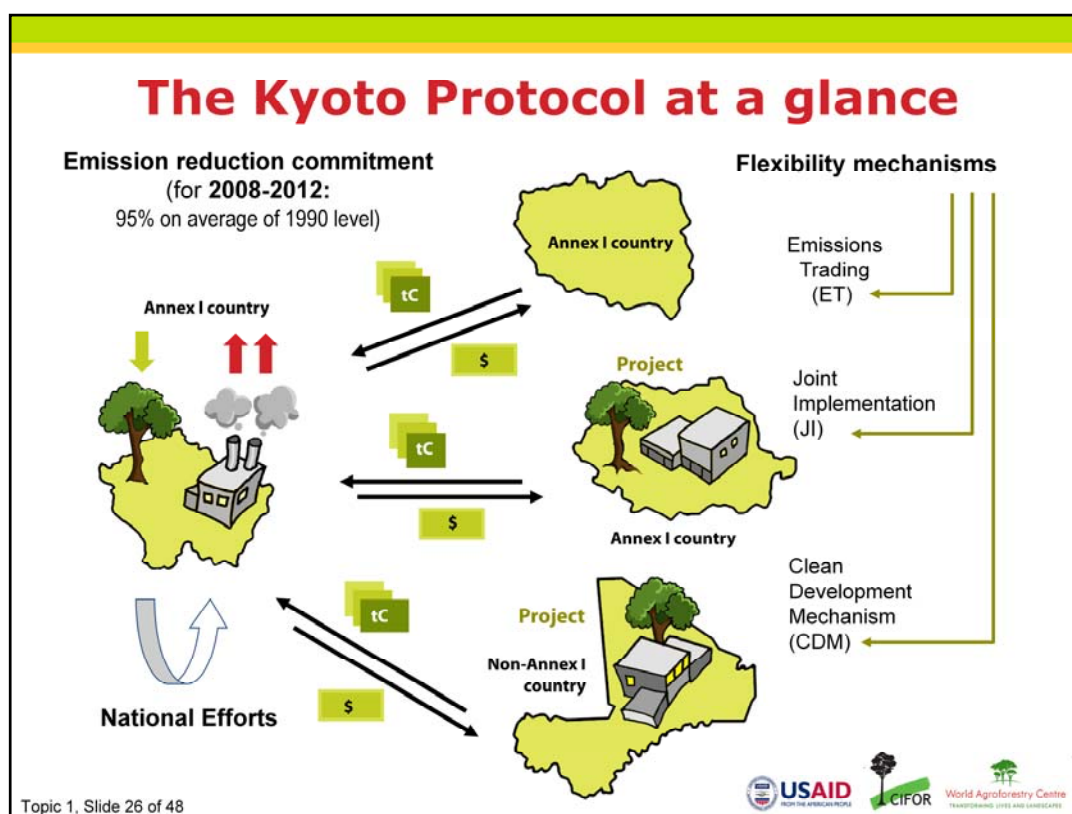
Topic 1, Slide 25 of 48



Narration: All developed countries except the United States have ratified the Kyoto Protocol. The US government is pursuing a post-2012 agreement that will include meaningful participation from all countries, including major emerging economies.

Before presenting how forests are considered under international agreements, let's examine the ratification status of the Kyoto Protocol. The Protocol entered into force in February 2005 after Russia ratified it. Now all developed countries have ratified except the United States.

The US government did not ratify the Kyoto Protocol primarily because of significant opposition by the US Congress. Congress and the Bush Administration felt that they could not participate in such an agreement unless China, India and other major emerging economies also made commitments to reduce emissions. Given that China has now surpassed the US in total emissions, this concern remains valid to the Obama Administration and the current US Congress. It is very unlikely the US will join the Kyoto Protocol. Instead, the US government is pursuing a post-2012 agreement that will include meaningful participation from all countries, including major emerging economies.



Narration: Under the Kyoto Protocol, industrialised countries committed to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions to an average 95% of their 1990 emissions, between 2008 and 2012. Under the treaty, countries must meet their targets primarily through national measures. However, the Kyoto Protocol offers them additional means of meeting their targets by way of three market-based flexible mechanisms: Emissions Trading, Joint Implementation and the Clean Development Mechanism.

The basic principles of the Kyoto Protocol are summarised in this slide.

First, developed countries that have ratified the Kyoto Protocol (or Annex I countries) are committed to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions in 2008-2012 to 95% of their 1990 emissions. Commitments are not all the same (e.g. 8% reduction for the European Union).

Second, three flexibility mechanisms were defined: Emission Trading (trade of excess allowances between Annex I countries), Joint Implementation (JI, trade of carbon credits between an Annex I country and a project located in another Annex I country), Clean Development Mechanism (CDM, trade of carbon credits between an Annex I country and a project located in a non-Annex I country, in other words, a developing country). Forests are included in the national efforts of Annex I countries. Project-based mechanisms (JI and CDM) involve energy and forestry projects.

Forests and the Clean Development Mechanism

- Eligible activities
 - Only afforestation and reforestation (may include agroforestry)
 - Land without forest since at least 31 December 1989
- Requirements
 - Additionality and baseline
 - Methodologies
 - Permanence and temporary credits
- Complexity and transaction costs
 - Scale issues
- Status as of 20 April 2010
 - 15 registered forestry projects (among 2151 CDM projects in total)
 - 17 approved methodologies

Topic 1, Slide 27 of 48



Narration: Under the Clean Development Mechanism, the only eligible forestry projects are afforestation and reforestation projects. Due to the CDM's complex rules, only one forestry project has been accepted.


Under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), the only eligible forestry projects are afforestation and reforestation projects. These projects must implement a forest on land that has not been forested since December 31, 1989 for reforestation or for 50 years for afforestation. A set of well-defined yet complex rules must be followed by the projects. Among other issues, the rules concern:

-Additionally: only projects that would not have been implemented without the CDM are eligible.

-Baseline: only the difference of carbon between the project and the baseline or "business as usual" is credited.




-Methodologies: a project must follow an approved methodology for assessing its baseline, calculating its carbon storage, etc.

-Permanence and temporary credits: as the carbon stored in a project may be released back to the atmosphere in case of land use change or fire, a safeguard had been defined: CDM forest projects can only trade temporary credits. Credits can expire, and carbon storage can disappear. The CDM is quite complex, especially for forestry projects which face more barriers than energy projects. Due to transaction costs, small projects will probably not benefit from the CDM, even with specific simplified approaches have been defined for small-scale activities. So far, fifteen forestry projects (in 12 different countries) have been registered under the CDM. In total, there are more than registered 2000 projects for emissions reduction (energy, industry, transportation, waste) under the CDM. At the moment, 17 methodologies for forestry projects have been approved. They have been submitted by projects under design. More projects are currently under preparation, so new projects should be accepted soon.



Reducing emissions from deforestation, etc: "REDD+"

- Also called
 - REDD (Reduction of Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation)
- Tropical deforestation = 17.4% emissions
- Not included in any other agreement such as the CDM
- In 2005: start of new discussions on RED
 - Main issues:
 - Links with carbon markets or funds?
 - What should be rewarded (reductions compared to a baseline?)
 - Impacts on sustainable development, redistribution of benefits
 - Monitoring
 - Bali 2007: agreement on pilot actions
 - World Bank's Forest Carbon Partnership Facility
 - UN-REDD
 - Many bilateral initiatives
- REDD+
 - Reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation
 - Forest conservation, sustainable forest management, enhancement of forest carbon sinks

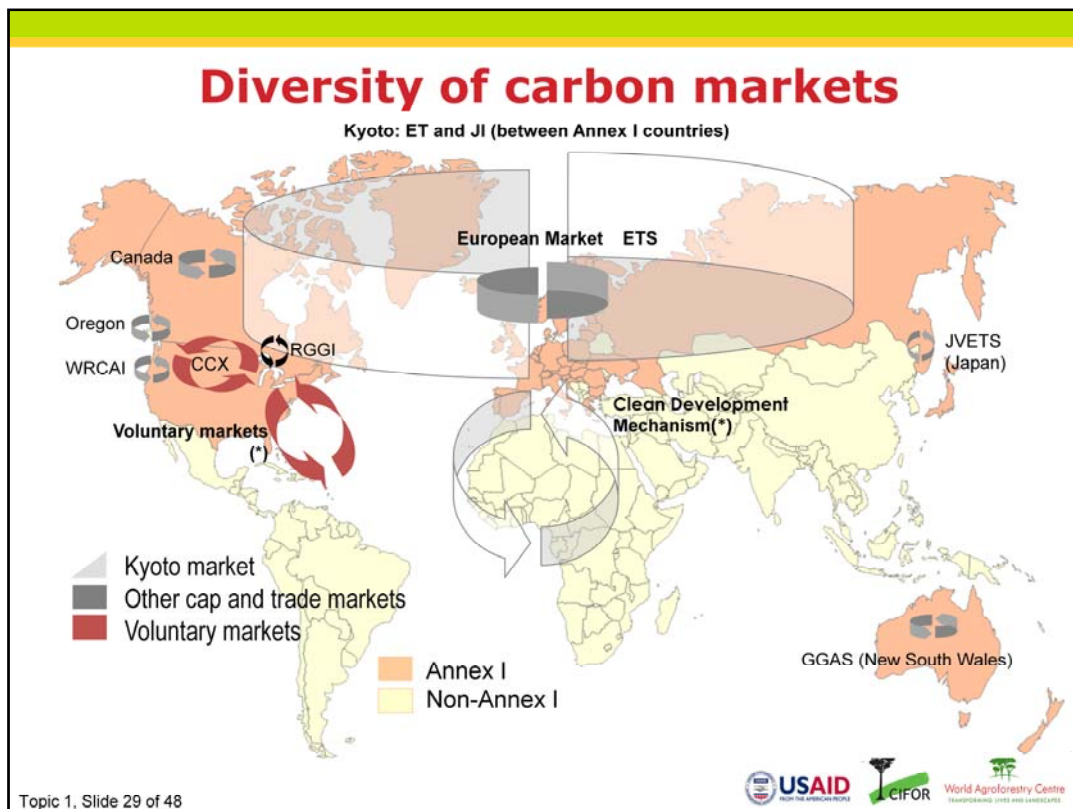
Topic 1, Slide 28 of 48

Narration: REDD mechanisms use market or financial incentives to reduce the emission of greenhouse gases from deforestation and forest degradation. REDD activities are undertaken by national or local governments, NGOs, the private sector, or any combination of these.

The conservation of tropical forests is not currently considered in international agreements on climate change, even though tropical deforestation represents between 15 and 20% of global emissions. In 2005, some countries asked to start negotiations on how to include avoided deforestation in the global climate regime. Under the UNFCCC negotiations, this issue is formally called 'reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation', or REDD for short.

Main issues under discussion are the links with cap-and-trade agreements and carbon markets, what to reward (efforts, reductions compared to a baseline...), impacts on sustainable development, redistribution of benefits and technical aspects of monitoring. In 2007 in Bali, an agreement was reached on the implementation of pilot actions. The World Bank has created a fund for funding REDD pilot activities (FCPF). Many bilateral initiatives have been developed and are under design.

Recently in the negotiations, REDD has been broadened to REDD+ which considers not just the reduction of emissions from deforestation and forest degradation, but rather adopts a holistic approach where both sources of emissions from forests and sequestration of carbon in trees and soils should be taken into account. REDD+ includes forest conservation, sustainable forest management, enhancement of forest carbon sinks, afforestation and reforestation, deforestation and forest degradation.



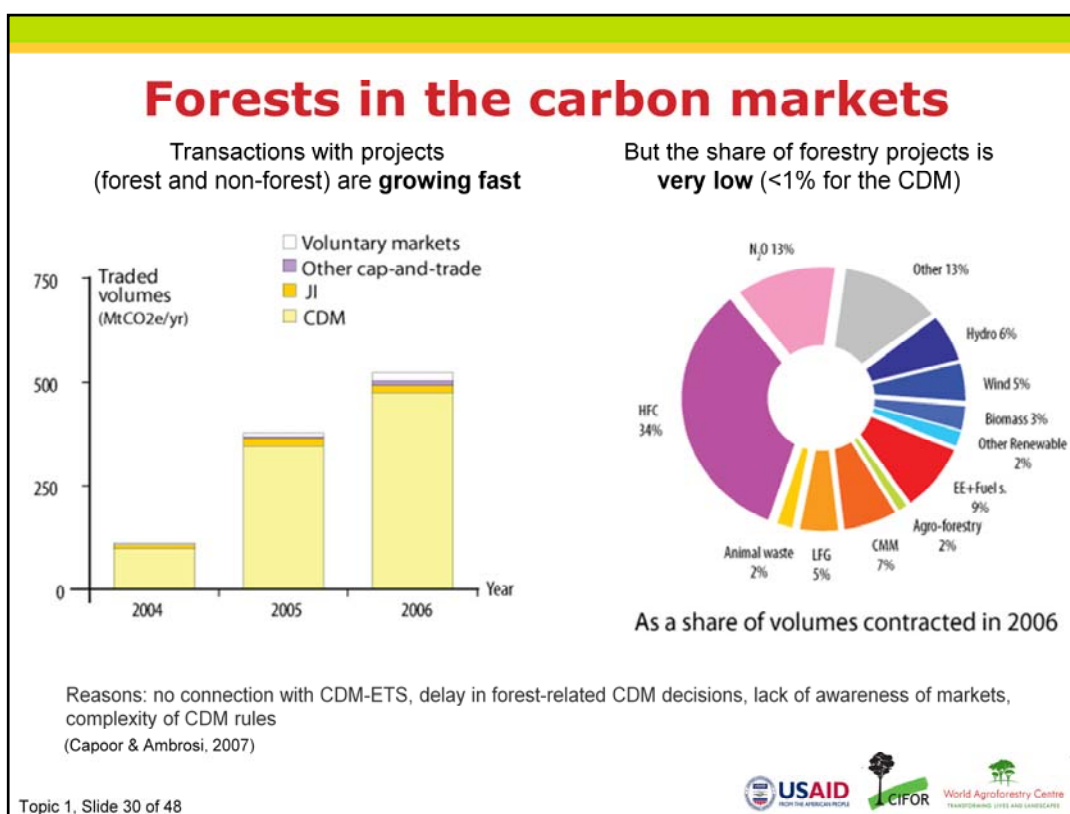
Narration: There are two basic types of carbon markets: compliance and voluntary. Compliance markets are established by governments and require companies to reduce their emissions by a particular amount. One way they can do this is to buy offset credits that represent emissions reductions achieved by somebody else. Voluntary markets also provide a way to buy offsets, but the credits cannot be used by companies to meet their requirements under government emissions regulations.

Some of these carbon markets work for forestry projects in developing countries, such as the Clean Development Mechanism or voluntary markets.

There are two basic types of carbon markets: compliance and voluntary. Compliance markets are established by governments and require companies to reduce their emissions by a particular amount. One way they can do this is to buy offset credits that represent emissions reductions achieved by somebody else. Voluntary markets also provide a way to buy offsets, but the credits can not be used by companies to meet their requirements under government emissions regulations.

The Kyoto Protocol defined three flexibility mechanisms that involve market transactions under mandatory government regulations. These are Emissions Trading, Joint Implementation and Clean Development Mechanism. To meet their commitments under the Kyoto Protocol, the European Union created an internal carbon market, the EU ETS (Emission Trading System) that allows EU countries to trade their emissions, and it allows a limited amount of offsets to be purchased from developing countries through the CDM. Other cap-and-trade initiatives (RGGI the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative in the Northeastern United States, WRCAI the Western Regional Climate Action Initiative, the Oregon Power Plant Offset Program,...) have developed carbon markets as well.

Despite the fact that the CDM does allow forestry projects, the European ETS has not allowed forestry CDM credits to be used as offsets, greatly reducing demand for forestry credits in the compliance markets and shifting most forest and agriculture projects over to voluntary markets.



Narration: *The share of forestry projects within the carbon market is very low.*

In carbon markets, transactions with projects are growing fast. The CDM is the most important mechanism in term of traded volumes. However, the share of forestry projects overall is very low: less than 1% of the total in the case of the CDM. The share is higher for voluntary markets (around 50%), but voluntary markets represent a small volume compared to the CDM. There are many reasons for having a low transaction volume with forestry projects in carbon markets: the absence of connection between the CDM and the European Union Emission Trading System; the delay in forest-related CDM decisions, which was taken two years after those for energy projects; the lack of awareness of markets for forestry projects; and the complexity of forestry projects for carbon estimation, monitoring, and impacts on sustainable development.

Voluntary markets

- Comparative advantage for forestry projects
 - 37% to 56% of transactions are with forestry projects (Hamilton et al., 2007, Harris, 2006)
 - Survey on 71 brokers (Gardette et Locatelli 2007)
 - 61% deal with forestry projects
 - 24% exclusively with forestry projects
- No restrictions on activity types
 - Avoided deforestation, reforestation, agroforestry
- No well-defined modalities
 - But standards are emerging
 - Climate, Community, Biodiversity (CCB)
 - Voluntary Carbon Standard (VCS)

Topic 1, Slide 31 of 48



Narration: Voluntary markets could offer good opportunities for forestry projects, especially if those markets use standards to assess and demonstrate the quality of their projects.

Although voluntary markets represent a lower transaction volume than the CDM, they could offer good opportunities for forestry projects, which seem more attractive to buyers in these markets.

Another advantage of voluntary markets is that activities are not restricted to afforestation and reforestation as in the CDM. The modalities are not well-defined and may be simpler than in the CDM. However, some voluntary markets have been criticised for lack of stringency and for selling 'air' to buyers. That's why many organisations are using standards to assess and demonstrate the quality of their projects. Examples of standards are the Climate, Community, Biodiversity Standard (CCB) and the Voluntary Carbon Standard (VCS).

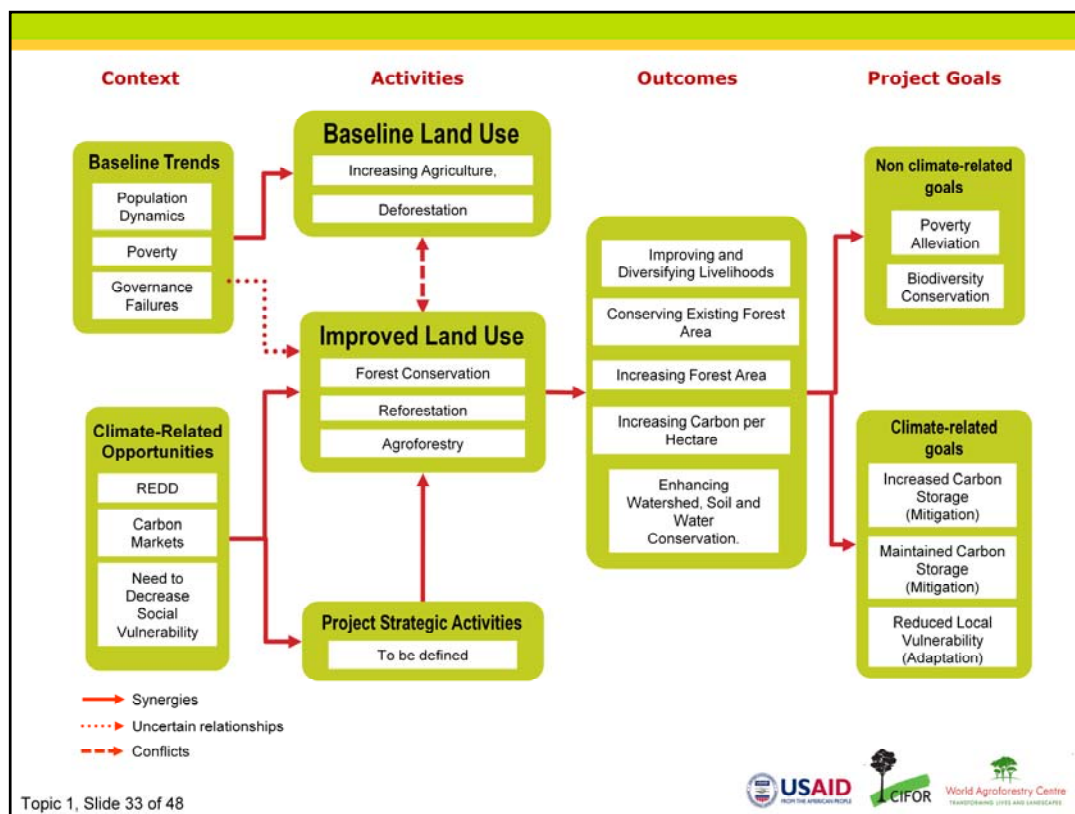
5. Bringing it all together: A conceptual framework

- How could we conceptualise the linkages between forestry programs and climate change?
- A conceptual framework that could be applied anywhere and help us to define what to do

Topic 1, Slide 32 of 48



Narration: So how do you bring this all together and design programs to address climate change and landscapes? In the next slide we propose a simple framework that lays out many of the factors involved in achieving change.



Narration: Here is a simple framework.

(Walk them through the framework)

Group work instructions

- Pick an existing project or create a hypothetical new project
- Incorporate climate change goals into the project by creating a diagram showing:
 - Contextual issues
 - Current land use practices
 - Desired future practices
 - PES market opportunities
 - Outcomes
 - Goals
 - Project activities and interventions

Topic 1, Slide 34 of 48



Objectives and specific questions to be addressed.

Groups will choose a real project that preferably all group members know. If possible, a group member will present the project to the others.

Case study examples

- Western Kenya: Nyando, Yala and Nzoia river basins
 - Watersheds with high population density and poverty problems
 - Low forest cover except in the higher areas
 - High pressure on agricultural lands and deforestation
 - Problems of water quality and regularity for downstream users
 - Lack of forest law enforcement and incentives to reforest
- Current land use activities
 - Agriculture and forest conversion
- More sustainable land use activities to be promoted
 - Agroforestry, reforestation and forest conservation

Topic 1, Slide 35 of 48



Narration: *Here is an example.*

Case example to be shown if the groups have difficulty starting the exercise

Discussion after completing group work

- What types of activities did you use to incorporate climate change into the project?
- What did you learn from this exercise?

Topic 1, Slide 36 of 48



Group share the result of discussion. If time is available, prepare a short presentation of the findings.

References

- General documents on climate change
 - Huq, S. and Toulmin, C. 2006 Three eras of climate change. IISD.
 - Joanna, Depledge. 2005 The organization of international negotiations: constructing the climate change regime. Earthscan.
 - National Academy of Science. 2008 Understanding and responding to climate change. <http://dels.nas.edu/basc/>
 - The Stern Review. 2007 The Economics of Climate Change. http://www.hm-treasury.gov.uk/independent_reviews/stern_review_economics_climate_change/sternreview_index.cfm
 - UNFCCC. 2004 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change: The First Ten Years.
- IPCC
 - IPCC Fourth Assessment Report. 2007 Synthesis Report. http://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-report/ar4/syr/ar4_syr_spm.pdf
 - Working Group I Report "The Physical Science Basis". <http://www.ipcc.ch/ipccreports/ar4-wg1.htm>
 - Working Group II Report "Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability". <http://www.ipcc.ch/ipccreports/ar4-wg2.htm>
 - Working Group III Report "Mitigation of Climate Change". <http://www.ipcc.ch/ipccreports/ar4-wg3.htm>

Adaptation

- Adger, W.N., Huq, S., Brown, K., Conway, D. and Hulme, M. 2003 Adaptation to climate change in the developing world. *Prog. Dev. Studies* 3(3):179-195.
- Burton, I. et al. 2006 Adaptation to Climate Change: International Policy Options. Pew Center.
- Naess, L.O., Bang, G., Eriksen, S. and Vevatne, J. 2005 Institutional adaptation to climate change: flood responses at the municipal level in Norway. *Global Environ. Change* 15:125-138.
- UNDP. 2004 Adaptation Policy Framework for Climate Change: Developing Strategies, Policies and Measures. www.undp.org
- UNEP. 1998 Handbook on Methods for Climate Change Impact Assessment and Adaptation Strategies. www.unep.org
- USAID. 2007 Adapting to Climate Change Variability and Change: a Guidance Manual for Development Planning. www.usaid.gov

Forests for adaptation

- Andreassian, V. 2004 Waters and forests: from historical controversy to scientific debate. *Journal of Hydrology* 291:1-27.
- Bruijnzeel, L.A. 2004 Hydrological functions of tropical forests: not seeing the soil for the trees? *Agriculture, Ecosystems and the Environment* 104:185-228.
- Daily, G.C. (ed.). 1997 *Nature's services: Societal dependence on natural ecosystems*. Island Press, Washington D.C. p. 1-10.
- Enderlein, R. and Bernardini, F. 2005 Nature for water: Ecosystem services and water management. *Natural Resources Forum* 29:253-255.
- IISD. 2004 *Livelihoods and Climate Change: combining disaster risk reduction, natural resource management and climate change adaptation in a new approach to the reduction of vulnerability and poverty*. International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD), Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. 24p.
- Innes. 2006 Importance of climate change when considering forests in poverty alleviation. *Intern. Forestry Review* 8(4).
- MEA (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment). 2005 *Ecosystems and human well-being: Synthesis*. Island Press, Washington, DC. 155p.
- Metzger. 2006 Vulnerability assessment of environmental change in Europe. *Reg. Environ. Change* 6:201-216.
- Postel, S. and Thompson, B.H. 2005 Watershed protection: Capturing the benefits of nature's water supply services. *Natural Resources Forum* 29(2):98-108.
- Pyke. 2007 Land use for climate adaptation. *Climatic Change* 80:239-251.

Adaptation for forests

- Bazzaz, F. 1998 Tropical Forests in a Future Climate: Changes in Biological Diversity and Impact on the Global Carbon Cycle. *Climatic Change* 39(2-3):317-336.
- Biringer, J.L. 2003 Forest ecosystems threatened by climate change: promoting long-term forest resilience. *In*: Hansen, L.J., Biringer, J.L. and Hoffman, J.R. (eds.) *Buying time – a user's manual for building resistance and resilience to climate change in natural systems*. WWF, Gland, Switzerland. p. 43-72.
- Borchert, R. 1998 Responses of tropical trees to rainfall seasonality and its longterm changes. *Climatic Change* 39:381-393.
- CBD (Convention on Biological Diversity). 2003 Interlinkages between biological diversity and climate change. Technical Series no. 10. Montreal, CA.
- Dudley, N. 1998 Forests and climate change. A report for WWF International, Forest Innovations, IUCN, GTZ, WWF. Gland, Switzerland. 19p.
- Fearnside, P.M. 1995 Potential impacts of climatic change on natural forests and forestry in Brazilian Amazonia. *Forest Ecology and Management* 78(199.5):51-70.
- IUCN (World Conservation Union). 2003 Climate Change and Nature – adapting for the future. Gland, Switzerland. 6p.
- Kirilenko, A., Belotelov, N. and Bogatyrev, B. 2000 Global model of vegetation migration: incorporation of climatic variability. *Ecological Modelling* 132:125-133.
- Loreau, M., Mouquet, N. and González, A. 2003 Biodiversity as spatial insurance in heterogeneous landscapes. *PNAS* 100:12765-127.
- McCarty, J.P. 2001 Ecological consequences of recent climate change. *Conservation Biology* 15(2):320-331.

Adaptation for forests

- Nepstad, D., Lefebvre, O., da Silva, U.L., Tomasella, J., Schlesinger, P., Solorzano, L., Moutinho, P., Ray, D. and Guerreira Benito, J. 2004 Amazon drought and its implications for forest flammability and tree growth: a basin-wide analysis. *Global Change Biology* 10:704-717.
- Noss, R. 2001 Beyond Kyoto: Forest Management in a time of rapid climate change. *Conservation Biology* 15(3):578-590.
- Noss, R. 2001 Forest Management in a Time of Rapid Climate Change. *Conservation Biology* 15(3).
- Pearson, R.G. 2006 Climate change and the migration capacity of species. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 21(3):111-113.
- Ravindranath, 2007 Mitigation and adaptation synergy in forest sector. *Mitig. Adapt. Strat. Glob. Change*.
- Robledo, C. and Forner, C. 2005 Adaptation of forest ecosystems and the forest sector to climate change. *Forests and climate change Working Paper no. 2*. FAO, Rome. 96p.
- Running, S.W. 2006 Is Global Warming Causing More, Larger Wildfires? *Science* 313:927-928.
- Scholze. 2006 Climate-change risk analysis for world ecosystems. *PNAS* 103(35).
- Spittlehouse, D.L. 2005 Integrating climate change adaptation into forest management. *Forestry Chronicle* 81:691-695.
- Spittlehouse, D.L. and Stewart, R.B. 2003 Adaptation to climate change in forest management. *BC Journal of Ecosystems and Management* 4(1):1-11.
- Spittlehouse. 2005 Adaptation to climate change in forest management. *BC Journal of Ecosystems and Management* 4(1).

The Clean Development Mechanism

- Cd4Cdm. 2004a CDM Information and Guidebook. Second Edition. UNEP Risø Centre on Energy, Climate and Sustainable Development, Risø National Laboratory, Roskilde, Denmark. www.cd4cdm.org
- Cd4Cdm. 2004b CDM Sustainable Development Impacts. UNEP Risø Centre on Energy, Climate and Sustainable Development, Risø National Laboratory, Roskilde, Denmark. www.cd4cdm.org
- Cd4Cdm. 2005a Clean Development Mechanism PDD Guidebook: Navigating the Pitfalls. UNEP Risø Centre on Energy, Climate and Sustainable Development, Risø National Laboratory, Roskilde, Denmark. www.cd4cdm.org
- Cd4Cdm. 2005b Baseline Methodologies for Clean Development Mechanism Projects: a Guidebook. UNEP Risø Centre on Energy, Climate and Sustainable Development, Risø National Laboratory, Roskilde, Denmark. www.cd4cdm.org
- Executive Board. 2005 Tool for the demonstration and assessment of additionality in A/R CDM project activities. Report of the 21st meeting of the CDM Executive Board, Sept. 2005, Annex 16. <http://cdm.unfccc.int/EB>
- Jung, M. 2004 The History of Sinks – An Analysis of Negotiating Positions in the Climate Regime. HWWA. Discussion Paper 293.
- Methodologies for AR CDM Projects. http://cdm.unfccc.int/methodologies/ARmethodologies/approved_ar.html
- Pearson, T., Walker, S. and Brown, S. 2006 Guidebook for the Formulation of Afforestation and Reforestation Projects under the Clean Development Mechanism. ITTO Technical Series 25. International Tropical Timber Organization, Yokohama, Japan. www.itto.or.jp

Estimating carbon

- Brown, S. 1997 Estimating biomass and biomass change of tropical forests. A primer. FAO Forestry Paper no. 137. Rome, IT. 55p.
- Brown, S. 1999 Guidelines for Inventorying and Monitoring Carbon Offsets in Forest-Based Projects. Winrock International. 14p.
- IPCC. 2003 Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-use Change and Forestry (GPG LULUCF). <http://www.ipccnggip.iges.or.jp/public/gpplulucf>
- MacDicken. 1997 A Guide to Monitoring Carbon Storage in Forestry and Agroforestry Projects. Winrock.

REDD

- Brown et al. 2006 Can payments for avoided deforestation to tackle climate change also benefit the poor? ODI Forestry Briefing. www.odi.org.uk/publications/forestry-briefings.asp
- Grieg-Gran, M. 2006 The Cost of Avoiding Deforestation—Report Prepared for the Stern Review of the Economics of Climate Change. IIED, London. 20p.
- Karousakis, K. 2007 Incentives to reduce GHG emissions from deforestation: lessons learned from Costa Rica and Mexico. OECD/IEA-, Paris, France. 51p.
- Kremen, C. et al. 2000 Economic incentives for rain forest conservation across scales. Science 288: 1828-1832.
- Luttrell et al. 2007 The implications of carbon financing for pro-poor community forestry. ODI Forestry Briefing. www.odi.org.uk/publications/forestry-briefings.asp
- Nepstad, D. et al. 2007 The costs and benefits of reducing carbon emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in the Brazilian Amazon. WHRC, IPAM & UFMG. 32p.
- Peskett, L. and Harkin, Z. 2007 Risk and responsibility in Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation. ODI Forestry Briefing. www.odi.org.uk/publications/forestry-briefings.asp
- Rubio Alvarado, L.R. and Wertz-Kanounnikoff, S. 2007 Why are we seeing REDD? An analysis of the international debate on reducing emissions from deforestation and degradation in developing countries. IDDRI. www.iddri.org

REDD

- Santilli, M. et al. 2005 Tropical deforestation and the Kyoto Protocol. Climatic Change 71:267-276.
- Schlamadinger, B. 2007 Options for including land use in a climate agreement post-2012: improving the Kyoto Protocol approach. Environmental Science and Policy 10: 295-305.
- UNFCCC. 2006 Issues relating to reducing emissions from deforestation in developing countries and recommendations on any further process - submissions by Parties. 122p.
- UNFCCC. 2007 Report on the second workshop on reduction emissions from deforestation in developing countries, FCC/SBSTA/2007/3 du 17 avril 2007. 18p.
- UNFCCC. 2007 Views on the range of topics and others relevant information relating to reducing emissions from deforestation in developing countries, submissions by Parties. 109p.

Carbon markets

- Bosquet, B. 2006 The Market for Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry: the BioCarbon Fund. The World Bank-UNESCO-ProNatura International Forum, March 15, 2006.
<http://www.unesco.org/mab/climat/bioCarbonFiles/Bosquet.pdf>
- Butzengeiger, S. 2005 Voluntary compensation of GHG-emissions – selection criteria and implications for the international climate policy system. HWWI Research Report No. 1, ISSN 1861-5058. Hamburgisches WeltWirtschaftsinstitut, Hamburg.
- Capoor, K. and Ambrosi, P. 2007 State and Trends of the Carbon Market 2007. Carbon Finance Business. World Bank, Washington DC. www.carbonfinance.org
- Carbon Finance. 2005 Risk and Pricing in CDM /JI Market, and Implications on Bank Pricing Policy for Emission Reductions. World Bank Carbon Finance Business Implementation Note No. 4, September 2005. www.carbonfinance.org
- CCX. 2006 Chicago Climate Exchange Offset Projects. Climate Change Exchange, Chicago, Illinois. www.chicagoclimatex.com
- Harris, E. 2006 The voluntary Carbon Market: current & future market status, and implications for development benefits. Working paper, round table discussion: Can voluntary carbon offset assist development? IIED.
- Jotzo, F. and Michaelowa, A. 2002 Estimating the CDM market under the Marrakech Accords. Climate Policy 2: 179-196.
- Neeff, T. and Henders, S. 2006 Guidebook to Markets and Commercialization of Forestry CDM Projects. Ecoscurities Consult, Report for FORMA project, Centro Agronómico Tropical de Investigación y Enseñanza (CATIE), Turrialba, Costa Rica. www.proyectoforma.com

Carbon markets

- Olschewski, R., Benitez, P.C., de Koning, G.H.J. and Schlichter T. 2005 How attractive are forest carbon sinks? Economic insights into supply and demand of Certified Emission Reductions. Journal of Forest Economics 11:77-94.
- Peskett et al. 2006 Making Voluntary Carbon Markets Work for the Poor: The case of forestry offsets. ODI Forestry Briefing. www.odi.org.uk/publications/forestry-briefings.asp
- Peskett et al. 2007 Can standards for voluntary carbon offsets ensure development benefits? ODI Forestry Briefing. www.odi.org.uk/publications/forestry-briefings.asp
- Taiyab, N. 2006 Exploring the market for voluntary carbon offsets. IIED. 42p.
- Walker, S.M., Pearson, T.R.H., Munishi, P. and Petrova, S. 2008 Carbon market opportunities for the forestry sector of Africa. Winrock International. FAO African Forestry. www.fao.org
- World Bank. 2006 Carbon Finance at the World Bank, Carbon finance for sustainable development - rapport 2006. 88p. www.carbonfinance.org



Thank you for your attention

