# Roadmap for Terrestrial Carbon Science

## *Research Needs for Carbon Management in Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Uses*

April 2010

## The Terrestrial Carbon Group

www.terrestrialcarbon.org



## PARTNERS AND PARTICIPANTS

The Terrestrial Carbon Group, in partnership with UN-REDD agencies, the World Bank and CGIAR institutions, has coordinated this initiative and worked closely with the research community, civil society, intergovernmental organizations and foundations around the world. In particular, we greatly appreciate the engagement of Mario Boccucci (UNEP), Tim Clairs (UNDP), Barney Dickson (UNEP-WCMC), Jonathan Haskett (ICRAF), Erick Fernandes (World Bank), Peter Holmgren (FAO), Peter Minang (ICRAF), Daniel Murdiyarso (CIFOR), Gerald Nelson (IFPRI), Asako Takimoto (UNDP), and Suhas Wani (ICRISAT).

The Terrestrial Carbon Group is an international group of recognized specialists from science, economics and public policy, working together to catalyze the inclusion of terrestrial carbon in the international response to climate change. A major objective is to create an effective, viable approach for carbon accounting that could be used for the broader inclusion of terrestrial carbon, including REDD, in the UNFCCC. The Terrestrial Carbon Group project is housed as the H. John Heinz III Center for Science, Economics and the Environment, a non-profit, nonpartisan organisation dedicated to improving the scientific and economic foundation for environmental policy.

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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Improved terrestrial carbon management offers tremendous potential for climate change mitigation and, in many cases, there are associated co-benefits such as increased productivity, resilience, and biodiversity. It is expected that governments will agree to incentives for improved management of some forms of terrestrial carbon in developing countries, including maintaining existing carbon and creating new carbon.

Across a wide range of geographic scales and land classes, there is a need for a coherent, integrated information base for effective land management practices that produce real increases in sequestration together with real reductions in GHG emissions from terrestrial sources, and transparent, consistent, and comparable quantification of changes in carbon stocks.

Maximizing terrestrial carbon sequestration while minimizing emissions, then documenting and rewarding outcomes requires the ability to deliver the following functions: (1) Estimating the total biophysical and feasible carbon mitigation potential (through avoided emissions and sequestration) for all lands; (2) Measuring and monitoring terrestrial carbon for different land classes at multiple scales (including aggregated global estimates); (3) Setting reference emission and sequestration levels and complying with standards. Six general research categories encompass the scientific and technical foundation needed to deliver these functions:

- 1. Process-level understanding of carbon dynamics and mitigation potential
- 2. Scientific research base for alternative management practices
- 3. Feasible accounting tools for all lands and carbon pools (including all GHGs)
- 4. Components of a tiered global information system
- 5. Pathways to establishing national accounting systems that reflect country circumstances
- 6. Harmonization of reporting guidance across scales and sectors

This report assesses the scientific and technical advancements needed to support land-based mitigation. It identifies priority research needs that must be addressed, globally and in specific regions, and recommends technical investments and actions needed to accelerate avoided emissions and sequestration of terrestrial carbon.

## What we already know

Much is already known and considerable capacity and expertise is available. Researchers have developed a solid understanding of the factors and processes controlling terrestrial carbon and can make general predictions for the effects of changing environmental conditions on carbon dynamics. A wide range of land management practices have been shown to effectively maintain and enhance terrestrial carbon. Well-tested tools and methods are available for field measurement and remote sensing and these can be combined with conversion equations and models to quantify terrestrial carbon.

National carbon accounting systems can draw on international guidance, available tools and methods, and existing data systems to estimate mitigation potential for major land classes and actual emissions and sequestration. Important building blocks for national carbon accounting systems include national reports, commercial and academic assessments, and global databases among other existing resources. Multilateral agencies, research institutions, and others are working on data improvement, integration, and accessibility. The scope and clarity of reporting guidance from IPCC and the voluntary markets are improving with experience and scientific advancement.

## Research needs

Research and information synthesis for carbon management techniques have not been equally distributed across carbon pools, land use types, and regions of the world. Richer process-level understanding is needed across all land classes for historical, current, and potential emissions and sequestration as well as for drivers of land use conversion and degradation. There is a relative scarcity of information for drylands, wetlands and peatlands and non-biomass carbon pools.

There are significant differences in guidance for reporting emissions and sequestration across scales and sectors and streamlined processes are needed for approving consistent definitions, standards, and methodologies. There is considerable variety among countries in their ability to measure and monitor all types of terrestrial carbon. While some have sophisticated measurement and monitoring capacity, in general, non-Annex I countries have limited data-gathering capacity and access to reliable existing datasets and conversion equations. Overall, there is inadequate consistency in data-gathering methods and resulting datasets across scales and sectors.

The foundation for land-based mitigation and robust monitoring and reporting varies across major land classes. (See Table 3 for full version.)



Robust knowledge base -incremental work needed

Existing knowledge base - additional coordinated research required

Growing knowledge base - more comprehensive research needed

Emerging knowledge base - significant research investment needed

In seeking to advance the scientific and technical foundation for land-based mitigation, adequate resources, expanded capacity, and clear incentives and mandates are needed to capitalize on the following opportunities:

- **EXECT** Rich scientific knowledge and field experience, available measurement tools and databases, and existing reports and international guidance provide a solid foundation for current and future work.
- **Development of cost-effective, easy to use tools and methods and spatially-resolved, accurate** data-gathering is needed to expand focus to all land classes (including complex landscapes), regions, and carbon pools.
- **Diverse local, national, and regional circumstances can be accommodated by developing a** regionally-relevant mix of management practices, measurement approaches, conversion equations, and models as well as planning for changing regional climatic conditions.
- Efforts to improve convergence and consistency can produce synthesized scientific knowledge, harmonized reporting guidelines and methodologies, compatible terminology, definitions, and classifications, and integrative modeling.
- Expanding and building regional and global networks can provide needed linkages across field research and technological advancements and facilitate access to tools, databases, technical support, infrastructure, and extension services.

## Action and innovation

To translate policy frameworks and financial incentives into improved land management and significant climate change mitigation, action and innovation will be needed by international agencies, national governments, land managers, financiers, and project implementers and auditors. While there are some well-coordinated, multi-organization initiatives producing integrated responses to priority topics, structured frameworks are needed to link together the array of idiosyncratic projects and programs housed in various research institutions, private companies, and national and international agencies.

Continued and expanded leadership by research institutions and multilateral agencies can promote translational research that builds on existing knowledge and infrastructure, improves accuracy while developing experience, and informs policy and practice. An essential step will be estimating costs and capacity needs associated with research initiatives and generating the necessary financial and technical support. Linkages among developed and developing countries and across the public and private sectors will be critical to filling research gaps through coordinated, multi-lateral, multi-scale cooperation.

## TERMS





## ACRONYMS





## LAND CLASS TERMINOLOGY

The terminology for describing different types of lands can vary across sectors and communities of practice. Both land cover and land use are important and in this document we use these terms to refer to their specific meaning. However, we also use the more general term "land classes" to refer to four broad categories that do not have hard distinctions and encompass a range of land cover or land use classes: Forests, Croplands, Grasslands / drylands, and Wetlands / peatlands.

Land cover	refers to the material on any given area of the Earth's surface
Land use	refers to the human or natural activities occurring on a given area of land whether for commercial or subsistence purposes or for conservation / preservation (including combinations of these activities). The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) characterizes land use as land management activities (eg, grazing, farming, logging). A type of land use can occur in areas with different land cover - for example, grazing could occur in grasslands, croplands, or forests (IPCC, 2000)
Croplands	are areas where agricultural activities involving plants occur (including both annual and perennial crops).
<b>Forests</b>	refers to areas dominated by trees with single stems with at least 10% crown cover
Grasslands / drylands	Grasslands refers to a land cover type dominated by naturally growing herbaceous plants, particularly plants of the grass family. Drylands refers to a broad land category that includes most rangelands, deserts, semi-deserts and scrublands / shrublands
Wetlands / peatlands	include lands that are seasonally or permanently flooded by water resulting in anaerobic conditions that favor accumulation of biomass; in peatlands, accumulated biomass is peat. Peatlands are a subset of wetlands, but one that is of considerable importance in REDD / AFOLU discussion and therefore merits specific mention <sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> "Peatland is, in contrast to what the term might suggest, no land use category like Forest land, Cropland, Grassland, or Wetland. It is a type of soil/substrate of which the properties are so dominant and conspicuous that the peat becomes eponymous for the landscape in which it occurs. So forest land, cropland, grassland, and wetland may all be peatland." (Barthelmes et al, 2009).

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## Introduction

Improved management of the world's terrestrial carbon in agriculture, forestry, and other land use sectors (AFOLU) is a necessary part of the global effort to avoid dangerous climate change. There are a wide range of strategies for avoiding emissions and increasing sequestration of terrestrial carbon in forests, croplands, grasslands and drylands, and wetlands and peatlands – many of these strategies have co-benefits such as increased ecological productivity, resilience, and biodiversity.

It is expected that governments will agree to incentives for improved management of some forms of terrestrial carbon in developing countries, including maintaining existing carbon (eg, avoiding deforestation and forest degradation) and creating new carbon (eg, afforestation). Efforts in both the public and private sectors are building the foundation for incentives for improved carbon management under agriculture, forestry, and other land uses.

As new incentives for protecting and sequestering terrestrial carbon are agreed in international negotiations and created in both voluntary and compliance markets, a robust technical and scientific information base is needed to accompany actions that translate policy frameworks and financial incentives into improved land management. In aggregate, many types of terrestrial carbon mitigation projects in many regions and land classes around the world will achieve substantial net increase in the land sink for atmospheric carbon. Successful implementation through public and private sector action will:

Maximize terrestrial carbon sequestration under agriculture, forestry and other land uses. Land managers will be able to quickly and cost-effectively estimate the carbon mitigation potential and socio-economic feasibility associated with alternative management practices and implement these practices, resulting in a net increase in carbon stored.

Document terrestrial carbon outcomes. Implementers of terrestrial carbon emission reduction and sequestration activities will have tools and methods readily available to measure baseline carbon stocks and monitor changes in carbon over time. Governments will have established and have in operation national carbon accounting systems that use tools, methods, and statistical designs appropriate to country circumstances to produce national carbon accounts that can be aggregated into global accounting systems.

Reward improved terrestrial carbon management. Implementers of terrestrial carbon emission reduction and sequestration activities are able to estimate reference levels to demonstrate additionality and account for leakage, and periodically report carbon outcomes to auditors and, if applicable, to financiers and offset credit purchasers. Auditors can in turn verify compliance of carbon mitigation activities to the agreed standards using approved methodologies and international guidance and recommended registration and, if applicable, offset credit insurance. Registries effectively track the performance of activities, including ownership of any economic incentives associated with meeting performance targets. This aggregated information is also available to be used to supplement national and international-scale estimates to assess the aggregate effect of activities in meeting national and / or international commitments.

This report assesses the scientific and technical advancements needed to achieve these goals. It identifies priority research needs that must be addressed, globally and in specific regions, to provide the quantitative basis for improved management of terrestrial carbon. It recommends technical investments and actions needed to accelerate avoided emissions and sequestration of terrestrial carbon and essential roles that researchers, practitioners, and institutions can play. The primary emphasis is on lands in developing countries where terrestrial carbon management represents a major component of cost-effective mitigation potential.

Maximizing terrestrial carbon sequestration while minimizing emissions, then documenting and rewarding outcomes requires the ability to deliver the following functions:

- **E** Estimate the total biophysical and feasible<sup>1</sup> carbon mitigation potential (through avoided emissions and sequestration) for all lands
- Measure and monitor terrestrial carbon (area and carbon density) for different land classes at multiple scales (and aggregate project-scale and national carbon accounting data to produce global estimates)
- Set reference emission and sequestration levels and comply with standards

#### 1.1 Estimate the total biophysical and feasible carbon mitigation potential for all lands

All terrestrial carbon pools (and fluxes of all greenhouse gases from the terrestrial system) that interact with the atmosphere at timescales less than centuries, and all land classes, have an essential role to play in climate change mitigation. Land management practices can reduce the loss of carbon and other GHGs from ecosystems to the atmosphere and sequester atmospheric carbon in the land sink). Whether under a regulated or voluntary offset market, much of the activity that will deliver terrestrial carbon mitigation will occur at scales smaller than the national level (referred to here as "projects").

These projects can range from very small areas parcelled together to large contiguous areas encompassing entire regions within a country. In order for project-scale activities to cumulatively generate carbon emissions reduction and sequestration at levels that make a meaningful contribution to global climate change mitigation, national landscape-scale planning is needed to design and optimize domestic policy incentives and to deliver supporting infrastructure.

National governments, multi-lateral institutions, international donors, private financiers, and others that work to identify the most significant land-based carbon mitigation opportunities at sub-national and national scales need to know the magnitude, location, and type of biophysical carbon mitigation potential associated with major land classes. This requires process-level understanding of the controlling factors for carbon and GHG emissions and sequestration – including the effects of geographic and temporal variability, biophysical limits, and natural disturbances – as well as estimates of historical and current emission and sequestration patterns.2

In addition to biophysical potential, there are other important technical and socio-economic factors that control the actual, or feasible, mitigation potential for any land area. Technical capacity for implementing alternative land management practices requires knowledge and access to suitable methods to estimate the mitigation potential, over time, of alternative management options in a project area and to assess the practicality of implementing new management practices.

#### 1.2 Measure and monitor terrestrial carbon for different land classes at multiple scales

Under a global agreement on incentives for terrestrial carbon maintenance and sequestration, carbon accounting systems will be required at multiple scales:

 At the national level to demonstrate fulfilment of voluntary or compulsory national commitments. National-level carbon accounting systems will be expected to produce and report information that is verifiable, comparable with information from other nations, and consistent over time.

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<sup>1</sup> Feasibility will be influenced by nature of available incentives and costs associated with alternative management.

<sup>2</sup> Spatially-resolved understanding of ecological processes can enable landscape-scale planning that maximizes co-benefits such as biodiversity conservation (Stickler et al., 2009; Venter et al., 2009).

- At sub-national or project scales where much of the activity that will deliver carbon benefit will occur. For project-scale implementation of terrestrial carbon management (whether under international agreements or voluntary carbon markets), detailed and location-specific information must be collected to predict, measure, and document the carbon outcomes of changes in land management.
- At the global scale, an integrated information framework is needed for ensuring that project- and national-scale accounting can be aggregated to produce estimates of impact on atmospheric GHG concentrations (ie, determine global net emissions / sequestration for terrestrial systems). In order to cross-check the accuracy of aggregated national data, global-scale projections of carbon emissions reduction and sequestration potential are needed.

Data requirements and selection of measurement methods will reflect the scale, scope, and stage of implementation of each carbon accounting system. At any scale, data collection and carbon estimation must use a consistent framework and comply with relevant standards and criteria.

National- and project-scale accounting will likely have different data requirements. Commonly, project accounting will be focussed on smaller areas and emphasize finer geographic scale of measurement and higher frequency of monitoring, while national accounting will be focussed on coarser geographic scale of measurement (but be comprehensive for major land cover types) and lower frequency of monitoring. National terrestrial carbon accounting systems require appropriately scaled-up technical tools and infrastructure for documenting changes in carbon over space and time. Resulting data systems must align with existing and evolving international guidance, as well as country circumstances, and be capable of integrating project-scale data.

Estimating terrestrial carbon stocks relies on measurement of the areal extent and carbon density of different land classes in an area of interest<sup>3</sup>. Once base measurements are in hand, on-going monitoring generates estimates of change in carbon stocks. Efficient monitoring of terrestrial carbon to produce information relevant to project implementation, landscape-scale planning, and national and international accounting will require valid statistical designs for estimating area, biomass, and carbon as well as conversions to other land cover and uses.

#### 1.3 Set reference emission and sequestration levels and comply with standards

In order for terrestrial carbon management to be rewarded under incentives, carbon accounting systems need to document actual change from reference emission and sequestration levels (ie, additionality).<sup>4</sup> For example, a business-as-usual approach to setting a reference emission level assesses carbon at risk of emission and rewards management that protects at-risk carbon.

When carbon emissions are shifted to another location, within or beyond national borders, as a result of carbon project activity, the carbon benefit of the project is diminished. Appropriately developed reference emission levels at project and national scales are important tools to address domestic leakage.<sup>5</sup>

The scale, type, and quality of information required to develop reference levels will depend on the standard-setting body under which a project seeks to be rewarded, as well as any specific criteria set by the organisation providing the funding for the activity (eg, governments or private financiers) and / or the government of the country in which the project takes place. General information needs include land cover, local environmental conditions (eg, soil types, climate, hydrology, fire regime), biological conditions (eg, species composition, growth rates), historical and current land use, and socio-economic factors for the region (eg, population, food and fuel demand, infrastructure, commodity prices,

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Carbon density is influenced by a number of factors including current and historical management practices..

<sup>4</sup> See Terrestrial Carbon Group Project Policy Brief Numbers 2 and 3 (www.terrestrialcarbon.org).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Maximizing participation of countries in international agreements and incentive systems can improve international leakage (Murray, 2008).

governance). These data can be integrated using modelling tools to project future emissions or sequestration in the absence of an incentivized change in land management.

To be rewarded for carbon projects in the regulated or voluntary market, compliance is required with approved standards and methodologies. Standard-setting bodies specify methodologies and technical information requirements for different types of projects and independent auditors verify that project implementation meets methodology criteria before recommending registration and credit issuance.

#### 1.4 Summary

Improved terrestrial carbon management offers tremendous potential for climate change mitigation and, in many cases, there are associated co-benefits such as increased productivity, resilience, and biodiversity. Implementation of terrestrial carbon emission reduction and sequestration activities can and does occur at a wide range of geographic scales and land classes. Across these scales and land classes, there is a need for a coherent, integrated information base for effective land management practices that produce real increases in sequestration together with real reductions in GHG emissions from terrestrial sources, and, transparent, consistent, and comparable quantification of changes in carbon stocks.

#### Figure 1. Goals, required functions, and priority research areas for implementing and documenting improved management of the world's terrestrial carbon.



## 2 What Are the Major Research Needs

As incentive systems for improved terrestrial carbon management evolve through international negotiations and voluntary markets, there are significant opportunities to advance the scientific and technical foundation for estimating mitigation potential, multi-scale monitoring, and achieving highquality reporting and verification. While much is known and considerable capacity and expertise is available, knowledge and technology gaps remain that must be addressed, globally and in specific regions.

The following sections provide, for six general categories, an overview of current scientific and technical capacity, priority research needs, and recommended strategies for meeting these needs. These categories include:

- 1. Process-level understanding of carbon dynamics and mitigation potential
- 2. Scientific research base for alternative management practices
- 3. Feasible accounting tools for all lands and carbon pools (including all GHGs)
- 4. Components of a tiered global information system
- 5. Pathways to establishing national accounting systems that reflect country circumstances
- 6. Harmonization of reporting guidance across scales and sectors

Many researchers and institutions are already making major contributions in these areas (see Appendices for specific examples). Further progress in and integration across these six categories will enhance global capacity to deliver essential functions in support of maximizing net terrestrial carbon sequestration and documenting and rewarding outcomes.<sup>6</sup>

#### 2.1 Process-level understanding of carbon dynamics and mitigation potential

#### 2.1.1 What is already known?

In order to estimate mitigation potential<sup>7</sup> in terrestrial ecosystems, it is necessary to understand the major biophysical processes that control carbon dynamics (and GHG flux) in soils and biomass. The general processes that influence the way that carbon is taken up, stored, and released are well understood. Key controlling factors for carbon stocks and sequestration rates include local climatic conditions, land cover, land use, soil type, and topography (Trumbore, 1997).

 $\overline{a}$ 6 For example, at Agriculture Day in Copenhagen (December 12, 2009), a key recommendation was that research and other advancements in agriculture, climate change mitigation, and carbon markets will produce more effective tools and systems if they are conducted in a coordinated way. (Venues suggested included development of the next IPCC Assessment Report and the agriculture work program under SBSTA). Similarly, discussion highlighted the importance of integrated research on natural resource management (eg, land use change and associated drivers; water management) informed by broad stakeholder engagement in setting the scientific research agenda (see http://www.agricultureday.org/exhibitions-and-events.html#3).

To meet the climate challenge, substantial additional financing and investment will be needed across the entire rural value chain. New investments must be handled transparently to ensure that adaptation and mitigation are not undermined by reduced support for global food security and rural development. In addition, new investment must be accessible to all stakeholders, including researchers and members of civil society, especially farmers and their associations. Specifically, the group urged climate negotiators to agree on the early establishment of an agricultural work program under the Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA):

<sup>7</sup> A number of efforts have assessed the major mitigation opportunities in the land sector. For example, the IPCC points to increased sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> as well as reduced emission of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O as the major mitigation opportunities in agricultural soils globally (IPCC, 2007).

Specific patterns will vary across different types of ecosystems and climate, disturbance,<sup>8</sup> and management regimes. The conditions and processes that control terrestrial carbon stocks and fluxes are spatially variable and there can be great heterogeneity at the scale of continents or within a forest stand or farm field. Also, while much remains to be understood about future climatic changes in specific regions of the world, changes in moisture regime and temperature conditions have the potential to alter growing seasons, plant water availability, insect populations, decomposition processes, and a number of other factors relevant to terrestrial carbon dynamics. In addition, increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are likely to influence vegetation in a number of ways including growth rates, drought tolerance, and nitrogen demands (IPCC, 2007). Elevated atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  will also influence net carbon accumulation by plants and in soils (Hungate et al, 2009).

#### 2.1.2 What are the primary research needs?

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There is room for richer process-level understanding for all land classes and all carbon pools, however there is a relative scarcity of information for grasslands, drylands, wetlands, and peatlands and for nonbiomass carbon pools (eg, soil organic matter) in general. Improved knowledge can be used to predict carbon dynamics in a spatially-resolved way. An overarching question is how changing climate regimes will influence carbon dynamics in specific land classes and regions.

Of the major land classes, carbon dynamics in forests are relatively well-understood. There has been variability among global assessments of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (these studies have made use of different approaches) and, over time, estimates have been revised substantially based on new data and evolving methods (van der Werf et al, 2009). Ongoing research is likely to produce greater convergence in these global estimates in the near term.

In croplands, two important areas for further investigation of carbon dynamics are partitioning to soil carbon pools over decadal time periods and variation in carbon quantity and vulnerability with depth. Potential factors include soil type, climatic conditions, historic and contemporary land use, organic matter additions, erosion, and redeposition, as well as factors of soil quality (and associated capacity for productivity) such as soil structure, biological activity, plant available water capacity, and nutrient dynamics (Lal et al, 2004).

Biophysical processes in grasslands and drylands have received significant attention by the research community, but require additional regional- and global-scale synthesis of resulting knowledge. Efforts are needed at multiple scales to improve understanding of soil carbon (including inorganic carbon) dynamics, pools, and fluxes, as influenced by climate, land use, and management (Lal, 2001). Of particular importance is improving understanding of sequestration rates (Conant, 2009) and fire events and dynamics (White et al, 2000).

Technical work to understand biophysical processes and mitigation potential in wetlands and peatlands has been robust in some regions, but additional process-level knowledge is needed. Of particular importance is improved understanding of the full range of greenhouse gas emissions and key controlling factors.<sup>9</sup> As a particularly carbon-rich subset of wetlands, peatlands merit further attention for key aspects of carbon dynamics including depth, density, and decomposition maturity in peatland ecosystems around the world. Additional work is needed to characterize key processes in peatlands such as lateral dimensions of subsidence and the relationship between drainage depth, subsidence rate, and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Hooijer et al, 2006). Overall, improved understanding of geographic and temporal variability, biophysical limits, natural disturbances, and confounding factors is needed (Canadell and Raupauch, 2008; McNamara et al, 2008). For example, interactive effects such as changes in soil physical properties and associated disturbance risks such as fire or insect infestation can dramatically alter terrestrial carbon (FAO, 2001).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> "Terrestrial carbon dynamics are characterized by long periods of small rates of carbon uptake, interrupted by short periods of rapid and large carbon releases during disturbances or harvest (IPCC, 2007)."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Emissions can result from a wide variety of conditions such as N<sub>2</sub>O emissions triggered by water-logging of semi-tropical systems in rainy seasons. Similarly, in some systems CH<sub>4</sub> emissions may be inversely linked to productivity if carbon is diverted to plant growth.

At the global scale, more work has been done to estimate biophysical mitigation potential in forests and croplands. However, dryland, wetland, and peatland ecosystems are recognized to offer significant mitigation potential (Joosten and Couwenberg, 2009; Alterra, 2008) and further quantitative work at appropriate geographic scales is needed (Zhao et al, 2009).

There are many different approaches for estimating mitigation potential for major land classes (see Appendix 1). The scope (ie, land classes; carbon alone or all GHGs), geography (eg, global, regional), timeframe (eg, annual rate, specific future date), units (eg, mass per unit area,  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  equivalents), and other parameters (eg, fixed carbon price), are variable across these estimation approaches. More work is needed to characterize the relative magnitude of mitigation opportunities within major land classes globally, such as the potential contribution of major mitigation strategies such as grazing management or peatland rewetting.

#### 2.1.3 What can be done to meet research needs?

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There are major opportunities for improving process-level understanding of carbon dynamics and mitigation potential. (See Appendix 2.)

New research in understudied regions and land classes. The research community can build on existing understanding of carbon dynamics and disturbance processes by implementing basic research (eg, field studies) in understudied regions and land classes to ensure that estimated mitigation potentials are calibrated to a more accurate understanding of biophysical processes, geographic and temporal variability, and regional conditions for the full range of land classes and regions.

Whole landscape research strategies. Commonly, research efforts are, and will continue to be, organized around major land classes: forests, croplands, grasslands and drylands, and wetlands and peatlands. Within these communities of practice, there is a wealth of expertise available to be more fully harnessed in answering outstanding questions about biophysical processes, carbon dynamics, and mitigation potential. However, there is emerging awareness of the need for a more complete and integrated characterization of ecological landscapes. While some large land areas can be described homogeneously (eg, contiguous unmanaged forests, extensive grasslands), land cover and land use in many regions are quite heterogeneous, making land classification difficult in many places. A number of research investments offer promise for increasing our ability to accurately predict and monitor changes in carbon across whole landscapes. Establishment of networks of permanent benchmark field sites for ongoing monitoring of soil carbon and related properties<sup>10</sup> could improve the consistency of research and estimation efforts (Paustian et al, 2006) and enable comparison of improved management outcomes with baseline measurements (FAO, 2009).

Synthesizing findings from existing research base. Research and information synthesis have not been equally distributed across land classes, carbon pools, or regions of the world. Establishing platforms for sharing research-scale findings (eg, open source databases) can enlarge the pool of information available for meta-analysis of the controlling factors for carbon emission and sequestration and global-scale estimation of mitigation potential. Increased availability of resources for synthesis activities (eg, bridging local-scale studies to develop landscape-scale information) can improve process-level understanding of carbon dynamics for a larger set of land classes and regions.

Improving estimation of biophysical sequestration potential. To develop the capability to crosscheck avoided emissions and sequestration estimates at national and sub-national scales, robust global-scale estimates will be needed. Efforts to harmonize estimates of land-based mitigation potential across scales and land use types could facilitate better understanding and coordination.<sup>11</sup> The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> For example, expansion of long term ecological research networks across the Americas to a broader range of ecosystems, countries, and continents (Greenland et al, 2003; Hobbie et al, 2003).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> The objective of global consistency should be pursued with equal attention to the diversity of local conditions and engagement of local and national involvement in sequestration potential estimation.

ability to produce global-scale estimates for major land classes and the full scope of the land sector will require harmonized definitions of land classes, carbon pools included in analysis, timeframes of analysis, and common units (see Section 2.6).

Integrating research activity. A number of existing institutional and cooperative initiatives are already directed to addressing priority research needs. It is important to expand on efforts to integrate research across scientific disciplines (eg, geology, hydrology, climatology, plant biology, chemistry) to better understand major drivers of land conversion and degradation (Lal, 2004). Multilateral and national agencies, professional societies, and individual researchers and research institutions can all contribute to research integration networks, platforms, and activities.

#### 2.2 Scientific research base for alternative management practices

#### 2.2.1 What is already known?

To achieve land-based mitigation at the scale required, a synthesized, accessible, geographicallyrelevant scientific research base for incentivizing and implementing shifts to alternative land management is necessary for all types of lands (including heterogeneous landscapes) and land managers (including smallholders, indigenous communities, and others who own and manage land.

A wide range of land management practices have been shown to be effective at maintaining and enhancing terrestrial carbon and contributing to mitigation (IPCC, 2007).<sup>12</sup> In many regions, significant research has been conducted for management of forests, croplands, grasslands, and drylands (FAO, 2001). An emerging body of work documents management practices for maintaining and enhancing carbon and reducing overall GHG emissions in peatlands (Kaat and Joosten, 2008). Increases in agricultural productivity in existing croplands may also contribute to reductions in conversion of forests and other 'natural' lands to croplands.<sup>13</sup>

Some of the major management practices for achieving terrestrial mitigation include (Canadell and Raupach, 2008; IPCC, 2007; Stickler, 2009; Trumper et al, 2008; Conant et al, 2001; Joosten and Couwenberg, 2009; DB Climate Change Advisors, 2009):

Forests: Reduced deforestation; afforestation; reforestation; forest management to increase biomass productivity and carbon density; harvested wood product management; use of forestry products for bioenergy to replace fossil fuel use; improved fire management.

Croplands: Improved crop and grazing land management to increase soil carbon storage; restoration of cultivated / drained organic and peat soils and degraded lands; improved rice cultivation practices and livestock and manure management to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions; improved nitrogen fertilizer application practices to reduce N<sub>2</sub>O emissions; dedicated energy crops to replace fossil fuel use; improved energy efficiency.

Grasslands / Drylands: Improved grazing land management to increase soil carbon storage; restoration of degraded lands; maintaining or enhancing vegetation; erosion control; application of soil fertilization and amendments; afforestation and woodland regeneration; improved livestock and manure management to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

Wetlands / Peatlands: conserving peat carbon stocks; maintaining / restoring net carbon sequestration; rewetting; water and fire management; substituting use of peatland fossil fuel by renewable sources

 $\overline{a}$  $12$  Application of practices commonly associated with sustainable land management may generate co-benefits such as greater resilience to shifts or increasing variability in climatic conditions (Stickler et al, 2009).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> In addition to changes in on-site management practices, other strategies for terrestrial carbon mitigation include expanding the designation and enforcement of protected forest areas, eliminating agricultural products produced on deforested land from supply chains, and encouraging low-deforestation livelihoods have been shown to contribute to avoided deforestation in Brazil (Nepstad et al, 2009).

In many locations around the world, these practices and others have been adapted to provide practical, context-specific options for alternative management.

The effectiveness of alternative management practices will vary by local conditions<sup>14</sup> and the feasibility of their implementation will be influenced by socio-economic factors. In order to know the location and type of carbon mitigation potential in an area of interest, estimates of historical and current emission and sequestration patterns as well as projected outcomes associated with alternative management are needed. In order to evaluate the actual, or feasible, mitigation potential, it is important to understand relevant drivers of land use conversion and degradation (eg, local infrastructure, global commodity prices) and available capacity for implementation of alternative land management practices (eg, knowledge of and access to suitable methods). Also, adjustments in land management practices in response to variability are critical for coping with climate change (Easterling and Apps, 2005).

#### 2.2.2 What are the primary research needs?

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While forest carbon is well understood for many regions of the world, further characterization of forest areas in the tropics and sub-tropics with high mitigation potential (as well as high vulnerability to disturbance) is needed. Data on forest carbon in mixed landscapes and forest fire regimes are not complete (Matthews et al, 2000). A key remaining challenge is more effective and coherent tracking of changes in some regions. In addition, further work is needed to refine estimates of historical, current, and potential carbon emissions and sequestration in forests. Increasingly nuanced understanding of the net carbon benefits of individual and combined forest management practices and their suitability for local conditions will contribute to optimized land management (Nabuurs et al, 2008).

Cropland management for carbon conservation has received substantial research investment in a number of countries, producing a solid knowledge base for a broad range of management practices. However, it is widely acknowledged that application of these practices must be adapted to local conditions, requiring field trials in regions that have been underrepresented to date. There are important temporal dimensions to identifying optimal cropping patterns in specific places and the short- and long-term potential of various practices (eg, boosting annual yield, resilience to climate variability over multiple years) will influence cropping decisions by land managers. In addition, two important areas for general research advancement for croplands include residence times for various soil carbon pools and exchange of greenhouse gases between soil and the atmosphere under different land management practices (Lal, 2004).

Existing research in grassland and dryland systems has show that carbon sequestration rates may be relatively slow (Conant, 2009) and further work is needed to understand the factors that contribute to higher productivity and carbon sequestration. The most pressing technical barrier to improved carbon management is the relative scarcity of information about grassland and dryland ecosystems around the world (Farage et al, 2007). For example, the extent of land degradation and conversion in drylands is poorly documented and there are limited and divergent quantitative estimates of dryland carbon sequestration potential and the impact of land use changes and desertification (Trumper et al, 2008). Key opportunities for improving the knowledge base for carbon management in grasslands include investigating the extent of carbon sequestration in grasslands (including the associated level of variation and uncertainty) and quantifying sequestration responses to land management practices in specific grazed ecosystems (FAO, 2009).

Recent work has identified general responses of GHG fluxes in wetlands and peatlands to water level management, for example, rewetting to particular depths can optimize for  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , CH<sub>4</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Joosten and Couwenberg, 2009). Application of alternative management practices in wetlands and peatlands may produce very different outcomes for carbon sequestration and net GHG

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Spatial heterogeneity of the conditions and processes that control terrestrial carbon levels also influences the effectiveness terrestrial carbon mitigation practices at the scale of major regions. For example, reforestation in tropical regions is likely to promote cloud formation and reflect additional sunlight, while reforestation in boreal regions is likely to reduce albedo and negate carbon sequestration benefits (Canadell and Raupach, 2008).

fluxes (in many cases, the latter may be of greater significance), depending on local climatic conditions and other factors (Li et al, 2004). To improve the knowledge base for mitigation in peatlands, refined understanding of GHG emissions under current or alternative management is needed (Couwenberg, 2009). Further work is needed to expand geographic coverage of data on peat extent and peat depth and to understand the nature and extent of conversion, draining, and degradation of peatlands (Hooijer et al, 2006).

Globally, spatially-resolved information for land cover, carbon density, and other biophysical factors are available, although resolution and accuracy vary by region and variables of interest. In many countries, activity data needed for estimating historical and current emissions and sequestration (eg, cropping, livestock management, productivity) are not spatially-explicit.

#### 2.2.3 What can be done to meet research needs?

Researchers have been working to understand outcomes associated with land management practices for many years and for many purposes. Historically, attention has focused on enhancing agricultural and forest productivity as well as environmental conservation, and it is only more recently that there has been increasing interest in land management for the explicit purpose of carbon sequestration and GHG mitigation. There are a number of opportunities for focusing efforts in this area (see Appendix 3 for further details).

Identifying areas of high terrestrial mitigation potential. In developing a more comprehensive, spatially-resolved understanding of current carbon stocks, carbon emissions and sequestration, and mitigation potential, it will be particularly important to enrich the data and knowledge base in specific regions of the world, at relevant scales.

Identifying understudied regions. In order to prioritize areas for new field trials and other research to understand the outcomes of alternative management practices on carbon and GHGs, it will be important to assess which regions have been underrepresented to date.

Investigating mitigation potential associated with alternative management practices. Identifying land management practices that maximize emissions reduction and sequestration in particular regions will require additional study of the net effects of different practices in a more comprehensive set of geographic areas. Research on the effectiveness of land management practices for mitigation involves a combination of data from field and remote sensor measurements and modelling to provide ex ante predictions and to characterize multi-year outcomes. A key limitation is availability of datasets that are representative of all relevant regions, so there is a need for global coordination and investment in datagathering in under-represented countries and regions.

Expanding research to include alternative management for all land classes. While carbon offset projects have initially focused on avoided deforestation and afforestation / reforestation<sup>15</sup>, there is significant emissions reduction and sequestration potential associated with application of alternative management practices in other land classes, including croplands, grasslands, and drylands (IPCC, 2007), which collectively cover extensive areas, as well as wetlands and peatlands which have high carbon density and potential GHG fluxes. Expanded research investment in these land classes can generate needed understanding of how shifts in land management can contribute to mitigation goals.

Operationalizing an integrated continuum view of landscapes. To strengthen capacity for managing complex landscapes, a more nuanced knowledge base for gradients of land management within land cover types is needed that reflects the reality of highly variable land management, ranging from complete land cover conversion (eg, large-scale deforestation) to fully protected areas (often within complex, fine-scale mosaics).

 $\overline{a}$ <sup>15</sup> While reforestation is generally accepted to result in increased aboveground biomass, Malmer et al (2009) point to the need for additional field studies and of longterm empirical data collection on the effects on soils.

Gathering and analyzing socio-economic data related to land use change drivers. Changes in carbon stocks and GHG fluxes can result from on-site activity as well off-site activities that alter drivers of land management and land use conversion. For example, peatland conversion and drainage has been driven by establishment of oil palm and timber plantations (Hooijer et al, 2006). Research on the feasibility of alternative management practices requires an understanding of key drivers of land use change as well as availability of relevant socio-economic data and modelling capability.

Fast-tracking scientific advancement to land managers. Larger investments in research and synthesis, combined with a commitment to expanding awareness, through effective extension activities,<sup>16</sup> and uptake, through incentives and appropriate infrastructure, will be key for mobilizing land managers to shift practices (and thereby, in many cases, generate a variety of co-benefits at parcel, watershed, and regional scales).

#### 2.3 Feasible accounting tools for all lands and carbon pools (including all GHGs)

#### 2.3.1 What is already known?

In order to document and reward implementation of improved terrestrial carbon management, appropriate measurement and monitoring methods are necessary to demonstrate that real, quantifiable, and comparable carbon emission reductions and sequestrations take place (Reid et al, 2004; Trumper et al, 2008). A suite of methods to measure and monitor terrestrial carbon exists, particularly for those carbon pools which have historically received most attention (ie, aboveground woody biomass in forests).<sup>17</sup> Field measurements, remote sensing, conversion equations, and models – the main categories of accounting tools – vary in their capacity, availability, cost, and scale of relevance (see Appendix 4). Spatial variability of the conditions and processes that control terrestrial carbon levels has important implications for efforts to measure or model carbon stocks and fluxes.

Total terrestrial carbon stock is a function of the areal extent and carbon density (stock per unit area) of each land class in an area of interest.<sup>18</sup> Basic information requirements include estimation of the areal extent of significant land classes and monitoring of land use change within and between various land classes as well as carbon density measurements and monitoring of changes to carbon density within major land classes

Data on the distribution and extent of land classes can be obtained by field methods, but it is usually more efficient to use remote sensing approaches. Remote sensing has been used to record land cover change for several decades and can also be used to track changes to the relative distribution of land use classes over time.<sup>19</sup> Measuring carbon density of land classes requires a combination of direct field measurements (to estimate biomass) coupled with conversion equations and / or models. Conversion and expansion factors and equations, such as allometric equations, are themselves based on field measurements and are only available for certain countries, land classes, and plant species.

There are several approaches for using remote sensing to estimate carbon density and changes in carbon density. It can be estimated directly based on quantifiable relationships between biomass and spectral responses or it can be estimated indirectly based on classification techniques, indices, and regression equations or process models developed through research pairing field measurements with remote sensing reflectance measurements (WMO et al, 2008). Detecting carbon density changes due

 $\overline{a}$ <sup>16</sup> For example, extension services in rangelands can build on current pastoral networks of communication over long distances (Reid et al, 2004).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> See Terrestrial Carbon Group Project Measuring and Monitoring Terrestrial Carbon: The State of the Science and Implications for Policy Makers and also Policy Brief 5 (www.terrestrialcarbon.org).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Carbon density is influenced by many factors including current and historical land management.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> Note that the cost-effectiveness of remote sensing decreases for small areas of interest (eg, less than 300 ha). The relative cost of field measurement programs may increase in landscapes with high heterogeneity.

to degradation and intensification or agricultural changes requires more detailed data and data interpretation.

Results can be combined with other types of data (eg, information on land management) and fed into models to estimate current stocks as well as changes (van der Werf et al, 2009). Many well-accepted models exist and are used to integrate information from a variety of information sources. Typical inputs for models include information related to carbon stock estimates and activity data. Consistent with IPCC guidance, inputs can either be default values (Tier 1), country-specific information (Tier 3), or a combination of the two (Tier 2).

There is considerable experience with field methods to quantify biomass, in particular above-ground biomass in tropical, temperate, and boreal regions. Many biomass measurement and monitoring methods are widely accepted and commonly used, and often require only basic technical capacity. The primary challenge is usually ensuring high-quality, transparent data collection and interpretation methods that are consistent over time.

More recently, public and private research organizations have been working to develop tools and methods for quantifying terrestrial carbon using field methods, remote sensing, and models in combination. While these tools and methods have been more widely tested and calibrated in Annex I countries, many of them have been applied in other areas of the world (eg, South Africa, India, China, Mexico, Brazil, Indonesia).

#### 2.3.2 What are the primary research needs?

Field measurements are essential for producing data to build, calibrate, and update inventories, maps, models, and other necessary types of information. One of the most important directions for investment and activity is application of existing tools and methods to fill data gaps for underrepresented land classes and regions. Advancements in field measurement capabilities are also usefully focused on improved and new tools and methods for minimizing labor, time, and costs associated with extensive field surveys. Also, field measurements will be critical to producing regionally-relevant conversion factors and allometric equations for all types of carbon pools and land classes.

Remote sensing data products are commonly used to monitor changes in land cover and, in combination with field data, can be used to estimate carbon stocks and change over time. Accurate field measurements are necessary to calibrate sensor data and produce high-quality estimates of biomass and carbon stocks and changes, however existing field datasets are not always sufficient. Remote sensing methods for the entire range of carbon pools and stock changes have not yet been fully commercialized. Dead wood, litter, and soil organic matter are generally not measured using remote sensing methods, but rather estimated using known relationships with above-ground biomass (Izaurralde and Rice, 2009).

Interpretation capability for remote sensing data streams can be technically demanding and / or expensive. Land use classification consistency is made more difficult when a variety of landscapes are included and where there is variability within land use categories. Additional guidance and experience is needed to determine how best to integrate different optical, laser, and radar remote sensing technologies (Smukler and Palm, 2009).

Some freely available coarse to medium resolution images (MODIS, Landsat) have not been suitable for use to monitor sub-national (parcel-scale) activities<sup>20</sup> and finer resolution images (eg, derived from IKONOS or QuickBird) are still too costly to use for widespread parcel-scale monitoring. Also, there are concerns regarding continuity of key sensor types.

Different sensors may be affected by technical challenges. "Cryptic deforestation" (ie, biomass removal which does not affect canopy closure) may not be detected by many sensors. Cloud cover over large

 $\overline{a}$ <sup>20</sup> This is changing for forest systems with the advancement of new tools such as CLASLite become widely available (http://claslite.ciw.edu/en/index.html).

regions of the tropics can cause major constraints on use of optical sensors alone. Inaccuracy due to sensor saturation for areas with high biomass density is a problem that, in some cases, can be overcome through use of LIDAR. Distinguishing among some land classes may be inhibited when they are spectrally inseparable using available image bands.

In addition to reliance on the quality of data inputs to achieve high-quality model outputs, modelling to estimate mitigation potential or change in stocks / emissions may require significant expertise and processing capacity. While there are a range of process models available, there is a need to adapt these models to places where they have not yet been validated. Also, advancements can be made to allow process models to more usefully accommodate remote sensing data streams (in addition to field inventory data).

Models are and will continue to be important tools for estimating emissions and sequestration. Many different types of models are currently in use and resulting estimates are not always comparable. For example, the range of available soil carbon models differ according to their intended purpose, relative emphasis on different carbon pools, required inputs, flexibility in basic model parameterization, and ability to be coupled with other carbon models.<sup>21</sup> As a result, current soil carbon models used for national carbon accounting and other purposes differ significantly both in how carbon is calculated and model outputs.

Default values such as generalized expansion and conversion factors used in estimating carbon stocks and emissions across large areas are available (eg, IPCC's default Biomass Emission Factor values). Allometric equations are typically available for many popular commercial plant species or species groups (Teobaldelli et al, 2008), although the literature is inconsistent or incomplete for many species even within Annex I countries. Further development of allometric equations is needed for noncommercial species and specialized locations.

Even where relevant default equations do exist, they may have an inherent inaccuracy associated with them. For example, in the case of root-to-shoot ratios, recent studies have shown that current default ratios significantly underestimate global below-ground biomass volumes, and therefore global terrestrial carbon volumes (Mokany et al, 2007). It may be difficult to estimate the level of error associated with applying these generalized equations to a given area as this depends on the similarity of the area to that on which the equation was developed (Gower et al, 1999). The uncertainty is heightened in species-diverse areas and, in general, the broader the equation in geographic scope and species included, the greater the uncertainty.

#### 2.3.3 What can be done to meet research needs?

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The research community can contribute to enhanced terrestrial carbon management and quantification in the full range of land classes, carbon pools, and geographic regions by enhancing measurement and monitoring capacity. (See Appendix 5.)

Gathering field and activity data for underrepresented regions, land classes, and carbon pools. To meet identified needs for regionally-relevant information (eg, base maps, allometric equations, remote sensing interpretation), in many cases new data-gathering will be required. Ideally, such efforts will be informed by an accurate understanding of existing datasets and will be designed to maximize data quality and utility and minimize costs. Data-gathering can draw on existing measurement tools and methods and, where appropriate, establishment of networks of permanent benchmark monitoring sites.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> For example, some models were developed largely for arable lands (eg, RothC) while others were developed for forests (eg, Biota). Models vary in the way they incorporate soil chemistry, physics, physiology, and ecology and also on use of zero or first order methods. Models vary in the frequency of required data inputs (eg, monthly, weekly) as well as requirements for quality and consistency of data for landform, soil classification, and other aspects.

Developing new cost- and labor-saving measurement tools and methods. Strategic investments can include development of new tools for extracting rich information from field sampling<sup>22</sup> as well as integrated sampling designs that allow field sampling to be highly targeted. Another area is developing integrated approaches for understanding complex landscapes (eg, stratified remote sensing and field observations).

Continuing to improve interpretation capacity for remote sensing. Advancements are needed in integrating data from different optical, laser, and radar remote sensing technologies and effort may be usefully directed toward "crosswalking" remote sensing data streams gathered over multiple decades. New remote sensing interpretation methods are needed to link biophysical variables to spectral reflectance in support of spatially distributed carbon sequestration models.

Ensuring continuity of major satellites and promoting appropriate use of new remote sensing technologies. Ongoing provision of widely used coarse- and medium-resolution remote sensing data streams is critical to development of national accounting systems across a wide range of countries. Also, there are new airborne and satellite sensors that have promise for a range of uses. Some provide fine-resolution imagery that can be important for achieving higher accuracy (Angelsen, 2008).

Expanding coverage of conversion equations to all regions and types of carbon. In cases where site-specific conversion factors and allometric equations do not exist or are not supported by robust data, it may be possible to use generalized or pooled equations (USDA, 2007; Zianis et al, 2005). However, broadening capacity to estimate a greater range of species (including invasive species) and carbon pools will increase accuracy of estimation.23 In addition, greater understanding is needed for how to adapt allometric equations given changing climatic conditions or presence of invasive species.

Adapting and verifying existing models to broader set of regions and data streams. To use a model in a particular region, it is necessary to compile or gather required input data and calibrate and validate the model to regional circumstances. Work to adapt process models to accommodate remote sensing data streams (in addition to field inventory data) can increase the flexibility of data input options.

In evaluating the most useful elements of a terrestrial carbon research agenda, the relative impact of investment in "big, new" tools (eg, a next generation satellite system) relative to incremental improvement and technical transfer of existing tools (eg, building learning platforms for extracting information from existing data) should be considered.

#### 2.4 Components of a tiered global information system

#### 2.4.1 What is already known?

Carbon accounting systems will be required and delivered at multiple scales. Data requirements and measurement methods will vary by scale, country circumstances, and other factors. Project implementers will gather and use fine-scale, location-specific information to predict, measure, and document the carbon outcomes of changes in land management. National ministries will gather coarser-scale data that is comprehensive for major land classes for use in developing domestic policies and demonstrating fulfilment of national commitments. International bodies will aggregate data provided by participating countries as well as independently estimate regional- and global-scale terrestrial emissions and sequestration to assess impacts of current and alternative land management on atmospheric GHG concentrations (Waggoner, 2009).

 $\overline{a}$ <sup>22</sup> Such as developing new technologies for rapid in situ measurement of soil carbon and GHG fluxes (Paustian et al, 2006).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> There may be opportunities to "streamline" development of allometric equations (eq, sub-sampling for specific gravity and applying to tree form equations).

A tiered, global information framework is needed that can establish measurement protocols, integrate data generated through a variety of measurement approaches, and make information resources widely accessible. The existing set of information systems are an essential starting point for building a global framework. Some of the major existing information systems include:

National reporting to the UNFCCC. Annex I countries are required to submit annual and periodic information on removals and emissions to the UNFCCC and the majority of non-Annex I countries have submitted periodic National Communication reports. These reports provide useful estimates of emissions and removals for some countries and sectors, as well as background information on how data are derived. Several countries already have systems in place to estimate woody biomass stocks (eg, National Forest Inventories). Some countries, regions or states also have their own land use reporting requirements (eg, the State of California).

Commercial, academic, and other assessments. Commercially managed land areas often have comprehensive management, timber stock, harvest rate, and other relevant records that can be used to estimate the accuracy of national inventories, the size of biomass stocks and rate of, or changes in land use classes. Confidentiality or commercial sensitivity may limit accessibility of these records and commercial information may be lacking in areas with a short history of formal forest management. Academic field research, especially long-term plot studies, may provide useful information on terrestrial carbon and changes over time and has potential for development of local models and allometric equations or ground-truthing remote sensing data. Compliance and voluntary market projects often develop project-level field inventories which may be useful to incorporate into national estimates of carbon stocks and changes.

Global databases. Space agencies and other institutions routinely deliver remote sensing data products that are used for estimating land surface characteristics, land cover change, disturbance events, terrestrial carbon pools, GHG fluxes, and other features of interest over a range of temporal and spatial resolutions. There are several efforts to provide international, regional, or national databases of conversion and expansion factors.24 Improvement to emissions factors is ongoing. For example, recent work highlights potential improvements to the default values provided for peatlands by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines including harmonizing with FAO's definition of organic soil, clarifying climate zones, and improving default values for key categories (Cowenberg, 2009).

Multilateral agencies, research institutions, and others are working to improve, integrate, and make accessible data resources needed to support terrestrial carbon accounting. For example, the FAO Global Forest Resource Assessment (FRA) recently launched a free internet portal with global coverages of high-resolution satellite imagery and indexes of tree canopy cover.<sup>25</sup> Using Landsat and other remote sensing imagery, local knowledge and field inventories, the FRA Remote Sensing Survey will improve knowledge of land use change dynamics over time, including deforestation, afforestation and natural expansion of forests.<sup>26</sup> Wetlands International has coordinated the integration of peatland carbon and GHG data for all countries and regions of the world.<sup>27</sup> (See Appendix 6 for further examples.)

There have been, and continue to be developments in standardizing land classification systems and, of even greater importance, in making them comparable. For example, the land cover project of the CORINE programme will provide consistent localized geographical information on the land cover of the 12 Member States of the European Community.<sup>28</sup> The only UN-endorsed land cover classification

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Examples of these include the IPCC's Emission Factor Data Base (EFDB, http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/EFDB/main.php), the European Allometric Biomass Carbon factors database (ABC database,

http://afoludata.jrc.ec.europa.eu/v2007/DS\_Free/abc\_intro.cfm), and the World Agroforestry Centre's Wood Density Database (http://www.worldagroforestry.org/af2/index.php?q=node/109).

<sup>25</sup> See (http://geonetwork4.fao.org/geonetwork/srv/en/fra.home).

<sup>26</sup> See http://www.fao.org/forestry/fra/fra2010-remotesensing/en/).

<sup>27</sup> See (http://www.wetlands.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=UyS7LBOOJa4%3d&tabid=56).

<sup>28</sup> See (http://www.eea.europa.eu/publications/COR0-landcover).

system, the FAO / UNEP Land Cover Classification System (LCCS),<sup>29</sup> is undergoing approval to become an ISO standard.

Resources are also becoming available to support REDD readiness, improvements in agricultural productivity, and other key areas for terrestrial carbon management. For example, the UNFCCC's REDD web platform houses resources for technical assistance, demonstration activities, country-specific information, and methodologies and tools.<sup>30</sup> The Global Futures for Agriculture project, launched by IFPRI with CGIAR and others, will combine economic modelling with location-specific environmental and management data to assess the impact of potential agricultural investments on economic growth, incomes, and poverty alleviation.<sup>31</sup> A consortium is working to produce a global digital soil map.<sup>32</sup>

Recent advances have been made in producing global and regional  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  budgets despite model uncertainties and the wide variety of methods represented in available datasets. For example, Le Quere et al (2009) reported an increasing global land use sink during 1959-2008, with large year-to-year variability, based on a constructed global CO<sub>2</sub> budget that incorporated deforestation and other land use data, satellite-based fire observations, and assumed carbon density values for vegetation and soils.

#### 2.4.2 What are the primary research needs?

Terrestrial carbon information is commonly not consistent or comparable as methods vary widely according to the types of carbon pools measured, measurement scale (eg, fine, medium, coarse) and frequency, and measurement method.<sup>33</sup> To produce consistent, comparable, and geo-referenced datasets for terrestrial carbon, further coordinated work is needed to standardize data-gathering approaches and harmonize analytical methods.

Countries and sectors operate mapping programs which typically reflect their information needs and capacities. This has led to a variety of mapping and classification systems that differ in detail and quality as well as in age and timing. Classification consistency is made more difficult when a variety of landscapes are included and where there is variability within land use categories (eg, both permanent and annual crops in the category "croplands"). Integration of the wide variety of field data gathered in specific regions has potential to improve model-based estimation of the mitigation potential of new land management policies, practices, and technologies at multiple scales (Schlect et al, 2006).

Progress in developing global CO<sub>2</sub> budgets and assessing the effectiveness of land-based mitigation is inhibited by gaps for accurately linking land use emissions to atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration on a year-to-year basis. These uncertainties could be reduced by inclusion of key processes and reservoirs in land use models (eg, wildfires, peat) and improvements to data-gathering systems (Le Quere et al, 2009). There are similar challenges for regional-scale estimation. For example, drawing on data compiled through the CarboAfrica project, Bombelli et al (2009) found great variability in estimates of the biological carbon sink in Sub-Saharan Africa<sup>34</sup> and point to more accurate land classification, improved modelling for savannahs and tropical forests, and better understanding of disturbance and plant and soil processes (including methane and nitrogen fluxes) as key areas for improvement. Most models used in their analysis were developed for other regions and would benefit from validation with regionally-relevant data.

 $\overline{a}$ 29 For more information on LCCS please refer to: Land Cover Classification System (LCCS): Classification concepts and user manual by Di Gregario, A. and L.J.M. Jansen. Environment and Natural Resources Service (SDRN), GCP/RAF/287/ITA Africover – East Africa Project and Land and Plant Nutrition Management Service (AGLN). FAO, Rome, 2000. http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/x0596e/x0596e00.htm

<sup>30</sup> See (http://unfccc.int/methods\_science/redd/items/4531.php).

<sup>31</sup> See (http://www.ifpri.org/pressrelease/global-futures).

<sup>32</sup> See (www.globalsoilmap.net/).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup> For example, Europe does not yet have sufficiently systematic and harmonized monitoring to adequately track and report changes in soil carbon (Alterra, 2008).

<sup>34</sup> Primary sinks were forests and savannas and primary sources were fires and deforestation.

#### 2.4.3 What can be done to meet research needs?

There are a number of opportunities to build toward a tiered global information system by improving the consistency and comparability of data-gathering and estimation methods and resulting terrestrial carbon datasets.

Standardizing data-gathering and land cover classification. Existing efforts to harmonize fieldbased, flux, and remote sensing measurement and analysis approaches, in cost-effective ways that accommodate local conditions and capacities, will need to expand significantly to enable the production of synthesized terrestrial carbon estimates. National, regional, and global efforts to crosswalk and align land cover designations and terminology should be continued, expanded, and linked.

Continuing improvements in soil mapping. Harmonizing technical terminology and mapping methodologies, expanding capacity for fine-scale digital soil mapping, and making resulting data widely accessible are key steps for producing information needed to improve carbon and climate modelling and support better soil management (Sanchez et al, 2009).

Integrating existing datasets. Coherent approaches for combining datasets from different national and regional programs and datasets developed over different time periods can produce the spatially comprehensive, long-time series data needed to inform model predictions and improved land management.<sup>35</sup> Such efforts will require the development of standards for characterizing the robustness of individual and integrated datasets.

Synthesizing diverse data through modeling. Innovation in data assimilation and model-data fusion methods, through modelling frameworks that can adapt to future scientific and technical advances, is critical to synthesizing highly diverse field and remote sensing observations.<sup>36</sup> Making source code of models available to others in the research community can contribute to overall improvements and comparability of model-generated estimates.

Downscaling mitigation estimates. In addition to usefully integrating project-scale data into national and global information systems, down-scaling of global and regional estimates of land-based mitigation potential is needed to facilitate national policy development and project-scale planning. This can be enhanced through improved coordination and common geo-referencing across measurement systems (eg, in situ observations, flux towers, air-and space-borne sensors).

Increasing accessibility and coverage of remote sensing and other mapping efforts. The scale and quality of measurement and monitoring systems overall can expand if it becomes easier and cheaper to access and interpret remote sensing images through common platforms and if high-quality national initiatives to map land use and monitor carbon stocks (eg, through models) become more widespread.

Improving conversion and expansion factors. Investments in high quality, accessible databases for generalized or specific expansion and conversion factors and allometric equations<sup>37</sup>, such as the IPCC's Emissions Factor Database (EFDB), will be important for extracting value from old and new field measurements and remote sensing images.

**Building common archives**. By building accessible common archives<sup>38</sup> for biomass and carbon studies, pilot projects, remote sensing images, and conversion equations, these information sources can be more widely and effectively utilized, especially when paired with training in data interpretation.

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<sup>35</sup> Idea adapted from GEO Carbon Strategy Version 1.0 (in open review; http://www.fao.org/gtos/doc/2009-GTOS-SC/docs/8\_GEO\_Report.pdf).

<sup>36</sup> Ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup> For example, functions for estimating aboveground and total biomass from tree measurements and for converting from biomass to carbon estimates.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> For example, the AFOLU clearinghouse provided by the European Commission's Joint Research Centre (http://afoludata.jrc.ec.europa.eu/index.php/public\_area/home).

Improving coordination. A wealth of public and private organizations, agencies and institutions, working at scales from local to global, are tackling many dimensions of terrestrial carbon management and quantification (eg, IPCC, GTOS). Coordinated networks and platforms for information sharing and research synthesis across sectors, disciplines, and scales can deliver the coherent, integrated information base that will be needed to bring about improved terrestrial carbon management at meaningful scales.39

#### 2.5 Pathways to establishing national accounting systems that reflect country circumstances

#### 2.5.1 What is already known?

National-scale carbon accounting systems will be an essential component of a tiered, global accounting framework, producing and compiling data for incorporation into global estimates and for informing sub-national planning and implementation of improved terrestrial carbon management. Wider implementation of terrestrial carbon projects that seek to capitalize on existing and emerging financial incentives in the voluntary and regulated markets will require robust national accounting.<sup>40</sup> Key needs are data for front-end project scoping (eg, estimating mitigation potential; establishing reference levels to address additionality) as well as data to 'cross-check' project-scale accounting.

Once fully operational, national systems will meet information needs for estimating terrestrial carbon mitigation potential associated with major land classes (accounting for geographic and temporal variability and natural disturbances) and actual land-based emission and sequestration (eg, in compliance with national commitments under international agreements). To produce information that is needed for global estimates and for project planning and investment, national accounting systems will be expected to produce and report information that is verifiable, comparable with information from other nations (eg, aligned with international guidance), and consistent over time. This does not imply that the same measurement tools and approaches should be used across all countries and regions. In general, national accounting will focus on achieving comprehensive geographic coverage at medium to coarse scale.

Establishment of robust and transparent national carbon accounting can draw on international guidance, available tools and methods for measurement and monitoring, and existing data systems (Smith 2004). Public and private organizations (eg, government agencies, multi-lateral organizations, independent researchers, forestry and agricultural businesses) can be important sources of remote sensing and other mapped data, inventories, environmental and historical management records, conversion factors, and socio-economic surveys. These can provide a useful foundation of experience and infrastructure for expanded measurement and monitoring systems. A range of mapping methods are currently available, and are being distributed and tested in a variety of countries. The national capacity of non-Annex I countries to measure and monitor terrestrial carbon (especially deforestation and degradation), is already being encouraged and developed with assistance from Annex I countries (Campbell, 2009), multilateral agencies, and a variety of other institutions.

#### 2.5.2 What are the primary research needs?

Many developed countries and a handful of developing countries operate long-term inventory systems, especially for forest biomass. However, for the majority of developing countries, national carbon accounting is nascent or absent altogether. Even where inventories exist, geographically

 $\overline{a}$ <sup>39</sup> "The establishment of an international network to coordinate data collection and link sites would facilitate more precise prediction of agroecosystem sustainability and future global change" (Rasmussen et al. 1998).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>40</sup> For example, terrestrial carbon projects under the Clean Development Mechanism and in the voluntary market appear to be more commonly sited in developed countries and more developed non-Annex I countries, suggesting that private sector project developers favor countries with a higher level of existing terrestrial carbon related information (see Measuring and Monitoring Terrestrial Carbon: The State of the Science and Implications for Policy Makers, www.terrestrialcarbon.org).

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comprehensive and time series information is commonly unavailable.41 There is considerable variety in the capacity to measure and monitor all types of terrestrial carbon (ie, full carbon accounting), even within developed countries, and this is likely to persist without greater investment, technology transfer, and information sharing.

Progress in building capacity for measurement and monitoring of all major land classes requires a combination of making cost-effective tools and methods widely available and providing coherent guidance and technical assistance for optimal system delivery in specific national and sub-national settings. This will require a commitment of financial and technical resources by both developed and developing countries and expanded coordination within the research community (particularly for nonforest lands).

Countries vary considerably in terms of biophysical conditions (eg, terrain, soil types, cloud cover), landscape patterns (eg, mix and distribution of land classes, drivers and rates of land use change), and existing data and infrastructure (eg, availability of existing inventories and project- and research-scale data; access to remote sensing data and regionally calibrated models; institutional capacity to gather and analyse data). The mix of tools, methods, and sampling designs used for national accounting systems will reflect specific country circumstances. For example, accounting systems for countries with high forest cover may be able to rely more heavily on remote sensing tools, (if necessary field data is available to interpret sensor data), while countries with more mixed landscapes may rely more heavily on field measurement programs that can adequately capture spatial heterogeneity. Countries with rapidly changing landscapes may require more intensive sampling schemes that rely on a mix of field and remote sensor measurements.

National terrestrial carbon accounting systems require appropriately scaled-up technical tools and infrastructure for documenting changes in carbon over space and time. Different measurement tools and methods can be complementary, and the optimal combination depends on national (or subnational) characteristics. A range of countries have successfully combined field measurements, remote sensing, and models to quantify changes in terrestrial carbon, particularly in above-ground biomass (eg, Annex I GHG inventories, Brazil, Indonesia, Mexico). Most, if not all, of these methods have already been used alone, or in combination to measure carbon or biomass stocks and changes. For example, they may already be used for commercial activities, to meet existing national policy objectives, and to carry out carbon project activities under the Kyoto Protocol or for the voluntary market.

The choice of measurement methods to incorporate into long-term monitoring systems will be influenced by a number of factors. Use of "high tech" measurement tools, where cost-effective and appropriate to local biophysical conditions and land use, should be balanced with the value of using tools that are easier for landowners, local communities, and NGOs to understand and use as this may increase transparency and participation in measurement programs as well as generate economic opportunities. Unlike scientific research, monitoring and accounting systems require consistent application of the same methods over time or the ability to cross-walk existing datasets with data gathered using new tools and methods. This issue is particularly apparent with efforts to marry existing field inventories with evolving remote sensing technologies.

There are a number of barriers to establishment and improvement of national carbon accounting systems. In general, non-Annex I countries have limited data-gathering capacity and access to reliable existing datasets and conversion equations. Historical and current information for land cover, land use, and drivers of land use change may be inadequate, fragmented or inaccessible. Monitoring systems have been costly to develop especially for developing countries and for small-scale landowners, hindering greater global participation in improved terrestrial carbon management (Campbell, 2009; Wunder 2008). As carbon offset crediting systems evolve and expand, it will be important to avoid

<sup>41</sup> Where legacy information for terrestrial carbon is available, it is not always reliable, comparable, and accessible. For example, National Forest Inventories commonly do not include information on non-commercial and non-tree species and frequency of measurement may not be well suited to estimating changes in terrestrial carbon. There are also many parts of the tropics where inventories are out of date, incomplete, or entirely lacking. Little is typically recorded for non-forest biomass except through agricultural yield statistics or annual agricultural censuses.

perverse outcomes in participation, uptake, and benefit allocation and to minimize costs and bureaucratic obstacles for landowners and land managers including indigenous communities.

#### 2.5.3 What can be done to meet research needs?

Developed nations can assist developing countries in establishing or expanding the infrastructure and expertise to collect and analyse terrestrial carbon data as part of credible and transparent national carbon accounting systems. (See Appendix 7.)

Prioritizing R&D and tech transfer investments. Research and innovation by the international community to develop more advanced combinations of measurement tools and methods that can provide higher quality data while containing costs can contribute to more comprehensive, accurate carbon information at national and global scales. Particular areas in need of advancement include nonforest land classes and non-Annex I countries. Further work is needed on incorporating parcel-scale monitoring into regional and national programs, optimizing use of remote sensing (eg, for national accounting, for detecting leakage), and adapting accounting system requirements to country circumstances.

Providing tools and training. Developed countries, multilateral agencies, research institutions, and NGOs can and do provide important assistance with accessing and using measurement and monitoring tools and methods and designing national systems. Manuals and related resources can be used to inform design of field inventories, linking field data with remote sensing data, and identifying and integrating diverse existing datasets.<sup>42</sup> Efforts to engage local communities in monitoring and ownership of information are underway in several locations<sup>43</sup> and offer potential for meeting important social and scientific goals simultaneously.

Facilitating agreement on standardized methods. Coordinating frameworks and venues for agreeing standards for regionally-appropriate, internationally-compatible methods of measurement and analysis can accelerate the uptake of these methods, resulting in greater comparability across national-scale data.

Tailoring technical assistance. Diverse circumstances across developing countries implies the need for country-specific strategies in support of technical and institutional investments. For example, for countries at earlier stages of system implementation, support may be best directed to gaining experience and making use of available data (eg, using coarse activity data for 'practice-based' assessment of changes in terrestrial carbon), while countries with more robust capacity may require support for enriching the quality of existing accounting systems (eg, fine-scale 'performance-based' measurements of carbon outcomes).

Fostering south-south technical transfer. Across the range of developing countries, experience and expertise in terrestrial carbon accounting and management is significant and growing and there are opportunities for bilateral, regional, or community-to-community engagement to share technical knowledge (Angelsen, 2008). Some countries have invested in measurement technologies (eg, Brazil's National Institute for Space Research) while others have invested in institutional capacity (eg, Indonesia's National Carbon Accounting System, INCAS). Developed country ministries, multilateral agencies, NGOs, and others can facilitate this type of cooperation by providing seed funding and coordination for meetings and networks.

Developing nations, with technical and financial assistance from developed nations, can continue to take concrete steps towards robust national accounting systems.

 $\overline{a}$ <sup>42</sup> For example, U.S. agencies have funded Colorado State University researchers to work with government ministries in Central America and Southeast Asia.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>43</sup> Examples include the Woods Hole Research Center's work on community engagement in monitoring in Columbia and the Millenium Villages project using SMS-based reporting.

Building on existing resources. At the national-level, creation of terrestrial carbon accounting systems can begin with taking stock of existing data systems (eg, national or sub-national inventories, commercial or research-scale data-gathering, regionally-relevant models and conversion factors), evaluating data quality and compatibility with information needs, and identifying gaps.

Designing inventory and monitoring strategies relevant to country circumstances. Once information resources and data gaps are understood, plans can be developed for marshalling the suite of available measurement tools and methods to work toward Tier 2 and 3 accounting. This may involve gathering new data through field measurements and remote sensing and / or generating new estimates through adaptation of models and conversion factors to local settings. Ideally, planning will focus on creating comprehensive, adaptive frameworks and statistical designs that allow for continual improvement and upward compatibility.

Improving the quality of estimates. Depending on country circumstances, there are a number of ways national accounting systems can produce higher quality estimates including using best available international guidance (eg, 2006 IPCC Guidelines) and most appropriate (eg, mineral vs organic soils) methods for estimating emissions, fully accounting for delayed emissions (eg, ongoing emissions from drained wetlands), disaggregating data (eg, by land class, soil type), and improving area estimates for land classes (Barthelmes et al, 2009).

Expanding the scope of monitoring. In many countries, monitoring in forests is more advanced than in other land classes. To expand monitoring capacity beyond deforestation to include degradation, more intensive field measurements and higher-resolution remote sensing imagery collected at appropriate temporal scales are necessary. For agriculture and other land uses, more refined land classification systems, more comprehensive models, better historical information on non-forest land use categories (ie, carbon density and area change), and regionally-relevant land management information (eg, fertilizer application) will be needed. Preliminary analysis of carbon pools and land classes with the greatest potential for emission or sequestration can inform the expanded scope of national accounting efforts.

#### 2.6 Harmonization of reporting guidance across scales and sectors

#### 2.6.1 What is already known?

To make pragmatic and cost-effective investments related to terrestrial carbon management, countries need to be able to understand the international landscape of incentives, whether under regulated markets<sup>44</sup> or voluntary offset markets. Greater clarity regarding expectations for receiving financial rewards under incentive schemes can help in navigating this landscape in a way that aligns with particular country circumstances and development goals. Similarly, clear expectations are an important need for carbon project developers and investors.

To be useful in meeting expectations for national and project reporting, data produced by terrestrial carbon accounting systems must align with existing and evolving international guidance, as well as local circumstances. Widely-accepted guidance for measurement, reporting, and verification of terrestrial carbon is available through the IPCC which has periodically produced refined guidelines since 1996 (see Appendix 8).

The set of IPCC reports, while not perfect, provides methodologies and guidance on preparation of national GHG emission inventories, including, but not limited to themes such as managing uncertainties, definitional issues, accounting practices, categories of land and land use change, and estimation and emission factors. They have also held expert meetings to provide guidance on the use of international datasets in the development of GHG emission and removal estimates for land use, land use change and forestry, and AFOLU sectors. Over time, the IPCC has expanded the scope of land

 $\overline{a}$ 44 To date, there have been relatively few land-based mitigation projects under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) and they are excluded from the European Emission Trading System (EU-ETS).

classes addressed (eg, forest degradation, land use change in wetlands) and refined reporting recommendations (eg, Tier 1 to 3, consolidated categories).

Additional guidance on activities to reduce emissions from existing terrestrial sources, or to enhance sinks, has also been developed by governments, multilateral agencies, NGOs, and scientific research organizations.<sup>45</sup> Organizations like the Voluntary Carbon Standard (VCS) emphasize the calculation of tradeable credits in a market setting for carbon storage projects. They provide tools for AFOLU project administrators, such as rules for addressing methodological issues, non-permanence risk analysis and buffer determination, and general guidance. Organizations such as Plan Vivo and the Climate, Community & Biodiversity Alliance (CCBA) develop guidelines that encompass social concerns (such as respect for indigenous rights, use of a participatory process, or equity) in addition to environmental benefits or potential economic gain.46

#### 2.6.2 What are the primary research needs?

Under the Kyoto Protocol, expectations for project-level reporting (ie, the flexible mechanisms, CDM and JI) and national-level reporting of terrestrial emissions and sequestration are notably different in terms of scope, resolution, extent, and frequency (see Table 1). At the same time, there are diverse and evolving voluntary market standards for reporting outcomes of land-based mitigation. This variability in reporting expectations can create confusion or inertia for potential project implementers (especially smallholders) and for countries seeking to establish national accounting systems.



#### Table 1. Differences in national- and project-level reporting requirements.

The IPCC has made significant contributions to clarifying and improving the quality of accounting and reporting standards, especially for subjects on which there is broad scientific agreement. The current IPCC guidance is designed for use by Annex I countries, against which they are audited. Also, methodologies for project-based activities under the Kyoto Protocol, most of which occur in non-Annex I countries, must be consistent with IPCC guidance. The IPCC guidelines are also the foundation

 $\overline{a}$ 45 For example, the Technical Working Group on Agricultural Greenhouse Gases (T-AGG) is developing research syntheses and assessments of agricultural GHG mitigation, in the U.S. and internationally, for future offsets protocol development (http://nicholas.duke.edu/institute/t-agg/).

<sup>46</sup> Plan Vivo uses local promoters to interact with farmers in the development of their work plans, which are then evaluated for technical feasibility, social and environmental impact, and carbon sequestration potential. Viable plans are registered and an agreement is signed. A Trust Fund provides farmers with technical and financial assistance to implement their work plans. CCBA's standards identify projects that simultaneously address climate change, support local communities and conserve biodiversity, innovate in project design, mitigate risk for investors, and increase funding opportunities for project developers.

for many of the voluntary market reporting requirements. However, while it is recommended that non-Annex I countries follow IPCC guidelines in producing their National Communications, they are not obligated to do so, and quality of these reports varies significantly.

In the voluntary market, there are numerous approved protocols for generating and documenting terrestrial carbon offset credits although these are primarily focused on forests. Despite the significant potential for GHG mitigation in agriculture and other land uses, only a few high-quality and widely approved methodologies for quantifying these GHG benefits have been developed.<sup>47</sup> In general, protocols provide guidance for addressing additionality, permanence, leakage, measurement error, and other issues. However, specific approaches vary considerably and there is a need for greater clarity regarding creditable monitoring and reporting strategies (eg, establishing baselines; use of carbon stock or flux). While approved CDM methodologies are generally accepted across the voluntary market, greater convergence on reporting standards could enable greater reciprocity and credit fungibility.

A key area for further work is harmonization of terminology, definitions<sup>48</sup>, standards, methodologies and classification schemes. For example, terminology and definitions related to scale (eg, 'plot', 'landscape') are not universally understood across countries which range widely in total area, mix of land classes, and patterns of land ownership and management. Looking ahead to implementation of a REDD+ mechanism under a future UNFCCC treaty, it is not yet clear what types of land-based mitigation will be eligible for incentives. Also, there may be benefit to clarifying the relationship between monitoring change in land cover and interpretation of land use change so that reporting requirements are consistent and feasible. While there are clear benefits to improving the consistency and compatibility, progress in this area will need to be balanced with accommodating country-specific conditions and pre-existing data systems.

#### 2.6.3 What can be done to meet research needs?

The international community can help to stimulate greater project-level activity and integrated terrestrial carbon accounting by harmonizing guidance for meeting expectations under financial incentive schemes. (See Appendix 9.)

Harmonizing guidance and methodologies. Investment in mechanisms for harmonizing reporting expectations across scales and scales can build on existing international guidelines and methodologies to produce greater data-gathering efficiency and data compatibility. Improved guidance for incorporation of project-scale accounting into national systems (eg, crosswalking datasets that differ in geographic and temporal resolution) would be beneficial. Greater support is needed for initiatives to review the full set of methodologies in the regulated and voluntary markets and recommend strategies for increasing consistency and identifying common principles for methodology development.<sup>49</sup> Activity within the UNFCCC process can encourage ongoing uptake of IPCC guidance by non-Annex I countries in development of National Communications.

Increasing consistency of terminology, definitions, and classifications. Streamlined processes, at regional and global scales, are needed for developing and approving consistent terminology and definitions to support the production of datasets that can be readily integrated with across scales.<sup>50</sup> Progress toward a common standardized land cover classification system that accounts for the full range of land cover types around the world is an important area for global cooperation.

 $\overline{a}$ <sup>47</sup> For a summary of existing and developing agricultural offsets protocols, see http://nicholas.duke.edu/institute/t-agg/T-AGG\_protocol\_summary.pdf.

<sup>48</sup> For example, NFIs differ significantly in terms of definitions, variables included, standards applied, and technical quality.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>49</sup> For example, as part of UN-REDD, the Food and Agriculture Organization is facilitating the review of existing methods for measuring carbon stock and changes across multiple land classes and scales.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>50</sup> Examples of current work include FAO's Climate Change and Bioenergy Glossary which has compiled over 200 definitions and the IPCC Glossary based on the Third Assessment Report.

Updating of IPCC guidelines. The 2006 IPCC Guidelines which combine the agriculture and land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) categories under 'agriculture, forestry and other land uses (AFOLU)' are widely accepted, but have yet to be formally approved (although they are used to inform voluntary market standards). Continual review, updating, and approval of IPCC guidelines can assure that scientific and technological advancements are appropriately incorporated into reporting standards and therefore monitoring activities. It can also ensure that guidelines evolve to adequately reflect requirements of incentive systems.

Accelerating acceptance of methodologies. Development of projects in the regulated market has been constrained by the time lag in developing accepted methodologies and by the complexity, high risk, and questionable financial returns of executing projects. Streamlined, transparent processes, supported by adequate administrative and scientific resources, are needed to overcome these obstacles.

Increasing emphasis on agriculture and other land use. To enable significant expansion of terrestrial carbon offset credits in non-forested systems, greater progress is needed in developing, vetting, and approving methodologies applicable to croplands, grasslands, and wetlands. Synthesis of existing and emerging knowledge as well as new scientific advances will be essential.

Mandating coordinating and advisory functions. Existing institutions such as the IPCC, FAO, the World Bank, GEF, and others, are making important contributions to creating more coherent guidance, however, more formal agreement on necessary coordinating and technical advisory functions may accelerate progress. An essential function is to provide international scientific expertise, advice, review, and recommendations in regard to methods for sub-national, national, and international monitoring and assessment.

#### 2.7 Summary

The major scientific and technical advancements needed to enable enhanced land-based mitigation and a tiered, global information system to support it are summarized in Table 2. The foundation for land-based mitigation and robust monitoring and reporting varies across major land classes. Table 3 provides an overview of priority research needs for four major land classes as well as a subjective assessment of the relative maturity and global capacity for each area of research activity.

### Table 2. What we know and priority research needs




## Table 3. Research needs for major land classes



Robust knowledge base -incremental work needed

Existing knowledge base - additional coordinated research required

Growing knowledge base - more comprehensive research needed

Emerging knowledge base - significant research investment needed

## 3 Conclusion

### 3.1 General research needs

Through international discussions of REDD and other policy proposals for increasing terrestrial carbon mitigation, there is greater awareness of the need for a robust, multi-scale information base to support estimating mitigation potential, monitoring terrestrial carbon (and other GHGs), meeting international reporting expectations, and ensuring that actions cumulatively generate meaningful carbon emissions reduction and sequestration at global scale.

There are many opportunities to advance the scientific and technical foundation for land-based mitigation. In undertaking this review, clear themes have become evident:

- **F** Rich scientific knowledge and field experience, available measurement tools and databases, and existing reports and international guidance provide a solid foundation for current and future work.
- **Development of cost-effective, easy to use tools and methodologies and spatially-resolved,** accurate data-gathering is needed to expand focus to all land classes (including complex landscapes), regions, and carbon pools.
- Diverse local, national, and regional circumstances can be accommodated by developing a regionally-relevant mix of management practices, measurement approaches, conversion equations, and models as well as planning for changing regional climatic conditions.
- **Efforts to improve convergence and consistency can produce synthesized scientific knowledge (for** carbon dynamics, management practices, and measurement), harmonized reporting guidelines and methodologies, compatible terminology, definitions, and classifications, and integrative modelling (for spatially-resolved time series data, downscaling).
- Expanding and building regional and global networks can provide needed linkages across field research and technological advancements and facilitate access to tools, databases, technical support, infrastructure, and extension services.

Progress requires adequate resources, expanded capacity, and clear incentives and mandates.

#### 3.2 Research needs for major land classes

For all land classes, it will be important to extend general understanding about the effects of alternative management practices to specific conditions through field research and innovative modelling. Expanded effort to develop regionally-relevant conversion equations, sampling designs, and approved methodologies will be important for non-forest land classes. Some research needs are high priorities for specific land classes:

- Forest carbon dynamics and management options are well-understood in many parts of the world. A key remaining challenge is greater convergence in global estimates of emissions and sequestration as well as more effective and coherent tracking of changes in some regions.
- **Many types of croplands are well-studied although some types and regions require more** attention. Improvements are needed in process-level understanding of soil carbon distribution across pools and depth, over time, as well as under mixed management systems such as agroforestry. Greater convergence on robust monitoring methods is the central focus of several initiatives.
- Grasslands and drylands have received significant attention by the research community, but require additional regional- and global-scale synthesis of resulting knowledge. Important research frontiers include soil dynamics, sequestration rates, fire regimes, and grazing effects. Also, adaptation of monitoring methods and models to these ecosystems is needed to more fully integrate them into terrestrial carbon mitigation efforts.

**Technical work to support mitigation in wetlands and peatlands has been robust in some regions,** but additional process-level knowledge is needed to enhance estimation of potential GHG emissions reduction and carbon sequestration. Additional work is needed to characterize geographic and temporal variability and relationships among drainage depth, subsidence, disturbance, and emissions. Current efforts to develop widely accepted monitoring methods need additional resources.

Also, there is emerging awareness of the need to synthesize the scientific understanding of major land classes into a more integrated characterization of ecological landscapes. While some large land areas can be described homogeneously (eg, contiguous unmanaged forests, extensive grasslands), land cover and land use in many regions are quite heterogeneous, making land classification difficult in many places. A number of research investments (eg, networks of benchmark sites, improvements in remote sensing interpretation capacity) offer promise for increasing our ability to accurately predict and monitor changes in carbon across whole landscapes.

#### 3.3 Action and innovation

To translate policy frameworks and financial incentives into improved land management and significant climate change mitigation, action and innovation will be needed by international agencies, national governments, land managers, financiers, and project implementers and auditors. There are many different organizations already working on various aspects of terrestrial carbon management and quantification. Integration and expansion of investment in research and development and technology transfer as well as greater information sharing and coordination is needed across the public and private sectors, across scientific disciplines, and across geographic scales.

A variety of existing institutions and initiatives are already hard at work to address priority research needs. Commonly, efforts are, and will continue to be, organized around major land classes – forests, croplands, grasslands and drylands, and wetlands and peatlands. Within these communities of practice, there is a wealth of expertise available to be more fully harnessed in answering outstanding technical questions.

While there are some well-coordinated, multi-organization initiatives producing integrated responses to priority topics, other critical research needs are being addressed through an array of idiosyncratic projects and programs housed in various research institutions, private companies, and national and international agencies. While these are critically important and innovative contributions to the terrestrial carbon research agenda, they would generate greater impact and consistency if aggregated into more structured consortia.

#### 3.4 Next steps

This Roadmap for Terrestrial Carbon Science assesses the scientific and technical advancements needed to maximize terrestrial carbon mitigation and document and reward outcomes. It identifies priority research needs that must be addressed, globally and in specific regions, to provide the quantitative basis for improved management of terrestrial carbon. It recommends technical investments and actions needed to accelerate avoided emissions and sequestration of terrestrial carbon that can complement important progress in understanding the social, economic, institutional, and governance dimensions of terrestrial carbon management.

Continued and expanded leadership by research institutions and multilateral agencies can promote translational research that builds on existing knowledge and infrastructure, improves accuracy while developing experience, and informs policy and practice. An essential step will be estimating costs and capacity needs associated with priority research initiatives and generating the necessary financial and technical support for phased implementation. Linkages among developed and developing countries and across the public and private sectors will be critical to filling research gaps through coordinated, multi-lateral, multi-scale cooperation.

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# **APPENDIX 1: Selected global and regional‐scale studies that estimate land‐based mitigation potential, using <sup>a</sup> variety of units and timeframes, for major land classes**

Some estimates project potential emissions reduction by a particular future date (some of these are based on a particular carbon offset credit price), others are based on annual rates. Estimates focus on mitigation potential of either carbon or all GHGs. Units of estimation include net carbon gain (mass, mass per unit area), net primary productivity, net global warming potential, and avoided emissions (in CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents). Some studies project potential sequestration for major regions or countries. It is expected that estimates for particular land classes do not necessarily use the same definitions and geographic areas. Note that a wide range of studies have used plot-level data to produce site-specific estimates of sequestration potential. For example, long-term studies at the Rodale Institute have shown sequestration rates associated with various management practices.



# **APPENDIX 2: Organizations working on process‐level understanding of carbon dynamics and mitigation potential**







# **APPENDIX 3: Organizations working on scientific research base for alternative management practices**

















# **APPENDIX 4: General methods for measuring terrestrial carbon**

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Laser (lidar) sensors are able to measure the digital surface model (DSM) and digital elevation model (DEM) which can be used in allometric models to infer carbon stocks. Radar‐based systems can measure surface roughness, vegetation canopy structure, topography as well as surface (including soil) moisture. Information gathered using radar‐based sensors can also be used with existing allometric models to estimate carbon stock. Radar and lidar technologies have developed in leaps and bounds in the last few years and are, in some cases efficient, measurement tools. They do however still rely heavily on the quality of data and models used for interpretation and are not yet widely applied.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Direct, operational assessment of soil carbon stocks via remote sensing is not yet possible and estimation is limited to situations where soils are exposed and has relied on the strong relationship between the quantity of soil organic matter (SOM) and soil colour (visible reflectance) (Daughtry et al, 2005; Serbin et al, 2009). There are limitations for estimating SOM based on soil reflectance which is a function of many factors in addition to organic matter, including soil moisture, texture, chemical composition, parent material and surface conditions. Complications are magnified when it is necessary to map a large geographical area. Ground penetrating radar and other techniques have also been used to estimate soil horizons, soil depth (eg, peatlands), stones and coarse roots (belowground biomass) although not to estimate soil carbon stocks directly.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Typical inputs for models include information related to carbon stock estimates and activity data, for example: current and historic natural disturbance, management, land use change, climate, soil properties, growth rates, decomposition rates, biomass pools (above and below ground estimates) and estimates of variability and error.



# **APPENDIX 5: Organizations working on feasible accounting tools for all lands and carbon pools**





<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>i</sup> CBP Consortium made up of Colorado State University (CSU), University of Leicester, World Soil Information (ISRIC), Centro de Energia Nuclear na Agricultura (Brazil), GEF, Overseas Development Group – University of East Anglia (ODG-UEA), World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF), Michigan State University (MSU), Centre for International Forestry Research (CIFOR)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>ii</sup> UN Development Programme (UNDP), UNEP, World Bank, UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), African Development Bank (AfDB), Asian Development Bank (ADB), European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

## **APPENDIX 6: Organizations working on components of <sup>a</sup> tiered global information system**

















Initiative / Organization	Administrators	Geographic location and scale	<b>Details</b>
			terms and concepts in forest restoration, introduction to key approaches and tools, case studies and database of projects, maps and datasets
World Data Centre for Soils (ISRIC)	Coordinated by ISRIC; partnership of 12 research organizations <sup>v</sup>	Global; regional / international	The World Soil Information Database provides maps of carbon п storage in developing countries (mainly small-scale, 1:250.000 or smaller) Th e-SOTER project is a European contribution for a global soil observing system as part of GEOSS; will improve continental scale information and develop advanced methodologies at a regional scale, end product will be a layer of soil information with standardized soil attributes for the 1:1 million and the 1:250,000 scale
World Meteorological Organization (WMO), World Climate Programme	Specialized agency of the United Nations; membership of 189 member states and territories	Global; subnational to international	Facilitates the establishment of global networks of meterological, climatological, hydrological and geophysical observations Development and incorporation of science-based climate information and prediction into planning, policy and practice at local to global scales to enable better management of climate change risks and adaptation (Global Framework for Climate Services)

i CBP Consortium made up of Colorado State University (CSU), University of Leicester, World Soil Information (ISRIC), Centro de Energia Nuclear na Agricultura (Brazil), GEF, Overseas Development Group – University of East Anglia (ODG-UEA), World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF), Michigan State University (MSU), Centre for International Forestry Research (CIFOR)

iii Colorado State, Iowa State, Kansas State, Michigan State, Montana State, Nebraska, Ohio State, Purdue, Texas A&M,; Batelle-Pacific Northwest National Laboratory

ii UN Development Programme (UNDP), UNEP, World Bank, UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), African Development Bank (AfDB), Asian Development Bank (ADB), European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>iv</sup> The 1st Scientific Conference was organized with the support of the Dryland Science for Development Consortium (DSD). DSD Consortium members are DesertNet International, the International Centre for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas (ICARDA), the International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), the Joint Research Centre's Institute for Environment and Sustainability of the European Commission (JRC-IES) and the United Nations University's International Network on Water, Environment and Health (UNU-INWEH)

v University of Miskolc, Federal Institute for Geosciences and Natural Resources (BGR), European Commission Joint Research Center, Institute for Environment and Sustainability (JRC-IES), Cranfield University, Alterra / Wageningen UR, Szent Istvan University, Scientific Landscapes, Science du Sol - Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique, University of Nottingham Centre for Geospatial Science, Czech University of Life Sciences, Institute of Soil Science - Chinese Academy of Sciences, - Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique du Maroc, Wageningen University - Laboratory for Geo-information Science and Remote Sensing

# **APPENDIX 7: Organizations working on pathways to establishing national accounting systems that reflect country circumstances**








Initiative / <b>Organization</b>	<b>Administrators</b>	Geographic location and scale	<b>Details</b>
	Agricultural Research (CGIAR)		and subnational capacity in carbon accounting and monitoring, and design operational REDD mechanisms in five pilot areas
<b>World Conservation</b> <b>Monitoring Centre</b> (WCMC)	Collaboration between the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and WCMC 2000	Global; international	UNEP WCMC is supporting the Environmental Management Group ٠ to coordinate a UN-wide response report on drylands (including sustainable land management and climate change issues) to be released in 2010; report will guide action of all UN agencies and act as an investment quide
<b>World Resources</b> Institute (WRI)		Global; international	Provides assessments and reviews of issues such as major research and innovations in climate change science and technology, and globally-relevant lessons learned from developed countries' experiences related to implementation of the land use, land use change and forestry (LULUCF) provisions of the Kyoto protocol

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>i</sup> CBP Consortium made up of Colorado State University (CSU), University of Leicester, World Soil Information (ISRIC), Centro de Energia Nuclear na Agricultura (Brazil), GEF, Overseas Development Group – University of East Anglia (ODG-UEA), World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF), Michigan State University (MSU), Centre for International Forestry Research (CIFOR)

iii Accountability and Local Level Initiative to Reduce Emission from Deforestation and Degradation in Indonesia

ii UN Development Programme (UNDP), UNEP, World Bank, UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), African Development Bank (AfDB), Asian Development Bank (ADB), European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

## APPENDIX 8: IPCC Guidelines related to terrestrial carbon

This table illustrates the evolution of IPCC guidance, from the initial 1996 guidance on national GHG inventories to the most recent 2006 guidance which consolidates agriculture and LULUCF into AFOLU.







\*All National Greenhouse Gas Inventory guidelines must be accepted by the IPCC Plenary prior to formal adoption. Although adopted by many countries, the 2006 Guidelines have not, as yet, been formally accepted.

^Excluding Executive Summaries, Foreword, Preface, Introductions, Conclusions, only includes relevant Appendixes and Annexes

*●*Good practice – national inventories of anthropogenic GHG emissions and removals are those which contain neither over- nor under-estimates so far as can be judged, and in which uncertainties are reduced as far as practicable

+Unbalanced accounting occurs if all emissions and removals are not reported. This may be due to incomplete accounting, which occurs if the area (eg, of managed forest elected under Articles 3.3 and 3.4) is different from the area where relevant activities occur (eg, the full extent of managed forest), or asymmetric accounting (where some emissions and / or removals are not accounted within the area included); the former may have implications for area coverage whilst the latter does not.

## **APPENDIX 9: Organizations working on harmonization of reporting guidance across scales and sectors**













Initiative / Organization	<b>Administrators</b>	Geographic location and scale	<b>Details</b>
			developing new methodologies, thus bridging the gap between general guidelines and methodologies with their application to real-world projects; the CFU also prepares policy and position papers and takes an active role in initiating research and studies on methodological and policy issues related to CDM The BioCarbon Fund under the CFU provides carbon finance for projects that sequester or conserve GHGes in forests, agro- and other ecosystems; has been developing a project-based REDD methodology which will allow project developers to establish a project reference scenario and adopt monitoring measures for accurately assessing emissions reductions from reduced deforestation resulting from project activities; focused on project developers (local communities, individuals, and cooperating organizations such as natural resource management agencies, NGOs, academic institutions, and private industries)
<b>World Conservation</b> <b>Monitoring Centre</b> (WCMC)	<b>United Nations</b> Environment Programme	Global; subnational to international	The Forest Restoration Information Service aims to provide an ٠ open-access internet information service to support forest restoration projects world-wide, and includes a variety of resources such as definitions of key terms and concepts in forest restoration, introduction to key approaches and tools, case studies and database of projects, maps and datasets Focused on project implementers ٠
World Wildlife Fund (WWF)	$---$	Developing countries; subnational to national	Through the Forest Carbon Initiative, will identify and support ٠ country-level implementation of REDD programmes through building capacity, testing approaches and implementing activities Published the Green Carbon Guidebook, defining a meta-standard framework to quide carbon project developers and investors

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>i</sup> CBP Consortium made up of Colorado State University (CSU), University of Leicester, World Soil Information (ISRIC), Centro de Energia Nuclear na Agricultura (Brazil), GEF, Overseas Development Group - University of East Anglia (ODG-UEA), World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF), Michigan State University (MSU), Centre for International Forestry Research (CIFOR)

ii UN Development Programme (UNDP), UNEP, World Bank, UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), African Development Bank (AfDB), Asian Development Bank (ADB), European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)