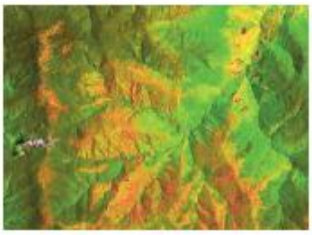
SOURCEBOOK





Reducing Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation in Developing Countries: A Sourcebook of Methods and Procedures for Monitoring, Measuring and Reporting

GOFC-GOLD

REDUCING GREENHOUSE GAS EMISSIONS FROM DEFORESTATION AND DEGRADATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: A SOURCEBOOK OF METHODS AND PROCEDURES FOR MONITORING, MEASURING AND REPORTING

Background and Rationale for the Sourcebook

This sourcebook provides a consensus perspective from the global community of earth observation and carbon experts on methodological issues relating to quantifying the green house gas (GHG) impacts of implementing activities to reduce emissions from deforestation and degradation in developing countries (REDD). The UNFCCC negotiations and related country submissions on REDD in 2005-2007 have advocated that methodologies and tools become available for estimating emissions from deforestation with an acceptable level of certainty. Based on the current status of negotiations and UNFCCC approved methodologies, this sourcebook aims to provide additional explanation, clarification, and methodologies to support REDD early actions and readiness mechanisms for building national REDD monitoring systems. It emphasizes the role of satellite remote sensing as an important tool for monitoring changes in forest cover, and provides clarification on applying the IPCC Guidelines for reporting changes in forest carbon stocks at the national level.

The sourcebook is the outcome of an ad-hoc REDD working group of “Global Observation of Forest and Land Cover Dynamics” (GOFC-GOLD, www.fao.org/gtos/gofc-gold/), a technical panel of the Global Terrestrial Observing System (GTOS). The working group has been active since the initiation of the UNFCCC REDD process in 2005, has organized REDD expert workshops, and has contributed to related UNFCCC/SBSTA side events and GTOS submissions. GOFC-GOLD provides an independent expert platform for international cooperation and communication to formulate scientific consensus and provide technical input to the discussions and for implementation activities. A number of international experts in remote sensing and carbon measurement and accounting have contributed to the development of this sourcebook.

With political discussions and negotiations ongoing, the current document provides the starting point for defining an appropriate monitoring framework considering current technical capabilities to measure gross carbon emission from changes in forest cover by deforestation and degradation on the national level. This sourcebook is a living document and further methods and technical details can be specified and added with evolving political negotiations and decisions. Respective communities are invited to provide comments and feedback to evolve a more detailed and refined technical-guidelines document in the future. We acknowledge the following people for the comments which were made on the first version distributed in December 2007 in Bali: Margaret Skutsch, Sharon Gomez, David Shoch, Bill Stanley, Steven De Gryze, Albert Ackhurst and Doug Muchoney, and the following people for the comments which were made on the second version distributed in June 2008: Jeffrey Himel, Sandro Federici (Section 1. Introduction) …

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This publication is the result of a joint voluntary effort from a number of experts from different institutions (that they may not necessarily represent). It is still an evolving document. The experts who contributed to the present version are listed under the chapter(s) to which they contributed.

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF THE SOURCEBOOK

This sourcebook is designed to be a guide to develop a reference emission and design a system for monitoring and estimating carbon dioxide emissions from deforestation and forest degradation at the national scale, based on the general requirements set by the United Nation Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the specific methodologies for the land use and forest sectors provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).

The sourcebook introduces users to: i) the key issues and challenges related to monitoring and estimating carbon emissions from deforestation and forest degradation; ii) the key methods provided in the 2003 IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry (GPG-LULUCF) and the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories for Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Uses (GL-AFOLU); iii) how these IPCC methods provide the steps needed to estimate emissions from deforestation and forest degradation and iv) the key issues and challenges related to reporting the estimated emissions.

The sourcebook provides transparent methods and procedures that are designed to produce accurate estimates of changes in forest area and carbon stocks and resulting emissions of carbon dioxide from deforestation and degradation, in a format that is user-friendly. It is intended to complement the GPG-LULUCF and AFOLU by providing additional explanation, clarification and enhanced methodologies for obtaining and analyzing key data.

The sourcebook is not designed as a primer on how to analyze remote sensing data nor how to collect field measurements of forest carbon stocks as it is expected that the users of this sourcebook would have some expertise in either of these areas.

The sourcebook was developed considering the following guiding principles:

- Relevance: Any monitoring system should provide an appropriate match between known REDD policy requirements and current technical capabilities. Further methods and technical details can be specified and added with evolving political negotiations and decisions.
- Comprehensiveness: The system should allow global applicability with implementation at the national level, and with approaches that have potential for sub-national activities.
- Consistency: Efforts have to consider previous related UNFCCC efforts and definitions.
- Efficiency: Proposed methods should allow cost-effective and timely implementation, and support early actions.
- Robustness: Monitoring should provide appropriate results based on sound scientific underpinnings and international technical consensus among expert groups.
- Transparency: The system must be open and readily available for third party reviewers and the methodology applied must be replicable.

1.2 ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

The permanent conversion of forested to non-forested areas in developing countries has had a significant impact on the accumulation of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere[1], as has forest degradation caused by high impact logging, over-exploitation for fuelwood, intense grazing that reduces regeneration, wildfires, and forest fragmentation. If the emissions of methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O), and other chemically reactive gases that result from subsequent uses of the land are considered in addition to carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions, annual emissions from tropical deforestation during the 1990s accounted for about 15-25% of the total anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases[2].

For a number of reasons, activities to reduce such emissions are not accepted for generating creditable emissions reductions under the Kyoto Protocol. However, the compelling environmental rationale for their consideration has been crucial for the recent inclusion of the REDD issue (i.e., "Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in developing countries") in the UNFCCC agenda for a future global climate agreement[3], Although existing IPCC methodologies and UNFCCC reporting principles will represent the basis of any future REDD mechanism, fundamental methodological issues need to be urgently addressed in order to produce estimates that are "results based, demonstrable, transparent, and verifiable, and estimated consistently over time"[4] – this is the focus of this sourcebook.

1.2.1 LULUCF in the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol

Under the current rules for Annex I (i.e. industrialized) countries, the Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector is the only sector where the requirements for reporting emissions and removals are different between the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol (Table 1.2.1). Indeed, unlike the reporting under the Convention - which includes all emissions/removals from LULUCF -, under the Kyoto Protocol the reporting and accounting of emissions/removals is mandatory only for the activities under Art. 3.3, while it is voluntary (i.e. eligible) for activities under Art. 3.4 (see Table 1.2.1). These LULUCF activities may be developed domestically by Annex I countries or via Kyoto Protocol's flexible instruments, including Afforestation/Reforestation projects under the "Clean Development Mechanism" (CDM) in non-Annex I (i.e. developing) countries. For the national inventories, estimating and reporting guidelines can be drawn from UNFCCC documents[5], the 1996 IPCC (revised) Guidelines, the 2003 Good Practice Guidance for LULUCF (GPG-LULUCF; Chapter 3 for UNFCCC reporting and Chapter 4 for methods specific to the Kyoto Protocol reporting).

The IPCC has also adopted a more recent set of estimation guidelines (2006 Guidelines) in which the Agriculture and LULUCF sectors are integrated to form the Agriculture, Land Use and Forestry (AFOLU) sector. Although these latest Guidelines should still be considered only a scientific publication, because the decision of their use for reporting under UNFCCC has not been taken yet, in this sourcebook we make frequent references to them (as GL-AFOLU) because they represent a relevant and updated source of methodological information.

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[1] De Fries et al. (2002); Houghton (2003); Achard et al. (2004)
[2] According to the IPCC AR4 (2007), 1.6$\pm$0.9 GtC yr^{-1} are emitted from land use changes (mainly tropical deforestation)
[3] Decision -/CP.13, http:/unfccc.int/files/meetings/cop_13/application/pdf/cp_bali_action.pdf
[4] Decision -/CP.13. http://unfccc.int/files/meetings/cop_13/application/pdf/cp_redd.pdf.
[5] For a broader overview of reporting principles and procedures under UNFCCC see Chapter 6.2.

Table 1.2.1: Existing frameworks for the Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry</th></tr>
<tr><th>UNFCCC (2003 GPG and 2006 GL-AFOLU)</th><th>Kyoto</th><th>Kyoto-Flexibility</th></tr>
<tr><td>Six land use classes and conversion between them:
Forest lands
Cropland
Grassland
Settlements
Wetlands
Other Land</td><td>Article 3.3
Afforestation,
Reforestation,
Deforestation
Article 3.4
Cropland management
Grazing land management
Forest management
Revegetation</td><td>CDM
Afforestation
Reforestation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Deforestation= forest converted to another land category</td><td colspan="2">Controlled by the Rules and Modalities (including Definitions) of the Marrakesh Accords</td></tr>
</table>

1.2.2 Definition of Forests, Deforestation and Degradation

For the new REDD mechanism, many terms, definitions and other elements are not yet clear. For example, although the terms 'deforestation' and 'forest degradation' are commonly used, they can widely vary among countries. As decisions for REDD will likely build on the current modalities under the UNFCCC and its Kyoto Protocol, current definitions and terms potentially represent a starting point for considering refined and/or additional definitions, if it will be needed.

For this reason, the definitions as used in UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol context, potentially applicable to REDD after a negotiation process, are described below. Specifically, while for reporting under the UNFCCC only generic definitions on land uses were agreed on, the Marrakesh Accords (MA) prescribed a set of more specific definitions to be applied for LULUCF activities the Kyoto Protocol, although some flexibility is left to countries.

Forest land – Under the UNFCCC, this category includes all land with woody vegetation consistent with thresholds used to define Forest Land in the national greenhouse gas inventory. It also includes systems with a vegetation structure that does not, but *in situ* could potentially reach, the threshold values used by a country to define the Forest Land category. Moreover, forest use should be the predominant use rather than other uses[6].

The estimation of deforestation is affected by the definitions of 'forest' versus 'non-forest' area that vary widely in terms of tree size, area, and canopy density. Forest definitions are myriad, however, common to most definitions are threshold parameters including minimum area, minimum height and minimum level of crown cover. In its forest resource assessment of 2005, the FAO[7] uses a minimum cover of 10%, height of 5m and area of 0.5ha stating also that forest use should be the predominant use.

[6] The presence of a predominant forest-use is crucial for land classification since the mere presence of trees is not enough to classify an area as forest land (e.g. an urban park with trees exceeding forest threshold is not considered as a forest land)

[7] FAO (2006): Global Forest Resources Assessment 2005. Main Report, www.fao.org/forestry/fra2005

However, the FAO approach of a single worldwide value excludes variability in ecological conditions and differing perceptions of forests.

For the purpose of the Kyoto Protocol[8], the Marrakech Accords determined that Parties should select a single value of crown area, tree height and area to define forests within their national boundaries. Selection must be from within the following ranges, with the understanding that young stands that have not yet reached the necessary cover or height are included as forest:

- Minimum forest area: 0.05 to 1 ha
- Potential to reach a minimum height at maturity *in situ* of 2-5 m
- Minimum tree crown cover (or equivalent stocking level): 10 to 30 %

Under this definition a forest can contain anything from 10% to 100% tree cover; it is only when cover falls below the minimum crown cover as designated by a given country that land is classified as non-forest. However, if this is only a change in the forest cover not followed by a change in use, such as for timber harvest with regeneration expected, the land remains in the forest classification. The specific definition chosen will have implications on where the boundaries between deforestation and degradation occur.

The Designated National Authority (DNA) in each country is responsible for the forest definition, and a comprehensive and updated list of each country's DNA and their forest definition can be found on http://cdm.unfccc.int/DNA/.

The definition of forests offers some flexibility for countries when designing a monitoring plan because analysis of remote sensing data can adapt to different minimum tree crown cover and minimum forest area thresholds. However, consistency in forest classifications for all REDD activities is critical for integrating different types of information including remote sensing analysis. The use of different definitions impacts the technical earth observation requirements and could influence cost, availability of data, and abilities to integrate and compare data through time.

Deforestation - Most definitions characterize deforestation as the long-term or permanent conversion of land from forest use to other non-forest uses. Under Decision 11/CP.7, the UNFCCC defined deforestation as: "..the direct, human-induced conversion of forested land to non-forested land."

Effectively this definition means a reduction in crown cover from above the threshold for forest definition to below this threshold. For example, if a country defines a forest as having a crown cover greater than 30%, then deforestation would not be recorded until the crown cover was reduced below this limit. Yet other countries may define a forest as one with a crown cover of 20% or even 10% and thus deforestation would not be recorded until the crown cover was reduced below these limits. If forest cover decreases below the threshold only temporarily due to say logging, and the forest is expected to regrow the crown cover to above the threshold, then this decrease is not considered deforestation.

Deforestation causes a change in land use and usually in land cover. Common changes include: conversion of forests to annual cropland, conversion to perennial plants (oil palm, shrubs), conversion to slash-and-burn (shifting cultivation) lands, and conversion to urban lands or other human infrastructure.

Forest degradation – In areas where there are anthropogenic net emissions during a given time period (i.e. where GHGs emissions are larger than removals) from forests caused by a decrease in canopy cover that does not qualify as deforestation, it is termed as forest degradation.

[8] UNFCCC (2001): COP-7: The Marrakech accords. (Bonn, Germany: UNFCCC Secretariat) available at http://www.unfccc.int

The IPCC special report on 'Definitions and Methodological Options to Inventory Emissions from Direct Human-Induced Degradation of Forests and Devegetation of Other Vegetation Types' (2003) presents five different potential definitions for degradation along with their pros and cons. The report suggested the following characterization for degradation:

"A direct, human-induced, long-term loss (persisting for X years or more) or at least Y% of forest carbon stocks [and forest values] since time T and not qualifying as deforestation".

The thresholds for carbon loss and minimum area affected as well as long term need to be specified to operationalize this definition. In terms of changes in carbon stocks, degradation therefore would represent a human-induced decrease in carbon stocks, with measured canopy cover remaining above the threshold for definition of forest and no change in land use. Moreover, to be distinguished from forestry activities the decrease should be considered persistent. The persistence could be evaluated by monitoring carbon stock changes either over time (i.e. a net decrease during a given period, e.g. 20 years) or along space (e.g. a net decrease over a large area where all the successional stages of a managed forest are present).

Considering that, at national level, sustainable forest management leads to national gross losses of carbon stocks (e.g. through harvesting) which can be only lower than (or equal to) national gross gains (in particular through forest growth), consequently a net decrease of forest carbon stocks at national level during a reporting period would be due to forest degradation within the country. Conversely, a net increase of forest carbon stocks at national level would correspond to forest enhancement.

Therefore, it is also possible that no specific definition is needed, and that any net emission will be reported simply as a net decrease of carbon stock in the category "Forest land remaining forest land".

Given the lack of a clear definition for degradation, or even the lack of any definition, it is difficult to design a monitoring system. However, some general observations and concepts exist and are presented here to inform the debate. Degradation may present a much broader land cover change than deforestation. In reality, monitoring of degradation will be limited by the technical capacity to sense and record the change in canopy cover because small changes will likely not be apparent unless they produce a systematic pattern in the imagery.

Many activities cause degradation of carbon stocks in forests but not all of them can be monitored well with high certainty, and not all of them need to be monitored using remote sensing data, though being able to use such data would give more confidence to reported emissions from degradation. To develop a monitoring system for degradation, it is first necessary that the causes of degradation be identified and the likely impact on the carbon stocks be assessed.

- Area of forests undergoing selective logging (both legal and illegal) with the presence of gaps, roads, and log decks are likely to be observable in remote sensing imagery, especially the network of roads and log decks. The gaps in the canopy caused by harvesting of trees have been detected in imagery such as Landsat using more sophisticated analytical techniques of frequently collected imagery, and the task is somewhat easier to detect when the logging activity is more intense (i.e. higher number of trees logged; see Section 2.1.2). A combination of legal logging followed by illegal activities in the same concession is likely to cause more degradation and more change in canopy characteristics, and an increased chance that this could be monitored with Landsat type imagery and interpretation. The reduction in carbon stocks from selective logging can also be estimated without the use satellite imagery, i.e. based on methods given in the IPCC GL-AFOLU for estimating changes in carbon stocks of "forest land remaining forest land".

- Degradation of carbon stocks by forest fires could be more difficult to monitor with existing satellite imagery and little to no data exist on the changes in carbon stocks. Depending on the severity and extent of fires, the impact on the carbon stocks could vary widely. In practically all cases for tropical forests, the cause of fire will be human induced as there are little to no dry electric storms in tropical humid forest areas.
- Degradation by over exploitation for fuel wood or other local uses of wood is often followed by animal grazing that prevents regeneration, a situation more common in drier forest areas. This situation is likely not to be detectable from satellite image interpretation unless the rate of degradation was intense causing larger changes in the canopy.
- Invasion by alien or exotic species into already degraded forests can exacerbate the process as they can reduce natural forest regrowth. Exotic species replacing indigenous species are often more prone to further degradation (natural or anthropogenic) and can generally reproduce more prolifically. Whether the area of this type of degradation could be monitored over time with satellite imagery depends on whether the invasions cause a marked change in the canopy characteristics.

1.2.3 General Method for Estimating CO_2 Emissions

To facilitate the use of the IPCC GL-AFOLU and GPG reports side by side with the sourcebook, definitions used in the sourcebook remain consistent with the IPCC Guidelines. In this section we summarize key guidance and definitions from the IPCC Guidelines that frame the more detailed procedures that follow.

The term "Categories" as used in IPCC reports refers to specific sources of emissions/removals of greenhouse gases. For the purposes of this sourcebook, the following categories are considered under the AFOLU sector:

- Forest Land converted to Crop Land, Forest Land converted to Grass Land, Forest Land converted to Settlements, Forest Land converted to Wetlands, and Forest Land converted to Other Land are commonly equated with "deforestation".
- A decrease in carbon stocks of Forest Land remaining Forest Land is commonly equated to "forest degradation".

The IPCC Guidelines refer to two basic inputs with which to calculate greenhouse gas inventories: activity data and emissions factors. "Activity data" refer to the extent of an emission/removal category, and in the case of deforestation and forest degradation refers to the areal extent of those categories, presented in hectares. Henceforth for the purposes of this sourcebook, activity data are referred to as area change data. "Emission factors" refer to emissions/removals of greenhouse gases per unit area, e.g. tons carbon dioxide emitted per hectare of deforestation. Emissions/removals resulting from land-use conversion are manifested in changes in ecosystem carbon stocks, and for consistency with the IPCC Guidelines, we use units of carbon, specifically metric tons of carbon per hectare (t C ha^{-1}), to express emission factors for deforestation and forest degradation.

1.2.3.1 Assessing activity data

The IPCC Guidelines describe three different **Approaches** for representing the activity data, or the change in area of different land categories (Table 1.2.2): Approach 1 identifies the total area for each land category - typically from non-spatial country statistics - but does not provide information on the nature and area of conversions between land uses, i.e. it only provides "net" area changes (i.e. deforestation minus afforestation) and thus is not suitable for REDD. Approach 2 involves tracking of land conversions between categories, resulting in a non-spatially explicit land-use conversion matrix. Approach 3 extends Approach 2 by using spatially explicit land conversion information, derived from sampling or wall-to-wall mapping techniques. Similarly to current requirements under the Kyoto Protocol, it is likely that under a REDD mechanism that land use changes will be required to be identifiable and traceable in the future, i.e. it is likely that only Approach 3 can be used for REDD implementation[9].

Table 1.2.2: A summary of the Approaches that can be used for the activity data.

Approach for activity data: Area change
1. total area for each land use category, but no information on conversions (only net changes)
2. tracking of conversions between land-use categories (only between 2 points in time)
3. spatially explicit tracking of land-use conversions over time

1.2.3.2 Assessing emission factors

The emission factors are derived from assessments of the changes in carbon stocks in the various carbon pools of a forest. Carbon stock information can be obtained at different **Tier levels** (Table 1.2.3) and which one is selected is independent of the Approach selected. Tier 1 uses IPCC default values (i.e. biomass in different forest biomes, carbon fraction etc.); Tier 2 requires some country-specific carbon data (i.e. from field inventories, permanent plots), and Tier 3 highly disaggregated national inventory-type data of carbon stocks in different pools and assessment of any change in pools through repeated measurements also supported by modeling. Moving from Tier 1 to Tier 3 increases the accuracy and precision of the estimates, but also increases the complexity and the costs of monitoring.

Table 1.2.3: A summary of the Tiers that can be used for the emission factors.

Tiers for emission factors: Change in C stocks
1. IPCC default factors
2. Country specific data for key factors
3. Detailed national inventory of key C stocks, repeated measurements of key stocks through time or modeling

Chapter 2.1 of this sourcebook provides guidance on how to obtain the activity data, or gross change in forest area, with low uncertainty. Chapter 2.2 focuses on obtaining data for emission factors and providing guidance on how to produce estimates of carbon stocks of forests with low uncertainty suitable for national assessments.

According to the IPCC, estimates should be accurate and uncertainties should be quantified and reduced as far as practicable. Furthermore, carbon stocks of the key or significant categories and pools should be estimated with the higher tiers (see also

[9] While both Approaches 2 and 3 give gross-net changes among land categories, only Approach 3 allows to estimate gross-net changes within a category, i.e. to detect a deforestation followed by an afforestation, which is not possible with Approach 2 unless detailed supplementary information is provided.

chapter 3.1.5). As the reported estimates of reduced emissions will likely be the basis of an accounting procedure (as in the Kyoto Protocol), with the eventual assignment of economic incentives, Tier 3 should be the level to which countries should aspire. In the context of REDD, however, the methodological choice will inevitably result from a balance between the requirements of accuracy/precision and the cost of monitoring. It is likely that this balance will be guided by the principle of **conservativeness**, i.e. a tier lower than required could be used – or a carbon pool could be ignored - if it can be demonstrated that the overall estimate of reduced emissions are likely to be underestimated (see also chapter 4). Thus, when accuracy and precision of the estimates cannot be achieved, estimates of reduced emissions should *at least* be conservative, i.e. with very low probability to be overestimated.

1.2.4 Reference Emissions Levels and Benchmark Forest Area Map

The estimate of reductions in emissions from deforestation and degradation requires assessing reference emissions levels against which future emissions can be compared. These reference levels represent the historical emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in "forested land" at a national level.

Credible reference levels of emissions can be established for a REDD system using existing scientific and technical tools, and this is the focus of this sourcebook.

Technically, from remote sensing imagery it is possible to monitor forest area change with confidence from 1990s onwards and estimates of forest C stocks can be obtained from a variety of sources. Feasibility and accuracies will strongly depend on national circumstances (in particular in relation to data availability), that is, potential limitations are more related to resources and data availability than to methodologies.

A related issue is the concept of a **benchmark forest area map**. Any national program to reduce emissions from deforestation and degradation will need to have an initial forest area map to represent the point from which each future forest area assessment will be made and actual changes will be monitored so as to report only gross deforestation going forward. This initial forest area map is referred to here as a benchmark map. This implies that an agreement will be needed by Parties on deciding on a benchmark year against which all future deforestation and degradation will be measured. The use of a benchmark map will show where monitoring should be done to assess changes in forest cover.

The use of a benchmark map makes monitoring deforestation (and some degradation) a simpler task. The interpretation of the remote sensing imagery needs to identify only the areas (or pixels) that changed compared to the benchmark map. The benchmark map would then be updated at the start of each new analysis event so that one is just monitoring the loss of forest area from the original benchmark map. The forest area benchmark map would also show where forests exist and how they are stratified either for carbon or for other national needs.

If only gross deforestation is being monitored, the benchmark map can be updated by subtracting the areas where deforestation has occurred. If reforestation needs to be monitored, the entire area in the original benchmark map needs to be monitored for both forest loss and forest gain. To show where non-forest land is reverting to forests a monitoring of the full country territory is needed.

1.2.5 Roadmap for the Sourcebook

The sourcebook is organized as follows:

Chapter 2: METHODOLOGICAL SECTION

Chapter 3: PRACTICAL EXAMPLES FOR DATA COLLECTION

Chapter 4: REPORTING

The **Methodological Section** (Chapter 2) is organized as follows:

- 2.1 Guidance on monitoring changes in forest area
  - 2.1.1 Monitoring of changes of forest areas - deforestation and reforestation
  - 2.1.2 Monitoring of forest area changes within forests – forest land remaining forests land
- 2.2 Estimation of above ground carbon stocks
- 2.3 Estimation of soil carbon stocks
- 2.4 Methods for estimating CO2 emissions from deforestation and forest degradation
- 2.5 Methods for estimating GHG's emissions from biomass burning
- 2.6 Estimation of uncertainties
- 2.7 Status of evolving technologies

The **data collection section** (Chapter 3) is presenting Practical Examples with recommendations for capacity building and is organized as follows:

- 3.1 Overview of annex-I GHG's national inventories on LULUCF
- 3.2 Overview of the existing forest area changes monitoring systems
- 3.3 National forest inventories
- 3.4 Data collection at local / national level
- 3.5 Recommendations for country capacity building

Chapter 4 is presenting the **reporting practices**.

2 METHODOLOGICAL SECTION

2.1 GUIDANCE ON MONITORING OF CHANGES IN FOREST AREA

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2.1.1 Scope of chapter

Chapter 2.1 presents the state of the art for data and approaches to be used for monitoring forest area changes at the national scale in tropical countries using remote sensing imagery. It includes approaches and data for monitoring changes of forest areas (i.e. deforestation and reforestation) and for monitoring of changes within forest land (i.e. forest land remaining forests land, e.g. degradation). It includes general recommendations (e.g. for establishing historical reference scenarios) and detailed recommended steps for monitoring changes of forest areas or in forest areas.

The chapter presents the minimum requirements to develop first order national forest area change databases, using typical and internationally accepted methods. There are more advanced and costly approaches that may lead to more accurate results and would meet the reporting requirements, but they are not presented here.

The remote sensing techniques can be used for two purposes: (i) to monitor changes in forest areas (i.e. from forest to non forest land – deforestation – and from non forest land to forest land - reforestation) and (ii) to monitor area changes within forest land which leads to changes in carbon stocks (e.g. degradation). The techniques to monitor changes in forest areas (e.g. deforestation) provide high-accuracy 'activity data' (i.e. area estimates) and can also allow reducing the uncertainty of emission factors through spatial mapping of main forest ecosystems. Monitoring of reforestation area has greater uncertainty than monitoring deforestation. The techniques to monitor changes within forest land (which leads to changes in carbon stocks) provide lower accuracy 'activity data' and gives poor complementary information on emission factors.

Section 2.1.2 describes the remote sensing techniques to monitor changes in forest areas (i.e. deforestation and expansion of forest area).

Section 2.1.3 focuses on monitoring area changes within forest land which leads to reduction in carbon stocks (i.e. degradation). Techniques to monitor changes within forest land which leads to increase of carbon stocks (e.g. through forest management) are not considered in the present version.

2.1.2 Monitoring of changes of forest areas - deforestation and reforestation

2.1.2.1 General recommendation for establishing a historical reference scenario

As minimum requirement, it is recommended to use Landsat-type remote sensing data (30 m resolution) for years 1990, 2000 and 2005 for monitoring forest cover changes with 1 to 5 ha Minimum Mapping Unit (MMU). It might be necessary to use data from a year prior or after 1990, 2000, and 2005 due to availability and cloud contamination. These data will allow assessing changes of forest areas (i.e. to derive area deforested and forest regrowth for the period considered) and, if desired, producing a map of national forest area (to derive deforestation rates) using a common forest definition. A hybrid approach combining automated digital segmentation and/or classification techniques with visual interpretation and/or validation of the resulting classes/polygons should be preferred as simple, robust and cost effective method.

There may be different spatial units for the detection of forest and of forest change. Remote sensing data analyses become more difficult and more expensive with smaller Minimum Mapping Units (MMU) i.e. more detailed MMU's increase mapping efforts and usually decrease change mapping accuracy. There are several MMU examples from current national and regional remote sensing monitoring systems: Brazil PRODES system for monitoring deforestation (6.25 ha initially[10], now 1 ha for digital processing), India national forest monitoring (1 ha), EU-wide CORINE land cover/land use change monitoring (5 ha), 'GMES Service Element' Forest Monitoring (0.5 ha), and Conservation International national case studies (2 ha).

2.1.2.2 Key features

Presently the only free global mid-resolution (30m) remote sensing imagery are from NASA (Landsat satellites) for around years 1990, 2000, and 2005 (the mid-decadal dataset 2005/2006 has just been completed) with some quality issues in some parts of the tropics (clouds, seasonality, etc). All Landsat data from US archive (USGS) are available for free since the end of 2008. Brazilian/Chinese remote sensing imagery from the CBERS satellites is also now freely available in developing countries.

The period 2000-2005 is more representative of recent historical changes and potentially more suitable due to the availability of complementary data during a recent time frame.

Specifications on minimum requirements for image interpretation are:

- Geo-location accuracy < 1 pixel, i.e. < 30m,
- Minimum mapping unit should be between 1 and 6 ha,
- A consistency assessment should be carried out.

2.1.2.3 Recommended steps

The following steps are needed for a national assessment that is scientifically credible and can be technically accomplished by in-country experts:

1. Selection of the approach:

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[10] The PRODES project of Brazilian Space Agency (INPE) has been producing annual rates of gross deforestation since 1988 using a minimum mapping unit of 6.25 ha. PRODES does not include reforestation.

    a. Assessment of national circumstances, particularly existing definitions and data sources
    b. Definition of change assessment approach by deciding on:
        i. Satellite imagery
        ii. Sampling versus wall to wall coverage
        iii. Fully visual versus semi-automated interpretation
        iv. Accuracy or consistency assessment
    c. Plan and budget monitoring exercise including:
        i. Hard and Software resources
        ii. Requested Training
2. Implementation of the monitoring system:
    a. Selection of the forest definition
    b. Designation of forest area for acquiring satellite data
    c. Selection and acquisition of the satellite data
    d. Analysis of the satellite data (preprocessing and interpretation)
    e. Assessment of the accuracy

2.1.2.4 Selection and Implementation of a Monitoring Approach

2.1.2.4.1Step 1: Selection of the forest definition

Currently Annex I Parties use the UNFCCC framework definition of forest and deforestation adopted for implementation of Article 3.3 and 3.4 (see section 1.2.2) and, without other agreed definition, this definition is considered here as the working definition. Sub-categories of forests (e.g. forest types) can be defined within the framework definition of forest.

Remote sensing imagery allows land cover information only to be obtained. Local expert or field information is needed to derive land use estimates.

2.1.2.4.2 Step 2: Designation of forest area for acquiring satellite data

Many types of land cover exist within national boundaries. REDD monitoring needs to cover all forest areas and the same area needs to be monitored for each reporting period. If the REDD mechanism is only related to decreases in forest area it will not be necessary or practical in many cases to monitor the entire national extent that includes non-forest land types. Therefore, a forest mask can be designated initially to identify the area to be monitored for each reporting period (referred to in Section 1.2.2 as the benchmark map).

Ideally, wall-to-wall assessments of the entire national extent would be carried out to identify forested area according to UNFCCC forest definitions at the beginning and end of the reference and assessment periods (to be decided by the Parties to the UNFCCC). This approach may not be practical for large countries. Existing forest maps at appropriate spatial resolution and for a relatively recent time could be used to identify the overall forest extent.

Important principles in identifying the overall forest extent are:

- The area should include all forests within the national boundaries
- A consistent overall forest extent should be used for monitoring all forest changes during assessment period

2.1.2.4.3 Step 3: Selection of satellite imagery and coverage

Fundamental requirements of national monitoring systems are that they measure changes throughout all forested area, use consistent methodologies at repeated intervals to obtain accurate results, and verify results with ground-based or very high resolution observations. The only practical approach for such monitoring systems is through interpretation of remotely sensed data supported by ground-based observations. Remote sensing includes data acquired by sensors on board aircraft and space-based platforms. Multiple methods are appropriate and reliable for forest monitoring at national scales.

Many data from optical sensors at a variety of resolutions and costs are available for monitoring deforestation (Table 2.1.1).

Table 2.1.1: Utility of optical sensors at multiple resolutions for deforestation monitoring

Sensor & resolution	Examples of current sensors	Minimum mapping unit (change)	Cost	Utility for monitoring
Coarse (250-1000 m)	SPOT-VGT (1998-) Terra-MODIS (2000-) Envisat-MERIS (2004 -)	~ 100 ha ~ 10-20 ha	Low or free	Consistent pan-tropical annual monitoring to identify large clearings and locate "hotspots" for further analysis with mid resolution
Medium (10-60 m)	Landsat TM or ETM+, Terra-ASTER IRS AWiFs or LISS III CBERS HRCCD DMC SPOT HRV	0.5 - 5 ha	Landsat & CBERS are free from 2009 <$0.001/km² for historical data $0.02/km² to $0.5/km2 for recent data	Primary tool to map deforestation and estimate area change
Fine (<5 m)	IKONOS QuickBird Aerial photos	< 0.1 ha	High to very high $2 -30 /km²	Validation of results from coarser resolution analysis, and training of algorithms

Availability of medium resolution data

The USA National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) launched a satellite with a mid-resolution sensor that was able to collect land information at a landscape scale. ERTS-1 was launched on July 23, 1972. This satellite, renamed 'Landsat', was the first in a series (seven to date) of Earth-observing satellites that have permitted continuous coverage since 1972. Subsequent satellites have been launched every 2-3 years. Still in operation Landsat 5 and 7 cover the same ground track repeatedly every 16 days.

Almost complete global coverages from these Landsat satellites are available at low or no cost for early 1990s, early 2000s and around year 2005 from NASA[11], the USGS[12], or from the University of Maryland's Global Land Cover Facility[13]. These data serve a key

[11] https://zulu.ssc.nasa.gov/mrsid

[12] http://edc.usgs.gov/products/satellite/landsat_ortho.html

[13] http://glcfapp.umiacs.umd.edu/

role in establishing historical deforestation rates, though in some parts of the humid tropics (e.g. Central Africa) persistent cloudiness is a major limitation to using these data. Until year 2003, Landsat, given its low cost and unrestricted license use, has been the workhorse source for mid-resolution (10-50 m) data analysis.

On April 2003, the Landsat 7 ETM+ scan line corrector failed resulting in data gaps outside of the central portion of acquired images, seriously compromising data quality for land cover monitoring. Given this failure, users would need to explore how the ensuing data gap might be filled at a reasonable cost with alternative sources of data in order to meet the needs for operational decision-making.

Alternative sources of data include Landsat-5, ASTER, SPOT, IRS, CBERS or DMC data (Table 2.1.2). NASA, in collaboration with USGS, initiated an effort to acquire and compose appropriate imagery to generate a mid-decadal (around years 2005/2006) data set from such alternative sources. The combined Archived Coverage in EROS Archive of the Landsat 5 TM and Landsat-7 ETM+ reprocessed-fill product for the years 2005/2006 covers more than 90% of the land area of the Earth. These data have been processed to a new orthorectifed standard using data from NASA's Shuttle Radar Topography Mission.

The USGS has established a no charge Web access to the full Landsat USGS archive[14]. The full Landsat 7 ETM+ USGS archive (since 1999) and all USGS archived Landsat 5 TM data (since 1984), Landsat 4 TM (1982-1985) and Landsat 1-5 MSS (1972-1994) are now available for ordering at no charge.

During the selection of the scenes to use in any assessment, seasonality of climate has to be considered: in situations where seasonal forest types (i.e. a distinct dry season where trees may drop their leaves) exist more than one scene should be used. Inter-annual variability has to be considered based on climatic variability.

[14] http://ldcm.usgs.gov/pdf/Landsat_Data_Policy.pdf

Table 2.1.2: Present availability of optical mid-resolution (10-60 m) sensors

Nation	Satellite & sensor	Resolution & coverage	Cost for data acquisition (archive[15])	Feature
USA	Landsat-5 TM	30 m 180×180 km^2	600 US$/scene 0.02 US$/km^2 All US archived data will be free from 2009	Images every 16 days to any satellite receiving station. Operating beyond expected lifetime.
USA	Landsat-7 ETM+	30 m 60×180 km^2	600 US$/scene 0.06 US$/ km^2 All US archived data will be free from end 2008	On April 2003 the failure of the scan line corrector resulted in data gaps outside of the central portion of images, seriously compromising data quality
USA/ Japan	Terra ASTER	15 m 60×60 km^2	60 US$/scene 0.02 US$/km^2	Data is acquired on request and is not routinely collected for all areas
India	IRS-P2 LISS-III & AWIFS	23.5 & 56 m		After an experimental phase, AWIFS images can be acquired on a routine basis.
China/ Brazil	CBERS-2 HRCCD	20 m	Free in Brazil and potentially for other developing countries	Experimental; Brazil uses on-demand images to bolster their coverage.
Algeria/ China/ Nigeria/ Turkey/ UK	DMC	32 m 160×660 km^2	3000 €/scene 0.03 €/km^2	Commercial; Brazil uses alongside Landsat data
France	SPOT-5 HRVIR	10-20 m 60×60 km^2	2000 €/scene 0.5 €/km^2	Commercial Indonesia & Thailand used alongside Landsat data

Optical mid-resolution data have been the primary tool for deforestation monitoring. Other, newer, types of sensors, e.g. Radar (ERS1/2 SAR, JERS-1, ENVISAT-ASAR and ALOS PALSAR) and Lidar, are potentially useful and appropriate. Radar, in particular, alleviates the substantial limitations of optical data in persistently cloudy parts of the tropics. Data from Lidar and Radar have been demonstrated to be useful in project studies, but so far, they are not widely used operationally for forest monitoring over large areas. Over the next five years or so, the utility of radar may be enhanced depending on data acquisition, access and scientific developments.

In summary, Landsat-type data around years 1990, 2000 and 2005 will most suitable to assess historical rates and patterns of deforestation.

[15] Some acquisitions can be programmed (e.g., DMC, SPOT). The cost of programmed data is generally at least twice the cost of archived data. Costs relate to acquisition costs only. They do not include costs for data processing and for data analysis.

Utility of coarse resolution data

Coarse resolution (250 m – 1km) data are available from 1998 (SPOT-VGT) or 2000 (MODIS). Although the spatial resolution is coarser than Landsat-type sensors, the temporal resolution is daily, providing the best possibility for cloud-free observations. The higher temporal resolution increases the likelihood of cloud-free images and can augment data sources where persistent cloud cover is problematic. Coarse resolution data also has cost advantages, offers complete spatial coverage, and reduces the amount of data that needs to be processed.

Coarse resolution data cannot be used directly to estimate area of forest change. However, these data are useful for identifying locations of rapid change for further analysis with higher resolution data or as an alert system for controlling deforestation (see section on Brazilian national case study below). For example, MODIS data are used as a stratification tool in combination with medium spatial resolution Landsat data to estimate forest area cleared. The targeted sampling of change reduces the overall resources typically required in assessing change over large nations. In cases where clearings are large and/or change is rapid, visual interpretation or automated analysis can be used to identify where change in forest area has occurred. Automated methods such as mixture modeling and regression trees (Box 2.1.1) can also identify changes in tree cover at the sub-pixel level. Validation of analyses with medium and high resolution data in selected locations can be used to assess accuracy. The use of coarse resolution data to identify deforestation hotspots is particularly useful to design a sampling strategy (see following section).

> **Box 2.1.1: Mixture models and regression trees**
>
> Mixture models estimate the proportion of different land cover components within a pixel. For example, each pixel is described as percentage vegetation, shade, and bare soil components. Components sum to 100%. Image processing software packages often provide mixture models using user-specified values for each end-member (spectral values for pixels that contain 100% of each component). Regression trees are another method to estimate proportions within each component based on training data to calibrate the algorithm. Training data with proportions of each component can be derived from higher resolution data. (see Box 2.1.5 for more details)

Utility of fine resolution data

Fine resolution (< 5m) data, such as those collected from commercial sensors (e.g., IKONOS, QuickBird) and aircraft, can be prohibitively expensive to cover large areas. However, these data can be used to calibrate algorithms for analyzing medium and high resolution data and to verify the results — that is they can be used as a tool for "ground-truthing" the interpretation of satellite imagery or for assessing the accuracy.

2.1.2.4.4 Step 4: Decisions for sampling versus wall to wall coverage

Wall-to-wall (an analysis that covers the full spatial extent of the forested areas) and sampling approaches within the forest mask are both suitable methods for analyzing forest area change.

The main criteria for the selection of wall-to-wall or sampling are:

Wall-to-wall is a common approach if appropriate for national circumstances

- ❑ If resources are not sufficient to complete wall-to wall coverage, sampling is more efficient, in particular for large countries
- ❑ Recommended sampling approaches are systematic sampling and stratified sampling (see box 2.1.2).

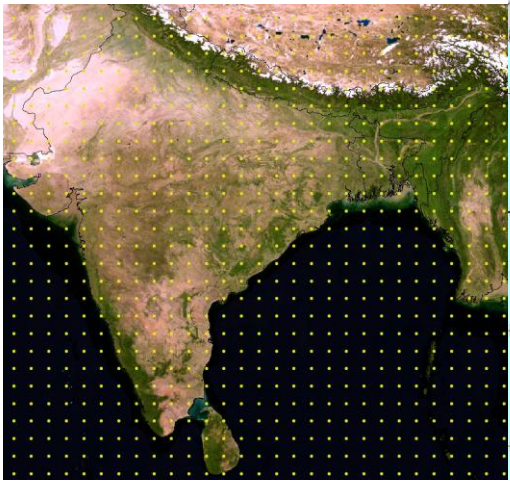
- A sampling approach in one reporting period could be extended to wall-to-wall coverage in the subsequent period.

Box 2.1.2: Systematic and stratified sampling

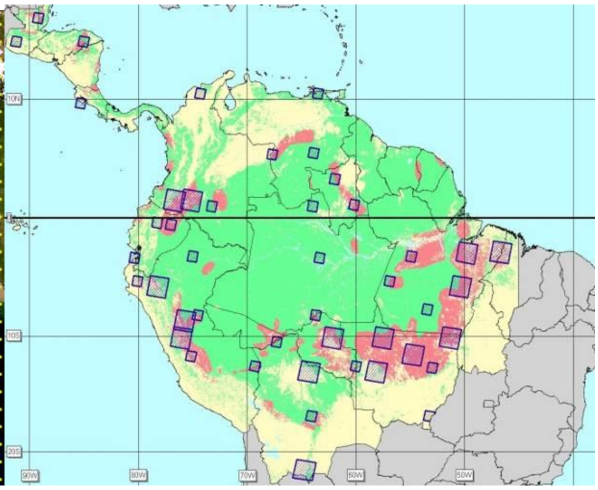
Systematic sampling obtains samples on a regular interval, e.g. one every 10 km.

Sampling efficiency can be improved through spatial stratification ('stratified sampling') using known proxy variables (e.g. deforestation hot spots). Proxy variables can be derived from coarse resolution satellite data or by combining other geo-referenced or map information such as distance to roads or settlements, previous deforestation, or factors such as fires.

Example of systematic sampling



Example of stratified sampling



A stratified sampling approach for forest area change estimation is currently being implemented within the NASA Land Cover and Land Use Change program. This method relies on wall to wall MODIS change indicator maps (at 500 m resolution) to stratify biomes into regions of varying change likelihood. A stratified sample of Landsat-7 ETM+ image pairs is analyzed to quantify biome-wide area of forest clearing. Change estimates can be derived at country level by adapting the sample to the country territory.

A few very large countries, e.g. Brazil and India, have already demonstrated that operational wall to wall systems can be established based on mid-resolution satellite imagery (see section 3.2 for further details). Brazil has measured deforestation rates in Brazilian Amazonia since the 1980s. These methods could be easily adapted to cope with smaller country sizes. Although a wall-to-wall coverage is ideal, it may not be practical due to large areas and constraints on resources for accurate analysis.

2.1.2.4.5 Step 5: Process and analyze the satellite data

Step 5.1: Preprocessing

Satellite imagery usually goes through three main pre-processing steps: geometric corrections are needed to ensure that images in a time series overlay properly, cloud removal is usually the second step in image pre-processing and radiometric corrections are recommended to make change interpretation easier (by ensuring that images have the same spectral values for the same objects).

- Geometric corrections
    - Low geolocation error of change datasets is to be ensured: average geolocation error (relative between 2 images) should be < 1 pixel

- Existing Landsat Geocover data usually provide sufficient geometric accuracy and can be used as a baseline; for limited areas Landsat Geocover has geolocation problems
- Using additional data like non-Geocover Landsat, SPOT, etc. requires effort in manual or automated georectification using ground control points or image to image registration.

❑ Cloud and cloud shadow detection and removal

- Visual interpretation is the preferred method for areas without complete cloud-free satellite coverage,
- Clouds and cloud shadows to be removed for automated approaches

❑ Radiometric corrections

- Effort needed for radiometric corrections depends on the change assessment approach
- For simple scene by scene analysis (e.g. visual interpretation), the radiometric effects of topography and atmosphere should be considered in the interpretation process but do not need to be digitally normalized)
- Sophisticated digital and automated approaches may require radiometric correction to calibrate spectral values to the same reference objects in multitemporal datasets. This is usually done by identifying a water body or dark object and calibrating the other images to the first.
- Reduction of haze maybe a useful complementary option for digital approaches. The image contamination by haze is relatively frequent in tropical regions. Therefore, when no alternative imagery is available, the correction of haze is recommended before image analysis. Partially haze contaminated images can be corrected through a tasseled cap transformation[16].
- Topographic normalization is recommended for mountainous environments from a digital terrain model (DTM). For medium resolution data the SRTM (shuttle radar topography mission) DTM can be used with automated approaches[17]

Step 5.2: Analysis methods

Many methods exist to interpret images (Table 2.1.3). The selection of the method depends on available resources and whether image processing software is available. Whichever method is selected, the results should be repeatable by different analysts.

It is generally more difficult to identify reforestation than deforestation. Reforestation occurs gradually over a number of years while deforestation occurs more rapidly. Deforestation is therefore more visible. Higher resolution, additional field work, and accuracy assessment may be required if reforestation as well as deforestation need to be monitored.

Visual scene to scene interpretation of forest area change can be simple and robust, although it is a time-consuming method. A combination of automated methods (segmentation or classification) and visual interpretation can reduce the work load. Automated methods are generally preferable where possible because the interpretation is repeatable and efficient. Even in a fully automated process, visual inspection of the

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[16] Lavreau J. 1991. De-hazing Landsat Thematic Mapper images, Photogrammetric Engineering & Remote Sensing, 57:1297–1302.

[17] E.g. Gallaun H, Schardt M & Linser S (2007) Remote sensing based forest map of Austria and derived environmental indicators. ForestSAT 2007 Conference, Montpellier, France.

result by an analyst familiar with the region should be carried out to ensure appropriate interpretation.

A preliminary visual screening of the image pairs can serve to identify the sample sites where change has occurred between the two dates. This data stratification allows removing the image pairs without change from the processing chain (for the detection and measurement of change).

Changes (for each image pair) can then be measured by comparing the two multi-date final forest maps. The timing of image pairs has to be adjusted to the reference period, e.g. if selected images are dated 1999 and 2006, it would have to be adjusted to 2000-2005.

Visual delineation of land entities:

This approach is viable, particularly if image analysis tools and experiences are limited. The visual delineation of land entities on printouts (used in former times) is not recommended. On screen delineation should be preferred as producing directly digital results. When land entities are delineated visually, they should also be labeled visually.

Table 2.1.3: Main analysis methods for moderate resolution (~ 30 m) imagery

Method for delineation	Method for class labeling	Practical minimum mapping unit	Principles for use	Advantages / limitations
Dot interpretation (dots sample)	Visual interpretation	< 0.1 ha	- multiple date preferable to single date interpretation - On screen preferable to printouts interpretation	- closest to classical forestry inventories - very accurate although interpreter dependent - no map of changes
Visual delineation (full image)	Visual interpretation	5 – 10 ha	- multiple date analysis preferable - On screen digitizing preferable to delineation on printouts	- easy to implement - time consuming - interpreter dependent
Pixel based classification	Supervised labeling (with training and correction phases)	<1 ha	- selection of common spectral training set from multiple dates / images preferable - filtering needed to avoid noise	- difficult to implement - training phase needed
	Unsupervised clustering + Visual labeling	<1 ha	- interdependent (multiple date) labeling preferable - filtering needed to avoid noise	- difficult to implement - noisy effect without filtering
Object based segmentation	Supervised labeling (with training and correction phases)	1 - 5 ha	- multiple date segmentation preferable - selection of common spectral training set from multiple dates / images preferable	- more reproducible than visual delineation - training phase needed
	Unsupervised clustering + Visual labeling	1 - 5 ha	- multiple date segmentation preferable - interdependent (multiple date) labeling of single date images preferable	- more reproducible than visual delineation

Multi-date image segmentation:

Segmentation for delineating image objects reduces the processing time of image analysis. The delineation provided by this approach is not only more rapid and automatic but also finer than what could be achieved using a manual approach. It is repeatable and therefore more objective than a visual delineation by an analyst. Using multi-date segmentations rather than a pair of individual segmentations is justified by the final objective which is to determine change.

If a segmentation approach is used, the image processing can be ideally decomposed into four steps:

I. Multi-date image segmentation is applied on image pairs: groups of adjacent pixels that show similar area change trajectories between the 2 dates are delineated into objects.

II. Training areas are selected for all land classes in each of the 2 dates (in the case of more that one image pair and if all images are radiometrically corrected, this step can be prepared initially by selecting a set of representative spectral signatures for each class – as average from different training areas)

III. Objects from every extract (i.e. every date) are classified separately by supervised clustering procedures, leading to two automated forest maps (at date 1 and date 2)

IV. Visual interpretation is conducted interdependently on the image pairs to verify/adjust the label of the classes and edit possible automatic classification errors.

Image segmentation is the process of partitioning an image into groups of pixels that are spectrally similar and spatially adjacent. Boundaries of pixel groups delineate ground objects in much the same way a human analyst would do based on its shape, tone and texture. However, delineation is more accurate and objective since it is carried out at the pixel level based on quantitative values

Digital classification techniques:

Digital classification into clusters applies in the case of automatic delineation of segments.

After segmentation, it is recommended to apply two supervised object classifications separately on the two multi-date images instead of applying a single supervised object classification on the image pair because two separate land classifications are much easier to produce in a supervised step than a direct classification of change trajectories.

The supervised object classification should ideally use a common predefined standard training data set of spectral signatures for each type of ecosystem to create initial automated forest maps (at any date and any location within this ecosystem).

Although unsupervised clustering (followed by visual labeling) is also possible, for large areas (i.e. for more than a few satellite images) it is recommended to apply supervised object classification (with a training phase beforehand and a labeling correction/validation phase afterwards). An unsupervised direct classification of change trajectories of the 2 multidate images together implies a second step of visual labeling of the classification result into the different combination of change classes which is a time-consuming task. The multidate segmentation followed by supervised classification of individual dates is considered more efficient in the case of a large number of images. Other methodological options (see Table 2.1.3) can be used depending on the specific conditions or expertise within a country.

General recommendations for image object interpretation methods:

Given the heterogeneity of the forest spectral signatures and the occasionally poor radiometric conditions, the image analysis by a skilled interpreter is indispensable to map land use and land use change with high accuracy.

- Interpretation should focus on change in land use with interdependent visual assessment of 2 multi-temporal images together. Contrarily to digital classification techniques, visual interpretation is easier with multi-temporal imagery.
- Existing maps may be useful for stratification or helping in the interpretation
- Scene by scene (i.e. site by site) interpretation is more accurate than interpretation of scene or image mosaics
- Spectral, spatial and temporal (seasonality) characteristics of the forests have to be considered during the interpretation. In the case of seasonal forests, scenes from the same time of year should be used. Preferably, multiple scenes from different seasons would be used to ensure that changes in forest cover from inter-annual variability in climate are not confused with deforestation.

2.1.2.4.6 Step 6: Accuracy assessment

An independent accuracy assessment is an essential component to link area estimates to a crediting system. Reporting accuracy and verification of results are essential components of a monitoring system. Accuracy could be quantified following recommendations of chapter 5 of IPCC Good Practice Guidance 2003.

Accuracies of 80 to 95% are achievable for monitoring with mid-resolution imagery to discriminate between forest and non-forest. Accuracies can be assessed through *in-situ* observations or analysis of very high resolution aircraft or satellite data. In both cases, a statistically valid sampling procedure should be used to determine accuracy.

A detailed description of methods to be used for accuracy assessment is provided in section 2.6 ("Estimating uncertainties in area estimates").

2.1.3 Monitoring of forest area changes within forests - forest land remaining forest land

Many activities cause degradation of carbon stocks within forests but not all of them can be monitored well with high certainty using remote sensing data. As discussed above in Section 1.2.2, the gaps in the canopy caused by selective harvesting of trees (both legal and illegal) can be detected in imagery such as Landsat using sophisticated analytical techniques of frequently collected imagery, and the task is somewhat easier when the logging activity is more intense (i.e. higher number of trees logged). Higher intensity logging is likely to cause more change in canopy characteristics, and thus an increased chance that this could be monitored with Landsat type imagery and interpretation. The area of forests undergoing selective logging can also be interpreted in remote sensing imagery based on the observations of networks of roads and log decks that are often clearly recognizable in the imagery.

Degradation of carbon stocks by forest fires is usually easier to identify and monitor with existing satellite imagery than logging. Degradation from fires is also important for carbon fluxes. The trajectory of spectral responses on satellite imagery over time is useful for tracking burned area.

Degradation by over exploitation for fuel wood or other local uses of wood often followed by animal grazing that prevents regeneration, a situation more common in drier forest areas, is likely not to be detectable from satellite image interpretation unless the rate of degradation was intense causing larger changes in the canopy and thus monitoring methods are not presented here.

In this section, two approaches are presented that could be used to monitor logging: the direct approach that detects gaps and the indirect approach that detects road networks and log decks. (The timber harvesting forestry practice that fells all the trees, commonly referred to as clear cutting, is also considered to be degradation if it results in a net decrease of carbon stocks over a period of X years on a large area).

Key Definitions

Intact forest: patches of forest that are not damaged or surrounded by small clearings; forests without gaps caused by human activities.

Forest canopy gaps: In logged areas, canopy gaps are created by tree fall and skid trails, resulting in damage or death of standing trees.

Log landings: a more severe type of damage caused when the forest is cleared for the purposes of temporary timber storage and handling; bare soil is often exposed.

Logging roads: roads built to transport timber from log landings to sawmills – their width varies by country from about 3 m to as much as 15 m.

Regeneration: forests recovering from previous damage, resulting in carbon sequestration.

2.1.3.1 Direct approach to monitor selective logging

Mapping forest degradation with remote sensing data is more challenging than mapping deforestation because the degraded forest is a complex mix of different land cover types (vegetation, dead trees, soil, shade) and the spectral signature of the degradation changes quickly (i.e., < 2 years). High spatial resolution sensors such as Landsat, ASTER and SPOT have been mostly used so far to address this issue. However, very high resolution satellite imagery, such as Ikonos or Quickbird, and aerial digital image acquired with videography have been used as well. Here, the methods available to detect and map forest degradation caused by selective logging and forest fires – the most predominant types of degradation in tropical regions – using optical sensors only are presented.

Methods for mapping forest degradation range from simple image interpretation to highly sophisticated automated algorithms. Because the focus is on estimating forest carbon losses associated with degradation, forest canopy gaps and small clearings are the feature of interest to be enhanced and extracted from the satellite imagery. In the case of logging, the damage is associated with areas of tree fall gaps, clearings associated with roads and log landings (i.e., areas cleared to store harvested timber temporarily), and skid trails. The forest canopy gaps and clearings are intermixed with patches of undamaged forests (Figure 2.1.1).

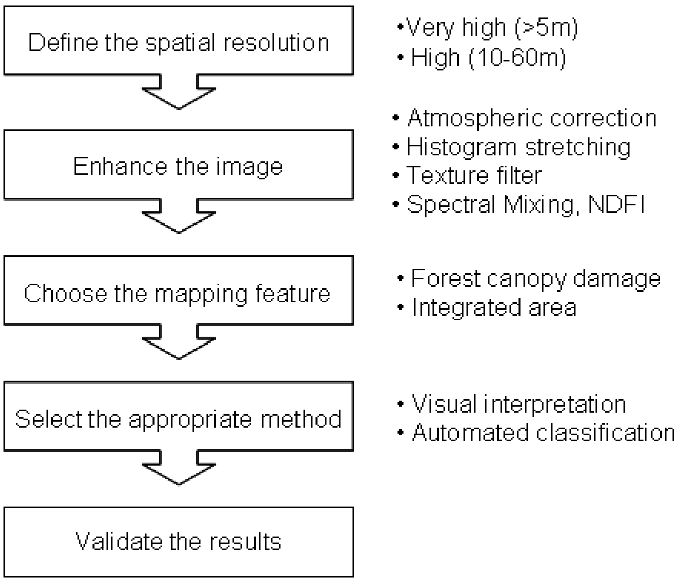
Figure 2.1.1: Very high resolution Ikonos image showing common features in selectively logged forests in the Eastern Brazilian Amazon

(image size: 11 km x 11 km)

There are two possible methodological approaches to map logged areas: 1) identifying and mapping forest canopy damage (gaps and clearings); or 2) mapping the combined, i.e., integrated, area of forest canopy damage, intact forest and regeneration patches. Estimating the proportion of forest carbon loss in the latter mapping approach is more challenging requiring field sampling measurements of forest canopy damage and extrapolation to the whole integrated area to estimate the damage proportion (see section 2.5).

Mapping forest degradation associated with fires is simpler than that associated with logging because the degraded environment is usually contiguous and more homogeneous than logged areas. Moreover, the associated carbon emissions may be higher than for selective logging.

The following chart illustrates the steps needed to map forest degradation:

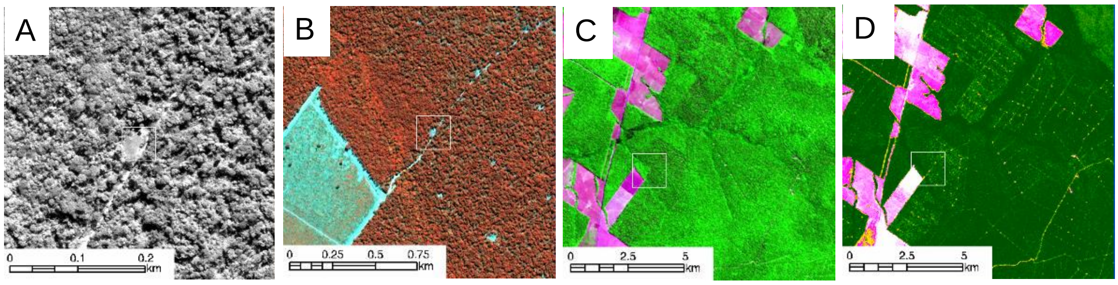


In this chart "Very high (>5m)" should read as "Fine (<5m)" and "High (10-60m)" as "Medium (10-60m)" (refer to Table 2.1.1)

2.1.3.1.1Step 1: Define the spatial resolution

Defining the appropriate spatial resolution to map forest degradation due to selective logging depends on the type of harvesting operation (managed or unplanned). Certain non-mechanized logging practiced in a few areas of e.g., the Brazilian Amazon, cannot be detected using spatial resolution in the order of 30-60 m (Figure 2.1.2) because these type of logging create small forest gaps and little damage to the canopy. In addition, logging of floodplain ("varzea") forests is very difficult to map because waterways are used in place of skid trails and logging roads. Very high resolution imagery, as acquired with orbital and aerial digital videography, is required to directly map forest canopy damage of these types. Unplanned logging generally creates more impact allowing the detection of forest canopy damage at spatial resolution between 30-60 m.

Figure 2.1.2. Unplanned logged forest in Sinop, Mato Grosso, Brazilian Amazon in: (A) Ikonos panchromatic image (1 meter pixel); (B) Ikonos multi-spectral and panchromatic fusion (4 meter pixel); (C) Landsat TM5 multi-spectral (R5, G4, B3; 30 meter pixel); and (D) Normalized Difference Fraction Index (NDFI) image (sub-pixel within 30 m). These images were acquired in August 2001.

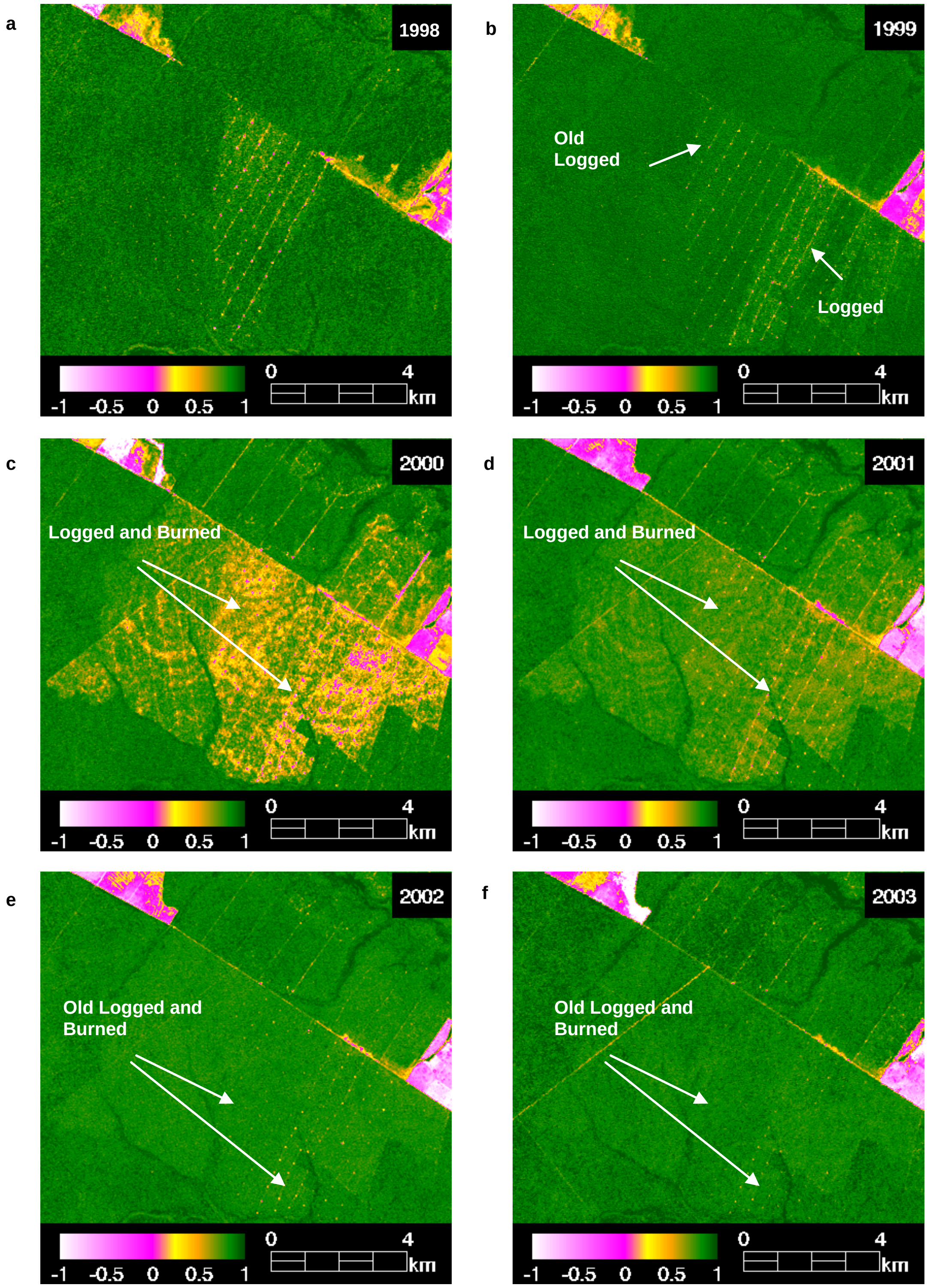


2.1.3.1.2 Step 2: Enhance the image

Detecting forest degradation with satellite images usually requires improving the spectral contrast of the degradation signature relative to the background. In tropical forest regions, atmospheric correction and haze removal are recommended techniques to be applied to high resolution images. Histogram stretching improves image color contrast and is a recommended technique. However, at high spatial resolution histogram stretching is not enough to enhance the image to detect forest degradation due to logging. Figure 2.1.2C shows an example of a color composite of reflectance bands (R5,G4,B3) of Landsat image after a linear stretching with little or no evidence of logging. At fine/moderate spatial resolution, such as the resolution of Landsat and Spot 4 images, a spectral mixed signal of green vegetation (GV; also often called PV or photosynthetic vegetation), soil, non-photosynthetic vegetation (NPV) and shade is expected within the pixels. That is why the most robust techniques to map selective logging impacts are based on fraction images derived from spectral mixture analysis (SMA). Fractions are sub-pixel estimates of the pure materials (endmembers) expected within pixel sizes such as those of Landsat (i.e., 30 m): GV, soil, NPV and shade endmembers (see SMA Box 1). Figure 2.1.2D shows the same area and image as Figure 2.1.2C with logging signature enhanced with the Normalized Difference Fraction Index (NDFI; see Box 3.5). The SMA and NDFI have been successfully applied to Landsat and SPOT images in the Brazilian Amazon to enhance the detection of logging and burned forests (Figure 2.1.3).

Because the degradation signatures of logging and forest fires change quickly in high resolution imagery (i.e., < one year), annual mapping is required. Figure 2.1.3 illustrates this problem showing logging and forest fires scars changing every year over the period of 1998 to 2003. This has important implications for estimating emissions from degradation because old degraded forests (i.e., with less carbon stocks) can be misclassified as intact forests. Therefore, annual detection and mapping the areas with canopy damage associated with logging and forest fires is mandatory to monitoring forest degradation with high resolution multispectral imagery such as SPOT and Landsat.

Figure 2.1.3: Forest degradation annual change due to selective logging and logging and burning in Sinop region, Mato Grosso State, Brazil.



Step 3: Select the mapping feature and methods

Forest canopy damage (gaps and clearings) areas are easier to identify in very high spatial resolution images (Figure 2.1.2.A-B). Image visual interpretation or automated image segmentation can be used to map forest canopy damage areas at this resolution. However, there is a tradeoff between these two methodological approaches when applied to the very high spatial resolution images. Visual identification and delineation of canopy damage and small clearings are more accurate but time consuming, whereas automated segmentation is faster but generates false positive errors that usually require visual auditing and manual correction of these errors. High spatial resolution imagery is the most common type of images used to map logging (unplanned) over large areas. Visual interpretation at this resolution does not allow the interpreter to identify individual gaps and because of this limitation the integrated area – including forest canopy damage, and patches of intact forest and regeneration – is the chosen mapping feature with this approach. Most of the automated techniques – applied at high spatial resolution – map the integrated area as well with only the ones based on image segmentation and change detection able to map directly forest canopy damage. In the case of burned forests, both visual interpretation and automated algorithms can be used and very high and high spatial resolution imagery have been used.

Data Needs

There are several optical sensors that can be used to map forest degradation caused by selective logging and forest fires (Table 2.1.5). Users might consider the following factors when defining data needs:

- ❑ Degradation intensity—is the logging intensity low or high?
- ❑ Extent of the area for analysis—large or small areal extent?
- ❑ Technique that will be used—visual or automated?

Very high spatial resolution sensors will be required for mapping low intensity degradation. Small areas can be mapped at this resolution as well if cost is not a limiting factor. If degradation intensity is low and area is large, indirect methods are preferred because cost for acquisition of very high resolution imagery may be prohibitive (see section on Indirect Methods to Map Forest Degradation). For very large areas, high spatial resolution sensors produce satisfactory estimates of the area affected by degradation.

The spectral resolution and quality of the radiometric signal must be taken into account for monitoring forest degradation at high spatial resolution. The estimation of the abundance of the materials (i.e., end-members) found with the forested pixels, through SMA, requires at least four spectral bands placed in spectral regions that contrast the end-members spectral signatures (see Box 2.1.5).

Table 2.1.5: Remote sensing methods tested and validated to map forest degradation caused by selective logging and burning in the Brazilian Amazon.

Mapping Approach	Sensor	Spatial Extent	Objective	Advantages	Disadvantages
Visual Interpretation	Landsat TM5	Local and Brazilian Amazon	Map integrated logging area and canopy damage of burned forest	Does not require sophisticated image processing techniques	Labor intensive for large areas and may be user biased to define the boundaries of the degraded forest.
Detection of Logging Landings + Harvesting Buffer	Landsat TM5 and ETM+	Local	Map integrated logging area	Relatively simple to implement and satisfactorily estimate the area	Harvesting buffers varies across the landscape and does not reproduce the actual shape of the logged area
Decision Tree	SPOT 4	Local	Map forest canopy damage associated with logging and burning	Simple and intuitive binary classification rules, defined automatically based on statistical methods	It has not been tested in very large areas and classification rules may vary across the landscape
Change Detection	Landsat TM5 and ETM+	Local	Map forest canopy damage associated with logging and burning	Enhances forest canopy damaged areas.	Requires two pairs of radiometrically calibrated images and does not separate natural and anthropogenic forest changes
Image Segmentation	Landsat TM5	Local	Map integrated logged area	Relatively simple to implement	Not been tested in very large areas. segmentation rules may vary across the landscape
Textural Filters	Landsat TM5 and ETM+	Brazilian Amazon	Map forest canopy damage associated	Relatively simple to implement	
CLAS[18]	Landsat TM5 and ETM+	Three states of the Brazilian Amazon (PA, MT and AC)	Map total logging area (canopy damage, clearings and undamaged forest)	Fully automated and standardized to very large areas.	Requires very high computation power, and pairs of images to detect forest change associated with logging. Requires additional image types for atmospheric correction (MODIS)
CLASlite[19]	Landsat TM, ETM+ ASTER, ALI, SPOT MODIS,	Regional, anywhere that imagery exists	Rapid mapping of deforestation and degradation at sub-national scales	Fully automated, uses a standard computer, requires no expertise	Creates basic forest cover maps but does not do final classification of land uses
NDFI+CCA[20]	Landsat TM5 and ETM+	Local	Map forest canopy damage associated with logging and burning	nhances forest canopy damaged areas.	It has not been tested in very large areas and does not separate logging from burning

[18] CLAS: Carnegie Landsat Analysis System

[19] http://claslite.ciw.edu

[20] NDFI: Normalized Difference Fraction Index; CCA: Contextual Classification Algorithm

Box 2.1.5: Spectral Mixture Analysis (SMA)

Detection and mapping forest degradation with remotely sensed data is more challenging than mapping forest conversion because the degraded forest is a complex environment with a mixture of different land cover types (i.e., vegetation, dead trees, bark, soil, shade), causing a mixed pixel problem (see Figure 2.1.3). In degraded forest environments, the reflectance of each pixel can be decomposed into fractions of green vegetation (GV), non-photosynthetic vegetation (NPV; e.g., dead tree and bark), soil and shade through Spectral Mixture Analysis (SMA). The output of SMA models are fraction images of each pure material found within the degraded forest pixel, known as endmembers. Fractions are more intuitive to interpret than the reflectance of mixed pixels (most common signature at high spatial resolution). For example, soil fraction enhances log landings and logging roads; NPV fraction enhances forest damage and the GV fraction is sensitive to canopy gaps.

The SMA model assumes that the image spectra are formed by a linear combination of n pure spectra [or endmembers], such that:

(1) $$R_b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} F_i \cdot R_{i,b} + \varepsilon_b$$

for

(2) $$\sum_{i=1}^{n} F = 1$$

where R_b is the reflectance in band b, $R_{i,b}$ is the reflectance for endmember i, in band b, F_i the fraction of endmember i, and ε_b is the residual error for each band. The SMA model error is estimated for each image pixel by computing the RMS error, given by:

(3) $$RMS = \left[n^{-1} \sum_{b=1}^{n} \varepsilon_b \right]^{1/2}$$

The identification of the nature and number of pure spectra (i.e., endmembers), in the image scene is the most important step for a successful application of SMA models. In Landsat TM/ETM+ images the four types of endmembers are expected in degraded forest environments (GV, NPV, Soil and Shade) can be easily identified in the extreme of image bands scatterplots.

The pixels located at the extremes of the data cloud of the Landsat spectral space are candidate endmembers to run SMA. The final endmembers are selected based on the spectral shape and image context (e.g., soil spectra are mostly associated with unpaved roads and NPV with pasture having senesced vegetation) (figure below).

The SMA model results were evaluated as follows: (1) fraction images are evaluated and interpreted in terms of field context and spatial distribution; (2) the histograms of the fraction images are inspected to evaluate if the models produced physically meaningful results (i.e., fractions ranging from zero to 100%). In time-series applications, as required to monitor forest degradation, fraction values must be consistent over time for invariant targets (i.e., that intact forest not subject to phenological changes must have similar values over time). Several image processing software have spectral plotting and SMA functionalities.

Box 2.1.5: Continuation

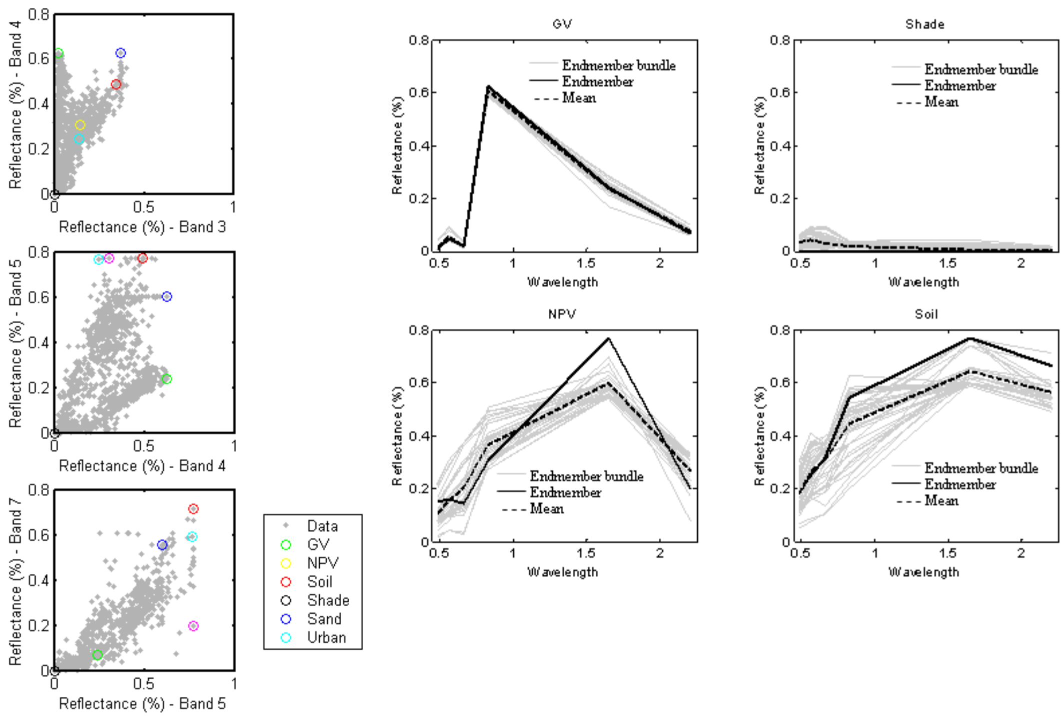


Image scatter-plots of Landsat bands in reflectance space and the spectral curves of GV, Shade, NPV and Soil.

Limitations for forest degradation

There are limiting factors to all methods described above that might be taken into consideration when mapping forest degradation. First, it requires frequent mapping, at least annually, because the spatial signatures of the degraded forests change after one year. Additionally, it is important to keep track of repeated degradation events that affect more drastically the forest structure and composition resulting in greater changes in carbon stocks. Second, the human-caused forest degradation signal can be confused with natural forest changes such as wind throws and seasonal changes. Confusion due to seasonality can be reduced by using more frequent satellite observations. Third, all the methods described above are based on optical sensors which are limited by frequent cloud conditions in tropical regions. Finally, higher level of expertise is required to use the most robust automated techniques requiring specialized software and investments in capacity building.

Box 2.1.6: Calculating Normalized Difference Fraction Index (NDFI)

The detection of logging impacts at moderate spatial resolution is best accomplished at the subpixel scale, with spectral mixture analysis (SMA). Fraction images obtained with SMA can enhance the detection of logging infrastructure and canopy damage. For example, soil fraction can enhance the detection of logging decks and logging roads; NPV fraction enhances damaged and dead vegetation and green vegetation the canopy openings. A new spectral index obtained from fractions derived from SMA, the Normalized Difference Fraction Index (NDFI), enhances even more the degradation signal caused by selective logging. The NDFI is computed by:

(1) $$NDFI = \frac{GV_{Shade} - (NPV + Soil)}{GV_{Shade} + NPV + Soil}$$

where GVshade is the shade-normalized GV fraction given by:

(2) $$GV_{Shade} = \frac{GV}{100 - Shade}$$

The NDFI values range from -1 to 1. For intact forest NDFI values are expected to be high (i.e., about 1) due to the combination of high GVshade (i.e., high GV and canopy Shade) and low NPV and Soil values. As forest becomes degraded, the NPV and Soil fractions are expected to increase, lowering the NDFI values relative to intact forest.

Special software requirements and costs

All the techniques described in this section are available in most remote sensing, commercial and public domain software. The software must have the capability to generate GIS vector layers in case image interpretation is chosen, and being able to perform SMA for image enhancement. Image segmentation is the most sophisticated routine required, being available in a few commercial and public domain software packages. Additionally, it is desired that the software allows adding new functions to be added to implement new specialized routines, and have script capability to batch mode processing of large volume of image data.

Progress in developments of national monitoring systems

All the techniques discussed in this section (Direct approach to monitor selective logging) were developed and validated in the Brazilian Amazon. Recent efforts to export these methodologies to other areas are underway. For example, SMA and NDFI have being tested in Bolivia with Landsat and Aster imagery. The preliminary results showed that forest canopy damage of low intensity logging, the most common type of logging in the region, could not be detected with Landsat. This corroborates with the findings in the Brazilian Amazon. New sensor data with higher spatial resolution are currently being tested in Bolivia, including Spot 5 (10 m) and Aster (15 m) to evaluate the best sensor for their operational system. Given their higher spatial resolution, Aster and Spot imagery are showing promise for detecting and mapping low intensity logging in Bolivia.

2.1.3.2 Indirect approach to monitor forest degradation

Often a direct remote sensing approach to assess forest degradation can not be adopted for various limiting factors (see previous section) which are even more restrictive if forest degradation has to be measured for a historical period and thus observed only with remote sensing data that are already available in the archives.

Moreover the forest definition contained in the UNFCCC framework of provisions (UNFCCC, 2001) does not discriminate between forests with different carbon stocks, and often forest land subcategories defined by countries are based on concepts related to different forest types (e.g. species compositions) or ecosystems than can be delineated through remote sensing data or through geo-spatial criteria (e.g. altitude). Consequently, any accounting system based on forest definitions that are not containing parameters related to carbon content, will require an extensive and high intensive carbon stock measuring effort (e.g. national forest inventory) in order to report on emissions from forest degradation.

In this context, i.e. the need for activity data (area changes) on degraded forest under the UNFCCC reporting requirement and the lack of remote sensing data for an exhaustive monitoring system, a new methodology has been elaborated with the aim of providing an operational tool that could be applied worldwide. This methodology consists mainly in the adaptation of the concepts and criteria already developed to assess the world's intact forest landscape in the framework of the IPCC Guidance and Guidelines to report GHG emission from forest land. In this new context, the intact forest concept has been used as a proxy to identify forest land without anthropogenic disturbance so as to assess the carbon content present in the forest land:

- intact forests: fully-stocked (any forest with tree cover between 10% and 100% but must be undisturbed, i.e. there has been no timber extraction)
- non-intact forests: not fully-stocked (tree cover must still be higher than 10% to qualify as a forest under the existing UNFCCC rules, but in our definition we assume that in the forest has undergone some level of timber exploitation or canopy degradation).

This distinction should be applied in any forest land use subcategories (forest stratification) that a country is aiming to report under UNFCCC. So for example, if a country is reporting emissions from its forest land using two forest land subcategories, e.g. lowland forest and mountain forest, it should further stratify its territory using the intact approach and in this way it will report on four forest land sub-categories: intact lowland forest; non-intact lowland forest, intact mountain forest and non-intact mountain forest. Thus a country will also have to collect the corresponding carbon pools data in order to characterize each forest land subcategories.

The intact forest areas are defined according to parameters based on spatial criteria that could be applied objectively and systematically over all the country territory. Each country according to its specific national circumstance (e.g. forest practices) may develop its intact forest definition. Here we suggest an intact forest area definition based on the following six criteria:

- Situated within the forest land according to current UNFCCC definitions and with a 1 km buffer zone inside the forest area;
- Larger than 1,000 hectares and with a smallest width of 1 kilometers;
- Containing a contiguous mosaic of natural ecosystems;
- Not fragmented by infrastructure (road, navigable river, pipeline, etc.);
- Without signs of significant human transformation;
- Without burnt lands and young tree sites adjacent to infrastructure objects.

These criteria with larger thresholds for minimum area extension and buffer distance have been used to map intact forest areas globally (www.intactforests.org).

These criteria can be adapted at the country or ecosystem level. For example the minimum extension of an intact forest area or the minimum width can be reduced for mangrove ecosystems. It must be noted that by using these criteria a non-intact forest area would remain non-intact for long time even after the end of human activities, until the signs of human transformation would disappear.

The adoption of the 'intact' concept is also driven by technical and practical reasons. In compliance with current UNFCCC practice it is the Parties' responsibilities to identify forests according to the established 10% - 100% cover range rule. When assessing the condition of such forest areas using satellite remote sensing methodologies, the "negative approach" can be used to discriminate between intact and non-intact forests: disturbance such as the development of roads can be easily detected, whilst the absence of such visual evidence of disturbance can be taken as evidence that what is left is intact. Disturbance is easier to unequivocally identify from satellite imagery than the forest ecosystem characteristics which would need to be determined if we followed the "positive approach" i.e. identifying intact forest and then determining that the rest is non-intact. Following this approach forest conversions between intact forests, non-intact forests and other land uses can be easily measured worldwide through Earth observation satellite imagery; in contrast, any other forest definition (e.g. pristine, virgin, primary/secondary, etc...) is not always measurable.

Method for delineation of intact forest landscapes

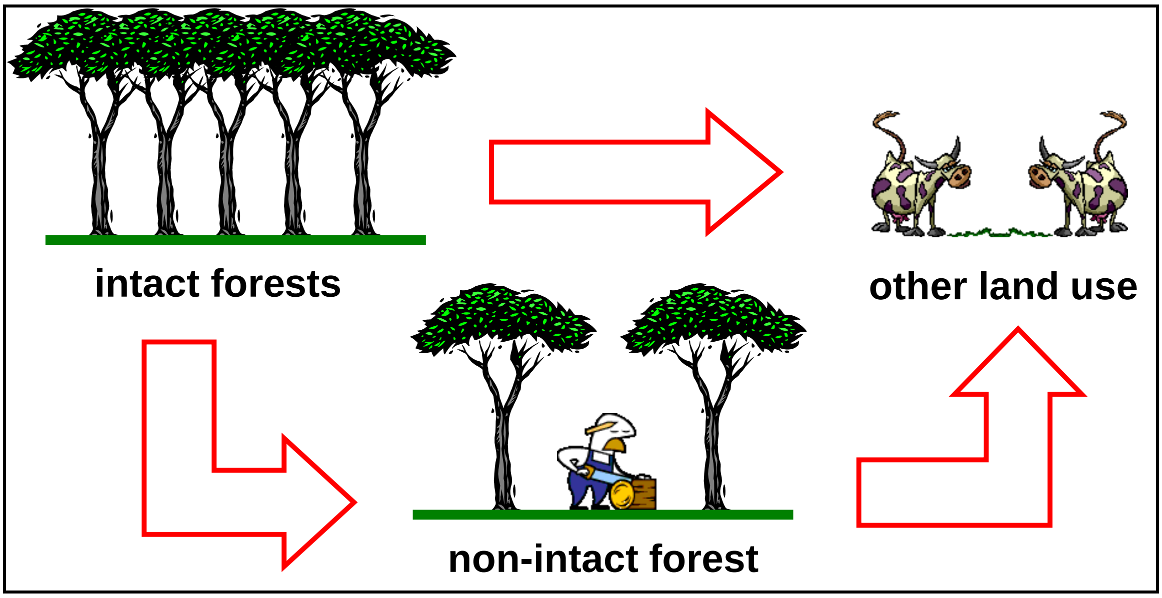
A two-step procedure could be used to exclude non-intact areas and delineate the remaining intact forest:

1. Exclusion of areas around human settlements and infrastructure and residual fragments of landscape smaller than 5,000 ha, based on topographic maps, GIS database, thematic maps, etc. This first step could be done through a spatial analysis tool in a GIS software (this step could be fully automatic in case of good digital database on road networks). The result is a candidate set of landscape fragments with potential intact forest lands.

2. Further exclusion of non-intact areas and delineation of intact forest lands is done by fine shaping of boundaries, based on visual interpretation methods of high-resolution satellite images (Landsat class data with 15-30 m pixel spatial resolution). Alternatively high-resolution satellite data could be used to develop a more detailed dataset on human infrastructures, that than could be used to delineate intact forest boundaries with a spatial analysis tool of a GIS software.

The distinction between intact and non-intact allows us to account for carbon losses from forest degradation, reporting this as a conversion of intact to non-intact forest. The degradation process is thus accounted for as one of the three potential changes illustrated in Figure 2.1.4, i.e. from (i) intact forests to other land use, (ii) non-intact forests to other land use and (iii) intact forests to non-intact forests. In particular carbon emission from forest degradation for each forest type consists of two factors: the difference in carbon content between intact and non-intact forests and the area loss of intact forest area during the accounting period. This accounting strategy is fully compatible with the set of rules developed in the IPCC LULUCF Guidance and AFOLU Guidelines for the sections "Forest land remaining Forest land".

Figure 2.1.4: **Forest conversions types considered in the accounting system.**



The forest degradation is included in the conversion from intact to non-intact forest, and thus accounted as carbon stock change in that proportion of forest land remaining as forest land.

Figure 2.1.5 Forest degradation assessment in Papua New Guinea

The Landsat satellite images (a) and (b) are representing the same portion of PNG territories in the Gulf Province and they have been acquired respectively in 26.12.1988 and 07.10.2002. In this part of territory it is present only the lowland forest type.

In the image (a) it is possible to recognize logging roads only on the east side of the river, while in the image (b) it is possible to recognize a very well developed logging road system also on the west side of the river. The forest canopy (brown-orange-red colours) does not seem to have evident changes in spectral properties (all these images are reflecting the same Landsat band combination 4,5,3).

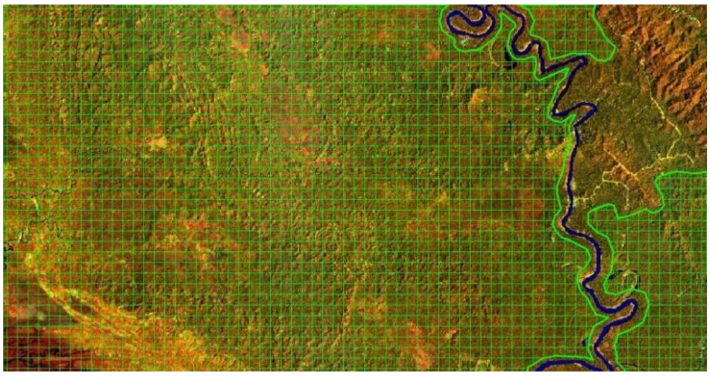
The images (a1) and (b1) are respectively the same images (a) and (b) with some patterned polygons which are representing the extension of the intact forest in the respective dates. In this case an on-screen visual interpretation method have been used to delineate intact forest boundaries.

In order to assess carbon emission from forest degradation for this part of its territory, PNG could report that in 14 years, 51% of the existing intact forest land has been converted to non-intact forest land. Thus the total carbon emission should be equivalent to the intact forest loss multiplied by the carbon content difference between intact and non-intact forest land.

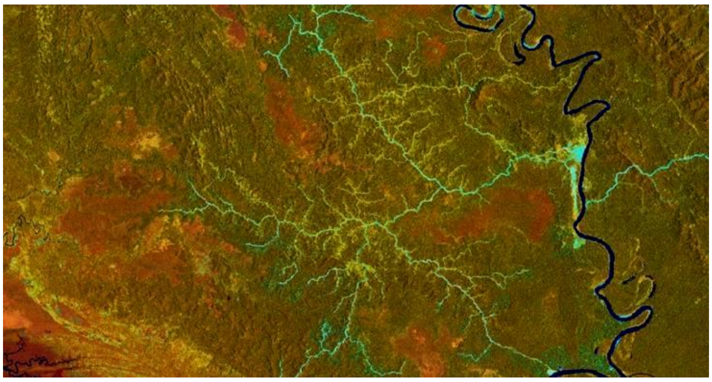
In this particular case, deforestation (road network) is accounting for less than 1%.

Area size: ~ 20km x 10 km

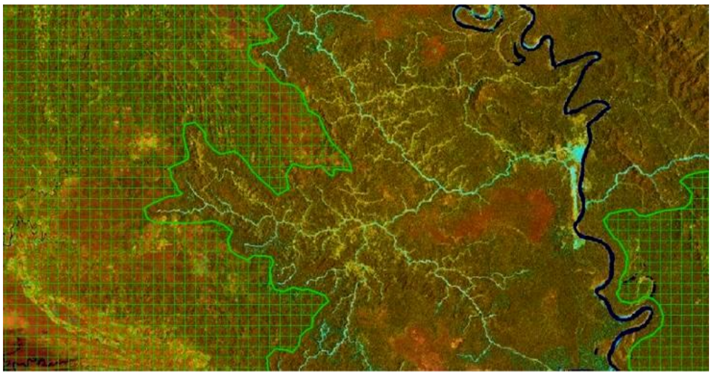
a)



a1)



b)



b1)

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2.2 ESTIMATION OF ABOVE GROUND CARBON STOCKS

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2.2.1 Scope of chapter

Chapter 2.2 presents guidance on the estimation of the emission factors—the changes in above ground biomass carbon stocks of the forests being deforested and degraded. Guidance is provided on: (i) which of the three IPCC Tiers to be used, (ii) potential methods for the stratification by Carbon Stock of a country's forests and (iii) actual Estimation of Carbon Stocks of Forests Undergoing Change.

Monitoring the location and areal extent of deforestation and degradation represents only one of two components involved in assessing emissions from deforestation and degradation. The other component is the emission factors—that is, the changes in carbon stocks of the forests being deforested and degraded that are combined with the activity data for deforestation and degradation for estimating the emissions.

In **Section 2.2.3** guidance is provided on: Which Tier Should be Used? The IPCC GL AFOLU allow for three Tiers with increasing complexity and costs of monitoring forest carbon stocks.

In **Section 2.2.4** the focus is on: Stratification by Carbon Stock. As discussed in 2.2.1.1 stratification is an essential step to allow an accurate, cost effective and creditable linkage between the remote sensing imagery estimates of areas deforested and estimates of carbon stocks and therefore emissions. In this section guidance is provided on potential methods for the stratification of a country's forests.

In **Section 2.2.5** guidance is given on the actual Estimation of above ground biomass Carbon Stocks of Forests Undergoing Change. Steps are given on how to devise and implement an inventory.

2.2.2 Overview of carbon stocks, and issues related to C stocks

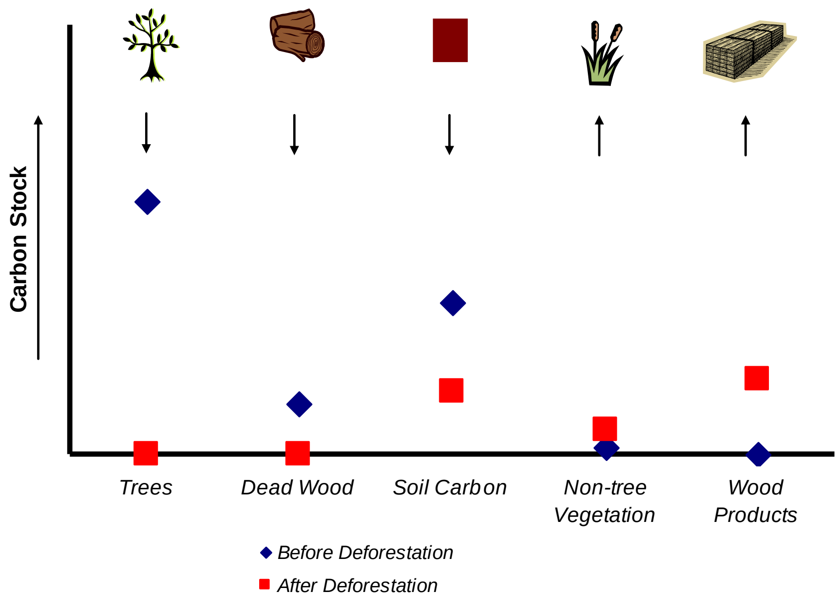
2.2.2.1 Issues related to carbon stocks

2.2.2.1.1 Fate of carbon pools as a result of deforestation and degradation

A forest is composed of pools of carbon stored in the living trees above and belowground, in dead matter including standing dead trees, down woody debris and litter, in non-tree understory vegetation and in the soil organic matter. When trees are cut down there are three destinations for the stored carbon – dead wood, wood products or the atmosphere.

- In all cases, following deforestation and degradation, the stock in living trees decreases.
- Where degradation has occurred this is often followed by a recovery unless continued anthropogenic pressure or altered ecologic conditions precludes tree regrowth.
- The decreased tree carbon stock can either result in increased dead wood, increased wood products or immediate emissions.
- Dead wood stocks may be allowed to decompose over time or may, after a given period, be burned leading to further emissions.
- Wood products over time decompose, burned, or are retired to land fill.
- Where deforestation occurs, trees can be replaced by non-tree vegetation such as grasses or crops. In this case, the new land-use has consistently lower plant biomass and often lower soil carbon, particularly when converted to annual crops.
- Where a fallow cycle results, then periods of crops are interspersed with periods of forest regrowth that may or may not reach the threshold for definition as forest.

Figure 2.2.1 below illustrates potential fates of existing forest carbon stocks after deforestation.



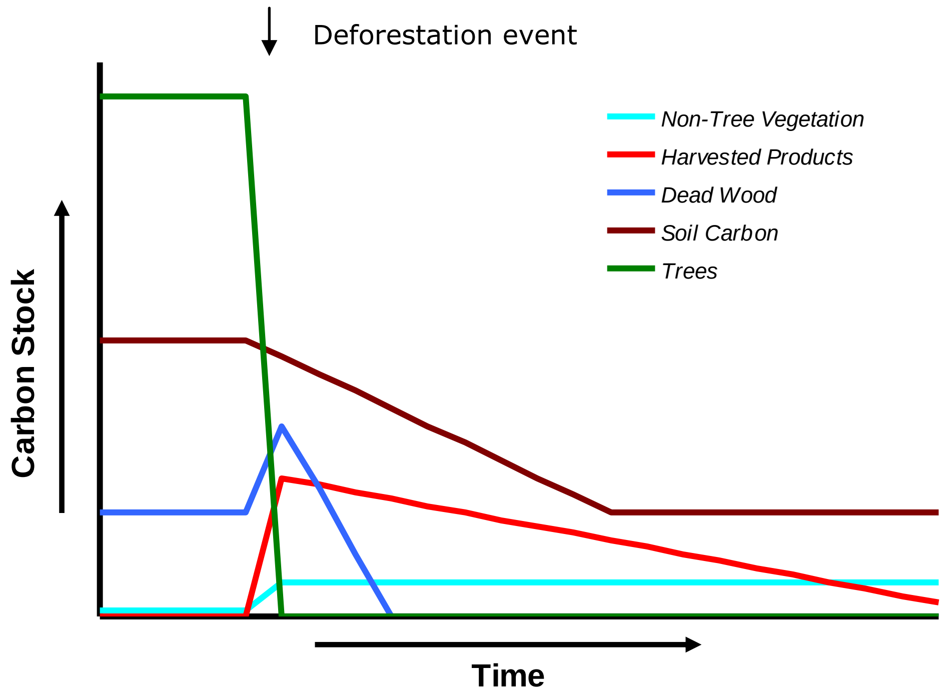


Figure 2.2.1: Fate of existing forest carbon stocks after deforestation.

2.2.2.1.2 The need for stratification and how it relates to remote sensing data

Carbon stocks vary by forest type, for example tropical pine forests will have a different stock than tropical broadleaf forests which will again have a different stock than a woodland or a mangrove forest. Even within broadleaf tropical forests, stocks will vary greatly with elevation, rainfall and soil type. Then even within a given forest type in a given location the degree of human disturbance will lead to further differences in stocks. The resolution of most readily and inexpensively available remote sensing imagery is not good enough to differentiate between different forest types or even between disturbed and undisturbed forest, and thus cannot differentiate different forest carbon stocks. Therefore stratifying forests can lead to more accurate and cost effective emission estimates associated with a given area of deforestation or degradation (see more on this topic below in section 2.2.4).

2.2.3 Which Tier should be used?

2.2.3.1 Explanation of IPCC Tiers

The IPCC GPG and AFOLU Guidelines present three general approaches for estimating emissions/removals of greenhouse gases, known as "Tiers" ranging from 1 to 3 representing increasing levels of data requirements and analytical complexity. Despite differences in approach among the three tiers, all tiers have in common their adherence to IPCC good practice concepts of transparency, completeness, consistency, comparability, and accuracy.

Tier 1 requires no new data collection to generate estimates of forest biomass. Default values for forest biomass and forest biomass mean annual increment (MAI) are obtained from the IPCC Emission Factor Data Base (EFDB), corresponding to broad continental forest types (e.g. African tropical rainforest). Tier 1 estimates thus provide limited resolution of how forest biomass varies sub-nationally and have a large error range (~ +/- 50% or more) for growing stock in developing countries (Box 2.2.1). The former is important because deforestation and degradation tend to be localized and hence may affect subsets of forest that differ consistently from a larger scale average (Figure 2.2.2). Tier 1 also uses simplified assumptions to calculate emissions. For deforestation, Tier 1 uses the simplified assumption of instantaneous emissions from woody vegetation, litter and dead wood. To estimate emissions from degradation (i.e. Forest remaining as Forest), Tier 1 applies the gain-loss method (see Ch 5) using a default MAI combined with losses reported from wood removals and disturbances, with transfers of biomass to dead organic matter estimated using default equations.

Box 2.2.1. Error in Carbon Stocks from Tier 1 Reporting

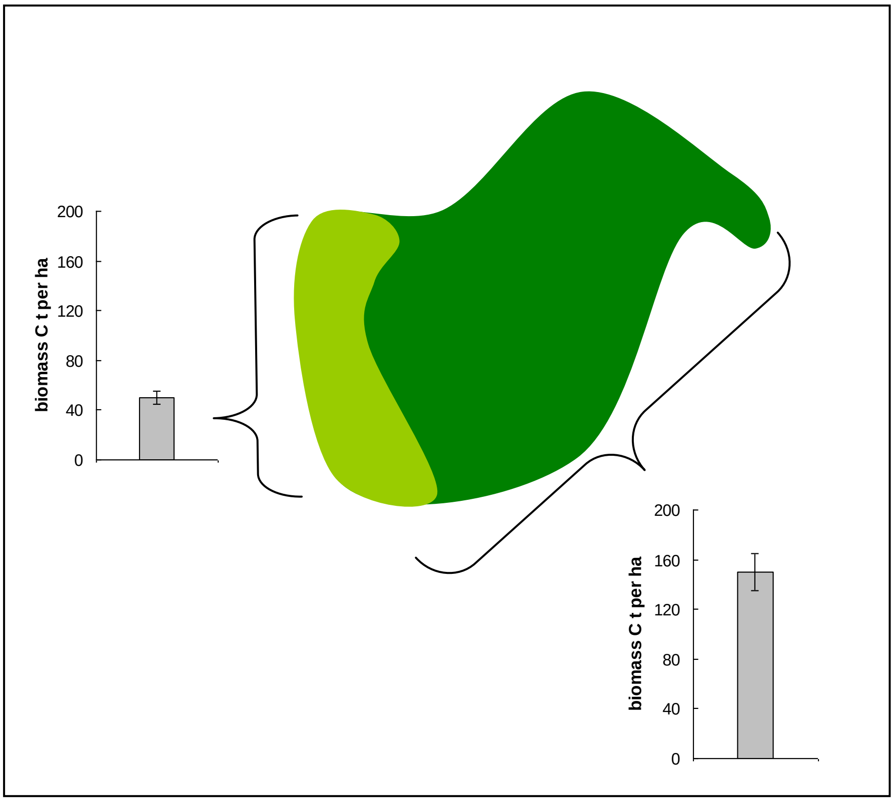
To illustrate the error in applying Tier 1 carbon stocks for the carbon element of REDD reporting, a comparison is made here between the Tier 1 result and the carbon stock estimated from on-the-ground IPCC Good Practice-conforming plot measurements from six sites around the world. As can be seen in the table below, the IPCC Tier 1 predicted stocks range from 33 % higher to 44 % lower than a mean derived from plot measurements.

Location	IPCC Definition	Tier 1 Default (t C/ha)	Plot Measurements (t C/ha)	Tier 1 as % of Plot Measurements
Brazil	Tropical Rainforest, North and South America	150	218	-31
Mexico	Temperate Mountain Systems, North and South America	65	49	+33
Indonesia	Tropical Rainforest Asia Insular	175	212	-17
Republic of Congo	Tropical rainforest Africa	155	277	-44
Republic of Guinea	Tropical rainforest Africa	155	209	-26
Madagascar	Tropical rainforest Africa	155	148	+5

Figure 2.2.2 below illustrates a hypothetical forest area, with a subset of the overall forest, or strata, denoted in light green. Despite the fact that the forest overall (including the light green strata) has an accurate and precise mean biomass stock of 150 t C/ha, the light green strata alone has a significantly different mean biomass carbon stock (50 t C/ha). Because deforestation often takes place along "fronts" (e.g. agricultural frontiers) that may represent different subsets from a broad forest type (like the light green strata at the periphery here) a spatial resolution of forest biomass carbon stocks is required to accurately assign stocks to where loss of forest cover takes place. Assuming deforestation was taking place in the light green area only and the analyst was not aware of the different strata, applying the overall forest stock to the light green strata alone would give inaccurate results, and that source of uncertainty could only be discerned by subsequent ground-truthing.

Figure 2.2.2 also demonstrates the inadequacies of extrapolating localized data across a broad forest area, and hence the need to stratify forests according to expected carbon stocks and to augment limited existing datasets (e.g. forest inventories and research studies conducted locally) with supplemental data collection.

Figure 2.2.2: **A hypothetical forest area, with a subset of the overall forest, or strata, denoted in light green.**



At the other extreme, Tier 3 is the most rigorous approach associated with the highest level of effort. Tier 3 uses actual inventories with repeated measures of permanent plots to directly measure changes in forest biomass and/or uses well parameterized models in combination with plot data. Tier 3 often focuses on measurements of trees only, and uses region/forest specific default data and modeling for the other pools. The Tier 3 approach requires long-term commitments of resources and personnel, generally involving the establishment of a permanent organization to house the program (see section 3.2). The Tier 3 approach can thus be expensive in the developing country context, particularly where only a single objective (estimating emissions of greenhouse gases) supports the implementation costs. Unlike Tier 1, Tier 3 does not assume immediate emissions from deforestation, instead modeling transfers and releases among pools that more accurately reflect how emissions are realized over time. To estimate emissions from degradation, in contrast to Tier 1, Tier 3 uses the stock difference approach where change in forest biomass stocks is directly estimated from repeated measures or models.

Tier 2 is akin to Tier 1 in that it employs static forest biomass information, but it also improves on that approach by using country-specific data (i.e. collected within the national boundary), and by resolving forest biomass at finer scales through the delineation of more detailed strata. Also, like Tier 3, Tier 2 can modify the Tier 1 assumption that carbon stocks in woody vegetation, litter and deadwood are immediately emitted following deforestation (i.e. that stocks after conversion are zero), and instead develop disturbance matrices that model retention, transfers (e.g. from woody biomass to dead wood/litter) and releases (e.g. through decomposition and burning) among pools. For degradation, in the absence of repeated measures from a representative inventory, Tier 2 uses the gain-loss method using locally-derived data on mean annual increment. Done well, a Tier 2 approach can yield significant improvements over Tier 1 in reducing uncertainty, and though not as precise as repeated measures using permanent plots that can focus directly on stock change and increment, Tier 2 does not require the sustained institutional backing.

2.2.3.2 Data needs for each Tier

The availability of data is another important consideration in the selection of an appropriate Tier. Tier 1 has essentially no data collection needs beyond consulting the IPCC tables and EFDB, while Tier 3 requires mobilization of resources where no national forest inventory is in place (i.e. most developing countries). Data needs for each Tier are summarized in Table 2.2.1.

Table 2.2.1: Data needs for meeting the requirements of the three IPCC Tiers

Tier	Data needs/examples of appropriate biomass data
Tier 1 (basic)	Default MAI* (for degradation) and/or forest biomass stock (for deforestation) values for broad continental forest types—includes six classes for each continental area to encompass differences in elevation and general climatic zone; default values given for all vegetation-based pools
Tier 2 (intermediate)	MAI* and/or forest biomass values from existing forest inventories and/or ecological studies. Default values provided for all non-tree pools Newly-collected forest biomass data.
Tier 3 (most demanding)	Repeated measurements of trees from permanent plots and/or calibrated process models. Can use default data for other pools stratified by in-country regions and forest type, or estimates from process models.

* MAI = Mean annual increment of tree growth

2.2.3.3 Selection of Tier

Tiers should be selected on the basis of goals (e.g. precise measure of emissions reductions in the context of a performance-based incentives framework; conservative estimate subject to deductions), the significance of the target source/sink, available data, and analytical capability.

The IPCC recommends that it is good practice to use higher Tiers for the measurement of significant sources/sinks. To more clearly specify levels of data collection and analytical rigor among sources of emissions/removals, the IPCC Guidelines provide guidance on the identification of "Key Categories". Key categories are sources of emissions/removals that contribute substantially to the overall national inventory and/or national inventory trends, and/or are key sources of uncertainty in quantifying overall inventory amounts or trends. Key categories can be further broken down to identify significant sub-categories or pools (e.g. above-ground biomass, below-ground biomass, litter, and dead wood) that constitute > 25-30 % emissions/removals for the category.

Due to the balance of costs and the requirement for accuracy/precision in the carbon component of emission inventories, a Tier 2 methodology for carbon stock monitoring will likely be the most widely used in both the reference period and for future monitoring of emissions from deforestation and degradation. Although it is suggested that a Tier 3 methodology be the level to aim for key categories and pools, in practice Tier 3 may be too costly to be widely used, at least in the near to mid term.

On the other hand, Tier 1 will not deliver the accurate and precise measures needed for key categories/pools by any mechanism in which economic incentives are foreseen.

However, the principle of conservativeness will likely represent a fundamental parameter to evaluate REDD estimates. In that case, a tier lower than required could be used – or a carbon pool could be ignored - if it can be soundly demonstrated that the overall estimate of reduced emissions are underestimated (further explanation is given in section 4.4).

Different tiers can be applied to different pools where they have a lower importance. For example, where preliminary observations demonstrate that emissions from the litter or dead wood or soil carbon pool constitute less than 25% of emissions from deforestation, the Tier 1 approach using default transfers and decomposition rates is justified for application to that pool.

2.2.4 Stratification by Carbon Stocks

Stratification refers to the division of any heterogeneous landscape into distinct sub-sections (or strata) based on some common grouping factor. In this case, the grouping factor is the stock of carbon in the vegetation. If multiple forest types are present across a country, stratification is the first step in a well-designed sampling scheme for estimating carbon emissions associated with deforestation and degradation over both large and small areas. Stratification is the critical step that will allow the association of a given area of deforestation and degradation with an appropriate vegetation carbon stock for the calculation of emissions.

2.2.4.1 Why stratify?

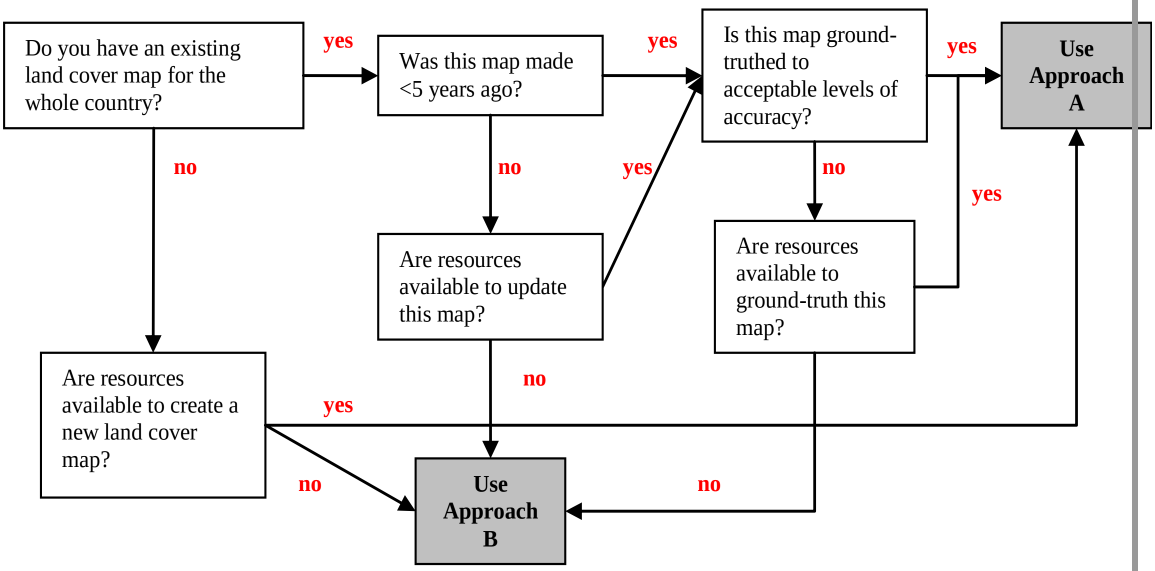
Different carbon stocks exist in different forest types and ecoregions depending on physical factors (e.g., precipitation regime, temperature, soil type, topography), biological factors (tree species composition, stand age, stand density) and anthropogenic factors (disturbance history, logging intensity). For example, secondary forests have lower carbon stocks than mature forests and logged forests have lower carbon stocks than unlogged forests. Associating a given area of deforestation with a specific carbon stock that is relevant to the location that is deforested or degraded will result in more accurate and precise estimates of carbon emissions. This is the case for all levels of deforestation assessment from a very coarse Tier 1 assessment to a highly detailed Tier 3 assessment.

Because ground sampling is usually required to determine appropriate carbon estimates for the specific areas that were deforested or degraded, stratifying an area by its carbon stocks can **increase accuracy and precision and reduce costs**. National carbon accounting needs to emphasize a system in which stratification and refinement are based on carbon content (or expected reductions in carbon content) of specific forest types, not necessarily of forest vegetation. For example, the carbon stocks of a "tropical rain forest" (one vegetation class) may be vastly different with respect to carbon stocks depending on its geographic location and degree of disturbance.

2.2.4.2 Approaches to stratification

There are two different approaches for stratifying forests for national carbon accounting, both of which require some spatial information on forest cover within a country. In Approach A, all of a country's forests are stratified 'up-front' and carbon estimates are made to produce a country-wide map of forest carbon stocks. At future monitoring events, only the activity data need to be monitored and combined with the pre-estimated carbon stock values. In Approach B, a full land cover map of the whole country does not need to be created. Rather, carbon estimates are made at each monitoring event only in those areas that have undergone change. Which approach to use depends on a country's access to relevant and up-to-date data as well as its financial and technological resources. See Box 2.2.2 that provides a decision tree that can be used to select which stratification approach to use. Details of each approach are outlined below.

Box 2.2.2: Decision tree for stratification approach



Approach A: 'Up-front' stratification using existing or updated land cover maps

The first step in stratifying by carbon stocks is to determine whether a national land cover or land use map already exists. This can be done by consulting with government agencies, forestry experts, universities, the FAO, internet, and the like who may have created these maps for other purposes.

Before using the existing land cover or land use map for stratification, its quality and relevance should be assessed. For example:

- ❑ When was the map created? Land cover change is often rapid and therefore a land cover map that was created more than five years ago is most likely out-of-date and no longer relevant. If this is the case, a new land cover map should be created. To participate in REDD activities it is likely a country will need to have at least a land cover map for a relatively recent time (benchmark map—see section 2.1).
- ❑ Is the existing map at an appropriate resolution for your country's size and land cover distribution? Land cover maps derived from coarse-resolution satellite imagery may not be detailed enough for very small countries and/or for countries with a highly patchy distribution of forest area. For most countries, land cover maps derived from medium-resolution imagery (e.g., 30-m resolution Landsat imagery) are adequate (cf. section 2.1).
- ❑ Is the map ground validated for accuracy? An accuracy assessment should be carried out before using any land cover map in additional analyses. Guidance on assessing the accuracy of remote sensing data is given in section 2.6.

Land cover and land use maps are sometimes produced for different purposes and therefore the classification may not be fully useable in their current form. For example, a land use map may classify all forest types as one broad 'forest' category, which would not be valuable for stratification unless more detailed information was available to supplement this map. Indicator maps are valuable for adding detail to broadly defined forest categories (see Box 2.2.3 for examples), but should be used judiciously to avoid overcomplicating the issue. In most cases, overlaying one or two indicator maps (elevation and distance to transportation networks, for example) with a forest/non-forest land cover map should be adequate for delineating forest strata by carbon stocks.

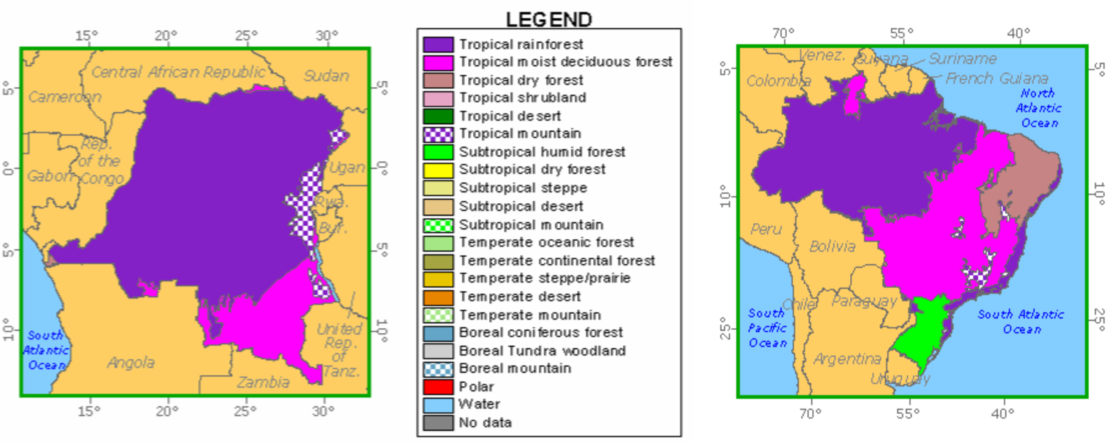
Once strata are delineated on a ground-validated land cover map and forest types have been identified, carbon stocks are estimated for each stratum using appropriate measuring and monitoring methods. A national map of carbon stocks can then be created (cf Section 2.2.4).

Box 2.2.3: Examples of maps on which a land use stratification can be built

Ecological zone maps

One option for countries with virtually no data on carbon stocks is to stratify the country initially by ecological zone or ecoregion using global datasets. Examples of these maps include:

1. Holdridge life zones (http://geodata.grid.unep.ch/)
2. WWF ecoregions (http://www.worldwildlife.org/science/data/terreco.cfm)
3. FAO ecological zones (http://www.fao.org/geonetwork/srv/en/main.home, type ‘ecological zones’ in search box)



Indicator maps

After ecological zone maps are overlain with maps of forest cover to delineate where forests within different ecological zones are located, there are several indicators that could be used for further stratification. These indicators can be either biophysically- or anthropogenically-based:

Biophysical indicator maps	Anthropogenic indicator maps:
Elevation	Distance to deforested land or forest edge
Topography (slope and aspect)	Distance to towns and villages
Soils	Proximity to transportation networks (roads, rivers)
Forest Age (if known)	Rural population density
Areas of protected forest	

In Approach A, all of the carbon estimates would be made once, up-front, i.e., at the beginning of monitoring program, and no additional carbon estimates would be necessary for the remainder of the monitoring period - only the activity data would need to be monitored. This does assume that the carbon stocks in the original forests being monitored would not change much over about 10-20 years—such a situation is likely to exist where most of the forests are relatively intact, have been subject to low intensity selective logging in the past, no major infrastructure exists in the areas, and/or are at a late secondary stage (> 40-50 years). When the forests in question do not meet the aforementioned criteria, then new estimates of the carbon stocks could be made based on measurements taken more frequently—up to less than 10 years.

As ecological zone maps are a global product, they tend to be very broad and hence certain features of the landscape that affect carbon stocks within a country are not accounted for. For example, a country with mountainous terrain would benefit from using elevation data (such as a digital elevation model) to stratify ecological zones into different elevational sub-strata because forest biomass is known to decrease with elevation. Another example would be to stratify the ecological zone map by soil type as forests on loamy soils tend to have higher growth potential than those on very sandy or very clayey soils. If forest degradation is common in your country, stratifying ecological zones by distance to towns and villages or to transportation networks may be useful. An example of how to stratify a country with limited data is shown in Box 2.2.4.

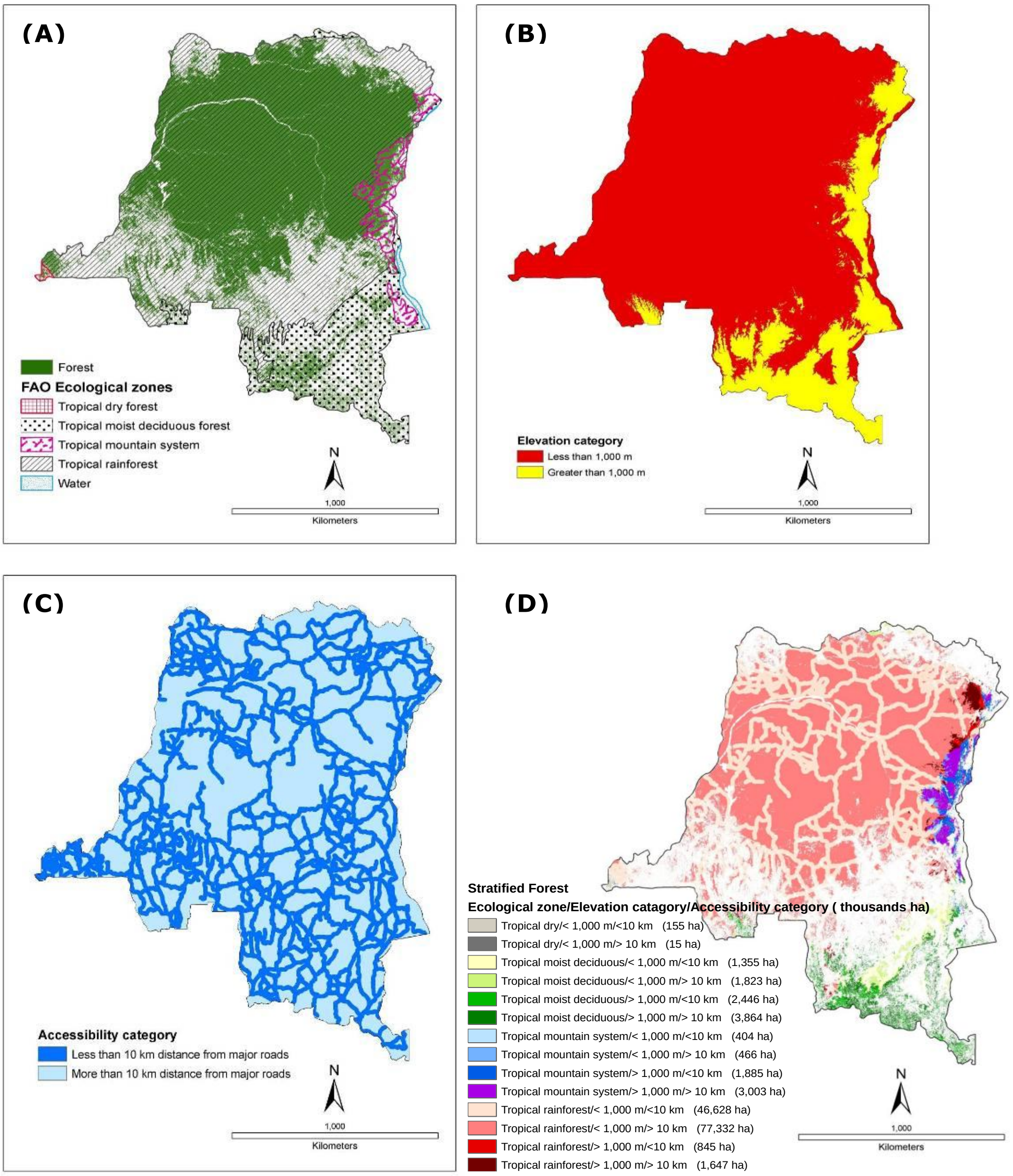
Box 2.2.4: Forest stratification in countries with limited data availability

An example stratification scheme is shown here for the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Step 1. Overlay a map of forest cover with an ecological zone map (A).

Step 2. Select indicator maps. For this example, elevation (B) and distance to roads (C) were chosen as indicators.

Step 3. Combine all factors to create a map of forest strata (D).



Approach B: Continuous stratification based on a continuous carbon inventory

Where wall-to-wall land cover mapping is not possible for stratifying forest area within a country by carbon stocks, regularly-timed "inventories" can be made by sampling only the areas subject to deforestation and degradation. Using this approach, a full land cover map for the whole country is not necessary because carbon assessment occurs only where land cover change occurred (forest to non-forest, or intact to degraded forest in some cases). Carbon measurements can then be made in neighboring pixels that have the same reflectance/textural characteristics as the pixels that had undergone change in the previous interval, serving as proxies for the sites deforested or degraded, and carbon emissions can be calculated.

This approach is likely the least expensive option as long as neighboring pixels to be measured are relatively easy to access by field teams. However, this approach is not recommended when vast areas of contiguous forest are converted to non-forest, because the forest stocks may have been too spatially variable to estimate a single proxy carbon value for the entire forest area that was converted. If this is the case, a conservative approach would be to use the lowest carbon stock estimate for the forest area that was converted to calculate emissions in the reference case and the highest carbon stock estimate in the monitoring phase.

2.2.5 Estimation of Carbon Stocks of Forests Undergoing Change

2.2.5.1 Decisions on which carbon pools to include

The decision on which carbon pools to monitor as part of a REDD accounting scheme will likely be governed by the following factors:

- Available financial resources
- Availability of existing data
- Ease and cost of measurement
- The magnitude of potential change in the pool
- The principle of conservativeness

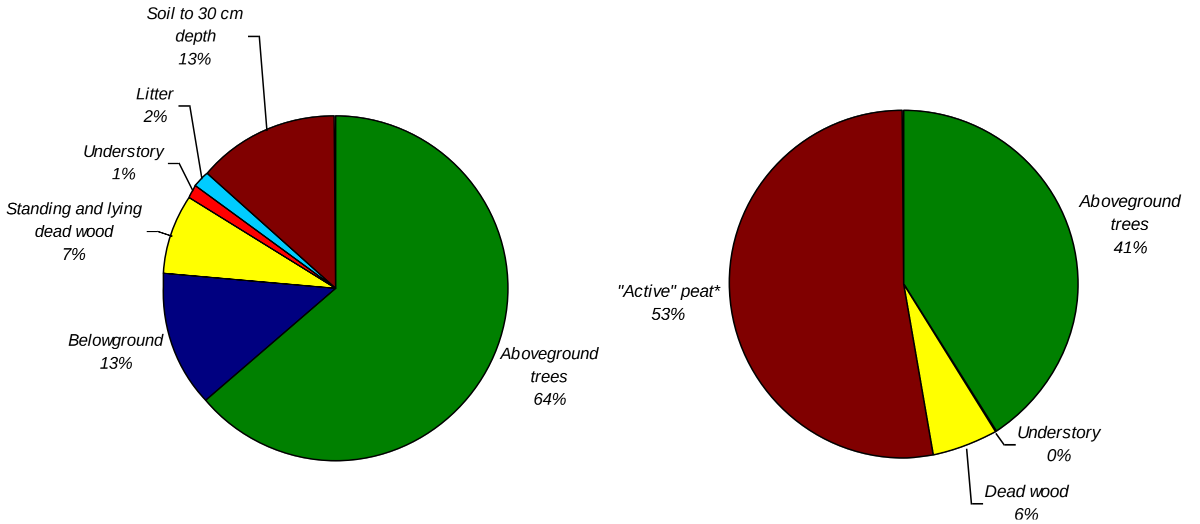
Above all is the principle of conservativeness. This principle ensures that reports of decreases in emissions are not overstated. **Clearly for this purpose both time-zero and subsequent estimations must include exactly the same pools.** Conservativeness also allows for pools to be omitted except for the dominant tree carbon pool and a precedent exists for Parties to select which pools to monitor within the Kyoto Protocol and Marrakesh Accords (see section 4.4 for further discussion on conservativeness). For example, if dead wood or wood products are omitted then the assumption must be that all the carbon sequestered in the tree is immediately emitted and thus deforestation or degradation estimates are under-estimated. Likewise if CO2 emitted from the soil is excluded as a source of emissions; and as long as this exclusion is constant between the reference case and later estimations, then no exaggeration of emissions reductions occurs.

2.2.5.1.1 Key categories

The second deciding factor on which carbon pools to include should be the relative importance of the expected change in each of the carbon pools caused by deforestation and degradation. The magnitude of the carbon pool basically represents the magnitude of the emissions for deforestation as it is typically assumed that most of the pool is oxidized, either on or off site. For degradation the relationship is not as clear as usually only the trees are affected for most causes of degradation (cf. Ch. 3.3).

In all cases it will make sense to include trees, as trees are relatively easy to measure and will always represent a significant proportion of the total carbon stock. The remaining pools will represent varying proportions of total carbon depending on local conditions. For example, belowground biomass carbon (roots) and soil carbon to 30 cm depth represents 26% of total carbon stock in estimates in tropical lowland forests of Bolivia but more than 50 % in the peat forests of Indonesia (Figure 2.2.3 a & b[21]). It is also possible that which pools are included or not varies by forest type/strata within a country. It is possible that say forest type A in a given country could have relatively high carbon stocks in the dead wood and litter pools, whereas forest type B in the country could have low quantities in these pools—in this case it might make sense to measure these pools in the forest A but not B as the emissions from deforestation would be higher in A than in B.

Figure 2.2.3: LEFT- Proportion of total stock (202 t C/ha) in each carbon pool in Noel Kempff Climate Action project (a pilot carbon project), Bolivia, and RIGHT- Proportion of total stock (236 t C/ha) in each carbon pool in peat forest in Central Kalimantan, Indonesia (active peat includes soil organic carbon, live and dead roots, and decomposing materials).



Pools can be divided by ecosystem and land use change type into key categories or minor categories. Key categories represent pools that could account for more than 25% of the total emissions resulting from the deforestation or degradation (Table 2.2.2).

Table 2.2.2: Broad guidance on key categories of carbon pools for determining assessment emphasis. Key category defined as pools potentially responsible for more than 25% of total emission resulting from the deforestation or degradation.

	Biomass		**Dead organic matter**		**Soils**
	Aboveground	**Below-ground**	**Dead wood**	**Litter**	**Soil organic matter**
			Deforestation		
To cropland	KEY	KEY	(KEY)		KEY
To pasture	KEY	KEY	(KEY)		

[21]Brown, S. 2002, Measuring, monitoring, and verification of carbon benefits fro forest-based projects. Phil. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. A. 360: 1669-1683, and unpublished data from measurements by Winrock

To shifting cultivation	KEY	KEY	(KEY)
Degradation			
Degradation	KEY	KEY	(KEY)

Certain pools such as soil carbon or even down dead material tend to be quite variable and can be relatively time consuming and costly to measure. The decision to include these pools would therefore be made based on whether they represent a key category and available financial resources.

Soils will represent a key category in peat swamp forests and mangrove forests and carbon emissions are high when deforested (cf section 2.3). For forests on mineral soils with high organic carbon content and deforestation is to cropland, as much as 30-40% of the total soil organic matter stock can be lost in the top 30 cm or so during the first 5 years. Where deforestation is to pasture or shifting cultivation, the science does not support a large drop in soil carbon stocks.

Dead wood is a key category in old growth forest where it can represent more than 10% of total biomass, in young successional forests, for example, it will not be a key category.

For carbon pools representing a fraction of the total (<25 %) it may be possible to include them at low cost if good default data are available.

Box 2.2.5 provides examples that illustrate the scale of potential emissions from just the aboveground biomass pool following deforestation and degradation in Bolivia, the Republic of Congo and Indonesia.

Box 2.2.5: Potential emissions from deforestation and degradation in three example countries

The following table shows the decreases in the carbon stock of living trees estimated for both deforestation, and degradation through legal selective logging for three countries: Republic of Congo, Indonesia, and Bolivia. The large differences among the countries for degradation reflects the differences in intensity of timber extraction (about 3 to 22 m3/ha).

	Republic of Congo	Indonesia	Bolivia
		$t\ CO_2/ha$	
Degradation	26	88	17
Deforestation	1,015	777	473

2.2.5.1.2 Defining carbon measurement pools:

STEP 1: INCLUDE ABOVEGROUND TREE BIOMASS

All assessments should include aboveground tree biomass as the carbon stock in this pool is simple to measure and estimate and will almost always dominate carbon stock changes

STEP 2: INCLUDE BELOWGROUND TREE BIOMASS

Belowground tree biomass (roots) is almost never measured, but instead is included through a relationship to aboveground biomass (usually a root-to-shoot ratio). If the vegetation strata correspond with tropical or subtropical types listed in Table 2.2.3

(modified from Table 2.2.4 in IPCC GL AFOLU to exclude non-forest or non-tropical values and to account for incorrect values) then it makes sense to include roots.

Table 2.2.3: Root to shoot ratios modified* from Table 4.4. in IPCC GL AFOLU

Domain	Ecological Zone	Above-ground biomass	Root-to-shoot ratio	Range
Tropical	Tropical rainforest	<125 t.ha-1	0.20	0.09-0.25
		>125 t.ha-1	0.24	0.22-0.33
	Tropical dry forest	<20 t.ha-1	0.56	0.28-0.68
		>20 t.ha-1	0.28	0.27-0.28
Subtropical	Subtropical humid forest	<125 t.ha-1	0.20	0.09-0.25
		>125 t.ha-1	0.24	0.22-0.33
	Subtropical dry forest	<20 t.ha-1	0.56	0.28-0.68
		>20 t.ha-1	0.28	0.27-0.28

*the modification corrects an error in the table based on communications with Karel Mulroney, the lead author of the peer reviewed paper from which the data were extracted.

STEP 3: ASSESS THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF ADDITIONAL CARBON POOLS

Assessment of whether other carbon pools represent key categories can be conducted via a literature review, discussions with universities or even field measurements from a few pilot plots following methodological guidance already provided in many of the sources given in this section.

STEP 4: DETERMINE IF RESOURCES ARE AVAILABLE TO INCLUDE ADDITIONAL POOLS

When deciding if additional pools should be included or not, it is important to remember that whichever pools are decided on initially the same pools must be included in all future monitoring events. Although national or global default values can be used, if they are a key category they will make the overall emissions estimates more uncertain. However, it is possible that once a pool is selected for monitoring, default values could be used initially with the idea of improving these values through time, but even if just a one time measurement will be the basis of the monitoring scheme, there are costs associated with including additional pools. For example:

- for soil carbon—soil is collected and then must be analyzed in a laboratory for bulk density and percent soil carbon
- for non-tree vegetation—destructive sampling is usually employed with samples collected and dried to determine biomass and carbon stock
- for down dead wood—stocks are usually assessed along a transect with the simultaneous collection and subsequent drying of samples for density

If the pool is a significant source of emissions as a result of deforestation or degradation it will be worth including it in the assessment if it is possible. An alternative to measurement for minor carbon pools (<25% of the total potential emission) is to include estimates from tables of default data with high integrity (peer-reviewed).

2.2.5.2 General approaches to estimation of carbon stocks

2.2.5.2.1 Step 1: Identify strata where assessment of carbon stocks is necessary

Not all forest strata are likely to undergo deforestation or degradation. For example, strata that are currently distant from existing deforested areas and/or inaccessible from roads or rivers are unlikely to be under immediate threat. Therefore, a carbon assessment of every forest stratum within a country would not be cost-effective because not all forests will undergo change.

For stratification approach B (described above), where and when to conduct a carbon assessment over each monitoring period is defined by the activity data, with measurements taking place in nearby areas that currently have the same reflectance as the changed pixels had prior to deforestation or degradation . For stratification approach A, the best strategy would be to invest in carbon stock assessments for strata where there is a history or future likelihood of degradation or deforestation, not for strata where there is little deforestation pressure.

SubStep 1 – For reference emission case (and future monitoring for approach B): establish sampling plans in areas representative of the areas with recorded deforestation and/or degradation.

SubStep 2 – For future monitoring: identify strata where deforestation and/or degradation are likely to occur. These will be strata adjoining existing deforested areas or degraded forest, and/or strata with human access via roads or easily navigable waterways. Establish sampling plans for these strata but, for the current period, do not invest in measuring forests that are hard to access such as areas that are distant to transportation routes, towns, villages and existing farmland, and/or areas at high elevations or that experience very heavy rainfall.

2.2.5.2.2 Step 2: Assess existing data

It is likely that within most countries there will be some data already collected that could be used to define the carbon stocks of one or more strata. These data could be derived from a forest inventory or perhaps from past scientific studies. Proceed with incorporating these data if the following criteria are fulfilled:

- The data are less than 10 years old
- The data are derived from multiple measurement plots
- All species must be included in the inventories
- The minimum diameter for trees included is 30cm or less at breast height
- Data are sampled from good coverage of the strata over which they will be extrapolated

Existing data that meet the above criteria should be applied across the strata from which they were representatively sampled and not beyond that. The existing data will likely be in one of two forms:

- Forest inventory data
- Data from scientific studies

Forest inventory data

Typically forest inventories have an economic motivation. As a consequence, forest inventories worldwide are derived from good sampling design. If the inventory can be applied to a stratum, all species are included and the minimum diameter is 30 cm or less then the data will be a high enough quality with sufficiently low uncertainty for inclusion. Inventory data typically comes in two different forms:

Stand tables—these data from an inventory are potentially the most useful from which estimates of the carbon stock of trees can be calculated. Stand tables generally include a tally of all trees in a series of diameter classes. The method basically involves estimating the biomass per average tree of each diameter (diameter at breast height, dbh) class of the stand table, multiplying by the number of trees in the class, and summing across all classes. The mid-point diameter of the class can be used[22] in combination with an allometric biomass regression equation. Guidance on choice of equation and application of equations is widely available (for example see sources in Box 4-9). For the open-ended largest diameter classes it is not obvious what diameter to assign to that class. Sometimes additional information is included that allows educated estimates to be made, but this is often not the case. The default assumption should be to assume the same width of the diameter class and take the midpoint, for example if the highest class is >110 cm and the other class are in 10 cm bands, then the midpoint to apply to the highest class should be 115 cm.

It is important that the diameter classes are not overly large so as to decrease how representative the average tree biomass is for that class. Generally the rule should be that the width of diameter classes should not exceed 15 cm.

Sometimes, the stand tables only include trees with a minimum diameter of 30 cm or more, which essentially ignores a significant amount of carbon particularly for younger forests or heavily logged. To overcome the problem of such incomplete stand tables, an approach has been developed for estimating the number of trees in smaller diameter classes based on number of trees in larger classes[23]. It is recommended that the method described here (Box 2.2.6) be used for estimating the number of trees in one to two small classes only to complete a stand table to a minimum diameter of 10 cm.

Box 2.2.6: Adding diameter classes to truncated stand tables

DBH Class (cm)	Midpoint Diameter (cm)	Number of Stems per ha
10-19	15	-
20-29	25	-
30-39	35	35.1
40-49	45	11.8
50-59	55	4.7
...	...	...

dbh class 1= 30-39 cm, and dbh class 2= 40-49 cm

Ratio = 35.1/11.8 = 2.97

Therefore, the number of trees in the 20-29 cm class is: 2.97 x 35.1 = 104.4

To calculate the 10-19 cm class: 104.4/35.1 = 2.97,

2.97 x 104.4 = 310.6

[22] If information on the basal area of all the trees in each diameter class is provided, instead of using the mid point of the diameter class the quadratic mean diameter (QMD) can be used instead—this is the diameter of the tree with the average basal area (=basal area of trees in class/#trees).

[23] Gillespie, A. J. R, S. Brown, and A. E. Lugo. 1992. Tropical forest biomass estimation from truncated stand tables. Forest Ecology and Management 48:69-88.

The method is based on the concept that uneven-aged forest stands have a characteristic "inverse J-shaped" diameter distribution. These distributions have a large number of trees in the small classes and gradually decreasing numbers in medium to large classes. The best method is the one that estimated the number of trees in the missing smallest class as the ratio of the number of trees in dbh class 1 (the smallest reported class) to the number in dbh class 2 (the next smallest class) times the number in dbh class 1 (demonstrated in Box 2.2.3 to 2.2.6).

Stock tables—a table of the merchantable volume is sometimes available, often by diameter class or total per hectare. If stand tables are not available, it is likely that volume data are available if a forestry inventory has been conducted somewhere in the country. In many cases volumes given will be of just commercial species. If this is the case then these data can not be used for estimating carbon stocks, as a large and unknown proportion of total volume and therefore total biomass is excluded.

Biomass density can be calculated from volume over bark of merchantable growing stock wood (VOB) by "expanding" this value to take into account the biomass of the other aboveground components—this is referred to as the biomass conversion and expansion factor (BCEF). When using this approach and default values of the BCEF provided in the IPCC AFOLU, it is important that the definitions of VOB match. The values of BCEF for tropical forests in the AFOLU report are based on a definition of VOB as follows:

Inventoried volume over bark of free bole, i.e. from stump or buttress to crown point or first main branch. Inventoried volume must include all trees, whether presently commercial or not, with a minimum diameter of 10 cm at breast height or above buttress if this is higher.

Aboveground biomass (t/ha) is then estimated as follows: = VOB * BCEF[24]

where:

BCEF t/m³ = biomass conversion and expansion factor (ratio of aboveground oven-dry biomass of trees [t/ha] to merchantable growing stock volume over bark [m³/ha]).

Values of the BCEF are given in Table 4.5 of the IPCC AFOLU, and those relevant to tropical humid broadleaf and pine forests are shown in the Table 2.2.4.

Table 2.2.4: V**alues of BCEF (average and range) for application to volume data.** (Modified from Table 4.5 in IPCC AFOLU)

Forest type	**Growing stock volume –range (VOB, m³/ha)**						
	<20	**21-40**	**41-60**	**61-80**	**80-120**	**120-200**	**>200**
Natural broadleaf	4.0	2.8	2.1	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.0
	2.5-12.0	1.8-304	1.2-2.5	1.2-2.2	1.0-1.8	0.9-1.6	0.7-1.1
Conifer	1.8	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
	1.4-2.4	1.0-1.5	0.8-1.2	0.7-1.2	0.6-1.0	1.6-0.9	0.6-0.9

In cases where the definition of VOB does not match exactly the definition given above, a range of BCEF values are given:

- If the definition of VOB also includes stem tops and large branches then the lower bound of the range for a given growing stock should be used

[24] This method from the IPCC AFOLU replaces the one reported in the IPCC GPG. The GPG method uses a slightly different equation :AGB = VOB*wood density*BEF; where BEF, the biomass expansion factor, is the ratio of aboveground biomass to biomass of the merchantable volume in this case.

- If the definition of VOB has a large minimum top diameter or the VOB is comprised of trees with particularly high basic wood density then the upper bound of the range should be used

Forest inventories often report volumes to a minimum diameter greater than 10 cm. These inventories may be the only ones available. To allow the inclusion of these inventories, volume expansion factors (VEF) were developed. After 10 cm, common minimum diameters for inventoried volumes range between 25 and 30 cm. Due to high uncertainty in extrapolating inventoried volume based on a minimum diameter of larger than 30 cm, inventories with a minimum diameter that is higher than 30 cm should not be used. Volume expansion factors range from about 1.1 to 2.5, and are related to the VOB30 as follows to allow conversion of VOB30 to a VOB10 equivalent:

VEF = Exp{1.300 - 0.209*Ln(VOB30)} for VOB30 < 250 m3/ha

= 1.13 for VOB30 > 250 m3/ha

See Box 2.2.7 for a demonstration of the use of the VEF correction factor and BCEF to estimate biomass density.

Box 2.2.7: Use of volume expansion factor (VEF) and biomass conversion and expansion factor (BCEF)

Tropical broadleaf forest with a VOB30 = 100 m^3/ha

First: Calculate the VEF
= Exp {1.300 - 0.209*Ln(100)} = 1.40

Second: Calculate VOB10
= 100 m^3/ha x 1.40 = 140 m^3/ha

Third: Take the BCEF from the table above
= Tropical hardwood with growing stock of 140 m^3/ha = 1.3

Fourth: Calculate aboveground biomass density
= 1.3 x 140
= 182 t/ha

Data from scientific studies

Scientific evaluations of biomass, volume or carbon stock are conducted under multiple motivations that may or may not align with the stratum-based approach required for deforestation and degradation assessments.

Scientific plots may be used to represent the carbon stock of a stratum as long as there are multiple plots and the plots are randomly located. Many scientific plots will be in old growth forest and may provide a good representation of this stratum.

The acceptable level of uncertainty will be defined in the political arena, but quality of research data could be illustrated by an uncertainty level of 20% or less (95% confidence equal to 20% of the mean or less). If this level is reached then these data could be applicable.

2.2.5.2.3 Step 3: Collect missing data

It is likely that even if data exist they will not cover all strata so in almost all situations a new measuring and monitoring plan will need to be designed and implemented to achieve a Tier 2 level. With careful planning this need not be an overly costly proposition.

The first step would be a decision on how many strata with deforestation or degradation in the reference period are at risk of deforestation or degradation in the future but do not have estimates of carbon stock. These strata should then be the focus of any future monitoring plan. Many resources are available or becoming available to assist countries in planning and implementing the collection of new data to enable them to estimate forest carbon stocks with high confidence (e.g. bilateral and multilateral organizations, FAO etc.), sources of such information and guidance is given in Box 2.2.8).

Box 2.2.8: Guidance on collecting new carbon stock data

Many resources are available to countries and organizations seeking to conduct carbon assessments of land use strata.

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations has been supporting forest inventories for more than 50 years—data from these inventories can be converted to C stocks readily using the methods given above. However, it would be useful in the implementation of new inventories that instead of using plot less approach for measuring trees that the actual dbh be measured and recorded. Application of allometric equations commonly acceptable in carbon studies[25] to such data (by plots) would provide estimates of carbon stocks with lower uncertainty than estimates based on converting volume data as described above. The FAO National Forest Inventory Field Manual is available at:

http://www.fao.org/docrep/008/ae578e00.htm

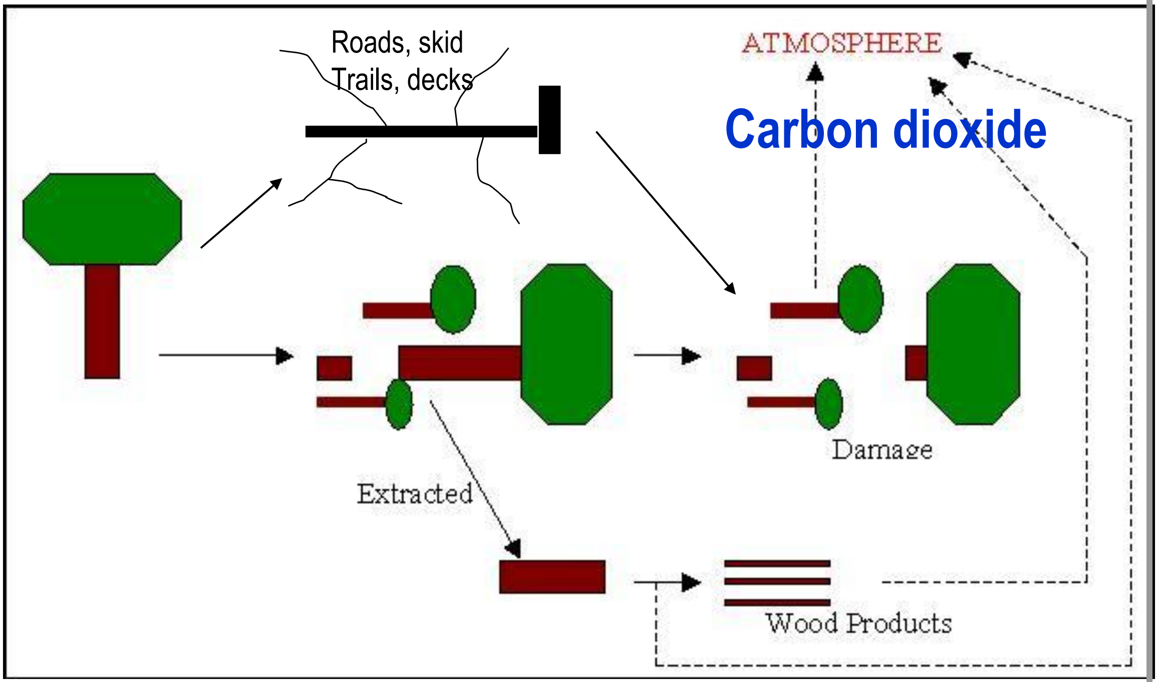
Specific guidance on field measurement of carbon stocks can be found in Chapter 4.3 of GPG LULUCF and also in the World Bank Sourcebook for Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry (available at: http://carbonfinance.org/doc/LULUCF_sourcebook_compressed.pdf)

Lacking in the sources given in Box 2.2.9 is guidance on how to improve the estimates of the total impacts on forest carbon stocks from degradation, particularly from various intensities of selective logging (whether legal or illegal). The AFOLU guidelines consider losses from the actual trees logged, but does not include losses from damage to residual trees nor from the construction of skid trails, roads and logging decks; gains from regrowth are included but with limited guidance on how to apply the regrowth factors. An outline of the steps needed to improve the estimates of carbon emissions from selective logging are described in Box 2.2.9.

[25]E.g. Chave, J., C. Andalo, S. Brown, M. A. Cairns, J. Q. Chambers, D. Eamus, H. Folster, F. Fromard, N. Higuchi, T. Kira, J.-P. Lescure, B. W. Nelson, H. Ogawa, H. Puig, B. Riera, T. Yamakura. 2005. Tree allometry and improved estimation of carbon stocks and balance in tropical forests. Oecologia 145: 87-99.

Box 2.2.9: Estimating carbon gains and losses from logging

A model that illustrates the fate of live biomass and subsequent CO_2 emissions when a forest is selectively logged is shown below.



The total annual carbon emissions is a function of: (i) the area logged in a given year; (ii) the amount of timber extracted per unit area per year; (iii) the amount of dead wood produced in a given year (from tops and stump of the harvested tree, mortality of the surrounding trees caused by the logging, and tree mortality from the skid trails, roads, and logging decks) adjusted for decomposition, and (iv) the biomass that went into long term storage as wood products[26].

In equation form, the carbon impact of logging per unit area per year can be summed up as follows:

$$\boxed{\text{C Impact} = \Delta C_{livebiomass} + \Delta C_{deadbiomass} + \Delta C_{woodproducts}} \qquad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

This equation is further described as follows:

(1) $\Delta C_{livebiomass} = \Delta C_{live,loggingdamage} + \Delta C_{timberextraction} + \Delta C_{regrowthfactor}$

The change in biomass C caused by logging damage to live trees (tops, stump, surrounding trees, trees killed from putting in skid trails, roads, decks) and timber extracted reduces the carbon stock of live biomass (data which are best collected

[26] Brown S, M Burnham, M Delaney, R Vaca, M Powell, A. Moreno. 2000. Issues and challenges for forest-based carbon-offset projects: a case study of the Noel Kempff Climate Action Project in Bolivia. *Mitigation and Adaptation Strategies for Climate Change* 5:99-121.

Brown, S., Pearson, T., Moore, N., Parveen, A., Ambagis, S. and Shoch D. 2005. Deliverable 6: Impact of logging on carbon stocks of forests: Republic of Congo as a case study. Report submitted to the United States Agency for International Development; Cooperative Agreement No. EEM-A-00-03-00006-00. Available from carbonservices@winrock.org from active logging concessions). The regrowth factor or rate accounts for a gain in carbon resulting from the regeneration of new trees to fill the gap and potential enhanced growth of residual trees. The regrowth rate can only be applied to the area of gaps and a relatively narrow zone extending into the forest around the gap that would likely benefit from additional light and not to the total area under logging. The quantities in (1) above can be expressed on an area basis (i.e., t C/ha) or on a m^3 of extracted timber per ha.

(2) $\Delta C_{deadbiomas} = \Delta C_{dead,\mathrm{logging}damage} \times WoodDecompositionFactor$

In areas undergoing selective logging, dead wood cannot be ignored because logging increases the size of this pool. The change in the dead wood pool should be estimated to account for decomposition that occurs over time. Research has shown that dead wood decomposes relatively slowly in tropical forests and hence this pool has a long turnover time. The damaged wood is assumed to enter the dead wood pool, where it starts to decompose, and each year more dead wood is added from harvesting, but each year some is lost because of decomposition and resulting emissions of carbon. Decomposition of dead wood is modeled as a simple exponential function based on mass of dead wood and a decomposition coefficient (proportion decomposed per year that can range from about <0.05 to 0.15 per year).

(3) $\Delta C_{woodproducts} = \Delta C_{timberextraction} \times proportion_{woodproducts}$

Not all of the decrease in live biomass due to logging is emitted to the atmosphere as a carbon emission because a relatively large fraction of the harvested wood goes into long term wood products. However, even wood products are not a permanent storage of carbon—some of it goes into products that have short lives (some paper products), some turns over very slowly (e.g. construction timber and furniture), but all is eventually disposed of by burning, decomposition or buried in landfills.

In addition to quantifying the changes in Eq. 1, two other pieces of information are needed to fully estimate the total net emissions of CO2—these are the amount of timber extracted per unit area per year and the total area logged per year. Total emissions are then estimated as the product of total change in carbon stocks (from Eq.1), the timber extraction rate and the total area logged.

Creating a national look-up table

A cost-effective method for Approach A and Approach B stratifications may be to create a "national look-up table" for the country that will detail the carbon stock in each selected pool in each stratum. Look-up tables should ideally be updated periodically to account for changing mean biomass stocks due to shifts in age distributions, climate, and or disturbance regimes. The look up table can then be used through time to detail the pre-deforestation or degradation stocks and estimated stocks after deforestation and degradation. An example is given in Box 2.2.10.

Box 2.2.10: A national look up table for deforestation and degradation

The following is a hypothetical look-up table for use with approach A or approach B stratification. We can assume that remote sensing analysis reveals that 800 ha of lowland forest were deforested to shifting agriculture and 500 ha of montane forest were degraded. Using the national look-up table results in the following:

The loss for deforestation would be

154 t C/ha – 37 t C/ha = 117 t C/ha x 800 ha =93,600 t C.

The loss for the degradation would be

130 t C/ha – 92 t C/ha = 38 t C/ha x 500 ha =19,000 t C

(Note that degradation will often have been caused by harvest and therefore emissions will be decreased if storage in long-term wood products, rather than by fuelwood extraction, was included—that is the harvested wood did not enter the atmosphere.)

Stratum	Aboveground Tree	Belowground Tree	Dead wood	Non-Tree	Total
Lowland Forest	110	23	18	3	154
Montane Forest	91	17	17	5	130
Open Woodland	48	10	6	8	72
Degraded Lowland Forest	70	15	18	4	107
Degraded Montane Forest	58	11	16	7	92
Degraded Woodland	28	6	6	6	46
Shifting Cultivation	20	5	5	7	37
Permanent Agriculture	0	0	0	4	4

2.3 ESTIMATION OF SOIL CARBON STOCKS

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2.3.1 Scope of chapter

Chapter 2.3 presents guidance on the estimation of the organic carbon component of soil of the forests being deforested and degraded. Guidance is provided on: (i) which of the three IPCC Tiers to be used, (ii) potential methods for the stratification by Carbon Stock of a country's forests and (iii) actual Estimation of Carbon Stocks of Forests Undergoing Change.

IPCC AFOLU divides soil carbon into three pools: mineral soil organic carbon, organic soil carbon, and mineral soil inorganic carbon. The focus in this section will be on only the organic carbon component of soil.

In **Section 2.3.2** explanation is provided on IPCC Tiers for soil carbon estimates.

In **Section 2.3.3** the focus is on how to generate a good Tier 2 analysis for soil carbon.

In **Section 2.2.4** guidance is given on the estimation of emissions as a result of land use change in peat swamp forests.

2.3.2 Explanation of IPCC Tiers for soil carbon estimates

For estimating emissions from organic carbon in mineral soils, the IPCC AFOLU recommends the stock change approach but for organic carbon in organic soils such as peats, an emission factor approach is used (Table 4.5). For mineral soil organic carbon, departures in carbon stocks from a reference or base condition are calculated by applying stock change factors (specific to land-use, management practices, and inputs [e.g. soil amendment, irrigation, etc.]), equal to the carbon stock in the altered condition as a proportion of the reference carbon stock. Tier 1 assumes that a change to a new equilibrium stock occurs at a constant rate over a 20 year time period. Tiers 2 and 3 may vary these assumptions, in terms of the length of time over which change takes place, and in terms of how annual rates vary within that period. Tier 1 assumes that the maximum depth beyond which change in soil carbon stocks should not occur is 30 cm; Tiers 2 and 3 may lower this threshold to a greater depth.

Tier 1 further assumes that there is no change in mineral soil carbon in forests remaining forests. Hence, estimates of the changes in mineral soil carbon could be made for deforestation but are not needed for degradation. Tiers 2 and 3 allow this assumption to change. In the case of degradation, the Tier 2 and 3 approaches are only recommended for intensive practices that involve significant soil disturbance, not typically encountered in selective logging. In contrast, selective logging of forests growing on organic carbon soils such as the peat-swamp forests of South East Asia could result in large emissions caused by practices such as draining to remove the logs from the forest (see Section 2.3.3 for further details on this topic).

Table 2.3.1: IPCC guidelines on data and/or analytical needs for the different Tiers for soil carbon changes in deforested areas.

Soil carbon pool	Tier 1	Tier 2	Tier 3
Organic carbon in mineral soil	Default reference C stocks and stock change factors from IPCC	Country-specific data on reference C stocks & stock change factors	Validated model or direct measures of stock change through monitoring networks
Organic carbon in organic soil	Default emission factor from IPCC	Country-specific data on emission factors	Validated model or direct measures of stock change

Variability in soil carbon stocks can be large; Tier 1 reference stock estimates have associated uncertainty of up to +/- 90%. Therefore it is clear that if soil is a key category, Tier 1 estimates should be avoided.

2.3.3 When and how to generate a good Tier 2 analysis for soil carbon

Modifying Tier 1 assumptions and replacing default reference stock and stock change estimates with country-specific values through Tier 2 methods is recommended to reduce uncertainty for significant sources. Tier 2 provides the option of using a combination of country-specific data and IPCC default values that allows a country to more efficiently allocate its limited resources in the development of emission inventories.

How can one decide if loss of soil C during deforestation is a significant source? It is recommended that, where emissions from soil carbon are likely to represent a key subcategory of overall emissions from deforestation—that is > 25-30%, the emissions accounting should move from a Tier 1 to a Tier 2 approach for estimating carbon emissions from soil. Generally speaking, where reference soil carbon stocks equal or exceed aboveground biomass carbon, carbon emissions from soil often exceed 25% of total emissions from deforestation upon conversion to cropland, and consideration should be given to applying a Tier 2 approach to estimating emissions from soil carbon. If deforestation in an area commonly converts forests to other land uses such as pasture or other perennial crops, then the loss of soil carbon and resulting emissions is unlikely to reach 25%, and thus a Tier 1 approach would suffice.

Assessments of opportunities to improve on Tier 1 assumptions with a Tier 2 approach are summarized in Table 2.3.2.

Table 2.3.2: Opportunities to improve on Tier 1 assumptions using a Tier 2 approach.

	Tier 1 assumptions	Tier 2 options	Recommendation
Depth to which change in stock is reported	30 cm	May report changes to deeper depths	Not recommended. There is seldom any benefit in sampling to deeper depths for tropical forest soils because impacts of land conversion and management on soil carbon tend to diminish with depth - most change takes place in the top 25-30 cm.
Time until new equilibrium stock is reached	20 years	May vary the length of time until new equilibrium is achieved, referencing country-specific chronosequences or long-term studies	Recommended where a chronosequence[27] or long-term study data are available. Some soils may reach equilibrium in as little as 5-10 years after conversion, particularly in the humid tropics[28].
Rate of change in stock	Linear	May use non-linear models	Not recommended – best modeled with Tier 3-type approaches. As well, a typical 5-year reporting interval effectively "linearizes" a non-linear model and would undo the benefits of a model with finer resolution of varying annual changes.
Reference stocks	IPCC defaults	Develop country-specific reference stocks consulting other available databases or consolidating country soil data from existing sources (universities, agricultural extension services, etc.).	IPCC defaults comprehensive. Not recommended unless country-specific data are available.
Stock change factors	IPCC defaults	Develop country-specific stock change factors from chronosequence or long-term study.	IPCC defaults fairly comprehensive. Not recommended unless significant areas (that can be delineated spatially) are represented by drainage as a typical conversion practice.

[27] A chronosequence is a series on land units that represent a range of ages after some event – they are often used to substitute time with space, e.g. a series of cropfield of various ages since they were cleared from forests (making sure they are on same soil type, slope, etc.).

[28] Detwiler, R. P. 1986. Land use change and the global carbon cycle: the role of tropical soils. Biogeochemistry 31: 1-14.

The IPCC default values for reference soil carbon stocks and stock change factors are comprehensive and reflect the most recent review of changes in soil carbon with conversion of native soils. Reference stocks and stock change factors represent average conditions globally, which means that, in at least half of the cases, use of a more accurate and precise (higher Tier) approach will not produce a higher estimate of stocks or emissions than the Tier 1 defaults with respect to the categories covered.

Where country-specific data are available from existing sources, Tier 2 reference stocks should be constructed to replace IPCC default values. Measurements or estimates of soil carbon can be acquired through consultations with local universities, agricultural departments or extension agencies, all of which often carry out soil surveying at scales suited to deriving national or regional level estimates. It should be acknowledged however that because agricultural extension work is targeted to altered (cultivated) sites, agricultural extension agencies may have comparatively little information gathered on reference soils under native vegetation. Where data on reference sites are available, it would be advantageous if the soil carbon measurements were geo-referenced. Soil carbon data generated through typical agricultural extension work is often limited to carbon concentrations (i.e. percent carbon) only, and for this information to be usable, carbon concentrations must be paired with soil bulk density (mass per unit volume), volume of fragments > 2 mm, and depth sampled to derive a mass C per unit area of land surface (see Ch. 4.3 of the IPCC GPG report for more details about soil samples).

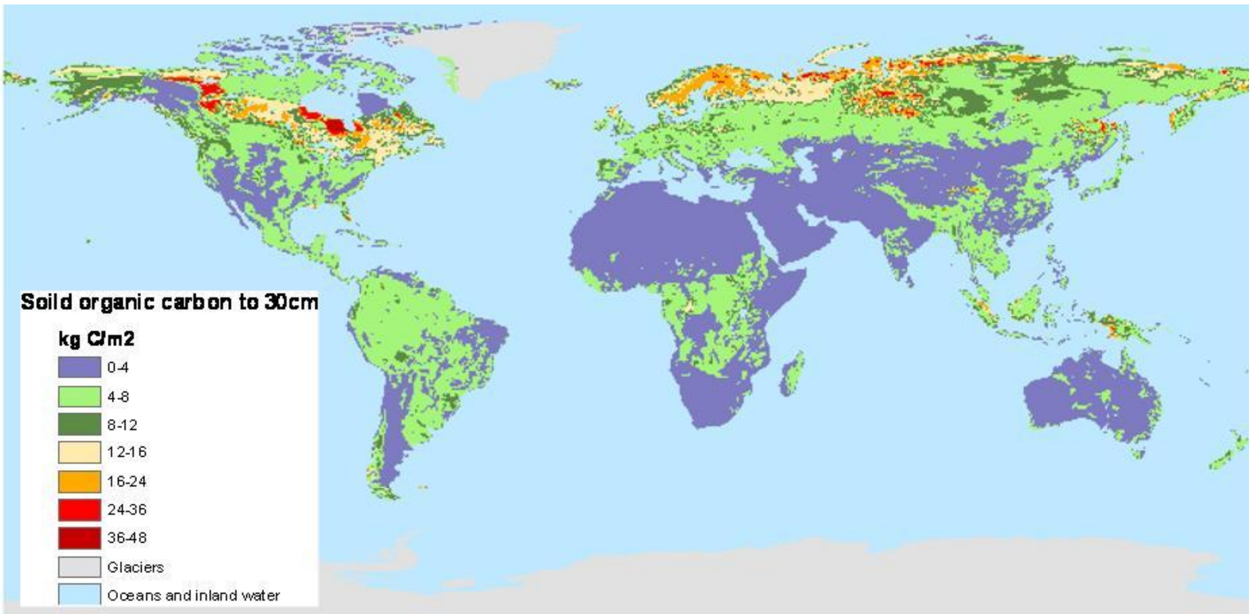
A spatially-explicit global database of soil carbon is also available from which country-specific estimates of reference stocks can be sourced. The ISRIC World Inventory of Soil Emission (WISE) Potential Database offers 5 x 5 minute grid resolution of soil organic carbon content and bulk density to 30 cm depth, and can be accessed online at:

http://www.isric.org/UK/About+Soils/Soil+data/Geographic+data/Global/WISE5by5minutes.htm

A soil carbon map is also available from the US Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service (Figure 2.3.1). This map is based on a reclassification of the FAO-UNESCO Soil Map of the World combined with a soil climate map. This map shows is little variation for soil C in the tropics with most areas showing a range in soil carbon of 40-80 t C/ha (4-8 Kg C/m^2). The soil organic carbon map shows the distribution of the soil organic carbon to 30 cm depth, and can be downloaded from:

ftp://www.daac.ornl.gov/data/global_soil/IsricWiseGrids/

Figure 2.3.1: Soil organic carbon map (kg/m^2 or x10 t/ha; to 30 cm depth) from the global map produced by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service.



Existing map sources can be useful to countries for developing estimates for the reference emission period and for assisting in determining whether changes in soil carbon stocks after deforestation would be a key category or not. Deforestation could emit up to 30-40% of the carbon stock in the top 30 cm of soil during the first 5 years or so after clearing in the humid tropics. Using the soil map above and assuming the soil C content to 30 cm is 80 t C/ha, a 40% emission rate would result in 32 t C/ha being emitted in the first 5 years. If the carbon stock of the forest vegetation was 120 t C/ha (not unreasonable), then the emission of 32 t C/ha is more than 25% of the C stock in forest vegetation and could be considered a significant emissions source.

There are two factors not included in the IPCC defaults that can potentially influence carbon stock changes in soils: soil texture and soil moisture. Soil texture has an acknowledged effect on soil organic carbon stocks, with coarse sandy soils (e.g. spodosols) having lower carbon stocks in general than finer texture soils such as loams or clayey soils. Thus the texture of the soil is a useful indicator to determine the likely quantity of carbon in the soil and the likely amount emitted as CO_2 upon conversion. A global data set on soil texture is available for free downloading and could be used as an indicator of the likely soil carbon content[29]. Specifically, soil carbon in coarse sandy soils, with less capacity for soil organic matter retention, is expected to oxidize more rapidly and possibly to a greater degree than in finer soils. However, because coarser soils also tend to have lower initial (reference) soil carbon stocks, conversion of these soils is unlikely to be a significant source of emissions and therefore development of a soil texture-specific stock change factor is not recommended for these soils.

Drainage of a previously inundated mineral soil increases decomposition of soil organic matter, just as it does in organic soils, and unlike the effect of soil texture, is likely to be associated with high reference soil carbon stocks. These are reflected in the IPCC default reference stocks for forests growing on wetland soils, such as floodplain forests. Drainage of forested wetland soils in combination with deforestation can thus represent a significant source of emissions. Because this factor is lacking from the IPCC default stock change factors, its effects would not be discerned using a Tier 1 approach. In other words, IPCC default stock change factors would underestimate soil carbon emissions where deforestation followed by drainage of previously inundated soils occurred. Where drainage practices on wetland soils are representative of national trends and significant areas, and for which spatial data are available, the Tier 2 approach of deriving a new, country-specific stock change factor from chronosequences or long-term studies is recommended.

Field measurements can be used to construct chronosequences that represent changes in land cover and use, management or carbon inputs, from which new stock change factors can be calculated, and many sources of methods are available (see Box 4.9). Alternatively, stock change factors can be derived from long-term studies that report measurements collected repeatedly over time at sites where land-use conversion has occurred. Ideally, multiple paired comparisons or long-term studies would be done over a geographic range comparable to that over which a resulting stock change factor will be applied, though they do not require representative sampling as in the development of average reference stock values.

[29] Webb, R. W., C. E. Rosenzweig, and E. R. Levine. 2000. Global Soil Texture and Derived Water-Holding Capacities (Webb et al.). Data set. Available on-line [http://www.daac.ornl.gov] from Oak Ridge National Laboratory Distributed Active Archive Center, Oak Ridge, Tennessee, U.S.A. doi:10.3334/ORNLDAAC/548.

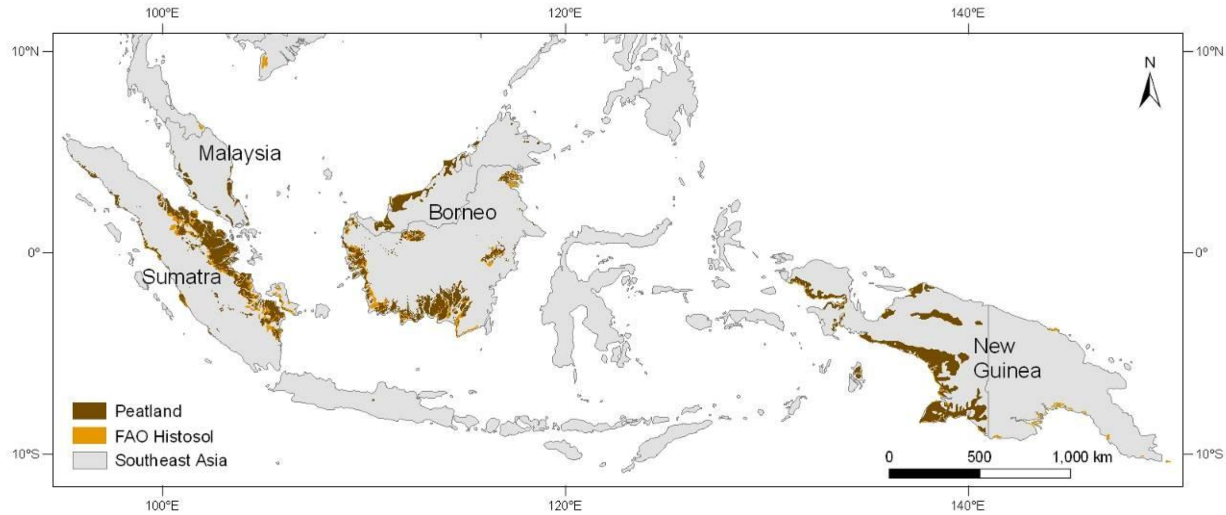
2.3.4 Emissions as a result of land use change in peat swamp forests

Deforestation of peat swamp forests (on organic soils) represents a special case and guidance is given in this section.

Tropical peatlands occupy about 10% of the global peatland area, approximately 65% of the global area of tropical peatland occur in Southeast Asia (Figure A). Peat is a dead organic matter occurring largely in poorly draining environments. It forms at all altitudes and climates. In the tropics, peat is largely formed from tree and root remnants and accumulates to deposits in depths up to 20 meters. If a tropical peat deposit is 10 meters thick it contains over 5,000 t/ha carbon, more than 25-fold more than that of the forest biomass growing above ground. In its natural state, tropical peatland may sequester huge amounts of carbon. Sequestration results when the rate of photosynthesis is larger than decomposition. Carbon sequestration range in average from 0.12-0.74 t C/ha/yr. Compared to boreal peatlands, the tropical rate is up to 4 times higher. If tropical peat is drained for agriculture or plantations it quickly decomposes due to bacterial activity, resulting in huge emissions of CO_2 and N_2O to the atmosphere.

A global map indicating peat is available from FAO (FAO-UNESCO Soil Map of the World). Wetlands International has published detailed maps on the distribution of peatland and below ground carbon for Sumatra, Kalimantan and West Papua based on maps, land surveys and satellite imagery[30].

Figure 2.3.2: Extent of lowland peat forests in Southeast Asia. The Wetlands International data have higher spatial detail and hence accuracy than the FAO data.



Tier 2 and 3 methods require detailed knowledge on peat carbon stock and estimation of emission requires detailed knowledge of the proportion of emissions from drainage and fire. Useful emissions factors (EF) for calculating peatland carbon emissions for REDD

[30] Wetlands International 2007. http://www.wetlands.or.id/publications_maps.php

must be site-specific; a recent literature review questions the accuracy and usefulness of existing EF Tier 1 for operational use. Long term measurements or well established proxies must be put in place to support Tier 2 and 3 methodologies. Countries with significant peatland forest should develop adapted domestic data to estimate and report the carbon stock changes and non- CO_2 emissions resulting from land use and land use changes.

There is a large uncertainty of the extent of tropical peatlands in Southeast Asia and worldwide. Current estimates of the peatland area in Malaysia and Indonesia vary from 21 - 27 million ha. This large range results from the difficulty of accessing the remote terrain to carry out ground surveys. Improved assessments of peatland extent will require high resolution satellite remote sensing combined with field sampling as peat swamp forests may not be well discriminated from forests on mineral soil since both can support forest of similar structure. The same is true if peatlands have been deforested by recurrent fire or converted into plantations or agricultural land. The evaluation of historical satellite imagery may help to identify disturbed or converted peatland. Traditional methods to assess peat type and volume are labor intensive and thus time consuming; new technologies reduce the time required for measurement and increase the spatial accuracy, but are expensive and require specialized skills. Peat depth can be only assessed by field sampling using manual peat corers or geo-electrical measurements. Both methods are tedious to perform over larger areas due to the difficult terrain in peat swamps. Knowledge on the 3D topology of the peat dome is important for hydrology and modeling. New technologies such as airborne LIDAR measurements combined with ortho aerial photographs allow assessing above ground peat dome topography and peat burn depth in the case of fire. A recent study based on such methods estimates peat deposits of Indonesia to be larger than 50 Gt C[31].

In the past two decades large areas of peat forests in Southeast Asia have been destroyed by logging, drainage and fire. Compared to the aboveground emissions that result from clearing the forest vegetation, emissions from peat are significantly larger in case of fire and continue through time because drainage causes a lowering of the water table, allowing biological oxidation of the peat (Figure 2.3.3). Both processes cause significant emissions of GHG gases. Although the area of tropical peatlands in Indonesia is only about 1.5% that of the global land surface, uncontrolled burning of peat there in 1997 emitted 2,0-3,5 Gt CO_2 equivalent to some 10% of global fossil fuel emissions for the same year[32]. Emission estimates from peat fires require Tier3 and currently have great uncertainties, because:

- Various gases and compounds and relative fractions of these will be emitted depending on fire severity, water table, peat moisture and peat type
- the combusted peat volume depends on water table and peat moisture
- Fire intensity and burn depth depend on land cover type and previous fire history.

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[31] Jaenicke, J., J.O. Rieley, C. Mott, P. Kimman, F. Siegert (2008). Determination of the amount of carbon stored in Indonesian peatlands. Geoderma 147: 151–158

[32] Page, S.E., Siegert, F., Rieley, J. O., Boehm, H.D.V., Jayak, A., & S. Limin (2002). The amount of carbon released from peat and forest fires in Indonesia during 1997. Nature 420:61-65.

van der Werf G. R., J. T. Randerson, G. J. Collatz, L. Giglio, P. S. Kasibhatla, A. F. Arellano, Jr., S. C. Olsen, E. S. Kasischke (2004). Continental-Scale Partitioning of Fire Emissions During the 1997 to 2001 El Niño/La Niña Period. Science 303: 73 - 76

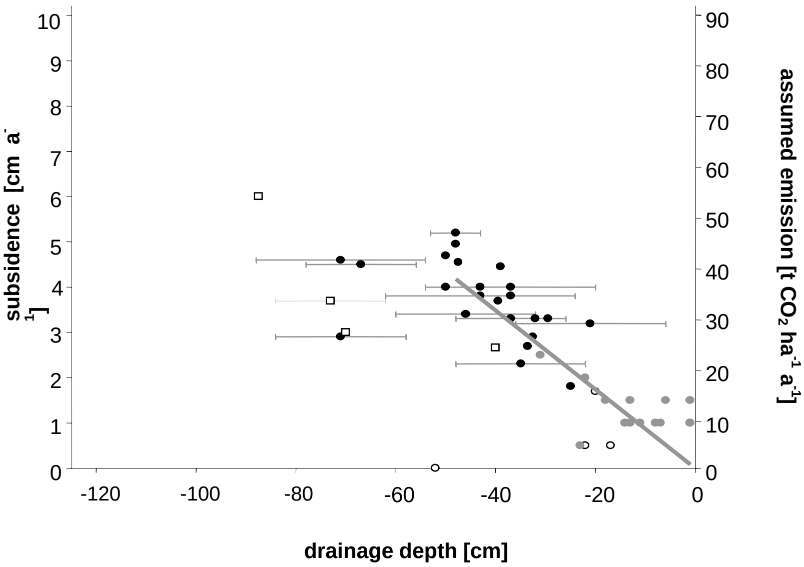

Figure 2.3.3: Relation between drainage depth and CO_2 emissions from peat decomposition in tropical peat swamps. Source: Couwenberg et al., in press.

Rate of subsidence in relation to mean annual water level below surface Horizontal bars indicate standard deviation in water table (where available). Open circles denote unused, drained forested sites. Land use: (□) agriculture, (●) oil palm (recorded 13 to 16 or 18 to 21 years after drainage), (●) degraded open land in the Ex Mega Rice Project area, recorded ~10 to ~12 years after drainage, (○) drained forested plots, recorded ~10 to 12 years after drainage.

Reliable emissions factors are essential for reliably estimating fire emissions. The IPCC guidelines provide limited guidance for estimating GHG emissions from peat fires, because peat fires are different from forest fires due to oxygen limitation and the smoldering nature of combustion. Burn history and land cover can quite easily be measured by satellite remote sensing. Burn depth assessment requires field and/or LIDAR measurements and the determination of gas composition requires laboratory combustion experiments and field measurements. The depth of the water table and moisture content are key variables that control both bacterial decomposition and fire risk and have to be accurately measured and monitored in dip wells to estimate emissions.

Over time GHG emissions by biological oxidation of peat are also significant. Emissions of CO_2 via oxidation begin when either the peat swamp forest is removed and/or the water table is lowered due to drainage for agriculture or logging purposes. Most carbon is released in the form of CO_2 in an aerobic layer near the surface by microbial decomposition of fossil plant material. Suitable long term measurements of at least a year are required to assess emission rates under differing water management regimes. Very few such measures exist today. A recent review showed that cleared and drained peatlands emit in the range of 9 CO_2 t/ha/yr for each 10 cm of additional drainage depth[33]. If the water table is lowered by of 0.4 meters by draining, CO_2 emissions are

[33] Couwenberg J., Dommain R. & H. Joosten (2009). Greenhouse gas fluxes from tropical peatlands in Southeast Asia Running title: Greenhouse gas fluxes from tropical peatlands. Global Change Biology, in press

estimated at 35 tons per hectare per year. (Figure 2.3.3). It was estimated that in 10 years up to 20 Gt CO_2 could have been released from Indonesia's peatland as a result of peat decomposition and oxidation, from land use, land use change and fire (conversion to farmland and plantations)[34]. Two important non-CO_2 greenhouse gases produced by organic matter decomposition are methane CH4 and nitrous oxide N_2O with the latter more important due to its large global warming potential. Emissions from tropical peats are low compared to CO_2, but evidence suggests that N_2O, emissions increase following land use change and drainage. The determination of GHG emission factors for drained peat require rigorous flux measurements by chambers or eddy covariance measurements in combination with continuous monitoring of site conditions.

GHG releases have been accelerating in the past two decades due to a fast economic development in SE Asia. Large areas have been converted into oil palm and pulp wood plantations, with annual losses of peat swamp forest estimated at more than 2% annually. For example Riau province in central Sumatra has lost 65 per cent of its forests over the last 25 years. A wall-to-wall study by WWF found that deforestation of nearly 4 million ha of tropical forests including 1.8m ha peat swamp forest may have generated the release of up to 3.6 gigatons of carbon dioxide including emissions from deforestation and decomposition and burning of peat[35].

The role of tropical peat is crucial in terms of GHG emissions because the carbon stock of peat considerably outweighs that of the biomass above ground. Moreover significant amounts of carbon are released by fire and bacterial decomposition. Both fire and decomposition processes need to be considered when estimating emissions from carbon. Fire is an instantaneous release of carbon that takes place one or more times, but decomposition occurs over a long timeframe (many years). Decomposition rates are quite low, but because they are continually occurring over long periods following drainage, they sum up to huge releases of carbon.

[34] Hooijer, A., Silvius, M., Wösten, H. and Page, S. (2006). PEAT-CO2, Assessment of CO2 emissions from drained peatlands in SE Asia. Delft Hydraulics report Q3943

[35] WWF, 2008. Deforestation, Forest Degradation, Biodiversity Loss, and CO2 Emissions in Riau, Sumatra, Indonesia. WWF Indonesia Technical Report. February 27, 2008.

2.4 METHODS FOR ESTIMATING CO2 EMISSIONS FROM DEFORESTATION AND FOREST DEGRADATION

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2.4.1 Scope of this Chapter

This chapter describes the methodologies that can be used to estimate carbon emissions from deforestation and forest degradation. It builds on Chapters 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 of this Sourcebook, which describe procedures for collecting the input data for these methodologies, namely areas of land use and land-use change (Chapter 2.1), and carbon stocks and changes in carbon stocks (Chapters 2.2 and 2.3).

The methodologies described here are derived from the 2006 IPCC AFOLU Guidelines and the 2003 IPCC GPG-LULUCF, and focus on the Tier 2 IPCC methods, as these require country-specific data but do not require expertise in complex models or detailed national forest inventories.

The AFOLU Guidelines and GPG-LULUCF define six categories of land use[36] that are further sub-divided into subcategories of land remaining in the same category (e.g., Forest Land Remaining Forest Land) and of land converted from one category to another (e.g., Land converted to Cropland). The land conversion subcategories are then divided further based on initial land use (e.g., Forest Land converted to Cropland, Grassland converted to Cropland). This structure was designed to be broad enough to classify all land areas in each country and to accommodate different land classification systems among countries. The structure allows countries to account for, and track over time, their entire land area, and enables greenhouse gas estimation and reporting to be consistent and comparable among countries. For REDD estimation, each subcategory could be further subdivided by climatic, ecological, soils, and/or anthropogenic disturbance factors, depending upon the level of stratification chosen for area change detection and carbon stock estimation (see Chapters 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3).

For the purposes of this Sourcebook, five IPCC land-use subcategories are relevant. Although the term deforestation within the REDD mechanism remains to be defined, it is likely to be encompassed by the four land-use change subcategories defined for conversion of forests to non-forests (see Section 1.2.3[37]). Forest degradation, or the long-term loss of carbon stocks that does not qualify as deforestation is encompassed by the IPCC land-use subcategory "Forest Land Remaining Forest Land." The methodologies that are presented here are based on the sections of the AFOLU Guidelines and the GPG-LULUCF that pertain to these land-use subcategories.

Within each land-use subcategory, the IPCC methods track changes in carbon stocks in five pools (see Chapters 2.2 and 2.3). The IPCC emission/removal estimation methodologies cover all of these carbon pools. Total net carbon emissions equal the sum of emissions and removals for each pool. However, as is discussed in Chapter 4, REDD

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[36] The names of these categories are a mixture of land-cover and land-use classes, but are collectively referred to as 'land-use' categories by the IPCC for convenience.

[37] The subcategory "Land Converted to Wetlands" includes the conversion of forest land to flooded land, but as this land-use change is unlikely to be important in the context of REDD accounting, and measurements of emissions from flooded forest lands are relatively scarce and highly variable, this land-use change is not addressed further in this chapter.

accounting schemes may or may not include all carbon pools. Which pools to include will depend on decisions by policy makers the could be driven by such factors as financial resources, availability of existing data, ease and cost of measurement, and the principle of conservativeness.

2.4.2 Linkage to 2006 IPCC Guidelines

Table 2.4.1 lists the sections of the AFOLU Guidelines that describe carbon estimation methods for each land-use subcategory. This table is provided to facilitate searching for further information on these methods in the AFOLU Guidelines, which can be difficult given the complex structure of this volume. To review greenhouse gas estimation methods for a particular land-use category in the AFOLU Guidelines, one must refer to two separate chapters: a generic methods chapter (Chapter 2) and the land-use category chapter specific to that land-use category (i.e., either Chapter 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, or 9). The methods for a particular land-use subcategory are contained in sections in each of these chapters.

Table 2.4.1: Locations of Carbon Estimation Methodologies in the 2006 AFOLU Guidelines

Land-Use Category (Relevant Land-Use Category Chapter in AFOLU Guidelines)	Land-Use Subcategory (Subcategory Acronym)	Sections in Relevant Land-Use Category Chapter (Chapter 4, 5, 6, 8, or 9)	Sections in Generic Methods Chapter (Chapter 2)
Forest Land (Chapter 4)	Forest Land Remaining Forest Land (FF)	4.2.1 4.2.2 4.2.3	2.3.1.1 2.3.2.1 2.3.3.1.
Cropland (Chapter 5)	Land Converted to Cropland (LC)	5.3.1 5.3.2 5.3.3	2.3.1.2 2.3.2.2 2.3.3.1
Grassland (Chapter 6)	Land Converted to Grassland (LG)	6.3.1 6.3.2 6.3.3	2.3.1.2 2.3.2.2 2.3.3.1
Settlements (Chapter 8)	Land Converted to Settlements (LS)	8.3.1 8.3.2 8.3.3	2.3.1.2 2.3.2.2 2.3.3.1
Other Land (Chapter 9)	Land Converted to Other Land (LO)	9.3.1 9.3.2 9.3.3	2.3.1.2 2.3.2.2 2.3.3.1

Information and guidance on uncertainties relevant to estimation of emissions from land use and land-use change are located in various chapters of two separate volumes of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. Chapter 3 of the General Guidance and Reporting volume (Volume 1) of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines provides detailed, but non-sector-specific, guidance on sources of uncertainty and uncertainty estimation methodologies. Land-use subcategory-specific information about uncertainties for specific carbon pools and land uses is provided in each of the land-use category chapters (i.e., Chapter 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, or 9) of the AFOLU Guidelines (Volume 4).

2.4.3 Organization of this Chapter

The remainder of this chapter discusses carbon emission estimation for deforestation and forest degradation:

- **Section 2.4.4** addresses basic issues related to carbon estimation, including the concept of carbon transfers among pools, emission units, and fundamental methodologies for estimating annual changes in carbon stocks.
- **Section 2.4.5** describes methods for estimating carbon emissions from deforestation based on the generic IPCC methods for land converted to a new land-use category, and on the IPCC methods specific to types of land-use conversions from forests.
- **Section 2.4.6** describes methods for estimating carbon emissions from forest degradation based on the IPCC methods for "Forest Land Remaining Forest Land."

2.4.4 Fundamental Carbon Estimating Issues

The overall carbon estimating method used here is one in which net changes in carbon stocks in the five terrestrial carbon pools are tracked over time. For each strata or sub-division of land area within a land-use category, the sum of carbon stock changes in all the pools equals the total carbon stock change for that stratum. In the REDD context, discussions center on gross emissions thus estimating the decrease in total carbon stocks, which is equated with emissions of CO_2 to the atmosphere, is all that is needed at this time. For deforestation at a Tier 1 level, this simply translates into the carbon stock of the forest being deforested because it is assumed that this goes to zero when deforested. However, a decrease in stocks in an individual pool may or may not represent an emission to the atmosphere because an individual pool can change due to both carbon transfers to and from the atmosphere, and carbon transfers to another pool (e.g., the transfer of biomass to dead wood during logging). Disturbance matrices are discussed below as a means to track carbon transfers among pools at higher Tier levels and thereby avoid over- or underestimates of emissions and improve uncertainty estimation.

In the methods described here, all estimates of changes in carbon stocks (e.g., biomass growth, carbon transfers among pools) are in mass units of carbon (C) per year, e.g., t C/yr. To be consistent with the AFOLU Guidelines, equations are written so that net carbon emissions (stock decreases) are negative.[38]

There are two fundamentally different, but equally valid, approaches to estimating carbon stock changes: 1) the stock-based or stock-difference approach and 2) the process-based or gain-loss approach. These approaches can be used to estimate stock changes in any carbon pool, although as is explained below, their applicability to soil carbon stocks is limited. The stock-based approach estimates the difference in carbon stocks in a particular pool at two points in time (Equation 2.4.1). This method can be used when carbon stocks in relevant pools have been measured and estimated over time, such as in national forest inventories. The process-based or gain-loss approach estimates the net balance of additions to and removals from a carbon pool (Equation 5-2). In the REDD context, gains only result from carbon transfer from another pool (e.g., transfer from a biomass pool to a dead organic matter pool due to disturbance), and losses result from carbon transfer to another pool and emissions due to harvesting, decomposition or burning. This type of method is used when annual data such as biomass growth rates and wood harvests are available. In reality, a mix of the stock-difference and gain-loss approaches can be used as discussed further in this chapter.

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[38] To be consistent with the national greenhouse gas inventory reporting tables established by the IPCC, in which emissions are reported as positive values, emissions would need to be multiplied by negative one (-1).

Equation 2.4.1

Annual Carbon Stock Change in a Given Pool as an Annual Average Difference in Stocks (Stock-Difference Method)

$$\Delta C = \frac{(C_{t2} - C_{t1})}{(t_2 - t_1)}$$

Where:

ΔC = annual carbon stock change in pool (t C/yr)

C_{t1} = carbon stock in pool in at time t_1 (t C)

C_{t2} = carbon stock in pool in at time t_2 (t C)

Note: the carbon stock values for some pools may be in t C/ ha, in which case the difference in carbon stocks will need to be multiplied by an area.

Equation 2.4.2

Annual Carbon Stock Change in a Given Pool As a Function of Annual Gains and Losses (Gain-Loss Method)

$$\Delta C = \Delta C_G - \Delta C_L$$

Where:

ΔC = annual carbon stock change in pool (t C/yr)

ΔC_G = annual gain in carbon (t C/yr)

ΔC_L = annual loss of carbon (t C/yr)

The stock-difference method is suitable for estimating emissions caused by both deforestation and forest degradation, and can apply to all carbon pools.[39] The carbon stock for any pool at time t_1 will represent the carbon stock of that pool in the forest of a particular stratum (see Sections 2.2 and 2.3), and the carbon stock of that pool at time t_2 will either be zero (the Tier 1 default value for biomass and dead organic matter immediately after deforestation) or the value for the pool under the new land use (see section 2.4.5.2) or the value for the pool under the resultant degraded forest. If the carbon stock values are in units of t C/ha, the change in carbon stocks, ΔC, is then multiplied by the area deforested or degraded for that particular stratum, and then divided by the time interval to give an annual estimate.

Estimating the change in carbon stock using the gain-loss method (Equation 2.4.2) is not likely to be useful for deforestation estimating with a Tier 1 or Tier 2 method, but could be used for Tier 3 approach for biomass and dead organic matter involving detailed

[39]Although in theory the stock-difference approach could be used to estimate stock changes in both mineral soils and organic soils, this approach is unlikely to be used in practice due to the expense of measuring soil carbon stocks. The IPCC has adopted different methodologies for soil carbon, which are described below.

forest inventories and/or simulation models. However, the gain-loss method can be used for forest degradation to account for the biomass and dead organic matter pools with a Tier 2 or Tier 3 approach. Biomass gains would be accounted for with rates of growth, and biomass losses would be accounted for with data on timber harvests, fuelwood removals, and transfers to the dead organic matter pool due to disturbance. Dead organic matter gains would be accounted for with transfers from the live biomass pools and losses would be accounted for with rates of dead biomass decomposition.

2.4.5 Estimation of Emissions from Deforestation

2.4.5.1 Disturbance Matrix Documentation

Land-use conversion, particularly from forests to non-forests, can involve significant transfers of carbon among pools. The immediate impacts of land conversion on the carbon stocks for each forest stratum can be summarized in a matrix, which describes the retention, transfers, and releases of carbon in and from the pools in the original land-use due to conversion (Table 2.4.2). The level of detail on these transfers will depend on the decision of which carbon pools to include, which in turn will depend on the key category analysis (see Table 2.2.2 in Section 2.2). The disturbance matrix defines for each pool the proportion of carbon that remains in the pool and the proportions that are transferred to other pools. Use of such a matrix in carbon estimating will ensure consistency of estimating among carbon pools, as well as help to achieve higher accuracy in carbon emissions estimation. Even if all the data in the matrix are not used, the matrix can assist in estimation of uncertainties.

Table 2.4.2: Example of a disturbance matrix for the impacts of deforestation on carbon pools (Table 5.7 in the AFOLU Guidelines). Impossible transfers are blacked out. In each blank cell, the proportion of each pool on the left side of the matrix that is transferred to the pool at the top of each column is entered. Values in each row must sum to 1.

To / From	Above-ground biomass	Below-ground biomass	Dead wood	Litter	Soil organic matter	Harvested wood products	Atmo-sphere	Sum of row (must equal 1)
Aboveground biomass								
Belowground biomass								
Dead wood								
Litter								
Soil organic matter								

2.4.5.2 Changes in Carbon Stocks of Biomass

The IPCC methods for estimating the annual carbon stock change on land converted to a new land-use category include two components:

- One accounts for the initial change in carbon stocks due to the land conversion, e.g., the change in biomass stocks due to forest clearing and conversion to say cropland.
- The other component accounts, in the REDD context, only for the gradual carbon loss during a transition period to a new steady-state system.

For the biomass pools, conversion to annual cropland and settlements generally contain lower biomass and steady-state is usually reached in a shorter period (e.g., the default assumption for annual cropland is 1 year). The time period needed to reach steady state in perennial cropland (e.g., orchards) or even grasslands, however, is typically more than one year. The inclusion of this second component will likely become more important for future monitoring of the performance of REDD as countries consider moving into a Tier 3 approach and implement an annual or bi-annual monitoring system.

The initial change in biomass (live or dead) stocks due to land-use conversion is estimated using a stock-difference approach in which the difference in stocks before and after conversion is calculated for each stratum of land converted. Equation 2.4.3 (below) is the equation presented in the AFOLU Guidelines for biomass.

Equation 2.4.3

Initial Change in Biomass Carbon Stocks on Land Converted to New Land-Use Category

(Stock-Difference Type Method)

$$\Delta C_{CONV} = \sum \left[\left(B_{AFTERi} - B_{BEFOREi} \right) \cdot \Delta A_i \right] \cdot CF$$

Where:

ΔC_{CONV} =initial change in biomass carbon stocks on land converted to another land-use category (t C yr^{-1})

B_{AFTERi} =biomass stocks on land type *i* immediately after conversion (t dry matter/ha)

$B_{BEFOREi}$=biomass stocks on land type *i* before conversion (t dry matter/ha)

ΔA_i = area of land type *i* converted (ha)

CF = carbon fraction (t C /t dm)

i = stratum of land

The Tier 1 default assumption for biomass and dead organic matter stocks immediately after conversion of forests to non-forests is that they are zero, whereas the Tier 2 method allows for the biomass and dead organic matter stocks after conversion to have non-zero values. Disturbance matrices (e.g., Table 2.4.2) can be used to summarize the fate of biomass and dead organic matter stocks, and to ensure consistency among pools.

The biomass stocks immediately after conversion will depend on the amount of live biomass removed during conversion. During conversion, aboveground biomass may be removed as timber of fuelwood, burned and the carbon emitted to the atmosphere or transferred to the dead wood pool, and/or cut and left on the ground as deadwood; and belowground biomass may be transferred to the soil organic matter pool (See Ch 2.3.1.1.3). Estimates of default values for the biomass stocks on croplands and grasslands are given in the AFOLU Guidelines in Table 5.9 (croplands) and Table 6.4 (grasslands). The dead organic matter (DOM) stocks immediately after conversion will depend on the amount of live biomass killed and transferred to the DOM pools, and the amount of DOM carbon released to the atmosphere due to burning and decomposition. In general, croplands (except agroforestry systems) and settlements will have little or no dead wood and litter so the Tier 1 'after conversion' assumption for these pools may be reasonable for these land uses.

A two-component approach for biomass and DOM may not be necessary in REDD estimating. If land-use conversions are permanent, and all that one is interested in is the total change in carbon stocks, then all that is needed is the carbon stock prior to conversion, and the carbon stocks after conversion once steady state is reached. These data would be used in a stock difference method (Equation 2.4.1), with the time interval the period between land-use conversion and steady-state under the new land use.

2.4.5.3 Changes in Soil Carbon Stocks

The IPCC Tier 2 method for mineral soil organic carbon is basically a combination of a stock-difference method and a gain-loss method (Equation 2.4.4). (The first part of

Equation 2.4.4 [for $\Delta C_{Mineral}$] is essentially a stock-difference equation, while the second part [for SOC] is essentially a gain-loss method with the gains and losses derived from the product of reference carbon stocks and stock change factors). The reference carbon stock is the soil carbon stock that would have been present under native vegetation on that stratum of land, given its climate and soil type.

Equation 2.4.4

Annual Change in Organic Carbon Stocks in Mineral Soils

$$\Delta C_{Mineral} = \frac{\left(SOC_0 - SOC_{(0-T)}\right)}{D}$$

$$SOC = \sum_{C,S,i} \left(SOC_{REF_{C,S,i}} \cdot F_{LU_{C,S,i}} \cdot F_{MG_{C,S,i}} \cdot F_{I_{C,S,i}} \cdot \Delta A_{C,S,i} \right)$$

Where:

$\Delta C_{Mineral}$ = annual change in organic carbon stocks in mineral soils (t C yr^{-1})

SOC_0 = soil organic carbon stock in the last year of the inventory time period (t C)

$SOC_{(0-T)}$ = soil organic carbon stock at the beginning of the inventory time period (t C)

T = number of years over a single inventory time period (yr)

D = Time dependence of stock change factors which is the default time period for transition between equilibrium SOC values (yr). 20 years is commonly used, but depends on assumptions made in computing the factors F_{LU}, F_{MG}, and F_I. If T exceeds D, use the value for T to obtain an annual rate of change over the inventory time period (0-T years).

c represents the climate zones, *s* the soil types, and *i* the set of management systems that are present in a country

SOC_{REF} = the reference carbon stock (t C ha^{-1})

F_{LU} = stock change factor for land-use systems or sub-system for a particular land use (dimensionless)

F_{MG} = stock change factor for management regime (dimensionless)

F_I = stock change factor for input of organic matter (dimensionless)

A = land area of the stratum being estimated (ha)

The land areas in each stratum being estimated should have common biophysical conditions (i.e., climate and soil type) and management history over the inventory time period. Also disturbed forest soils can take many years to reach a new steady state (the IPCC default for conversion to cropland is 20 years).

Countries may not have sufficient country-specific data to fully implement a Tier 2 approach for mineral soils, in which case a mix of country-specific and default data may be used. Default data for reference soil organic carbon stocks can be found in Table 2.3 of the AFOLU Guidelines (see also Ch 4.4.3). Default stock change factors can be found in the land-use category chapters of the AFOLU Guidelines (Chapter 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9).

The IPCC Tier 2 method for organic soil carbon is an emission factor method that employs annual emission factor that vary by climate type and possibly by management system (Equation 2.4.5). However, empirical data from many studies on peat swamp soils in Indonesia could be used in such cases—see Box 2.3.1 (Section 2.3).

Equation 2.4.5

Annual Carbon Loss from Drained Organic Soils

$$L_{Organic} = \sum_C (A \cdot EF)_C$$

Where:

$L_{Organic}$ = annual carbon loss from drained organic soils (t C yr^{-1})

A_c = land area of drained organic soils in climate type c (ha)

EF_c = emission factor for climate type c (t C yr^{-1})

Note that land areas and emission factors can also be disaggregated by management system, if there are emissions data to support this.

This methodology can be disaggregated further into emissions by management systems in addition to climate type if appropriate emission factors are available. Default (Tier 1) emission factors for drained forest, cropland, and grassland soils are found in Tables 4.6, 5.6, and 6.3 of the AFOLU Guidelines.

2.4.6 Estimation of Emissions from Forest Degradation

2.4.6.1 Changes in Carbon Stocks

For degradation, the main changes in carbon stocks occur in the vegetation (see Table 2.2.2 in Section 2.2). As is discussed in Section 2.3, estimation of soil carbon emissions is only recommended for intensive practices that involve significant soil disturbance. Selective logging for timber or fuelwood, whether legal or illegal, in forests on mineral soil does not typically disturb soils significantly. However, selective logging of forests growing on organic soils, particularly peatswamps, could result in large emissions caused by practices such as draining to remove the logs from the forest, and then often followed by fires (see Box 2.3.1 in Section 2.3). However, in this section guidance is provided only for the emissions from biomass.

The AFOLU Guidelines recommend either a stock-difference method (Equation 2.4.1) or a gain-loss method (Equation 2.4.2) for estimating the annual carbon stock change in "Forests Remaining Forests". In general, both methods are applicable for all tiers. With a gain-loss approach for estimating emissions, biomass gains would be accounted for with rates of growth in trees after logging, and biomass losses would be accounted for with data on timber harvests, fuelwood removals, and transfers of live to the dead organic matter pool due to disturbance (also see Box 2.2.9 in Section 2.2 for more guidance on improvements for this approach). With a stock-difference approach, carbon stocks in each pool would be estimated both before and after degradation (e.g. a timber harvest), and the difference in carbon stocks in each pool calculated.

The decision regarding whether a stock-difference method or a gain-loss method is used will depend largely on the availability of existing data and resources to collect additional data. Estimating the carbon impacts of logging may lend itself more readily to the gain-loss approach, while estimating the carbon impacts of fire may lend itself more readily to the stock-difference approach. For example, in the AFOLU Guidelines, details are given for using the gain-loss method for logging. This approach could be used for all forms of biomass extraction (timber and fuelwood, legally and illegally extracted) and experience has shown that if applied correctly can produce more accurate and precise emission estimates cost effectively (see Box 2.2.9 in Section 2.2).

For Forests Remaining Forests, the Tier 1 assumption is that net carbon stock changes in DOM are zero, whereas in reality dead wood can decompose relatively slowly, even in tropical humid climates. Both logging and fires can significantly influence stocks in the dead wood and litter pools, so countries that are experiencing significant changes in their forests due to degradation are encouraged to develop domestic data to estimate the impact of these changes on dead organic matter. It is recommended that the impacts of degradation on each carbon pool for each forest stratum be summarized in a matrix as shown in Table 2.4.2 above.

2.5 METHODS FOR ESTIMATING GHG'S EMISSIONS FROM BIOMASS BURNING

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2.5.1 Scope of chapter

Chapter 2.5 is focused on fires in forest environments and how to calculate greenhouse gas emissions due to vegetation fires, using available satellite-based fire monitoring products, biomass estimates and coefficients.

Section 2.5.2 introduces emissions due to fire in forest environments and approaches to estimates emissions from fires.

Section 2.5.3 focuses on the IPCC guidelines for estimating fire-related emission.

Section 2.5.4 focuses on Systems for observing and mapping fire.

Section 2.5.5 describes the potential use of existing fire and burned area products.

2.5.2 Introduction

2.5.2.1 REDD and emissions due to fire in forest environments

Fire is a complex biophysical process with multiple direct and indirect effects on the atmosphere, the biosphere and the hydrosphere. Moreover, it is now widely recognized that, in some fire prone environments, fire disturbance is essential to maintain the ecosystem in a state of equilibrium.

Reducing the emissions from deforestation and degradation (REDD) from fire, requires an understanding of the process of fire in forest systems (either as a disturbance, a forest management tool, or as a process associated with land cover conversion) and how fire emissions are calculated. The specific details of how REDD will be implemented with respect to fire are still in development.

This chapter is therefore focused on fires in forest environments and how to calculate greenhouse gas emissions due to vegetation fires, using available satellite-based fire monitoring products, biomass estimates and coefficients.

The effects of fire in forest environments are widely variable: it is possible to refer to fire severity as a term to indicate the magnitude of the effects of the fire on the ecosystem, which in turn is strongly related to the post-fire status of the ecosystem. As a broad categorization, low severity ground fires affect mainly the understory vegetation, rather than the trees, while high severity crown fires affect directly the trees. The latter are sometimes referred to as stand replacement fires. Consequently at the broad scale, ground fires do not alter the equilibrium of the ecosystem (i.e. do not result in a conversion from forest to non forest cover), while most crown fires lead to a forest-non forest temporary transition (i.e. disturbance) or in some cases to a permanent landcover change

The issue of the definition of forest (described in detail in chapter 2.2) is a particularly sensitive one when the fire monitoring from satellite data is concerned. Within the 10 to 30 percent tree crown cover range indicated by the Marrakech Accords, most of woody savannah ecosystems might or might not be considered as forest. These are the ecosystems where most of the biomass burning occurs (Roy et al., 2008, van der Werf, 2003) and where fire contributes to maintaining the present landcover: for example high fire frequency (fire return interval of a few years) inhibits young tree growth and blocks the transition from open to closed woodland ecosystem.

Different fire management practices in different ecosystems can determine the amount of trace-gas and particulate emissions and changes the forest carbon stocks. In closed forest, controlled ground fires reduce the amount of biomass in the understory and reduce the occurrence of high severity, stand replacement fires. Conversely, in open woodland systems reducing the occurrence of fire allows tree growth with the subsequent effect of carbon sequestration. Furthermore, emission coefficients do have a seasonal variability: even assuming that fires affect the same areal extent, shifting the timing of the burning (early season versus late season) can have a significant effect on the total emissions. Early season burning when the vegetation is moist is often recommended as a good fire management practice in savanna woodlands as the fires are less damaging to the ecosystem.

The purpose of this chapter is to present and explain the IPCC guidelines, list the available sources of geographically distributed data to be used for the emissions estimation, illustrate some of the main issues and uncertainties associated with the various steps of the methodology. Drawing from the experience of GOFC-GOLD Fire Implementation Team and Regional Fire Networks, the chapter emphasizes the possible use of satellite derived products and information.

2.5.2.2 Direct and indirect approach to emission estimates

Estimates of atmospheric emissions due to biomass burning have conventionally been derived adopting 'bottom up' inventory based methods (Seiler and Crutzen, 1980) as:

$$L = A \times Mb \times Cf \times Gef \qquad \text{[}\textbf{Equation 2.5.1}\text{]}$$

where the quantity of emitted gas or particulate L [g] is the product of the area affected by fire A [m2], the fuel loading per unit area Mb [g m^{-2}], the combustion factor Cf, i.e. the proportion of biomass consumed as a result of fire [g g^{-1}], and the emission factor or emission ratio Gef, i.e. the amount of gas released for each gaseous specie per unit of biomass load consumed by the fire [g g^{-1}].

Rather than attempting to measure directly the emissions L, this method requires to estimate the pre-fire biomass (A x Mb), then estimate what portion of it burned (Cf) and finally convert the total biomass burned (A x Mb x Cf) into emissions by means of the coefficient Gef. For this reason, it is defined as an indirect method. The main issue with the indirect method is that, being L the result of the multiplication of four independent terms, their uncertainties will propagate into the uncertainty of the estimate L. As a consequence, a precise estimate of L requires a precise estimate of all the terms of equation 2.5.1.

The area burned (A) was considered as the parameter with the greatest uncertainty (Seiler and Crutzen, 1980) but in the last decade significant improvements in the systematic mapping of area burned from satellite data have been made (Roy et al. 2008). Fuel load (Mb) remains an uncertain parameter and has been variously estimated from sample field data, satellite data and models (including those partially driven by satellite data) calculating Net Primary Production to provide biomass increments and partitioning between fuel classes (Van der Werf et al., 2003). Emission factors (Gef) are largely well-determined from laboratory measurements, although aerosol emission factors and the temporal dynamics of emission factors as a function of fuel moisture content are less certain. The burning efficiency (Cf) is a function of fire condition/behavior, the relative proportions of woody, grass, and leaf litter fuels, the fuel moisture content and the uniformity of the fuel bed. Dependencies on cover type can potentially be specified by the use of satellite-derived land cover classifications or related products such as the percentage tree cover product of Hansen et al. (2002)[40], used by Korontzi et al. (2004) to distinguish grasslands and woodlands in Southern Africa. Korontzi et al. (2004) modeled a term related to Cf (combustion completeness, CC) as a weighted proportion of fuel types and emission factor database values. Roy and Landmann (2005)[41] stated that there is no direct method to estimate CC from remote sensing data, although they demonstrated a near linear relationship between the product of CC and the proportion of a satellite pixel affected by fire and the relative change in short wave infrared reflectance.

Rather than estimate A × Mb × Cf independently, a recently proposed alternative is to directly measure the power emitted by actively burning fires and from this estimate the total biomass consumed. The radiative component of the energy released by burning vegetation can be remotely sensed at mid infrared and thermal infrared wavelengths (Ichoku and Kaufman, 2005[42], Wooster et al. 2005, Smith and Wooster 2005[43]). This instantaneous measure, the Fire Radiative Power (FRP) expressed in Watts [W], has been shown to be related to the rate of consumption of biomass [g/s]. Importantly this method provides accurate (i.e. ± 15%) estimates of the rate of fuel consumed (Wooster et al 2005) and the integral of the FRP over the fire duration, the Fire Radiative Energy (FRE) expressed in Joules [J], has been shown to be linearly related to the total biomass consumed by fire [g] (Smith and Wooster, 2005, Wooster et al., 2005, Freeborn 2008[44]). However, the accuracy of the integration of FRP over time to derive FRE depends on the spatial and temporal sampling of the emitted power. Ideally, the integration requires high spatial resolution and continuous observation over time, while the currently available systems provide low spatial resolution an high temporal resolution (geostationary satellites) or moderate spatial resolution and low temporal resolution (polar orbiting systems). For this reason, direct methods have yet to transition from the research domain to operational application, and at this stage they are not a viable alternative to indirect methods for GHG inventories in the context of REDD.

[40] Hansen, M.C., DeFries R.S., Townsend, JG.R, Carroll, M., Dimiceli, C. and Sohlberg, R.A, Percent Tree Cover at a Spatial Resolution of 500 Meters: First Results of the MODIS Vegetation Continuous Field Algorithm, *Earth Interactions*, 7:1-15.

[41] Roy, D.P. and Landmann, T., (2005), Characterizing the surface heterogeneity of fire effects using multi-temporal reflective wavelength data, International Journal of Remote Sensing, 26:4197-4218

[42] Ichoku, C and Kaufman, Y., (2005), A method to derive smoke emission rates from MODIS Fire Radiative Energy Measurments, IEEE Transaction on Geosciences and Remote Sensing, 43(11), 2636-2649DOI 10.1109/TGRS.2005.857328

[43] Smith A.M.S., and Wooster, M.J., (2005), Remote classification of head and backfire types from MODIS fire radiative power observations, International Journal of Wildland Fire, 14, 249-254.

[44] Freeborn, P.H., Wooster, M.J., Hao, W.M., Ryan, C.A.,Nordgren, B.L. Baker, S.P. and Ichoku, C.(2008) Relationships between energy release, fuel mass loss, and trace gas and aerosol emissions during laboratory biomass fires, J. Geophys. Res., 113, D01102, doi:10.1029/2007JD008489

2.5.3 IPCC guidelines for estimating fire-related emission

The IPCC guidelines include the use of an indirect method for emissions estimates, and include a three tiered approach to CO2 and non-CO2 emissions from fire, Tier 1 using mostly default values for equation 2.5.1, and Tiers 2 and 3 including increasingly more site-specific formulations for fuel loads and coefficients.

Using the units adopted in the IPCC guidelines, equation 2.5.1 is written as:

$$Lfire = A \times Mb \times Cf \times Gef \times 10^{-3} \qquad [\textbf{Equation 2.5.2}]$$

where L is expressed in tonnes of each gas

A in hectares

Mb in tonnes/hectare

Cf is adimentional

Gef in grams/kilogram

The Area burned A [ha] should be characterised as a function of forest types of different climate or ecologycal zones and, within each forest type, characterised in terms of fire characteristics (crown fire, surface fire, land clearing fire, slash and burn...).

In Tier 1, emissions of CO_2 from dead organic matter are assumed to be zero in forests that are burnt, but not fully destroyed by fire. If the fire is of sufficient intensity to destroy a portion of the forest stand, under Tier 1 methodology, the carbon contained in the killed biomass is assumed to be immediately released to the atmosphere. This Tier 1 simplification may result in an overestimation of actual emissions in the year of the fire, if the amount of biomass carbon destroyed by the fire is greater than the amount of dead wood and litter carbon consumed by the fire. Non-CO_2 greenhouse gas emissions are estimated for all fire situations. Under Tier 1, non-CO_2 emissions are best estimated using the actual fuel consumption provided in AFOLU Table 2.4, and appropriate emission factors (Table 2.5) (i.e., not including newly killed biomass as a component of the fuel consumed).

For Forest Land converted to another land uses, organic matter burnt is derived from both newly felled vegetation and existing dead organic matter, and CO2 emissions should be reported. In this situation, estimates of total fuel consumed (AFOLU Table 2.4) can be used to estimate emissions of $CO_{2\ \mathrm{and}}$ non- greenhouse gases using equation 2.5.2.

In the case of Tier 1 calculations, AFOLU Tables 2.4 through 2.6 provide the all the default values of Mb [t/ha], Cf [t/t] and Gef [g/kg] to be used for each forest type according to the fire characteristics.

Tier 2 methods employ the same general approach as Tier 1 but make use of more refined country-derived emission factors and/or more refined estimates of fuel densities and combustion factors than those provided in the default tables. Tier 3 methods are more comprehensive and include considerations of the dynamics of fuels (biomass and dead organic matter).

2.5.4 Mapping fire from space

2.5.4.1 Systems for observing and mapping fire

Fire monitoring from satellites falls into three primary categories, detection of active fires, mapping of post fire burned areas (fire scars) and fire characterization (e.g. fire severity, energy released). For the purposes of emission estimation we are primarily interested in the latter two categories. Nonetheless, the detection of active fires may be useful in terms of assessing fire history and the effectiveness of fire exclusion. Satellite data can contribute to early warning systems for fire (providing information on vegetation type and condition) which can then be used to better manage fire but this aspect is not addressed in this chapter.

Satellite systems for Earth Observation are currently providing data with a wide range of spatial resolutions. Using the common terminology, the resolution can be classified as:

- Fine or Hyperspatial (1-10 meter pixel size). Examples: Ikonos, Quick Bird
- Moderate or High Resolution[45]: pixel size from 10 to 100 meters. Example: SPOT, Landsat, CBERS
- Coarse resolution: pixel size over 100 meters. Examples: MODIS, MERIS, SPOT-VGT, AVHRR.

While in principle only hyperspatial and high resolution data can provide the sub-hectare mapping required for REDD, the tradeoffs between spatial, radiometric, spectral and temporal resolution of satellite systems need to be taken into account. Higher resolution images have a low temporal resolution (15-20 days in the case of Landsat-class sensors) and non-systematic acquisition (especially the hyperspatial sensors). Combined with missing data from these optical systems due to cloud cover, the data availability is, in most if not all circumstance, inadequate to monitor an inherently multi-temporal phenomenon like fire. The recent availability of IRS AWiFS data with 3-5 acquisitions each month at c. 60m resolution, raises the possibility of increased temporal resolution at moderate/high resolution.

Moreover, for technological and commercial reasons hyperspatial sensors acquire data almost exclusively in the visible and near infrared wavelengths, and do not have the spectral bands required for adequate fire mapping and characterization.

Moreover, for technological and commercial reasons hyperspatial sensors acquire data almost exclusively in the visible and near infrared wavelengths, and do not have the spectral bands required for mapping active fires and burned areas (e.g. thermal and shortwave infrared) and for their characterization (i.e. middle- infrared) .

Conversely, coarse resolution systems do not have the spatial resolution require for sub-hectare mapping (as an example, a single nadir pixel from MODIS covers 6.25 to 100 ha depending on the band), but their daily temporal resolution and multispectral capabilities have allowed in recent years the development of several fire-related global, multiannual products.

While these products might not immediately satisfy the requirements for compiling detailed emission inventories, they are a valuable source of information particularly for

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[45] Traditionally Landsat and SPOT data have been referred to as 'high' spatial resolution. The use of the term moderate resolution to include Landsat class observation is a relatively new development but is not common in the literature.

large areas and can be integrated with higher resolution data to produce burned area maps at the desired resolution. Section 2.5.3.4 describes possible strategies for the combined use of moderate resolution products and high resolution imagery.

2.5.4.2 Available Fire Related Products

Table 2.5.1: List of operational and systematic continental and global active fire and burned area monitoring systems, derived from satellite data.

Satellite-based fire monitoring	Information and data access
Global burnt areas 2000-2007: L3JRC (EC Joint Research Center)	http://www-tem.jrc.it/Disturbance_by_fire/products/burnt_areas/GlobalBurntAreas2000-2007.htm
MODIS active fires and burned areas (University of Maryland /NASA)	http://modis-fire.umd.edu
FIRMS: Fire Information for Resource Management System (University of Maryland /NASA/UN FAO)	http://maps.geog.umd.edu/firms
Globcarbon products (ESA)	http://www.fao.org/gtos/tcopjs4.html
World Fire Atlas (ESA)	http://dup.esrin.esa.int/ionia/wfa/index.asp
Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED2) - multi-year burned area and emissions By NASA	http://ess1.ess.uci.edu/%7Ejranders/data/GFED2/
TRMM VIRS fire product (NASA)	http://daac.gsfc.nasa.gov/precipitation/trmmVirsFire.shtml
Meteosat Second Generation SEVIRI fire monitoring (EUMETSAT)	http://www.eumetsat.int/Home/Main/Access_to_Data/Meteosat_Meteorological_Products/Product_List/index.htm#FIR
Experimental Wildfire Automated Biomass Burning Algorithm: GOES WF-ABBA (University of Wisconsin-Madison / NOAA)	http://cimss.ssec.wisc.edu/goes/burn/wfabba.html

All the products of table 2.5.1 are derived from coarse resolution systems, either in polar or geostationary orbit. Polar-orbiting satellites have the advantage of global coverage and typically higher spatial resolution (currently 250 m - 1km). Multi-year global active fire data records have been generated from the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), the Along-Track Scanning Radiometer (ATSR), and the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS). The heritage AVHRR and ATSR sensors were not designed for active fire monitoring and therefore provide less accurate detection. MODIS and the future AVHRR follow-on VIIRS (Visible Infrared Imager Radiometer Suite) have dedicated bands for fire monitoring. These sensors, flown on sun-synchronous satellite platforms provide only a few daily snapshots of fire activity at about the same local time each day, sampling the diurnal cycle of fire activity. The VIRS (Visible and Infrared Scanner) on the sun-asynchronous TRMM (Tropical Rainfall

Measuring Mission) satellite covers the entire diurnal cycle but with a longer revisiting time.

Geostationary satellites allow for active fire monitoring at a higher temporal frequency (15-30 minutes) on a hemispheric basis, but typically at coarser spatial resolution (approx 2-4 km). Regional active fire products exist based on data from the Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite (GOES) and METEOSAT Second Generation (MSG) Spinning Enhanced Visible and Infrared Imager (SEVIRI). A major international effort is being undertaken by GOFC-GOLD to develop a global system of geostationary fire monitoring that will combine data from a number of additional operational sensors to provide near-global coverage.

Several global burned area products exist for specific years and a number of multi-year burned area products have been recently released (MODIS, L3JRC, GLOBCARBON) based on coarse resolution satellite data. The only long term burned area dataset currently available (GFED2) is partly based on active fire detections. Direct estimating of carbon emissions from these active fire detections or burned area has improved recently, with the use of biogeochemical models, but yet fails to capture fine-scale fire processes due to coarse resolution of the models.

The potential research, policy and management applications of satellite products place a high priority on providing statements about their accuracy (Morisette et al. 2006), and this applies to fire related products, if used in the REDD context. Inter-comparison of products made with different satellite data and/or algorithms provide an indication of gross differences and possibly insights into the reasons for the differences. However product comparison with independent reference data is needed to determine accuracy (Justice et al. 2000)[46]. While all the main active fire and burned area products have been partially validated with independent data, systematic, global scale, multiannual validation and systematic reporting have yet to be achieved.

2.5.4.3 Active Fire versus Burned Area products

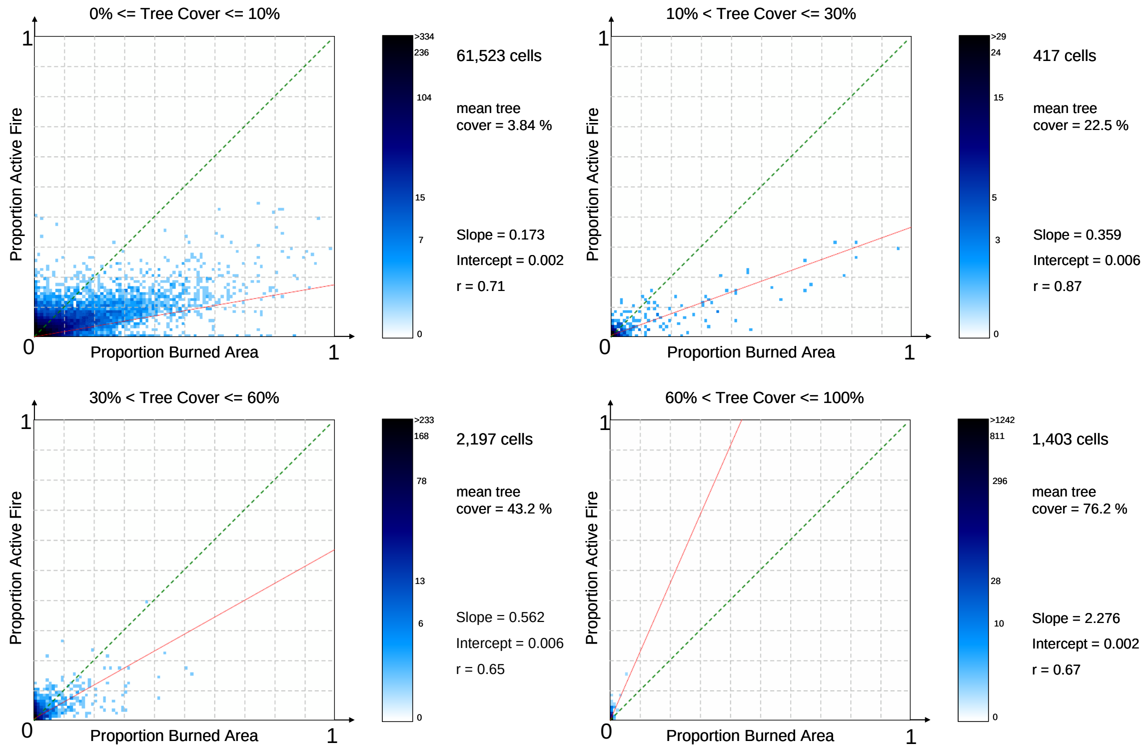
Active fire products provide the location of all fires actively burning at the overpass time. The short persistence of the signal of active fires means that active fires products are very sensitive to the daily dynamics of biomass burning, and that in situations where the fire front moves quickly, there will be an under-sampling of fire dynamics. Based on the physical characteristics of the sensor, on the characteristics of the fire and on the algorithm used for the detection, a minimum fire size is required to trigger detection. This size is orders of magnitude smaller than the pixel size: as an example, for the MODIS active fire product (Giglio et al, 2003) fires covering around $100m^2$ within the $1km^2$ pixel have a 90% probability of detection in temperate deciduous forest.

Conversely, burned area products generally require that a significant portion of the pixel (in the order of half of the pixel) is burned to lead to detection. In some cases this causes a significant underestimation by burned area products, especially in forests, where fires due to clearings and deforestation are smaller than the pixel size of coarse resolution systems. In many of these cases, fires resulting in burned areas too small for detection are large enough to be detected by active fire products. In all cases, users should not use active fires detections directly in area calculations without proper calibration, because the area affected by the fire can be significantly smaller than the pixel size.

[46] Justice, C.O., Belward, A., Morisette, J., Lewis, P., Privette, J., Baret, F., (2000), Developments in the 'validation' of satellite sensor products for the study of land surface. International Journal of Remote Sensing, 21, 3383-3390.

The systematic comparison of Active Fires and Burned Area products (Roy et al., 2008, Tansey et al., 2008[47]) shows that, depending on the type of environment, the ratio between the number of active fire detections and burned area detections changes significantly, with more burned area detections in grasslands, savannas and open woodlands, and more active fire detections than burned area detections in closed forest ecosystems.

Figure 2.5.1: Scatter plots of the monthly proportions of 40x40km cells labeled as burned by the 1km active fire detections plotted against the proportion labeled as burned by the 500m burned area product, for four tree cover class ranges, globally, period July 2001 to June 2002. Only cells with at least 90% of their area meeting these tree cover range criteria and containing some proportion burned in either the active fire or the monthly burned area products are plotted. The Theil-Sen regression line is plotted in red; the white-blue logarithmic color scale illustrates the frequency of cells having the same specific x and y axis proportion values (Source: Roy et al, 2008)



Fort their physical nature, ground fires generally cannot be detected by burned area algorithms. If the crown of the trees in not affected, in closed forest the change in reflectance as detected by the satellite is not large enough to be detected. Active fire detection algorithms rely instead on the thermal signal due to the energy released by the fire and can detect ground fires.

Standard active fire products are generally available within 24 hours of satellite overpass. Some satellite-based fire monitoring systems, including those based on the

[47] Tansey, K.J., Beston, J, Hoscilo, A., Page, S.E. and Paredes Hernandez, C.U., (2008), Relationship between MODIS fire hot spot count and burned area in a degraded tropical forest swamp forest in Central Kalimantan, Indonesia, Journal of Geophysical Research, 113(D23112), doi:10.1029/2008JD010717

processing of direct readout data provide near-real time information. For example, the Fire Information for Resource Management System (FIRMS), in collaboration with MODIS Rapid Response uses data transmitted by the MODIS instrument on board NASA's Terra and Aqua satellites available within two hours of acquisition (Davies et al. 2009). These data are processed to produce maps, images and text files, including 'fire email alerts' pertaining to active fire locations to notify protected area, and natural resource managers of fires in their area of interest.

Burned area products are instead available with days or weeks after the fire event, because the detection is generally performed using a time series of pre-fire and post-fire data.

2.5.5 Using existing products

Fire is often associated with forest cover change (deforestation, forest degradation) either through deliberate human clearing or wildfire events. As has been described above, satellite data can be used to detect forest fires and map the resulting burned area.

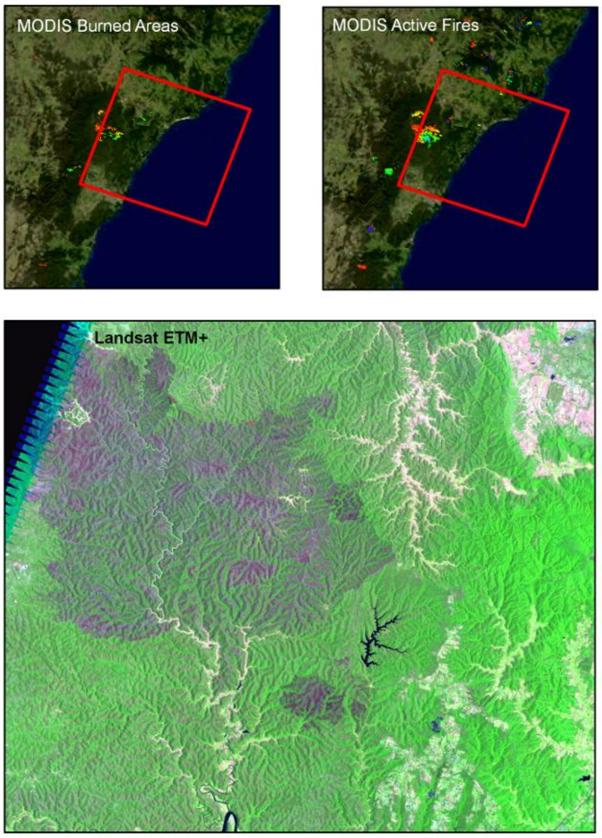
The computation of the total emissions using the indirect approach of Equation 2.5.1 requires burned area maps at a spatial resolution which is not currently provided by any of the automatic systems of table 2.5.1. Furthermore, the areas burned must be characterised in tems of fire behaviour (ground fires, crown fires) and in terms of land use change (fires in forest remaining forest, fires related to deforestation). This information is also not routinely available as ancillary information of the systematic global and continental products.

On the other hand, systems of the Landsat class - or higher resolution - do provide the required spatial resolution, but there are currently no systematic products using those data, and issues related to data availability (satellite overpass, cloudiness, receiving stations) make it unrealistic, at the current stage, to envision such automatic issues, set aside the computational requirement of systematically process high resolution data, even at country level.

The most promising avenue for producing burned area information with the required characteristics for GHG emission computation would be instead the integrated use of high resolution imagery and coarse resolution systematic products. The opening of the Landsat archive free of charge, and the expanding network of receiving stations of free data like CBERS make it possible to use extensively high resolution data for refining the coarse resolution fire information available, also free of charge, as part of the systematic products.

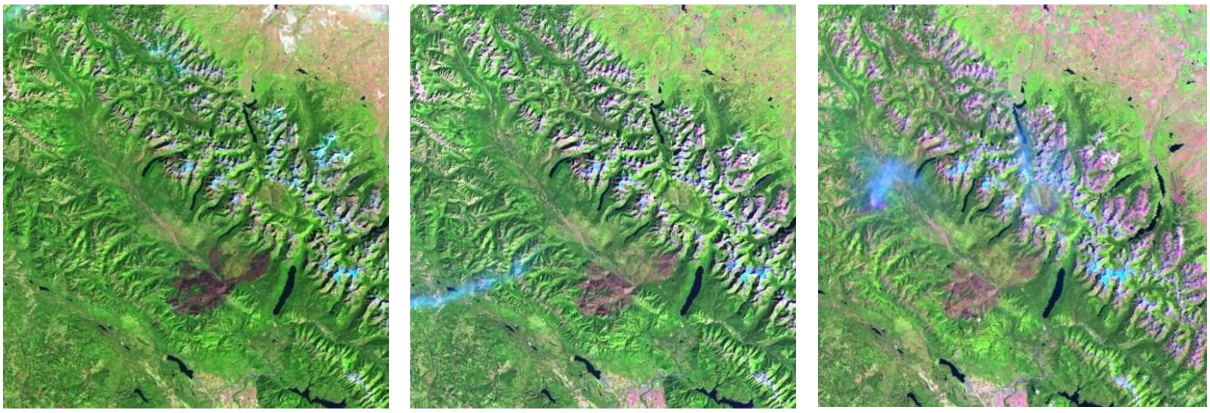
The coarse resolution products can be used for the systematic monitoring of fire activity at national scale: when active fires and burned areas are detected in areas of potential interest for deforestation or for forest degradation, they could be complemented by acquiring moderate and high resolution imagery covering the spatial extent and the exact time period of the burning. Through visual interpretation of the moderate and high resolution data, and using the coarse resolution products as ancillary datasets, it is possible to produce in a timely and cost effective manner the high resolution burned area maps required by Equation 2.5.1. (figure 2.5.2)

Figure 2.5.2: **Large fire in an open Eucalyptus forest in South East Australia, October 2002.** The ground fire is only partially detected by the coarse/moderate resolution MODIS products (top row). On the basis of the information given by such products it is possible to select the time and location for higher resolution imagery (Landsat ETM+ data, bottom row) that allows mapping burned area with c. 0.1 ha spatial resolution.



Furthermore, monitoring with higher resolution imagery over time the location of fire detections if the fire led to land cover change (forest degradation, stand replacement) and if land use change occurred after the fire (e.g. conversion to agriculture) (figure 2.5.3).

Figure 2.5.3: Multitemporal Landsat TM/ETM+ imagery of a forest fire in Western Montana, USA. The first image (left) is acquired shortly after the fire, and the other two at one year intervals. The inspection of multitemporal imagery after the fire allows monitoring whether land cover and land use changes occur after the fire.



Year 2001 **Year 2002** **Year 2003**

2.5.6 Key references for Section 2.5

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2.6 UNCERTAINTIES

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2.6.1 Scope of chapter

Uncertainty is an unavoidable attribute of practically any type of data including area and carbon stock estimates in the REDD context. Identification of the sources and quantification of the magnitude of uncertainty will help to better understand the contribution of each parameter to the overall accuracy and precision of the REDD estimates, and to prioritize efforts for their further development.

The proper manner of dealing with uncertainty is fundamental in the IPCC and UNFCCC contexts: The IPCC defines inventories consistent with good practice as those which contain neither over- nor underestimates so far as can be judged, and in which uncertainties are reduced as far as practicable.

In the accounting context, information on uncertainty can be used to develop conservative REDD estimates[48]. This principle has been included in the REDD negotiating text which emphasizes the need "to deal with uncertainties in estimates aiming to ensure that reductions in emissions or increases in removals are not over-estimated"[49].

Building on the IPCC Guidance, this section aims to provide some basic elements for a correct estimation on uncertainties. After a brief explanation of general concepts (Section 2.6.2), some key aspects linked to the quantification of uncertainties are illustrated for both area and carbon stocks (Section 2.6.3). The section concludes with the methods available for combining uncertainties (Section 2.6.4) and with the standard reporting and documentation requirements (Section 2.6.5).

2.6.2 General concepts

The most important concepts needed for estimation of uncertainties are explained below.

Bias is a systematic error, which can occur, e.g. due to flaws in the measurements or sampling methods or due to the use of an emission factor which is not suitable for the case to which it is applied. Bias means lack of accuracy.

Accuracy is the agreement between the true value and repeated measured observations or estimations of a quantity. Accuracy means lack of bias.

Random error describes the random variation above or below a mean value, and is inversely proportional to precision. Random error cannot be fully avoided, but can be reduced by, for example, increasing the sample size.

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[48] See Section 4.4 How to deal with uncertainties: the conservativeness approach

[49] FCCC/SBSTA/2008/L.12

Precision illustrates the level of agreement among repeated measurements of the same quantity. This is represented by how closely grouped the results from the various sampling points or plots are. Precision is inversely proportional to random error.

Uncertainty means the lack of knowledge of the true value of a variable, including both bias and random error. Thus uncertainty depends on the state of knowledge of the analyst, which depends, e.g., on the quality and quantity of data available and on the knowledge of underlying processes. Uncertainty can be expressed as a percentage confidence interval relative to the mean value. For example, if the area of forest land converted to cropland (mean value) is 100 ha, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from 90 to 110 ha, we can say that the uncertainty in the area estimate is ±10%.

Confidence interval is a range that encloses the true value of an unknown parameter with a specified confidence (probability). In the context of estimation of emissions and removals under the UNFCCC, a 95% confidence interval is normally used. The 95 percent confidence interval has a 95 percent probability of enclosing the true but unknown value of the parameter. The 95 percent confidence interval is enclosed by the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles of the probability density function.

Correlation means dependency between parameters. It can be described with Pearson correlation coefficient which assumes values between [-1, +1]. Correlation coefficient of +1 presents a perfect positive correlation, which can occur for example when the same emission factor is used for different years. In the case the variables are independent of each other, the correlation coefficient is 0.

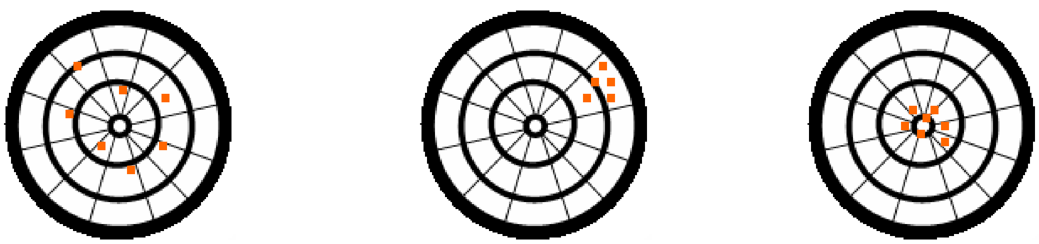
Trend describes the change of emissions or removals between two points in time. In the REDD context, the trend will likely be more important that the absolute values.

Trend uncertainty describes the uncertainty in the change of emissions or removals (i.e. trend). Trend uncertainty is sensitive to the correlation between parameters used to estimate emissions or removals in the two years. Trend uncertainty is expressed as percentage points. For example, if the trend is +5% and the 95% confidence interval of the trend is +3 to +7%, we can say that trend uncertainty is ±2% points.

The above mentioned concepts of bias, accuracy, random error and precision can be illustrated by an analogy with bull's eye on a target. In this analogy, how tightly the darts are grouped is the precision, how close they are to the center is the accuracy. Below in Figure 2.6.1 (A), the points are close to the center and are therefore accurate (lacking bias) but they are widely spaced and therefore are imprecise. In (B), the points are closely grouped and therefore are precise (lacking random error) and but are far from the center and so are inaccurate (i.e biased). Finally, in (C), the points are close to the center and tightly grouped and are both accurate and precise.

Figure 2.6.1: Illustration of the concepts of accuracy and precision.

(A) Accurate but not precise (B) Precise but not accurate (C) Accurate and precise



2.6.3 Quantification of uncertainties

The first step in an uncertainty analysis is to identify the potential sources of uncertainty. These can be, for example, measurement errors due to human errors or errors in calibration; modeling errors due to inability of the model to fully describe the phenomenon; sampling errors due to too small or unrepresentative sample; or definitions or classifications which are erroneously used leading to double-counting or non-counting.

2.6.3.1 Uncertainties in area estimates

One way of estimating the activity data (i.e. area of a land category) is simply to report the area as indicated on the map derived from remote sensing. While this approach is common, it fails to recognize that maps derived from remote sensing contain classification errors. There are many factors that contribute to errors in remote sensing maps, and they are discussed below. A suitable approach is to assess the accuracy of the map and use the results of the accuracy assessment to adjust the area estimates. Such an approach accounts for the biases found in the map and allows for improved area estimates. Most image classification methods have parameters that can be tuned to get a reasonable amount of pixels in each class. A good tuning reduces the bias, but has a certain degree of subjectivity. Assessing the margin for subjectivity is a necessary task.

An accuracy assessment using a sample of higher quality data should be an integral part of any national monitoring and accounting system. If the sample for the higher quality data is statistically rigorous (e.g.: random, stratified, systematic), a calibration estimator (or similar) gives better results than the original survey. Chapter 5 of IPCC Good Practice Guidance 2003 provides some recommendations and emphasizes that they should be quantified and reduced as far as practicable.

For the case of using remote sensing to derive land change activity data, the accuracy assessment should lead to a quantitative description of the uncertainty of the area for land categories and the associated change in area observed. This may entail category specific thematic accuracy measures, confidence intervals for the area estimates, or an adjustment of the initial area statistics considering known and quantified biases to provide the best estimate. Deriving statistically robust and quantitative assessment of uncertainties is a substantial task and should be an ultimate objective. Any validation should be approached as a process using “best efforts” and “continuous improvement”, while working towards a complete and statistically robust uncertainty assessment that may only be achieved in the future.

2.6.3.1.1 Sources of error

Different components of the monitoring system affect the quality of the outcomes. They include:

- the quality and suitability of the satellite data (i.e. in terms of spatial, spectral, and temporal resolution),
- the interoperability of different sensors or sensor generations
- the radiometric and geometric preprocessing (i.e. correct geolocation),
- the cartographic and thematic standards (i.e. land category definitions and MMU)
- the interpretation procedure (i.e. classification algorithm or visual interpretation)

- the post-processing of the map products (i.e. dealing with no data values, conversions, integration with different data formats, e.g. vector versus raster), and
- the availability of reference data (e.g. ground truth data) for evaluation and calibration of the system

Given the experiences from a variety of large-scale land cover monitoring systems, many of these error sources can be properly addressed during the monitoring process using widely accepted data and approaches:

- Suitable data characteristics: Landsat-type data, for example, have been proven useful for national-scale land cover and land cover change assessments for minimal mapping units (MMU's) of about 1 ha. Temporal inconsistencies from seasonal variations that may lead to false change (phenology), and different illumination and atmospheric conditions can be reduced in the image selection process by using same-season images or, where available, applying two images for each time step.
- Data quality: Suitable preprocessing quality for most regions is provided by some satellite data providers (i.e. global Landsat Geocover). Geolocation and spectral quality should be checked with available datasets, and related corrections are mandatory when satellite sensors with no or low geometric and radiometric processing levels are used.
- Consistent and transparent mapping: The same cartographic and thematic standards (i. definitions), and accepted interpretation methods should be applied in a transparent manner using expert interpreters to derive the best national estimates. Providing the initial data, intermediate data products, a documentation of all processing steps interpretation keys and training data along with the final maps and estimates supports a transparent consideration of the monitoring framework applied. Consistent mapping also includes a proper treatment of areas with no data (ie. from constraints due to cloud cover).

Considering the application of suitable satellite data and internationally agreed, consistent and transparent monitoring approaches, the accuracy assessment should focus on providing measures of thematic accuracy.

2.6.3.1.2 Accuracy assessment, area estimation of land cover change

Community consensus methods exist for assessing the accuracy of remote sensing-derived (singe-date) land cover maps. The techniques include assessing the accuracy of a map based on independent reference data, and measures such as overall accuracy, errors of omission (error of excluding an area from a category to which it does truly belongs, i.e. area underestimation) and commission (error of including an area in a category to which it does not truly belong, i.e. area overestimation) by land cover class, or errors analyzed by region, and fuzzy accuracy (probability of class membership), all of which may be estimated by statistical sampling.

While the same basic methods used for accuracy assessment of land cover can and should be applied in the context of land cover change, it should be noted that there are additional considerations. It is usually more complicated to obtain suitable, multi-temporal reference data of higher quality to use as the basis of the accuracy assessment; in particular for historical times frames. It is easier to assess land cover change errors of commission by examining areas that are identified as having changed. Because the change classes are often small proportions of landscapes and often concentrated in limited geographic areas, it is more difficult to assess errors of omission within the large area identified as unchanged. Errors in geo-location of multi-temporal datasets, inconsistent processing and analysis, and any inconsistencies in cartographic and thematic standards are exaggerated in change assessments. The lowest quality of available satellite imagery will determine the accuracy of change results. Perhaps, land cover change is ultimately related to the accuracy of forest/non-forest condition at both the beginning and end of satellite data analysis. However, in the case of using two single date maps to derive land cover change, their individual thematic error is multiplicative when used in combination if it may be assumed that the errors of one map are independent of errors in the other map (Fuller et al. 2003). Van Oort (2007) describes a method for computing an upper bound for change accuracy from accuracy of the single date maps but without assuming independence of errors at the two dates. These problems are known and have been addressed in studies successfully demonstrating accuracy assessments for land cover change (Lowell, 2001, Stehman et al., 2003). It should also be noted, that rather than compare independently produced maps from different dates to find change, it is almost always preferable to combine multiple dates of satellite imagery into a single analysis that identifies change directly. This subtle point is significant, as change is more reliably identified in the multi-date image data than through comparison of maps derived from individual dates of imagery.

2.6.3.1.3 Implementation elements for a robust accuracy assessment

For robust accuracy assessment of either land cover or land cover change, there are three principal steps for a statistically rigorous validation: sampling design, response design, and analysis design. An overview of these elements of an accuracy assessment are provided below, and full details of the community consensus "best practices" for these steps are provided in Strahler et al. (2006).

<u>Sample design</u>

The sampling design is a protocol for selecting the locations at which the reference data are obtained. A probability sampling design is the preferred approach and typically combines either simple random or systematic sampling with cluster sampling (depending on the spatial correlation and the cost of the observations). Estimators should be constructed following the principle of consistent estimation, and the sampling strategy should produce accuracy estimators with adequate precision. The sampling design protocol includes specification of the sample size, sample locations and the reference assessment units (i.e. pixels or image blocks). Stratification should be applied in case of rare classes (i.e. for change categories) and to reflect and account for relevant gradients (i.e. ecoregions) or known factors influencing the accuracy of the mapping process.

Systematic sampling with a random starting point is generally more efficient than simple random sampling and is also more traceable. Sampling errors can be quantified with standard statistical formulas, although unbiased variance estimation is not possible for systematic sampling and conservative variance approximations are typically implemented (i.e. conservative in the sense that the estimated variance is higher than the actual variance). Non-sampling or "measurement" errors are more difficult to assess and require cross-checking actions (supervision on a sub-sample etc.).

<u>Response design</u>

The response design consists of the protocols used to determine the reference or ground condition label (or labels) and the definition of agreement for comparing the map label(s) to the reference label(s). Reference information should come from data of higher quality, i.e. ground observations or higher-resolution satellite data. Consistency and compatibility in thematic definitions and interpretation is required to compare reference and map data.

<u>Analysis design</u>

The analysis design includes estimation formulas and analysis procedures for accuracy reporting. A suite of statistical estimates are provided from comparing reference and map data. Common approaches are error matrices, class specific accuracies (of commission and omission error), and associated variances and confidence intervals.

2.6.3.1.4 Use of Accuracy Assessment Results for Area Estimation

As indicated above, all maps derived from remote sensing include errors, and it is the role of the accuracy assessment to characterize the frequency of errors for each class. Each class may have errors of both omission and commission, and in most situations the errors of omission and commission for a class are not equal. It is possible to use this information on bias in the map to adjust area estimates and also to estimate the uncertainties (confidence intervals) for the areas for each class. Adjusting area estimates on the basis of a rigorous accuracy assessment represents an improvement over simply reporting the areas of classes as indicated in the map. Since areas of land cover change are significant drivers of emissions, providing the best possible estimates of these areas are critical.

A number of methods for using the results of accuracy assessments exist in the literature and from a practical perspective the differences among them are not substantial. One relatively simple yet robust approach is provided by Card (1982). This approach is viable when the accuracy assessment sample design is either simple random or stratified random. It is relatively easy to use and provides the equations for estimating confidence intervals for the area estimates, a useful explicit characterization of one of the key elements of uncertainty in estimates of GHG emissions.

2.6.3.1.5 Considerations for implementation and reporting

The rigorous techniques described in the previous section heavily rely on probability sampling designs and the availability of suitable reference data. Although a national monitoring system has to aim for robust uncertainty estimation, a statistical approach may not be achievable or practicable, in particular for monitoring historical land changes (i.e. deforestation between 1990-2000) or in many developing countries.

In the early stages of developing a national monitoring system, the verification efforts should help to build confidence in the approach. Growing experiences (i.e. improving knowledge of source and significance of potential errors), ongoing technical developments, and evolving national capacities will provide continuous improvements and, thus, successively reduce the uncertainty in the land cover and land-cover change area estimates. The monitoring should work backwards from a most recent reference point to use the highest quality data first and allow for progressive improvement in methods. More reference data are usually available for more recent time periods. If no thorough accuracy assessment is possible or practicable, it is recommended to apply the best suitable mapping method in a transparent manner. At a minimum, a consistency assessment (i.e. reinterpretation of small samples in an independent manner by regional experts) should allow some estimation of the quality of the observed land change. In this case of lacking reference data for land cover change, validating single date maps usually helps to provide confidence in the change estimates.

Information obtained without a proper statistical sample design can be useful in understanding the basic error structure of the map and help to build confidence in the estimates generated. Such information includes:

- Spatially-distributed confidence values provided by the interpretation or classification algorithms itself. This may include a simple method by withholding a sample of training observations from the classification process and then using those observations as reference data. While the outcome is not free of bias, the outcomes can indicate the relative magnitude of the different kinds of errors likely to be found in the map.

- Systematic qualitative examinations of the map and comparisons (both qualitative and quantitative) with other maps and data sources,
- Systematic review and judgments by local and regional experts,
- Comparisons with non-spatial and statistical data.

Any uncertainty bound should be treated conservatively, in order to avoid a benefit for the country (e.g. an overestimation of sinks or underestimation of emissions) based on highly uncertain data.

For future periods, a statistically robust accuracy assessment should be planned from the start and included in the cost and time budgets. Such an effort would need to be based on a probability sample, using suitable data of higher quality, and transparent reporting of uncertainties. More detailed and agreed technical guidelines for this purpose can be provided by the technical community.

2.6.3.2 Uncertainties in C stocks

Assessing uncertainties in the estimates of C stocks, and consequently of C stocks changes (i.e. the emission factor), can be more challenging than estimating uncertainties of the area and area changes (i.e. the activity data). This is particularly true for tropical forests, often characterized by a high degree of spatial variability and thus requiring resources to sample adequately to arrive at accurate and precise estimates of the C stocks in a given pool. Furthermore, whereas assessing separately random and systematic errors appears feasible for the activity data, it is far more difficult for the emission factor. Here we will briefly focus on the main potential sources of systematic errors, as these are likely the main sources of uncertainty in C stocks at national scale.

There are at least two important— and often unaccounted for —systematic errors that may increase the uncertainty of the emission factor. The first is related to completeness, i.e. which carbon pools are included. In this context, it is important to assess which pool is relevant for the purpose of REDD. To this aim, the concepts of “key categories” and “conservativeness” could greatly help in deciding which pool is worth to be measured, and at which level of accuracy it should be measured. The key category analysis as suggested by the IPCC (see section 2.2.4.1.1) allows identifying which pools in a given country are important or not. For example, depending on the organic carbon content of soil and the fate of the deforested land (converted to annual croplands or to perennial grasses) the soil may or may not be a significant source of GHG emissions (see section 2.3 for further discussion). If the pool is significant, higher tiers methods (i.e. tier 2 or 3) should be used for estimating emissions, otherwise tier 1 may be enough. Furthermore, in some cases, neglecting soil carbon will cause a REDD estimate to be not complete, but nevertheless conservative (see section 4.4.1 for further discussion). Although conservativeness is, strictly speaking, an accounting concept, its consideration during the estimation phase may help in allocating resources in a cost-effective way.

The second potential source of systematic error is related to the representativeness of a particular estimate for a carbon pool. For example, the aboveground biomass of the forests in the deforested areas may be significantly different than country or ecosystem averaged values. Accurate estimates of carbon flux require not average values over large regions, but the biomass of the forests actually deforested and logged. However, once again, using sound statistical sampling methods, a country can design a plan to sample the forests undergoing or likely to undergo deforestation and degradation (see section 2.2).

2.6.3.3 Identifying correlations

Correlation means dependency between parameters used in calculation as explained in section 2.6.2. Correlation can occur either between categories (for example the same emission factor used for different categories) or between years (e.g. same emission factor used for different years, or the same method with known bias used for area estimate in different years).

Regarding the correlation between different years, no correlation is typically assumed for activity data. For the emission factor, it depends on whether the same value of C stock change for the most disaggregated reported level is used across years or not: if different values are used, no correlation would be considered; by contrast, if the same emission factor is used (i.e. the same carbon stock change for the same type of conversion in different years) a perfect positive correlation would result. The latter case represents the basic assumption given by the IPCC (IPCC 2006) and by most LULUCF uncertainty analyses of Annex I parties (Monni et al 2007). If the REDD mechanism will foresee a comparison between emissions in different periods, i.e. between a reference emission level (totally or partially based on historical emissions from deforestation) and the emissions in the assessment period, a high or full correlation of C stock changes between periods could be a likely situation for most countries[50].

When the uncertainties are estimated for area and carbon stock change, potential correlations also have to be identified so that they can be dealt with when combining uncertainties. If Tier 1 method is used for combining uncertainties (i.e. "error propagation", see later), a qualitative judgment is needed whether correlations exist between years and categories. The correlations between years (in both area and carbon stock estimates) can be dealt with the equations of Tier 1 method. If correlations are identified between categories, it is good practice to aggregate the categories in a manner that correlations become less important (e.g. to sum up all the categories using the same EF before carrying out the uncertainty analysis). If a Tier 2 method is used for combining uncertainties (i.e. "Monte Carlo", see later), the correlations can be explicitly modeled.

2.6.3.4 Combining uncertainties

The uncertainties in individual parameters of can be combined using either (1) error propagation (IPCC Tier 1) or (2) Monte Carlo simulation (IPCC Tier 2). In both methods uncertainties can be combined regarding the level of emissions or removals (i.e. emissions or removals in a specific year) or trend of emissions or removals (i.e. change of emissions or removals between the two years).

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[50] The basic IPCC assumption of full correlation of emission factors uncertainties between years can be considered likely in the case of emissions from deforestation, primarily because, in many cases, no reliable data on C stock changes of past deforested areas exist in tropical countries. In other words, for each disaggregated reported level (e.g. tropical rain forest converted to cropland), it is likely that the same emission factor will be used both in the historical and in the assessment periods. However, a different situation may occur for forest degradation: in this case, the correlation will ultimately depend on how emissions are calculated, and potential correlations should be carefully examined.

Tier 1 method is based on simple error propagation, and cannot therefore handle all kinds of uncertainty estimates. The key assumptions of Tier 1 method are:

- estimation of emissions and removals is based on addition, subtraction and multiplication
- there are no correlations across categories (or if there is, the categories are aggregated in a manner that the correlations become unimportant)
- none of the parameters has an uncertainty higher than about ±60%
- uncertainties are symmetric and follow normal distribution
- relative ranges of uncertainty in the emission factors and area estimates are the same in years 1 and 2

However, even in the case that not all of the conditions are fulfilled, the method can be used to obtain approximate results. In the case of asymmetric distributions, the uncertainty bound the absolute value of which is higher should be used in the calculation.

Tier 2 method, instead, is based on Monte Carlo simulation, which is able to deal with any kind of models, correlations and distribution. However, application of Tier 2 method requires more resources than that of Tier 1.

<u>Tier 1 level assessment</u>

Error propagation is based on two equations: one for multiplication and one for addition and subtraction. Equation to be used in case of multiplication is (Equation 2.6.1):

$$U_{total} = \sqrt{U_1^2 + U_2^2 + ... + U_n^2}$$

Where:

Ui = percentage uncertainty associated with each of the parameters

Utotal = the percentage uncertainty in the product of the parameters

Box 2.6.1 shows on example of the use of equation 2.6.1.

Box 2.6.1: Example of the use of Tier 1 method that combines uncertainty in area change and on the carbon stock (multiplication)

	Mean value	Uncertainty (% of the mean)
Area change (ha)	**10827**	**8**
Carbon stock (t C/ha)	**148**	**15**

Thus the total carbon stock loss over the stratum is:

10,827 ha* 148 tC/ha= 1,602,396 t C

And the uncertainty = $\sqrt{8^2 + 15^2} = \pm 17\%$

In the case of addition and subtraction, for example when carbon stocks are summed up, the following equation will be applied (Equation 2.6.2):

$$U_{total} = \frac{\sqrt{(U_1 * x_1)^2 + (U_2 * x_2)^2 \ldots (U_n * x_n)^2}}{|x_1 + x_2 \ldots + x_n|}$$

Where:

U_i = percentage uncertainty associated with each of the parameters

x_i = the value of the parameter

U_{total} = the percentage uncertainty in the sum of the parameters

An example on the use of Equation 2.6.2 is presented in Box 2.6.2.

Box 2.6.2: Example of the use of Tier 1 method that combines carbon stock estimates (addition)

	Mean t (C/ha)	95 % CI
Living Trees	113	11
Down Dead Wood	18	3
Litter	7	2

therefore the total stock is 138 t C/ha and the uncertainty =

$$\frac{\sqrt{(11\% * 113)^2 + (3\% * 18)^2 + (2\% * 7)^2}}{|113 + 18 + 7|} = \pm 9\%$$

The total uncertainty is ±9% of the mean total C stock of 138 t C/ha

Tier 1 trend assessment

Estimation of trend uncertainty following the IPCC Tier 1 method is based on the use of two sensitivities:

- Type A sensitivity, which arises from uncertainties that affect emissions or removals in the years 1 and 2 equally (i.e. the variables are correlated across the years)
- Type B sensitivity which arises from uncertainties that affect emissions or removals in the year 1 or 2 only (i.e. variables are uncorrelated across the years)

The basic assumption is that emission factors and other parameters are fully correlated across the years (Type A sensitivity). Activity data, on the other hand, is usually assumed to be uncorrelated across years (Type B sensitivity). However, this association will not always hold and by modifying the calculation, it is possible to apply Type A sensitivities to activity data, and Type B sensitivities to emission factors to reflect particular circumstances. Type A and Type B sensitivities are simplifications introduced for the approximate analysis of correlation. To get more accurate results or to be able to handle correlations explicitly, Tier 2 method would be needed.

Table 2.6.1 can be used to combine level and trend the uncertainties using the Tier 1 method. The emissions and removals of each category in the years 1 and 2 are entered into columns C and D, and the respective percentage uncertainties expressed with the 95% confidence interval are entered into columns E and F. For the rest of the columns, the equations are entered as shown in the table. The letters (for example 'C') denote the entries in the same row and respective column, whereas the sums (for example 'ΣC') denote the sum of all the entries in the respective column. The level and trend uncertainties are calculated in the last row of the table.

Table 2.6.1. Tier 1 calculation table (based on IPCC method)

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
Category	Gas	Emissions or removals in year 1	Emissions or removals in year 2	Area uncertainty	Emission factor uncertainty	Combined uncertainty	Contribution to variance by category in year 2	Type A sensitivity	Type B sensitivity	Uncertainty in trend introduced by emission factor uncertainty (Note ii)	Uncertainty in trend introduced by area uncertainty (Note iii)	Uncertainty introduced to the trend in total emissions/
		Mg CO_2	Mg CO_2	%	%	$\sqrt{E^2+F^2}$	$\frac{(G*D)^2}{(\sum D)^2}$	Note i	$\frac{D}{\sum C}$	$I*F$	$J*E*\sqrt{2}$	K^2*L^2
E.g. Forest converted to Cropland	CO_2											

E.g. Forest converted to Grassland	CO_2											
Etc	...											
Total		$\sum C$	$\sum D$				$\sum H$					$\sum M$
					Level uncertainty		$\sqrt{\sum H}$				Trend uncertainty	$\sqrt{\sum M}$

Note i: $\left| 100 * \frac{0.01 * D + \sum D - \left(0.01 * C + \sum C\right)}{0.01 * C + \sum C} - 100 * \frac{\sum D - \sum C}{\sum C} \right|$

Note ii: The equation assumes full correlation between the emission factors in the years 1 and 2. If it is assumed that no correlation occurs, the following equation is to be used: $J * F * \sqrt{2}$

Note iii: The equation assumes no correlation between the area estimates in the years 1 and 2. If it is assumed that full correlation occurs, the following equation is to be used: $I * E$

Tier 2 Monte Carlo simulation

The Tier 2 method is a Monte Carlo type of analysis. It is more complicated to apply, but gives more reliable results particularly where uncertainties are large, distributions are non-normal, or correlations exist. Furthermore, Tier 2 method can be applied to models or equations, which are not based only on addition, subtraction and multiplication. See Chapter 5 of IPCC GPG LULUCF for more details on how to implement Tier 2.

2.6.3.5 Reporting and documentation

According to the IPCC, it is good practice to report the uncertainties using a standardized format. For the purpose of this Sourcebook, we present a slightly simplified version of the IPCC table (Table 2.6.2). Columns A to G are the same as in Table 2.6.2 if Tier 1 method is used. Column H will be calculated according to the equation given, whereas the entries in column I will be calculated by category following the same method as in the calculation of the total trend uncertainty. Column J is for additional information on the methods used.

Table 2.6.2. Reporting table for uncertainties.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
Category	Gas	Emissions or removals in year 1	Emissions or removals in year 2	Area uncertainty	Emission factor uncertainty	Combined uncertainty	Inventory trend for year 2 increase with respect to year 1 (Note a)	Trend uncertainty of the category	Method used to estimate uncertainty (Note b)
		Mg CO_2	Mg CO_2	%	%	%	% of year 1		
E.g. Forest Land converted to Cropland	CO_2								
E.g. Forest Land converted to Grassland	CO_2								
Etc	…								
Total						Level uncertainty		Trend uncertainty	

Note a: $\dfrac{D-C}{C}$

Note b: For example: expert judgment, literature, statistical techniques for sampling, information on the instrument used

2.6.4 Key References for Section 2.6

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2.7 STATUS OF EVOLVING TECHNOLOGIES

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2.7.1 Scope of Chapter

The methods describe in chapters 2.1 to 2.5 provide readily available approaches to estimate and report on carbon emissions from deforestation and forest degradation following the IPCC guidance; with emphasis on the historical period. In addition, new technologies and approaches are being developed for monitoring changes in forest area, forest degradation and carbon stocks. In this section they are described as evolving data sources and technologies given the following considerations:

- The approaches have been demonstrated for in project studies, and, thus, are potentially useful and appropriate for REDD implementation but have not been operationally used for forest/carbon stock change monitoring on the national level for carbon accounting and reporting purposes,
- They may provide data and certainty in addition to the approach described in chapters 2.1 to 2.5, i.e. to overcome known limitations of optical satellite data in persistently cloudy parts of the tropics,
- Data and approaches may not be available for all developing country areas interested in REDD,
- Implementation usually requires an additional amount of resources (i.e. cost, national monitoring capacities etc.),
- Further pilot cases and international coordination are needed to further test and implement these technologies in a REDD context,
- Their utility may be enhanced in coming years depending on data acquisition, access and scientific developments,

The intention here is not to describe the suite of evolving technologies in all detail. The discussions should build awareness of these techniques, provide basic background information and explain their general approaches, potentials and limitations. The options to eventually use them for national forest monitoring activities would depend on specific country circumstances.

2.7.2 Role of LIDAR observations

2.7.2.1 Background and characteristics

LIDAR (LIght Detection And Ranging) sensors use lasers to directly measure the three-dimensional distribution of vegetation canopies as well as sub-canopy topography, resulting in accurate estimates of both vegetation height and ground elevation (Boudreau et al., 2008). Of especial interest for REDD monitoring, LIDAR is the only remote sensing technology to provide measures that have demonstrated a non-asymptotic relationship with biomass (Drake et al., 2003). LIDAR systems are classified as either discrete return or full waveform sampling systems, and may further be characterized by whether they are profiling systems (i.e., recording only along a narrow transect), or scanning systems (i.e., recording across a wider swath). Full waveform sampling LIDAR systems generally have a more coarse horizontal spatial resolution (i.e., a large footprint: 10 – 100 m) combined with a fine and fully digitized vertical spatial resolution, resulting in full sub-meter vertical profiles. Full waveform LIDARs are generally profiling systems and are most commonly used for research purposes. Although there are currently no systems that provide large-footprint full waveform LIDAR data commercially, the Geoscience Laser Altimeter System (GLAS) onboard the NASA Ice, Cloud and land Elevation Satellite (ICESat) is a large-footprint full waveform LIDAR system that may be used for forest characterization and for the development of generalized products for modeling (Næsset, 2002). For example, data from GLAS is currently being used to derive forest canopy height and aboveground biomass for the globe. The GLAS sensor has a horizontal footprint of ~65 m with an along-track post spacing of 172 m, and a maximum across-track post spacing of 15 km at the equator. The third and final laser on ICESat I / GLAS failed on October 19, 2008, but the ICESat team is, as of October/November 2008, attempting to restart laser 2. If it can be restarted, GLAS will continue to take spring/fall measurements until laser failure

Discrete return LIDAR systems (with a small footprint size of 0.1 – 2 m) typically record one to five returns per laser footprint and are optimized for the derivation of sub-meter accuracy terrain surface elevations. These systems are used commercially for a wide range of applications including topographic mapping, power line right-of-way surveys, engineering, and natural resource characterization. Discrete return scanning LIDAR yields a three-dimensional cloud of points, with the lower points representing the ground and the upper points representing the canopy. One of the first steps undertaken when processing LIDAR data involves the separation of ground versus non-ground (i.e., canopy) hits—a function that is often undertaken by LIDAR data providers using software such as TerraScan, LP360, or the data provider's own proprietary software. Analysis can commence once all LIDAR points have been classified into ground or non-ground returns. Ground hits are typically gridded to produce a bare earth Digital Elevation Model (DEM) using standard software approaches such as triangulated irregular networks, nearest neighbour interpolation, or spline methods. As the point spacing of the LIDAR observations is significantly finer than the spatial detail typically observable on aerial photography, the DEMs generated from LIDAR often contain significantly more horizontal and vertical resolution than elevation models generated from moderate scale aerial photography (Lim et al., 2003).

2.7.2.2 Experiences for monitoring purposes

To date, research and development activities have focused upon using LIDAR as tool for characterizing vertical forest structure - primarily the estimation of tree and stand heights, with volume, biomass, and carbon also of interest. With increasing availability of LIDAR data, forest managers have seen opportunities for using LIDAR to meet a wider range of forest inventory information needs. For instance, height estimates generated from airborne remotely sensed LIDAR data have been found to be of similar, or better accuracy than corresponding field-based estimates and studies have demonstrated that the LIDAR measurement error for individual tree height (of a given species) is less than 1.0 m and less than 0.5 m for plot-based estimates of maximum and mean canopy height with full canopy closure. Additional attributes, such as volume, biomass, and crown closure, are also well characterized with LIDAR data.

Scanning LIDAR is typically used to collect data with a full geographical coverage ("wall-to-wall") of the area of interest. Forest inventory providing detailed information of individual forest stands for planning and management purposes is rapidly increasing to become a standard method for forest inventory of territories with a size of 50-50,000 km2. Scanning LIDAR technology is currently being used or tested globally for operational inventory, pre-operational trials, or to generate project specific sub-sets of forest attributes (including biomass).

A basic requirement for inventory and monitoring of forest resources and biomass is the availability of ground measurement using conventional field plots. Ground measurements are required to establish relationships between the three-dimensional properties of the LIDAR point cloud (e.g. canopy height and canopy density) and the target biophysical properties of interest, like for example biomass, using parametric or nonparametric statistical techniques. Once such relationships have been established, the target biophysical properties can be predicted with high accuracy for the entire area of interest for which LIDAR data are available.

For monitoring of larger territories, like provinces, nations or even across nations, such a two-stage procedure can even be used in a sampling mode, where the airborne LIDAR instrument is used as a sampling device. Optical remotely sensed imagery and other spatial data can be used to aid in stratification, supporting sampling guidance and subsequent estimation. Profiling as well as scanning LIDAR instruments can be flown along strips separated by many kilometers, depending on the desired sampling proportion. Thus, the LIDAR data can be used to provide a conventional sampling-based statistical estimate of biomass or changes in amount of biomass over time. A sample of conventional ground plots of a nation may for example cover on the order of 0.0003% of the entire population in question (assuming a 10×10 km^2 spacing between plots with size 300 m^2), whereas a sample of scanning LIDAR data collected along strips flown over the same field plots will constitute a sample of 5-10% of the population. Because biomass and canopy properties derived from LIDAR data are highly correlated, LIDAR combined with field data has been demonstrated to improve the measurement efficiency and to improve accuracy and/or reduce costs (in comparison to field based measures). Sampling with profiling LIDAR was demonstrated in Delaware (~5,000 km^2), USA, a few years ago. By introducing a third stage, i.e., LIDAR data from satellite (ICESat/GLAS), and combining these data with airborne profiling LIDAR and field data, it has been shown that fairly large territories can be sampled with lasers for biomass estimation. Recently, estimates of biomass and carbon stocks were provided for the entire province of Quebec (~1,270,000 km^2), Canada. A parallel development of the technical procedures and a statistical framework is now taking place and being demonstrated for scanning LIDAR in Hedmark County (~25,000 km^2), Norway.

Demonstrations of biomass assessment over larger areas of in tropical forest have so far not taken place. However, a number of experiments with airborne LIDAR in tropical forest have shown that there exist strong relationships between biomass (and other biophysical properties) and LIDAR data. Unlike other remote sensing techniques, such as optical remote sensing and SAR, LIDAR does not suffer from saturation problems associated with high biomass values. LIDAR has proven to be capable of discriminating between biomass values up to >1,300 Mg ha^{-1}. Thus, airborne and spaceborne LIDAR are likely to have great potentials as sampling tools, especially in topical forests.

Monitoring costs when using airborne LIDAR are variable. In general, users can expect some elements of the costing structure to be similar to air photo acquisition, including flying time and related fuel costs. Further, economies of scale are also to be considered, whereby larger project areas can lead to a reduction in per unit area costs. Large acquisition areas also mean less time is spent turning the aircraft and more time actually acquiring data. Reported costs for LIDAR surveys vary widely, but lower costs per hectare can be expected for larger projects. Processing to meet project specific information needs will also result in additional costs. In Europe, comparable costs for LiDAR data collection in operational forest inventory are at the moment <$0.5-1.0 per hectare when the projects are of a certain size. Prices in South America using local data providers (e.g. Brazilian companies) are typically higher. The situation is likely to be the same in Africa using local data providers (e.g. South African data providers). Recent bids for a REDD demonstration in Tanzania from European data providers indicate prices for "wall-to-wall" LIDAR data acquisition on the order of $0.5-1.0 per hectare. However, when LIDAR is used to sample a landscape, say a territory on the order of 1,000,000 km2, a marginal cost per km flight line of ~$30-40 can be anticipated in (e.g., eastern Africa). Thus, by a sampling proportion of for example 1% and a swath width of 1 km, it should be feasible to sample a 1,000,000 km2 landscape for a total cost of about $300,000-400,000.

2.7.2.3 Area of contribution to existing IPCC land sector reporting

Ground plot information is an important component of most monitoring schemes including those focused on REDD. LIDAR derived measures can work in an integrated fashion with ground-based surveys; whereby, ground plots can be used to calibrate and validate LIDAR measures, and attributes emulating ground bases measures can be derived from the LIDAR data, ultimately increasing the overall sample size. In this way, LIDAR offers opportunities for an alternative method of field measurement. Degradation of forests in many cases is difficult to detect and characterize. Optical remotely sensed data is a key data source for capturing change and can be related to degradation. Since LIDAR captures the vertical distribution and structure of forests, integrating LIDAR with optical remotely sensed change data can be used to indicate the carbon consequences of the changes present.

LIDAR has both high vertical and horizontal resolutions affording fine, field plot-like measures to be made. These fine-scale measures can be used to emulate ground data, to calibrate and validate model outcomes, to inform on the carbon consequences of deforestation and degradation, and to locate and enable characterization of forest gaps introduced over time. The context and information needs of REDD must be considered when aiming to determine the utility of LIDAR measurements (including the value of increased accuracy and precision of measures and / or the ability to better characterize error budgets associated with mapped or estimated measures).

2.7.2.4 Data availability and required national capacities

Both air- and space-borne data are available. The airborne data source can be considered globally available, with coverage on-demand, procured via contracting with commercial agencies on a global basis. While LIDAR data is broadly available, the applications uses are more focused on utility corridor characterization and elevation model development. Operational forest characterization is less common, typically requiring field support and custom algorithms. Spaceborne LIDAR is also available globally, with a number of caveats. NASA is supporting the production of global information products based upon GLAS information that provide an insight into the on-going and future utility of spaceborne LIDAR data.

The national capacity to utilize LIDAR data can be high when analysis from data capture through to information generation is desired; conversely, capacity needs can be lower if a contract-based approach is pursued. National end users can contract the desired information outcomes from the LIDAR acquisition and processing. As such, it is important to have clear information needs that can be used to develop statements of work and deliverables for contractors. Information needs to meet REDD criteria can be developed for LIDAR data analogous to those under development for field data.

2.7.2.5 Status, expected near-term developments and long-term sustainability

Unless laser 2 on board ICESat I / GLAS can be restarted, there will be no operational space laser available over the next few years. However, the United States is working toward the development of three new spaceborne LIDAR missions; ICESat II, DESDynI (Deformation, Ecosystem Structure, and Dynamics of Ice), and LIST (Laser Imaging for Surface Topography). Although specific mission details are dynamic, it is expected that ICESat II will be launched in 2015 with data acquisition parameters similar to ICESat I (single beam waveform profiler, 30-50 m footprint, and ~140 m along-track post spacing). Assuming a launch date of 2015, there will likely be a 6-7 year data gap between the ICESat I and ICESat II missions. The DESDynI and LIST missions will commence at a later date, i.e., ca 2017 and 2020, respectively. DESDynI will be a dual sensor platform (multibeam LIDAR and L-band radar) that acquires LIDAR data with footprints of ~25 m with along- and cross-track profile spacing of 25-30 m and 2-5 km, respectively. The LIST platform is expected to collect global wall-to-wall LIDAR data over a 5 year mission. LIDAR data acquired by LIST will have a footprint size and along and across-track posting of 5 m. Although there will be a data gap, the current ICESat I platform in conjunction with the proposed ICESat II platform are likely to provide LIDAR data collected in a systematic manner across the globe.

2.7.2.6 Applicability of LIDAR as an appropriate technology

While LIDAR may be considered as an emerging technology in terms of large-area monitoring especially with the nascent REDD processes, LIDAR is well established as a data source for meeting forest management and science objectives. The capacity for LIDAR to characterize biomass and change in biomass over time positions the technology well to meet REDD information needs. LIDAR data in terms of information content are analogous to field based measures. As such, LIDAR may be considered as a source of sampled information, while is also uniquely able to produce detailed information over large areas. The information need and the actual monitoring framework utilized may further guide the applicability of LIDAR for national carbon accounting and reporting purposes. The ability to estimate uncertainty measures from LIDAR data also positions the technology well to produce transparent and verifiable measures in support of accounting and reporting activities. While costs need to be considered, these actual costs to a program need to be vetted against the information that is being developed, how this information meets the specified needs, and importantly, how the reduction in uncertainty from LIDAR offsets initial costs. Pilot studies and some international coordination of on-going and proposed activities to meet REDD information needs are encouraged. While LIDAR data are currently available in a limited manner from spaceborne platforms, an increase in this capacity is envisioned and encouraged. The possible limitations in spaceborne measures are well offset by the widespread and operational acquisition of LIDAR from airborne platforms. Airborne LIDAR data collected by commercial providers fosters - global availability and enables national capacities to be aided by delivery of products rather than raw data.

2.7.3 Forest monitoring using Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) observations

2.7.3.1 Synthetic Aperture Radar technology

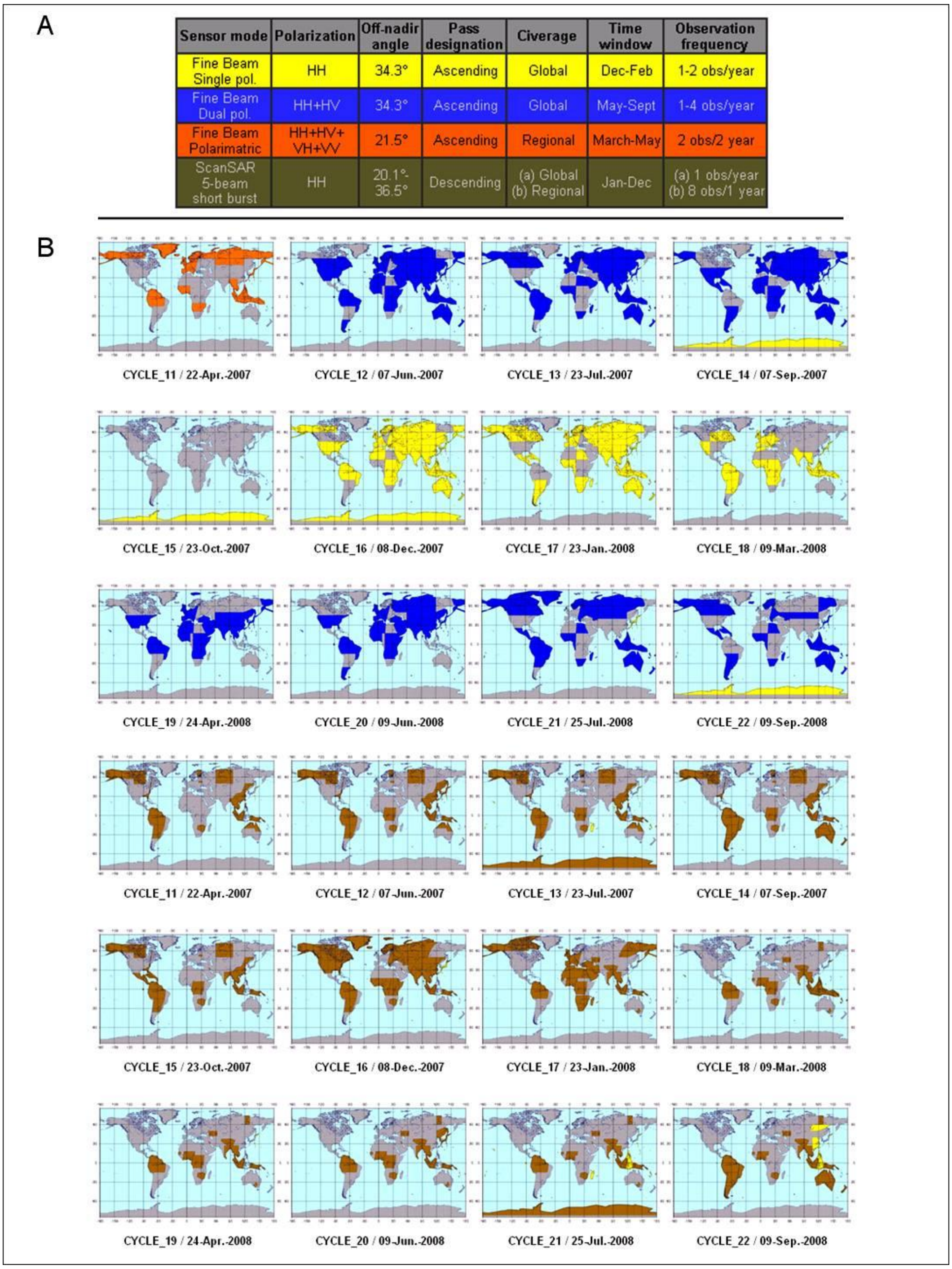
Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) sensors have been used since the 1960s to produce remote sensing images of earth-surface features based on the principals of radar (radio detection and ranging) reflectivity. Over the past two decades, the science and technology underpinning radar remote sensing has matured considerably. Additionally, high-resolution global digital elevation models (e.g., from the 2000 Shuttle Radar Topography Mission, SRTM), which are required for accurate radar calibration and image geolocation, are now freely available. Together, these advancements have enabled and encouraged the development and operational deployment of advanced spaceborne instruments that now make systematic, repetitive, and consistent SAR observations of tropical forest cover possible at regional to global scales.

Radar remote sensors complement optical remote sensors in two fundamental ways. First, where as optical sensors passively record electromagnetic energy (e.g., sun light) radiated or reflected by earth-surface features, radar is an active system, meaning it serves as the source of its own electromagnetic energy. As a radar sensor orbits the Earth, it transmits short pulses of energy toward the surface below, which interact with surface features such as forest vegetation. A portion of this energy is reflected back toward the sensor where the backscattered signal is recorded. Second, while optical sensors operate primarily in the visible and infrared (ca. 0.4-15.0 μm) portions of the electromagnetic spectrum, radar sensors operate in the microwave region (ca. 3-70 cm). Where as short electromagnetic waves in the visible and infrared range are readily scattered by atmospheric particulates (e.g., haze, smoke, and clouds), long-wavelength microwaves generally penetrate through them, making radar remote sensing an invaluable tool for imaging tropical forests which are commonly covered by clouds. Moreover, microwaves penetrate into forest canopies, with the amount of backscattered energy dependant in part on the three-dimensional structure and moisture content of the constituent leaves, branches and stems, and underlying soils, thus resulting in useful information on forest structural attributes including structural forest cover type and aboveground biomass. Thereby, the degree to which microwave energy penetrates into forest canopies depends on the frequency/wavelength of the incoming electromagnetic waves. Generally speaking, incoming microwaves are scattered most strongly by surface elements (e.g., leaves, branches, and stems) that are large relative to the wavelength. Hence, longer wavelengths (e.g., P-/L-band) penetrate deeper into forest canopies than shorter wavelengths (e.g., C-/X-band). In addition to wavelength, the polarization of the transmitted and received microwave energy provides additional sensitivity with which to characterize forest structure.

An increasing number of SAR sensors are now being built with polarimetric and high-resolution capabilities following recent advancements in SAR data recording and computer processing. The first civilian spaceborne SAR sensors are now being operated at spatial resolutions finer than 5 meters (e.g., TerraSAR-X, Cosmo SkyMed, etc.), which is of great potential for example where the mapping of logging roads and associated forest degradation patterns is concerned. A listing of past, current, and future SAR sensors is included in Table 2.7.1. In addition to the sensors listed in Table 2.7.1, a number of follow on missions are planned to ensure continuity beyond 2010. In summary, radar remote sensing is well suited to potentially support tropical forest monitoring needs.

Table 2.7.1: Summary of current and planned spaceborne synthetic aperture radar (SAR) sensors and their characteristics.

Current Satellites/sensors	Nation(s)	Period of Operation	Band	Polarization	Spatial Resolution (m)	Orbital Repeat (days)
ERS-1	Europe	1991-2000	C	Single (VV)	26	3-176
JERS-1	Japan	1992-1998	L	Single (HH)	18	44
ERS-2	Europe	1995-	C	Single (VV)	26	35
RADARSAT 1	Canada	1995-	C	Single (HH)	8-100	3-24
Envisat/ASAR	Europe	2002-	C	Single, Dual	30-1000	35
ALOS/PALSAR	Japan	2006-	L	Single, Dual, Quad	10-100	46
RADARSAT 2	Canada	2007-	C	Single, Dual, Quad	3-100	24
TerraSAR-X	Germany	2007-	X	Single, Dual, Quad	1-16	11
COSMO- SkyMed	Italy	2007-	X	Single, Dual Interferometric	1-100	16



Sensor mode	Polarization	Off-nadir angle	Pass designation	Civerage	Time window	Observation frequency
Fine Beam Single pol.	HH	34.3°	Ascending	Global	Dec-Feb	1-2 obs/year
Fine Beam Dual pol.	HH+HV	34.3°	Ascending	Global	May-Sept	1-4 obs/year
Fine Beam Polarimatric	HH+HV+ VH+VV	21.5°	Ascending	Regional	March-May	2 obs/2 year
ScanSAR 5-beam short burst	HH	20.1°- 36.5°	Descending	(a) Global (b) Regional	Jan-Dec	(a) 1 obs/year (b) 8 obs/1 year

Figure 2.7.1: (A) Global observation strategy for (B) various ALOS/PALSAR sensor modes. The systematic observation strategy is likely to be repeated throughout mission life, projected to last beyond 2016 (source: JAXA/EORC).

While satellites carrying SAR sensors have been in orbit since the early 1990s (Table 2.7.1), the pan-tropical observation of forest structure by radar remote sensing received a further support as of January 24, 2006, when the Japanese Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) launched their newest spaceborne Earth observing platform, the Advanced Land Observing Satellite (ALOS) featuring PALSAR (Phased Array L-band Synthetic Aperture Radar), the first polarimetric L-band imaging radar sensor ever deployed on a satellite platform for civilian Earth observation. The ALOS mission is particularly unique in that a dedicated global data observation strategy was designed with the goal of systematically imaging all of Earth's land masses in a wall-to-wall manner at least once per year at 10 m, 20 m, and 100 m resolution (Figure 2.7.1). In the interest of producing globally-consistent radar image datasets of the type first generated by the Japanese Earth Resources Satellite (JERS-1) during the Global Rain Forest Mapping (GRFM) project of the mid-1990s, an international ALOS "Kyoto and Carbon Science Team" was formed to develop an acquisition strategy to support global forest monitoring needs. This strategy is currently fixed, and will very likely continue through the lifetime of the mission, which is expected to last at least 10 years, spanning much if not all of the post-Kyoto commitment period of 2013 to 2017. A number of space agencies including JAXA, the European Space Agency (ESA), and the U.S. National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) now have plans to deploy additional imaging radar sensors that are scheduled to become operational over the next 5-7 years (Table 2.7.1), ensuring the long-term continuity of repeat observations at L-band and other radar frequencies. Overall, these sensor characteristics make ALOS/PALSAR data ideally suited to complement the existing fleet of Earth remote sensing platforms by providing high-resolution, wall-to-wall, image coverage that is acquired over short time frames and unimpeded by cloud cover.

2.7.3.2 Case Study: Xingu River Headwaters, Mato Grosso, Brazil

Given the excellent positional accuracy (~9.3 m) of ALOS/PALSAR data and the recent availability of advanced radar image processing methods, regional- to continental-scale image mosaics can be readily produced for any location that has been systematically imaged by the ALOS/PALSAR sensor. Figure 2.7.2 includes shows a large-area (ca. 400,000 km2) image mosaic of ALOS/PALSAR data, which covers the headwaters of the Xingu River, in Mato Grosso, Brazil. Data were acquired between June 8th and July 27th, 2007, as part of a 4-month global acquisition (see Figure 2.7.1). This particular mosaic was generated in less than one week using two distinct (i.e., dual-polarimetric) PALSAR information channels: 1) image data derived from microwave energy that was both transmitted and received by the PALSAR antenna in the horizontal direction (i.e. parallel to Earth's surface), and b) image data derived from microwave energy transmitted in the horizontal direction, but received in the vertical direction (i.e., perpendicular to the Earth's surface). The former case is referred to as HH-polarization while the latter case is referred to as HV-polarization. The concept of polarization is an important aspect of radar remote sensing because earth-surface features such as forest canopies respond differently to different polarizations.

Because radar sensors are "active" remote sensing systems (i.e., they transmit and receive their own microwave energy, and thus complement "passive" optical sensors which measure reflected sun light), radar images are always visual representations (i.e., displayed in the visible spectrum) of microwave energy received at and recorded by the sensor. Single radar information channels are typically displayed as grayscale images. When interpreting a radar image it is a general rule of thumb that increasing brightness corresponds to a greater amount of energy recorded by the sensor. Applying this rule of thumb to the interpretation of vegetated regions in an ALOS/PALSAR image, areas with a greater amount of vegetation biomass of a given structural type will appear brighter due to the greater amount of energy scattered back to and recorded by the sensor. If multiple radar information channels (i.e., multiple polarizations) are available, color images can be generated by assigning specific channels or combinations of channels to each of the visible red, green, and blue (RGB) channels commonly used for display in computer monitors. To create the color (RGB) image displayed in Figure 2.7.2, the HH channel was assigned the color red, the HV channel was assigned the color green, and the difference between the two (HH minus HV) was assigned the color blue. Hence, green and yellow image tones correspond to instances where both HH and HV information channels have high energy returns (e.g., over forested and urban areas). Blue and magenta tones are generally found in non-forested (e.g., agricultural) areas where HH-polarized energy tends to exhibit higher returns from the surface than does HV-polarized energy. The information contained in the three ALOS/PALSAR image channels has recently been used to demonstrate the utility of these data for accurate large-area, forest/non-forest mapping. Ground validation in this area demonstrated that an overall classification accuracy of greater than 90% was achieved from the ALOS radar imagery.

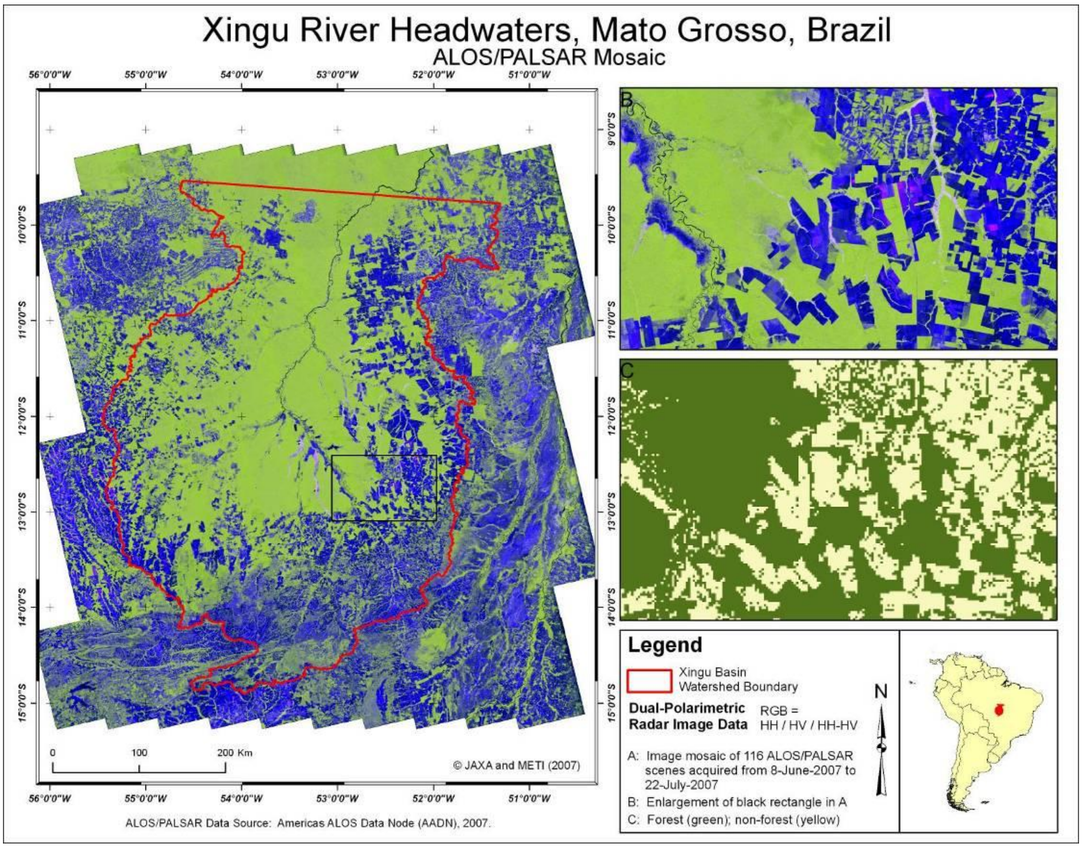


Figure 2.7.2: Xingu River headwaters, Mato Grasso, Brazil. The radar image mosaic is a composite of 116 individual scenes (400,000 km^2) acquired by the PALSAR sensor carried on board ALOS. A preliminary land cover classification has been generated with an emphasis on producing an accurate forest/nonforest map. In the forested areas, the sensitivity of the PALSAR data to differences in aboveground biomass is also being investigated in collaboration with the Amazon Institute of Environmental Research (IPAM). Data by JAXA/METI and American ALOS Data Node. Image processing and analysis by The Woods Hole Research Center, 2007.

2.7.4 Integration of satellite and in situ data for biomass mapping

The advantage of biomass estimation approaches that incorporate some form of remotely sensed data is through provision of a synoptic view of the area of interest, thereby capturing the spatial variability in the attributes of interest (e.g., height, crown closure). The spatial coverage of large area biomass estimates that are constrained by the limited spatial extent of forest inventories may be expanded through the use of remotely sensed data. Similarly, remotely sensed data can be used to fill spatial, attributional, and temporal gaps in forest inventory data, thereby augmenting and enhancing estimates of forest biomass and carbon stocks derived from forest inventory data. Such a hybrid approach is particularly relevant for non-merchantable forests where basic inventory data required for biomass estimation are lacking. Minimum mapping units are a function of the imagery upon which biomass estimates are made. Further, costs will be a function of the imagery desired, the areal coverage required, the sophistication of the processing, and needs for new plot data. For confidence in the outcomes of biomass estimation and mapping from remotely sensed data some form of ground calibration / validation data is required (Goetz et al., 2009).

Biomass estimates may range from local to global scales, and for some regions, particularly tropical forest regions, there are large variations in the estimates reported in the literature. Global and national estimates of forest above-ground biomass are often aspatial estimates, compiled through the tabular generalization of national level forest inventory data. Due to the importance for reporting and modeling, a wide-range of methods and data sources for generating spatially explicit large-area biomass estimates have been the subject of extensive research.

A variety of approaches and data sources have been used to estimate forest above ground biomass (AGB). Biomass estimation is typically generated from: (i) field measurement; (ii) remotely sensed data; or (iii) ancillary data used in GIS-based modeling. Estimation from field measurements may entail destructive sampling or direct measurement and the application of allometric equations. Allometric equations estimate biomass by regressing a measured sample of biomass against tree variables that are easy to measure in the field (e.g., diameter at breast height, height). Although equations may be species- or site-specific, they are often generalized to represent mixed forest conditions or large spatial areas. Biomass is commonly estimated by applying conversion factors (biomass expansion factors) to tree volume (either derived from field plot measures or forest inventory data). Relationships between biomass and other inventory attributes (e.g., basal area) have also been reported. The use of existing forest inventory data to map large area tree AGB has been explored; conversion tables were developed to estimate biomass from attributes contained in polygon-based forest inventory data, including species composition, crown density, and dominant tree height.

Remotely sensed data have become an important data source for biomass estimation. Generally, biomass is either estimated via a direct relationship between spectral response and biomass using multiple regression analysis, k-nearest neighbour, neural networks, statistical ensemble methods (e.g. decision trees), or through indirect relationships, whereby attributes estimated from the remotely sensed data, such as leaf area index (LAI), structure (crown closure and height) or shadow fraction are used in equations to estimate biomass. When using remotely sensed data for biomass estimation, the choice of method often depends on the required level of precision and the availability of plot data. Some methods, such as k-nearest neighbour require representative image-specific plot data, whereas other methods are more appropriate when scene-specific plot data are limited.

A variety of remotely sensed data sources continue to be employed for biomass mapping including coarse spatial resolution data such as SPOT-VEGETATION, AVHRR, and MODIS. To facilitate the linkage of detailed ground measurements to coarse spatial resolution remotely sensed data (e.g., MODIS, AVHRR, IRS-WiFS), several studies have integrated multi-scale imagery into their biomass estimation methodology and incorporated moderate spatial resolution imagery (e.g., Landsat, ASTER) as an intermediary data source between the field data and coarser imagery. Research has demonstrated that it is more effective to generate relationships between field measures and moderate spatial resolution remotely sensed data (e.g., Landsat), and then extrapolate these relationships over larger areas using comparable spectral properties from coarser spatial resolution imagery (e.g., MODIS). Following this approach alleviates the difficulty in linking field measures directly to coarser spatial resolution data, although a number of other techniques have been devised (see background readings).

Landsat TM and ETM+ data are the most widely used sources of remotely sensed imagery for forest biomass estimation. Numerous studies have generated stand attributes from LIDAR data, and then used these attributes as input for allometric biomass equations. Other studies have explored the integration of LIDAR and RADAR data for biomass estimation.

GIS-based modeling using ancillary data exclusively, such as climate normals, precipitation data, topography, and vegetation zones is another approach to biomass estimation. Some studies have also used geostatistical approaches (i.e., kriging) to generate spatially explicit maps of AGB from field plots, or to improve upon existing biomass estimation. More commonly, GIS is used as the mechanism for integrating multiple data sources for biomass estimation (e.g., forest inventory and remotely sensed data). For example, MODIS, JERS-1, QuickSCAT, SRTM, climate and vegetation data have been combined to model forest AGB in the Amazon Basin.

2.7.5 Targeted airborne surveys to support carbon stock estimations – a case study

Ground based methods for estimating biomass carbon of the tree component of forests are typically based on measurements of individual trees in many plots combined with allometric equations that relate biomass as a function of a single dimension, e.g., diameter at breast height (dbh), or a combination of dimensions, such as dbh and height. A potential way of reducing costs of measuring and monitoring the carbon stocks of forests is to collect the key data remotely, particularly over large and often difficult terrain where the ability to implement an on-the-ground statistical sampling design can be difficult.

There are limitations of remotely sensed products to measure simultaneously the two key parameters for estimating forest biomass from above (i.e., tree height and tree crown area). However, positive experiences exist with systems using multispectral three-dimensional aerial digital imagery that usually fits on board a single-engine plane. Such systems collect high-resolution overlapping stereo images from a high-definition video camera (≤ 10 cm pixel size). Spacing camera exposures for 70–80 % overlap provides the stereo coverage of the ground while the profiling laser, inertial measurement unit, and GPS provide georeferencing information to compile the imagery bundle-adjusted blocks in a common three-dimensional space of geographic coordinates. The system also includes a profiling laser to record ground and canopy elevations. The imagery allows distinguishing individual trees, identifying their plant type and measuring their height and crown area. The measurements can be used to derive estimates of aboveground tree biomass carbon for a given class of individuals using allometric equations (e.g. between crown area and biomass). Biomass can be measured in the same way as in ground plots, to achieve potentially the same accuracy and precision, but with potentially less investment in resources. In addition, the data can be archived so that, if needed, the data could be re-evaluated or used for some future purpose.

As an example, the 3 D digital imagery system has been tested in highly heterogeneous pine savanna (Brown et al, 2005) and a closed broadleaf forest (Pearson et al., 2005), both in Belize. In the pine savanna, the extreme heterogeneity creates the requirement for high intensity sampling and consequently very high on the ground measurement costs. For the imagery system, the highest costs are fixed and the cost of analyzing high numbers of plots is low in comparison to measurements on the ground (Brown et al., 2005). The study of the closed tropical forest shows that its complex canopy is well suited to the 3D imagery system. The complex multi-layered canopy facilitates the identification and measurement of separate tree crowns. The studied area is particularly suited due to its flat topography. In the closed forest it was often complex to measure ground height adjacent to each tree, if topography were varied it would be necessary to use an alternate equation that does not employ tree height and would therefore be less precise.

Table 2.7.3: Results from case studies using the 3D digital imagery system for estimating carbon stocks of two forest types in Belize.

Forest type	Number of imagery plots	Estimated carbon stock t C/ha	95% Confidence interval % of the mean	Reference
Closed tropical forest	39	117	7.4	Pearson et al. (2005)
Pine Savanna	77	13.1	16.8	Brown et al. (2005)

Imagery data are collected over the forest of interest by flying parallel transects. Once the imagery are processed, individual 3D image pairs are systematically selected and nested image plots (varying radii to account for the distribution of small to large crowned trees) are placed on the imagery and trees crown and height measurements taken (system uses ERDAS and Stereo Analyst). To convert the measurements from the imagery to estimates of biomass carbon, a series of allometric equations between tree or shrub biomass carbon were developed. The allometric equations resulting from this analysis were applied to crown area and vegetation height data obtained from the analysis of the imagery to estimate biomass carbon per plot and then extrapolated to per-hectare values (Table 2.7.3).

In terms of cost, an airplane, with aviation gas and pilot is needed to collect the imagery; experience has shown this to cost approximately US$ 300 per hour of engine time. Using a conventional field approach, the equivalent cost would be a vehicle rental for 20-50 day, the cost of which depends on local country conditions. . In the Belize pine savanna study, it was found that the break-even point in person-hours was at 25 plots, where the conventional field approach was more time-efficient. However, as more than 200 plots would be needed in the pine savanna to achieve precision levels of less than 10% of the mean, the targeted airborne approach clearly has an advantage, even considering the different skill set needed by each approach. For the closed forest, just 39 plots were needed to estimate biomass carbon with 95 % confidence intervals equal to 7.4 % of the mean compared to the 101 ground plots that produced a comparable estimate with confidence intervals equal to 8.5 % of the mean.

2.7.6 Modeling and forecasting forest-cover change

Most models of forest-cover change at the landscape to the national scales address one of the following questions (sometimes they deal with the two at once): (i) Which locations are most likely to be affected by forest-cover change in the near future? (ii) At what rate are forest-cover changes likely to proceed in a given region?

Predicting the location of future forest-cover change is a rather easy task, provided that current and future processes of forest-cover change are similar to those that operated in the recent past. Statistical relationships are calibrated between landscape determinants of land-use changes (e.g., distance to roads, soil type, market accessibility, terrain) and recently observed spatial patterns of forest-cover change. The analysis of spatially-explicit deforestation maps, i.e. generated to estimate activity data for IPCC reporting, can provide a suitable database for such analysis. Both the shape and pattern of the deforestation observed (location, size, fragmentation), as well as, their relationship with spatial factors influencing forest change can be quantified and empirical relationship established. Such understanding can drive spatially-explicit statistical models are then used to produce a "suitability map" for a given type of forest-cover change. Such models are born from the combination of geographic information systems (GIS) and multivariate statistical models. Their goal is the projection and display, in a cartographic form, of future land use patterns which would result from the continuation of current land uses. Note that regression models cannot be used for wide ranging extrapolations in space and time.

Predicting future rates of forest-cover changes is a much more difficult task. Actually, the quantity of deforestation, forest degradation, or reforestation in a given location depends on underlying driving causes. These indirect and often remote causes of forest-cover change are generally related to national policies, global markets, human migrations from other regions, changes in property-right regimes, international trade, governance, etc. The relative importance of these causes varies widely in space and time. Opportunities and constraints for new land uses, to which local land managers may respond by changing forest cover, are created by markets and policies that are increasingly influenced by global factors (Lambin et al., 2001). Extreme biophysical events occasionally trigger further changes. The dependency of causes of land-use changes on historical, geographic and other factors makes it a particularly complex issue to model. Transition probability models, such as Markov chains, project the amount of land covered by various land use types based on a sample of transitions occurring during a previous time interval. Such simple models rely on the assumption of the stationarity of the transition matrix - i.e. temporal homogeneity. The stochastic nature of Markov chain masks the causative variables.

Many economic models of land-use change apply optimisation techniques based either on whole-farm analyses at the microeconomic level (using linear programming) or general equilibrium models at the macroeconomic scale (Kaimowitz and Angelsen, 1998). Any parcel of land, given its attributes and its location, is modelled as being used in the way that yields the highest rent. Such models allow investigation of the influence of various policy measures on land allocation choices. The applicability of micro-economic models for projections is however limited due to unpredictable fluctuations of prices and demand factors, and to the role of non-economic factors driving forest-cover changes (e.g., corruption practices and low timber prices that underlie illegal logging).

Dynamic simulation models condense and aggregate complex ecosystems into a small number of differential equations or rules in a stylised manner. Simulation models are therefore based on an a priori understanding of the forces driving forest-cover change. The strength of a simulation model depends on whether the major features affecting land-use changes are integrated, whether the functional relationships between factors affecting change processes are appropriately represented, and on the capacity of the model to predict the most important ecological and economic impacts of land-use changes. Simulation models allow rapid exploration of probable effects of the continuation of current land use practices or of changes in cultural or ecological parameters. These models allow testing scenarios on future land-use changes. When dynamic ecosystem simulation models are spatially-explicit (i.e., include the spatial heterogeneity of landscapes), they can predict temporal changes in spatial patterns of forest use.

Agent-based models simulate decisions by and competition between multiple actors and land managers. In these behavioural models of land use, decisions by agents are made spatially-explicit thanks to cellular automata techniques. A few spatially-explicit agent-based models of forest-cover change have been developed to date. These grid-cell models combine ecological information with socio-economic factors related to land-use decisions by farmers. Dynamic landscape simulation models are not predictive systems but rather "game-playing tools" designed to understand the possible impacts of changes in land use. Dynamic landscape simulation models are specific to narrow geographic situations and cannot be easily generalised over large regions.

All model designs involve a great deal of simplification. While, by definition, any model falls short of incorporating all aspects of reality, it provides valuable information on the system’s behaviour under a range of conditions (Veldkamp and Lambin, 2001). Current models of forest-cover change are rarely based on processes at multiple spatial and temporal scales. Moreover, many land use patterns have developed in the context of long term instability (e.g., fluctuations in climate, prices, state policies). Forest-cover change models should therefore be built on the assumption of temporal heterogeneity rather than on the common assumption of progressive, linear trends. Rapidly and unpredictably changing variables (e.g., technological innovations, conflicts, new policies) are as important in shaping land use dynamics as the slowly and cumulatively changing variables (e.g., population growth, increase in road network).

2.7.7 Summary and recommendations

The techniques and approaches outlined in previous sections are among the most important ones with the potential to improve national monitoring and assessing carbon emissions from deforestation and forest degradation for REDD implementation. Their usefulness should be judged by a number factors including:

- Data characteristics & spatial/temporal resolution of current observations/sensors
- Operational calibration and interpretation/analysis methods
- Area of contribution to existing IPCC land sector reporting and sourcebook approach
- Estimated monitoring cost (i.e. per km^2)
- Experiences for monitoring purposes, i.e. examples for large scale or national demonstration projects
- Data availability, coverage and access procedures
- Known limitations and challenges, and approaches to deal with them

- National capacities required for operational implementation
- Status, expected near-term developments and long-term sustainability

There is a clear role for the international community to assist countries and actors involved in REDD monitoring in the understanding, usefulness and progress of evolving technologies. This involves a proper communication on the activities needed and actions taken to evaluate and prototype REDD monitoring using data and techniques becoming increasingly available. Near-term progress is particularly expected in the availability and access to suitable remote sensing datasets. Currently Landsat data are the most common satellite dataset for forest monitoring on the national level. Several factors are responsible for this including rigorous geometric and radiometric standards, the image characteristics most known and useful for large area land cover mapping and dynamics studies, and the user-friendly data access policy. Thus, there are important differences in the usefulness of existing data sources depending on the following characteristics:

I. Observations are being continuously acquired and datasets archived by national or international agencies;

II. There is general understanding on the availability (i.e., global cloud-free coverage), quality and accessibility of the archived data;

III. Data are being pre-processed (i.e. geometrically and radiometrically corrected) and are made accessible to the monitoring community;

IV. Pre-processed datasets are available in international or national mapping agencies for land cover and change interpretation;

V. Sustained capacities exist to produce and use land cover datasets within countries and for global assessments (e.g., in developing countries).

Existing and archived satellite data sources are not yet fully explored for forest monitoring. Ideally, all relevant observations (satellite and in situ) should meet a set of six requirements in Table 2.7.4 to be considered fully useful and operational. Table 2.7.4 further emphasizes that active satellite remote sensing data (i.e. Radar and Lidar) are becoming more available on a continuous basis and suitable for change analysis. This will enable better synergistic use with current optical sensors, to increase frequency of cloud free data coverage and enhance the detailed and accuracy of monitoring products.

Table 2.7.4: Current availability of fine-scale satellite data sources and capacities for global land cover change observations given six general requirements (Note: dark gray=common or fully applicable, light gray=partially applicable/several examples, white=rare or no applications or examples).

	Satellite observation system/program	Technical observation challenges solved	Access to information on quality of archived data worldwide	Continuous observation program for global coverage	Pre-processed global image datasets generated & accessible	Image data available in mapping agencies for land change analysis	Capacities to sustainably produce/ use map products in developing countries
OPTICAL	LANDSAT TM/ETM						
	ASTER				On demand		
	SPOT HRV (1-5)				Commercially		
	CBERS 1-3				Regionally		
	IRS / Indian program				Regionally		
	DMC program			Probably	Commercially		
SAR	ALOS/PALSAR + JERS				Regionally		
	ENVISAT ASAR, ERS 1+2				Regionally		
	TERRARSAR-X				Commercially		
	IKONOS, GEOEye			Probably	Commercially		
	ICESAT/GLAS (LIDAR)						

The international Earth observation community is aware of the needs for pre-processed satellite data being available in developing countries. The gap between acquiring satellite observations and their availability (in the archives) and processing the data in a suitable format to be ready for use by developing countries for their forest area change assessments is being bridged the space agencies and data providers such as USGS, NASA, ESA, JAXA, INPE, and international coordination mechanism of CEOS, GOFC-GOLD and GEO. These efforts will in the next few years further decrease the amount of costs and efforts to use satellite observations for national-level REDD monitoring.

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3 PRACTICAL EXAMPLES FOR DATA COLLECTION

3.1 OVERVIEW OF METHODS USED BY ANNEX-1 COUNTRIES FOR NATIONAL LULUCF INVENTORIES

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3.1.1 Scope of chapter

Given the high heterogeneity that characterizes the landscape of most Annex-1 countries, the estimation of GHG emissions and removals from the Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector typically represents one of the most challenging aspects of the national GHG inventories. This is witnessed also by the fact that, based on the information submitted annually to UNFCCC[51], it emerges that the LULUCF sector of most Annex-1 countries is still not fully complete (in terms of categories and carbon pools), and that uncertainties are still rather high. However, it should be also considered that, given the imminent reporting under the Kyoto Protocol (from 2010), significant improvements will likely occur in coming years.

This heterogeneity is also reflected in the methods used by Annex-1 countries to estimate GHG emissions and removals from the LULUCF sector, which largely depend on national circumstances, including available data and their characteristics.

With regard to the category "forest land", in most Annex-1 countries, forest inventories provide the basic inputs for both activity data (area of forest and conversions to/from forest) and emission factors (carbon stock changes in the various pools). Furthermore, the use of satellite data is not yet very common for LULUCF inventories, although the situation may rapidly change. Exceptions already exist, with some countries without forest inventories relying heavily on satelite data and modelling approaches.

This section provides a short overview of the variety of methods used by Annex-1 countries for estimating forest area changes (3.1.2), carbon stock changes (3.1.3) and the related uncertainties (3.1.4). It also includes two relevant examples illustrating how empirical yield-data driven modeling (Canada) and process modeling (Australia) can be used to estimate GHG emissions and removals from LULUCF.

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[51] National inventory reports by Annex-1 countries can be found at: http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/items/2715.php

3.1.2 Methods for estimating forest area changes

The identification of the activity data (area of a land use category, e.g. forest land) often represents the most difficult step for a LULUCF GHG inventory. This is witnessed, for example, by the fact that significant time-series inconsistencies (e.g. when the sum of all land use areas oscillates over time) are relatively frequent in Annex-1 LULUCF inventories. In particular, the main challenge is represented by areas subject to land use changes (e.g. to/from forest): about 30% of Annex-1 countries do not report yet "land converted to forest" (i.e. which is often included in the category "forest remaining forest") and about 50% do not report yet deforestation (despite in some cases the deforestated area is likely to be non-negligible). Although the situation will certainly improve when the reporting under the Kyoto Protocol will start in 2010, the current situation demonstrates the difficulty of representing land use areas and area changes, especially in the very fragmented landscapes which characterize most of Annex-1 countries.

Depending on the available data, various methodologies are applied by Annex I countries to generate the time series for annual activity data. In any case, as most of the methodologies are not capable to generate data with annual time steps, interpolation and extrapolation techniques (i.e., between years or beyond the latest available year) are widely used produce the annual data needed for a GHG inventory.

Given the predominant role that remote sensing will likely play in the future REDD implementation, here we mainly focus on this methodology.

According to the information available from the latest National Inventory Reports (NIR) (Table 3.1, from Achard et al. 2008), only 23 Annex-1 countries (about 60%) explicitly indicated the use of some remote sensing techniques (or the use of related products, e.g. Corine Land Cover) in the preparation of their GHG inventories. Generally, these countries integrated the existing ground-based information (e.g., national statistics for the agricultural, forestry, hydraulic and urban sectors, vegetation and topographic maps, climate data) with remote sensing data (like aerial photographs, satellite imagery using visible and/or near-infrared bands, etc.), using GIS techniques.

In particular, the following remote sensing techniques were used:

1) Aerial photography: although analysis of aerial photographs is considered one of the most expensive method for representing land areas, 11 Annex-1 countries used this methodology, in combination with ground data and in some case with other techniques or land cover map (e.g. CORINE Land cover), to detect land use and land use changes. For instance, France used 15600 aerial photographs together with ground surveys (TerUti LUCAS). The reason is essentially due to the existence for some countries of historic aerial photos acquired for other purposes; although these images are sometimes characterized by different spatial resolution and quality, they permit to monitor accurately land use and land use changes back in the past.

2) Satellite imagery (using visible and/or near-infrared bands and related products): only very few countries used detailed satellite imagery in the visible and/or near-infrared bands for representing land areas.

   For example, Australia combined coarse (NOAA/AVHRR) and detailed (LANDSAT MMS, TM, ETM+) satellite imagery to obtain long time series of data (see Ch. 3.1.4.1 for further details). Canada uses satellite imagery to generate a detailed mosaic of distinct land cover categories; according to their NIR, in 2006 they used LANDSAT, SPOT, IRS (Indian Remote Sensing System) imagery and Google maps (based on LANDSAT and QUICKBIRD) whereas in 2007 only LANDSAT imagery were used.

   New Zealand based their Land Cover Database (LCDB1 and 2) on SPOT (2 and 3) and LANDSAT 7 ETM+ satellite imagery; mapping of land use in 2009 will use SPOT 5 satellite imagery. Within the LUCAS project (Land Use and Carbon Analysis System), the location and timing of forest harvesting will be identified with medium spatial resolution (250 m) MODIS satellite imagery, while the actual area of harvesting and deforestation will be determined with high resolution satellite systems or aerial photography.

France used numerous satellite images for representing land areas of French Guyana: in total, 16786 ground points were analyzed in 1990 and 2006 using LANDSAT and SPOT imagery, respectively.

Table 3.1: Use of Remote Sensing in Annex I Countries, as reported in their latest National Inventory Reports (from Achard et al. 2008).

Annex-I Countries	Aerial Photography	Satellite imagery (using visible and/or near-infrared bands and related products)				Satellite or airborne radar imagery	Airborne LIDAR
		Coarse resolution	Medium resolution	Fine resolution	CORINE (CLC)		
Australia	Yes	Yes	Yes				
Austria							
Belgium					Yes[4]		
Bulgaria							
Canada	Yes		Yes	Yes[2]			
Croatia							
Czech Republic					Yes		
Denmark							
Estonia					Yes[4]		
Finland			Yes[5,6]				
France	Yes		Yes[5]				
Germany					Yes[4]		
Greece							
Hungary					Yes[4]		
Iceland			Yes		Yes[1]		
Ireland					Yes		
Italy	Yes		Yes[1]		Yes[4]		
Japan	Yes[4]						
Latvia							
Liechtenstein	Yes						
Lithuania							
Luxembourg	Yes		Yes[1]				
Monaco							
Netherlands			Yes[1]				
New Zealand	Yes	Yes[1]	Yes	Yes[1]		Yes[1]	Yes[1]
Norway	Yes						Yes[3]
Poland							
Portugal					Yes[4]		
Romania							
Slovakia							
Slovenia							
Spain					Yes[4]		
Sweden			Yes[4,5,6]				
Switzerland	Yes						
Turkey					Yes[4]		
Ukraine							
United Kingdom							
USA	Yes		Yes[6]				

Notes: 1. Use of this methodology planned in the future; 2. Methodology reported in previous NIR but not in the latest; 3. The intention to use this methodology reported in previous NIR but not in the latest; 4. Methodology used only for reporting of some IPCC categories; 5. Methodology used only for reporting of a portion of territory of the Country; 6. Methodology not specified. Note that NIRs by Russian Federation and Belarus were not included in this analysis because only available in Russian.

Some European countries reported the use of satellite imagery for supporting stratification of the national forest inventory. Furthermore, 10 countries used existing land cover maps, like the CORINE products (1990 and or 2000 maps, and the associated change product), that are based on interpretation of satellite imagery and their verification through ground surveys. For example, Czech Republic and Ireland used the CORINE products for reporting all the categories indicated by IPCC (2003), whereas other countries used the CORINE Land Cover map (CLC) to report only some IPCC categories, like Estonia (organic soils), Hungary (wetlands), Germany, Italy, Portugal, Spain and Turkey.

3) Satellite or airborne radar imagery: none countries reported the use of satellite or airborne radar imagery for representing land areas. New Zealand may use satellite radar, within the LUCAS project, to identify the location and timing of forest harvesting if the evaluation of using medium spatial resolution (250 m) MODIS satellite images will be unsuccessful.

4) Airborne LIDAR (Light Detecting and Ranging): only New Zealand reports the use of airborne LiDAR, in combination with field measurements, to estimate for 2008 the changes in carbon stocks in forests planted after January 1st 1990, within plots established on a 4 km grid across the country. The LiDAR data are calibrated against the field measurements and only for forest plots that are inaccessible LiDAR data will be processed to provide the total amount of carbon per plot; the measurement process on the same plots will be repeated at the end of the Kyoto Protocol's commitment period (around 2012).

In conclusion, only a minority of countries – typically characterized by large land areas not easily accessible - makes a direct use of satellite-remote sensing for GHG inventory preparation. By contrast, most European countries - typically characterized by a more intensive land management and by a long tradition of forest inventories – do not use satellite-remote sensing or uses only derived products such as CORINE, at least for gathering ancillary information. In these cases, forest area and forest area changes are determined through other methods, including permanent plots, forest and agricultural surveys, census, registries or observational maps.

Thus, in most cases, the use of satellite data for LULUCF inventories by Annex-1 countries is currently not as important as it will likely be for REDD. However, the situation seems in rapid development, as several Annex I countries have indicated the intention to use more remote sensing data in the near future (e.g., Italy, Netherlands, Denmark, Luxembourg, Iceland). Furthermore, the fact that the stringent reporting under Kyoto Protocol is approaching means that several countries are struggling in improving GHG inventories, which may involve a more intensive use of remote sensing products.

3.1.3 Methods for estimating carbon stock changes

As explained in Chapter 2.4, the approaches used to assess the changes of carbon stocks in the the different carbon pools are essentially two: the "gain-loss" approach (sometimes called "process-based" or "IPCC default"), which estimates the net balance of additions to and removals from a carbon pool, and the "stock change" (or "stock-difference"), which estimates the difference in carbon stocks in a given carbon pool at two points in time. While the gain-loss can be applied with all tier levels, the stock change approach typically requires country-specific information (i.e. at least tier 2).

In general, for the category "forest land", the most important pool in terms of carbon stock changes is the aboveground biomass, both for the removals (e.g. in "land converted to forest" and "forest remaining forest") and for the emissions (e.g. deforestation); however, some exception may also occur, e.g. emissions from organic soils may be far more relevant than carbon stock changes in biomass.

For the aboveground biomass pool of forest, the majority of Annex-1 countries either use the gain-loss or a mix of the two approaches, depending on the availability of data; in this case, tier 2 or tier 3 methods are typically applied, i.e. the input for calculating carbon stock changes are country-specific data on growth, harvest and natural disturbances (e.g. forest fires), often based on or complemented by yield models (e.g. UK, Italy, Ireland). By contrast, relatively few countries indicate the use of the stock change approach (e.g. Sweden, Germany, Spain, Belgium, US). Both approaches use (directly or indirectly) of timber volume data collected through regional or national forest inventories; in these cases, the conversion from timber volume into carbon stock is generally done with country-specific biomass functions (e.g. Austria, Finland, Ireland and Spain) or biomass expansion factors. For belowground biomass, most countries use default or country-specific ratios of above to belowground biomass.

Regarding the other pools (dead organic matter and soils) the situation in rather diverse. In several cases, due to the lack of appropriate data, the tier-1 method is used, which assumes no change in carbon stock (except for drained organic soils) in case of no change in land uses (e.g. forest remaining forest). For dead organic matter and soils this assumptions is applied by about 50% and 70% of Annex-1 countries, respectively; the other countries use either country-specific factors or models (i.e. tier 2 and 3 methods). In case of land use change (from/to forest), the carbon stock changes of these pools is generally assessed by the difference of carbon stock reference values (in most cases country-specific and appropriately disaggregated) between the two land uses.

3.1.4 National carbon budget models

This chapter illustrates two relevant examples of tier-3 models for estimating GHG emissions and removals from forests: an empirical yield-data driven model (Canada, 3.1.4.1) and a satellite data-driven process model (Australia, 3.1.4.2).

3.1.4.1 The Operational-Scale Carbon Budget Model of the Canadian Forest Sector (CBM-CFS3)

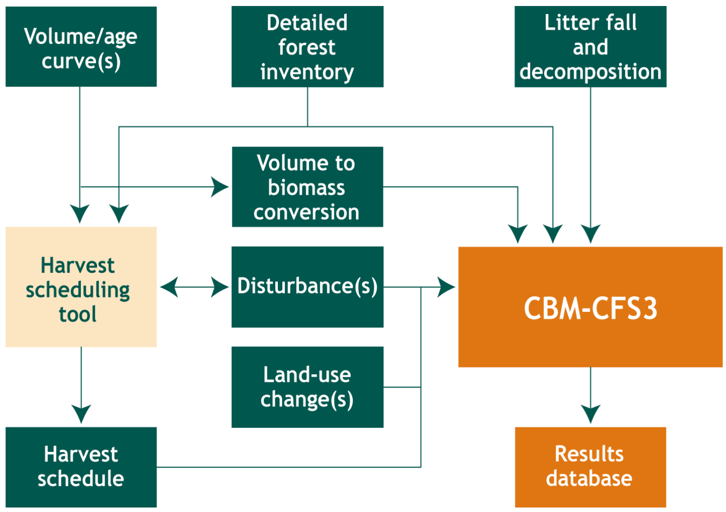
For over two decades, Natural Resources Canada's Canadian Forest Service (CFS) has been involved in research aimed at understanding and modeling carbon dynamics in Canada's forest ecosystems. In 2001, the CFS in partnership with Canada's Model Forest Network set out to design, develop and distribute an operational-scale forest carbon accounting modeling software program to Canada's forestry community. The software would give forest managers, be they small woodlot owners or provincial or industrial forest managers, a tool with which to assess their forest ecosystem carbon stocks, and forest management planning options in terms of their ability to sequester and store carbon from the atmosphere.

The CBM-CFS3 was also developed to be the central model of Canada's National Forest Carbon Monitoring, Accounting and Reporting System (NFCMARS) (Kurz and Apps 2006), which is used for international reporting of the carbon balance of Canada's managed forest (Kurz et al. 2009). Its purpose is to estimate forest carbon stocks, changes in carbon stocks, and emissions of non-CO_2 greenhouse gases in Canada's managed forests. The NFCMARS is based on an empirical yield-data driven model approach. It is designed to estimate past changes in forest carbon stocks—i.e., from 1990 to 2007 (monitoring)—and to predict, based on scenarios of future disturbance rates, land-use change and management actions, changes in carbon stocks in the next two to three decades (projection).

The system integrates information - such as forest inventories, information on forest growth and yield obtained from temporary and permanent sample plots, statistics on natural disturbances such fires and insects, and land-use change and forest management activities. The NFCMARS modeling framework incorporates the best available information and scientific understanding of the ecological processes involved in forest carbon cycling (Figure 3.1.1). Key elements of the System include:

- **The Carbon Budget Model of the Canadian Forest Sector (CBM-CFS3)**
- **Tracking Land-Use Change** (monitoring changes in carbon stocks that result from afforestation, reforestation, or deforestation activities in Canada)
- **Forest Inventory** (area-based inventory approach for managed and unmanaged forest)
- **Forest Management and Disturbance Monitoring** (use the best available statistics on forest management and natural disturbances, obtained from the National Forestry Database program, the Canadian Wildland Fire Information System, and from provincial and territorial resource management agencies)
- **Spatial Framework** (A nested ecological framework, consisting of 18 reporting zones based on the Terrestrial Ecozones of Canada. Beneath these, 2 layers of nested spatial units comprised of 60 reconciliation units and over 500 management units are included.)
- **Special Projects** to advance the scientific basis of the NFCMARS, a number of special research, monitoring and modeling projects are conducted (Fluxnet studies, adding spatially explicit modeling, dead organic matter calibration and uncertainty and sensitivity analysis)
-

Figure 3.1.1: CBM-CFS3 uses data from forest management planning for national-scale integration of forest C cycle data.



Main outputs:

- **National Inventory Report** (as every Annex-1 country, Canada prepares an annual National Inventory Report detailing the country's greenhouse gas emissions and removals, as per United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change guidelines (UNFCCC) http://www.ec.gc.ca/pdb/ghg/inventory_e.cfm).
- **Policy Development Support** (work with policy makers in both the federal and provincial governments to ensure forest policy development is supported by sound science)

The CBM-CFS3 is a stand- and landscape level modeling framework that simulates the dynamics of all forest carbon stocks required under the UNFCCC. It is compliant with the carbon estimation methods of the Tier-3 approach outlined in the Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (2003) report published by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC 2003).

The model builds on the same information used for forest management planning activities (e.g., forest inventory data, tree species, natural and human-induced disturbance information, forest harvest schedules and land-use change information), supplemented with information from national ecological parameter sets and volume-to-biomass equations appropriate for Canadian species and forest regions.

Although the model currently contains a set of default ecological parameters appropriate for Canada, these parameters can be modified by the user, allowing for the potential application of the model in other countries. Other languages are being added to the user interface.

International activities

The CFS Carbon Accounting Team (CAT) holds CBM-CFS3 training workshops across Canada. Many foreign participants have also been trained. Interest in Canada's innovative approach to forest GHG modeling and reporting through the NFCMARS has been growing. In 2005, NRCAN began a bilateral project with the Russian Federal Forest Agency to share knowledge and approaches to forest carbon accounting with scientists in Russia where the model has been used for regional- and national-scale analyses. More recently, the CFS-CAT began a collaborative project with CONAFOR (Comisión Nacional Forestal), the Government of Mexico's Ministry of Forests, to assess and test the suitability of the CBM-CFS3 in the wide range of forests and climates of that country. The aim of the project is to determine whether the model could contribute towards Mexico's GHG accounting system and towards Mexico's efforts to account for the effects of reducing emissions from deforestation and degradation (REDD). The model can be used in REDD or project-based mitigation efforts to provide both the baseline and the with-project estimates of GHG emissions and removals.

The CFS-CAT is continuing to develop and refine the CBM-CFS3 to accommodate improvements in the science of the forest carbon cycle, changes in policy surrounding climate change and forests, and changes to broaden the use and applicability of the model in other ecosystems. For more information visit: http://carbon.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca

3.1.4.2 National Carbon Accounting System (NCAS) of Australia

The NCAS was established by the Australian Government in 1998 to comprehensively monitor greenhouse gas emissions at all scales (project through to national), with coverage of all pools (living biomass, debris and soil), all gases (CO_2 and non-CO_2), all lands and all activities. The approach is spatially and temporally explicit, and inclusive of all lands and causes of emissions and removals, including climate variability. It is currently the only example of the full application of a Tier 3, Approach 3 modeling system.

The NCAS represents one of the few examples of a fully integrated, purpose built carbon accounting system that is not based around a long-term national forest inventory (which did not exist in Australia). The system was designed specifically to meet Australia's international reporting needs (UNFCCC and Kyoto) as well as supporting project based accounting under future market mechanisms. The key policy issues that the system was designed to address were:

- Nationally consistent reporting for all lands
- Reporting of emissions and removals for 1990
- Sub hectare reporting as required by the Kyoto protocol
- Geographic identification of projects

A key issue faced by Australia in developing the NCAS was the lack of complete and consistent national forest inventory information, especially in the woodland forests where the majority of Australia's land use change occurs. Implementing a national forest inventory was considered as an option, but was rejected as it would have been extremely costly to establish and maintain, would not have provided the information required to develop an accurate estimate of emissions and removals in 1990 and would not have been able to include all pools and all gases. Instead, Australia developed an innovative system utilizing a variety of ground measured and remotely acquired data sources integrated with ecosystem models to allow for fully spatial explicit modeling. The key elements of the system are:

- The Full Carbon Accounting Model (FullCAM)
- Time series consistent, complete wall-to-wall mapping of forest extent and change in forest extent from 1972 at fine spatial scales (25 m pixel) using Landsat data
- Spatially and temporally explicit climate data (e.g. rainfall, vapour pressure deficit, temperature) and spatially explicit biophysical data (e.g. soil types, carbon contents)
- Species and management information
- Extensive model calibration and validation ground data

The core component of the NCAS is the Full Carbon Accounting Model (FullCAM). FullCAM is best described as a mass balance, C:N ratio, hybrid process-empirical ecosystem model that calculates carbon and nitrogen flows associated with all biomass, litter and soil pools in forest and agricultural systems. FullCAM uses a variety of spatial and temporal data, tabular and remotely sensed data to allow for the spatially explicit modeling of:

- Forests, including the effects of thinnings, multiple rotations and fires
- Agricultural cropping or grazing systems - including the effects of harvest, ploughing, fire, herbicides and grazing
- Transitions between forest and agriculture (afforestation, reforestation and deforestation)

The hybrid approach applied in FullCAM uses process models to describe relative site productivity and the effects of climate on growth and decay, while simple empirical models set the limits and general patterns of growth. Hybrid approaches have the advantage of being firmly grounded by empirical data while still reflecting site conditions. The seamless integration of the component models in a mass-balance framework allows for the use field-based techniques to directly calibrate and validate estimates. These data have been obtained from a variety of sources including:

- A thorough review of existing data in both the published and unpublished (e.g. PhD theses) literature including biomass, debris and soil carbon
- A comprehensive soil carbon sampling system to validate model results
- Full destructive sampling of forests to obtain accurate biomass measurements
- Analysis of existing research data for site specific model calibration and testing
- Ongoing research programs on soil carbon, biomass and non-CO2 emissions

FullCAM, the related data and the NCAS technical report series are freely available as part of the National Carbon Accounting Toolbox (http://www.climatechange.gov.au/ncas/ncat/index.html). The Toolbox allows users to develop project level accounts for their property using the tools and data used to develop the national accounts.

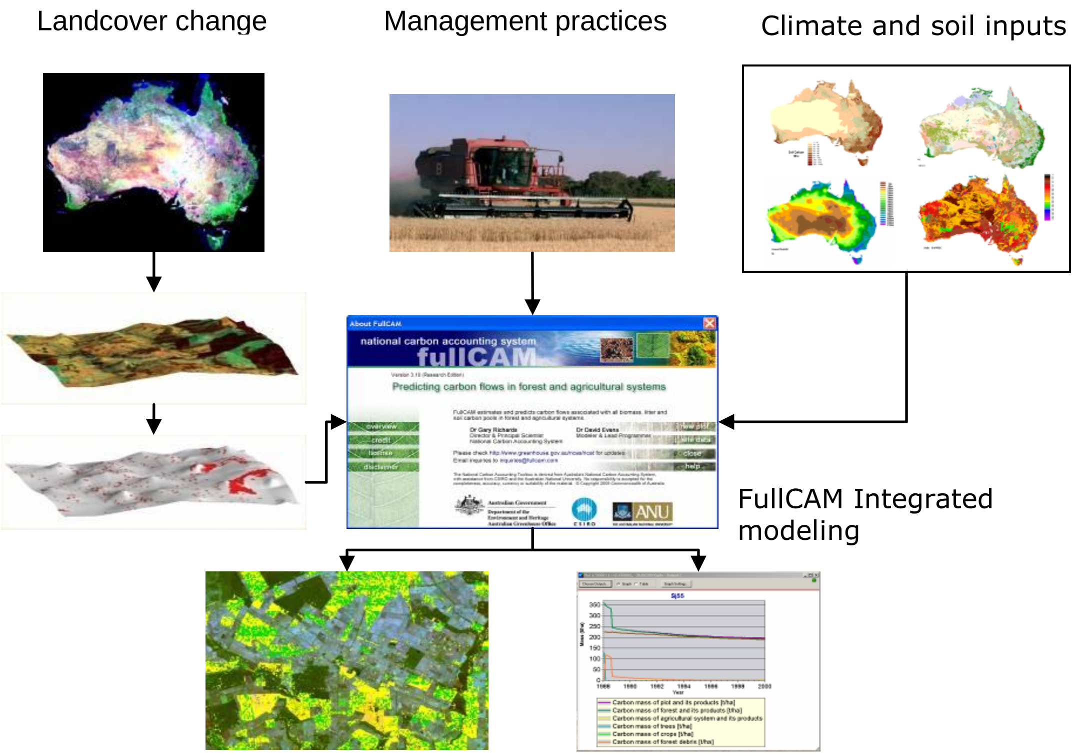


Figure 3.1.2: Graphical depiction of the NCAS modeling framework

International activities

Australia has developed considerable experience and expertise in developing carbon accounting systems to monitor land use change over the past decade. Australia is currently involved directly with countries such as Indonesia and Papua New Guinea and indirectly through the Clinton Climate Initiative to pass on the experiences of developing the NCAS. Rather than promoting the direct application of the Australian NCAS modeling system, the Australian Government is providing policy and technical advice to allow countries to design and develop their own systems to meet their own specific conditions. Like the systems developed by Annex 1 counties, those being developed by less developed countries will differ in their methods and data. However the results of all the systems should be comparable.

3.1.5 Estimation of uncertainties

The majority of Annex-1 countries performed some uncertainty assessment for the LULUCF sector, but in most cases with tier 1 (error propagation), not covering the whole sector and often largely based on expert judgments (which are rather uncertain themselves). Estimated uncertainties are generally higher for emission factors (i.e. carbon stock changes for unit of area) than for activity data (i.e. area of different land uses), e.g. for “forest remaining forest” most of the reported uncertainties for the CO_2 removals by the living biomass are between 25% and 50%, while for the forest area are generally lower than 25%. When estimated, uncertainties associated to land use changes and to emissions from the soil pool are typically higher. As example, the overall LULUCF uncertainty of the European Community (15 Member States) has been preliminary estimated around 40%.

Please refer to Section 2.6 for further information on uncertainty assessment.

3.1.6 Key References for section 3.1

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NCAS (National Carbon Accounting System of Australia). Description available at: www.climatechange.gov.au/ncas. For further information contact: Dr Gary Richards, Principal Scientist, National Carbon Accounting System, Department of Climate Change, Email: Gary.Richards@climatechange.gov.au,

3.2 OVERVIEW OF THE EXISTING FOREST AREA CHANGES MONITORING SYSTEMS

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3.2.1 Scope of chapter

This chapter presents an overview of the existing forest area changes monitoring systems at the national scale in tropical countries using remote sensing imagery.

Section 3.3.2 describes national case studies: the Brazilian system which produces annual estimates of deforestation in the legal Amazon, the Indian National biannual forest cover assessment, an example of a sampling approach in the Congo basin and an example of wall-to-wall approach in Cameroon.

3.2.2 National Case Studies

3.2.2.1 Brazil – annual wall to wall approach

The Brazilian National Space Agency (INPE) produces annual estimates of deforestation in the legal Amazon from a comprehensive annual national monitoring program called PRODES.

The Brazilian Amazon covers an area of approximately 5 million km2, large enough to cover all of Western Europe. Around 4 million km2 of the Brazilian Amazon is covered by forests. The Government of Brazil decided to generate periodic estimates of the extent and rate of gross deforestation in the Amazon, "a task which could never be conducted without the use of space technology".

The first complete assessment by INPE was undertaken in 1978. Annual assessments have been conducted by INPE since 1988. For each assessment 229 Landsat satellite images are acquired around August and analyzed. Results of the analysis of the satellite imagery are published every year. Spatially-explicit results of the analysis are also publicly available (see http://www.obt.inpe.br/prodes/prodes_1988_2007.htm).

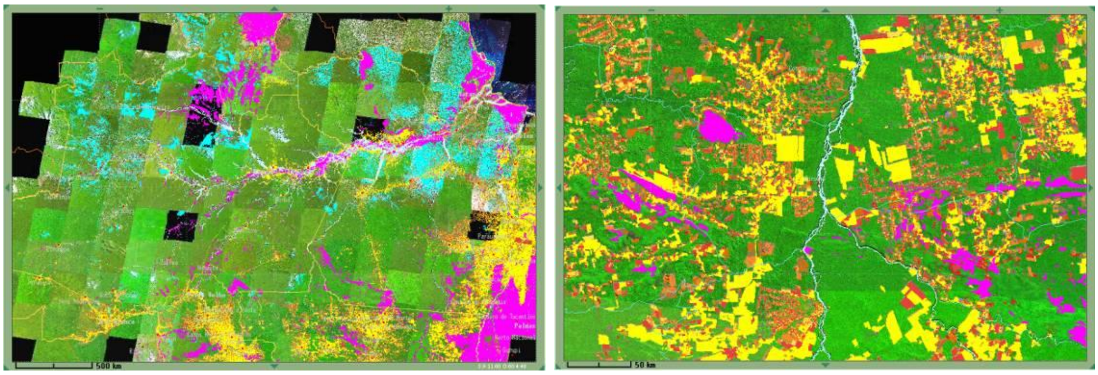
The PRODES project has been producing the annual rate of gross deforestation since 1988 using a minimum mapping (change detection) unit of 6.25 ha. To be more detailed, and so as to profit from the dry weather conditions of the summer for cloud free satellite images, the project is carried out once a year, with the release of estimates foreseen in December of that same year. PRODES uses imagery from TM sensors onboard Landsat satellites, sensors of DMC satellites and CCD sensors from CBERS satellites, with a spatial resolution between 20m and 30m.

PRODES also provides the spatial distribution of critical areas (in terms of deforestation) in the Amazon. As an example, for the period August 1999 to August 2000, more than 80% of the deforestation was concentrated in 49 of the 229 satellite images analyzed.

Box 3.2.1: Example of result of the PRODES project:

Landsat satellite mosaic of year 2006 with deforestation during period 2000-2006

Brazilian Amazon window (~3,400 km x 2,200 km) | Zoom on Mato Grosso (around Jurunea) (~ 400 km x 30 km)



Forested areas appear in green, non-forest areas appear in violet, old deforestation (1997- 2000) in yellow and recent deforestation (from 2001) in orange-red.

A new methodological approach based on digital processing is now in operational phase. A geo-referenced, multi-temporal database is produced including a mosaic of deforested areas by States of Brazilian federation. All results for the period 1997 to 2008 are accessible and can be downloaded from the INPE web site at: http://www.obt.inpe.br/prodes/.

Since May 2005, the Brazilian government also has in operation the DETER (Detecção de Desmatamento em Tempo Real) system to serve as an alert in almost real-time (every 15 days) for deforestation events larger than 25 ha. The system uses MODIS data (spatial resolution 250m) and WFI data on board CBERS-2 (spatial resolution 260m) and a combination of linear mixture modeling and visual analysis. Results are publicly available through a web-site: http://www.obt.inpe.br/deter/.

In complement to its well-known deforestation monitoring system (PRODES) and its alert system (DETER), a new system has been developed in 2008 to monitor forest area changes within forests (forest degradation), particularly selective logging, named DEGRAD. The demand for DEGRAD emerged after recent studies confirmed that logging damages annually an area as large as the area affected by deforestation in this region (i.e., 10,000-20,000 km2/year). The DEGRAD system will support the management and monitoring of large forest concession areas in the Brazilian Amazon. The DEGRAD system is based on the detection of degraded areas detected from the DETER alarm system. As PRODES, DEGRAD is using Landsat TM and CBERS data with a minimum mapping unit of 6.25 ha. Degraded areas have been estimated for Brazilian Amazonia in 2007 and 2008.

3.2.2.2 India – Biennial wall to wall approach

The application of satellite remote sensing technology to assess the forest cover of the entire country in India began in early 1980s. The National Remote Sensing Agency (NRSA) prepared the first forest map of the country in 1984 at 1:1 million scale by visual interpretation of Landsat data acquired at two periods: 1972-75 and 1980-82. The Forest Survey of India (FSI) has since been assessing the forest cover of the country on a two year cycle. Over the years, there have been improvements both in the remote sensing data and the interpretation techniques. The 10th biennial cycle has just been completed from digital interpretation of data from year 2005 at 23.5 m resolution with a minimum mapping unit of 1 ha. The details of the data, scale of interpretation, methodology followed in wall to wall forest cover mapping over a period of 2 decades done in India is presented in Table 3.4.

The entire assessment from the procurement of satellite data to the reporting, including image rectification, interpretation, ground truthing and validation of the changes by the State/Province Forest Department, takes almost two years.

The last assessment (X cycle) used satellite data from the Indian satellite IRS P6 (Sensor LISS III at 23.5 m resolution) mostly from the period November-December (2004) which is the most suitable period for Indian deciduous forests to be discriminated by satellite data. Satellite imagery with less than 10% cloud cover is selected. For a few cases (e.g. north-east region and Andaman & Nicobar Islands where availability of cloud free data during Nov-Dec is difficult) data from January-February were used.

Table 3.2.1. State of the Forest Assessments of India

Assessment	Data Period	Satellite Sensor	Resolution	Scale	Analysis	Forest Cover Million ha
I	1981-83	LANDSAT-MSS	80 m	1:1 million	visual	64.08
II	1985-87	LANDSAT-TM	30 m	1:250,000	visual	63.88
III	1987-89	LANDSAT-TM	30 m	1:250,000	Visual	63.94
IV	1989-91	LANDSAT-TM	30 m	1:250,000	Visual	63.94
V	1991-93	IRS-1B LISSII	36.25 m	1:250,000	Visual	63.89
VI	1993-95	IRS-1B LISSII	36.25 m	1:250,000	Visual	63.34
VII	1996-98	IRS-1C/1D LISS III	23.5 m	1:250,000	digital/ visual	63.73
VIII	2000	IRS-1C/1D LISS III	23.5 m	1:50,000	digital	65.38
IX	2002	IRS-1D LISS III	23.5 m	1:50,000	digital	67.78
X	2004	IRS P6- LISS III	23.5 m	1:50,000	digital	67.70

Satellite data are digitally processed, including radiometric and contrast corrections and geometric rectification (using geo-referenced topographic sheets at 1:50,000 scale from Survey of India). The interpretation involves a hybrid approach combining unsupervised classification in raster format and on screen visual interpretation of classes. The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) is used for excluding non-vegetated areas. The areas of less than 1 ha are filtered (removed).

The initial interpretation is then followed by extensive ground verification which takes more than six months. All the necessary corrections are subsequently incorporated. Reference data collected by the interpreter during the field campaigns are used in the classification of the forest cover patches into canopy density classes. District wise and States/Union Territories forest cover maps are produced.

Accuracy assessment is an independent exercise. Randomly selected sample points are verified on the ground (field inventory data) or with satellite data at 5.8 m resolution and compared with interpretation results. In the X assessment, 4,291 points were randomly distributed over the entire country. The overall accuracy level of the assessment has been found to be 92 %.

India classifies its lands into the following cover classes:

Very Dense Forest	All lands with tree cover of canopy density of 70% and above
Moderately Dense Forest	All lands with tree cover of canopy density between 40 % and 70 % above
Open Forest	All lands with tree cover of canopy density between 10 – 40 %.
Scrub	All forest lands with poor tree growth mainly of small or stunted trees having canopy density less than 10 percent.
Non-forest	Any area not included in the above classes.

3.2.2.3 Congo basin – example of a sampling approach

Analyses of changes in forest cover at national scales have been carried out by the research community. These studies have advanced methodologies for deforestation monitoring and provided assessments of deforestation outside the realm of national governments. As one example, a test of the systematic sampling approach has been carried out in Central Africa to derive area estimates of forest cover change between 1990 and 2000. The proposed systematic sampling approach using mid-resolution imagery (Landsat) was operationally applied to the entire Congo River basin to accurately estimate deforestation at regional level and, for large-size countries, at national level. The survey was composed of 10 × 10 km2 sampling sites systematically distributed every 0.5° over the whole forest domain of Central Africa, corresponding to a sampling rate of 3.3 % of total area. For each of the 571 sites, subsets were extracted from both Landsat TM and ETM+ imagery acquired in 1990 and 2000 respectively. The satellite imagery was analyzed with object-based (multi-date segmentation) unsupervised classification techniques.

Around 60% of the 390 cloud-free images do not show any forest cover change. For the other 165 sites, the results are represented by a change matrix for every sample site describing four regrouped land cover change processes, e.g. deforestation, reforestation, forest degradation and forest recovery (the samples in which change in forest cover is observed are classified into 10 land cover classes, i.e. “dense forest”, “degraded forest”, “long fallow & secondary forest”, “forest/agriculture mosaic”, “agriculture & short fallow”, “bare soil & urban area”, “non forest vegetation”, “forest-savannah mosaic”, “water bodies” and “no data”). “Degraded forest” were defined spectrally from the imagery (lighter tones in image color composites as compared to dense forests – see next picture).

For a region like Central Africa (with 180 Million ha), using 390 samples, corresponding to a sampling rate of 3.3 %, this exercise estimates the annual deforestation rate at 0.21 ± 0.05 % for the period 1990-2000. For the Democratic Republic of Congo which is covered by a large-enough number of samples (267), the estimated annual deforestation rate was 0.25 ± 0.06%. Degradation rates were also estimated (annual rate: 0.15 ± 0.03 % for the entire basin).

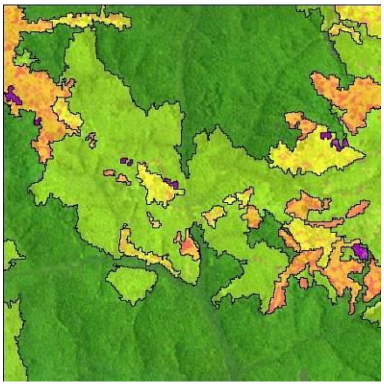
The accuracy of the image interpretation was evaluated from the 25 quality control sample sites. For the forest/non-forest discrimination the accuracy is estimated at 93 % (n = 100) and at 72 % for the 10 land cover classes mapping (n = 120). The overall accuracy of the 2 regrouped change classes, deforestation and reforestation, is estimated at 91 %. The exercise illustrates also that the statistical precision depends on the sampling intensity.

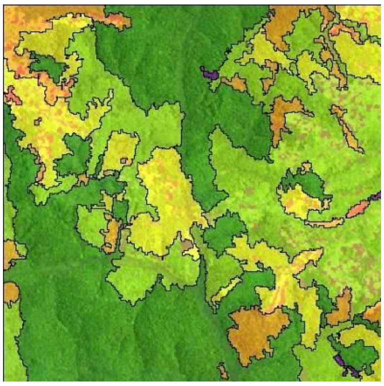
Box 3.2.2: Example of results of interpretation for a sample in Congo Basin

Landsat image (TM sensor) year 1990 Landsat image (ETM sensor) year 2000

Box size: 10 km x 10 km Box size: 10 km x 10 km

Image interpretation of year 1990 Image interpretation of year 2000





Legend: green = Dense forest, light green = degraded forest, yellow = forest/agriculture mosaic, orange = agriculture & fallow.

3.2.2.4 Cameroon – a wall-to-wall approach

A REDD pilot project was initiated in Cameroon under the auspices of the Commission des Forêts d'Afrique Centrale - Central African Forestry Commission- (COMIFAC). This pilot aims at developing a framework for establishing historical references of emissions caused by deforestation, (using Earth Observation for mapping deforestation) combined with regional estimates of degradation nested in the wall-to-wall approach. Preliminary methodological testing in the transition zone between tropical evergreen forest and savannah in Cameroon has been completed[52].

Multi-temporal optical mid-resolution data (Landsat from years 1990 and 2000; DMC from year 2005) was used for the forest mapping in the test area. The method involves a series of three main processing steps: (1) cloud masking, geometric and radiometric adjustment, topographic normalization; (2) forest masking employing a hybrid approach including automatic multi-temporal segmentation, classification and manual correction

[52] Hirschmugl M, Häusler T, Schardt M, Gomez S & Armathe JA 2008. REDD pilot project in Cameroon - Method development and first results. EaRSeL Conference 2008 Proceedings.

and (3) land cover classification of the deforested areas based on spectral signature analysis[53].

3.2.3 Key references for Section 3.2

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[53] www.gmes-forest.info

3.3 NATIONAL FOREST INVENTORY: INDIA'S CASE STUDY

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3.3.1 Scope of chapter

Chapter 3.3 presents the Indian national forest inventory (NFI) as a case study for forest inventories in tropical countries

India has a long experience of conducting forest inventories at divisional / district level for estimating growing stock of harvestable timber. With a view to generate a national level estimate of growing stock in a short time and coincident with the biennial forest cover assessment based on satellite imagery, a new National Forest Inventory (NFI) was designed in 2001.

3.3.2 Introduction on forest inventories in tropical countries

Traditionally, forest inventories in several countries have been done to obtain a reliable estimate of the forest area and growing stock of wood for overall yield regulation purpose. The information was used to prepare the management plans for utilization and development of the forest resource and also to formulate the forest policies. The forest inventory provides data of the growing stock of wood by diameter class, number of the tree as well as the composition of species. Repeated measurement of permanent sample plots also provides the changes in the forest growing stock/ biomass.

A number of sampling designs have been used to conduct the inventory, the most common of which are systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, and cluster sampling. The sampling designs, size and shape of the sample plots and the accuracy levels have depended on the situation of the forest resource, available time frame, budget allocation and available skilled human resource.

In the developing region of the world several countries undertook one time inventory of their forests, usually at the sub-national level and some at the national level in a project mode in the past such as Myanmar[54], Malaysia, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Srilanka etc.. There are, however, a few countries like India and China which are conducting the national forest inventory on a regular basis and have well established national institution for the same.

India has a long experience of conducting forest inventory at divisional / district level which has forest area of about 1,000 km^2, mainly for estimating growing stock of harvestable timber needed for preparation of operational plan (Working Plan) of the area. The first working plan of a division was prepared in the 1860s and then gradually extended to other forest areas. The methodology for preparation was refined and quality improved with availability better maps and data. These inventories followed high intensity of sampling (at least 10%) but covered only a limited forest area (about 10 to 15%) of a division supporting maturing crop where harvesting was to be done during the plan period of 10 to 15 years (Pandey, 2008).

[54] Shutter, H. 1984: National Forest Survey and Inventory of Burma (unpublished), input at 2nd Training Course in Forest Inventory, Dehradun, India

The practice of preparing Working Plan for operational purposes continues even today by the provincial governments but the scale of cutting of trees has been greatly reduced due to increasing emphasis on forest conservation. With the availability of modern inventory tools and methods, a beginning has been made in a few provinces to inventory the total forest area of the division with low intensity of sampling mainly to assess the existing growing stock for sustainable forest management (SFM) and not only for harvesting of timber.

In the Indian Federal set up, almost all the forests of the country are owned and managed by provincial governments. The Federal Government is mainly responsible for formulating policies, strategic planning, enact laws and provide partial financial support to provinces. Using the inventory data of the working plans it has not been possible to estimate growing stock of wood and other parameters of the forest resource at the province or national level.

3.3.3 Indian national forest inventory (NFI)

3.3.3.1 Large scale forest inventories: 1965 to 2000

A relatively large scale comprehensive forest inventory was started by the Federal Government with the support of FAO/UNDP in 1965 using statistically robust approach and aerial photographs under a project named as Pre-Investment Survey of Forest Resources (PIS). The inventory aimed for strategic planning with a focus on assessing wood resource in less explored forests of the country for establishing wood based industries with a low intensity sampling (0.01%). The PIS inventory was not linked to Working Plan preparation nor was its data used to supplement local level inventory. The set up of PIS was subsequently re-organized into national forest monitoring system and a national institution known as Forest Survey of India (FSI) was created in 1981 with basic aim to generate continuous and reliable information on the forest resource of the country. During PIS period about 22.8 million ha of country's forests were inventoried (FSI 1996a). After the creation of the FSI, the field inventory continued with the same strength and pace as the PIS but the design was modified. The total area inventoried until the year 2000 was about 69.2 million ha, which includes some areas which were inventoried twice. Thus more than 80% forest area of the country was inventoried comprehensively during a period of 35 years. Systematic sampling has been the basic design under which forest area was divided into grids of equal size (2½´ minute longitude by 2½´ minute latitude) on topographic sheets and two sample plots were laid in each grid. The intensity of sampling followed in the inventory has been generally 0.01% and sample plot size 0.1 ha

3.3.3.2 National forest inventories from year 2001

With a view to generate a national level estimate of growing stock in a short time and coincident with the biennial forest cover assessment based on satellite imagery, a new National Forest Inventory (NFI) was designed in 2001. Under this programme, the country has been divided into 14 physiographic zones based on physiographic features including climate, soil and vegetation. The method involved sampling 10 percent of the about 600 civil districts representing the 14 different zones in proportion to their size. About 60 districts were selected to be inventoried in two years period. The first estimate of the growing stock was generated at the zonal and national level based on the inventory of 60 districts covered in the first cycle. These estimates are to be further improved in the second and subsequent cycles as the data of first cycle will be combined with second and subsequent cycles. The random selection of the districts is without replacement; hence each time new districts are selected (FSI 2008).

3.3.3.3 Field inventory

In the selected districts, all those areas indicated as Reserved Forests, Protected forests, thick jungle, thick forest etc, and any other area reported to be a forest area by the local Divisional Forest Officers (generally un-classed forests) are treated as forest. For each selected district, Survey of India topographic sheets of 1:50,000 scale are divided into 36 grids of 2½ ´ (minute longitude) by 2½´ (minute latitude). Further, each grid is divided into 4 sub-grids of 1¼´ by 1¼´ forming the basic sampling frame. Two of these sub-grids are then randomly selected for establishing sample plots from one end of the sheet and then systematic sampling is followed for selecting other sub-grids. The intersection of diagonals of such sub-grids is marked as the center of the plot at which a square sample plot of 0.1 ha area is laid out to conduct field inventory (see two figures below for details).

Figure 3.3.1: Selected districts under national forest inventory

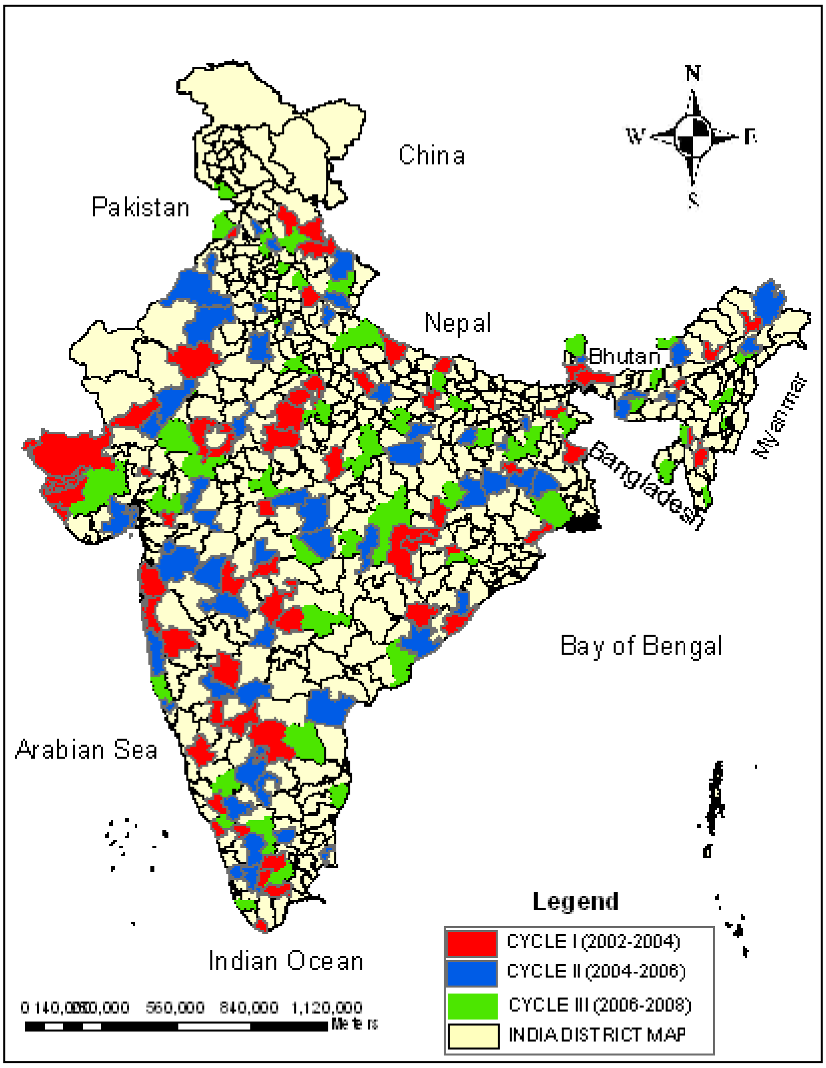
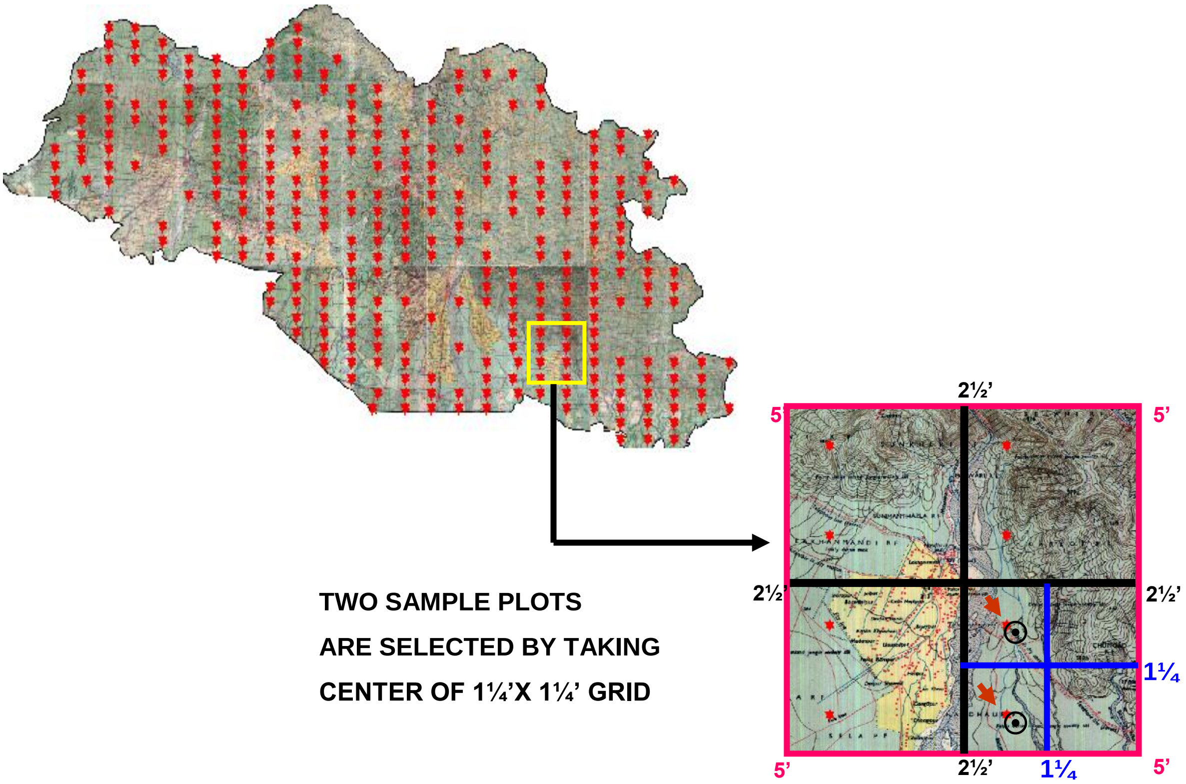


Figure 3.3.2: Forest inventory points in one of the districts



Diameter at breast height (1.37 m) of all the trees above 10 cm (DBH) in the sample plot and height as well as crown diameter of trees standing in only one quarter of the sample plot are measured. In addition legal status, land use, forest stratum, topography, crop composition, bamboo, regeneration, biotic pressure, species name falling in forest area are also recorded. Two sub plots of 1 m2 are laid out at the opposite corners of the sample plot to collect sample for litter/ humus and soil carbon (from a pit of 30 cm x 30cm x 30cm). Further, nested quadrates of 3mx 3 m and 1mx1 m are laid at 30 m distance from the center of the plot in all the four corners for enumeration of shrubs and herbs to assess the biodiversity (FSI 2008).

In two years about 7,000 sample plots representing different physiographic zones in the 60 selected districts are laid and inventoried. The field operations of NFI are executed by the four zonal offices of the FSI located in different parts of the country. About 20 field parties (one field party comprise of one technician as leader, two skilled workers and two unskilled workers) carryout inventory in the field at least for eight months in a year. During the four rainy months the field parties carry out data checking and data entry in the computers at the zonal headquarters. The data is then sent to the FSI headquarters for further checking and processing. After manual checking of the sample data in a random way, inconsistency check is carried out through a soft ware and then data is processed to estimate various parameters of forest resource under the supervision of senior professionals.

For estimating the volume of standing trees FSI has developed volume equations for several hundred tree species growing in different regions of the country (FSI, 1996b). These equations are used to estimate the wood volume of the sample plots. Since equations have been developed on the volume of trees measured above 10 cm diameter at breast height (dbh) trees below 10 cm dbh are not measured and their volume not estimated. Further for the trees above 10 cm dbh the volume of main stem below 10 cm and branches below 5 cm diameter are also not measured. Thus the existing volume equations underestimate the biomass of trees species. The above ground biomass of other living plants (herbs and shrubs) is also not measured.

3.3.3.4 Inventory for missing components of the forest biomass

As mentioned in the previous section the current national forest inventory (NFI) do not measure the total biomass of the trees, besides not measuring the biomass of herbs and shrubs, deadwood. Therefore, a separate nation wide exercise has been undertaken by FSI since August 2008 (FSI 2008) to estimate the biomass of missing components. In this exercise there are two components and both involve destructive sampling. One component is the measurements on individual trees for estimating volume of trees below 10 cm diameter at breast height (dbh) and volume of branch below 5 cm and stem wood below 10 cm for trees above 10 cm dbh. Only about 20 important tree species in each physiographic zone are covered in this exercise. In all there will about 100 tree species at the nation level. The trees and their branches are cut and weighed in a specified manner to measure the biomass. New biomass equations are being developed for the trees species below 10 cm dbh. For the trees above 10 cm dbh the additional biomass measured through this exercise will be added to the biomass of tree species of corresponding dbh whose volume and biomass has already been estimated during NFI.

In the second component sample plots are laid out for measuring volume of deadwood, herb shrub and climbers and litter. Because of the limitation of the time only minimum number of samples plots has been decided. In all only 14 districts in the country, that is, one district from each physiographic zone. While selecting districts (already inventoried under NFI) due care has been taken so that all major forest types (species) and canopy densities are properly represented. About 100 sample points are laid in each district. At national scale there will be about 1400 sample points. The geo-coordinates of selected sample points in each district are sent to field parties for carrying out the field work. In a stratum based on type and density about 15 sample plots are selected which gives a permissible error of 30%. At each sample plot three concentric plots of sizes 5mx5m for dead wood, 3mx3m for shrubs, climbers & litter and 1mx1m for herbs are laid (FSI 2008). The deadwood collected from the sample plots are weighed in the field itself. Green weight of the shrubs, climbers and herbs cut from the ground is also taken which are later converted into dry weight by using suitable conversion factors.

3.3.3.5 Estimation of costs

The total number of temporary sample plots laid out in the forests of 60 districts is about 8,000 where measurements are completed in two years. The field inventory and the data entry are conducted by the zonal offices of the Forest Survey of India located in four different zones of the country. The data checking and its processing are carried out in FSI headquarters (Dehradun). The estimated cost of inventory per sample plot comes to about US$ 158.00 uncluding travel to sample plot, field measurement including checking by supervisors and the rest on field preparation, equipment, designing, data entry, processing etc.

The additional cost for estimating the missing components of biomass has been worked out to be about 52 US$ per plot. This cost would be greatly reduced if the exercise of additional measurements is combined with regular activities of NFI. Moreover the biomass equations developed for trees below 10 cm dbh and that of above 10 cm is one time exercise. There will be no cast on this in future inventory.

3.3.4 Key references for Section 3.3

FSI (1996a): Inventory of forest resources of India, Forest Survey of India, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Dehradun pp 268

FSI (1996b): Volume equations for forests of India, Nepal and Bhutan. Forest Survey of India, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Dehradun pp 249

FSI (2008): State of Forest Report 2005. Forest Survey of India (Dehra Dun). 171 p. Available at http://www.fsi.nic.in/

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3.4 DATA COLLECTION AT LOCAL / NATIONAL LEVEL

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3.4.1 Scope of Chapter: rationale for community based inventories

Forest land in developing countries is increasingly being brought under community management under programmes such as Joint Forest Management, Community Based Forest Management, Collaborative Management, etc, more generally called Community Forest Management (CFM). This movement has been stimulated by the recognition in many countries that the Forest Department (FD), which is nominally responsible for management of state-owned forest, does not have the resources to carry out this task effectively. Rural people, whose livelihoods are supplemented by, or even dependent on, a variety of forest products such as firewood and fodder, foods and medicines, have the potential knowledge and human resources to provide effective management capacity to take care of the forest resources when the FD cannot. Whereas uncontrolled over-exploitation by outsiders, or the communities themselves, will lead to degradation and loss of biomass, CFM establishes formal systems between communities and FDs in which communities have the right to controlled amounts of forest products from a given parcel of forest and in return agree to protect the forest and manage it collectively. Mostly these parcels are relatively small, from 25 to 500 hectares, being managed by groups of 10 to 50 households. A number of countries have used CFM very effectively to reverse deforestation and degradation processes. In Nepal, for example, 25% of all forest land is now more or less sustainably managed by so-called 'Forest User Groups'. Similar processes of forest governance are found on a smaller scale in many other developing countries, e.g. Tanzania, Cameroon, India and Mexico to name a few examples.

This chapter presents how CFM groups and societies can carry out forest inventories, in particular if there is any prospect of payment for environmental services which require reliable, detailed measurements. Carbon services under REDD are a prime example, if communities are engaged in forest inventory work and rewarded for improvements in stock with benefits in cash or kind. Moreover, if communities measure the carbon stock changes in the forests they manage, they may establish 'ownership' of any carbon savings, to strengthen their stake in the REDD reward system and greatly increase transparency in the sub-national / intra-national governance of REDD finances.

How the involvement of local communities in REDD will be achieved in individual countries is within the purview of the national government. Government philosophy, land ownership and tenure rights, competing claims on forest resources (e.g. commercial logging operations) all contribute to a variety of conditions that is untenable for a single solution. However, the requirements for large scale data collection in the field call for the meaningful involvement of local communities, if only to reduce the cost of the inventories.

Box 3.4.1: Community Forest Management practice in Cameroon

In spite of the role of central government and forest legislation in Cameroon it should be noted that social institutions at community level in forest areas are still strongly rooted in rights based on kinship and descent. These rights are of central relevance to the understanding of contemporary issues of land tenure, agriculture and natural resource management and eventually the REDD process.

The state of Cameroon is the sole proprietor and manager of all forest resources. Nevertheless, in certain instances an agreement can be made between the state and a community or group of communities allowing them to manage the forest at their vicinity for their own benefit after the elaboration and acceptance of a management plan by the forest authorities. It is important to note that such a management convention neither grants the community property rights for the domain nor ownership rights for the forest resources. The ownership rights belong to the state and the benefits of the community are defined in the management plan.

In stark contrast, land ownership in the traditional land tenure system is based on succession and inheritance rights that are tied with genealogical rights. Even though these traditional land tenure values are not covered by statutory laws, indigenes of forest communities adhere with incredible tenacity to these “divine” rights. In order to involve communities in the implementation of the REDD process and to guarantee the sharing of benefits, it is of utmost importance to address this issue. A functional system to include effective community based participation is one that recognises the state as the main officiating organisation for all REDD activities, which includes the state’s requirement for community participation and the state’s obligation to equitably share revenues with the communities.

Box 3.4.2: Community Forest Management in Ghana

Until recently, legislative control in Ghana over land, particularly forest resources, was largely vested in the state, whilst custodial title to these resources remained in the stools, skin and families who hold the land in trust for their respective communities. In recognition of the role of local communities in sustainable management of land, the constitution of the Republic of Ghana has empowered and legalized the local communities through the District Assemblies in respect of the Local Government Act (Act 462) to actively court local communities, NGOs, civil society, etc. in the management and conservation of biodiversity. The process is being actively pursued through the Community Resource Management Area (CREMA) concept which seeks progressive devolution of power and management functions to local communities. Several projects and activities have been developed that have relevance to community involvement in REDD:

- The GEF Small Grants Programme is supporting the Wildlife Division of the Forestry Commission to implement the CREMA concept by assisting local communities, NGOs and civil society, to manage wildlife and other natural resources in their own forests. This, in a way, is directly relevant to the REDD process as it will ensure sustained community ownership of the forest resources which ultimately will facilitate the data collection mechanisms for REDD activities. The GEF/SGP in Ghana has distinguished itself in assisting local communities to conserve biological diversity of forests outside the gazetted forest reserves, e.g. by creating buffer zones around sacred groves, rehabilitating degraded areas through enrichment planting and natural regeneration. To date about 200,000 ha of traditionally protected community forests have been conserved and new community natural resource management areas are being created and conserved.

- The Geo-Information for Off-Reserve Tree Management in Goaso District (GORTMAN Project) was funded by Tropenbos International (TBI) as a collaborative research project among the University of Ghana, ITC (Netherlands), University of Freiburg (Germany), and the Resource Management and Support Centre of the Forestry Commission of Ghana (RSMC). This project built capacity in the Forestry Commission to manage large-scale data collection in basic forest properties by local communities, and to develop alternatives for tree felling in lands under control of the local chiefs.

- The GEF-Funded Project "Sustainable Land Management for Mitigating Land Degradation, Enhancing Agricultural Biodiversity and Reducing Poverty" (SLAM) in Ghana , and its successor the GEF-Funded United Nations University (UNU) project "People, Land Management and Environmental Change" (PLEC) also successfully adopted participatory approaches which sought community entry via similar methods in the major agro-ecological zones in Ghana. This included establishment of sampling plots with residents undertaking the more rudimentary aspects of field data collection, e.g. tree species, tree count, DBH including, in some instances integration of hand-held GPS. Additional data collected within the scope of projects included vital-socio-economic data.

Whilst there are no deliberate carbon stock measurements, efforts are being made by NGOs and university and research institutions to involve local communities in participatory activities for field data collection. The capacity of participating communities has been enhanced through training programmes including the Darwin programmes (UK) and local collaborators. REDD processes will offer great opportunities for local communities to have a sense of ownership over their forest resources thereby ensuring data accuracy and integrity. This will ensure their commitment beyond prevailing unattractive alternative livelihood packages being offered them by environmental NGOs. In these and other projects, successful entry has been initiated in close collaboration with local communities and their leaders.

3.4.2 How communities can make their own forest inventories

Forest inventory work is usually considered a professional activity requiring specialised forest education. However, it is well established already that local communities have extensive and intimate knowledge of ecosystem properties, tree species distribution, age distribution, plant associations, etc needed for inventories, and there is growing evidence that land users with very little professional training can make quite adequate and reliable stock assessments. In the Scolel Te project in Mexico, for example, farmers make their own measurements both of tree growth in the agroforestry system, and of stock increases in forests under their protection, and they receive (voluntary market) payment on the basis of this.

The methodology for forest inventory here presented is based on procedures recommended in the IPCC Good Practice Guidelines, but structured in such a way that communities can carry out the different steps themselves without difficulty. Intermediary organizations are required to support some of the tasks, but such intermediary organizations are often already present and assisting communities in their forest management work. The procedures described have been tested at 35 sites in seven countries. Their reliability has been cross-checked using independent professional forest surveyors (see below in section 3.4.4). In all cases where cross-checking was carried out, the communities' estimates of mean forest carbon content differed by less than 5% from that of the professionals.

Much of the work in forest inventory, at least as regards above ground woody biomass, is simple and repetitive and can be carried out by people with very little education, working in teams. The method described makes use of hand-held computers linked with GPS instruments that can be operated by people with as little as four years primary education. The benefit of this setup is the combination of the ease of plot biomass and other data recording in the computer with maps, aerial photos or satellite images visible on screen, together with the linked geo-positioning from the GPS. Though they may never have operated a computer before, village people almost everywhere are familiar with mobile phones, and find the step to hand-held computers quite easy. Some of the key activities need to be supervised by people with some understanding of statistical sampling and who can maintain ICT equipment. Many field offices of forestry organization or local NGOs are able to provide such supportive services. To institutionalize community forest inventories, such intermediaries first need to be trained in the methodology. These intermediaries would then train local communities to carry out many of the steps necessary, and oversee the process at least in the first few years in which the forest inventory is carried out. Certain activities, such as laying out the permanent sample plots, need expertise, but once they are established, annual measurements can be made by the villagers without assistance. Hence there will be higher costs in the initial years, but these fall rapidly over time. See Tables 3.4.1 and 3.4.2 for an overview of the steps involved in this process for the intermediaries and the communities, respectively. Naturally, there will always be a need for independent verification of carbon claims; Section 3.4.6 considers the options for this.

Table 3.4.1: **Tasks requiring input from intermediary**

Task	Who?	Equipment	Frequency	Description and comments
1. Identify forest inventory team members (4 to 7)	Intermediary in consultation with community leaders		At start	Need to include people who are familiar with the forest and active in its management; at least some must be literature/numerate. Ideally the same people will do the forest inventory work each year so that skills are developed and not lost. There is some danger of elite capture of the benefits, particularly if cash payments for carbon gains are to be made over to the community, attention must be given to this to ensure transparency within the community as a whole.
2. Programming PDA with base map, database & C calculator	Intermediary	PDA, internet	Once, at start of work	Any geo-referenced area map of suitable scale can scanned and entered into the PDA for use as the base map. Database format can be downloaded from website into PDA, as can the carbon calculator.
3. Map boundaries of community forest	Community, with intermediary assistance	PDA with GIS and GPS	Once, at start of work	Boundaries of many community forests are known to local people but not recorded on formal maps or geo-referenced. PDAs with built-in or attached GPS can easily be operated by local people to track and mark these boundaries on the base map, enabling area for forest to be calculated.
4. Identify and map any important forest strata	Community with intermediary assistance	PDA with GIS and GPS	Once, at start of work	Communities know their forests well. This step is best carried out by first discussing the nature of the forest and confirming what variations there may be within it (different species mix, different levels of degradation etc). Such zones can then be mapped by walking their boundaries with the GPS.
5. Pilot survey in each stratum to establish number of sample plots	Community with intermediary assistance	Tree tapes and/or calipers		The pilot survey is done with around 15 plots in each stratum. Measuring the trees in these plots could form the training exercise in which the intermediary first introduces the community forest inventory team to measurement methods.
6. Setting out permanent plots on map	Intermediary	Base map, calculator	Once, at start	This requires statistical calculation of number of plots needed, based on the standard error found in the pilot measurements. A tailor made programme for this is downloadable from the website and can be operated on the PDA. Plots are distributed systematically and evenly on a transect framework with a random start point.
7. Locating and marking sampling plots in the forest	Community with intermediary assistance	Map of plot locations, compass, GPS, tape measure, marking equipment	Once, at start	Community team stakes out the centres of the plots in the field by use of compass and measuring tape. GPS readings are recorded, and the centre of the plot is permanently marked (e.g. with paint on a ventral tree trunk). Each plot is given an identification code and details (identifying features) are entered into the PDA
8. Training community team how to measure trees in sample plots	Intermediary		+/- 4 days first time; 1 day for each of the next 3 years	This task could be fulfilled first time while carrying out task 5, see notes. The task involves listing and giving identification codes to the tree species found in the forest. It is expected that the community will be able to function independently in this task after year 4.
9. Identification of suitable allometric equations & programming into the PDA	Intermediary		Once, at start	The programme for the PDA contains default allometric equations. If local ones are available, these may be substituted, which will give greater accuracy.

10. Downloading from the PDA of forest inventory data & forwarding to registration	Intermediary			The PDA is programmed to make all necessary calculations and produce an estimate of the mean of the carbon stock in each stratum, with confidence levels (the default precision is set at 10%). This data needs to be transferred to more secure databases for comparison year to year and for eventual registration.
11. Maintaining PDA				PDAs require re-charging on a daily basis and minor repairs from time to time. It is anticipated that an intermediary would have several PDAs and would lend these to communities for the forest inventory work (around 10 days per community per year).

Table 3.4.2: **Tasks that can be carried out by the community team unaided after training**

Task	Equipment	Frequency	Description and comments
Measure dbh (and height, if required by local allometric equations) of all trees of given minimum diameter in sample plots	Tree tapes or callipers	Periodically, e.g. annually	During the first year, fairly complete supervision by the intermediary is advisable, but in subsequent years a short refresher training will be sufficient, see above, task 8
Enter data into database (on paper sheets and/or on PDA)	Recording sheets/PDA	Periodically, e.g. annually	In some cases communities appear to find it easier to use pre-designed paper forms to record tree data in the field, although direct entry of data into the PDA is certainly possible and reduces chance of transcribing error.

Box 3.4.3: Data collection at the community level

There are many good reasons to include communities in the collection of data for REDD. Foremost are ownership and commitment: if the communities are involved and get a fair share of the benefits, then they will automatically become custodians of the forest and protect the local resources. More practically, community involvement is the most cost-efficient mechanism to collect large volumes of basic data. There are, however, limitations to the kind of data that communities can reliably collect, and the data is best limited to a small set of basic forest properties:

- Species identification, with common names. (Botanical expert to convert common names to scientific nomenclature.) Periodic (e.g. once every five years).
- Tree count. Annual.
- DBH measurement. Annual.

Even while reporting of carbon emission reduction is not done annually, it is important to collect the basic data annually. This maintains community involvement, but it is also a very important tool to assess the quality of the data collection process and it provides insight in the effectiveness of interventions to reduce emissions. Data quality assessment over time in a given community can be augmented by jointly analyzing the data from many communities in a single ecological zone or forest type. If a certain community is found to produce data that is divergent from that of the other communities then remedial action can be taken by investigating its cause:

- Errors in the measurement procedure.
- Errors in the stratification of the forest (e.g. forest belongs to a different ecological zone).
- Effectiveness of intervention (improved forest management) is different.

Equipment (PDAs equipped with simple GIS software such as ArcPad™ and GPS attachments; measuring tapes, tree tapes, callipers etc) is assumed to be property of the intermediaries and used by a number of villages/community forest groups in a given area. An intermediary with one PDA could service between 12 and 20 communities per year (for cost estimates see Section 3.4.5). Appropriate methodology has been developed by the Kyoto:Think Global Act Local project and can be downloaded from the project website (see Box 3.4.4).

Communities should be assisted in establishing the sampling plots. Marking of the centre of the permanent plots, for instance with paint on tree trunks, increases the reliability of the inventory and reduces the standard error by ensuring that exactly the same areas are measured each year. On the other hand, it could introduce bias in that it shows where the measurements are made, and could lead forest users to avoid these areas when e.g. collecting firewood or poles, thus reducing the representativeness of the sample. Using a GPS could be an alternative, but in densely forested areas the signal tends to be weak, giving a coarse determination of position.

Box 3.4.4: The "Kyoto: Think Global, Act Local" collaborative research project

The "Kyoto: Think Global, Act Local" research project has been piloting many of the techniques elaborated in this section. The KTGAL project is a joint endeavour of research institutes and NGOs in seven countries in Asia and Africa, led by the University of Twente of The Netherlands with the support of ITC, The Netherlands.

The KTGAL project has prepared manuals intended for the training of intermediary staff in participatory forest inventory. It is assumed most staff would have had at least some intermediate (middle school) education, and that they are familiar with computers, but it is not a requirement that they have much forestry experience. The manuals can be downloaded from www.communitycarbonforestry.org, where you can also find other supporting information.

3.4.3 Additional data requirements

The communities are clearly in a position to collect basic data from the forest, such as tree species, tree count and DBH. However, the measurements are not always of high quality, over time, between stands or between observers. Furthermore, these data alone are not sufficient to compute above-ground biomass. It is therefore necessary to have a parallel process to supplement the basic data and to be able to ascertain the quality of the locally collected data.

The additional data required depends on the local conditions and prior information. For instance, it is likely that locally derived allometric equations are used to calculate above-ground biomass and those equations may require input parameters like tree height, free branch height, or wood density. Such parameters could be collected using more traditional forest inventory techniques, such as those described in sections 2.3 and 3.3.[55]

3.4.4 Reliability and accuracy

In order to test the reliability of community carbon stock estimates, independent professional forest companies were employed by the KTGAL project to carry out surveys in three of the project sites. In every case, there was no more than 5% difference in the estimate of mean carbon levels between the professionals and the community.

It is recommended that communities make annual measurements, even though REDD credits may be issued only at the end of a five year commitment period. There are a number of reasons for this:

- If forests are measured annually, communities will be more aware of changes in the forest, moreover they will not forget how to make the measurements.
- Annual fluctuations due to weather changes are common; a five year trajectory enables these to some extent to be smoothed out.

[55] Even if no additional parameters are required beyond DBH, it is important to have a parallel process to measure DBH and tree counts with high accuracy, in order to validate the input received from communities. Standard statistical techniques can then be applied to establish whether or the data received from communities is reliable or not. Such an independent assessment is necessary to filter out errors in measurement and reporting, but also to establish the accuracy of the local data.

- Any errors of measurement in a particular year may be more easily detected and eliminated. Annual measurement provides a robust approach to inventory.
- It is likely that national REDD programmes will have to offer annual incentives for carbon savings rather than end-of-commitment-period payments, as communities are unlikely to accept a five year waiting period.

The confidence level used in determining the number of sample plots is a major factor in the cost of carrying out forest inventory work. A confidence level of 95% rather than 90% requires many more sample plots (i.e. more work by communities in making measurements). On the other hand, less uncertainty in the assessment of above-ground carbon will most likely lead to higher carbon emission reduction estimates and thus higher payments. Inversely, if the error in the data, established through statistical analysis, is high, then the error margins at the onset and end of the reporting period may overlap, and no carbon credits will be issued; see Section 2.5 for more details.

To determine the number of sampling plots, given a certain confidence level and maximum error, one can apply the following formula:

(Equation 4.4.1)

$$n = \left(\frac{z^* \cdot \sigma}{e \cdot \mu} \right)^2$$

where z* is the distribution critical value at a certain confidence level (published in any textbook on statistics), σ is the standard deviation, e is the maximum allowable error, and μ is the average biomass in the forest stratum.

For a forest where μ is 400 t/ha with σ is 65 t/ha, if you want to have an error of at most 5%, with 90% confidence level (z* = 1.645):

$$n = \left(\frac{1.645 \cdot 65}{0.05 \cdot 400} \right)^2 = 28.58 = 29$$

For a 95% confidence level (z* = 1.960):

$$n = \left(\frac{1.960 \cdot 65}{0.05 \cdot 400} \right)^2 = 40.58 = 41$$

Inversely, given a certain number of samples, the expected error can be calculated:

(**Equation 4.4.2**)

$$e = \frac{z^* \cdot \sigma}{\sqrt{n} \cdot \mu}$$

In all cases the average biomass in the forest μ and its standard deviation σ need to be established first. This is best done by professional foresters, using generally accepted techniques for sampling. In practice this implies a minimum of 30 randomly located samples per forest stratum.

Protocols regarding confidence levels are likely to be adopted nationally. The number of samples required to reach that confidence level given a certain maximum error for each forest (type) should be determined by a professional organization, e.g. a Forest Department, using accepted statistical practice. It can be reduced by careful stratification of forest ecosystem / type, because that will reduce the standard deviation of the samples in each stratum, and this is strongly recommended.

3.4.5 Costs

The KTGAL project estimated costs of community forest inventory as ranging between $1 and $4 per hectare per year, including day wages for the community members involved and the intermediary, and a factor for 'rental' of the equipment (PDA, GPS, etc). The costs in the first year are higher than this, given the substantial inputs by the intermediary in training community members and establishment of the sampling plots. Average costs are much lower in large, homogeneous forests owing to economies of scale. The equivalent costs if professional organizations were to be employed instead of communities are two to three times higher than this.

Carbon may be credited on a longer time interval (e.g. 5 years), but local communities need to be paid annually or even more frequent to maintain their commitment to the process. How payments are effectuated and on what basis is up to the government. Essentially there are three options:

1. Communities implement activities to stop deforestation and reduce forest degradation and regularly inventory the forest to assess the amount of biomass. Payment is for the actual amount of emission reductions or forest enhancement. There is positive feedback from effective forest management by the communities (more payment) but it will be very difficult to administer such an arrangement. Payments will have to be made prior to receipt of CERs by the government in order to maintain community involvement.
2. Inventories done by communities are paid for by government, as compensation for the effort made by the communities. There is thus no link with reductions in emissions or carbon sequestration – or increased emissions for that matter – payment is made for services rendered. This is probably the easiest to implement but it is a "dumb" approach; the communities are not rewarded for activities that lead to reducing emissions or enhancing the forest.
3. Inventories are done by government who indemnify the communities for loss of opportunities (i.e. right to extract timber or NTFPs). This may be the preference by governments that to date have a strong and active Forest Department, but it does not address the cause of prior deforestation or forest degradation.

3.4.6 Options for independent assessment of locally collected data

National governments will probably want to have an independent mechanism to verify the claims made by local communities. One of the options is statistical analysis, as briefly explained above, but at larger scales remote sensing would be an obvious choice; see Sections 2.1 and 2.2. In order to enable such assessments, forest organizations should make more complete inventories at the time of establishing the sampling scheme for community carbon assessments. A proper stratification of the forest, with due consideration for those properties of the forest that are easily detected on satellite imagery, will be of prime importance, as will be the detailed description of the forest structure.

The data that are being collected by the communities can be correlated to satellite imagery using a number of techniques. The first one looks at the (assumed) homogeneity of the strata in the forest, while the second one establishes the correlation between biomass as measured in the forest and reflectance recorded in the satellite image:

- Assuming that the stratification of the forest has led to homogenous units, the reflectance characteristics of the pixels in the stratum will be similar as well at the time the stratification is made (i.e. it has a uniform look in the imagery). At a later stage, when some management intervention has been implemented and the communities are collecting data, a new image can be analyzed for its uniformity.

If the uniformity is no longer present, or weaker than before, it may be that part of the forest was deforested or some communities are not managing the forest as they should (but see also Box 3 for other potential causes). Please note that the reflectance itself may have changed if the biomass changed, either through continued but reduced degradation or because of forest enhancement. Homogeneity, and thus uniformity in the satellite image, may also increase if the forest is more uniformly degraded or enhanced; this may be avoided by applying a more strict stratification initially.

- Using a standard image analysis technique, the biomass assessment made by the communities can be correlated to the reflectance in the satellite image. In open woodlands and forest types that have a distinct seasonal dynamic (e.g. leaf shedding in the dry season) the assessment (timing) has to be compatible with the measurements made by the local community. Outliers in the correlation indicate some issue with the data collection process (or deficient stratification). When widely implemented, the sheer volume of locally collected data, probably even when a detailed stratification of the forest is made, makes it possible to use only a (random) sample of the local data.

3.4.7 Options for independent assessment of locally collected data

Future scenarios include the demand for additional types of information on CF which might be required under REDD directives:

- Local / indigenous information on forest ecosystem – maybe needed under REDD systems for landscape-level allocation of funds under sub-national governance of REDD finances
- Local / indigenous information on type and quality of management and their indicators – maybe needed under REDD systems for allocating funds according to types and quality of forest management.

The great technological potential lies in the probable future ubiquity and reduced costs of mobile IT which will have greatly increased functionalities (at lower cost) and will be much easier to handle.

- The smart phone with large memory (with a card) for storing the necessary imagery or maps, with GPS capability of reasonable precision, and with the web capacity for downloading images and uploading data can replace the PDA set-up. Major advantage is ease of use, convenience of supply and repair, and especially utilising the existing familiarity of ordinary people with cell phones – very easy for young community members to 'upgrade' to a smart phone. Currently, costs are high, but not prohibitive compared to PDA and GPS, and the business plan / concept is that the local intermediaries / brokers would be the resource holders of smart phones until such time as unit prices will drop.
- Software with very user-friendly interface between users and the PDA or smart phone is being adapted for carbon measurement, with special attention to illiterate users, via application of icons and simplified data recording and clear sequential instructions.

3.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR COUNTRY CAPACITY BUILDING

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3.5.1 Scope of chapter

Countries currently undertake national forest monitoring driven by a number of motivations from economic, socio-cultural and environmental perspectives. In most developing countries, however, the quality of current forest monitoring is considered not satisfactory for an accounting system of carbon credits (Holmgren et al. 2007). The development of forest monitoring systems for REDD is a fundamental requirement and area of investment for participation in the REDD process. Despite the broader benefits of monitoring national forest resources per se, there is a set of specific requirements for establishing a national forest carbon monitoring system for REDD implementation. They include:

- The considerations of a national REDD implementation strategy;
- Systematic and repeated measurements of all relevant forest-related carbon stock changes. Robust and cost-effective methodologies for such purpose are existing (UNFCCC, 2008a);
- The estimation and reporting of carbon emissions and removals on the national level using the IPCC Good Practice Guidelines on Land Use Land Use Change and Forestry given the related requirements for transparency, consistency, comparability, completeness, and accuracy;
- The encouragement for the monitoring systems and results to review independently.

The design and implementation of a monitoring system for REDD can be understood as investment in information that is essential for a successful implementation of REDD. This chapter provides a more detailed description of required steps and capacities building upon the GOFC-GOLD sourcebook recommendations.

3.5.2 Building National Carbon Monitoring Systems For REDD: Elements and Capacities

3.5.2.1 Key elements and required capacities

The development of a national monitoring system for REDD is a process. A summary of key components and required capacities for estimating and reporting emissions and removals from forests is provided in Table 3.5.1. The first section of planning and design should specify the monitoring objectives and implementation framework based on the understanding of:

- The status of international UNFCCC decisions and related guidance for monitoring and implementation;
- The national REDD implementation strategy and objectives;
- Knowledge in the application of IPCC LULUCF good practice guidelines;
- Existing national forest monitoring capabilities;
- Expertise in estimating terrestrial carbon dynamics and related human-induced changes;

• The consideration of different requirements for monitoring forest changes in the historical (reference period) and for the future (accounting period);

The planning and design phase should result in a national REDD monitoring framework (incl. definitions, monitoring variables, institutional setting etc.), and a plan for capacity development and long-term improvement and the estimation of anticipated costs.

Implementing measurement and monitoring procedures to obtain basic information to estimate GHG emissions and removals requires capabilities for data collection for a number of variables. Carbon data derived from national forest inventories and permanent plot measurements, and remote sensing-based monitoring (primarily to estimate activity data) are most commonly used. In addition, information from the compilations of forest management plans, independent reports, and case studies and/or models have provided useful forest data for national monitoring purposes. Irrespective of the choice of method, the uncertainty of all results and estimates need to be quantified and reduced as far as practicable. A key step to reduce uncertainties is the application of best efforts using suitable data source, appropriate data acquisition and processing techniques, and consistent and transparent data interpretation and analysis. Expertise is needed for the application of statistical methods to quantify, report, and analyze uncertainties, the understanding and handling of error sources, and approaches for a continuous improvement of the monitoring system both in terms of increasing certainty for estimates (i.e. move from Tier 2 to Tier 3) or for a more complete estimation (include additional carbon pools).

All relevant data and information should be stored, updated, and made available through a common data infrastructure, i.e. as part of national GHG information system. The information system should provide the basis for the transparent estimation of emissions and removals of greenhouse gases. It should also help in analysis of the data (i.e. determining the drivers and factors of forest change), support for national and international reporting using a common format of IPCC GPG 'reporting tables', and in the implementation of quality assurance and quality control procedures, perhaps followed by an expert peer review.

Table 3.5.1: Components and required capacities for establishing a national monitoring system for estimating emissions and removals from forests.

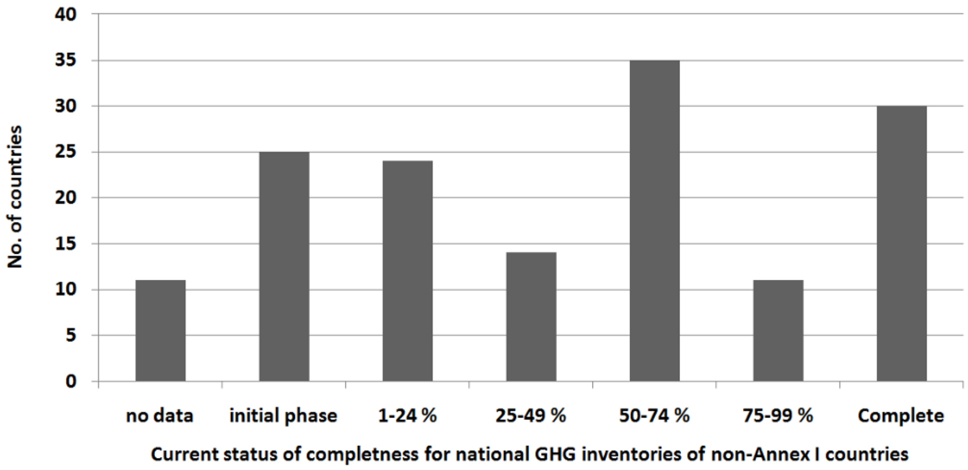
Phase	Component	Capacities required
Planning & design	1. Need for establishing a forest monitoring system as part of a national REDD implementation activity	• Knowledge on international UNFCCC decisions and SBSTA guidance for monitoring and implementation • Knowledge of national REDD implementation strategy and objectives
	2. Assessment of existing national forest monitoring framework and capacities, and identification of gaps in the existing data sources	• Understanding of IPCC LULUCF estimation and reporting requirements • Synthesis of previous national and international reporting (i.e. UNFCCC national communications & FAO Forest Resources Assessment) • Expertise in estimating terrestrial carbon dynamics, related human-induced changes and monitoring approaches • Expertise to assess usefulness and reliability of existing capacities, data sources and information
	3. Design of forest monitoring system driven by UNFCCC reporting requirements with objectives for historical period and future monitoring	• Detailed knowledge in application of IPCC LULUCF good practice guidelines • Agreement on definitions, reference units, and monitoring variables and framework • Institutional framework specifying roles and responsibilities • Capacity development and long-term improvement planning • Cost estimation for establishing and strengthening institutional framework, capacity development and actual operations and budget planning
Monitoring	4. Forest area change assessment (activity data)	• Review, consolidate and integrate the existing data and information • Understanding of deforestation drivers and factors • If historical data record insufficient – use of remote sensing: ○ Expertise and human resources in accessing, processing, and interpretation of multi-date remote sensing imagery for forest changes ○ Technical resources (Hard/Software, Internet, image database)

		o Approaches for dealing with technical challenges (i.e. cloud cover, missing data)
	5. Changes in carbon stocks	• Understanding of processes influencing terrestrial carbon stocks • Consolidation and integration of existing observations and information, i.e. national forest inventory or permanent sample plots: o National coverage and carbon density stratification o Conversion to carbon stocks and change estimates • Technical expertise and resources to monitor carbon stock changes: o In-situ data collection of all the required parameters and data processing o Human resources and equipment to carry out field work (vehicles, maps of appropriate scale, GPS, measurements units) o National inventory/permanent sampling (sample design, plot configuration) o Detailed inventory in areas of forest change or "REDD action" o Use of remote sensing (stratification, biomass estimation) • Estimation at sufficient IPCC Tier level for: o Estimation of carbon stock changes due to land use change o Estimation of changes in forest areas remaining forests o Consideration of impact on five different carbon pools
	6. Emissions from biomass burning	• Understanding of national fire regime and fire ecology, and related emission for different greenhouse gases • Understanding of slash and burn cultivation practice and knowledge of the areas where being practiced • Fire monitoring capabilities to estimate fire effected area and emission factors: o Use of satellite data and products for active fire and burned area o Continuous in-situ measurements (particular emission factors)
	7. Accuracy assessment and verification	• Understanding of error sources and uncertainties in the assessment process • Knowledge on the application of best efforts using appropriate design, accurate data collection, processing techniques, and consistent and transparent data interpretation and analysis • Expertise on the application of statistical methods to quantify, report and analyze uncertainties for all relevant information (i.e. area change, change in carbon stocks etc.) using, ideally, a sample of higher quality information
Analysis & reporting	8. National GHG information system	• Knowledge on techniques to gather, store, and analyze forest and other data, with emphasis on carbon emissions from LULUCF • Data infrastructure, information technology (suitable hard/software) and human resources to maintain and exchange data and quality control
	9. Analysis of drivers and factors of forest change	• Understanding and availability of data for spatio-temporal processes affecting forest change, socio-economic drivers, spatial factors, forest management and land use practices, and spatial planning • Expertise in spatial and temporal analysis and use of modeling tools
	10. Establishment of reference emission level and regular updating	• Data and knowledge on deforestation and forest degradation processes, associated GHG emissions, drivers and expected future developments • Expertise in spatial and temporal analysis and modeling tools • Specifications for a national REDD implementation framework
	11. National and international reporting	• Expertise in accounting and reporting procedures for LULUCF using the IPCC GPG • Consideration of uncertainties and understanding procedures for independent international review

3.5.2.2 Key elements and required capacities

The discussion of requirements and elements (see Table 3.5.1) emphasize that comprehensive capacities are required for the measuring and monitoring, and the estimation, accounting and reporting of emissions and removals of GHG from forest land. So far, non-Annex I countries were not required to establish a GHG inventory. However, the development of UNFCCC national communications has stimulated support and engagement for countries to establish national GHG inventories and related national estimation and reporting capacities. Figure 2.1 highlights the current status and the range of completeness for national GHG inventories. About 1/5 of non-Annex I countries are listed with a fully developed inventory. An additional 46 countries have taken significant steps with inventories in the range of 50-100 % complete. About half of the countries currently have systems less than 50 % complete. Although the information in Figure 3.5.1 refers to the establishment of full GHG inventories, where the LULUCF sector is only one component, Figure 3.5.1 provides a sense of a current capacity gap for national-level GHG estimating and reporting procedures using the IPCC GPGs.

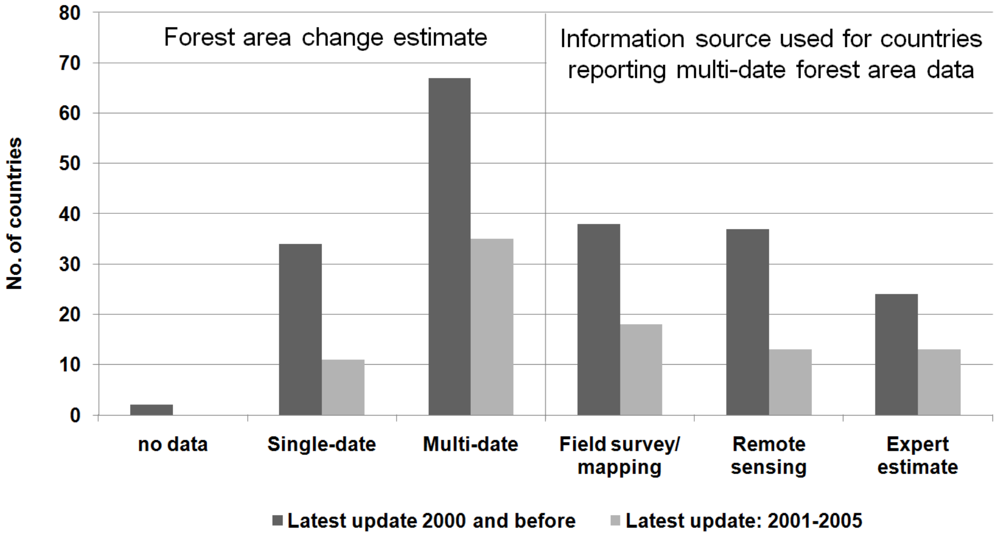
Figure 3.5.1: Status for completing national greenhouse gas inventories as part of Global Environment Facility support for the preparation of national communications of 150 non-Annex I countries (UNFCCC, 2008b).



A status of country capacities for the monitoring of forest area change and changes in forest carbon stocks may be inferred from analyzing the most recent FAO global Forest Resources Assessment (FRA) for 2005 (FAO 2006). Assuming that all available and relevant information have been used by countries to report under the FRA, Figures 3.5.2 and 3.5.3 summarize the relevant capacities for non-Annex I countries.

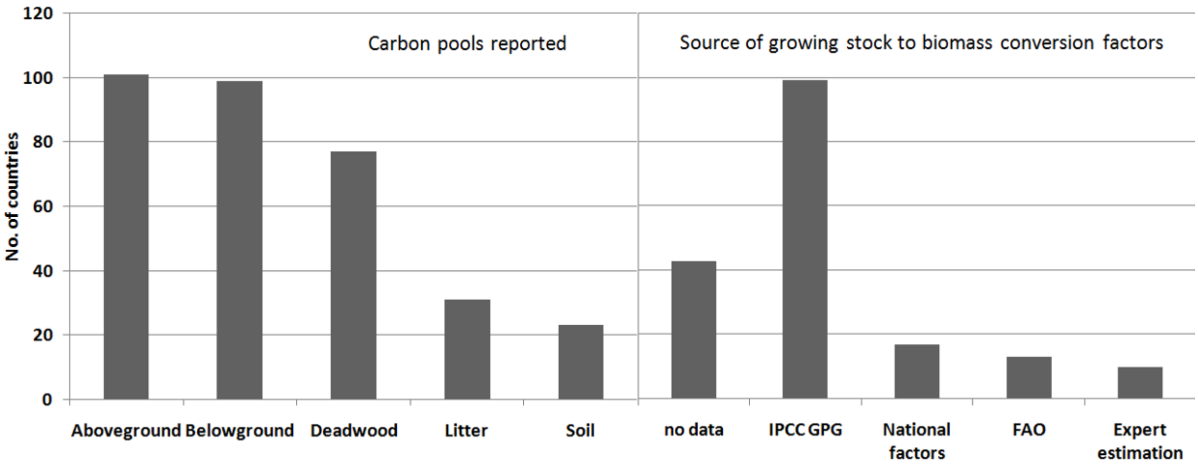
In terms of monitoring changes in forest area, Figures 3.5.2 highlights that almost all non-Annex I countries were able to provide estimate forest area and changes. About two-thirds of countries provided this information based on multi-date data; about one-third reported based on single-date data. Most of the countries used data from the year 2000 or before as most recent data point for forest area, while 46 of 149 countries we able to supply more recent estimates. Of the countries that used multi-date information there is an almost even distribution for the use of information sources between field surveying and mapping, remote sensing-based approaches, and, with less frequency, for expert estimates (Note: countries may have used multiple sources).

Figures 3.5.2: **Summary of data and information sources used by 150 non-Annex I countries to report on forest area change for the FAO FRA 2005** (FAO 2006).



A smaller number of countries provided estimates for carbon stocks (Figure 3.5.3). 101 of 150 countries reported on the overall stocks in aboveground carbon pool. Since the aboveground and belowground carbon pools are correlated almost the same number of countries reported on the carbon in below ground vegetation. Fewer countries were able to provide data on the other pools, in particular for carbon in the soils 23 (countries). The reported forest carbon pool estimates are primarily based on growing stock data as primary observation variable. Of the 150 non-Annex countries, 41 reported no growing stock data. 75 countries provided single-date and 34 multi-date growing stock data. A number of different sources are applied by countries for converting growing stocks to biomass (and to carbon in the next step), with the IPCC GPG default factors being used most commonly (Figure 3.5.3). The use of these default factors would refer to a Tier 1 approach for estimating carbon stock change using the IPCC GPG. Only 17 countries converted growing stock to biomass using specific and, usually, national conversion factors.

Figure 3.5.3: **Summary of data for five different carbon pools reported (left) and information sources used by 150 non-Annex I countries to convert growing stocks to biomass (right) for the FAO FRA 2005** (FAO 2006, countries may have used multiple sources for the conversion process).



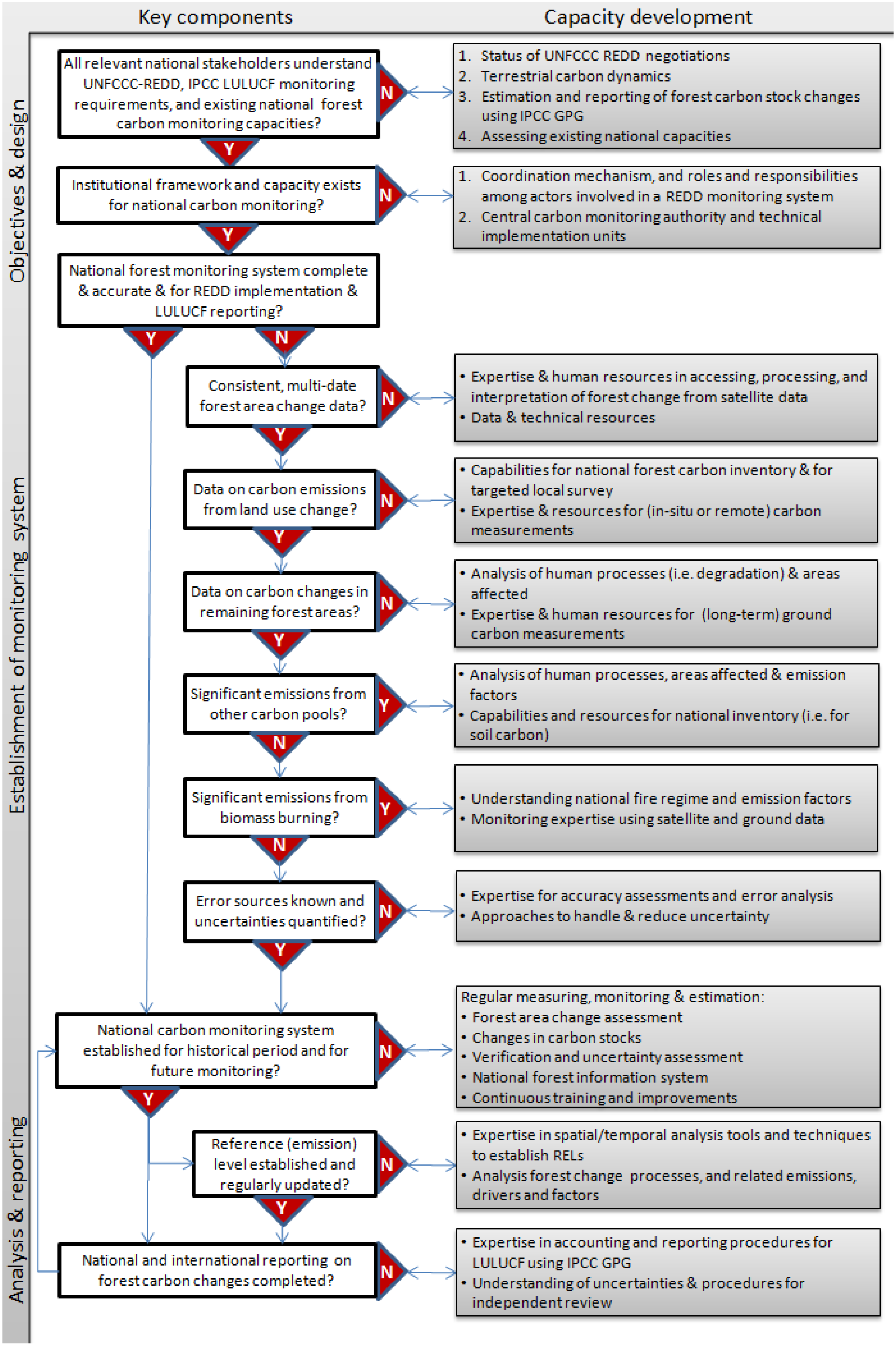
Figures 3.5.2 & 3.5.3 emphasize the varying level of capacities among non-Annex I countries. Given the results of FAO's FRA 2005, the majority of countries have limitations in providing a complete and accurate estimation of GHG emissions and removals from forest land. Some gaps in the current monitoring capacities can be summarized by considering the five IPCC GPG estimation and reporting principles:

- **Consistency**: Reporting by many countries are based either on single-date measurements or on integrating different heterogeneous data sources rather than using a systematic and consistent monitoring;
- **Transparency**: Expert opinions, independent assessments or model estimations are commonly used as information source for forest carbon data (Holmgren et al. 2007); often causing a lack of transparency in the methods used;
- **Comparability**: Few countries have experience in using the IPCC GPG as common estimation and reporting format among Parties;
- **Completeness**: The lack of suitable forest resource data in many non-Annex countries is evident for both area change and changes carbon stocks. Carbon stock data for aboveground and belowground carbon are often based on estimations or conversions using IPCC default data and very few countries are able to provide information on all five carbon pools.
- **Accuracy**: There is limited information on error sources and uncertainties of the estimates and reliability levels by countries and approaches to analyze, reduce, and deal with them for international reporting and for implementation of carbon crediting procedures.

3.5.2.3 Key elements and required capacities

The pathways and cost implications for countries to establish REDD monitoring system requires understanding of the capacity gap between what is needed for such a system (see Table 3.5.1) and the status of current monitoring capacities. The important steps to be considered by countries are outlined in Figure 3.5.4. Fundamental to this is understanding of all relevant national actors about the international UNFCCC decisions and SBTSA guidance on REDD, the status of the national REDD implementation activities, knowledge of IPCC LULUCF good practice guidelines and expertise in terrestrial carbon dynamics and related human-induced changes.

Figure 3.5.4: **Flowchart for the process to establishing a national monitoring system** linking key components and required capacities (see Table 3.5.1).



Uncertain input data (i.e. on forest area change and C stock change) is a common phenomenon among non-Annex I countries but adequate methods exist to improve monitoring capacities. A starting point is to critically analyze existing forest data and monitoring capabilities for the purpose of systematic estimation and reporting using the IPCC LULUCF GPG. Table 3.5.2 lists several key existing data sources that are commonly considered useful.

Table 3.5.2: **Examples of important existing data sources useful for establishing national REDD monitoring**

Variable	Focus	Existing records	Existing information
Area changes (activity data)	Deforestation Forest regrowth	*Archived satellite data & airphotos* *Field surveys and forest cover maps* *Maps of forest use and human infrastructures*	*Maps & rates of deforestation and /or forest regrowth* *Land use change maps* *National statistical data*
Changes in carbon stocks / emission factors	Land use change (deforestation) Changes in areas remaining forests Different C-pools (i.e. soils)	*Forest inventory, site measurements* *Permanent sample plots, research sites* *Forest/ecosystem stratifications* *Forest concessions/harvest estimates* *Volume to carbon conversion factors* *Regional carbon stock data/maps*	*Carbon stock change and emission/ha estimates* *Long-term measurements of human induced carbon stock changes*
Biomass burning	Emissions of several GHG	*Records of fire events (in-situ)* *Satellite data* *Emission factor measurements* *Records of areas under slash and burn cultivation*	*Burnt area map products* *Fire regime, area, frequency & emissions*
Ancillary (spatial) data	Drivers & factors of forest changes	*Topographic maps* *Field surveys* *Census data*	*GIS-datasets on population, roads, land use, planning, topography, settlements*

The assessment of existing and required capacities should independently consider the different IPCC variables. In case there are no consistent times series of historical forest area change data, the country should consider using archived satellite data and establish the required monitoring capacities. Forest inventory data are currently the most common data source for the estimation of changes in forest carbon stocks. However most of the existing and traditional forest inventories have not been designed for carbon stock assessments and have limited use for this purpose. Ideally and in some contrast to traditional inventories, the design for national carbon stock inventory should consider the following requirements:

- **Stratification** of forest area: by carbon density classes and relevant human activities effecting forest carbon stocks;
- **Coverage**: full national coverage with most detail and accuracy required in areas of "REDD relevant activities";
- **Site measurements**: emphasize on measuring carbon stocks, potentially in all carbon pools;
- **Time**: consistent and recurring measurements of carbon stock change, i.e. for deforestation and in areas remaining as forests (i.e. degradation);

- **Uncertainties**: verification and considerations for independent international review.

The investments and priority setting for monitoring carbon stock changes related to forests, in all carbon pools (i.e. soils, biomass burning) may depend on how significant the related human-induced changes are for the overall carbon budget and the national REDD implementation strategy are. For example, if the country has no fire regime and no significant emission from biomass burning it is not necessary to develop a related monitoring. The monitoring of carbon changes in forests remaining as forests (both increase and decrease) is generally less efficient than for the case deforestation, i.e. lower carbon stock changes per ha versus higher monitoring costs and, usually, lower accuracies. On the other hand, monitoring of forest degradation is important since the cumulative emission can be significant and updated data are required to avoid displacement of emissions from reduced deforestation. A country should have understanding and regularly monitor the human processes causing loss or increases in forest carbon stocks, i.e. through a recurring assessment of degraded forest area. However, the level of detail and accuracy for actual carbon stock changes should be higher for countries interested in claiming credits for their activities (i.e. reducing emissions from forest degradation). In this case, the establishing the REDD monitoring system should put particular emphasis in building the required capacities that usually require long-term, ground-based measurements. A similar procedure maybe suggested for the monitoring of changes in other carbon pools. To date, very few developing countries report data on soil carbon, even though emissions maybe significant, i.e. emissions from deforested or degraded peatlands. If the soil carbon pool is to be included in country strategy to receive credits for reducing emissions from forest land, the related monitoring component should be established from the beginning to provide the required accuracy for estimation and reporting. For other countries, the monitoring of emissions and removals from all carbon pools and all categories is certainly encouraged in the longer-term but maybe of lower priority and require smaller amount of resources in the readiness phase. This approach is supported the current IPCC guidance which already allow a cost-efficient use of available resources, e.g. the concept of key categories[56] indicate that priority should be given to the most relevant categories and/or carbon pools. This flexibility can be further expanded by the concept of conservativeness[57]".

The analysis and use of existing data is most important for the estimation of historical changes and for the establishment of the reference emission levels. Limitations of existing data and information may constrain the accuracy and completeness of the LULUCF inventory for historical periods, i.e. for lack of ground data. In case of uncertain or incomplete data, the estimates should follow, as much as possible, the IPCC reporting principles and should be treated conservatively with motivation to improve the monitoring over time. The monitoring and estimation activities for the historical period should include a process for building the required capacities within the country to establish the monitoring, estimation and reporting procedures as long-term term system. Consistency between the estimates for the historical period and future monitoring is

[56] Key categories are sources of emissions/removals that contribute substantially to the overall national inventory (in terms of absolute level and/or trend). According to the IPCC-GPG, key categories should be estimated higher Tiers (2 or 3), which means that Tier 1 is allowed for non-key categories.

[57] Conservativeness is a concept used by the provisions of the Kyoto Protocol (UNFCCC 2006). In the REDD context, conservativeness may mean that - when completeness or accuracy of estimates cannot be achieved - the reduction of emissions should not be overestimated, or at least the risk of overestimation should be minimized (see section 4)

essential. The existing gaps and known uncertainties of the historical data should be addressed in future monitoring efforts as part of a continuous improvement and training program.

3.5.3 Capacity gaps and cost implications

There are several categories of costs to be considered for countries to engage in REDD including opportunity costs, and costs for transactions and implementation. Monitoring, reporting and verification of forest carbon are primarily reflected in the transaction costs, i.e. proof that a REDD activity has indeed achieved a certain amount of emission reductions and is suitable for compensation. The resources needed for monitoring are one smaller component considering all cost factors for REDD implementation in the long-term, but are rather significant in the readiness phase since many countries require the development of basic capacities.

Estimating the costs for REDD monitoring has to consider several issues that depend on the specific country circumstances. First, there is a difference in the cost structure for developing and establishing a monitoring system versus the operational implementation. For countries starting with limited capabilities significantly larger amount of resources are anticipated, particularly for monitoring historical forest changes and for the establishment reference emissions levels and near term monitoring efforts. In some cases it is assumed that readiness costs require significant public investment and international support, while all implementation costs (including the verification of compliance) should be ideally covered by carbon revenues (Hoare et al., 2008). Secondly, different components of the monitoring system, i.e. forest area change monitoring and measurements of carbon stock change have different cost implications depending on what method is used and which accuracy is to be achieved. For example, an annual forest area change monitoring combined with Tier 3 carbon stock change maybe more costly but less accurate than using 5-year intervals for monitoring forest area and carbon stock change on Tier 2 level.

Specific information on the costs for REDD are rare but experiences of estimates in this section is based on a number of resources:

- Operational national forest monitoring examples (i.e. from India and Brazil)
- Ongoing forest monitoring programs involving developing countries ranging from local case studies to global assessment programs (i.e. from FAO activities)
- Idea notes and proposals submitted by countries to the Worldbank Forest Carbon Partnership Facility (FCPF)
- Scientific literature documented in REDD-related monitoring and case studies
- Expert estimates and considerations documented in reports (i.e. consultant reports) and international organizations and panels.

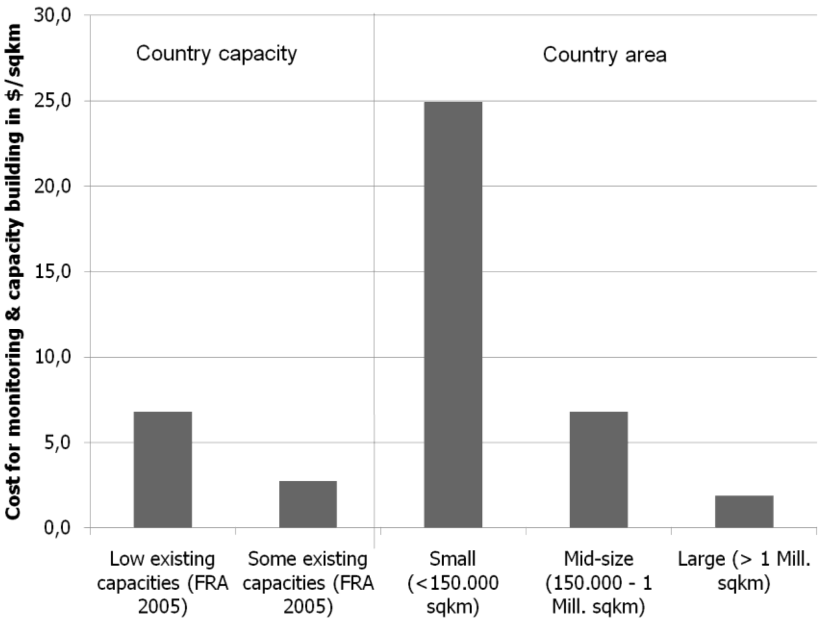
There are number of lump sum cost predictions for REDD monitoring. For example, Hoare et al. (2008) estimate between 1-6 Mill US$ for the establishment of the REL and the monitoring system per country. This assessment is largely based on work by Hardcastle et al. (2008) that estimate cost for monitoring for different country circumstances building on knowledge of existing capacities. Operational monitoring costs are often provided as per area unit numbers (i.e. see examples from India and Brazil). Building upon these efforts, the aim of the following section is not provide specific number since they largely vary based on country circumstances and REDD objectives.

3.5.3.1 Importance of monitoring for establishing a national REDD infrastructure

Costs for monitoring and technical capacity development will be an important component in the REDD readiness phase. Understanding the historical forest change processes is fundamental for the developing a national REDD strategy based on current forest and environmental legislation. Establishing a national reference scenario for emissions from deforestation and forest degradation based on available historical data is an initial requirement. This effort involves capacity development to establish a sustained national system for monitoring, reporting, and verifying emissions and removals from forest land in the long-term.

The distribution of costs for monitoring activities (done by the country itself or with help from international partners), and costs for capacity development are related to the existing country capacities and country size. Figure 3.5.5 shows an assessment of 15 Readiness Plan Idea Notes (R-Pins) submitted to the Worldbank Forest Carbon Partnership Facility that have provided budget details. The combined cost of monitoring and capacity building activities range from 2-25 US$ per sqkm depending on the land area and existing capabilities. Countries with low existing capacity indicated more required resources, with a larger proportion towards capacity building. The monitoring efficiency for small countries is usually challenged since an initial amount of base investments are equally required for all country sizes, i.e. a minimum standard for operational institutional capacities, technical and human resources, and expertise in reporting.

Figure 3.5.5: Indicative costs per sqkm for monitoring and capacity building as part of the proposed Worldbank FCPF readiness activities. The graph shows median values based on 15 R-PIN's separated by country capacities and land area. Countries were considered to have low capacities if they did not report either forest area change based on multi-date data or data on forest carbon stocks for the last FAO FRA (FAO, 2006).



3.5.3.2 Planning and design

Planning and design activities should result in a national REDD monitoring framework (incl. definitions, monitoring variables, institutional setting etc.), and a plan for capacity development and long-term improvement and the estimation anticipated costs. Fundamental for this process is the understanding of relevant national actors about the international UNFCCC negotiations on REDD, the status of the national REDD implementation activities, knowledge in the application of IPCC LULUCF good practice guidelines and expertise in terrestrial carbon dynamics and related human-induced changes. Resources for related training and capacity building are required to participate in or organize dedicated national or regional workshops or to hire international consultants or experts. Some initiatives are already offering capacity development workshops to countries for this purpose, i.e. as part of GTZ's CD-REDD program (http://unfccc.int/files/methods_science/redd/technical_assistance/training_activities/application/pdf/cd_redd_concept_note.pdf).

3.5.3.3 Institutional capacities

A suitable degree of organizational capacity within the country is required to establish and operate a national forest carbon monitoring program. Activities include acquisition of different types of data, analysis, estimation, international reporting, and the use of forest data to support REDDS implementation. Different actors and sectors are to be working in coordination to make a REDD monitoring system efficient in the long-term. As a minimum, a country should consider maintaining the following institutions with clear definition of roles and responsibilities:

- National REDD coordination and steering body or advisory board
- Central carbon monitoring, estimation and reporting authority
- Forest carbon monitoring implementation units

The size and amount of resources required for setting up and maintaining institutional capacities depend on several factors. Some countries will perform most of the acquisition, processing, and analysis of data by their agencies or centralized units; others may decide to build upon outside partners (i.e. contractors, local communities or regional centers). Although a minimum amount of institutional capacities is required even for small countries, larger countries will need to invest in a more complex and more expensive organisation structure.

3.5.3.4 Cost factors for monitoring change in forest area

Fundamental requirements of national monitoring systems are that they measure changes throughout all forested area, use consistent methodologies at repeated intervals to obtain accurate results, and verify results with ground-based or very high quality observations. The only practical approach for such monitoring systems is through interpretation of remotely sensed data supported by ground-based observations. The use field survey and inventory type data for national level estimation of activity is performed by several Annex I countries (Achard et al., 2008). However, the use of satellite remote sensing observations (in combination field observations for calibration and validation) for consistent and efficient monitoring of forest area change using Approach 3 if the IPCC GPG can be assumed to be the most common option for REDD activities in developing countries; in particular for countries with limited information for the historical period.

The implementation of the satellite-based monitoring system includes a number of cost factors:

1. Satellite data incl. data access and processing
2. Soft/Hardware and office resources (incl. satellite data archive)
3. Human resources for data interpretation and analysis
    a. Monitoring in readiness phase
    b. Operational monitoring
4. Accuracy assessment

5. Regional cooperation

For countries without existing operational capacities the costs for developing the required human capacities required will need to be considered. In the establishment phase, the work of both national and international experts include the following activities:

a) Assessment and best use of existing observations and information;

b) Specify a methodology and operational implementation framework for monitoring forest area change on a national level;

c) Perform analysis of historical satellite data for establishing reference emission levels or reference levels;

d) Develop understanding of areas affected by forest degradation and provide assessment on how to monitor relevant forest degradation processes;

e) If required, set up system for real-time deforestation monitoring (i.e. including detection of forest fires and areas burnt);

f) Complete recruitment and provide training to national team to perform monitoring activities;

g) Complete an accuracy and error analysis for estimates from the historical period;

h) Perform a test run of the operational forest area change monitoring system.

Once a monitoring system is consolidated in the readiness phase, the continuous monitoring operation produces annual operational costs for the different components of the system mentioned in Table 3.5.1. For example, if a country decides to monitor forest area change using its own resources and capacities the annual cost for human resources maybe on the order 3 to 4 times smaller than for the establishment phase (Hardcastle et al. 2008).

The resources required for operational monitoring depend on the size of the area to be mapped each year and the thematic detail and accuracy to be provided. In general, the smallest implementation unit of three skilled technicians should be sufficient to perform all operations for the consistent and transparent monitoring of forest area change for small to medium country sizes in 2- to 3-year time intervals. Costs for data and human resources will increase if an annual forest area change monitoring interval is performed.

3.5.3.5 Cost factors for monitoring change in carbon stocks

Estimates of carbon stocks in aboveground biomass of trees are frequently obtained by countries from various sources (Table 3.5.4), and for other forest carbon pools default data (for use with Tier 1 approach) provided by in the IPCC good practice guidance for LULUCF are normally used.

Growing stock volume collected in conventional forest inventories can be used to produce biomass values using methods in the IPCC good practice guidance for LULUCF or other more specific methods proposed by some authors in line with them. The stratification by forest types and management practices, for example, mature forest, intensely logged, selectively logged, fallow, could help to achieve more accurate and precise results. Many developing countries use some country-specific inventory data to estimate carbon stocks of forests (but often, they use factors from the IPCC to convert volume to biomass); this could be seen to be equivalent to a low level Tier 2 for emission factors as defined in the IPCC good practice guidance for LULUCF.

However, conventional forest inventories are often done in forests deemed to be productive for timber harvesting, often do not include forests that have little commercial timber, and measurements may have not been stratified and acquired for carbon stock assessments. Also, as Table 3.5.4 shows, many inventories are old and out of date and may not be the forests undergoing deforestation.

Compilation of data from ecological or other permanent sample plots may provide estimates of carbon stocks for different forest types but are subject to the design of particular scientific studies and thus tend to produce unreliable estimates over large forest areas.

Before initiating a program to monitor carbon stocks of land cover classes, certain decisions will need to be made concerning the following key factors that directly impact the cost of implementing a monitoring system:

i) What level of accuracy and precision is to be attained—the higher the targeted accuracy and precision (or lower uncertainty) of estimates of carbon stocks the higher the cost to monitor;

j) How to stratify forest lands—stratification into relatively homogeneous units of land with respect to carbon stocks lowers the cost as it reduces the number of sample plots;

k) Which carbon pools to include—the more carbon pools included the higher the cost; and

l) At what time intervals should carbon stocks in specific areas be monitored over time; the shorter the time interval, the higher the cost and specific areas targeted for REDD implementation activities may require more frequent measurements

For estimation of carbon stocks on the land, there is a need for sampling rather than attempt to measure everything noting that sampling is the process by which a subset is studied to allow generalizations to be made about the whole population or area of interest. The values attained from measuring a sample are an estimation of the equivalent value for the entire area or population. Statistics provide us with some idea of how close the estimation is to reality and therefore how certain or uncertain the estimates are.

The accuracy and precision of ground-based measurements depend on the methods employed and the frequency of collection. If insufficient measurement effort is expended, then the results will most likely be imprecise. In addition, estimates can be affected by sampling errors, assessment errors, classification errors in remote sensing imagery and model errors that propagate through to the final estimation.

Total monitoring costs are dependent on a number of fixed and variable costs. Costs that vary with the number of samples taken are variable costs, for example, labor is a variable cost because expenditure on labor varies with the number of sample plots required. Fixed costs do not vary with the number of sample plots taken. The total cost of a single measurement event is the sum of variable and fixed costs.

There are several variable costs associated to ground based sampling in forest that could include or depend on:

a) Labor required which depends on sampling size;

b) Equipment use and rental;

c) Communication equipment use and rental;

d) Food and accommodation;

e) Field supplies for collecting field data;

f) Transportation and analysis costs of any field samples (e.g. drying biomass samples).

Variable costs listed in categories (a) to (d) in paragraph above will vary with the number of samples required; the time taken to collect each sample and the time needed to travel from one sample site to another (e.g. affected by the size and spatial distribution of the area being contiguous or non-contiguous), as well as, by the number of forest carbon pools required. These are the major factors expected to influence overall sampling time. At a national scale, it is likely that travel time between plots could be as long as or longer than the actual time to collect all measurements in a plot. Costs listed in sub-bullets (e) and (f) are only dependent on the number of samples required.

The cost for deriving estimates of forest carbon stocks based on field measurements and sampling depends on the targeted precision level. The higher the level of precision the more plots are needed, similar precision may require more or less samples depending on the variability of the carbon stocks in the plot. A measure of the variability commonly used is the coefficient of variation of the carbon stock estimates, the higher the coefficient of variation the more variable the stocks and the more plots needed to achieve the same level of precision.

Stratification of forest cover can increase the accuracy and precision of the measuring and monitoring in a cost-effective manner (see section 2.2). Carbon stocks may vary substantially among forest types depending on physical factors (e.g., climate types, precipitation regime, temperature, soil type, and topography), biological factors (tree species composition, stand age, stand density) and anthropogenic factors (e.g. disturbance history and logging intensity).

3.5.3.6 Spatial data infrastructure, access and reporting procedures

A centralized spatial data infrastructure should be established to gather, store, archive, and analyze all required data for the national reporting. This requires resources to establish and maintain a centralized database and information system integrating all required information for LULUCF. There is need to establish a data infrastructure, incl. information technology (suitable hard/software), and for human resources to generate, manipulate, apply, and interpret the data, as well as capability to perform the reporting and accounting using the UNFCCC guidelines, and meet the international reporting obligations. There should also be consideration of data access procedures for (spatially explicit) information in transparent form.

3.5.4 Key references for section 3.5

Achard, F., Grassi, G, Herold, M., Teobaldelli, M. and D. Mollicone (2008). The use of satellite remote sensing in the LULUCF sector, Background paper requested by the IPCC Expert Meeting in Helsinki, May 2008, to consider the current IPCC guidance on estimating emissions and removals of greenhouse gases from land uses such as agriculture and forestry. GOFC-GOLD report series 33, www.fao.org/gtos/gofc-gold/series.html.

FAO 2006. Global Forest Resources Assessment 2005 – Progress towards sustainable forest management. FAO Forestry Paper 147. www.fao.org/forestry/fra2005

Hardcastle, P.D. and Baird, D. 2008 Capability and cost assessment of the major forest nations to measure and monitor their forest carbon for Office of Climate Change. LTS International, Penicuick, UK.

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ProForest with input from ODI and EcoSecurities. http://www.occ.gov.uk/publications/index.htm

Holmgren, P., Marklund, L-G., Saket, M. & Wilkie, M.L. 2007. Forest Monitoring and Assessment for Climate Change Reporting: Partnerships, Capacity Building and Delivery. Forest Resources Assessment Working Paper 142. FAO, Rome. www.fao.org/forestry/fra

UNFCCC 2008. Financial support provided by the Global Environment Facility for the preparation of national communications from Parties not included in Annex I to the Convention, FCCC/SBI/2008/INF.10, http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2008/sbi/eng/inf10.pdf.

4 GUIDANCE ON REPORTING

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4.1 SCOPE OF CHAPTER

4.1.1 The importance of good reporting

Under the UNFCCC, information reported in greenhouse gas (GHG) inventories represents an essential link between science and policy, providing the means by which the COP can monitor progress made by Parties in meeting their commitments and in achieving the Convention's ultimate objectives. In any international system in which an accounting procedure is foreseen - as in the Kyoto Protocol and likely also in a future REDD mechanism – the information reported in a Party’s GHG inventory represents the basis for assessing each Party’s performance as compared to its commitments or reference scenario, and therefore represents the basis for assigning eventual incentives or penalties.

The quality of GHG inventories relies not only upon the robustness of the science underpinning the methodologies and the associated credibility of the estimates – but also on the way this information is compiled and presented. Information must be well documented, transparent and consistent with the reporting requirements outlined in the UNFCCC guidelines.

4.1.2 Overview of the Chapter

Section 4.2 gives an overview of the current reporting requirements under UNFCCC, including the general underlying principles. The typical structure of a GHG inventory is illustrated, including an example table for reporting C stock changes from deforestation.

Section 4.3 outlines the major challenges that developing countries will likely encounter when implementing the reporting principles described in section 4.2.

Section 4.4 elaborates concepts already agreed upon in a UNFCCC context and describes how a conservative approach may help to overcome some of the difficulties described in Section 4.3.

4.2 OVERVIEW OF REPORTING PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURES

4.2.1 Current reporting requirements under the UNFCCC

Under the UNFCCC, all Parties are required to provide national inventories of anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of all greenhouse gases not controlled by the Montreal Protocol. To promote the provision of credible and consistent GHG information, the COP has developed specific reporting guidelines that detail standardized requirements. Although these requirements differ across Parties, they are similar in that they are based on IPCC methodologies and aim to produce a full, accurate, transparent, consistent and comparable reporting of GHG emissions and removals.

At present, detailed reporting guidelines exist for the annual GHG inventories of Annex I Parties (UNFCCC 2004)[58], while only generic guidance is available for the preparation of national communications from non-Annex I Parties[59]. This difference reflects the fact that Annex I (AI) Parties are required to report detailed data on an annual basis that are subject to in-depth review by teams of independent experts, while Non-Annex I Parties (NAI) currently report less often and in less detail. As a result, their national communications are not subject to in-depth reviews.

However, given the potential relevance of a future REDD mechanism - and the consequent need for robust and defensible estimates - the reporting requirements of NAI Parties on emissions from deforestation will certainly become more stringent and may come close to the level of detail currently required from AI Parties. This tendency is confirmed by recent documents agreed during REDD negotiations – i.e. the demonstration REDD activities should produce estimates that are "*results based, demonstrable, transparent, and verifiable, and estimated consistently over time*"[60]. Therefore, although at present it is not possible to foresee the exact reporting requirements of a future REDD mechanism, they will likely follow the general principles and procedures currently valid for AI parties and outlined in the following section.

4.2.2 Inventory and reporting principles

Under the UNFCCC, there are five general principles which should guide the estimation and the reporting of emissions and removals of GHGs: Transparency, Consistency Comparability Completeness and Accuracy. Although some of these principles have been already discussed in previous chapters, below are summarized and their relevance for the reporting is highlighted:

• *Transparency*, i.e. all the assumptions and the methodologies used in the inventory should be clearly explained and appropriately documented, so that anybody could verify its correctness.

• *Consistency*, i.e. the same definitions and methodologies should be used along time. This should ensure that differences between years and categories reflect real differences in emissions. Under certain circumstances, estimates using different methodologies for different years can be considered consistent if they have been calculated in a transparent manner. Recalculations of previously submitted estimates are possible to improve accuracy and/or completeness, providing that all the relevant information is properly documented. In a REDD context, consistency also means that all the lands and all the carbon pools which have been reported in the reference period must to be tracked in the future (in the Kyoto language it is said "once in, always in"). Similarly, the inclusion of new sources or sinks which have existed since the reference

[58] UNFCCC 2004 Guidelines for the preparation of national communications by Parties included in Annex I to the Convention, Part I: UNFCCC reporting guidelines on annual inventories (FCCC/SBSTA/2004/8).

[59] UNFCCC 2002 Guidelines for the preparation of national communications from Parties not included in Annex I to the Convention (FCCC/CP/2002/7/Add.2).

[60] Decision -/CP.13. http://unfccc.int/files/meetings/cop_13/application/pdf/cp_redd.pdf.

period but were not previously reported (e.g., a carbon pool), should be reported for the reference period and all subsequent years for which a reporting is required.

• *Comparability* across countries. For this purpose, Parties should follow the methodologies and standard formats (including the allocation of different source/sink category) provided by the IPCC and agreed within the UNFCCC for estimating and reporting inventories (see also chapter 2.1). It shall be noted that the comparability principle may be extended also to definitions (e.g. definition of forest) and estimates (e.g. forest area, average C stock) provided by the same Party to different international organizations (e.g. UNFCCC, FAO). In that case, any discrepancy should be adequately justified.

• *Completeness*, meaning that estimates should include – for all the relevant geographical coverage – all the agreed categories, gases and pools. When gaps exist, all the relevant information and justification on these gaps should be documented in a transparent manner.

• *Accuracy*, in the sense that estimates should be systematically neither over nor under the true value, so far as can be judged, and that uncertainties are reduced so far as is practicable. Appropriate methodologies should be used, in accordance with the IPCC, to promote accuracy in inventories and to quantify the uncertainties in order to improve future inventories.

Furthermore, these principles also guide the process of independent review of all the GHG inventories submitted by AI Parties to the UNFCCC.

4.2.3 Structure of a GHG inventory

A national inventory of GHG anthropogenic emissions and removals is typically divided into two parts:

Reporting Tables are a series of standardized data tables that contain mainly quantitative (numerical) information. Box 4.2.1 shows an example table for reporting C stock changes following deforestation (modified from Kyoto Protocol LULUCF tables for illustrative purposes only). Typically, these tables include columns for:

- The initial and final land-use category. Additional stratification is encouraged (in a separate column for subcategories) according to criteria such as climate zone, management system, soil type, vegetation type, tree species, ecological zones, national land classification or other factors.

- The "*activity data*", i.e., area of land (in thousands of ha) subject to gross deforestation and degradation (see Section 2.1)

- *The* "*emission factors*", i.e., the C stock changes per unit area deforested or degraded, separated for each carbon pool (see Sections 2.2 & 2.3). The term "implied factors" means that the reported values represent an average within the reported category or subcategory, and serves mainly for comparative purposes.

- The total change in C stock, obtained by multiplying each activity data by the relevant emission C stock change factor.

- the total emissions (expressed as CO_2).

Box 4.2.1: Example of a typical reporting table

for reporting C stock changes following deforestation.

GREENHOUSE GAS SOURCE AND SINK CATEGORIES		ACTIVITY DATA	IMPLIED CARBON STOCK CHANGE FACTORS (2)						Implied emission factor per area (3)	CHANGE IN CARBON STOCK (2)						Total CO_2 emissions (3)
			carbon stock change per **unit area** in:							carbon stock change in:						
			biomass		dead organic matter		soils			Biomass		dead organic matter		soils		
Land-Use Category	Sub-division (1)	Total area (kha)	above-ground	below-ground	dead wood	litter	mineral	organic		above-ground	below-ground	dead wood	litter	mineral	organic	
			(Mg C/ha)						(Mg CO_2/ha)	(Gg C)						(Gg CO_2)
A. Total Deforestation																
1. Forest Land converted to Cropland	(specify)															
	(specify)															
2. Forest Land converted to Grassland	(specify)															
	(specify)															
…..																

(1) Land categories may be further divided according to climate zone, management system, soil type, vegetation type, tree species, ecological zones, national land classification or other criteria.

(2) The signs for estimates of increases in carbon stocks are positive (+) and of decreases in carbon stocks are negative (-).

(3) According to IPCC Guidelines, changes in carbon stocks are converted to CO_2 by multiplying C by 44/12 and changing the sign for net CO_2 removals to be negative (-) and for net CO_2 emissions to be positive (+).

Documentation box:
Use this documentation box to provide references to relevant sections of the Inventory Report if any additional information and/or further details are needed to understand the content of this table.

To ensure the completeness of an inventory, it is good practice to fill in information for all entries of the table. If actual emission and removal quantities have not been estimated or cannot otherwise be reported in the tables, the inventory compiler should use the following qualitative “notation keys” (from IPCC 2006 GL) and provide supporting documentation.

Notation key	Explanation
NE (Not estimated)	Emissions and/or removals occur but have not been estimated or reported.
IE (Included elsewhere)	Emissions and/or removals for this activity or category are estimated but included elsewhere. In this case, where they are located should be indicated,
C (Confidential information)	Emissions and/or removals are aggregated and included elsewhere in the inventory because reporting at a disaggregated level could lead to the disclosure of confidential information.
NA (Not Applicable)	The activity or category exists but relevant emissions and removals are considered never to occur.
NO (Not Occurring)	An activity or process does not exist within a country.

For example, if a country decides that a disproportionate amount of effort would be required to collect data for a pool from a specific category that is not a key category (see see Sections 2.2 & 2.3) in terms of the overall level and trend in national emission, then the country should list all gases/pools excluded on these grounds, together with a justification for exclusion, and use the notation key 'NE' in the reporting tables.

Furthermore, the reporting tables are generally complemented by a documentation box which should be used to provide references to relevant sections of the Inventory Report if any additional information is needed.

In addition to tables like those illustrated in Box 4.2.1, other typical tables to be filled in a comprehensive GHG inventory include:

Tables with emissions from other gases (e.g., CH4 and N2O from biomass burning), to be expressed both in unit of mass and in CO_2 equivalent (using the Global Warming Potential of each gas provided by the IPCC)

Summary tables (with all the gases and all the emissions/removals)

Tables with emission trends (covering data also from previous submissions)

Tables for illustrating the results of the key category analysis, the completeness of the reporting, and eventual recalculations.

In the context of REDD, most of these types of tables will likely need to be completed for the reference period and for the assessment period, although it is not yet clear if non-CO_2 gases and all pools will be required.

Inventory Report: The other part of a national inventory is an Inventory Report that contains comprehensive and transparent information about the inventory, including:

An overview of trends for aggregated GHG emissions, by gas and by category.

A description of the methodologies used in compiling the inventory, the assumptions, the data sources and rationale for their selection, and an indication of the level of complexity

(IPCC tiers) applied. In the context of REDD reporting, appropriate information on land-use definitions, land area representation and land-use databases are likely to be required.

A description of the key categories, including information on the level of category disaggregation used and its rationale, the methodology used for identifying key categories, and if necessary, explanations for why the IPCC-recommended Tiers have not been applied.

Information on uncertainties (i.e., methods used and underlying assumptions), time-series consistency, recalculations (with justification for providing new estimates), quality assurance and quality control procedures.

A description of the institutional arrangements for inventory preparation.

Information on planned improvements.

Furthermore, all of the relevant inventory information should be compiled and archived, including all disaggregated emission factors, activity data and documentation on how these factors and data were generated and aggregated for reporting. This information should allow, inter alia, reconstruction of the inventory by the expert review teams.

4.3 WHAT ARE THE MAJOR CHALLENGES FOR DEVELOPING COUNTRIES?

Although the inventory requirements for a REDD mechanism have not yet been designed, it is possible to foresee some of the major challenges that developing countries will encounter in estimating and reporting emissions from deforestation and forest degradation. In particular, what difficulties can be expected if the five principles outlined above are required for REDD reporting?

While specific countries may encounter difficulties in meeting transparency, consistency and comparability principles, it is likely that most countries will be able to fulfill these principles reasonably well after adequate capacity building. In contrast, based on the current monitoring and reporting capabilities, the principles of completeness and accuracy will likely represent major challenges for most developing countries, especially for estimating emissions of the reference period.

Achieving the *completeness* principle will clearly depend on the processes (e.g. deforestation, forest degradation) involved, the pools and gases that needed to be reported, and the forest-related definitions that are applied. For example, evidence from official reports (e.g., NAI national communications to UNFCCC[61], FAO's FRA 2005[62]) suggests that only a very small fraction of developing countries currently reports data on soil carbon, even though emissions from soils following deforestation are likely to be significant in many cases.

If *accurate* estimates of emissions are to be reported, reliable methodologies are needed as well as a quantification of their uncertainties. For key categories and significant pools, this implies the application of higher tiers, i.e. having country-specific data on all the significant pools stratified by climate, forest, soil and conversion type at a fine to medium spatial scale. Although adequate methods exist (as outlined in the previous chapters of the sourcebook), and the capacity for monitoring emissions from deforestation is improving, in many developing countries accurate data on deforested

[61] UNFCCC. 2005. Sixth compilation and synthesis of initial national communications from Parties not included in Annex I to the Convention. FCCC/SBI/2005/18/Add.2

[62] Food and Agriculture Organization. 2006. Global Forest Resources Assessment.

areas and carbon stocks are still scarce and allocating significant extra resources for monitoring may be difficult in the near future.

In this context, how could the obstacle of potentially incomplete and highly uncertain REDD reporting be overcome?

4.4 THE CONSERVATIVENESS APPROACH

To address the potential incompleteness and the uncertainties of REDD estimates, and thus to increase their credibility, it has been proposed to use the approach of "conservativeness". Although conservativeness is, strictly speaking, an accounting concept, its consideration during the estimation and reporting phases may help, for example, in allocating resources in a cost-effective way (e.g. see section 4.4.1).

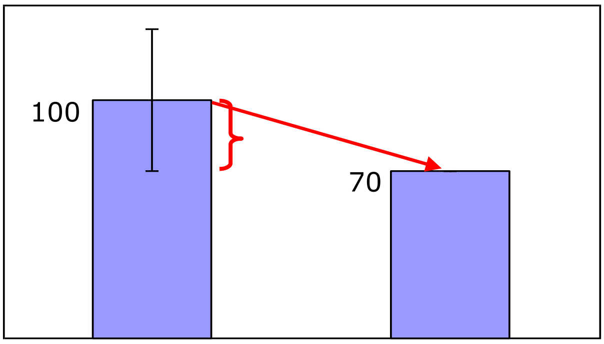
In the REDD context, conservativeness means that - when completeness or accuracy of estimates cannot be achieved - the reduction of emissions should not be overestimated, or at least the risk of overestimation should be minimized.

Although this approach may appear new to some, it is already present in the UNFCCC context, even if somehow "hidden" in technical documents. For example, the procedure for adjustments under Art 5.2 of the Kyoto Protocol works as follows [63]: if an AI Party reports to UNFCCC emissions or removals in a manner that is not consistent with IPCC methodologies and would give benefit for the Party, e.g. an overestimation of sinks or underestimation of emissions in a given year of the commitment period, then this would likely trigger an "adjustment", i.e., a change applied by an independent expert review team (ERT) to the Party's reported estimates. In this procedure, the ERT may first substitute the original estimate with a new one (generally based on a default IPCC estimate, i.e. a Tier 1) and then - given the high uncertainty of this new estimate - multiply it by a tabulated category-specific "conservativeness factor" (see Figure 4.4.1). Differences in conservativeness factors between categories reflect typical differences in total uncertainties, and thus conservativeness factors have a higher impact for categories or components that are expected to be more uncertain (based on the uncertainty ranges of IPCC default values or on expert judgment). In this way, the conservativeness factor acts to decrease the risk of underestimating emissions or overestimating removals in the commitment period. In the case of the base year, the opposite applies. In other words, the conservativeness factor may increase the "quality" of an estimate, e.g. decreasing the high "risk" of a Tier 1 estimate up to a level typical of a Tier 3 estimate. Of course, the extent of the correction depends also on the level of the confidence interval[64]: for example, by taking the lower bound of the 50% or 95% confidence interval means, respectively, having 25% or 2.5% probability of overestimating the "true" value of the emissions (in case of Art. 5.2 of the Kyoto Protocol the 50% confidence interval is used). By contrast, by taking the mean value (and assuming a normal distribution) there is an equal chance (50%) for over- and under-estimation of the true value.

[63] UNFCCC 2006. Good practice guidance and adjustments under Article 5, paragraph 2, of the Kyoto Protocol FCCC/KP/CMP/2005/8/Add.3 Decision 20/CMP.1

[64] The confidence interval is a range that encloses the true (but unknown) value with a specified confidence (probability). E.g., the 95 % confidence interval has a 95% probability of enclosing the true value.

Figure 4.4.1. Conceptual example of the application of a conservativeness factor during the adjustment procedure under Art. 5.2 of the Kyoto Protocol. The bracket indicates the risk of overestimating the true value, which is high if, for example, a Tier 1 estimate is used. Multiplying this estimate by a conservativeness factor (in this case 0.7), derived from category-specific tabulated confidence intervals, means decreasing the risk of overestimating the true value.



Another example comes from the modalities for afforestation and reforestation project activities under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM)[65], which prescribes that "the baseline shall be established in a transparent and conservative manner regarding the choice of approaches, assumptions, methodologies, parameters, data sources, …and taking into account uncertainty".

Furthermore, the concept of conservativeness is *implicitly* present also elsewhere. For example, the Marrakech Accords specify that, under Articles 3.3 and 3.4 of the Kyoto Protocol, Annex I Parties "may choose not to account for a given pool if transparent and verifiable information is provided that the pool is not a source", which means applying conservativeness to an incomplete estimate. In addition, the IPCC GPG-LULUCF (2003) indicates the use of the Reliable Minimum Estimate (Chapter 4.3.3.4.1) as a tool to assess changes in soil carbon, which means applying conservativeness to an uncertain estimate.

Very recently, this concept entered also in the text of ongoing REDD negotiations66, where among the methodological issues identified for further consideration it was included "Means to deal with uncertainties in estimates aiming to ensure that reductions in emissions or increases in removals are not over-estimated".

However, although the usefulness of the conservativeness concept seems largely accepted, its application in the REDD context clearly needs some guidance. In other words: how to implement, in practice, the conservativeness approach to the REDD context? To this aim, the next two sections show some examples on how the conservativeness approach may be applied to a REDD mechanism when estimates are incomplete or uncertain, respectively.

[65] UNFCCC 2006. Modalities and procedures for afforestation and reforestation project activities under the clean development mechanism in the first commitment period of the Kyoto Protocol Decision 5/CMP.1

[66] http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2008/sbsta/eng/l12.pdf

4.4.1 Addressing incomplete estimates

It is likely that a typical and important example of incomplete estimates will arise from the lack of reliable data for a carbon pool, and especially the soil pool. In this case, being conservative in a REDD context does not mean "not overestimating the emissions", but rather "not overestimating the reduction of emissions". If soil is not accounted for, the total emissions from deforestation will very likely be underestimated in both periods. However, assuming for the most disaggregated reported level (e.g., a forest type converted to cropland) the same emission factor (C stock change/ha) in the two periods, and provided that the area deforested is reduced from the reference to the assessment period, also the reduced emissions will be underestimated. In other words, although neglecting soil carbon will cause a REDD estimate which is not complete, this estimate will be conservative (see Table 4.4.1) and therefore should not be considered a problem. However, this assumption of conservative omission of a pool is *not* valid anymore if, for a given forest conversion type, the area deforested is increased from the reference to the assessment period; in such case, any pool which is a source should be estimated and reported.

Table 4.4.1: Simplified example of how ignoring a carbon pool may produce a conservative estimate of reduced emissions from deforestation. The reference level might be assessed on the basis of historical emissions. (a) complete estimate, including the soil pool; (b) incomplete estimate, as the soil pool is missing. The latter estimate of reduced emissions is not accurate, but is conservative.

	Area deforested (ha x 10^3)	Carbon stock change (t C/ha deforested)		Emissions (area deforested x C stock change, t C x 10^3)	
		Above-ground Biomass	Soil	Aboveground Biomass + Soil	Only Above-ground Biomass
Reference level	10	100	50	1500	1000
Assessment period	5	100	50	750	500
Reduction of emissions (reference level - assessment period, t C x 10^3)				**750** (a)	**500** (b)

4.4.2 Addressing uncertain estimates

Assuming that during the "estimation phase" the Party carries out all the practical efforts to produce accurate and precise REDD estimates (i.e., to reduce uncertainties), as well as to quantify the uncertainties according to the IPCC guidance, here we suggest a simple approach to deal with at least part of the remaining uncertainties.

Similarly to the adjustment procedure under Art. 5.2 of the Kyoto Protocol (see before), we propose to use the confidence interval in a conservative way, i.e. to decrease the probability of producing an error in the unwanted direction. Specifically, here we briefly present two possible approaches to implement this concept:

Approach A): the conservative estimate of REDD is derived from the uncertainties of both the reference and the assessment periods. Following the idea of the Reliable Minimum Estimate (IPCC GPG LULUCF 2003), the aim is to decrease both the risk of overestimating the emissions in reference period and the risk of underestimating the emissions in the assessment period. Therefore, this approach calculates the difference between the lower bound of the confidence interval (i.e., downward correction) of emissions in the reference period and the higher bound of the confidence interval (i.e., upward correction) of emissions in the assessment period (see Fig. 4.4.2.A).

Approach B): the conservative estimate of REDD is derived from the uncertainty of the difference of emissions between the reference and the assessment period (uncertainty of the trend, IPCC 2006 GL, as illustrated in Fig. 4.4.2.B). From a conceptual point of view, this approach appears more appropriate than approach A for the REDD context, since the emission reduction (and the associated trend uncertainty) is more important that the absolute level of uncertainty of emissions in the reference and assessment period. A peculiarity of the uncertainty in the trend is that it is extremely dependent on whether uncertainties of inputs data (Activity Data, AD, and Emission Factor, EF) are correlated or not between the reference and the assessment period. In particular, if the uncertainty is correlated between periods it does not affect the % uncertainty of the trend(see Ch. 2.6.3.3 for further discussion on correlation of uncertainties). In uncertainty analyses of GHG inventories, no correlation is typically assumed for activity data in different years, and a perfect positive correlation between emission factors is assumed in different years. This is the basic assumption given by the IPCC (IPCC 2006 GL), which we consider likely also in the REDD context.

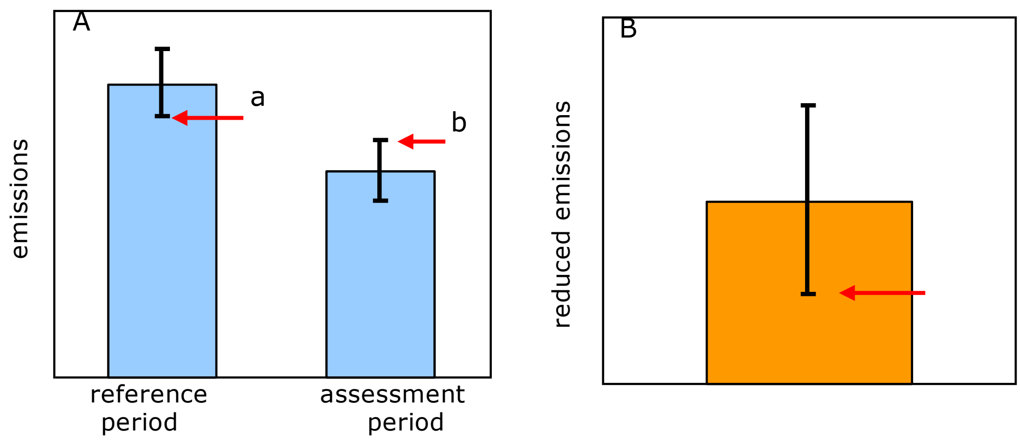


Figure 4.4.2. With approach A (left), the conservative estimate of REDD is calculated based on the uncertainties of both the reference and the assessment period (a - b). With approach B (right), the conservative estimate of REDD is derived from the uncertainty of the difference of emissions between the reference and the assessment period (uncertainty of the trend).

Further discussions on possible ways of applying conservativeness to uncertain estimates may be found in Grassi et al. (2008).

Our proposal of correcting conservatively the REDD estimates may be potentially applied to those estimates which do not fulfill the IPCC’s good practice principles (e.g. if a key category is estimated with tier 1: country-specific estimates of AD combined with IPCC-default EF). In this case, the corrections could be based on the uncertainties of AD quantified by the country appropriately combined to the default uncertainties of EF used under Art. 5.2 for the various categories and C pools.

Our proposal of correcting conservatively the REDD estimates may be based on the uncertainties quantified by the country when estimated in a robust way (that will be subject to subsequent review). In absence of such estimates from the country, the confidence intervals may be derived from tabulated category-specific uncertainties, possibly produced by the IPCC or other independent bodies (as in the case of Art. 5.2 of the Kyoto Protocol).

In any case, during the review phase, the reported AD and EF will be analyzed. If the review concludes that the methodology used is not consistent with recommended guidelines by IPCC or with the UNFCCC's principles, and may produce overestimated REDD data, the problem could be addressed by applying a default factor multiplied by a conservative factor (as already described for Art. 5.2 under the Kyoto Protocol).

4.4.3 Conclusion: conservativeness is a win-win option

The IPCC defines inventories consistent with good practice as those which contain neither over- nor underestimates so far as can be judged, and in which uncertainties are reduced as far as practicable. Consequently, also REDD estimates should be complete, accurate and precise. However, once the country has carried out all the practical efforts in this direction, if still some aspects do not fulfill the IPCC's good practice (e.g. if a key category is not estimated with the proper tier, or if the emissions from a significant C pool is not estimated), the remaining problems could be potentially addressed with the conservativeness concept, to ensure that reductions in emissions or increases in removals are not over-estimated. To this aim, in Sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2 we proposed few examples of how the conservativeness approach can be applied to an incomplete estimate (e.g., an omission of a pool) and to an uncertain estimate. In the REDD context, the conservativeness approach has the following advantages:

- It may increase the robustness, the environmental integrity and the credibility of any REDD mechanism, by decreasing the risk that economic incentives are given to undemonstrated reductions of emission. This should help convincing policymakers, investors and NGOs in industrialized countries that robust and credible REDD estimates are possible.

- It rewards the quality of the estimates. Indeed, more accurate/precise estimates of deforestation, or a more complete coverage of C pool (e.g., including soil), will likely translate in higher REDD estimates, thus allowing to claim for more incentives. Thus, if a REDD mechanism starts with conservativeness, precision and accuracy will likely follow.

- It allows flexible monitoring requirements: since the quality of the estimates is rewarded, it could also be envisaged as a system in which - provided that conservativeness is satisfied, - Parties are allowed to choose themselves what pool to estimate and at which level of accuracy/precision (i.e. Tier), depending on their own cost-benefit analysis and national circumstances.

- It stimulates a broader participation, i.e. allows developing countries to join the REDD mechanism even if they cannot provide accurate/precise estimates for all carbon pools or key categories, and thus decreases the risk of emission displacement from one country to another.

- It increases the comparability of estimates across countries – a fundamental UNFCCC reporting principle - and also the fairness of the distribution of eventual positive incentives.

4.5 KEY REFERENCES FOR CHAPTER 4

Grassi G, Monni S, Federici S, Achard F, Mollicone D (2008): From uncertain data to credible numbers: applying the conservativeness principle to REDD. Environ. Res. Lett., 3 035005..

Mollicone D, Freibauer A, Schulze E-D, Braatz S, Grassi G, Federici S (2007): Elements for the expected mechanisms on Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation (REDD) under UNFCCC. Environ. Res. Lett. 2 045024

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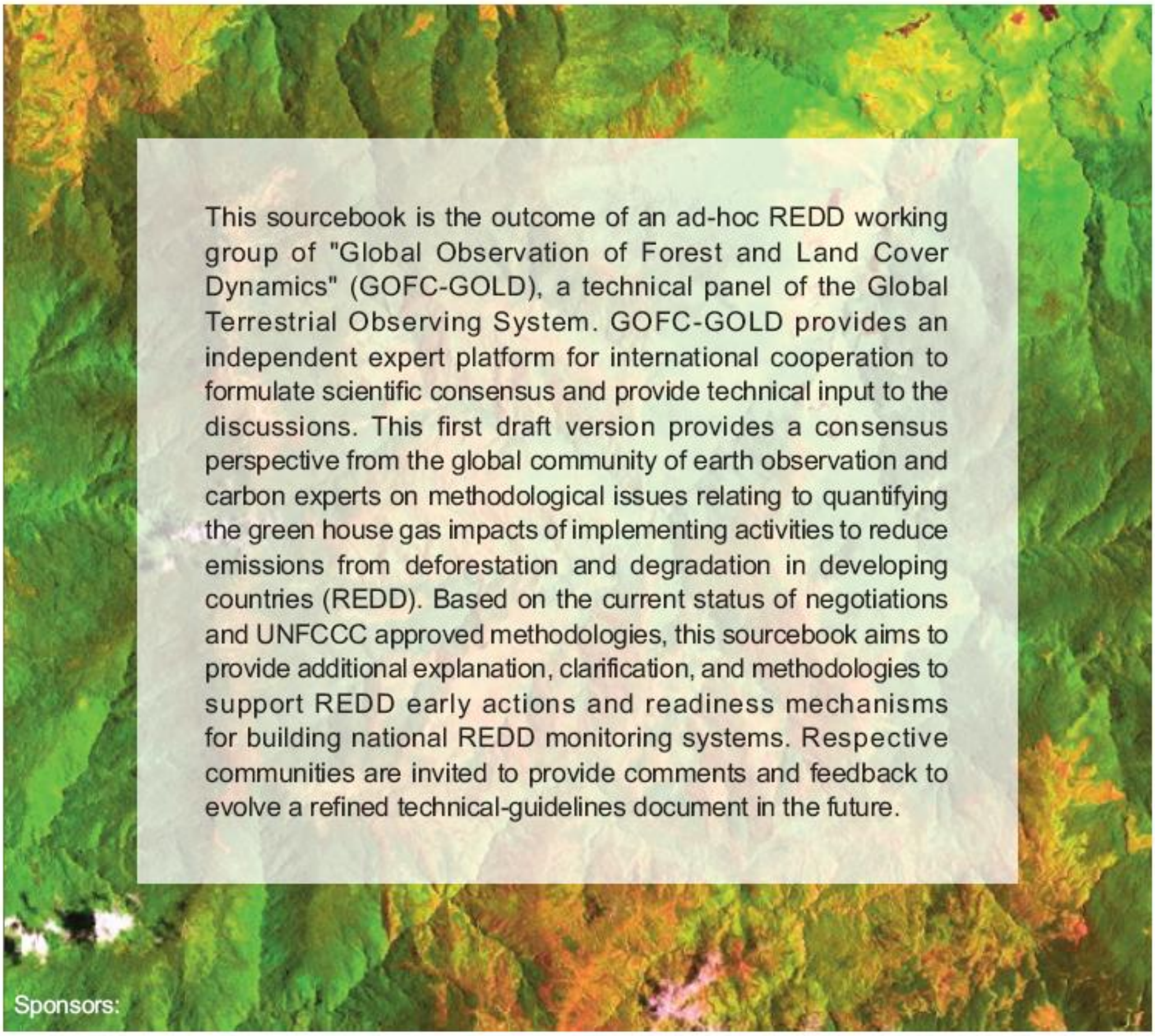

This sourcebook is the outcome of an ad-hoc REDD working group of "Global Observation of Forest and Land Cover Dynamics" (GOFC-GOLD), a technical panel of the Global Terrestrial Observing System. GOFC-GOLD provides an independent expert platform for international cooperation to formulate scientific consensus and provide technical input to the discussions. This first draft version provides a consensus perspective from the global community of earth observation and carbon experts on methodological issues relating to quantifying the green house gas impacts of implementing activities to reduce emissions from deforestation and degradation in developing countries (REDD). Based on the current status of negotiations and UNFCCC approved methodologies, this sourcebook aims to provide additional explanation, clarification, and methodologies to support REDD early actions and readiness mechanisms for building national REDD monitoring systems. Respective communities are invited to provide comments and feedback to evolve a refined technical-guidelines document in the future.

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