

PAYMENTS FOR CARBON SEQUESTRATION TO ALLEVIATE DEVELOPMENT PRESSURE

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Payments for Carbon Sequestration to Alleviate Development Pressure in a Rapidly Urbanizing Region

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine individuals' willingness to enroll in voluntary payments for carbon sequestration programs through the use of a discrete choice experiment delivered to forest owners living in the rapidly urbanizing region surrounding Charlotte, North Carolina. We examined forest owners' willingness to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration policies under different levels of financial incentives (annual revenue), different contract lengths and different program administrators (e.g., private companies versus a state or federal agency). We also examined the influence forest owners' sense of place had on their willingness to enroll in hypothetical programs. Our results showed a high level of ambivalence towards participating in payments for carbon sequestration programs. However, both financial incentives and contract lengths significantly influenced forest owners' intent to enroll. Neither program administration nor forest owners' sense of place influenced intent to enroll. While our analyses indicated payments from carbon sequestration programs are not currently competitive with the monetary returns expected from timber harvest or property sales, certain forest owners might see payments for carbon sequestration programs as a viable option for offsetting increasing tax costs as development encroaches and property values rise.

Keywords: stated choice methods; urbanization; payments for ecosystem services

1 **Payments for Carbon Sequestration to Alleviate Development Pressure** 2 **in a Rapidly Urbanizing Region**

3 4 **Introduction**

5 Across the United States, forest and agricultural landscapes are becoming increasingly
6 fragmented as urban populations grow and cities expand (Theobald 2005; Theobald 2001;
7 Theobald and Romme 2007). The fragmentation of urban-proximate forest and agricultural
8 landscapes can have both immediate and long-term effects on natural systems. Immediate
9 impacts include the displacement of wildlife as habitat degrades as well as reductions in water
10 quality as erosion increases due to the direct removal of above-ground biomass (Hansen et al.
11 2005; Paul and Meyer 2001). The long-term environmental impacts of urban-proximate
12 landscape fragmentation are more difficult to observe. The loss of endemic plant and animal
13 species as well as biological diversity more generally, may only be realized after urbanization is
14 well underway (Theobald, Miller, and Hobbs 1997). Similarly, alterations to natural or semi-
15 natural hydrologic systems (primarily as a result of increased water use) may impact the ability
16 of ecological systems to respond to drought and climate-related stressors (Allan 2004). In
17 response to these direct impacts and long-term feedbacks, urban planners, forest managers and
18 agricultural associations are actively seeking out and exploring viable policies and programs that
19 conserve forest and agricultural landscapes and maintain the ecosystem services they provide
20 (Gobster, Stewart, and Bengston 2004).

21 Payments for ecosystem services policies are one of many potential policy options to
22 slow the rate of land use conversion in urbanizing areas (Bengston, Fletcher, and Nelson 2004;
23 Salzman 2005). Payments for ecosystem services can provide non-industrial private forest
24 owners a financial incentive to conserve or manage their land for the production of a valued

25 ecosystem service like sequestering carbon from the atmosphere, maintaining water quality or
26 conserving wildlife habitat (Jack, Kousky, and Sims 2008; Engel, Pagiola, and Wunder 2008).
27 Simply put, payments for ecosystem services programs are policy instruments which require
28 individuals (typically landowners) to engage in a specific land management practice that: 1)
29 comes at a personal cost (which can include opportunity costs); and 2) results in the continued or
30 enhanced production of an ecological service that benefits society (Shelley 2011). As a note, we
31 use the terminology ‘payments for ecosystem services’ given it connotes the Millennium
32 Ecosystem Assessment’s simple definition of ‘ecosystem services’ as “the benefits people obtain
33 from ecosystems” (2003, 3). Interested readers are referred to Shelley (2011) and Derissen and
34 Latacz-Lohmann (2013) for substantive reviews of the terminology used to describe these types
35 of policy instruments.

36 Payments for carbon sequestration policies are particularly attractive mechanisms
37 because they often do not require intensive investments of either time or money from the forest
38 owner, allowing the forest owner to benefit financially from non-intensive management
39 strategies (Biggs 2009; Lippke and Perez-Garcia 2008). Payments for carbon sequestration
40 policies may be especially appealing in the United States where most non-industrial private
41 forest owners do not actively manage their property through a forest management plan. Just 4%
42 of non-industrial private forest owners in the United States have a written management plan and
43 only 14% have ever sought out professional advice about their woodlands (Butler 2008). Other
44 potential policy solutions such as cost-share programs have not been widely adopted, presumably
45 because they are designed to supplement the forest products industry and often stipulate forest
46 owners actively manage their woodlands for timber extraction (Kilgore et al. 2007); only 6% of

47 non-industrial private forest owners in the United States have ever participated in a cost-share
48 program (Butler 2008).

49 Aside from the appeal of not being directly tied to the forest products industry, payments
50 for carbon sequestration policies might also be attractive to forest owners because they align
51 directly with non-timber values (Bengston, Asah, and Butler 2010). Over the past 45 years, the
52 nonuse and noneconomic values private forest owners' ascribe to their woodlands have become
53 stronger (Bengston, Asah, and Butler 2010). Urban residents in particular, tend to hold the
54 strongest nonuse forest values (Tarrant, Cordell, and Green 2003). Additionally, the average age
55 of the non-industrial private forest owner in the United States is declining as older forest owners
56 either sell their properties for development or transfer them to their children (Butler 2008). The
57 growing body of research on the shifting values of non-industrial private forest owners suggests
58 younger generations who inherit land have very strong psychological attachments to their
59 properties (Bliss and Martin 1989; Creighton, Blatner, and Carroll 2015; Gordon, Barton, and
60 Adams 2013; BenDor et al. 2014). The strong meanings forest owners tie to their properties is
61 likely an important factor affecting decisions about how they manage their land. Logically, the
62 stronger the psychological meanings a forest owner has towards their woodlands, the less likely
63 they would be to sell; conversely, the more likely they would be to enroll in a program allowing
64 them to manage their land in a low-intensity yet financially-beneficial way.

65 **Aim and Objectives**

66 Despite the anticipated benefits associated with payments for carbon sequestration
67 policies, only a few studies have explicitly examined the willingness of forest owners in
68 urbanizing regions to enroll in voluntary payments for carbon sequestration programs (Fletcher,
69 Kittredge, and Stevens 2009; Dickinson et al. 2012; Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011). Recent

70 related research has been conducted on forest owners' *attitudes* towards carbon sequestration
71 programs (Khanal et al. 2016). In this study we explored individuals' willingness to enroll in a
72 voluntary payments for carbon sequestration program through the use of a discrete choice
73 experiment delivered to non-industrial private forest owners living in the rapidly urbanizing
74 region surrounding Charlotte, North Carolina (USA). Specifically, we examined forest owners'
75 willingness to adopt payments for carbon sequestration policies that varied in their financial
76 incentives (i.e., annual payments), contract length requirements and type of administration (e.g.,
77 private companies versus a state or federal agency). Given payments for carbon sequestration
78 programs may be more appealing to individuals who ascribe strong personal meanings to their
79 forestland, we also examined the influence forest owners' 'sense of place' has on their
80 willingness to enroll in a program. Our analysis was guided by four distinct hypotheses, each of
81 which is grounded in the literature, these are:

82 H₁: Financial incentives will positively influence individuals' intent to enroll in payments
83 for carbon sequestration programs.

84 H₂: Contract length will negatively influence individuals' intent to enroll in payments for
85 carbon sequestration programs.

86 H₃: The type of organization (federal agency, state agency or a private company)
87 administering a payments for carbon sequestration program, will not influence
88 individuals' intent to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs.

89 H₄: There will be a positive relationship between individuals' sense of place toward their
90 forested land and their intent to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration
91 programs.

92 In addition to explicitly testing these hypotheses, we used data collected from site visits
93 to respondents' properties to estimate those properties' development and timber value; these
94 values were compared against the financial returns that would be realized if the forest owner
95 were to enroll in the hypothetical programs described in the discrete choice experiment. Our
96 intent is to see how a hypothetical carbon market compares to current timber and development
97 markets that are driving land use conversion throughout the region.

98 **Literature Review**

99 **Forest Owners' Intent to Enroll in Payments for Carbon Sequestration Programs**

100 There is a growing body of research that has examined the willingness of private forest
101 owners to participate in payments for carbon sequestration programs using discrete choice
102 methods. Previous research has predominantly focused on the northern Atlantic and Midwestern
103 states (Table 1), we were unable to identify any research on the preferences for carbon
104 sequestration program attributes in the Southeastern United States.

105 Existing research focused on the willingness of private forest owners to participate in
106 carbon sequestration programs has assessed the relative influence of different program attributes
107 on willingness to participate. Fletcher et al. (2009) assessed the willingness of seventeen
108 Massachusetts private forest owners to sequester carbon on their forestland based on six
109 hypothetical programs. In their study, program attributes such as expected payment per acre (\$5,
110 \$15 or \$30), length of contract (5 or 10 years), penalty for early withdrawal and the requirement
111 to have a forest management plan in place were evaluated. The results suggested contract length,
112 expected payment per acre and early withdrawal penalties were significant determinants of
113 program participation. Similar results were identified in a related study by Dickinson et al.
114 (2012) which estimated participation of Massachusetts private forest owners across three

115 hypothetical carbon sequestration programs. The program attributes examined included: contract
116 length (5, 10 or 15 years), financial incentives (\$5, \$15 or \$30 per acre annual revenue), the
117 requirement for a forest management plan to be in place and the stipulation of a penalty for early
118 withdrawal from the program. The results indicated per acre annual revenue was a positive
119 predictor of program enrollment, while contract length, the requirement to have a forest
120 management plan in place and the stipulation of a penalty for early withdrawal were all
121 negatively related to forest owners' intent to enroll. In another study investigating the intentions
122 of Massachusetts forest owners to participate in payments for carbon sequestration programs,
123 Markowski-Lindsay et al. (2011) found shorter contracts (15 years), higher payments (\$1000 per
124 acre per year), the ability to withdraw from the program without penalty and not being required
125 to have a forest management plan in place were positive predictors of program enrollment. The
126 authors note that financial incentives (annual revenue per acre) were very inelastic (i.e., the
127 intent to enroll did not change much as the incentive price increased or decreased, Png 2012).
128 The inelasticity of financial incentives suggests forest owners' participation is likely dependent
129 upon other factors. Markowski-Lindsay et al.'s (2011) study determined the overall probability
130 of enrollment in payments for carbon sequestration programs for Massachusetts forest owners
131 was less than 38%, even when desirable attributes were maximized and undesirable attributes
132 were minimized.

133 Other studies have examined the influence of program attributes associated with
134 payments for other ecosystem services, aside from carbon sequestration (Rabotyagov and Lin
135 2013; Knoot, Rickenbach, and Silbernagel 2015; Kelly, Germain, and Stehman 2015). Knoot et
136 al. (2015) investigated the effect of four cumulative requirement levels (i.e., no requirements,
137 management plan, practices and inspection) and their impact on Wisconsin forest owners'

138 willingness to participate in programs that offered payments for the provisioning of three
139 ecosystem services: bird habitat, carbon sequestration and water quality. Their results revealed
140 requirements involving more commitment deterred participation; participation rates dropped
141 from 42% when no requirements were stipulated to 18% when all of the aforementioned land
142 management practices were required. Knoot et al. (2015) also found that program administration
143 (government or market) held no significant influence on participation across all requirement
144 levels. This is inconsistent with findings from stakeholder focus groups in the Charlotte
145 metropolitan region, which indicated strong anti-government sentiment that could affect forest
146 owners' receptivity to government administered programs in our study area (BenDor et al. 2014).
147 Similarly, Kelly et al. (2015) assessed the likelihood of New York forest owners to enroll in
148 various payments for forest conservation programs. The payments for conservation programs
149 received an average enrollment of 8% regardless of time commitment. However, financial
150 incentives (annual payment levels) and management plan requirements were significant
151 attributes affecting enrollment. In another similar study, Rabotyagov and Lin (2013) explored the
152 preferences for attributes of working forest conservation contracts among Washington forest
153 owners. Of the three program attributes investigated, contract length significantly influenced the
154 likelihood of program participation. Finally, through focus groups with Forest Guild members,
155 Wade and Moseley (2011) found profitability to be the greatest barrier to private forest owners'
156 enrollment in voluntary payments for carbon sequestration programs. Financial incentives
157 positively affecting enrollment rates is a consistent finding across the literature.

158 **Psychological and Sociodemographic Factors Influencing Program Enrollment**

159 Aside from the attributes associated with payments for carbon sequestration programs,
160 forest owners' psychological attachments to their property might affect their intent to enroll

161 (Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011). However, no previous study has explicitly and empirically
162 examined this relationship. ‘Sense of place’ is a positive bond between individuals and their
163 environment, based on affect, cognition and symbolic meanings (Stedman 2002). Several studies
164 suggest the sense of place that an individual forest owner has towards their property will affect
165 how they manage that property (Lai and Kreuter 2012; Lokocz, Ryan, and Sadler 2011).

166 Lai and Kreuter (2012) examined how ‘place attachment’ (a construct very similar to
167 sense of place) influenced Texas landowners’ intent to retain their land and engage in
168 conservation behaviors. Much like the forest owners near Charlotte in our study, the landowners
169 examined in Lai and Kreuter’s study were facing development pressure from the nearby cities of
170 Austin and San Antonio. Landowners living in the Hill Country region adjacent to the
171 metropolitan areas surrounding both of these cities indicated a strong intent to keep their
172 property in the family. Land owners’ attachments to their personal properties, as well as their
173 perceptions of environmental change throughout the region, were significantly and positively
174 related to the intent to retain their properties. In addition, landowners who indicated they were
175 either heavily dependent upon, or attached a lot of social meanings to, their properties were
176 willing to invest more in conservation-oriented land management strategies.

177 Relatedly, Lokocz et al. (2011) utilized photo-elicitation methods to examine how rural
178 Massachusetts residents’ psychological attachments to local landscape features influenced their
179 attitudes toward conservation and land use planning. Participants in the study indicated a high
180 level of attachment towards natural areas (consisting of forests, streams, ponds and meadows)
181 and the majority of participants showed strong support for protecting local woodlands and
182 natural resources. The study’s qualitative methods illustrate how the strong, personally

183 meaningful connections an individual has towards local and familiar landscapes can shape
184 support for conservation-oriented land use planning efforts.

185 In addition to sense of place and place attachment, Thompson and Hansen (2013; 2012)
186 identified other psychological, cultural and social factors likely to influence individuals'
187 willingness to participate in payments for carbon sequestration programs. These factors included
188 landowners' values, their ecological knowledge, the risk they associate with encroaching
189 development, as well as their willingness to communicate and learn about payments for carbon
190 sequestration programs.

191 **Methods**

192 **Study Region**

193 This study focused on the area surrounding Charlotte, North Carolina (USA) (Figure 1).
194 Since the 1980s the city and its surrounding metropolitan region have experienced rapid
195 population growth characterized by disjunct, low-density development (Meentemeyer et al.
196 2013). Urban development throughout the region has come at the expense of forest and
197 agricultural lands, and growth projections for the region suggest more than 210,000 ha of
198 forested and agricultural land will be converted to development by the year 2030 if observed
199 trends between 1996 and 2006 continue (Meentemeyer et al. 2013). The majority of forested land
200 throughout the region is owned by non-industrial private forest owners, and these holdings tend
201 to be relatively small (< 10 ha), which limits forest owners' ability to financially benefit from
202 either harvesting timber or biomass (Dorning, Smith, et al. 2015). Past research in the region
203 suggests forest owners are concerned with rising property taxes and the lack of tax-relief policies
204 focused on conserving forested lands; this concern is compounded by strong emotional and
205 psychological ties to the region's culturally rich landscapes (BenDor et al. 2014). Currently,

206 there are no established policies that provide non-industrial private forest owners with an
207 opportunity to benefit financially from conserving or managing their woodlands (North Carolina
208 Department of Revenue 2015). The region does have a present-use value program that allows
209 land to be valued based upon its use for forestry or agriculture, which is substantially less than its
210 development value. However, not all forested land throughout the region qualifies for the
211 present-use value program. The program requires forest owners to own at least 20 acres (8.09
212 hectares) and have a forest management plan in place that allows timber harvesting. These
213 requirements limit the ability of the present-use value program to be an indirect tool capable of
214 slowing urban growth. Given this, other more direct land use policies need to be explored. It is
215 possible a regional carbon sequestration market could allow forest owners the ability to benefit
216 financially from conserving or managing their woodlands while maintaining their strong
217 emotional and psychological connections to their properties.

218 **Discrete Choice Experimental Design**

219 We developed a discrete choice experiment to explore contingent forest owner behaviors
220 in response to hypothetical payments for carbon sequestration programs. Stated choice methods
221 are commonly used to understand individuals' behavioral responses to hypothetical choices
222 (Louviere, Hensher, and Swait 2000). Our goal was to understand which factors exhibit the most
223 influence on forest owners' behavioral intentions, including the attributes of the payment
224 program as well as individual psychological and sociodemographic factors. Our analysis was
225 guided by a desire to better understand if, and how, the attributes of the payment program altered
226 forest owners' preferences for those programs. Our intent was not to estimate a willingness to
227 accept value for all of the non-financial attributes of payments programs, rather we were
228 primarily interested in taking advantage of the methodological benefits of discrete choice

229 experiments (i.e., requiring respondents to cognitively evaluates specific trade-offs among
230 program attributes (Hanley, Mourato, and Wright 2001)) to develop a better understanding of the
231 program attributes forest owners considered important when contemplating enrolling in a
232 payments for carbon sequestration program.

233 **Econometric Model of Contingent Behavior.** In trying to understand the likelihood that
234 private forest owners would enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs, we were
235 specifically interested in whether or not financial incentives, contract lengths and program
236 administration influences individuals' contingent behaviors. These three factors were combined
237 and varied across meaningful ranges to create a suite of hypothetical, yet realistic, payments for
238 carbon sequestration programs. For each program, forest owners were asked to carefully consider
239 the combination of attributes being presented and make a "yes/no" choice as to whether or not
240 they would participate in the program. A "yes" response indicates forest owners derive more
241 utility from participating in the program than they would otherwise. Utility formulation for each
242 binary discrete choice made in response to a hypothetical program follows the random utility
243 framework (McFadden 1973). Across an entire set of choices, j , and a sample of individuals, i ,
244 the linear equation used to estimate random and explainable (systematic) utility is expressed as

$$246 \quad U_{ij} = V_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} = \beta'X_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}.$$

247
248 The explainable (systematic) utilities V_{ij} are a function of the design matrix X , which represents
249 attributes presented in various combinations across the choice set. The β' coefficients are
250 estimated for each attribute.

251 **Scenario Development, Attributes and Levels.** To elicit the most valid responses, the
252 survey instrument included a narrative frame describing the general characteristics of payments
253 for carbon sequestration programs and how they could be implemented in the study region.
254 Following the narrative framing statement, forest owners were asked to evaluate a set of nine
255 possible payments for carbon sequestration programs and, for each program, to carefully
256 consider its attributes and indicate whether or not they would participate in the program.
257 Respondents were also given an opt out response option to avoid the likelihood of a forest owner
258 providing a response if they felt uninformed or unqualified to make a decision (Banzhaf,
259 Johnson, and Mathews 2001; Kontoleon and Yabe 2003). The choice set was comprised of
260 various combinations of the three key attributes: financial incentives, contract lengths and
261 program administration. Each of these three attributes were varied across three levels; the levels
262 were set to encompass realistic ranges based upon previous research and consultation with
263 experts in the region's potential for a carbon sequestration market. The full narrative frame and
264 choice set are shown in Figure 2; individual attributes and their specified levels are noted in
265 Table 1. The narrative was developed such that it clearly described the essential components of a
266 payments for ecosystem services program, as outlined by Engel et al. (2008). These essential
267 components are: 1) an explicit description of the type of land being conserved and the ecosystem
268 service it provides; 2) the ability of enrollees in the program to terminate the contractual
269 relationship; and 3) the establishment of a monitoring system (in our case a written forest
270 management plan that required conservation) in order to ensure payments are the result of
271 additional land management activities. Given payments for ecosystem services programs often
272 fail to demonstrate additionality, producing more of a given ecosystem service than would have
273 been produced without the program, we attempted to make it as clear and as explicit as possible

274 that the payments would not be “money for nothing” (Engel, Pagiola, and Wunder 2008; Ferraro
275 and Pattanayak 2006).

276 With three attributes, each presented at one of three levels in any given program, there
277 were a total of 27 possible combinations to represent different carbon sequestration programs.
278 Given it was deemed too burdensome to have each forest owner consider and respond to all 27
279 combinations, we opted for a fractional factorial design comprised of nine combinations (i.e.,
280 hypothetical payments for carbon sequestration programs). All sampled forest owners received
281 the same choice set of nine possible carbon sequestration programs.

282 **Variables Used in Econometric Model**

283 A summary of all variables used in the econometric modeling is provided in Table 2.
284 Respondents’ sociodemographic characteristics were captured through the first mail-back survey.
285 Specifically, we collected data on forest owners’ age, gender, education and income. We also
286 collected data on the amount of time the forest owner has spent on the property (*presence*); this
287 was calculated as the total years of ownership multiplied by the number of days they spend on
288 the property per year. The first mail-back survey also ascertained whether or not respondents had
289 a forest management plan in place (*management plan present*) and whether they currently
290 harvested timber for income on their property (*harvest for income*).

291 The first mail-back survey was also used to measure forest owners’ psychological
292 connections to forested areas on their properties. We used Jorgensen and Stedman’s (2006)
293 psychometric scale, modifying each statement so that it referred explicitly to respondents’
294 forested property. Data obtained via the 5-point Likert scale were analyzed for reliability
295 (Cronbach’s α greater than 0.70 were deemed acceptable following Nunnally and Bernstein
296 1994), adequate factor loadings (loadings greater than 0.60 were deemed acceptable following

297 Hair et al. 2009) and their fit to a hypothesized single-factor measurement model (relative χ^2
298 values less than 3.0 were deemed acceptable following Carmines and McIver 1981). With these
299 criteria satisfied, a single *sense of place* factor score was calculated for inclusion in the mixed
300 effects logistic regression model described below. This method is identical to that used in
301 previous analyses of these data (Dorning, Smith, et al., 2015).

302 Other variables included in the model were derived from either the analysis of satellite
303 imagery/LiDAR data or publically available property tax records. Specific measures included the
304 size of the forest stand on the respondent's property estimated via satellite imagery (*forest size*)
305 and the appraised value of the parcel extracted from 2011 tax records (*economic value*). Very
306 few stated choice experiments have used biophysical variables derived via remote sensing as
307 factors influencing forest owners' decisions; exceptions include the work of Naidoo and
308 Adamowicz (2005) and Dorning and her colleagues (2015).

309 **Econometric Model Specification**

310 We used a mixed effects logistic regression specification to estimate the probability that
311 forest owners would participate in payments for carbon sequestration programs depending upon
312 the level of attributes presented. The mixed effects logistic regression is a flexible specification
313 that can approximate any random utility model (McFadden and Train 2000). The mixed effects
314 logistic regression specification decomposes random error into two components; the first
315 component is correlated over alternatives and heteroskedastic while the second part is assumed
316 to be independently and identically distributed over alternatives and individuals (McFadden
317 1984). This is noteworthy because individuals' responses within the choice set are likely to be
318 highly correlated. Preferences and subsequently utility functions will vary between individuals;
319 the mixed effects specification accommodates this and is commonly used to overcome the

320 limitations of standard logit and conditional logit specifications (McFadden and Train 2000). Our
 321 model is specified as:

322

$$\begin{aligned}
 323 \quad Pr(y_{ij} = 1) = & \mu + \beta_1 \text{Financial Incentives}_{ij} + \beta_2 \text{Contract Length}_{ij} + \\
 324 \quad & \beta_3 \text{Program Administration}_{ij} + \beta_4 \text{Age}_i + \beta_5 \text{Education}_i + \beta_6 \text{Gender}_i + \beta_7 \text{Income}_i + \\
 325 \quad & \beta_8 \text{Presence}_i + \beta_9 \text{Sense of Place}_i + \beta_{10} \text{Forest Size}_i + \beta_{11} \text{Management Plan Present}_i + \\
 326 \quad & \beta_{12} \text{Harvest for Income}_i + \beta_{13} \text{Economic Value}_i + \varepsilon_{ij}.
 \end{aligned}$$

327

328 The model posits the probability of enrolling in payments for carbon sequestration programs is a
 329 function of the program's attributes, an individual's sociodemographic characteristics and the
 330 characteristics of their property. Estimation was completed using dummy variable coding for
 331 attribute levels and the *mqrlogit* command in Stata 14.0 (StataCorp 2015).

332 **Data Collection**

333 Data on forest owners and their contingent enrollment in hypothetical payments for
 334 carbon sequestration programs were collected via two self-administered mail-back surveys. We
 335 sent surveys to a sample of forest owners in a five-county region on the eastern side of Charlotte,
 336 an extent characterizing the region's full development gradient. We drew a sample of 2,500
 337 landowners from a sampling frame comprised of private forest owners within the five-county
 338 study area; forest owner names and addresses were obtained from publically available tax
 339 records. The sample consisted of forest owners who owned more than 2 ha of contiguous forest
 340 (determined via analysis of both 2011 Landsat and LiDAR data (Singh et al. 2012)). The initial
 341 sample of forest owners were asked to agree to an on-site ecological assessment and timber
 342 cruise of their property and, subsequently, to complete two mail-back surveys; a total of 143

343 (5.7%) forest owners agreed. The first mail-back survey was administered from November 2011
344 to April 2012; it asked about forest owners' sociodemographic characteristics, how they
345 managed woodlands on their property as well as their psychological attachment to their property.
346 A total of 126 out of the 143 woodland owners (88%) completed this first mail-back survey. The
347 second mail-back survey was administered in November 2013 to the 126 forest owners who
348 responded to the first survey. The second mail-back survey was substantially shorter than the
349 first, containing only a series of stated preference questions related to the forest owners'
350 willingness to participate in payments for carbon sequestration programs. A total of 65 forest
351 owners, out of the 126 who received the second mail-back survey, completed and returned the
352 instrument. This tabulates out to a 49.6% response rate, which is high relative to most mail
353 surveys administered to either the general public or forest owners (Dillman, Smyth, and
354 Christian 2008). Five respondents indicated their property had been sold since they responded to
355 the first mail-back survey two years earlier. All results presented in this study are for the
356 remaining 60 forest owners and their properties.

357 Both survey packets mailed to respondents included a personalized map with an aerial
358 photo of forested land on the respondents' property. In a cover letter, we asked forest owners to
359 respond to the questions in reference to the forested land shown on the map, excluding from
360 consideration other forested areas they might have owned. These explicit instructions were
361 included to make responses and contingent decisions personally meaningful.

362 **Results**

363 The characteristics of our sample of forest owners and their properties are reported in
364 Table 2. The majority of respondents (71.7%) were men and the mean age was 64.2 ($SD = 11.2$).
365 All respondents had graduated from high school, with the majority (68.3%) also having a

366 bachelor's degree. Respondents' properties ranged in size from one to fifty-one hectares, with an
367 average size of 6.9 hectares ($SD = 8.4$). On average, respondents indicated owning their
368 forestland for at least twenty years ($M = 20.4$, $SD = 12.8$); this varied widely however, with
369 length of ownership ranging from two to fifty-eight years. The majority of respondents (68.3%)
370 lived on or within a half-mile of the forested property.

371 The average size of respondents' forests was 6.9 hectares ($SD = 8.4$) and the assessed tax
372 value of their entire property was just under \$400 thousand USD. However, both the size of
373 respondents' forest stands and the value of their properties varied widely (Table 2), mitigating
374 some of the concern over coverage error given the relatively small sample. Only a relatively
375 small proportion (18.3%) of our sample reported harvesting timber to generate income and just
376 under one-third (31.7%) reported having a management plan in place.

377 When queried about the sense of place respondents had towards their forested property,
378 respondents on average reported strong personal meanings (Table 3). For example, 77.2% of
379 sampled forest owners indicated moderate or complete agreement with the statement "I feel
380 relaxed when I'm on my wooded land." Similarly, 62.5% of the sample indicated moderate or
381 complete agreement with the statement "I feel happiest when I'm on my wooded land."

382 The results from the hierarchical mixed effects logistic regression model, which predicted
383 forest owners' intent to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs, are shown in
384 Table 4. The model's estimates can be interpreted as the welfare of each attribute's level. For the
385 non-price attributes (contract length and program administration) and the price attribute (per acre
386 annual payment), increases (decreases) in welfare are indicated by positive (negative) values.

387 The results revealed annual payment levels do significantly influence individuals'
388 likelihood of enrolling. The odds of a forest owner enrolling in a payments for carbon

389 sequestration program were 18.5 times higher if that program yielded \$25 per acre annual
390 payments as opposed to \$5 per acre annual payments (Coef. = 2.917, $p < 0.001$). More notably,
391 the odds of a forest owner enrolling in a payments for carbon sequestration program were nearly
392 110 times greater if the program resulted in \$50 per acre annual payments instead of \$5 per acre
393 annual payments (Coef. = 4.702, $p < 0.001$). These results supported our proposed hypothesis
394 (H₁) that financial incentives would positively influence individuals' intent to enroll in payments
395 for carbon sequestration programs.

396 The results also revealed contract length significantly influences individuals' likelihood
397 of enrolling, with respondents preferring shorter contracts (15-year contract, Coef. = -2.266, $p <$
398 0.001 ; 30-year contract, Coef. = -4.855, $p < 0.001$). While contract length was significant, its
399 influence was marginal relative to the effect of annual payment levels, which exhibited a very
400 strong signal. This result supported our proposed hypothesis (H₂) that contract length would
401 negatively influence individuals' intent to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs.

402 The final attribute of the hypothetical programs, the type of agency administering the
403 program, was not significantly related to individuals' intent to enroll (Administered by a state
404 agency: Coef. = 0.451, $p = 0.266$; Administered by a federal agency: Coef. = 0.613, $p = 0.291$).
405 This result followed our proposed hypothesis (H₃) that the type of organization administering a
406 payments for carbon sequestration program would not influence individuals' intent to enroll.

407 The results also suggested forest owners' education level and income influenced their
408 intent to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs. Forest owners who had obtained
409 a higher level of formal education were significantly more likely to enroll in a program,
410 regardless of program characteristics (Coef. = 0.597, $p < 0.045$). Additionally, wealthier
411 individuals were significantly less likely to enroll in a program, regardless of program

412 characteristics (Coef. = -0.286, $p < 0.082$). None of the other characteristics describing forest
413 owners (age, gender, presence on the property or sense of place) were significantly related to
414 their intent to enroll in a program. The finding of no significant relationship between forest
415 owners' sense of place towards their forested property and their willingness to enroll that
416 property in a payments for carbon sequestration program was dissimilar to our proposed
417 hypothesis of a positive relationship (H₄).

418 None of the characteristics of forest owners' property (size of forest stand, the presence
419 of a management plan, whether or not timber was harvested for income generation or economic
420 (property) value) were significant predictors of the forest owners' intent to enroll in payments for
421 carbon sequestration programs.

422 We began this investigation by posing the question "Can a payments for carbon
423 sequestration program alleviate development pressure in a rapidly urbanizing region?" We
424 formally addressed this question by calculating the annual revenue generated by each of the
425 hypothetical payments for carbon sequestration programs for each forest owner. For each forest
426 owner i and each discrete choice opportunity c , this is

$$427$$
$$428 \text{Annual revenue}_{ic} = \text{annual payment per acre}_c \times \text{forested acres}_c.$$
$$429$$

430 The average initial annual revenue required to elicit an intent to enroll response varied widely,
431 from \$51 per acre for policies guaranteeing a \$5 per acre annual payment, to \$753 per acre for
432 policies guaranteeing a \$50 annual payment. After calculating all of the initial annual revenues
433 for the choice opportunities in which a forest owner indicated an intent to enroll, we applied an
434 annual discount rate of 4% across the hypothetical contracts' lengths to account for the time

435 value of cash according to Folmer et al. (1995). This allowed us to arrive at a total discounted
436 contract length revenue value. Our calculation was based on the assumption annual revenue
437 would be received beginning in the second year of enrollment. The variation in intent to enroll
438 prices was even more evident when viewed over the life of the contract; average discounted
439 contract length revenue ranged from \$190 per acre for the \$5 per acre policies to \$8,540 for the
440 \$50 per acre policies.

441 We estimated the years of enrollment that would be required for respondents to receive
442 equal returns from a payments for carbon sequestration program relative to returns they would
443 receive from either cutting all of their forest for timber or selling it at its current (2014) market
444 value; the results are shown in Table 5. If a payments for carbon sequestration program were
445 available that yielded the maximum \$50 per acre annual return over a 15-year contract length,
446 forest owners would not be able to generate an equivalent amount of revenue from the program,
447 even if they enrolled for two consecutive contracts (years of enrollment to match timber value =
448 38.4). This result suggests that even under the highest-return option and a relatively long
449 contract-length program, a payments for carbon sequestration program would not be an attractive
450 alternative to either selling property for development or harvesting for timber. As can be seen in
451 column 6 of Table 5 the years of enrollment required to equal their properties' current market
452 value is well beyond any planning time frame (i.e., 600 to > 13,000 years). Obviously there are a
453 variety of factors that affect forest owners' decisions to sell their property for development or
454 harvest it for timber production; the purpose here is to compare the options purely on their
455 financial returns.

456 Discussion

457 Policy Implications

458 As exurban development spreads across landscapes, large contiguous tracts of forest have
459 become increasingly fragmented, threatening the ecosystem services they provide (Theobald
460 2005; Theobald 2001; Theobald and Romme 2007). Payments for ecosystem service programs,
461 and payments for carbon sequestration in particular, provide a mechanism through which
462 regional planners and policy makers can conserve urban-proximate forestlands and the
463 ecosystem services they provide by allowing private forest owners to benefit financially from not
464 selling their land for development or harvesting for timber production (Biggsby 2009). Alternative
465 policy mechanisms, such as the procurement and conservation of private forestland by a public
466 or not-for-profit organization, can also alleviate development pressure (Newburn et al. 2005).
467 However, transferring land from the private to public domain is only likely to occur near highly
468 valued resources such as riparian areas, simply pushing development pressures to other areas
469 around a metropolitan region (Dorning, Koch, et al. 2015). Additionally, the efficient transfer of
470 private land to the public-domain requires complex payment and/or transfer options capable of
471 meeting the needs of different types of private landowners (e.g., rural residents, farmers, forest
472 owners) (Nielsen-Pincus, Ribe, and Johnson 2015). Payments for carbon sequestration programs
473 offer a flexible policy alternative, allowing forest owners the ability to continue living on their
474 properties while simultaneously receiving an annual payment for the carbon being sequestered
475 and stored in their forest stands.

476 While payments for carbon sequestration programs are attractive policy mechanisms at a
477 conceptual level, their implementation has been severely limited by the lack of regional carbon
478 markets (Newell, Pizer, and Raimi 2013). In the United States, the voluntary Chicago Climate
479 Exchange (CCX) served as the primary outlet for such programs while in operation from 2003 to
480 2011. Currently, there are only two active regional markets, California and the Regional

481 Greenhouse Gas Initiative (RGGI) in the northeastern portion of the country (Center for Climate
482 and Energy Solutions 2016). These markets establish the price per ton of carbon sequestered
483 based upon industries' need to offset emissions and private forest owners' willingness to manage
484 their forests for carbon sequestration. In this research, we leveraged the ability of discrete choice
485 experiments to determine if a payments for carbon sequestration program could succeed in the
486 southeastern United States, where exurban forest owners are highly attached to their private
487 lands and consequently may be more willing to opt into payments for carbon sequestration
488 programs at a discounted rate, if it means their forest will remain intact.

489 On many points, our results echoed the findings of previous research. Our sample of
490 forest owners expressed a relatively limited interest in enrolling in payments for carbon
491 sequestration programs. Even when presented with a very large annual payment of \$50 per acre,
492 only 45.8% of respondents indicated an intent to enroll; this proportion declined as annual
493 payments were reduced and contract lengths were extended. This result is consistent with
494 previous research (Fletcher, Kittredge, and Stevens 2009; Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011;
495 Miller, Snyder, and Kilgore 2012; Miller et al. 2014) and perhaps expected given most private
496 forest owners in the United States are passive managers. We had expected a higher level of
497 interest in payments for carbon sequestration programs given a recent region-wide study found
498 non-industrial private forest owners to be generally receptive to payments for carbon
499 sequestration programs (Khanal et al. 2016). Khanal and his colleagues found 30% of a sample
500 of non-industrial forest owners from across the Southeastern US agreed with the statement
501 "carbon sequestration could generate additional revenue for me"; only 11% of the sample
502 disagreed with the statement. Similarly, 45% of the sample indicated they were "interested in

503 exploring carbon sequestration opportunities on [their] forestland”; only 12% were not
504 interested.

505 Our sample’s low level of interest in enrolling in payments for carbon sequestration
506 programs is likely attributable to a variety of factors. First, they are likely to have a limited
507 knowledge of the ‘ecosystem services’ concept and, relatedly, are likely to know very little about
508 how carbon markets would actually work in practice (Metz and Weigel 2010). Given this, it is
509 logical for forest owners to be hesitant about making, or even indicating their preferences for,
510 decisions related to the long-term use of their property. More focused research, particularly
511 research using multiple types of data (i.e., quantitative and qualitative), needs to be conducted to
512 determine if a lack of knowledge and familiarity are in fact major barriers to forest owners’
513 intent to enroll in emerging carbon markets. Second, through the use of a stated choice
514 experiment, our study required forest owners to carefully consider their forested property and
515 what the consequences of each hypothetical policy scenario would be for themselves and their
516 property. Previous research may have over-estimated forest owners’ interest in carbon
517 sequestrations programs due to the fact simple statement items presented in mail-back
518 questionnaires are context-deficient and do not require forest owners to carefully consider the
519 details and consequences of their land-use decisions (Khanal et al. 2016).

520 When our sample of forest owners did indicate an intent to enroll, their preferences were
521 influenced by the financial returns yielded by the program as well as its length. Respondents had
522 strong preferences for programs yielding higher returns, which is logical and consistent with all
523 previous empirical research (Fletcher, Kittredge, and Stevens 2009; Dickinson et al. 2012;
524 Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011; Rabotyagov and Lin 2013; Knoot, Rickenbach, and Silbernagel
525 2015; Kelly, Germain, and Stehman 2015; Miller, Snyder, and Kilgore 2012; Miller et al. 2014).

526 The majority of previous research has also found non-industrial private forest owners tend to be
527 hesitant to make long-term decisions committing them to managing their forestlands in any one
528 particular way (Dickinson et al. 2012; Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011; Newell, Pizer, and Raimi
529 2013; Miller, Snyder, and Kilgore 2012; Miller et al. 2014). This unfortunately does not bode
530 well for the prospect of establishing a regional payments for carbon sequestration market within
531 the study area. At the high point of the CCX (trading price of \$7.50 per metric ton in 2008;
532 Climate Policy Initiative 2016)), the maximum potential payments in the Southeast would have
533 been around \$15 per acre per year based on CCX's estimated carbon sequestration rates across
534 all Southeastern forest types. Current rates for the RGGI are even lower though their reports
535 suggest prices are generally increasing over time, while trading prices in California are generally
536 a bit higher (Climate Policy Initiative 2016). These markets have required contracts of a
537 minimum of 15 years (CCX), with longer contracts (RGGI) sometimes required. Creation of a
538 market in the Southeast would require a critical mass of tradable carbon, in this case, a large pool
539 stored in private forests under long-term management contracts. For regional markets to be
540 successful, industries that might see them as viable mechanisms to offset emissions would need
541 some long-term assurances in the market's stability. Absent that stability, alternative
542 mechanisms or alternative carbon markets (e.g. REDD+) are likely to be preferred.

543 We focused our survey on payments for carbon sequestration based on market prices for
544 similar markets in the U.S., though other carbon payment mechanisms do exist. Payments for
545 carbon storage, or avoided carbon release from deforestation, would likely provide much higher
546 payment rates than those for sequestration as forest owners would be compensated for the total
547 amount of carbon stored rather than incremental carbon sequestered. Additionally, estimates of
548 the social cost of carbon at \$36 per metric ton (Interagency Working Group on the Social Cost of

549 Carbon 2013) far exceed the current value in most markets, bringing the potential payment level
550 up to \$72 per acre per year for carbon sequestered in Southeastern forests if the true cost of
551 carbon were to be reflected in market prices (though Moore and Diaz (2015) argue the figure
552 should be much higher). Given the preference of forest owners for greater financial returns,
553 higher payment rates could increase the feasibility of carbon programs for alleviating
554 development pressure in urbanizing areas.

555 Despite the relative ambivalence of forest owners towards participating in payments for
556 carbon sequestration programs at current rates and their aversion to programs with longer
557 contract lengths, our results did identify some demographic groups that can be targeted as ‘early
558 adopters’ to pilot payments for carbon sequestration programs. Specifically, our results
559 suggested more educated individuals as well as individuals with smaller incomes were
560 significantly more likely to indicate intent to enroll relative to forest owners with fewer years of
561 formal education and wealthier individuals. These findings could be insightful for efficiently
562 targeting specific types of forest owners most likely to participate in a pilot payments for carbon
563 sequestration program, if one were initiated throughout the region. These findings can be used to
564 develop communication strategies targeted at specific forest owners that are most likely to enroll.
565 Given our findings suggest the populations most likely to enroll are those forest owners who are
566 more educated and who also have smaller annual incomes, the logical ‘target population’ would
567 be retirees looking to maintain the aesthetic appeal of their forested land while also having some
568 formal policy mechanism that would allow them to generate a cash-flow from their passive
569 ownership.

570 It is interesting to note forest owners’ sense of place was not significantly related to their
571 intent to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs. This is especially noteworthy

572 given forest owners, on average, indicated strong personal meanings attached to their forested
573 property. Previous research into payments for ecosystem services programs suggests that when
574 the amount of the payment itself is marginal relative to landowners' other sources of income (as
575 is the case in our study area), the larger the influence of other benefits such as maintaining a
576 desired aesthetic or family/cultural values tied to the land (Muradian et al. 2010). We can only
577 speculate as to why sense of place was not significantly related to forest owners' willingness to
578 enroll, as anticipated. One possible explanation is that simply having the word 'program'
579 attached may cause forest owners to wrongfully identify payments for carbon sequestration
580 programs with other more intensive programs, such as present use valuation programs. Simply
581 put, some forest owners may not associate payments for carbon sequestration programs with an
582 increased ability to maintain the non-market values they ascribe to their forested property,
583 marginalizing the true and expected relationship between the sense of place construct and
584 willingness to enroll. Payment may actually be viewed as undermining the intrinsic values the
585 forest owner wishes to protect (Muradian et al. 2013).

586 **Limitations**

587 Estimating the utilities associated with the attributes of hypothetical policies and
588 programs via stated choice methods is a difficult task for economists and other social scientists
589 who focus on human decision making. This difficulty comes from a variety of different sources
590 ranging from deciding which attributes define the hypothetical policy or program to establishing
591 a realistic range of values across which those attributes will vary in the choice set. Attributes and
592 levels selected should be both understandable (DeShazo and Fermo 2002) and relevant (Hensher
593 2006) to respondents. In this study, we attempted to meet both of these criteria through a detailed
594 review of previous research on the feasibility and costs associated with payments for carbon

595 sequestration programs and consultation with several bioeconomists who were able to inform the
596 levels we chose to use for our annual payments per acre attribute. While we hope this
597 precautionary step increases the validity of our findings, there are undoubtedly a wide variety of
598 program characteristics (e.g., method of payment, compliance requirements, etc.) that also likely
599 to influence forest owners' willingness to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs.
600 We were only able to focus on a small set of attributes within this study, but hope future research
601 will build upon our findings and the findings of similar work (Table 1).

602 Another difficulty in estimating the utilities associated with the attributes of hypothetical
603 policies and programs via stated choice programs is the proper analytical treatment of collected
604 data. Resource economists have gradually adapted more complex and sophisticated statistical
605 specifications, moving from the simple binary logit model to the multinomial logit model to the
606 conditional logit model and now the mixed effects logit model (Hensher and Greene 2002). With
607 the addition of each additional specification comes a new set of assumptions that analysts must
608 be wary of. Here, we used a mixed logit model with one random parameter, the individual, that
609 we specified as being normally distributed. Our specification is not analytically novel, but it does
610 mitigate all of the concerns raised by Hensher and Greene (2002). These concerns include:
611 appropriate selection of parameters to be included as random parameters, appropriate selection of
612 the distribution of the random parameters and appropriate specification of the way random
613 parameters enter the model. We felt the mixed logit specification was appropriate given it relaxes
614 independence of irrelevant alternatives property inherent in standard logit and conditional logit
615 models and subsequently allows response variable to be correlated across the choice situations
616 presented to each individual (Train 2009). Future work that chooses to use stated preference
617 data to estimate forest owners' intent to enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs,

618 and chooses to fit those data with mixed effects logit specifications should be mindful of the
619 concerns detailed by Hensher and Greene (2002)

620 **Conclusion**

621 We began this investigation to determine forest owners' willingness to enroll in a
622 payments for carbon sequestration market in an urbanizing region. In our study area surrounding
623 metropolitan Charlotte, the potential for market failure is high as urbanization is rapidly
624 consuming the landscape (Meentemeyer et al. 2013; Terando et al. 2014). Even if private forest
625 owners are committed to not developing their properties, they can benefit financially from stands
626 on their property by harvesting them for timber production. Both development and harvesting for
627 timber production are financially enticing, but dramatically alter the ecological function of the
628 landscape. While the majority of forest owners in our study were reluctant to indicate an intent to
629 enroll in payments for carbon sequestration programs, we did identify several groups of forest
630 owners likely to capitalize on the benefits provided by payments for ecosystem services
631 programs, namely the ability to receive annual revenue capable of offsetting rising property taxes
632 *and* the ability to maintain non-market values such as local aesthetics and recreation use values.
633 If a payments for carbon sequestration program could be combined with payments for other
634 ecosystem services such as water quality and wildlife habitat, it is possible these individuals
635 would be even more likely to see these 'alternative' forest management programs as viable
636 mechanisms from which they could benefit financially and maintain the strong personal
637 meanings they hold towards their forestlands. Programs could become even more attractive if
638 payments accounted for carbon already stored or the social cost of carbon. On a strategic level,
639 payments for carbon sequestration programs offer the promise of preserving local ecological

640 structure and function while simultaneously enabling forest owners to benefit financially from
641 the public goods they provide to society.

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Acknowledgement

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Table 1

Carbon sequestration program attributes and levels examined using stated choice methods in this, and previous, research

Previous research	Attribute and Levels											
	Financial incentives (annual payment per acre (USD))			Contract length (yrs.)			Program administration			Geographic region of the United States		
	> 5 to < 25	≥ 25 to < 50	≥ 50	5	15	30	State agency	Federal agency	Private company	North Atlantic and New England	Northern Midwest	Pacific Northwest
Fletcher, Kittredge, and Stevens 2009	✓	✓		✓							✓	
Dickinson et al. 2012	✓	✓		✓	✓						✓	
Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Knoot, Rickenbach, and Silbernagel 2015	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓			✓
Miller et al. 2014	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓						✓
Rabotyagov and Lin 2013				✓		✓						✓
Miller, Snyder, and Kilgore 2012	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓						✓
Kelly, Germain, and Stehman 2015			✓			✓				✓		
Finley and Kittredge 2006				✓			✓	✓	✓			
Wade and Moseley 2011										✓	✓	

Note. Other program attributes investigated in the literature: The requirement of a management plan (Fletcher, Kittredge, and Stevens 2009; Dickinson et al. 2012; Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011; Rabotyagov and Lin 2013; Knoot, Rickenbach, and Silbernagel 2015; Kelly, Germain, and Stehman 2015; Wade and Moseley 2011; Miller et al. 2014; Finley and Kittredge 2006); an early withdrawal penalty (Fletcher, Kittredge, and Stevens 2009; Dickinson et al. 2012; Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011); payment mode (Kelly, Germain, and Stehman 2015); development and/or timber rights conveyed (Kelly, Germain, and Stehman 2015); inspections (Knoot, Rickenbach, and Silbernagel 2015); enrolled acreage (Markowski-Lindsay et al. 2011; Rabotyagov and Lin 2013).

Table 2
 Characteristics of sampled forest owners and their properties

	Percent	Mean	S.D.	Range	
				Min.	Max.
Characteristics of forest owner					
Age		64.2	11.2	47	91
Education					
High school degree or equivalent	15.0				
Some college (no degree)	16.7				
College degree	40.0				
Some graduate school	6.7				
Graduate degree or higher	21.7				
Gender (female)	28.3				
Income					
Less than \$24,999	13.3				
\$25,000 - \$49,999	10.0				
\$50,000 - \$99,999	40.0				
\$100,000 or more	30.0				
Unsure/Don't know	6.7				
Presence		15.3	14.9	0.1	58.0
Years of forest ownership		20.4	12.8	2.0	58.0
Sense of place ^a		0.0	1.0	-2.3	1.4
Characteristics of forest owners' property					
Forest size		6.9	8.4	1.0	51.0
Management plan present	31.7				
Timber harvested for income generation	18.3				
Economic value (thousands \$US) ^b		397.8	394.3	34.3	2553.0

Notes. ^a Factor score calculated from modified version of Jorgensen and Stedman's (2006) psychometric scale

^b Tax assessed value of entire parcel

Table 3
Sampled forest owners' sense of place towards their properties

Sense of place statement item	Proportion of sampled forest owners				
	Complete disagreement	Moderate disagreement	Neither disagree nor agree	Moderate agreement	Complete agreement
Everything about my wooded land is a reflection of me	16.7	16.7	27.8	13.0	25.9
I feel that I can really be myself when I am on my wooded land	8.9	1.8	28.6	1.9	13.5
My wooded land reflects the type of person I am	11.1	14.8	24.1	27.8	22.2
I feel relaxed when I'm on my wooded land	3.5	7.0	12.3	28.1	49.1
I feel happiest when I'm on my wooded land	7.1	8.9	21.4	26.8	35.7
My wooded land is my favorite place to be	8.9	10.7	28.6	19.6	32.1
I really miss my wooded land when I'm way from it for too long	16.0	10.0	32.0	20.0	22.0
My wooded land is the best place for doing the things that I enjoy most	9.3	18.5	33.3	16.7	22.2
For doing the things that I enjoy most, no other place can compare to my wooded land	16.7	25.9	29.6	14.8	13.0

Table 4
Results of multilevel mixed-effects logistic regression

Independent variable (fixed-effects)	Coef.	S.E.	Odds Ratio	S.E.	$p > z $
Program attributes					
Contract length ^a					
15-year contract	-2.266	0.405	0.104	0.042	***
30-year contract	-4.855	0.947	0.008	0.007	***
Annual payment ^b					
\$25 per acre annual payment	2.917	0.623	18.492	11.521	***
\$50 per acre annual payment	4.702	0.780	110.131	85.884	***
Program administration ^c					
Administered by a state agency	0.451	0.405	1.569	0.636	
Administered by a federal agency	0.613	0.581	1.847	1.073	
Characteristics of forest owner					
Age	-0.059	0.037	0.943	0.035	
Education	0.597	0.297	1.816	0.539	**
Gender	1.136	0.773	3.115	2.407	
Income	-0.286	0.164	0.751	0.123	*
Presence	-0.005	0.028	0.995	0.028	
Sense of place	-0.086	0.380	0.918	0.349	
Characteristics of forest owners' property					
Size of forest stand	-0.030	0.020	0.971	0.020	
Management plan present	-1.122	0.803	0.326	0.261	
Timber harvested for income generation	1.411	0.898	4.100	3.681	
Economic value	8.97e ⁻⁰⁷	9.08e ⁻⁰⁷	1.000	9.08e ⁻⁰⁷	
Constant	-1.995	2.964	0.136	0.403	
Random-effects					
Parameters					
Respondent (constant)	4.377	1.63			

Notes. $n = 60$ (540 discrete choices); Wald $\chi^2(16) = 68.24$; $p > \chi^2 < 0.001$; *** $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; * $p < 0.10$

^a 5-year contract is the base category

^b \$5 per acre annual payment is the base category

^c Administration by a federal agency is the base category

Table 5. Revenue generated from payments for carbon sequestration programs relative to timber harvest and development.

Annual payment per acre	Contract length (years)	Average discounted annual revenue ^a	Average discounted contract length revenue ^a	Years of enrollment to match timber value ^b	Years of enrollment to match land value ^c
\$5	5	\$47	\$190	493	8376
\$5	15	\$30	\$426	769	13072
\$25	5	\$353	\$1,411	66	1128
\$25	15	\$261	\$3,648	90	1527
\$25	30	\$96	\$2,774	245	4159
\$50	5	\$654	\$2,617	36	608
\$50	15	\$610	\$8,540	38	652

Notes. Programs with the highest level of financial incentives (\$50 per acre per year) were not combined with the longest contract length (30 years) in the fractional factorial design.

^a Annual discount rate of 4.0% applied (Folmer, Gabel, and Opschoor 1995).

^b Mean total timber value was \$23,398 (*SD* = \$27,076). Timber value estimates derived from on-site assessments of: number and type of tree species present; average tree age; maximum diameter at breast height; and total forested area. Values were calculated only for forest owners' properties where on-site assessments were conducted (*n* = 41). This value does not include any interest the forest owner would accrue from the timber harvest.

^c Mean total land value was \$397,821 (*SD* = \$394,287).

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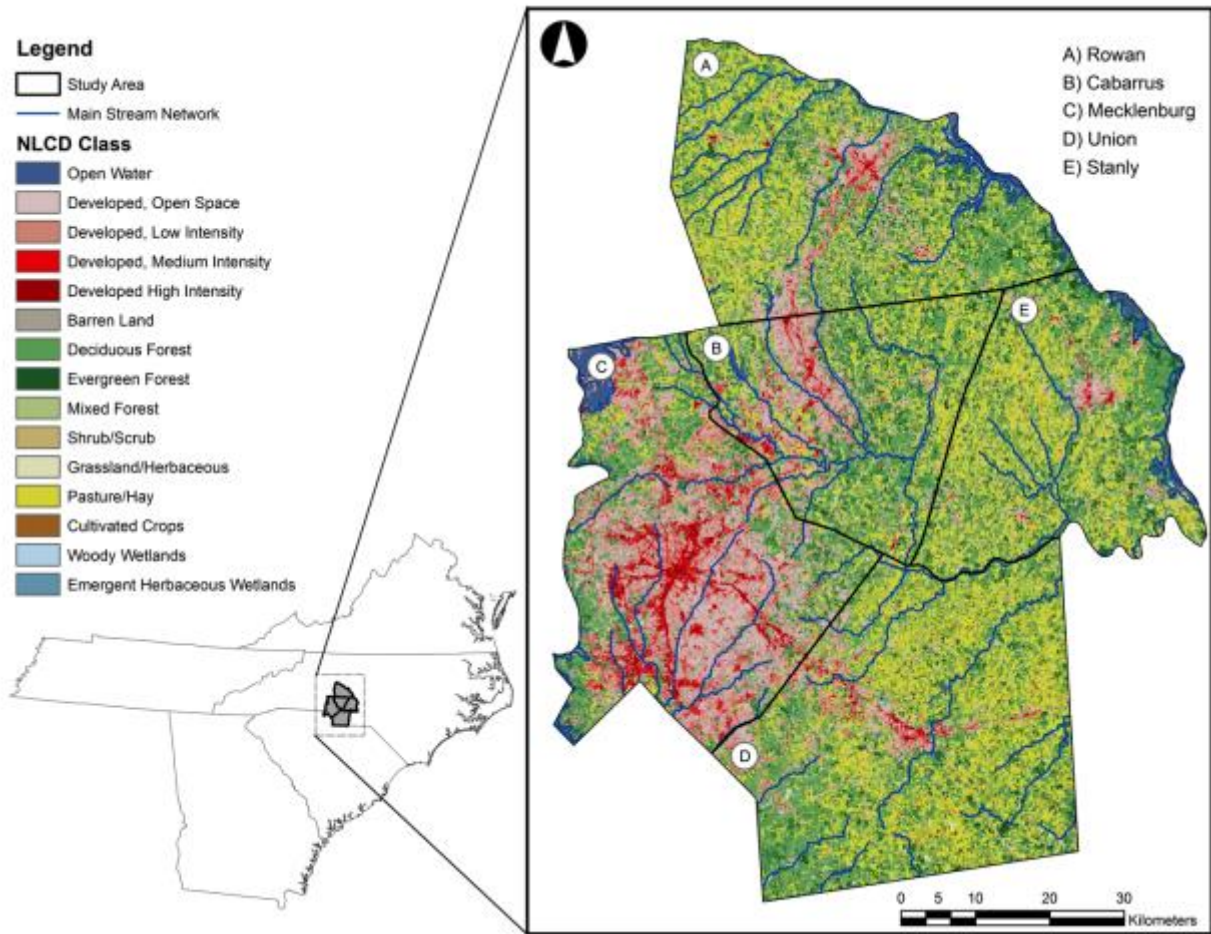


Figure 1. Study area (the counties included in the study are labeled A-E in the map inset; NLCD refers to the USDA Forest Service’s National Land Cover Dataset).

Final Unit

Payment for Woodland Carbon Storage

Due to increased concerns about global climate change associated with carbon emissions, programs have emerged that will pay landowners for the carbon stored by their wooded land. These programs are often aimed at forest owners since forested land removes carbon from the atmosphere and stores it in plant materials and soils. When participating in these programs, a written forest management plan is required that limits use of the wooded land for other activities and prohibits clearing of trees or participation in other payment programs for the duration of the contract. These types of 'payment for carbon storage' programs can be administered by a private company, a state agency, or a federal agency. Participation in these programs requires signing formal contracts, which vary in length from 5-30 years, in return for an annual per acre payment to the landowner.

We are interested in whether or not you would be willing to participate if such a program if it was available in your area. **Please evaluate each of the following nine scenarios and indicate whether or not you would participate in the program based on those hypothetical conditions.**

Scenario	Contract Length	Annual Payment	Program Administration	Would you participate?
1	15 Years	\$50 per acre	State Agency	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
2	30 Years	\$25 per acre	State Agency	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
3	5 Years	\$25 per acre	State Agency	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
4	5 Years	\$5 per acre	Federal Agency	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
5	15 Years	\$5 per acre	State Agency	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
6	15 Years	\$25 per acre	Federal Agency	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
7	5 Years	\$50 per acre	Private Company	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
8	30 Years	\$5 per acre	Federal Agency	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>
9	15 Years	\$25 per acre	Private Company	YES <input type="checkbox"/> NO <input type="checkbox"/>

I would not participate in any of these programs

Why not? _____

Figure 2. Discrete choice survey question.

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