

1 **Overstated carbon emission reductions from voluntary REDD+ projects in the** 2 **Brazilian Amazon**

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12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation (REDD+) has gained
14 international attention over the past decade, as manifested in both United Nations policy
15 discussions and hundreds of voluntary projects launched to earn carbon-offset credits. There
16 are on-going discussions about whether and how projects should be integrated into national
17 efforts under the Paris Agreement. One consideration is whether these projects have
18 generated additional impacts over and above national policies and other conservation
19 measures. To help inform these discussions, we compare the crediting baselines established
20 ex-ante by voluntary REDD+ projects in the Brazilian Amazon to counterfactuals constructed
21 ex-post based on the quasi-experimental synthetic control method. We find that the crediting
22 baselines assume consistently higher deforestation than counterfactual forest loss in synthetic
23 control sites. This gap is partially due to decreased deforestation in the Brazilian Amazon
24 during the early implementation phase of the REDD+ projects considered here. This suggests
25 that forest carbon finance must strike a balance between controlling conservation investment
26 risk and ensuring the environmental integrity of carbon emission offsets. Relatedly, our
27 results point to the need to better align project- and national-level carbon accounting.

28 *Keywords:* Impact evaluation; synthetic control; payment for environmental services; carbon
29 credit; deforestation.

30 **Significance**

31 There are efforts to integrate the reduced carbon emissions from avoided deforestation
32 claimed by voluntary REDD+ projects into national greenhouse gas (GHG) emission
33 inventories. This requires careful consideration of whether and how much of the reduced

34 carbon emissions can be attributed to projects. However, credible evidence on the
35 effectiveness of such voluntary activities is limited. We adopted a quasi-experimental,
36 synthetic control method to examine the causal effects of 12 voluntary REDD+ projects in
37 the Brazilian Amazon. We compared these ex-post estimates of impacts with the reductions
38 in forest loss claimed by those projects based on ex-ante baselines. Results suggest that the
39 accepted methodologies for quantifying carbon credits overstate impacts on avoided
40 deforestation and climate change mitigation.

41 **Introduction**

42 Concerns over global warming have led both the public and private sectors to promote
43 climate change mitigation through the reduction of carbon (CO₂) emissions from
44 deforestation and forest degradation in tropical countries—a concept known as REDD+ (1).
45 This strategy gained international attention after 2005 as a voluntary, performance-based
46 payment mechanism for reduced carbon emissions (2). While the regulations and capacity for
47 national REDD+ programs are still under development in many countries, hundreds of
48 voluntary, subnational REDD+ projects are operational worldwide (3). These projects intend
49 to preserve forests through a variety of activities, e.g., improved monitoring and control,
50 promotion of sustainable land uses, and engagement of local communities (4), either as
51 proof-of-concept or to profit from the commercialization of “carbon-offset credits” (i.e., Mg
52 CO₂ removed from or not emitted to the atmosphere) in a variety of markets. While these
53 markets do not provide the level of funding originally envisioned for national REDD+
54 programs, they are substantial: in 2018 alone, the volume of carbon offsets traded totaled
55 98.4 million Mg CO₂, with a market value of USD 295.7 million; a third of those credits
56 (30.5 million Mg CO₂) were generated by REDD+ projects (5). The Paris Agreement has
57 raised thorny questions about how the carbon emission reductions claimed by these projects
58 relate to Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) and national greenhouse gas (GHG)
59 emission inventories reported to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate
60 Change (6–8).

61 Carbon credits from REDD+ (at both the project and national levels [1]) are issued
62 based on performance, as defined by the comparison of realized forest cover to a baseline
63 scenario constructed by projecting the forest cover expected in the absence of REDD+ (9).
64 These baseline scenarios typically assume a continuation of historical deforestation trends
65 (10), and thus eventually become unrealistic counterfactuals as the regional economic and
66 political context change. Notably, these types of changes were observed in the Brazilian

67 Amazon during 2004–2012, a period of sharply declining rates of forest loss (11), and also
68 during 2019, when deforestation soared again (12) (Fig. 1). Consequently, credits for reduced
69 deforestation (or lack thereof) claimed by voluntary REDD+ projects in the Brazilian
70 Amazon may have been artifacts of external factors rather than REDD+ activities. Further,
71 critics of voluntary REDD+ projects have raised concerns that deforestation baselines might
72 be intentionally inflated by profiteers seeking to financially benefit from the
73 commercialization of superfluous credits, or “hot air” (13–15). In addition to the direct cost
74 of not effectively off-setting GHG emissions, the excess credits generated by these projects
75 impose an indirect cost on legitimate climate change mitigation efforts by undercutting the
76 price of their credits.

77 Early efforts to address these concerns included the establishment of standards and
78 registries for voluntary carbon-offset projects. These standards were designed to ensure the
79 environmental integrity of carbon offsets by requiring projects to use approved carbon-
80 accounting methodologies for establishing deforestation baselines, monitoring, and reporting,
81 all subject to third-party audits. Among those, the *Verified Carbon Standard* (VCS) (16) has
82 certified the greatest number of voluntary REDD+ projects worldwide (5).

83 Despite the growing literature on local REDD+ interventions, there have only been a
84 few evaluations of their impacts on carbon emissions using rigorous, counterfactual-based
85 methods (17, 18). To our knowledge, this is the first study that systematically compares
86 deforestation baselines established ex-ante with counterfactual estimates of deforestation
87 constructed ex-post. We employ the synthetic control method to construct deforestation
88 counterfactuals and assess the reductions in forest loss that can be attributed to voluntary
89 REDD+ projects (19–21). We apply this method to all VCS-certified REDD+ projects for
90 unplanned deforestation implemented in the Brazilian Amazon in the last decade (2008–
91 2017; Fig. 2 & SI Appendix, Table S1). We focus on this region for several reasons: its
92 global relevance for conservation and REDD+; the on-going discussions in Brazil about
93 “nesting” voluntary projects into a national REDD+ program (6–8); and the recent
94 availability of a cadastral database (22) that allows us to define a pool of rural properties
95 similar to the REDD+ project areas. We construct synthetic controls from donor pools of
96 properties based on weighted combinations of accessibility and biophysical characteristics
97 that result in the best matches of historical deforestation trends. Unlike the typical approach
98 to crediting baselines, we then construct counterfactual deforestation scenarios based on the
99 actual deforestation observed in those synthetic controls during the period when the REDD+
100 projects were operational. We evaluate whether the REDD+ projects caused additional

101 reductions in deforestation compared to the counterfactual deforestation as represented by the
102 synthetic controls (i.e., REDD+ *additionality*) and assess the robustness of our results with
103 placebo tests (21). We also examine trends in forest loss in buffer zones around the REDD+
104 project areas after project implementation to assess the plausibility that any apparent
105 reductions in deforestation may have been displaced instead (23). Finally, we contrast our
106 counterfactuals to the crediting baselines adopted by the voluntary projects.

107 **Results**

108 Before assessing the impacts of the REDD+ projects, we explored whether the
109 synthetic controls can accurately replicate deforestation trends in the project areas without
110 REDD+. This “proof of concept” was implemented by dividing the pretreatment period (i.e.,
111 before project implementation) into “training” and “testing” periods. We found that the
112 synthetic control method was able to replicate pretreatment deforestation trends reasonably
113 well in 10 of the 12 synthetic controls (SI Appendix, Fig. S2). Our findings for the other two
114 projects (i.e., Jari/Amapá and Suruí) must be interpreted with particular caution.

115 **Deforestation in the REDD+ areas.** Overall, we find no significant evidence that voluntary
116 REDD+ projects in the Brazilian Amazon have mitigated forest loss. Deforestation is
117 consistently lower in the REDD+ project site than in the synthetic control in only four of the
118 projects (Fig. 3 & SI Appendix, Fig. S3), and this difference is only outside the confidence
119 interval around zero established by the placebo tests in one project (Maísa; Fig. 4 & SI
120 Appendix, Fig. S4). The only two REDD+ projects from our sample that were implemented
121 in protected areas, i.e., Suruí and Rio Preto-Jacundá, experienced among the largest
122 cumulative losses of forest cover after REDD+ implementation, along with Jari/Amapá (Fig.
123 3). This is partly a function of their large project areas and the widespread forest fires that
124 occurred in those protected areas in 2010–2011 and 2015, respectively (see SI for details).
125 For Rio Preto-Jacundá we find much higher deforestation than in its synthetic control (which
126 is the same order of magnitude in size); specifically, the differences between deforestation
127 (both cumulative and annual) in the Rio Preto-Jacundá area and its synthetic controls were
128 substantially greater than the differences between deforestation in the placebos and their
129 synthetic controls (Fig. 4 & SI Appendix, Fig. S4).

130 Across all projects, we find substantial differences between the deforestation baseline
131 scenarios adopted ex-ante by the REDD+ projects and the observed forest loss (ex-post) in
132 the synthetic controls (Fig. 5 & SI Appendix, Fig. S5). The Suruí project, implemented in an
133 indigenous territory, is the only case where the synthetic control deforestation exceeded the

134 baseline deforestation adopted by the project proponents. This may reflect the fact that the
135 baseline for Suruí was developed based on a participatory, system dynamics model (24), as
136 opposed to the assumptions based on historical deforestation trends adopted by all other
137 projects (see SI for details).

138 **Carbon offset implications.** Credits from the voluntary REDD+ projects are generally
139 issued after a third-party audit (i.e., *verification*) every 1–5 years. These credits are based on
140 the estimated carbon-emission reductions from the avoided deforestation brought about by
141 the projects, calculated as the difference between the carbon emissions under the baseline
142 scenario minus the observed emissions from the project area and leakage.

143 According to the projects' ex-ante estimates, up to 24.8 million carbon offsets could
144 potentially have been generated by the REDD+ interventions by 2017 (Fig. 5 & SI Appendix,
145 Table S1). According to the VCS database, only 5.4 million tradable credits from these
146 projects have been certified and made available to offset GHG emissions from private and
147 public sources by that year (SI Appendix, Table S1) (25). Using the synthetic control method
148 to estimate REDD+ counterfactuals, we find no systematic evidence that the certified carbon
149 offsets claimed by the voluntary projects in our sample (with the exception of Maísa) are
150 associated with additional reductions in deforestation in the REDD+ areas above and beyond
151 the background reduction in deforestation achieved in the Brazilian Amazon over the same
152 period (11). Even for the Maísa case, our results suggest that nearly 40% of the 50 thousand
153 tradable carbon offsets issued by the project by 2017 (SI Appendix, Table S1) may not be
154 genuinely additional (Fig. 5).

155 **Leakage.** If REDD+ implementation mitigates forest loss in project areas by effectively
156 excluding deforestation agents, it could displace, and hence increase, deforestation next to the
157 project areas. Shifts in deforestation after project start in 10-km buffer zones surrounding the
158 REDD+ projects suggest that such leakage effects could have occurred in three cases (i.e.,
159 Maísa, Florestal Santa Maria, and Manoa; SI Appendix, Fig. S6). Further, leakage
160 presupposes a direct conservation impact, and all three of the projects exhibited lower
161 deforestation than their synthetic controls, although this estimated effect of REDD+ is only
162 larger than the placebo tests in the Maísa project (Fig. 4 & SI Appendix, Fig. S4). It is also
163 worth noting that while deforestation in the buffer zones of these three projects rose between
164 the project start dates and 2017, post-intervention rates were still lower on average than in the
165 pre-REDD+ period.

166 **Discussion**

167 Our findings partially support early skepticism about the contribution of voluntary
168 REDD+ projects to climate change mitigation (15, 26). In particular, they raise questions
169 about the environmental integrity of offsets calculated using deforestation counterfactuals
170 based on the continuation of historical trends (e.g., Fig. 1). In all projects that established
171 crediting baselines using historical trends, we find that the crediting baselines significantly
172 overstate deforestation in comparison to the counterfactual estimates based on synthetic
173 controls. This pattern reflects the confounding effect created by Brazil's post-2004 efforts to
174 control Amazonian deforestation that were uniquely successful (11, 27, 28). If carbon credits
175 are expected to reflect changes in emissions caused by REDD+, then using historical
176 baselines leads to excess carbon credits for projects when deforestation at the regional level
177 drops below the historical baseline. The opposite happens when unanticipated forest threats,
178 such as fires, emerge at the regional scale.

179 In contrast, the synthetic control methodology uses historical trends to identify
180 appropriate weighted combinations of comparison areas but then constructs the
181 counterfactual based on the observed deforestation in those areas. These counterfactuals thus
182 incorporate the effects of contemporaneous drivers of deforestation, including agricultural
183 commodity prices, currency exchange rates, and environmental regulations (27–29). As such,
184 the synthetic control method is less prone to incorrectly attribute changes in deforestation to
185 REDD+.

186 We note some caveats on our analysis. First, we base our evaluation on the project
187 boundaries defined by the polygons available from the VCS project database, which are
188 somewhat larger than the areas officially reported by project proponents (SI Appendix, Table
189 S2). Most of those polygons correspond to Amazonian rural properties registered in the
190 Brazilian *Rural Environmental Registry* (CAR), whose owners are legally entitled to clear up
191 to 20% of their forest area. Second, our synthetic controls do not perfectly match the REDD+
192 project areas in terms of size, accessibility, and biophysical characteristics. In particular, the
193 synthetic control for Agrocortex is only 61% the size of their project area (SI Appendix,
194 Table A1-2). While historical deforestation is similar in the synthetic controls and project
195 areas, clearly there is future potential for more deforestation in the larger project areas than in
196 their smaller synthetic controls. Third, the construction of our synthetic controls may not
197 have included all relevant structural determinants of deforestation. Lastly, the period of
198 analysis may not have been long enough to observe significant REDD+ impacts in some
199 cases.

200 Despite these caveats, the weight of the evidence suggests that these projects caused
201 less reduction in deforestation than claimed (Fig. 5 & SI Appendix, Fig. S5) and that few
202 projects actually achieved emission reductions (30). Suspicion about the environmental
203 integrity of carbon offsets is not restricted to REDD+ or voluntary interventions. A series of
204 reports on other market-based initiatives for climate change mitigation, i.e., the *Joint*
205 *Implementation (JI)* and the *Clean Development Mechanism (CDM)* of the Kyoto Protocol,
206 also raised concerns about the true climatic contributions from certified carbon offsets. These
207 reports suggest that about three-quarters of JI credits are unlikely to represent additional
208 emission reductions (31) and that 73% of the potential 2013–2020 CDM credits have a low
209 likelihood of environmental integrity (in contrast to 7% with high likelihood) (32).

210 The projects that we evaluated may have had little additional impact because they did
211 not adopt the most effective actions to achieve their REDD+ objectives, perhaps because of
212 uncertainties about the future availability of funds and concerns about unfairly raising local
213 expectations of carbon payments. Hence, our results do not imply that voluntary REDD+
214 projects cannot achieve their objectives if designed and implemented effectively. There is
215 both quasi-experimental and experimental evidence that conditional payments for
216 environmental services (PES) can effectively reduce deforestation (3, 33), and recent
217 literature suggests that REDD+ implemented through well-designed conditional PES can
218 deliver positive conservation outcomes (34–36).

219 Another possible explanation for the lack of impact is difficulty with the on-the-ground
220 implementation and execution of activities envisioned by project proponents (37, 38). One
221 example is the Suruí project, which attracted international attention as one of the first
222 voluntary REDD+ interventions implemented in an indigenous territory (4). The project
223 aimed to use the financial revenues from carbon sales to promote sustainable land-use
224 practices in the Suruí territory but was not able to prevent the illegal invasion of loggers and
225 miners.

226 A third possible explanation for under-performance relates to challenges with the
227 commercialization of carbon offsets and correspondingly limited revenues available to
228 implement project activities (39). One way that voluntary REDD+ projects overcome that
229 challenge is by claiming “retroactive credits” (40). Often, projects that are certified in a given
230 year claim to have started much earlier (SI Appendix, Table S1). As a result, those projects
231 are eligible to issue large amounts of carbon offsets at the time of certification, retroactively
232 corresponding to the period between the certification and the project start date. This can help
233 to fund project start-ups, but it also implies that projects have not actually had access to

234 carbon revenues during their early years of operation. Carbon crediting rules may thus
235 partially explain why we find limited evidence for avoided deforestation.

236 Our results emphasize the need to reassess approaches to measuring project
237 additionality. While ex-post counterfactual methods such as illustrated here would ensure a
238 high level of environmental integrity, they would introduce substantial uncertainty about the
239 credits that can be obtained from a given reduction in deforestation in project areas. An
240 alternative approach often suggested in the literature is to require projects to adopt national or
241 subnational (jurisdictional) baselines that are predefined, and periodically updated, by the
242 government (6, 7, 41), as well as default carbon-stock values or a common carbon-density
243 map (42). Imposing one common baseline would have the benefits of facilitating the
244 inclusion of carbon emission reductions claimed by decentralized initiatives into national
245 GHG emission inventories, ensuring consistency in the treatment of leakages, and avoiding
246 double-counting reductions (6, 8, 43), while still offering relative certainty about carbon
247 credits conditional on project performance. However, national and subnational baselines are
248 typically based on historical data and thus are not any more likely to capture
249 contemporaneous deforestation drivers and their dynamism (although it is also possible to
250 apply the synthetic control method to nations [30]). Thus, they do not address the main
251 problem identified by our analysis: the limitations of historical data for baseline development.

252 Periodic baseline updates based on recent deforestation trends could help mitigate the
253 influence of factors external to voluntary REDD+ projects on the carbon credits that they
254 claim. In fact, current VCS rules already require projects to revise their baselines every 10
255 years (16). Our results suggest that this interval should be shorter. Baseline updates could be
256 based on control areas that share similar characteristics as the REDD+ projects, as
257 demonstrated in this study with the construction of the synthetic controls. In addition,
258 coupled human-natural system models, such as was used in the Suruí case, can be used to
259 explore alternative baseline scenarios and quantify the potential downside risks involved in
260 conservation investments under dynamic patterns of land-use change, though at increased
261 project development costs (24). These models could also shed light on the potential impacts
262 of REDD+ on local livelihoods and biodiversity (45, 46), which we do not consider here but
263 recognize as fundamentally important.

264 We do provide empirical evidence for a phenomenon that was anticipated in the early
265 policy debate over REDD+ (47), i.e., *de facto* additionality of REDD+ projects depends on
266 both project implementation and national circumstances. Carbon finance and crediting
267 systems must safeguard against both “hot air” from overstated claims of carbon additionality

268 and excessive risks to private conservation investments associated with desirable government
269 action to combat deforestation, as observed in Brazil from 2005 to 2012.

270 **Materials and Methods**

271 We examined the impacts of 12 voluntary REDD+ projects implemented in the
272 Brazilian Amazon since 2008 and certified under the *Verified Carbon Standard* (VCS) before
273 May 2019 to curb local unplanned deforestation (Fig. 2; SI Appendix, Tables S1 & S2).
274 Project areas were defined by the geospatial polygons reported by the project proponents and
275 available from the VCS project database. Ten of the 12 projects were implemented in
276 privately owned properties, whereas the other two, the Suruí and the Rio Preto-Jacundá
277 projects, were implemented in an indigenous territory and a sustainable-use reserve,
278 respectively. Following VCS-approved carbon-accounting methodologies, historical
279 deforestation rates were the basis of all project deforestation baselines with the exception of
280 the Suruí project (e.g., Fig. 1). In the latter, baseline deforestation rates were informed by a
281 participatory, and community-specific, system dynamics model (24).

282 Rigorous impact evaluations rely on the establishment of credible counterfactuals for
283 what would have happened in the absence of an intervention (48, 49), which are
284 unobservable. We construct “synthetic controls” to serve as counterfactuals for the REDD+
285 project areas (19, 50). We adopted the synthetic control approach, as opposed to more
286 traditional methods from the impact evaluation literature (e.g., difference-in-differences
287 estimator), because of our small number of treated units and likely heterogeneity of the
288 treatment across them (49, 51, 52). Synthetic controls were constructed as a weighted average
289 of selected donor units through a nested optimization procedure that minimizes the
290 differences in pretreatment characteristics between the project and the control, with
291 characteristics weighted such that the resulting weighted average outcome of the selected
292 donor units most closely matches the pretreatment outcome in the treated unit (20, 21).
293 Specifically, the iterative procedure minimizes the mean squared prediction error (MSPE) of
294 the outcome, or the sum of squared residuals between the treated unit and the synthetic
295 control, over the pretreatment period (50).

296 Two sets of synthetic controls were constructed as a weighted combination of areas
297 selected from “donor pools” (19, 50) composed of Amazonian properties registered in the
298 CAR database (22) that do not overlap with project areas and that had $\geq 90\%$ forest cover in
299 the first year of the analysis. In the first set, we used cumulative deforestation as the
300 optimization outcome, whereas the second set was based on annual deforestation. We note

301 that the optimization algorithm selected different groups of donors for the synthetic controls
302 for each outcome, which allows us to use the second set as a robustness check. Donor pools
303 were preferably based on properties from the same state as the REDD+ project and within
304 $\pm 25\%$ the size of the project area. Whenever the resulting synthetic controls had substantially
305 different land areas or pretreatment annual and cumulative deforestation (i.e., before project
306 implementation), the donor pools were expanded to all properties in the Amazon biome (see
307 SI for details). Lastly, for the cases of persistent unbalanced synthetic controls, donor pools
308 were expanded to properties with $\pm 50\%$ the size of the project area. Synthetic controls for the
309 REDD+ projects implemented in a sustainable-use reserve (i.e., Rio Preto-Jacundá) and an
310 indigenous territory (i.e., Suruí) were constructed based on donor pools composed of other
311 sustainable-use reserves and indigenous territories, respectively.

312 The spatial covariates structurally related to deforestation (29) used for the construction
313 of the synthetic controls were obtained from official maps produced by government agencies
314 in Brazil (SI Appendix, Fig. S7 & Table S4). The covariates represent (i) property size, (ii)
315 initial forest cover, (iii) slope, (iv) soil quality, and distances from (v) state capitals, (vi)
316 towns, (vii) federal highways, and (viii) local roads, as well as the proportion of (ix) primary
317 and (x) secondary forest, (xi) pastureland, (xii) agriculture, and (xiii) urban areas in 2000,
318 2004, 2008, and 2012 (for projects implemented after 2012) within 10-km buffer zones of the
319 project and potential donor areas. In accordance with the previous literature (20, 50), we also
320 used the pretreatment annual and cumulative deforestation rates to inform the construction of
321 the two sets of synthetic controls. Temporal land-use information in the buffer zones was
322 obtained from the *TerraClass* dataset produced by Brazil's *National Institute for Space*
323 *Research* (INPE). Annual deforestation data for the 2001–2017 period were processed from
324 the *MapBiomas* land-use/cover dataset v.3.1 for the Brazilian Amazon biome (Fig. 2 & SI
325 Appendix, Fig. S1).

326 While the construction of our synthetic controls was based on all information available
327 from 2001 to the project start year (i.e., pretreatment period), we conducted a separate
328 analysis in which a different set of synthetic controls were constructed based on data
329 constrained to the first-half of the pretreatment period (i.e., “training” period), so they could
330 be tested against the second-half (i.e., “testing” period; SI Appendix, Fig. S2). We evaluated
331 the outcome of this analysis both visually and by comparing training and testing MSPE (SI
332 Appendix, Table S3). This “proof of concept” differs from standard model-validation
333 practices because the donors selected as synthetic controls based on the first-half of the

334 pretreatment periods do not necessarily match the final set of donors when the full
335 pretreatment period is used.

336 We examined the robustness of our findings with a series of placebo tests, in which we
337 create synthetic controls for all CAR polygons in the donor pool (i.e., not subject to REDD+
338 activities) and compute the difference in both annual and cumulative deforestation between
339 each placebo and its synthetic control (Fig. 4 & SI Appendix, Fig. S4). Because placebo areas
340 are not exposed to REDD+, any differences in forest loss between placebos and their
341 synthetic controls are statistical “noise.” In order to increase the number of placebo tests, we
342 use the expanded placebo donor pools of all Amazonian properties with $\pm 50\%$ the project
343 size. In accordance with the previous literature (21), we discarded placebo tests with
344 pretreatment MSPE five times higher than the pretreatment MSPE of the REDD+ polygon.
345 We used the gaps in deforestation between the placebos and their respective synthetic
346 controls to create 99% confidence intervals around the mean placebo effect estimate, which is
347 approximately zero in all cases. Analyses were conducted with the *Synth* package (v.1.1)
348 available for R software (v.3.6.0) (50). Lastly, we computed the annual deforestation in 10-
349 km *buffer zones* surrounding the project areas as an indicator of possible leakage effects (23),
350 i.e., because increasing deforestation could reflect the displacement of deforestation due to
351 the REDD+ activities.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Annual deforestation in the Brazilian Amazon from PRODES data (bars). Blue bars indicate voluntary REDD+ project start dates. Red lines represent 10-year deforestation averages prior to project implementation and commonly adopted as projects' deforestation baselines.

Fig. 2. VCS-certified REDD+ projects established during 2008–2017 in the Brazilian Amazon forest biome.

Fig. 3. Cumulative post-2000 deforestation in Amazonian areas with REDD+ projects (red) versus synthetic controls (blue). Dashed black lines are the project start dates.

Fig. 4. Placebo tests: cumulative deforestation in REDD+ project areas minus deforestation in their respective synthetic controls (red), and placebos minus their respective synthetic controls (blue dots). Dashed black lines are the project start dates (assumed the same for placebos). Shaded blue areas represent 99% confidence intervals around the mean of the placebos. The number of placebos varies by project based on whether synthetic controls with low mean squared prediction error could be constructed for the placebo tests.

Fig. 5. Cumulative deforestation from the baseline scenarios adopted by the REDD+ projects (orange) versus observed cumulative deforestation in the synthetic controls (blue). Dashed black lines are the project start dates.