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1 **Quantifying biodiversity impacts of climate change and bioenergy: the role** 2 **of integrated global scenarios**

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11 **Abstract:** The role of bioenergy in climate change mitigation is a topic of heated debate, as the demand for
12 land may result in social and ecological conflicts. Biodiversity impacts are a key controversy, given that
13 biodiversity conservation is a globally agreed goal under pressure due to both climate change and land use.
14 Impact assessment of bioenergy in various socioeconomic and policy scenarios is a crucial basis for planning
15 sound climate mitigation policy. Empirical studies have identified positive and negative local impacts of
16 different bioenergy types on biodiversity, but ignored indirect impacts caused by displacement of other
17 human activities. Integrated assessment models (IAMs) provide land-use scenarios based on socioeconomic
18 and policy storylines. Global scenarios capture both direct and indirect land-use change, and are therefore
19 an appealing tool for assessing the impacts of bioenergy on biodiversity. However, IAMs have been
20 originally designed to address questions of a different nature. Here, we illustrate the properties of IAMs
21 from the biodiversity conservation perspective and discuss the set of questions they could answer. We find
22 IAMs are a useful starting point for more detailed regional planning and assessment. However, they have
23 important limitations that should not be overlooked. Global scenarios may not capture all impacts, such as
24 changes in forest habitat quality or small-scale landscape structure, identified as key factors in empirical
25 studies. We recommend increasing spatial accuracy of IAMs through region-specific, complementary
26 modelling, including climate change into predictive assessments, and considering future biodiversity
27 conservation needs in assessments of impacts and sustainable potentials of bioenergy.

28 **Keywords:** adaptation; biodiversity; bioenergy; conservation; impact assessment; mitigation

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29 ***Conserving biodiversity in times of global change***

30 Biological diversity is declining rapidly all around the world, despite global conventions and increased
31 conservation efforts (Butchart et al. 2010). The main causes of this decline include habitat loss and
32 degradation, overharvesting, pollution and invasive species; in addition, climate change is expected to
33 exacerbate the pressure on biodiversity (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005). The impacts of climate
34 change are already evident across a wide range of species and habitats (Bellard et al. 2012; Chen et al. 2011;
35 Parmesan 2006). As even the most ambitious climate policies are only expected to mitigate climate change,
36 enhanced conservation action is required. Suggested strategies to adapt conservation to the climate
37 challenge include better connected, more numerous and larger protected areas (Hannah et al. 2007; Heller
38 and Zavaleta 2009; Hodgson et al. 2009), and management practices that allow for persistence and
39 dispersal of species in the landscape outside protected areas (Hannah et al. 2002; Noss, 2001).

40 While climate change mitigation is required to reduce its future impact on biodiversity, (Dawson et al. 2011;
41 Heller and Zavaleta 2009), mitigation action should be planned with biodiversity in mind: some activities for
42 reducing greenhouse emissions could themselves be harmful for biodiversity (Paterson et al. 2008). For
43 example, hydropower dams may potentially help to decarbonize the energy sector, but their impacts on
44 local biodiversity may be severe (Nilsson and Berggren, 2000). Also afforestation could, depending on the
45 form, have negative impacts on native flora and fauna: if based on tree plantations, naturally open habitats
46 could be replaced by low-biodiversity ecosystems with high water uptake (Jackson et al. 2005). Other
47 activities have been identified as beneficial for both climate change mitigation and biodiversity
48 conservation. An example of such win-win strategies would be conservation of primary forests along with
49 their carbon stores and sinks as well as their high biodiversity value (Righelato and Spracklen 2007).

50 Bioenergy is considered to be an important alternative for fossil fuels. Most models therefore project a
51 rapid increase in bioenergy use in mitigation scenarios (IPCC 2011; Rose et al. 2012; van Vuuren et al. 2010).
52 In particular, scenarios aiming to limit the increase in annual mean temperature below 2 degrees compared
53 to preindustrial times (UNFCCC 2010), are expected to increase bioenergy demand (van Vuuren et al. 2010)
54 given the key role of negative emissions in the second half of the century using bio-energy-and-carbon-
55 capture-and-storage (BECCS).

56 Increased use of bioenergy may lead to conflicts with food security, water availability and biodiversity
57 conservation (Dornburg et al. 2012), which makes the sustainability of bioenergy a subject for heated
58 debate. Integrated assessment models (IAMs) of climate and land-use change can be used to assess global
59 bioenergy potentials in different socioeconomic scenarios and under various constraints. However, these

60 models do not account for specific local, regional and landscape-scale opportunities and constraints that
61 are important for assessing the impacts of bioenergy-related land-use change (Davis et al. 2011) and for
62 mitigating the negative impacts from bioenergy (Gaucherel et al. 2009). Furthermore, the mitigation effect
63 of bioenergy depends on the source, and may be significantly reduced or even be multifold exceeded by
64 emissions from associated land-use changes (Fargione et al. 2008). Indeed, Creutzig et al. (2012) identify a
65 need to integrate knowledge from empirical and inductive life cycle studies into IAMs to better understand
66 potential, uncertainty and risks of direct and indirect land-use impacts. From the perspective of biodiversity
67 conservation, the important question is how increased bioenergy supply affects the availability and quality
68 of habitats for species as well as spatial conservation opportunities. Understanding the impacts of both
69 climate change and mitigation action is necessary for planning proactive biodiversity conservation and
70 planning sound energy policy.

71 In this article, we discuss the level of detail and essential indicators needed ideally for model outcomes to
72 be relevant for biodiversity impact assessments. A key aspect here are the different types of questions that
73 are raised regarding the relationship between bioenergy and biodiversity. Some of the questions can be
74 best answered at the global level (e.g. the overall implications of bioenergy for energy systems); others
75 involve factors that can best be handled at a less aggregated scale (e.g. detailed biodiversity impacts). We
76 evaluate whether currently available predictive land-use tools meet those requirements, and discuss the
77 role of IAMs in assessing the impacts of bioenergy policy on conservation. Our aim is to provide inspiration
78 for further development and use of IAMs from a conservation scientists' perspective. Furthermore, we
79 offer guidance for using global land-use scenarios in bioenergy impact assessment and policy planning. We
80 start by providing an overview of how land-use scenarios currently assess the impact of bioenergy. We
81 continue with a discussion on why and how modelling studies could be more strongly linked with empirical
82 bioenergy impact studies. Finally, we conclude and provide recommendations.

83 ***Land-use scenarios: balancing between geographic coverage and level of*** 84 ***detail***

85 Various types of models can predict how socioeconomic or policy scenarios translate into resource demand
86 and supply, and thereby land-use change (Table 1). Clearly, the focal question and spatial scale should
87 determine the choice of methodologies used in any given study. On one hand, bioenergy scenarios have
88 been used in regional biodiversity assessments for croplands (Meehan et al. 2010) and for extraction of fine
89 woody debris (Dahlberg et al. 2011), but these studies typically pay no attention to the wider context such
90 as total energy demand or indirect land use. Studies have shown that this wider context and, in particular,
91 indirect effects may substantially affect the carbon balance (Plevin et al. 2010) and the sustainability of

92 bioenergy (Dornburg et al. 2010; Searchinger et al. 2009). Bioenergy scenarios should thus account for such
93 indirect land-use changes.

94 On the other hand, there are IAM studies that typically focus on the more aggregated level. IAMs have
95 been developed for climate and energy policy support since late 1980s (Parson and Fisher-Vanden 1997). At
96 present, they are the most important tool for quantifying and assessing scenarios for socioeconomic
97 development and policy in the climate change mitigation and adaptation context. Such IAMs consist of
98 quantified relationships between human population and activity, climate, land cover and ecosystems (Moss
99 et al. 2010) and enable scenarios for emission reductions, cost-benefit analyses for mitigation options, and
100 simulating feedbacks between climate and land use. As IAMs model emissions and land use simultaneously,
101 they can address also the indirect land-use change arising from bioenergy production. IAMs have been used
102 at global level (van Vuuren et al., 2010) to explore land-use changes in various sets of socioeconomic
103 scenarios up to the year 2100 (Rose et al. 2012; Thomson et al. 2011; van Vuuren et al. 2011; van Vuuren et
104 al. 2010; van Vuuren et al. 2006a; Wise et al. 2009). At a European scale, an IAM has been used in
105 combination with a biofuel crop allocation model that accounted for logistics between fields and refineries
106 (Hellmann and Verburg 2011), extending up to year 2030. IAM projections have also been used in
107 biodiversity assessments, for instance to assess the general pressure of land-use change (Visconti et al.
108 2011) and even specifically to assess bioenergy impacts (Alkemade et al. 2009; Eggers et al. 2009; Hellmann
109 & Verburg, 2010; OECD 2012).

110 One key set of global land-use projections has been based on the storylines of the so-called SRES scenarios
111 (a set of scenarios developed for the IPCC; IPCC 2000). While these scenarios capture a wide range of
112 possible developments, a downside of them is that they assume development in the absence of policy that
113 specifically targets climate change mitigation, and all of them fail meeting the 2 degrees climate target
114 agreed by the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC 2010). The set of
115 scenarios developed by the IAM framework IMAGE (MNP 2006) for other environmental assessments, and
116 in particular the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005), partly filled this gap. Several international
117 biodiversity assessments have been based on these scenarios (CBD 2010; Pereira et al. 2010; van Vuuren et
118 al. 2006b). More recently, several models have developed scenarios that account for climate and energy
119 policy providing a wide set of land-use scenarios relevant for global climate policy goals (Hurt et al. 2011;
120 Moss et al. 2010; van Vuuren et al. 2011).

121 ***Linking empirical studies with modelling studies***

122 Biodiversity impact assessments have been undertaken both with empirical studies and with the use of
123 models. In general, empirical studies have a more local focus than modelling studies. Because of this
124 difference in focus, empirical studies use different indicators to quantify impacts than modelling studies.

125 The main issue covered with empirical studies is the number and abundances of species in bioenergy plots
126 as compared to a reference habitat (e.g. Brin et al. 2012; Danielsen et al. 2009; Dhondt et al. 2004; Fry and
127 Slater 2011; Rowe et al. 2011). Findings show that bioenergy impacts depend on the type of bioenergy
128 (Harrison and Berenbaum 2012; Haughton et al. 2009; Myers et al. 2012; Questad et al. 2011; Robertson et
129 al. 2011a; Robertson et al. 2012; Werling et al. 2011), management activities (Myers et al. 2012), reference
130 habitat (Felten and Emmerling 2011; Questad et al. 2011) and landscape structure (Baum et al. 2012;
131 Robertson et al. 2011b; Robertson et al. 2013; Fig. 1).

132 Modelling studies, in contrast, mostly focus on the extent and impact of habitat change associated with
133 bioenergy production, in terms of suitable habitat for specific species (Eggers et al. 2009; Louette et al.
134 2010), the replacement of pristine habitats (Alkemade et al. 2009) and the loss of high nature value
135 habitats (Hellmann and Verburg 2010; see Table 1 for summary). Typically, biodiversity indicators in these
136 studies remain at a superficial level, thereby potentially overlooking important considerations of spatial and
137 population ecology, which may lead to misleading conclusions. Stronger links between the empirical studies
138 and future scenarios could be established by quantifying the relationship between habitat quality and
139 species occurrence or abundance. Appropriate methods for such analysis include correlative species
140 distribution models (Franklin 2009) as well as patch occupancy models based on population dynamics
141 (Hanski and Ovaskainen 2003). Key variables for such predictive analyses should be derived from the
142 empirical evidence base. Ideally, predictions about the distribution of specified bioenergy types, habitat
143 diversity and heterogeneity, as well as structure and distribution of forest biomass would form the basis of
144 predictive impact assessment (Fig. 1).

145 The conclusions of a scenario analysis of policy outcome are by and large determined by the reference
146 scenario, where assumptions are made about development in the absence of the policy in question. As
147 regards bioenergy policy, the reference scenario would include land-use trends and climate change trends
148 in the absence of bioenergy use. For instance, the evaluation of bioenergy impacts are very different
149 depending on the reference scenario assumptions of whether land would otherwise be reforested or
150 remain as degraded grassland. Also climate change is expected to have substantial impact on future
151 biodiversity (Barbet-Massin et al. 2012; Bellard et al. 2012; Garcia et al. 2011; Thuiller 2004). Therefore,
152 impact assessments which do not account for combined effects of climate change and land use of

153 bioenergy policies may under- or overestimate impacts (de Chazal and Rounsevell 2009). Nevertheless, so
154 far the scenario-based impact assessments of bioenergy have often ignored the simultaneous direct
155 impacts of climate change on species distributions (but see Alkemade et al. 2009; Table 1). If the aim is to
156 compare advantages and disadvantages of bioenergy, assessments should compare the impact of climate
157 change in a business as usual scenario to the increased impact of mitigation action though reduced impact
158 of climate change.

159 IAMs include changes in climatic indicators such as temperature. These indicators can be downscaled to the
160 grid or regional levels using pre-existing climate runs. For biodiversity at the local scale, however, it is also
161 important to have insight into variation in temperature and moisture (Austin 2002; Barry and Elith 2006).
162 While there are also techniques to derive those, the uncertainties here are large. On the other hand, more
163 specific predictions of regional climate change are becoming available from regional climatic circulation
164 models for the new climate policy scenarios, also including mitigations scenarios. Many studies have
165 therefore estimated climate impacts separately from those of land-use models. Given the large uncertainty
166 in regional climate predictions, sophisticated biodiversity assessments might consider exploring a wide
167 range of climate scenarios – either coming directly from climate models or developed by downscaling IAM
168 projections. It should also be noted that land-use changes themselves may cause local climate change (e.g.
169 via albedo). As these are not covered in existing projections in climate models or in downscaling techniques,
170 it is useful to consider whether, in a specific study, land-use changes may be so large that these local
171 impacts cannot be ignored.

172 Changes in land use can result in changes in the extent, spatial configuration and quality of suitable habitat.
173 From the point of view of biodiversity assessment, land-use scenarios should be able to quantify the
174 consequences of policy action in terms of habitat availability, quality and structure with those indicators
175 which have been identified as key for biodiversity impacts in empirical studies. Ideally, the relationship
176 between integrated climate and land-use scenarios and biodiversity assessments should be twofold. On
177 one hand, scenarios should output relevant data for biodiversity assessments; on the other hand,
178 biodiversity assessments should inform scenario planning so that alternative policy scenarios could be
179 evaluated.

180 ***Key limitations of global land-use scenarios from the perspective of*** 181 ***biodiversity assessments***

182 Land-use scenarios produced by IAMs are appealing tools for biodiversity assessments, because they
183 provide global projections based on relevant policy storylines. However, as the models were originally built

184 to answer a different set of questions, they have limitations to the questions they can address in context of
185 biodiversity assessment. In this section, the outputs of IAMs are assessed in light of the data requirements
186 for biodiversity assessments as outlined above (see Fig. 1 for a summary of the empirical evidence and links
187 to IAM outputs).

188 IAMs produce future maps of land use often based on rather simplified rules (for food crops and bioenergy
189 crops). Such rules include the potential and costs for energy crops and availability of suitable land (e.g. in
190 current output of the IMAGE framework, bioenergy allocation is in standard scenarios allocated to high-
191 yield grid cells that are either abandoned agricultural land, natural grasslands and savannah; Hoogwijk
192 2004). More detailed scenarios could be built regionally, based on more detailed policy storylines. For
193 example, the European Union targets for renewable energy and member state strategies for meeting these
194 targets could inform the regional scenario work on more detailed distribution of bioenergy demand and
195 inform policy planning about potential sustainability conflicts, based on which policy could be revised. A
196 challenge is that current obligations exist only up to 2020, and more long-term strategies vary both in
197 timespan and level of detail among member states of the EU.

198 Another key problem for informing biodiversity conservation in practice is that the resolution of the spatial
199 data is incompatible with the level of detail that is needed. Most global models use an aggregation level of
200 0.5 x 0.5 degree or higher – this resolution is too coarse for making conclusions of many relevant
201 biodiversity impacts identified in empirical studies. Attempts have been made to develop more detailed
202 scenarios. An example of this are the 1x1 km² projections of agricultural land use up to 2030 developed
203 using a biofuel crop allocation model that accounts for logistics between fields and refineries (Hellmann
204 and Verburg 2011). However, there is a clear trade-off here between uncertainty (becoming increasingly
205 important in the future) and the demand for detail in scenario description and variables. Hellmann and
206 Verburg needed a detailed projection of biofuel production to justify their high spatial resolution. Still, high
207 spatial resolution may result in a false sense of detail.

208 The current IMAGE scenarios encounter similar trade-offs. Because downscaling projections with more
209 detailed land cover can be useful for refining the quantitative assessment of impact, the IMAGE land-use
210 scenarios have been downscaled from their native 30' grid cell size to to a 0.6' resolution with more
211 detailed land cover data for biodiversity assessments (Visconti et al. 2011). However, it does not necessarily
212 increase the spatial accuracy, if the allocation rules are general and uncertainty is high. On the other hand,
213 using detailed allocation rules instead of downscaling can increase the prediction's sensitivity to
214 uncertainty in the assumptions, making the spatially detailed predictions highly uncertain. Over-reliance on

215 uncertain predictions when making decisions can lead to misallocation of resources (Pilkey-Jarvis and Pilkey
216 2008).

217 Increasing the time horizon in land-use projections necessarily means trading off spatial resolution and
218 increasing uncertainty. Investments in energy infrastructure are far-reaching; biomass-burning power
219 plants built today are still online in 2050. Nevertheless, future land-use needs for bioenergy depend on
220 developments in climatic suitability for biomass production and the realized energy portfolio. Uncertainty
221 accumulates in predictions over time, which implies that scenarios cannot be interpreted as predictions of
222 the future. Instead, scenarios can help identify potential problems in the developments they describe, and
223 design policy through which those problems can be avoided. Accounting for the uncertainties is important,
224 and robust policy would be an ideal objective. Identifying problems in bioenergy sustainability can be
225 addressed, for example, by applying sustainability criteria that exclude unsustainable sources of biomass.

226 Empirical studies have identified the implications on landscape structure and management practices as
227 important factors determining the impact of bioenergy on biodiversity (Londo et al. 2005; Rowe et al. 2011;
228 Northrup et al. 2012; Fig. 1). Exploring land-use scenarios with varying landscape structure and
229 management practices would be ideal, yet currently unfeasible over large spatial scales. In addition to high
230 requirements for the land-use scenarios, such analyses are also demanding from the perspective of
231 biodiversity data. Simulations in a virtual landscape can help overcome this problem, and allow formulating
232 policy recommendations (see Engel et al. 2012 for an example).

233 Another common limitation of land cover models is that forest age classes, deadwood availability and
234 vertical structure are missing from most of them, even though these are critical determinants of habitat
235 suitability for many forest species depending on old growth forest. The local negative impacts of energy
236 harvesting of stumps and other residues have been well documented (Brin et al. 2012; Jonsell and Hansson
237 2007; 2011; Lassauce et al. 2012; Sullivan et al. 2011; Victorsson and Jonsell 2012; Åström et al. 2005; see
238 Fig. 1). Management practices in managed forests determine those important structural features. However,
239 global land-use scenarios often do not explore management practices, and they do not explicitly allocate
240 residue uptake or traditional bioenergy (van Vuuren et al. 2010). Furthermore, most scenarios do not
241 account for forest degradation. This is a limitation to assessing changes in habitat suitability for forest
242 species in bioenergy scenarios which include energy harvesting of logging residues or other forest
243 resources. More specific modelling approaches are necessary – and available – to address this issue in more
244 detail (Sacchelli et al. 2013).

245 IAMs allocate land use based on predefined sets of criteria, such as climatic suitability, population density
246 and demand for resources. The projections are based on scenario-specific assumptions on drivers and
247 constraints such as energy resources, trade, technological development and environmental conditions, but
248 often disregard biodiversity conservation opportunities and needs (Davis et al. 2011). Biodiversity
249 considerations can be included in these rules. For example, IMAGE projections allow for estimating future
250 bioenergy potential under various natural constraints such as existing protected areas (van Vuuren et al.
251 2009). However, current conservation measures are not sufficient to halt the ongoing loss of biodiversity
252 (Butchart et al. 2010), and countries of the world have agreed to increase the coverage of terrestrial
253 protected areas to 17% from the current 13% already by 2020 (UNFCCC 2010). If such necessary near future
254 protected area expansions are not accounted for when considering restrictions to the allocation of
255 bioenergy areas, the scenarios remain unrealistic, adding further challenges to the conservation of
256 biodiversity. Moreover, further increases in the coverage of protected areas will be necessary to meet
257 biodiversity targets, especially as the ranges of species are predicted to shift as a response to climate
258 change (Araújo et al. 2011; Hannah et al. 2007; Hannah et al. 2002; Heller and Zavaleta 2009). More
259 generally, several studies recommend mainstreaming biodiversity conservation throughout land-use
260 planning so that the landscape managed for economic purposes would remain biodiversity friendly
261 (Hannah et al. 2002; Noss 2001; Wilson and Piper, 2008). Neither conservation value of sites nor future
262 conservation needs are currently included in the IAM-based land-use scenarios.

263 The extent and location of land set aside for conservation purposes affects the global bioenergy potential.
264 A scenario where 20% of each biome would be protected for biodiversity, adding up to 25% of the
265 terrestrial land area, implies a 21% lower bioenergy potential than a scenario where only existing protected
266 areas are excluded from the estimates (van Vuuren et al. 2009). The extent of protected areas needed to
267 halt biodiversity loss is a central debate in conservation science, and protecting up to 50% of land area has
268 been suggested in the literature (Noss et al. 2012). However, the question cannot be answered through
269 science alone, as it entails accepting certain risk levels and levels of loss, and requires therefore value
270 judgments as well (Wilhere 2008). Identifying priority areas for conservation can take place in a systematic
271 planning framework (Margules and Pressey 2000) or by other means of prioritizing areas depending on
272 objectives and target biodiversity features in question (Brooks et al. 2006). Exploring the potential conflict
273 between conservation needs and bioenergy production, and the effect of enhanced conservation action for
274 bioenergy potential, would make the necessary trade-offs and compromises more transparent and open
275 for debate. Moreover, it is not clear how bioenergy potential varies between different management

276 regimes. Would environmental considerations reduce the productivity of lands allocated to energy biomass
277 production? Research could approach these questions from both global and more localized perspectives.

278 Global scenarios are useful for policy planning at a regional or national level, as they serve as starting points
279 for further allocating land use based on more detailed information about regional or national policy
280 objectives and restrictions. However, for predicting the allocation in more detail within a country or region,
281 different types of scenarios and allocation rules are needed. In the next section, we provide
282 recommendations for using and developing IAMs from the perspective of biodiversity assessments and
283 conservation.

284 ***Conclusions and recommendations***

285 Based on our synthesis of the existing literature, we derive recommendations for 1) selecting and
286 developing modelling tools and practice based on the research question at hand, 2) using the existing IAM
287 projections in biodiversity assessments to achieve meaningful and robust outcomes, 3) using biodiversity
288 information in land-use planning, and 4) using the available scenarios in regional bioenergy planning.
289 Overall, we propose tighter integration of conservation values and needs as well as climate change impacts
290 to land-use allocation and biodiversity impact assessments (Fig. 2).

291 The choice of appropriate research tool depends on the research question and scale. IAMs have been
292 designed to address questions at global or large regional scales, and are therefore appropriate tools for
293 analyzing questions related to aggregated impacts of alternative policy developments, broad impacts of
294 bioenergy on biodiversity, and issues related to indirect land use. For questions at local scale, however,
295 local land use models might be more suitable. Tools designed for different scales could be used in
296 combination. IAMs can, for example, provide information on boundary conditions for regional level models
297 that have a higher spatial resolution. These regional tools can subsequently account for habitat quality
298 implications of harvesting logging residues for energy production, and integrating current and future
299 conservation values and needs in the land-use allocation rules. We argue that land-use scenarios could be
300 adjusted to better meet the needs of biodiversity impact assessments, if their spatial accuracy would be
301 increased through considerations of regional processes (Hellmann and Verburg 2011) also in the longer
302 term projections. However, increasing spatial accuracy of the land-use scenarios would need to happen
303 through more detailed policy storylines and processes at a relevant scale. This could mean, for example,
304 that a model with more detailed input information and higher spatial resolution would be applied to the
305 boundary conditions set by a global, more general model. When spatial accuracy is increased, also the
306 sensitivity of predictions to errors increase, so the predictions should be accompanied by quantified

307 estimations of uncertainty. Careful consideration of the trade-off between spatial resolution of scenarios
308 and time scale is necessary to ensure that conclusions based on scenarios are robust to, or properly
309 acknowledge, the associated uncertainty.

310 Assessment of bioenergy impacts on biodiversity would gain significantly, if it was possible to assess the
311 impacts of changing forestry practices due to energy harvesting of logging residues. Existing empirical
312 evidence of the biodiversity impacts could help in formulating the relationship. Current and future
313 conservation value of sites could be integrated in the set of land-use allocation rules so that the land-use
314 allocation algorithm would avoid assigning cells to bioenergy feedstock production or other intensive
315 management when they contain high value for biodiversity conservation. Comparing land-use scenarios
316 with and without trade-offs could be used to assess how different considerations affect the economic,
317 ecological and social costs and benefits of different scenarios.

318 We believe that, even though IAMs were not developed for biodiversity assessments, they provide
319 meaningful input for such assessments. However, such scenarios should not be used to predict
320 consequences for biodiversity disregarding the direct impacts of climate change (de Chazal and Rounsevell
321 2009). Despite uncertainty associated to bioclimatic envelope models (Buisson et al. 2010; Garcia et al.
322 2011; Pearson and Dawson 2003), climate change impacts on biodiversity have been predicted to be
323 substantial, and worryingly in line with observed ongoing biodiversity trends even though time lags in
324 responses are not negligible (Bertrand et al. 2011; Devictor et al. 2012; Dullinger et al. 2012). In addition,
325 when interpreting the impacts of bioenergy on species, habitats and conservation opportunities, it is
326 important to bear in mind that not all bioenergy impacts can be explicitly inferred from IAM outputs. The
327 most important limitation is the impact of energy harvesting of logging residues, or associated impacts for
328 forestry management practices.

329 Conservation value and need are currently not considered in the IAM framework. To minimize conflicts
330 between biodiversity conservation and bioenergy, biodiversity information could be used to inform the
331 allocation of bioenergy cells. When potential bioenergy feedstock productivity for each site can be
332 calculated, spatial optimization tools can also be used to allocate bioenergy production so that bioenergy
333 targets are met with the least possible impact on biodiversity (Stoms et al. 2012). Such approaches are
334 current practice in modern conservation planning where land-use conflicts are accounted for. Trade-offs
335 between optimal allocation of bioenergy feedstock production and conservation could also be quantified
336 with a replacement cost analysis (Cabeza and Moilanen, 2006; Moilanen et al. 2009).

337 Global scenarios of environmental change can quantify the magnitude of the impact on land-use change at
338 a regional level, and thereby inform the debate on how mitigation actions affect adaptation opportunities
339 and needs. Furthermore, they can help identifying potential conflicts between different goals. This
340 information is valuable for planning policy to provide the conflict-avoiding guidance and steering. While
341 those who contribute to developing and implementing complex predictive models are well aware of their
342 limitations and associated uncertainties, those who use the outputs as policy support may not be that
343 familiar with the proper interpretations.

344 Regional policy planning can gain from global land-use scenarios, even if the policy storylines or level of
345 spatial detail do not account for specific regional policy goals and measures. They provide a starting point
346 for more detailed assessment: how would different land-use demands distribute further in a regional policy
347 context? Identifying areas with high risk of conflict between biodiversity value and bioenergy production
348 can help formulate policy in such a way that it steers bioenergy production away from sites where harm on
349 biodiversity would be substantial. For example, the European Union legislation excludes bioenergy
350 production in protected areas, primary forests or highly diverse grasslands (European Parliament 2009), but
351 does not define what high biodiversity value means (Eickhout et al. 2008). While the existing scenarios
352 account for current protected areas (van Vuuren et al. 2010; Sacchelli et al. 2013), policy must acknowledge
353 the insufficiency of current conservation measures to halt the loss of biodiversity and allow adaptation to
354 climate change.

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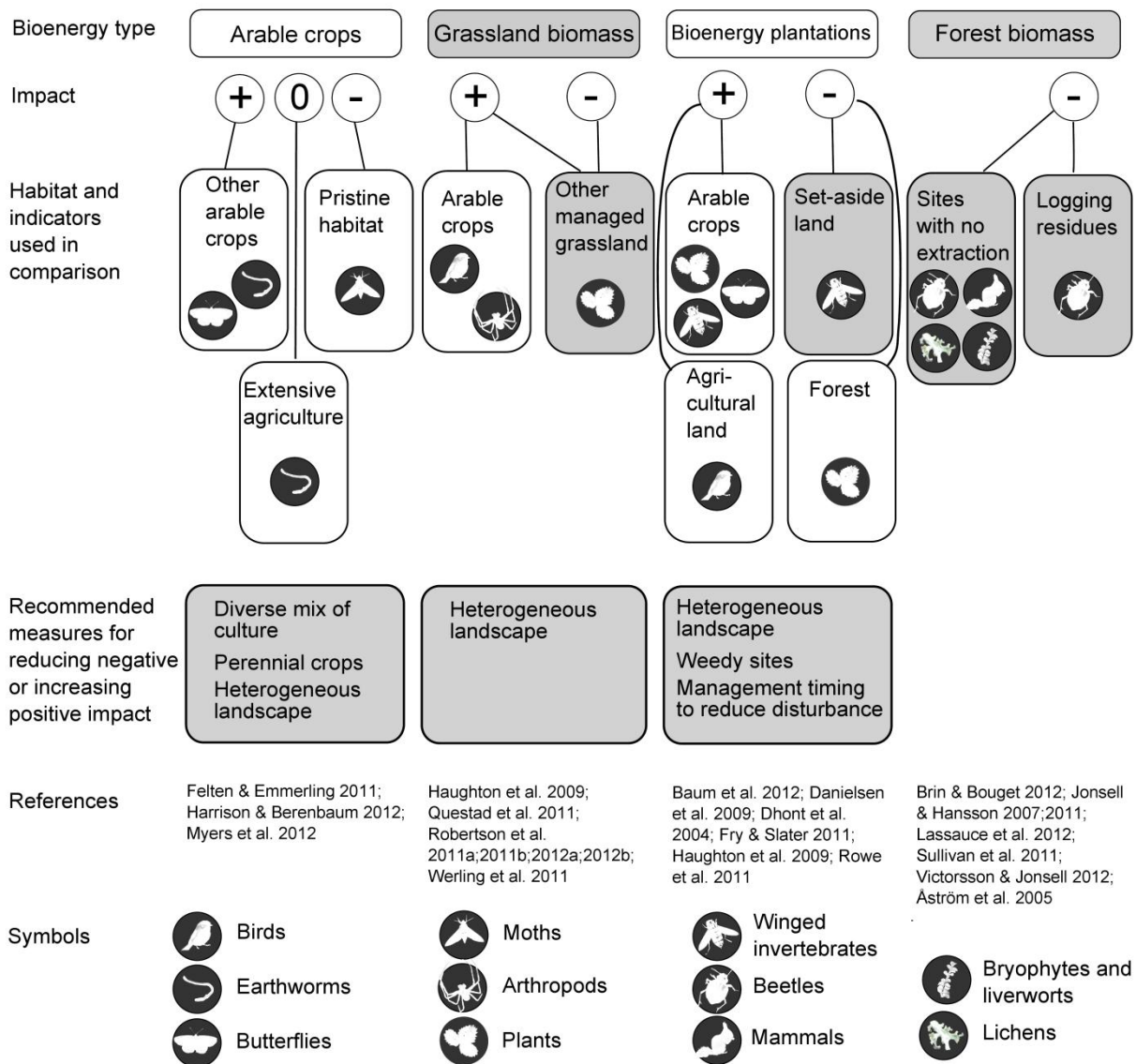
593 *Table and figures*

594 **Table 1** Examples of scenario studies addressing biodiversity impacts of bioenergy, including their key findings.

Scale of study	Observed/ Predicted (timescale)	Type of bioenergy	Reference scenario	Climate change mitigation acknowledged	Indicator	Impact	References
National	Predicted (not specified)	Woody debris	No extraction	No	Basidiomycetes	Negative	Dahlberg et al. 2011
Subnational	Predicted (not specified)	LIHD vs. HILD		No	Birds	Negative for HILD, positive for LIHD	Meehan et al. 2010
Europe	Predicted (2020)	Short-rotation coppice	Homogeneous agricultural landscape	No	Plants, birds	Positive in general, no benefit for endangered species	Langeveld et al. 2012
Europe	Predicted (2030)	Arable crops	Baseline with less or no bioenergy	No	High nature value farmland	Negative	Hellmann & Verburg 2010
Europe	Predicted (2030)	Arable crops; woody biomass	Baseline with less or no bioenergy	No	Mammals, reptiles, amphibians, birds, vascular plants, freshwater fish, aquatic macrobenthos, butterflies	Negative	Eggers et al. 2009
Global	Predicted (2050)	Woody biomass, logging and agricultural residues, arable crops	Baseline with less or no bioenergy	Yes	Mean species abundance /bioregion	Negative	Alkemade et al. 2009

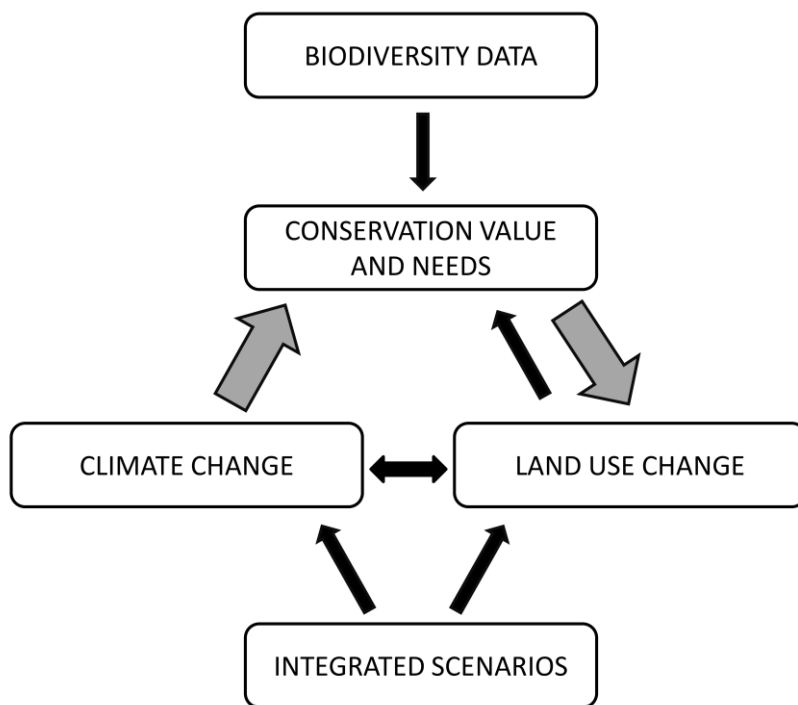
595

596 **Fig. 1** Examples of recent empirical studies addressing biodiversity in bioenergy feedstock production
 597 sites in comparison to a reference land-use type. Grey boxes represent feedstock types, impacts or
 598 recommendations that cannot be addressed with current global land-use scenarios.



599

600 **Fig. 2** Links between biodiversity data, conservation value and needs, land-use change and climate
601 change. Black arrows represent links in current assessments, thick grey arrows present links that
602 should be better integrated in the assessment framework.



603