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Confronting deep uncertainty in the forest carbon industry

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1 Confronting deep uncertainty in the forest carbon industry

2 Value of Information, resilience-based and service-focused approaches from other sectors

3 could reduce contentions, costs and injustices in the sector.

4 Forest carbon offsetting is a billion-dollar industry attracting considerable criticism. This

5 criticism stems in part from doubts about methods used to measure and causally attribute

- 6 changes in tree cover and biomass (and thus in tree carbon) (1). The industry is thus pursuing
- 7 increasingly detailed measurement and monitoring of carbon outcomes and risks, based on
 8 the assumption that this will improve accuracy and offset integrity (2). However, recent
- 8 the assumption that this will improve accuracy and offset integrity (2). However, recent
 9 scientific advances (3) imply that many forest landscapes are subject to 'deep uncertainty'.
- 9 scientific advances (3) imply that many forest landscapes are subject to 'deep uncertainty'.
 10 Claims of high accuracy in assessing carbon change are thus likely to remain inherently
- 11 contestable—regardless of the technology or methodology deployed. Further, demands for
- 12 such accuracy are likely to perpetuate inefficiencies and injustices amongst carbon suppliers
- 13 (2, 4). 'Value of Information' (5) and resilience-based approaches (6) from other sectors (e.g.
- 14 health, finance, conservation, and telecommunications), may offer alternative solutions. More
- 15 radically, service-focused models could negate the need for highly accurate measurements of
- 16 outcomes at all (7).

17 Deep uncertainty in forest systems

18 Markets thrive on good information. Buyers and regulators in the forest carbon market thus

- 19 demand this from carbon suppliers, certification standards, monitoring services and rating
- 20 agencies. In turn, these 'supply-side' actors are incentivized to differentiate their offerings
- 21 through competing claims of superiority in certainty, transparency, and even 'truth' (8).
- 22 Supply-side actors survive on their ability to convincingly quantify and causally attribute
- 23 carbon change.
- 24 But the science is far from settled on how (or even if) it is possible to do this in a robust way.
- 25 Commodification of forest carbon relies on the principles of additionality, leakage and
- 26 permanence. Additionality requires that changes in carbon sequestration or stocks would not
- 27 have occurred in the counterfactual (e.g. business as usual) scenario (a.k.a. the baseline);
- controlling for leakage requires that interventions do not increase emissions elsewhere (e.g.
- 29 through direct displacement within the project area, or by increasing timber and agricultural
- 30 commodity prices and production in other locations). Permanence requires that carbon stocks
- 31 remain sequestered on decadal or centennial timescales.
- 32 To assess these principles, the market relies on estimated changes in tree cover and biomass,
- and assessments of their causality and risk. Such analytics and monitoring can consume most
- of a forest carbon project's revenues (9), and investments in new commercial analytical
- 35 services reach into the tens of millions of dollars (8). Such analyses also underpin perennial
- 36 disagreements about the effectiveness of many projects (1).
- 37 Yet science tells us that these analyses—and thus the commodity of forest carbon—are likely
- 38 to remain uncertain. Forest landscapes are complex and dynamic systems where tree cover
- and biomass fluctuate in response to diverse interactions between natural (e.g. tree mortality,
- 40 competition, pests, herbivory and natural fires) and anthropogenic drivers (e.g. land clearing,
- 41 wood harvesting). Critically, the relative influence of these drivers varies greatly even across
- small areas, and are usually only partially understood, and only partially observable (*3*).
- 43 In ecology, this evidence has seen a shift away from theories of climax communities and
- 44 single stable states (e.g. where undisturbed forests were assumed to continually increase in
- 45 biomass before reaching a predictable and stable maximum), towards more dynamic

- 46 understandings of non-linearity and hysteresis—and even of alternative (or the absence of)
- 47 stable states. Strong evidence now exists that tree cover and biomass fluctuate in ways that
- 48 are hard (and sometimes impossible) to precisely understand, predict and control (10).
- 49 These advances sit uncomfortably with claims of high certitude about forest carbon change.
- 50 Certainty in additionality and leakage would imply that it is possible to reliably measure
- 51 current biomass states at relatively fine scales, and that one can robustly attribute its causality
- 52 (e.g. through objective counterfactual scenarios and baselines). Permanence would imply that
- 53 forest biomass can be made to reach something akin to a climax community with stable levels 54 of carbon. But a conservative interpretation of the current science (*3*) indicates that, no matter
- 55 the technologies deployed, causal attributions of forest change and expectations of quasi-
- 56 stable biomass would remain contestable (even where claims are retrospective, e.g. in *ex-post*
- 57 crediting models). That is, many forest carbon interventions operate in something akin to
- 58 'deep uncertainty'—a world of unknown unknowns (11).
- 59 Deep-type uncertainty subsequently points to a more fundamental tension between dominant
- 60 forest carbon offset methodologies and advances in the understanding of complexity in
- 61 social-ecological systems. Even if it were possible to robustly assess changes in a singular
- 62 system state variable (e.g. tonnes of forest carbon sequestered), complexity science suggests
- 63 that doing so would (on its own) provide little insight about whether a system has undergone
- a sustained (e.g. 'permanent') regime change (or transformation) to a new (e.g. higher
- 65 carbon) state (12). Such changes are instead more closely associated with the broader stability
- landscape of the system (e.g. the enduring environmental, social and economic factors thatencourage or discourage changes in tree biomass) and the ability of an intervention to
- 68 manoeuvre (i.e. their adaptive capacity) to retain a desired state in the face of (unanticipated)
- 69 shocks and stresses (i.e. its general resilience).
- 70 Many carbon schemes do assess 'risks' to additionally, leakage and permanence from
- 71 specific environmental, social and economic factors. However, by definition these risk
- 72 assessments can only address 'known knowns' that can be anticipated, and about which one
- can estimate probabilities and impacts (11). They therefore can say little about the likelihood
- an intervention will prevail in the face of unanticipated (and sometimes incomputable) shocks
- and stresses (i.e. deep uncertainty). Thus, not only are quantifications of forest carbon
- outcomes and associated (specific) risks likely to remain contestable, but subsequent claims
- of permanence are also likely to be inherently precarious.
- 78 The costs and injustices of claims to accuracy
- 79 Supply-side actors have tended to respond to these challenges by investing in ever more
- 80 detailed technical measures for assessing carbon outcomes and risk (e.g. conservative
- 81 estimates of carbon removals; new modelling and monitoring technologies; offset insurance
- 82 products; blockchain-enabled transparency measures; automated risk assessments) (2, 8, 13).
- 83 Yet evidence of deep uncertainty in forest landscapes suggests that scepticism about
- 84 measurement accuracy will remain a stubborn burden on the sector.
- 85 This burden currently manifests in different ways. For one, it continues to cause disputes
- about the worth of different carbon schemes (1). Such disputes not only threaten the
- 87 reputations (and so survival) of these individual projects, but also diminish market confidence
- 88 more widely. Persistent uncertainty drives volatility in prices and revenues, and has led to an
- 89 arms race in the sophistication and thus cost of competing (and still contested) verification
- 90 methodologies (2). Volatile prices and growing compliance costs subsequently become the
- 91 main barriers to entry for suppliers, rendering unviable up to 80% of potential projects in the
- 92 tropics (9).

- 93 Overburdensome compliance demands can also fuel unfair and inefficient outcomes. In the
- 94 tropics, many carbon suppliers are local organisations, communities or smallholders from
- 95 poor areas. Often these suppliers have little capacity to negotiate on the rules to which they
- are subjected(4), and can be pressured to redirect already-scarce resources towards
- 97 questionably complex and costly compliance measures (*14*). Flawed rules can also cause
- suppliers to be held to external standards of certainty and performance that are virtually
- 99 unachievable (15). Such unfair, costly and restrictive conditions can subsequently combine to
- 100 hinder efficiency and innovation (*16*). Ultimately, none of this is good for buyers, suppliers
- 101 or the climate.

102 Ideas from other sectors

- 103 For the above reasons, and others, some deeply transformative proposals advocate discarding
- 104 market-based approaches to forest conservation entirely (e.g. conservation basic income)(17).
- 105 Here we point to existing practices from other sectors that may inspire improvements in the
- already (economically and politically entrenched) market-based model.
- 107 For one, health, financial, conservation and other sectors sometimes deploy 'Value of
- 108 Information' (VOI) approaches to assess when generating more detailed data and information
- 109 is worth the cost, relative to marginal changes in certitude, useability and user-perceived
- 110 legitimacy(5). Certification organisations, regulators and other rule-makers in the forest
- 111 carbon industry could explore similar approaches to more objectively assess what level of
- 112 complexity is actually warranted in measurement and monitoring. More broadly, the industry
- 113 could explore introducing a fundamental principle of parsimony in methodologies, rules and
- assessments—where approaches should be no more complicated than they need to be(*18*).
- 115 Another opportunity stems from a potential shift from risk- to resilience-based approaches to
- assessing and managing uncertainty. Energy, telecommunications and other sectors approach
- 117 deep uncertainty by investing in (and assessing) their technical, organisational, social and
- 118 economic readiness to persist in the face of unknown shocks and stresses—i.e. their adaptive
- 119 capacity and general resilience(6). The forest carbon industry could explore ways to emulate
- these sectors by moderating its emphasis on the precision of (in any case uncertain) estimated
- outcomes, and instead more closely relating offset quality to the adaptive capacity (and
 subsequent general resilience) of the underlying intervention—e.g. the depth and breadth of
- subsequent general resinence) of the underlying intervention—e.g. the deput and oreadin skills, knowledge, labour and resources available, and the strength of institutional
- governance, inclusivity and learning(6, 12). Higher adaptive capacity also usually engenders
- higher levels of stakeholder consultation and participation, thus also enhancing social equity
- and legitimacy(16). Some dimensions of adaptive capacity are already considered in various
- 127 offset risk assessments and ratings—but they are often relegated in importance relative to
- 128 (likely contestable) outcome-focused metrics, and focus only on 'known knowns'(8, 13).
- 129 Complexity science(11) and approaches from other sectors(6) suggest broader adaptive
- 130 capacity and general resilience could be made more central indicators of offset quality.
- 131 Somewhat more radically, some operators in these sectors address uncertainty by adopting
- 132 service-focused models that allow trading to proceed in the near-total absence of accurate
- 133 measurements of outcomes. By employing 'efforts standards' from contract law, buyers pay
- suppliers to maximise delivery of a service, even if there is uncertainty about the precise level
- 135 of final delivery possible(7). For example, internet service providers agree to undertake
- specific measures within their control (i.e. 'best efforts') to maximise the speed and stability
- 137 of a service up to a maximum potential level—even if the actual level may be only
- approximately known, and may fluctuate due to events outside of their control (e.g. internet
- 139 traffic; weather damage to infrastructure).

- 140 For carbon suppliers, systems theory provides a basis for assuming that while the precise
- 141 level of a desired system function (e.g. forest carbon sequestration) may not be knowable, it
- 142 can be assumed to be maximised over time when actors (e.g. forest stewards) use their
- 143 adaptive capacity (e.g. their rights and available capital) to maximise the general resilience of 144 a desired system state (e.g. a landscape with more trees) to (often unanticipated) shocks and
- a desired system state (e.g. a landscape with more trees) to (often unanticipated) shocks and
 stresses (e.g. political and economic drivers of deforestation)(*12*) (Biggs et al. 2012). Thus,
- from a complexity perspective, rewarding carbon suppliers based upon their adaptive
- 147 capacity and related activities (rather than inherently uncertain outcomes) may be sufficient
- 148 to guarantee that they are maximising carbon sequestration. Indeed, such adaptive capacity
- 149 and resilience (and ultimately system transformation) is increasingly argued to be what really
- 150 matters for a sustainable biosphere in face of unpredictable global change(19, 20). Such an
- approach might be similar to activity-based models that already exist in the sector (21), but
- would be more clearly underpinned by complexity theory and resilience-thinking. Crucially,
- payments to providers could still be 'conditional'—a defining feature of carbon offsets, as
 opposed to non-conditional transfers (e.g. 'contribution approaches' in conservation) (21).
- opposed to non-conditional transfers (e.g. contribution approaches in conservation) (21).
- 155 The exact modalities of how such an experimental approach could apply in practice would
- need to be explored, along with how it links to the currently-entrenched, commodity focused
- (payments-by-tonnes-of-carbon) market infrastructure. But where there is a buyer there is away, and judging by other sectors, a service-focused model may be sufficient for some.
- way, and judging by other sectors, a service-focused model may be sufficient for some.
- 159 Whatever the models that might emerge, service focused approaches would likely entail a
- 160 change in the value proposition to, and the expectations of, buyers and policy makers towards
- something akin to making 'conditional investments in sustainable and just future
- 162 landscapes'—rather than purchasing specific amounts of (in any case contestable) offsets.
- 163 Such an approach might also align with the emerging 'carbon contribution' approach, where 164 retired credits in any case do not compensate for actual emissions (22), thus potentially
- reducing the need for precise quantification
- reducing the need for precise quantification.
- 166 Overall, we suggest that by exploring VOI, resilience-based, and service-focused approaches
- 167 the forest carbon industry may empower supply-side actors to be more realistic about what
- they can actually predict, measure and control. Generally, we propose that, by better
- 169 confronting deep uncertainty in forest systems, the forest carbon industry (and potentially
- 170 other ecological markets) may find fruitful new pathways for addressing many of the current
- 171 contentions, costs and injustices in the sector.

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