

# FORESTRY



ESTIMATES GLOBAL CLIMATE IMPACT

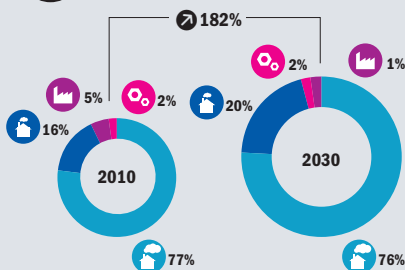
## 2010 EFFECT TODAY

**\$** USD LOSS PER YEAR **5 BILLION**

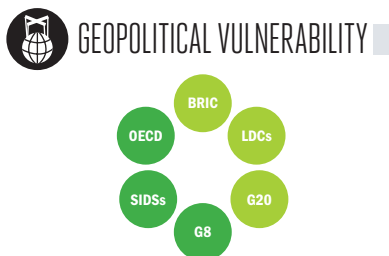
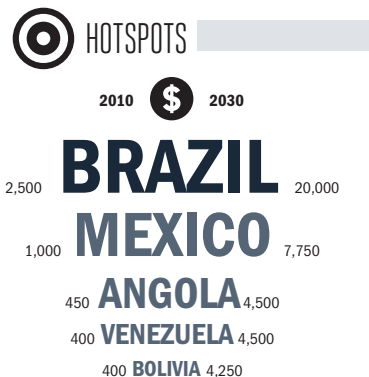
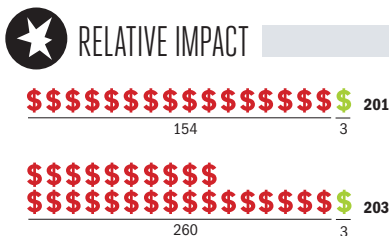
## 2030 EFFECT TOMORROW

**\$** USD LOSS PER YEAR **45 BILLION**

## **\$** ECONOMIC IMPACT



- Climate change is shifting the world's climate zones as the planet warms
- As this occurs, commercial and native tree stands are becoming stranded in climate zones with less than optimal growing conditions
- Many forests are suffering from invasive species, more extreme weather, and flooding, further compounding stresses
- As a result, forests in all regions of the world are in decline or a state of flux, although gains in forest area and growth are evident in some regions
- Reversing the large-scale, rampant deforestation of recent decades would help to attenuate new losses due to climate change



**\$** Economic Cost (2010 PPP non-discounted)  
**🇧🇩** Developing Country Low Emitters **🏭** Developed  
**🇧🇩** Developing Country High Emitters **🏭** Other Industrialized

**★** \$ = Losses per 100,000 USD of GDP  
**🎯** \$ = Millions of USD (2010 PPP non-discounted)  
**➤** Change in relation to overall global population and/or GDP

Forests cover nearly one-third of the world's land surface, and both commercial and native forests nearly everywhere are affected by the changing climate (Shvidenko et al. in Hassan et al. (eds.), 2005; Bolte et al., 2009). The potential for large-scale tree diebacks and loss of vegetation and forest biodiversity is considered significant. As the planet warms, climate zones are shifting, with stationary forests now in inhospitable conditions, triggering rapid decline and widespread tree mortality, although in some cases forests may be expanding into new areas (Gonzalez et al., 2010). The permanence of forests presents a unique challenge in terms of long-term planning and management, such as substituting tree varieties, although this is not a concern for seasonal crop-based agriculture. Communities that rely on forestry in threatened zones, including indigenous groups, are particularly at risk. If empowered through knowledge, resources, and legal support, these same communities can play a key role in helping forests to adapt. Forests are also a vital carbon sink, helping to contain GHG emissions, which widespread tree mortality counteracts (Kurz et al., 2008).

## CLIMATE MECHANISM

Heat stress, increased propensity to drought and flooding, all consistent with climate change, can damage tree growth and forest stands (Allen et al., 2009; Lewis et al., 2011; Kramer et al., 2008). Growing risks from fires, pests, and disease are also of concern (Kurz et al., 2008). Above all, it is the shift taking place in forest habitats that outpaces the ability of stationary forests to naturally adapt (Shvidenko et al. in Hassan et al. (eds.), 2005; Bonan, 2008). Particularly affected are those tropical zones already at the maximum heat threshold, which will see further reductions in their viability as rainfall decreases. Boreal forests established at high altitudes or forest stands on permanently frozen land also risk the inevitable disappearance of their natural habitat as warming increases. Elsewhere forests have been observed, and are expected, to grow faster (McMahon et al., 2010).

## IMPACTS

The impact of climate change on the world's commercial and native forests is currently estimated to incur annual losses of around 5 billion dollars, increasing by 2030 to around 45 billion

dollars or triple the cost as a share of global GDP. Brazil and Mexico incur the largest overall losses at around 10–20 billion dollars a year in 2030. A number of lower-income countries such as Angola, Central African Republic, Timor Leste and Zambia suffer the most severe effects as a share of GDP. Other South America countries, such as Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Paraguay, and Venezuela are all also estimated to experience large-scale impacts. In general, developing countries on all continents are significantly affected. Among developed countries, Australia and Canada stand out, as well as those in Southern Europe, while Russia incurs the largest scale losses among industrialized nations. The negative effects are quite widespread, with around 50 countries showing vulnerability levels of high or above. Around 20 countries experience gains that are mainly small in scale, with the exception of Argentina, whose gains are already significant, reaching almost 10 billion dollars a year in 2030.

production over the last decade (FAOSTAT, 2012). Demand for forest products of all kinds including timber is expected to increase significantly over the coming decade. Illegal logging and deforestation, especially of native forests, remains a serious and widespread concern, with rates estimated at about 10 million hectares per year—an area larger than Greece—although in parts of Europe and North America in particular reforestation is significant (Shvidenko et al. in Hassan et al. (eds.), 2005).

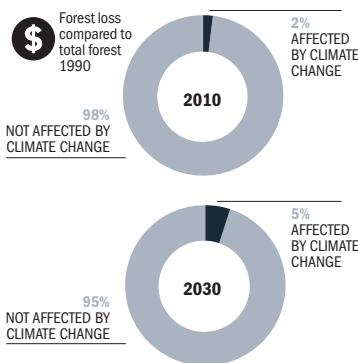
## VULNERABILITIES AND WIDER OUTCOMES

The size of forests as an economic sector and their land area constitute the main components of structural vulnerability for countries in the affected zones. In 2005, 25 countries were estimated to have no remaining forest cover; other countries have less than 10% of forest cover remaining. High rates of deforestation clearly also accentuate vulnerability by diminishing local bio-capacity to withstand changes and increasing risks of invasive pests, flooding, drought, and irrigation-driven water stress (Shvidenko et al. in

## THE BROADER CONTEXT

The Forestry sector is relatively stable, with increasing value but fluctuating

### BIGGER PICTURE



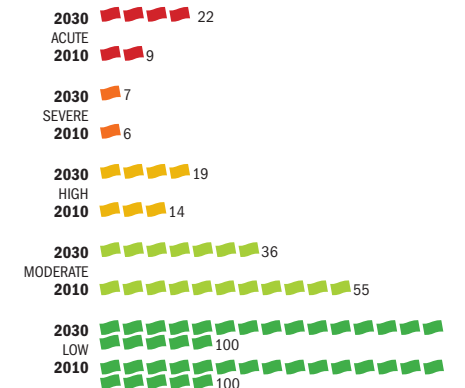
### SURGE



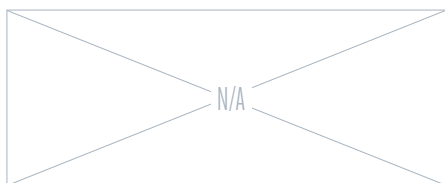
### OCCURRENCE



### VULNERABILITY SHIFT



### PEAK IMPACT



### GENDER BIAS



### INDICATOR INFORMATION

MODEL: US Forest Service (2010)  
 EMISSION SCENARIO: SRES A1B (IPCC, 2000)  
 BASE DATA: FAOSTAT (2012)

➡ = 5 countries (rounded)

Hassan et al. (eds.), 2005; Bolte et al., 2009). Vegetation vulnerability is widespread globally, with forest stands at risk on every continent and in almost all regions, and with Boreal conifer and tropical broadleaf forests equally threatened (Gonzalez et al., 2010). Reliance on forests for market and non-market benefits, from water to biodiversity to wildlife or plant products, is highest among lower-income groups. Forest-based or forest-reliant indigenous groups are also heavily dependent on the health of local forest stands (Munasinghe, 1993; Salick and Byg, 2007). Accordingly, lower-income countries and countries with significant indigenous groups have accentuated vulnerability to the impact of climate change on forests. The loss of vital ecological services as forests die back or decline is a major concern for human development (SCBD, 2009).



## RESPONSES

Despite the challenges presented, numerous responses can be foreseen to stem forest decline as a result of climate change or other man-made factors. Stand substitution with more suitable tree varieties can occur progressively; however, the substitution

options for the hottest and driest tropical zones are much more limited than elsewhere. Planting, harvesting and thinning regimes and schedules can be adjusted in accordance with altered local conditions (Bolte et al., 2009). Expanding primary forest conservation, particularly in high-risk developing countries, is a priority,

but requires increasing capacity to implement that will depend in many cases on foreign assistance (Lee and Jetz, 2008). Additional adaptation strategies may include the establishment and management of biodiversity corridors that reinforce self-supporting connections between forest and non-forest ecosystems (Tabarelli et al., 2010). Pest management could be considered in some managed forest situations. Community forest programmes that support local groups in taking a more proactive involvement in forest conservation and management or sustainable agroforestry projects have the potential to yield double dividends for the environment and development (Hella and Zavaleta, 2009). This could be extended to specific support to indigenous communities (Salick and Byg, 2007). Finally, strong environmental governance, especially if it is community-based, is also key to protecting forest ecosystems, including threats from illegal or condoned deforestation (Baltodano et al., (eds.), 2008). Payment for ecosystem services has met with success in some countries for preserving and enhancing forest ecosystems, Costa Rica being a prime example (Pagiola, 2006).

## THE INDICATOR

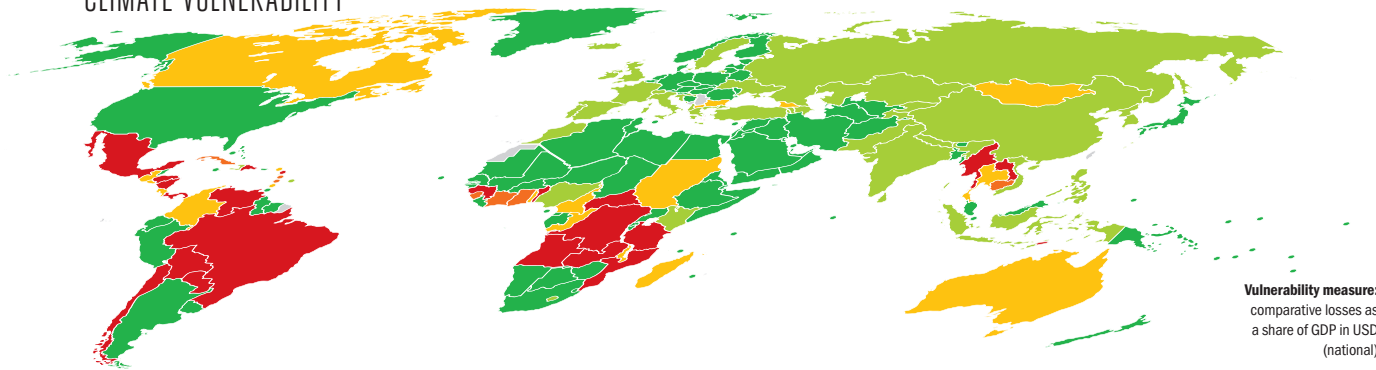
The indicator considers the scale of estimated shifts in the location and area of different forest biomes due to climate change (Gonzalez et al, 2010). Forestry and biodiversity losses are well recognized in climate science, and are closely linked to significant temperature changes (IPCC, 2007). A key limitation is the valuation method for forests of commercial and non-commercial types, including all varieties of trees in every continent. To simplify the problem, generic values are used for tropical and non-tropical forest stands, including bundled biodiversity values (Costanza et al., 2007).

COUNTRY	\$		COUNTRY	\$		COUNTRY	\$	
	2010	2030		2010	2030		2010	2030
<b>ACUTE</b>								
Angola	450	4,500	Antigua and Barbuda		1	Ireland	1	1
Benin	20	200	Australia	100	300	Italy	15	50
Bolivia	400	4,250	Bulgaria	10	100	Kazakhstan	5	75
Brazil	2,500	20,000	Cameroon	10	90	Kenya	5	30
Central African Republic	5	75	Canada	150	500	Kyrgyzstan	1	5
Chile	300	2,000	Colombia	80	900	Lesotho		
Dominica	1	10	Congo	1	20	Morocco	5	75
Dominican Republic	55	600	Costa Rica	10	150	Nepal		1
DR Congo	15	150	El Salvador	5	75	Nigeria	25	200
Guinea	10	100	Georgia	1	20	North Korea	1	5
Honduras	25	300	Grenada		5	Pakistan	1	15
Laos	5	100	Guatemala	10	150	Philippines	1	30
Mexico	1,000	7,750	Macedonia	5	35	Portugal	5	20
Mozambique	75	700	Madagascar	1	25	Russia	150	850
Myanmar	50	600	Malawi	1	10	South Korea	1	15
Nicaragua	10	150	Mongolia	1	30	Spain	35	100
Panama	35	400	Sudan/South Sudan	10	100	Sri Lanka	1	15
Paraguay	100	1,250	Thailand	100	1,500	Sweden	10	25
Tanzania	35	350	Togo	1	10	Switzerland	1	1
Timor-Leste	20	250				Tajikistan		1
Venezuela	400	4,500	<b>MODERATE</b>			Turkey	5	20
Zambia	150	1,500	Albania		1	Ukraine	1	10
			Armenia	1	5	United Kingdom	5	10
<b>SEVERE</b>			Azerbaijan	1	25	Vietnam	1	20
Cambodia	10	150	Barbados		1			
Cote d'Ivoire	10	100	China	60	650	<b>LOW</b>		
Cuba	40	450	Croatia			Afghanistan		
Ghana	15	150	France	30	90	Algeria		
Saint Lucia	1	5	Greece	10	25	Argentina	-950	-10,000
Saint Vincent		5	Haiti	1	5	Austria	-1	-10
Sierra Leone	1	10	Iceland			Bahamas		
<b>HIGH</b>			India	10	80	Bahrain		
			Indonesia	30	350	Bangladesh		-1



### CLIMATE VULNERABILITY

● Acute ● Severe ● High ● Moderate ● Low



**Vulnerability measure:**  
comparative losses as  
a share of GDP in USD  
(national)

### CLIMATE UNCERTAINTY

● Limited ● Partial ● Considerable



COUNTRY	\$		COUNTRY	\$		COUNTRY	\$	
	2010	2030		2010	2030		2010	2030
Belarus	-1	-15	Israel			Romania		-1
Belgium			Jamaica			Rwanda		
Belize			Japan	-10	-30	Samoa		
Bhutan			Jordan			Sao Tome and Principe		
Bosnia and Herzegovina			Kiribati			Saudi Arabia		
Botswana			Kuwait			Senegal		
Brunei			Latvia			Seychelles		
Burkina Faso			Lebanon			Singapore		
Burundi			Liberia			Slovakia		
Cape Verde			Libya			Slovenia		
Chad			Lithuania	-1	-5	Solomon Islands		
Comoros			Luxembourg			Somalia		
Cyprus			Malaysia			South Africa	-5	-60
Czech Republic			Maldives			Suriname		
Denmark			Mali			Swaziland		
Djibouti			Malta			Syria		
Ecuador	-40	-500	Marshall Islands			Tonga		
Egypt			Mauritania			Trinidad and Tobago		
Equatorial Guinea			Mauritius			Tunisia		
Eritrea			Micronesia			Turkmenistan		
Estonia		-1	Moldova			Tuvalu		
Ethiopia			Namibia			Uganda	-1	-10
Fiji			Netherlands			United Arab Emirates		
Finland	-5	-15	New Zealand			United States	-90	-300
Gabon			Niger			Uruguay	-5	-80
Gambia			Norway	-1	-5	Uzbekistan		
Germany	-1	-10	Oman			Vanuatu		
Guinea-Bissau			Palau			Yemen		
Guyana			Papua New Guinea			Zimbabwe		
Hungary	-1	-10	Peru	-70	-800			
Iran			Poland	-5	-40			
Iraq			Qatar					