

# THE CHALLENGES OF ASSESSING ECOSYSTEM VULNERABILITY TO CLIMATE CHANGE

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# A quick introduction to CIFOR:

- One of 15 centers in the CGIAR
- Focus on forest policy research
- Headquarters in Bogor, Indonesia
- Staff also based in Brazil, Bolivia, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Zambia, Laos, Nepal
- Research activities in more than 40 countries throughout the tropics







## CIFOR's global research agenda:

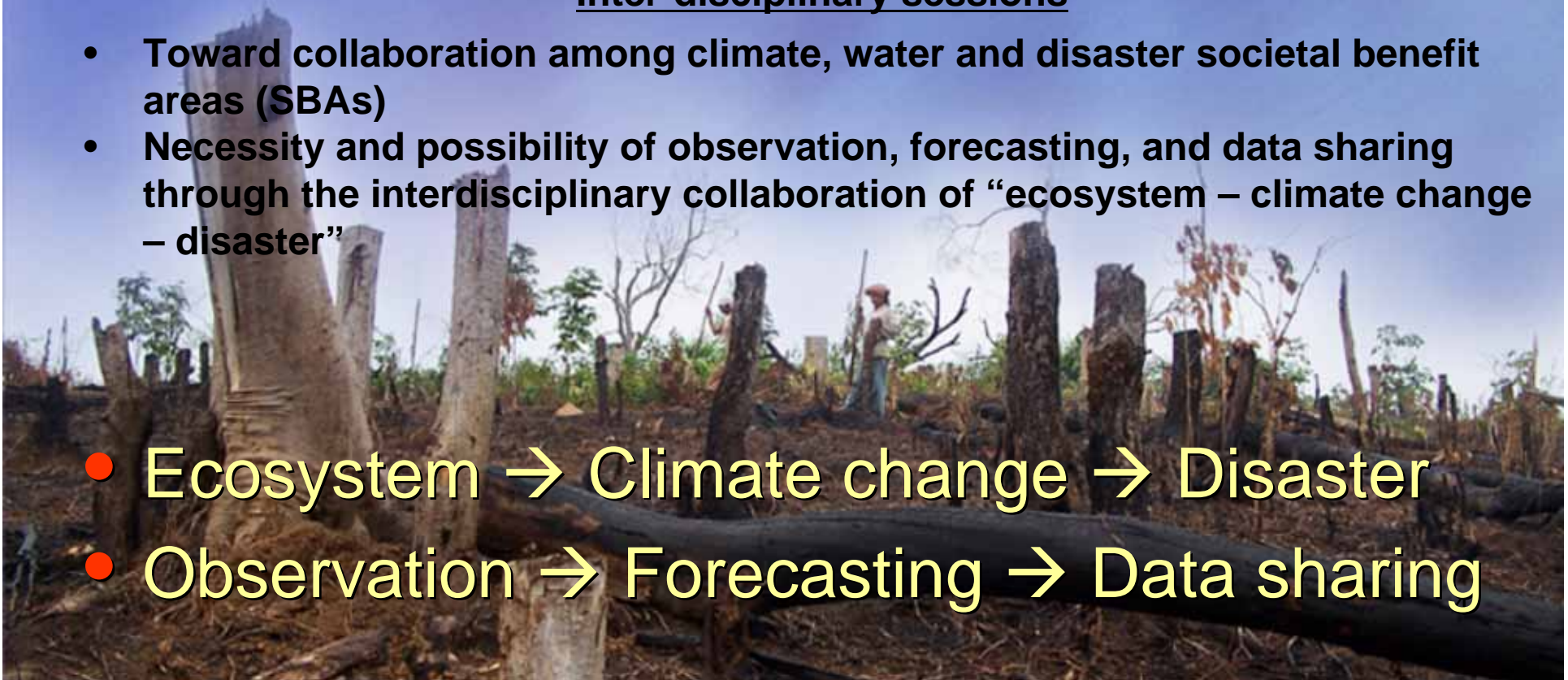
- Forests and climate change mitigation
- Forests and adaptation to climate change
- Small-scale and community forestry
- Conservation and development at landscape scale
- Impacts of trade and investment on forests
- Sustainable management of production forests

# The context

1. Monitoring and predicting climate change
2. Water cycle in the Asia-Oceanic region
3. Monitoring changes in ecosystems, biodiversity and ecosystem services
4. Earth observation and data sharing for disaster management

## Inter-disciplinary sessions

- Toward collaboration among climate, water and disaster societal benefit areas (SBAs)
  - Necessity and possibility of observation, forecasting, and data sharing through the interdisciplinary collaboration of “ecosystem – climate change – disaster”
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- Ecosystem → Climate change → Disaster
  - Observation → Forecasting → Data sharing

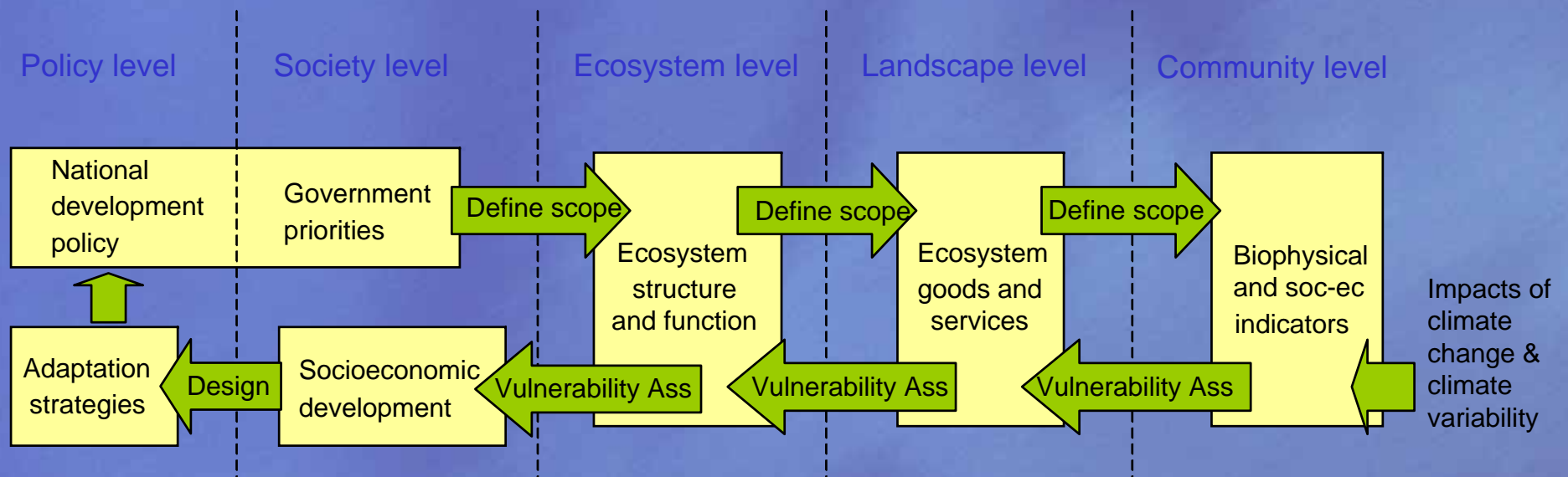




# Outline

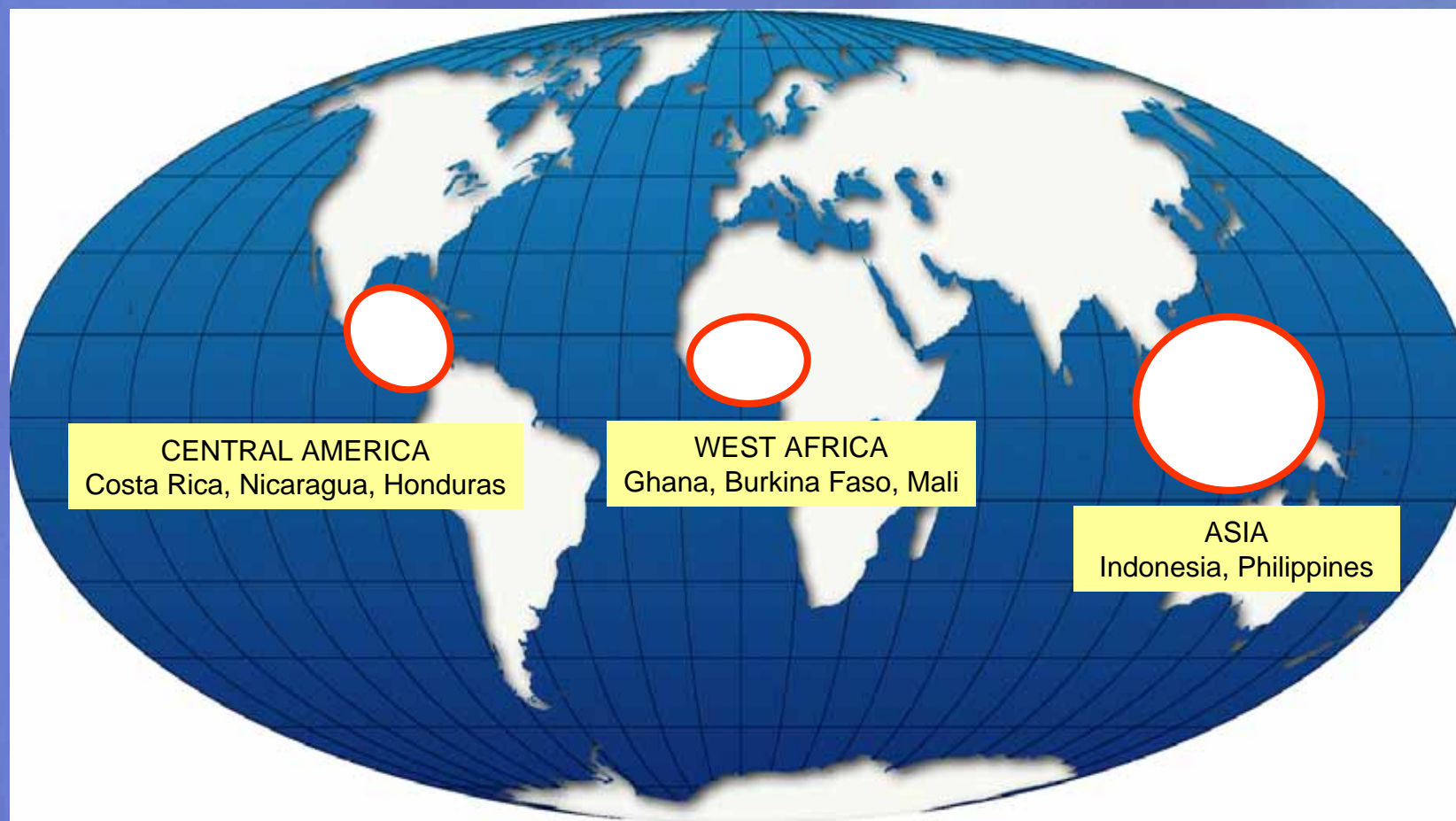
- Introduction
- Why ecosystem approach?
- How can ecosystem vulnerability be assessed?
- Where is the vulnerable ecosystem?
- What's next?: linking adaptation – mitigation
- Who should be involved in data sharing?
- Summary

# Why ecosystem approach?

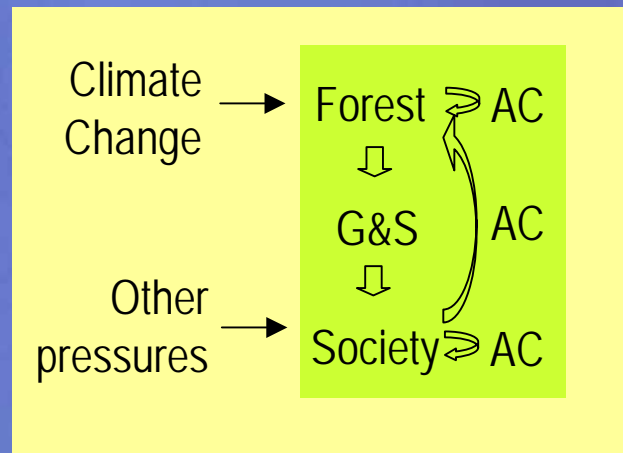




# TroFCCA - Field test sites



# Vulnerability assessment



$$\text{Vulnerability, } V = f(E, S, AC)$$

E = Exposure (CC, other stressors)

S = Sensitivity (rainfall, vegetation cover)

AC = Adaptive Capacity (of the components)

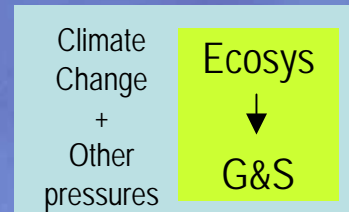
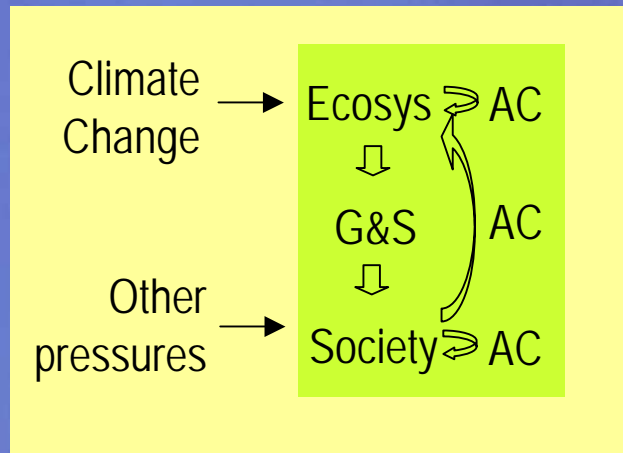
*(Metzger et al. 2006)*



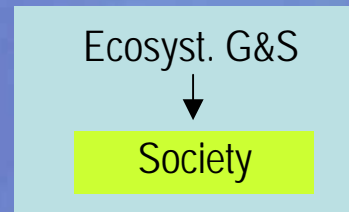


# Guiding principles

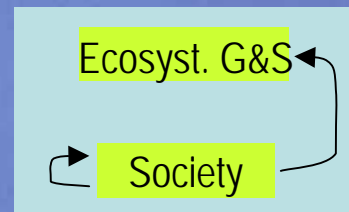
Assessing vulnerability → Split into 3 Principles (of sub-systems)



P1: Provision of relevant ecosystem goods and services are vulnerable to climate change and climate variability



P2: The social system is sensitive to changes in the provision of goods and services



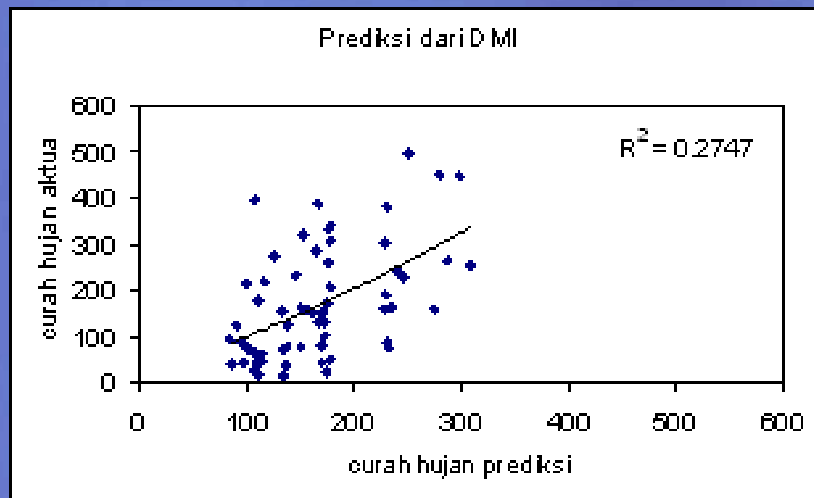
P3: The governance system is lacking adaptive capacity to respond/avoid changes in goods and services

# Developing Criteria & Indicators

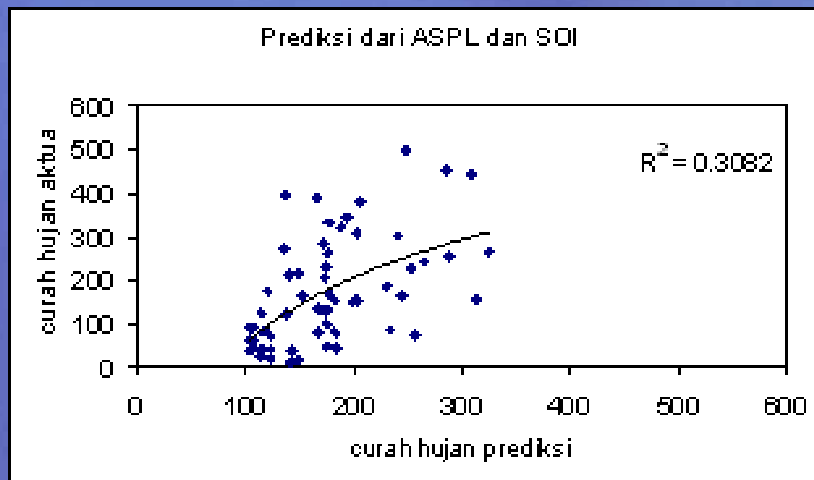
Principles → Criteria		Possible Indicators (fire)
<b>P1.</b> Provision of relevant ecosystem goods and services are vulnerable to climate change and climate variability		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Drought correlates with fire frequency</li> <li>• Climate is not the only cause of fires</li> <li>• Other biophysical parameters control the frequency, intensity and distribution of fires (fuel availability and type, canopy cover, connectivity)</li> </ul>
	<b>C11.</b> Ecosystem goods and services are exposed and sensitive to climate variability and climate change	
	<b>C12.</b> Given the state and pressure on ecosystem, natural adaptive capacity is low	
<b>P2.</b> The social system is sensitive to changes in the provision of relevant goods and services		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fire effects on people livelihoods</li> <li>• Societal responses</li> <li>• Returns to land and labour</li> </ul>
	<b>C21.</b> The social [human] system is highly dependent to the relevant goods and services	
	<b>C22.</b> Sustainable and cost-effective substitutes for the lost goods and services are not available	
<b>P3.</b> The social and governance system is lacking adaptive capacity to respond/avoid changes in good and services		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Effectiveness of implementation of regulations and laws,</li> <li>• Level of education, implementation of non-adaptive regulations/ policies,</li> <li>• Government effectiveness and efficiency affect the effectiveness of fire prevention and water management.</li> </ul>
	<b>C31.</b> The social system is lacking adaptive capacity to respond to or to avoid changes in good and services	
	<b>C32.</b> Policies increase vulnerability	



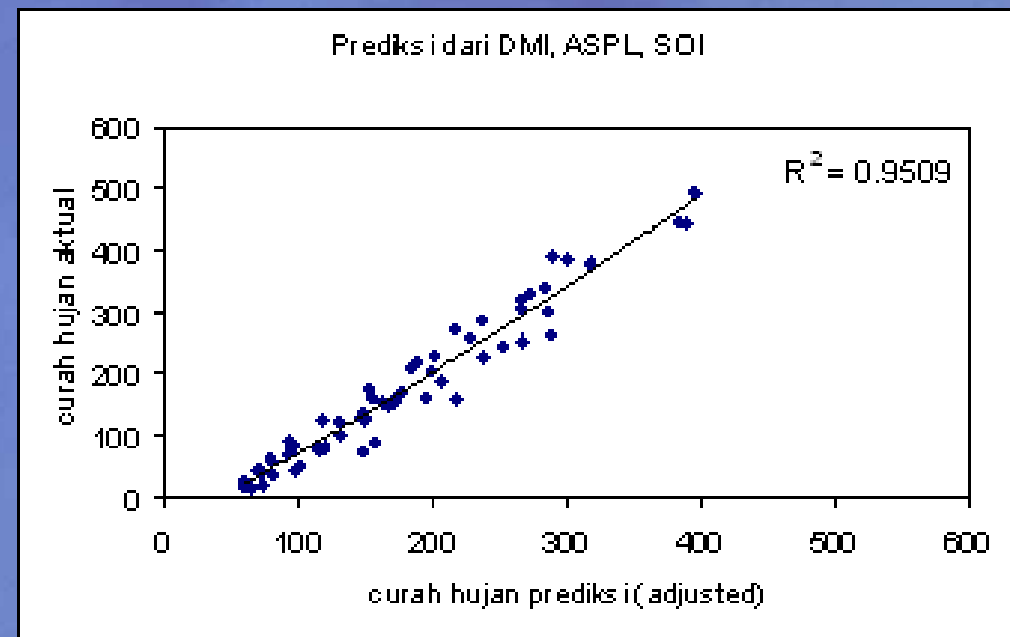
# Validation of rainfall predictions



Predictor: IDME

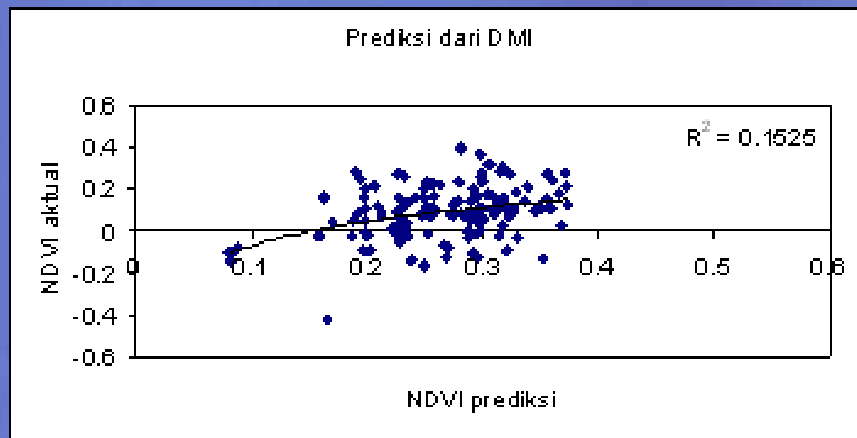


Predictor: ENSO

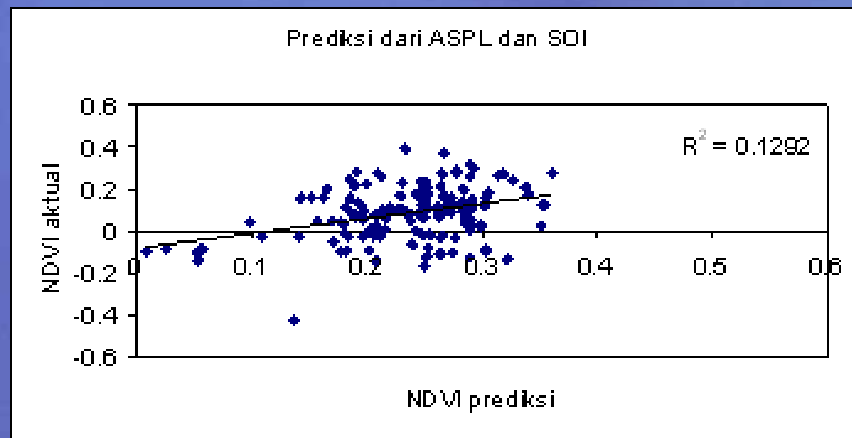


Predictor: IDME & ENSO

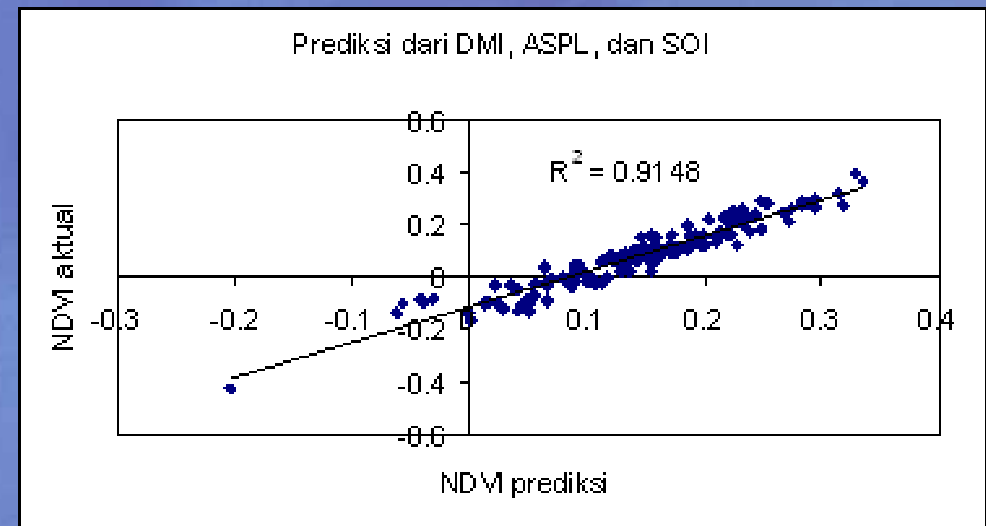
# Validation of NDVI predictions



Predictor: DME



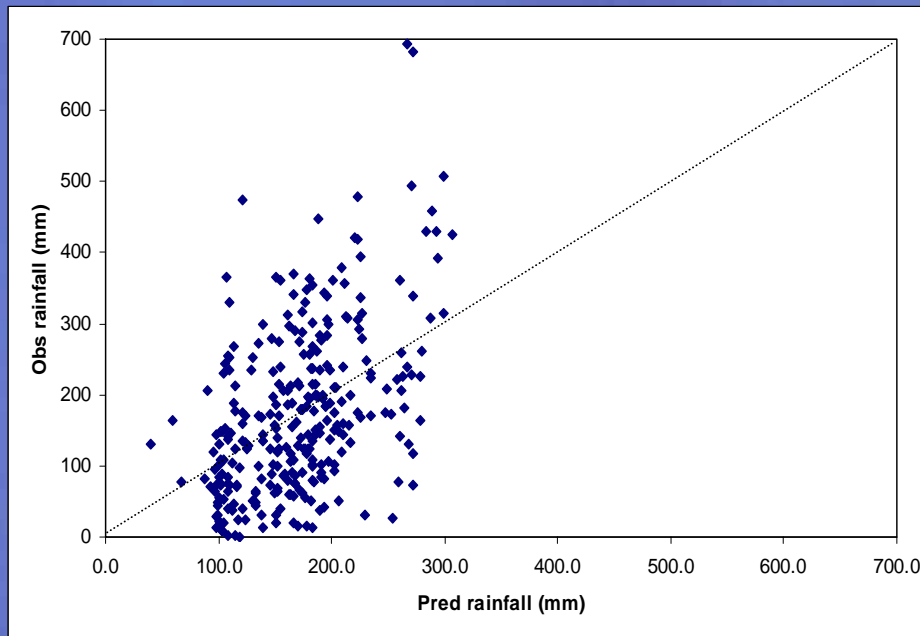
Predictor: ENSO



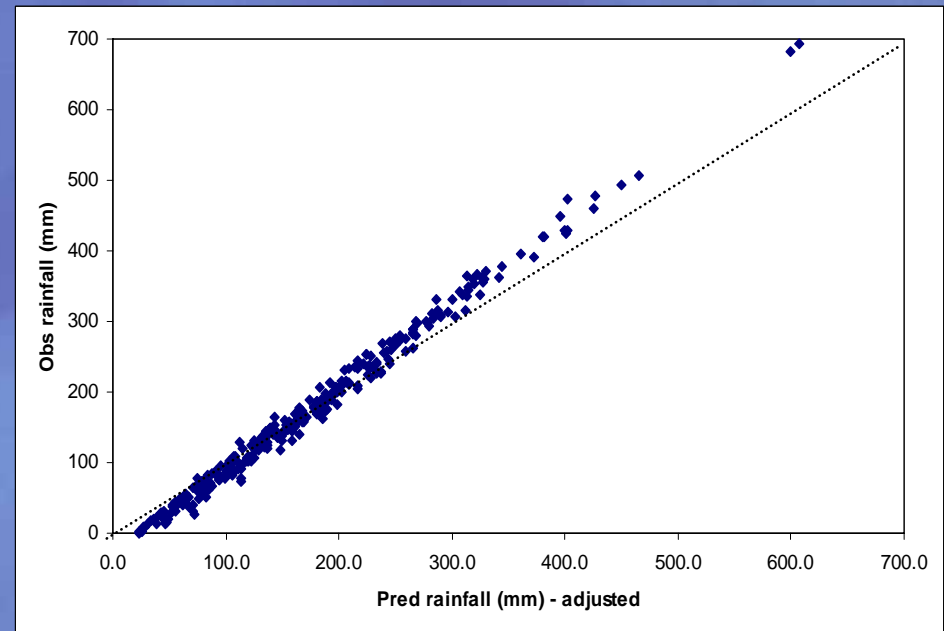
Predictor: DME & ENSO



# Predicted vs observed rainfall with 1 month time lag

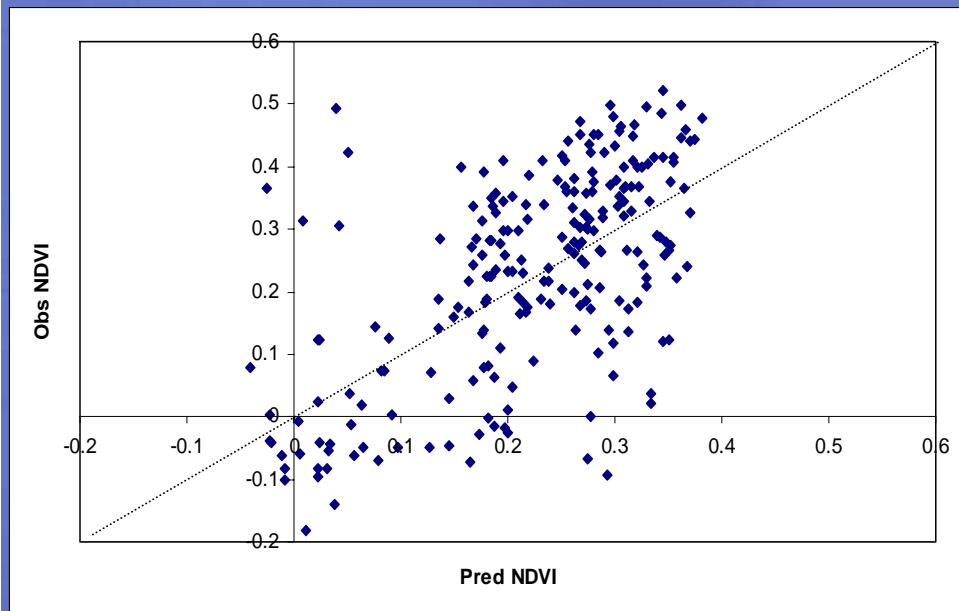


Before adjustment

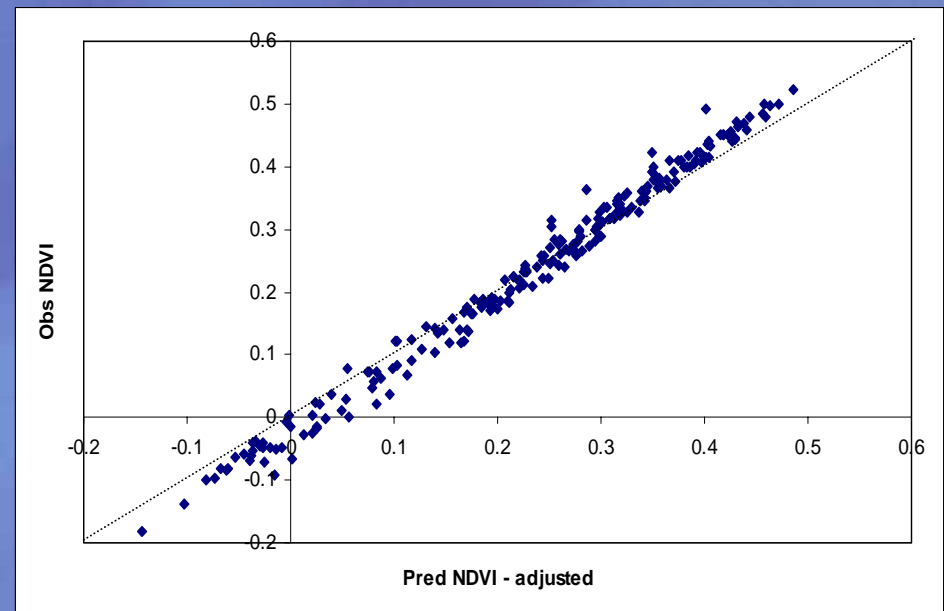


After adjustment

# Predicted vs observed NDVI with 1 month time lag

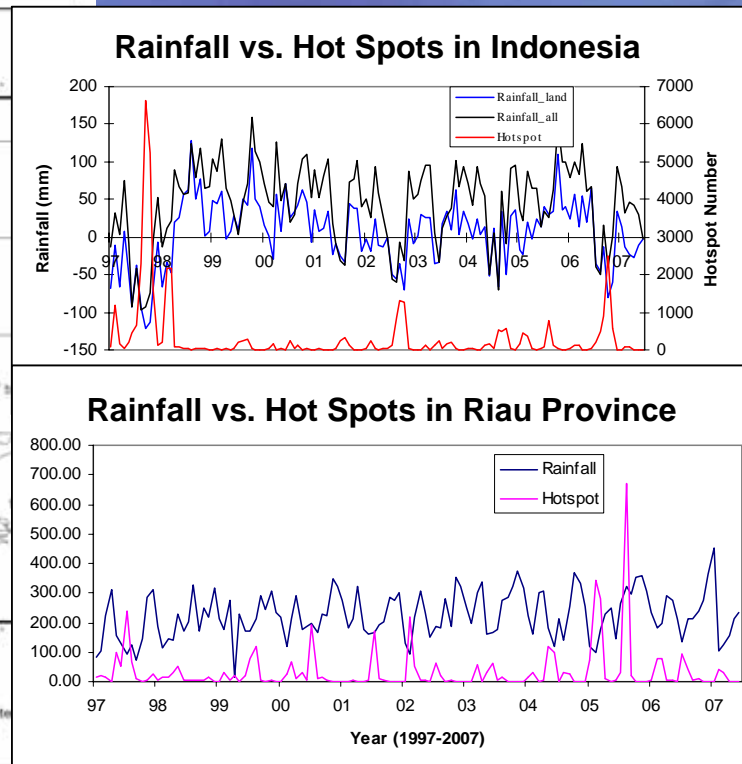
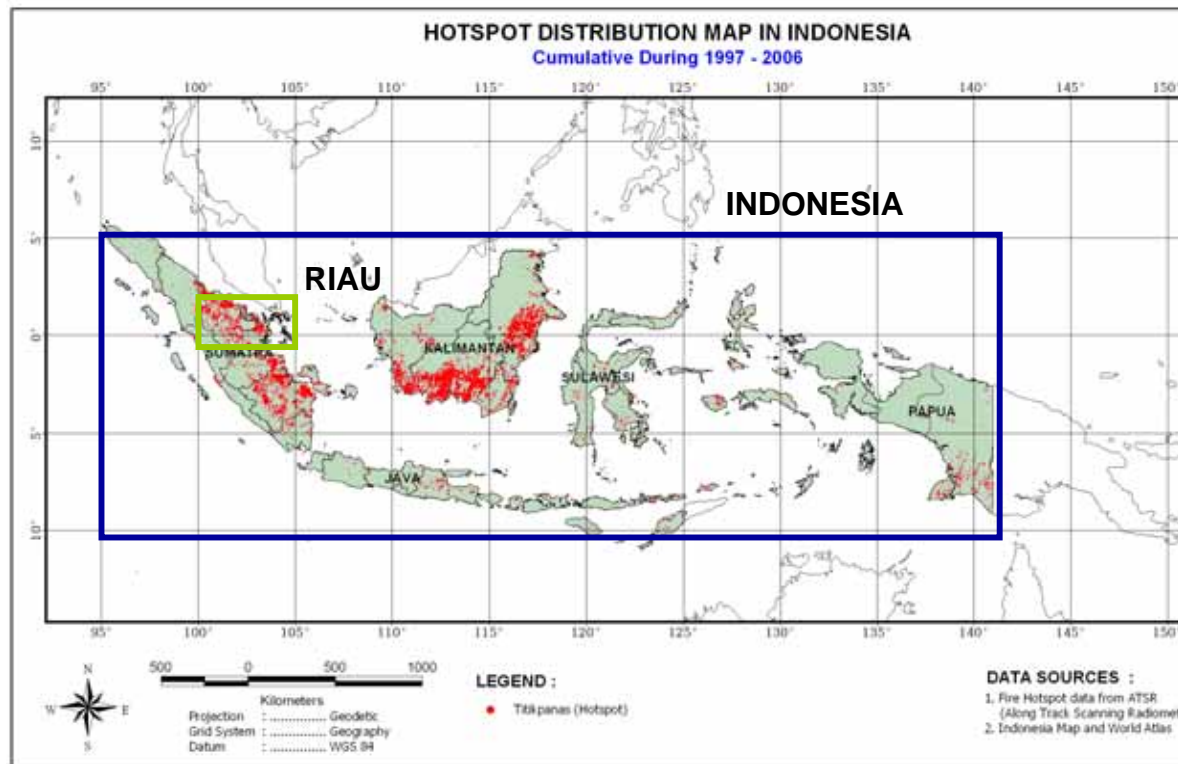


Before adjustment



After adjustment

# Observing hotspots – good predictor?



- Correlation between rainfall anomaly and hotspot occurrence is significant for Indonesia (country-wide), but less significant for Riau Province
- Probability of high to very-high fire risk drops with the increase of rainfall from 33.3% (below normal) to 16.7% (normal), and to 4.8% (above normal)
- Hotspot occurrences were repeatedly observed at about the same areas

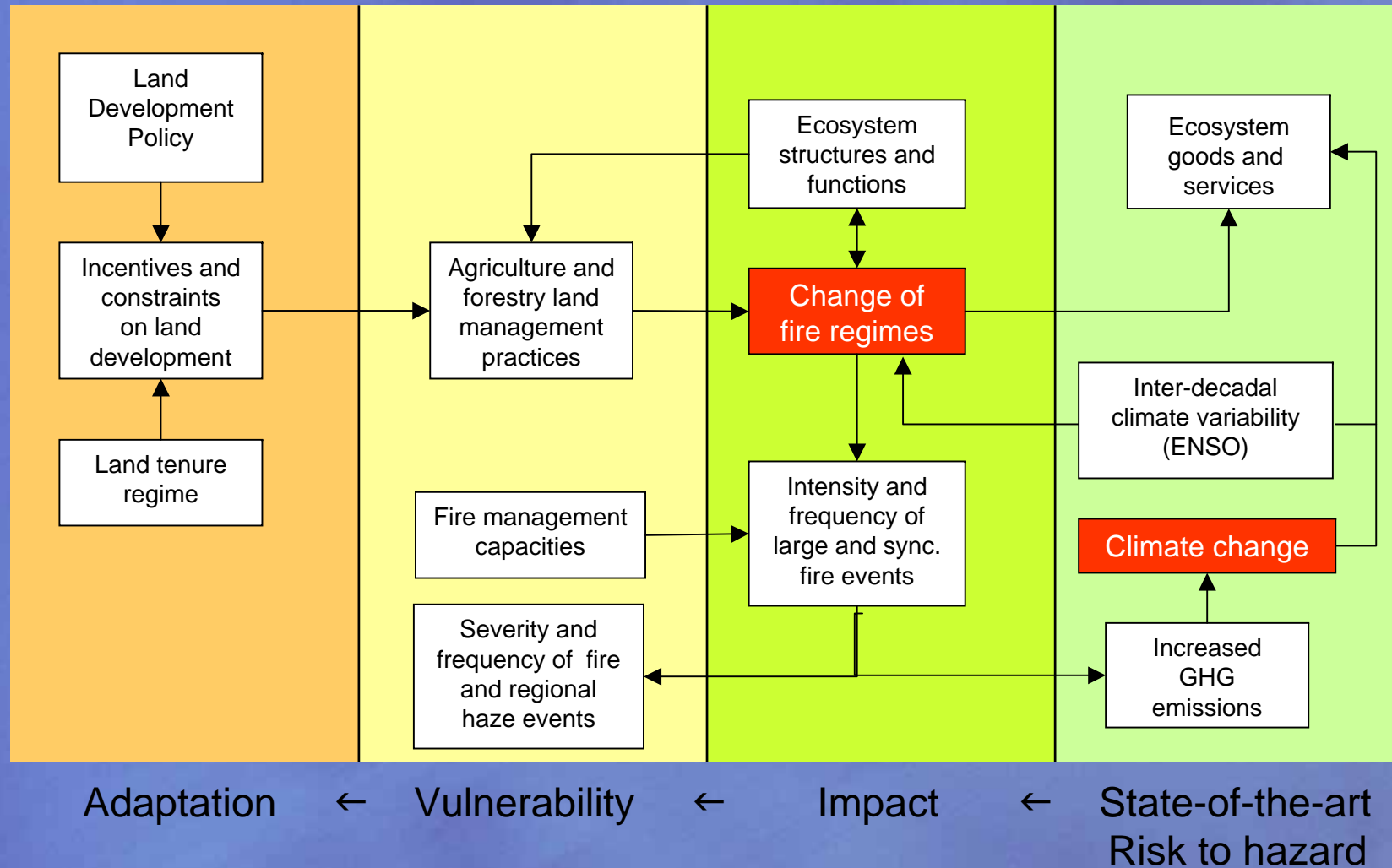


# Lessons learned

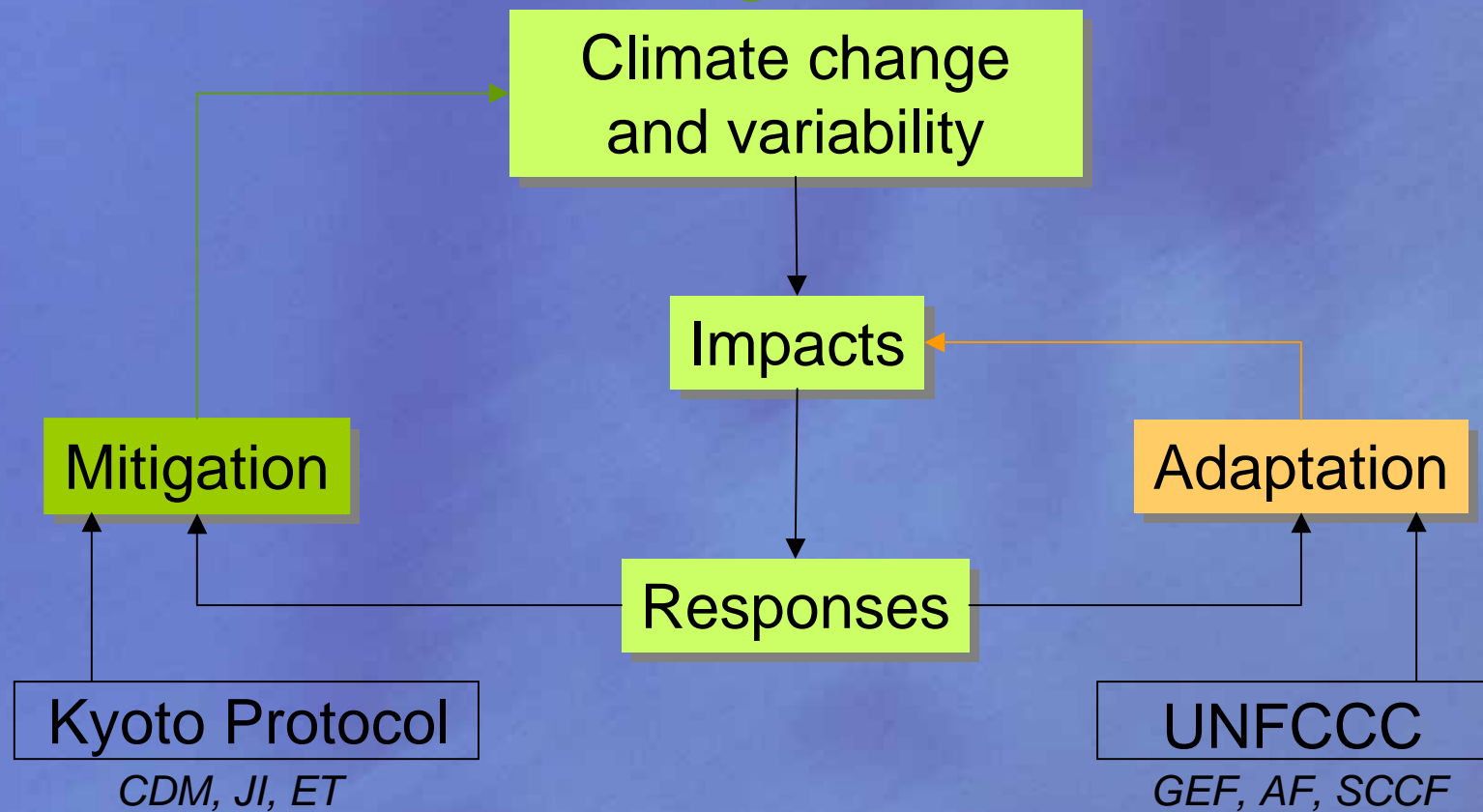
- Land-use change is an important driver
- Most fires are intentionally started as a cheap method for land clearing
- Prolonged drought leads to increasing widespread and uncontrolled fires
- Peatlands are the most vulnerable ecosystems



# Process-based approach



# Linking adaptation and mitigation



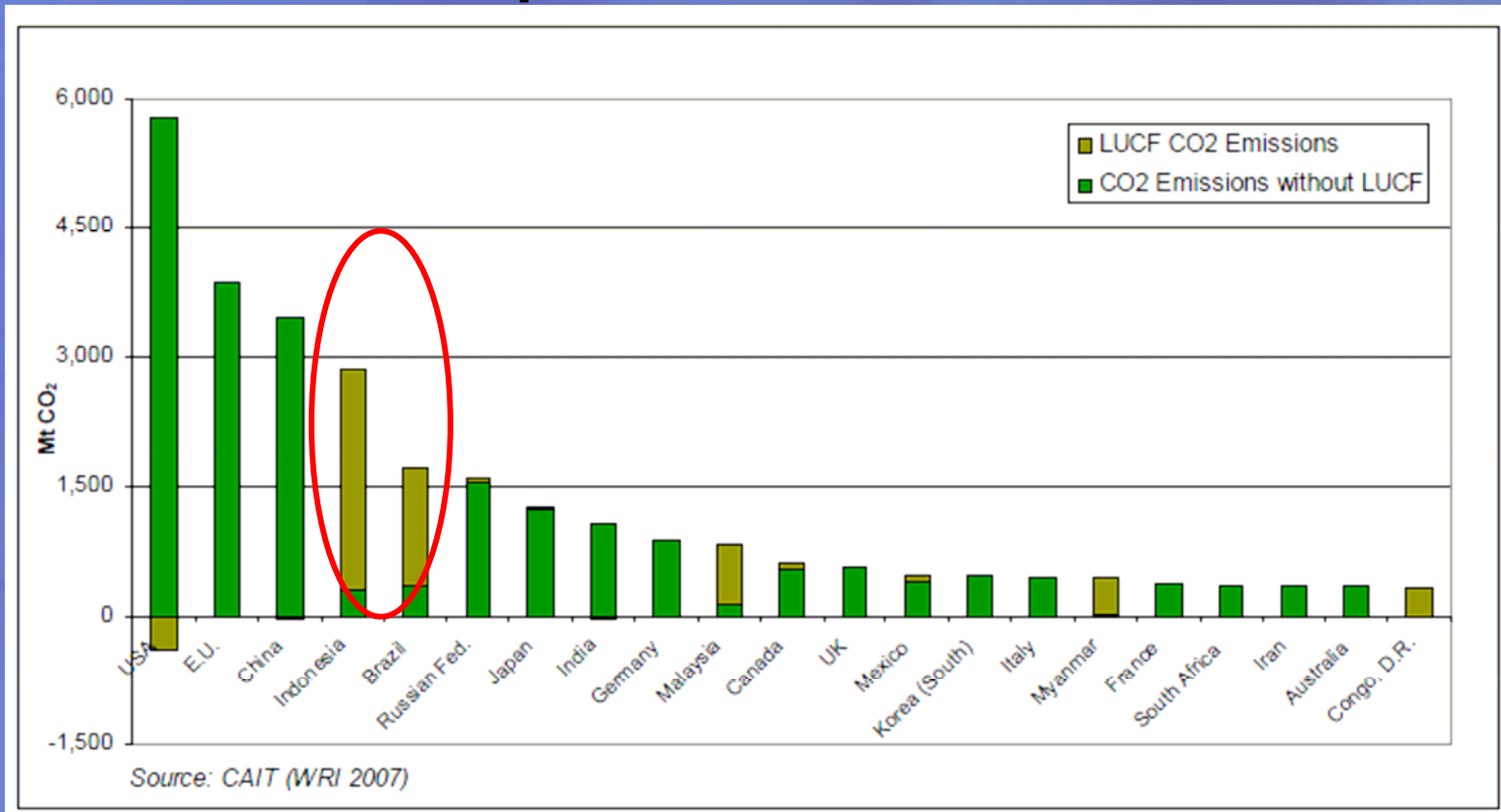


# What's next?

- Forests are important for climate mitigation
- Some 20% of global emissions are from deforestation and land-use change
- Indonesia and Brazil are now globally-significant sources of emissions due to deforestation and forest fires
- Most of terrestrial carbon in Asia-Pacific are stored in peatlands ecosystems



# Total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2000 (Top 21 emitters)



# Measurement and monitoring

## Global observations

MODIS/MERIS-type sensors  
Deforestation (<10-20 ha)  
(intra-) annual  
Hot spots of forest change  
Top-down standards

**Hot spot/large  
deforestation detection**

## Regional/national observations

Wall-to-wall mapping

Sampling approach

Landsat/Spot-type / SAR  
Deforestation (<0.5-1 ha)  
(inter-)annual  
Regionally-tuned forest  
degradation mapping  
Bottom-up flexibility

**Change in forest  
area and density**

## Fine-scale/in-situ observations

**Estimation of  
carbon emissions**

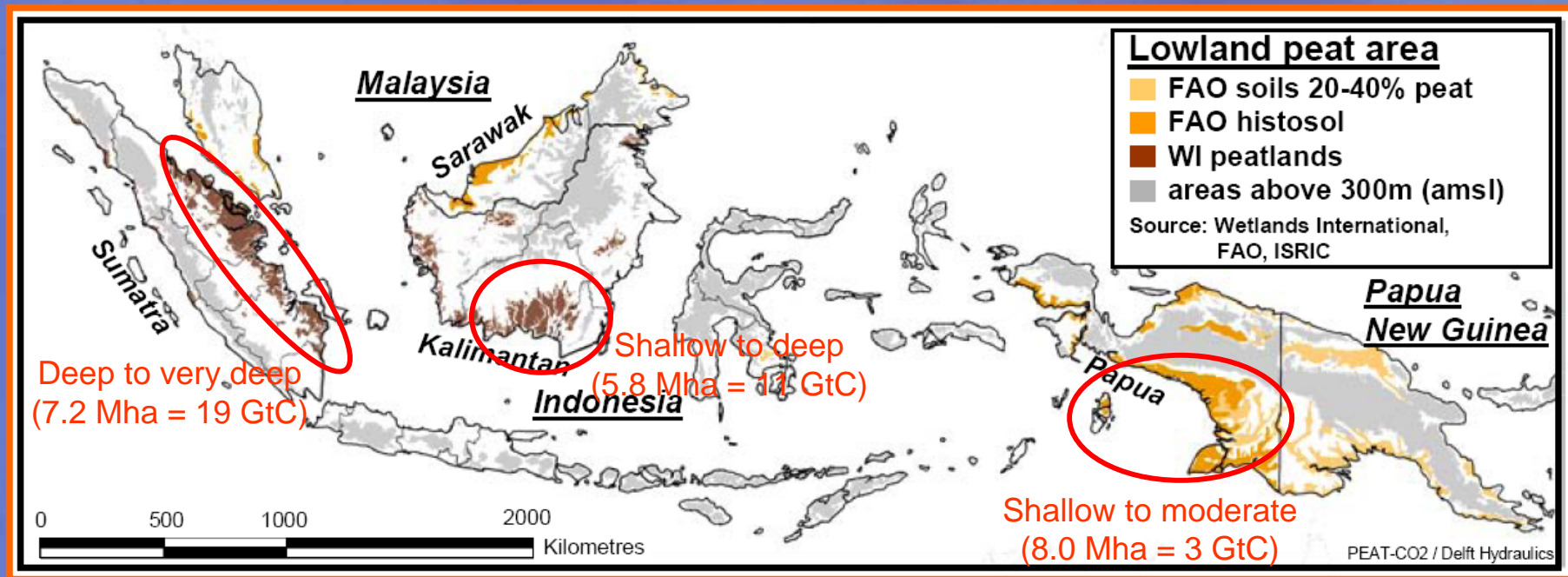
Nat./Reg. forest inventories  
In-situ/plot data  
Targeted remote surveys  
FAO statistics  
Models relating forest  
change to C-emissions  
IPCC-LULUCF / AFOLU



*Courtesy of: GOFC-GOLD*



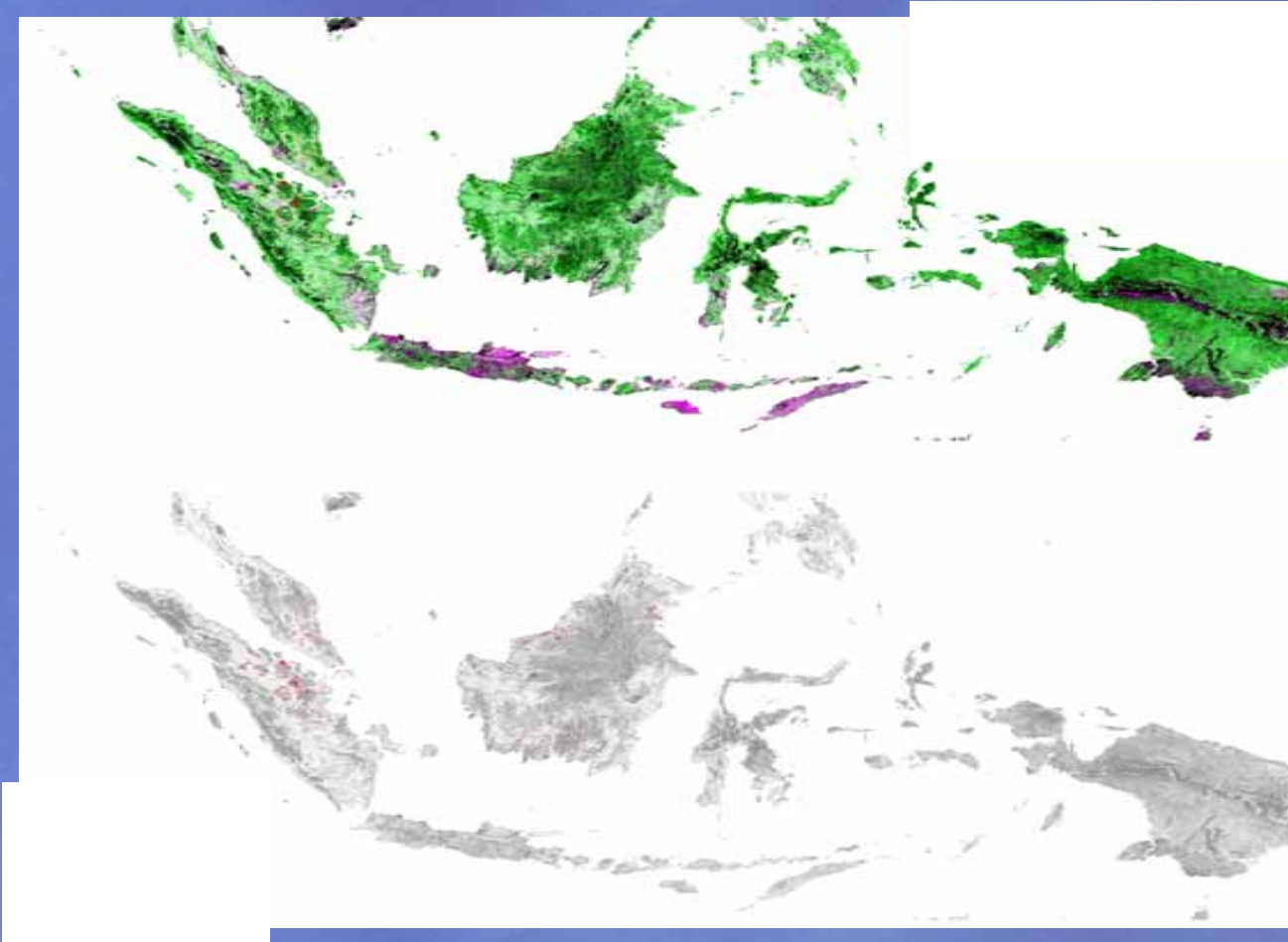
# Where are the hotspots located?



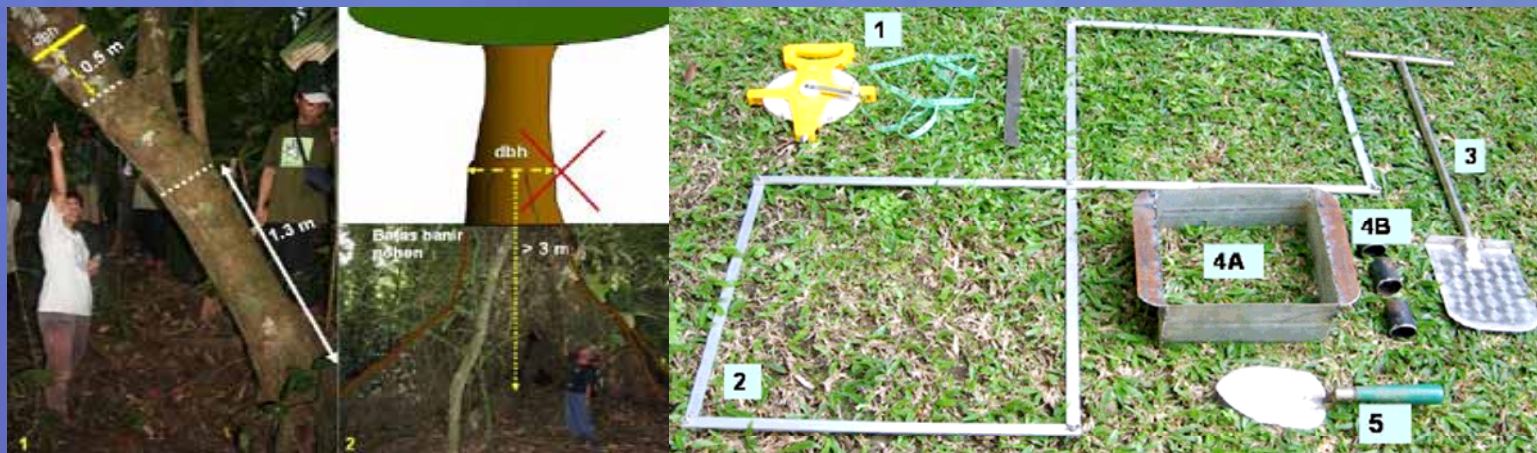
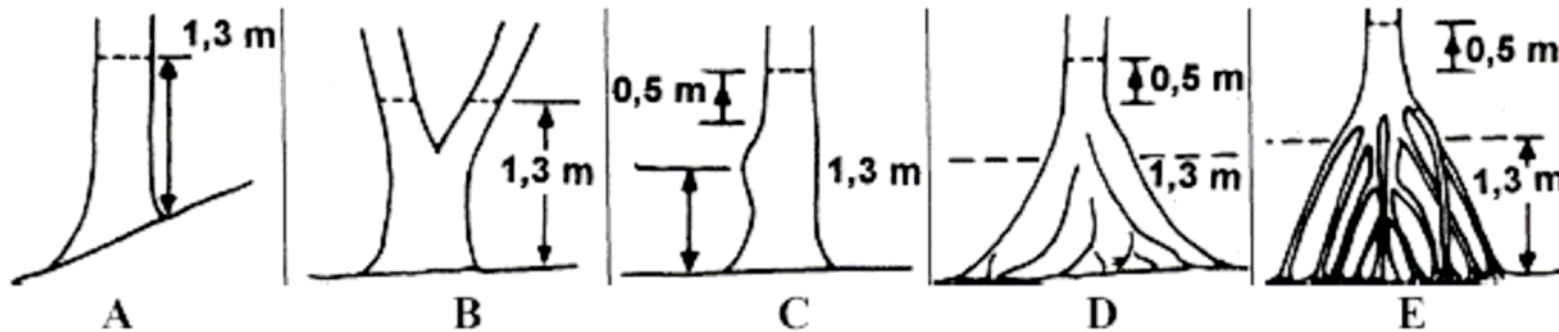
		1990	2002
<b>Global</b>	400 Mha (528 Pg)		
<b>Tropics</b>	40 Mha (191 Pg)		
<b>SE Asia</b>		35-40 Mha	25-30 Mha
<b>Indonesia</b>		21 Mha (33 Pg)	17 Mha (?)

Shallow: 0.5 – 1 m  
 Moderate: 1 – 2 m  
 Deep: 2 – 4 m  
 Very deep: 2 – 4 m  
 Extremely deep: > 8 m

# Wall-to-wall to avoid leakage

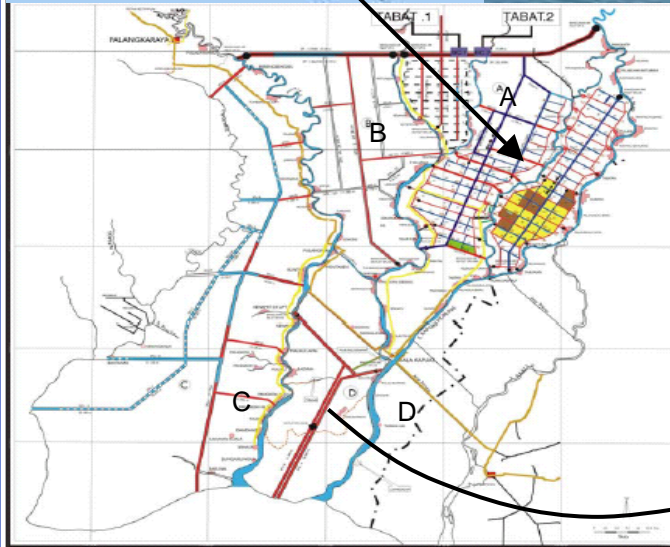


# The challenges of ground-truthing



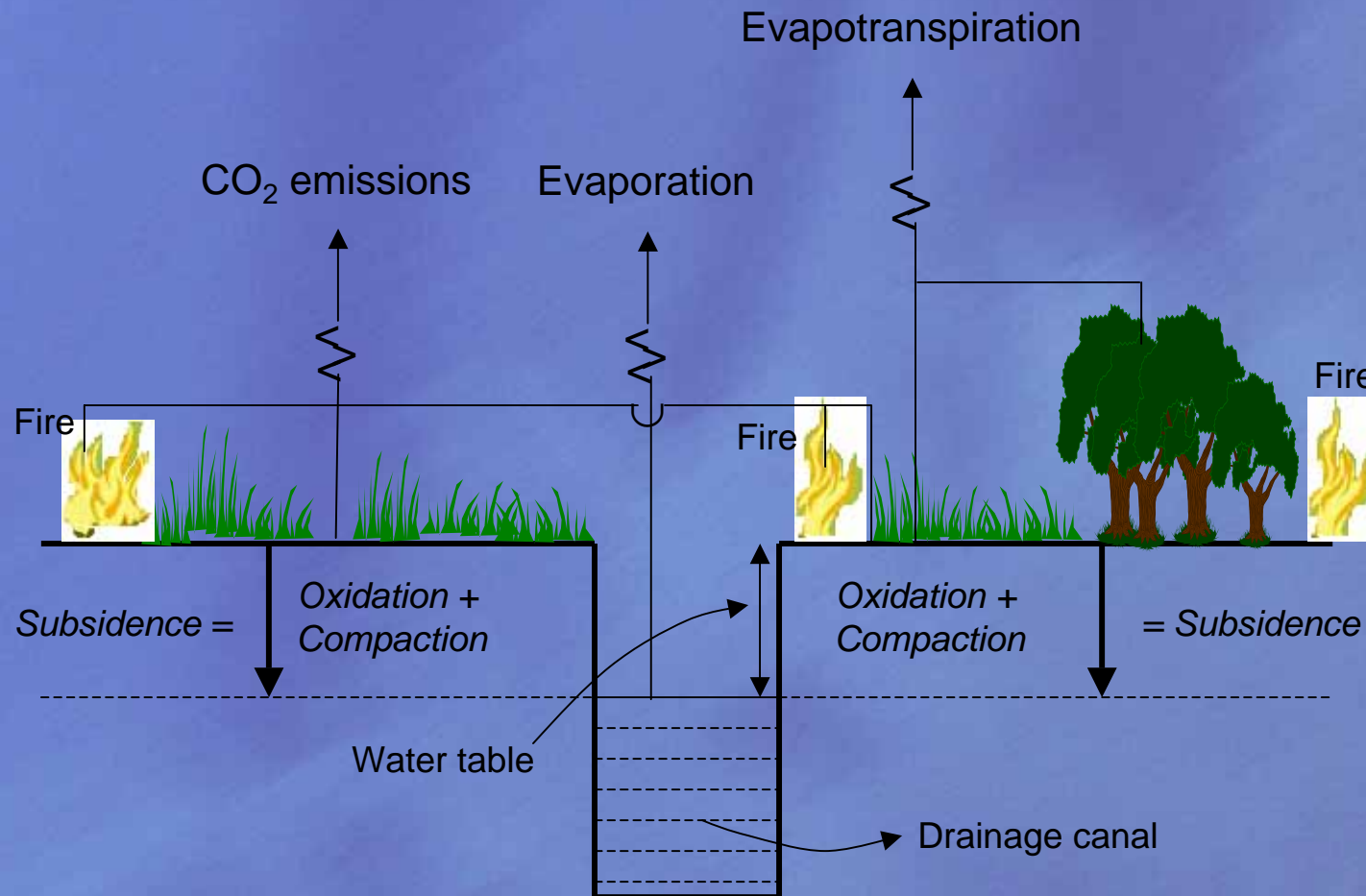


# Ex-Mega Rice Project - C. Kalimantan





# Water and fire management are crucial



# Top-down approach

## Climate regulation of fire emissions and deforestation in equatorial Asia

G. R. van der Werf<sup>1,2</sup>, J. Dempewolf<sup>3</sup>, S. N. Trigg<sup>4</sup>, J. T. Randerson<sup>5</sup>, P. S. Kasibhatla<sup>6</sup>, L. Giglio<sup>7</sup>, D. Murdiyarso<sup>8</sup>, W. Peters<sup>9</sup>, D. C. Morton<sup>10</sup>, G. J. Collatz<sup>11</sup>, A. J. Dolman<sup>12</sup>, and R. S. Defries<sup>13</sup>

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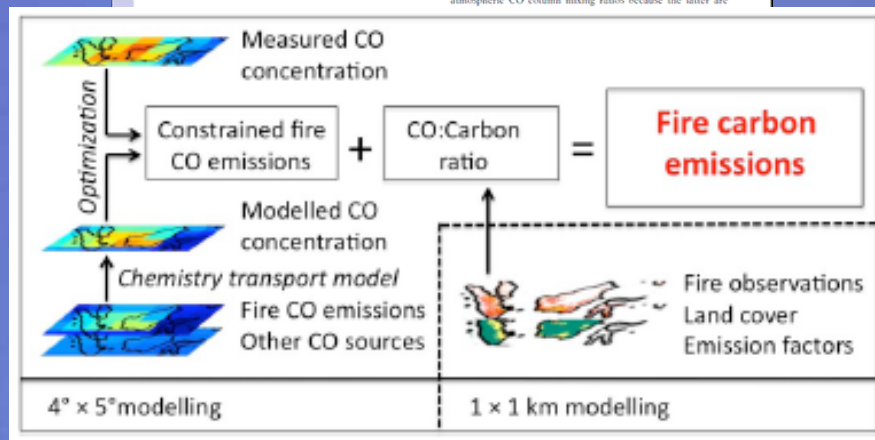
Edited by Christopher B. Field, Carnegie Institution of Washington, Stanford, CA, and approved October 27, 2008 (received for review April 8, 2008)

Drainage of peatlands and deforestation have led to large-scale fires in equatorial Asia, affecting regional air quality and global concentrations of greenhouse gases. Here we used several sources of satellite data with biogeochemical and atmospheric modeling to better understand and constrain fire emissions from Indonesia, Malaysia, and Papua New Guinea during 2000–2006. We found that average fire emissions from this region [ $128 \pm 51$  ( $1\sigma$ ) Tg carbon ( $\text{C yr}^{-1}$ ),  $7 = 10^{12}$ ] were comparable to fossil fuel emissions in Europe. Carbon emissions from fires were highly variable, flares during the moderate 2006 El Niño more than 30 times greater than those during the 2000 La Niña (and with a 2000–2006 mean of  $74 \pm 33$  Tg  $\text{C yr}^{-1}$ ). Higher rates of forest loss and larger areas of peatland becoming vulnerable to fire in drought years caused a strong nonlinear relation between drought and fire emissions in southern Borneo. Fire emissions from Sumatra showed a positive linear trend, increasing at a rate of  $8 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$  (approximately doubling during 2000–2006). These results highlight the importance of including deforestation in future climate agreements. They also imply that land manager responses to expected shifts in tropical precipitation may critically determine the strength of climate–carbon cycle feedbacks during the 21st century.

climate change | feedbacks | biomass burning | Indonesia | global carbon cycle

few emission estimates exist for more recent years, even though rapid forest clearing has probably contributed substantially to the buildup of global atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$ . Our main objectives were to quantify fire emissions from the equatorial Asia region during 2000–2006, identify the temporal and spatial variability in fire emissions, and examine the interactions with large-scale forest clearing and peatland draining activities.

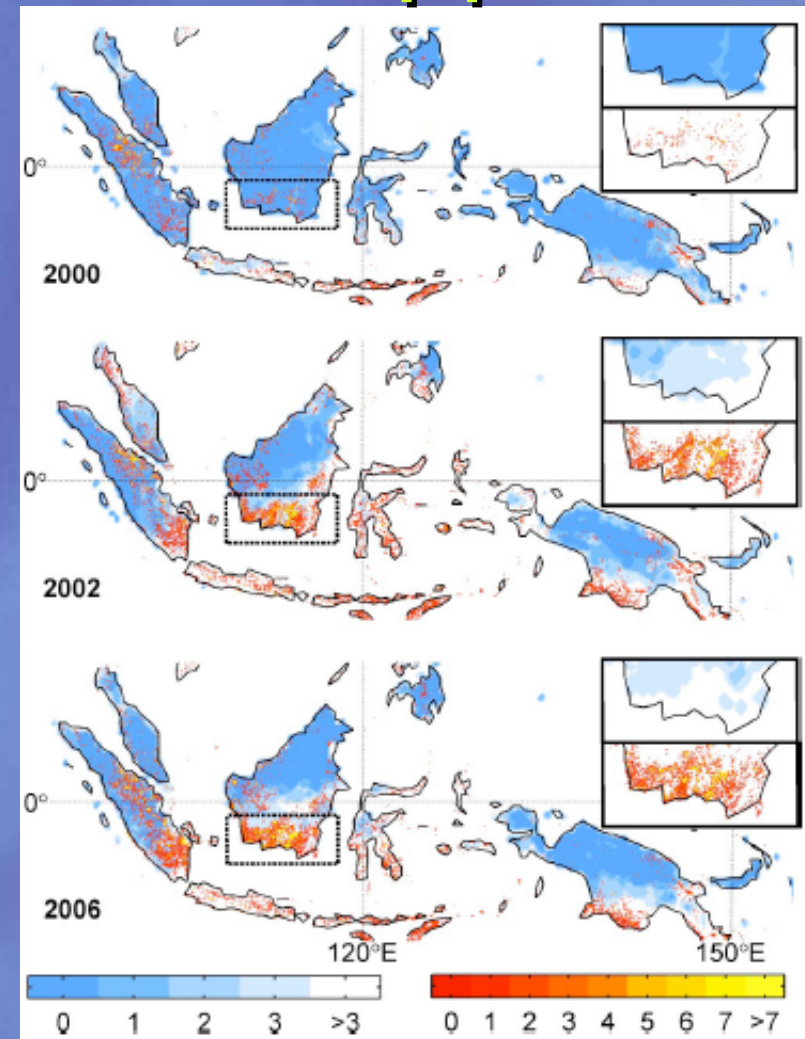
**Methodology summary.** Our approach relied extensively on satellite data to (i) constrain fire emissions from the whole region, (ii) calculate annual clearing rates in southern Borneo (where interannual variability in drought was highest), and (iii) assess how drought based on precipitation rates from the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) (14) affected spatial patterns of fire, especially regarding their distance from drainage canals. Fire emissions estimates were available for 1997–2006 as a subset of the Global Fire Emissions Database version 2 (GFED2) based on burned area (15) and biogeochemical modeling (16) at coarse  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  resolution. To further constrain these bottom-up estimates—which are uncertain in this region with complex fuel characteristics and uncertain burned area estimates—we transported the GFED2 carbon monoxide ( $\text{CO}$ ) emissions from fires and  $\text{CO}$  from other sources into the atmosphere, using the GEOS-Chem (17) chemistry transport model. This allowed for a comparison of modeled and measured atmospheric  $\text{CO}$  column mixing ratios because the latter are



## 2000–2006 average fire emissions

Region:  $128 \pm 51 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$

Borneo:  $74 \pm 33 \text{ Tg C yr}^{-1}$



# Why might REDD succeed?

- Volume of finance sufficient to shift the political economy of drivers of deforestation and degradation
- Political attention and engagement at the national level
- Alignment of the interests of multiple constituencies
- Performance-based finance









# Potential for REDD “win-wins”

## Emissions reduction and....

- Reduce poverty
- Improved livelihoods
- Conservation of biological diversity and watershed functions
- Improved forest governance



# Potential risks for REDD

- Human rights violation
- Marginalize the worse-off
- Mis-use of funds
- Emission reduction effectiveness



# Summary

- The vulnerability of forest ecosystems, including the dependant society to CC may be assessed
- There is a need to test C&I for the ecosystems vulnerability to climate change
- Field and remotely sensed data are crucial for adaptation (and mitigation) strategies
- Enhancing the role of forests for climate change mitigation (REDD) could be used as entry point to reduce ecosystem vulnerability