

1 **Effective incentives for reforestation: lessons from Australia’s carbon farming** 2 **policies**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Large-scale reforestation will rely at least in part on private landholders who are motivated to
10 increase forest cover on their properties. Well-designed incentives can encourage landholder
11 adoption of reforestation within production landscapes, while delivering social, economic and
12 biodiversity co-benefits. Here, I draw on lessons from extensive research on barriers and
13 enablers to landholder adoption of tree planting, the growing literature highlighting the potential
14 benefits of assisted natural regeneration (ANR) for large-scale reforestation, and experiences
15 from a voluntary land-based carbon abatement (“carbon farming”) program implemented in
16 Australia since 2012, where tree planting and ANR comprise several approved reforestation
17 methods. Carbon farming projects to date have primarily adopted the ANR methods, yet program
18 outcomes have been undermined by increased deforestation elsewhere in Australia. Policy
19 uncertainty, the provision of co-benefits and the availability of trusted information are key
20 factors influencing landholder adoption. Incentives for reforestation must be underpinned by a
21 coherent and complementary policy mix which facilitates long-term participation and genuine
22 environmental outcomes.

23 **Highlights**

- 24 • Large-scale reforestation will rely on participation of private landholders
- 25 • Carbon farming has the potential to incentivise reforestation in production landscapes
- 26 • Assisted natural regeneration offers ecological and economic benefits over tree planting
27 in landscapes which retain regenerative capacity

- 28 • Landholder adoption is influenced by co-benefits, policy certainty and coherence, and
29 social networks
- 30 • Incentives for reforestation must be underpinned by effective controls on deforestation

31 **Introduction**

32 The international community has committed to end deforestation and restore 350 million
33 hectares of degraded forest landscapes by 2030 [1–4], as part of agreements under the UN
34 Framework for Climate Change [5], UN Convention on Biological Diversity [6], and UN
35 Sustainable Development Goals [7] Translating such aspirations into on-ground outcomes will
36 require governance interventions which can support and motivate communities to participate in
37 forest protection and restoration [8,9]. The 2015 Paris climate agreement explicitly recognizes
38 the importance of financial incentives to deliver carbon and non-carbon benefits from forests [5],
39 and encouraged the 195 Parties to the Convention to implement and support such forest
40 governance approaches. In 2015, \$888 million was committed to forest carbon offset projects
41 across voluntary and compliance markets worldwide [10].

42 Meeting ambitious targets for large-scale forest restoration will require a substantial increase in
43 the current rate of reforestation [1,9,11], and the majority of reforestation opportunities lie in
44 production and mosaic landscapes [12–16]. The carbon market provides an opportunity for
45 landholders to receive financial benefits in return for sequestering carbon in vegetation and soils,
46 otherwise known as ‘carbon farming’ [17–19]. However, adoption of afforestation and
47 reforestation (A/R) activities under the UN Clean Development Mechanism to date has been
48 lower than anticipated [20,21], and forest carbon credits from tree planting projects are costlier
49 and traded at a third of the volume of credits from avoided deforestation and degradation
50 (REDD+) projects in 2015 [10,22].

51 If widespread adoption of reforestation is to be achieved, there is a need to design and implement
52 governance interventions which can align this goal with the attitudes, values and motivations of
53 private landholders [2,9,20,23]. An extensive literature on landholder adoption of new methods
54 [20,24] and experiences from programs which provide incentives for tree planting [25–30]
55 highlights a range of barriers which can prevent the participation of landholders in such
56 initiatives. A mostly separate, yet growing body of literature emphasizes the potential for farmer-
57 managed and assisted natural regeneration (ANR) of secondary forests to deliver carbon

58 abatement and multiple co-benefits at a large scale [14,31–34]. In landscapes where natural
59 regeneration of forest is possible, ANR is often a far more cost-effective reforestation approach
60 [8,18,32], yet tree planting remains the primary focus of carbon farming and other reforestation
61 programs [13,35].

62 In this paper, I review the current state of knowledge about the use of incentives to encourage
63 adoption of reforestation by landholders in production landscapes. I focus primarily on
64 governance interventions where the main goal is to deliver carbon abatement, though I also
65 consider how such programs can also provide economic, social and biodiversity co-benefits. I
66 draw on a case study in Australia, where tree planting and ANR comprise several approved
67 reforestation methods available through participation in a voluntary carbon farming program. I
68 conclude by describing how the efficacy of incentives for reforestation are reliant on a mix of
69 complementary instruments, including the provision of clear, accessible and trusted information,
70 and institutional arrangements which discourage further deforestation.

71 **Carbon farming as a mechanism for reforestation**

72 A large body of work has examined the potential economic returns and carbon abatement
73 generated through establishment of tree plantings in production landscapes [36–41]. Much of this
74 work has come out of Australia, where incentives for tree planting are available as part of a
75 voluntary carbon farming program [42,43](see Box 1). Concerns about the potential negative
76 environmental impacts of large scale monocultures [19,44] led to a renewed focus on how tree
77 planting could profitably deliver social and biodiversity co-benefits alongside carbon abatement
78 and complementary land uses [45–49]. Planting with a diversity of native trees and shrubs
79 (‘environmental’ plantings) in place of fast-growing monocultures will typically require a higher
80 carbon price, or the addition of a biodiversity ‘premium’ to encourage landholder adoption
81 [45,46,50].

82 Notwithstanding these economic considerations, research on landholder adoption of tree planting
83 highlight a range of other factors which influence their willingness to adopt [20,24], including:
84 access to high quality information [20,51], financial costs and benefits, such as establishment and
85 management costs, labour requirements, the likely impact on farm productivity and property
86 value, the risk of seedling or tree death; and access to diverse income streams
87 [23,25,26,29,52,53]; farm size and characteristics, including whether tree plantings can flexibly

88 integrate amongst existing land uses [12,26,51]; the likely provision of social, cultural, and
89 environmental co-benefits [26,27,30,54]; landholder socio-demographics, social norms and
90 attitudes towards tree plantings on agricultural land or as a carbon abatement activity
91 [23,25,26,55]; and uncertainty over future government policy settings and market prices for
92 carbon and other commodities [25,52,56].

93 Although it has received comparatively limited attention as a reforestation approach to date,
94 ANR offers several advantages over tree planting which may assist in overcoming some of the
95 previously identified barriers to adoption. In the first instance, ANR can be highly cost-effective
96 [13,18,57] since it uses low-cost techniques which accelerate the re-establishment of tree and
97 shrub species naturally occurring at a site [8,58–60]. Regenerated secondary forests are often
98 preferable for local biodiversity than tree plantings (especially monocultures) and are more likely
99 to secure natural ecosystem functions which provide resilience to invasion by weeds and pests,
100 and climatic risks such as fire and drought [18,44]. By exploiting the natural regeneration
101 potential of degraded and deforested landscapes, ANR offers considerable economies of scale
102 [2,15,61] and offers greater potential to facilitate large-scale reforestation than tree planting
103 under current carbon prices [18,52]. However, tree planting will often be more suitable in
104 landscapes which have been extensively modified, and lack the natural regenerative capacity (e.g
105 soil seed bank and small trees) required for ANR to be viable [13,18].

106 Despite its potential for low-cost and biodiverse carbon abatement in across a range of forest
107 ecosystems [2,8,9,14,58,62], there are few examples where ANR has been facilitated through a
108 specific governance intervention [18,63]. Australia provides a useful case study to examine the
109 efficacy of carbon farming as a mechanism for reforestation, since a range of tree planting and
110 ANR approaches have been available to adopt as approved carbon abatement methods since
111 2012 (Box 1, Table S1).

112 << insert Box 1 around here >>

113 **Has carbon farming led to large-scale reforestation in Australia?**

114 Research has identified large parts of Australia where reforestation may be economically viable
115 under a range of future climate, land use, carbon price, discount rate, and method scenarios
116 [18,41,45,46,50]. Here, I draw upon the latest publicly available data (see Supplementary

117 Material) to evaluate the extent to which reforestation has been adopted under Australia’s carbon
118 farming policies to date.

119 Vegetation methods (broadly classified into ANR, tree planting, and avoided deforestation, see
120 Table S1) have been adopted for 427 (52%) of the 791 registered projects. As of March 2018, the
121 registrations of 65 vegetation projects have been revoked, leaving 362 currently registered
122 vegetation projects (Table S1). Of these, 237 have secured contracts with the Australian
123 Government to deliver 124.3 MtCO_{2e} of carbon abatement since 2015 (Table S2). In total,
124 reforestation has been adopted across a project area exceeding 8 million hectares, of which 67%
125 of this project area is under contract (Table S2). However, this cannot be considered as an
126 accurate estimate of the actual extent of reforestation contracted under the ERF, since carbon
127 abatement occurs on a subset of each project area [64] and these data are not publicly available.

128 Registered vegetation projects are largely concentrated in two regions of Australia (Figure 1).
129 Tree planting methods have been adopted primarily Western Australia, within the highly
130 modified Avon Wheatbelt bioregion and in the extensive semi-arid grazing lands (Figure 1a).
131 ANR methods are the most frequently adopted (64% of registered vegetation projects) and cover
132 the greatest project area, predominantly in the Mulga Lands and Cobar Peneplain bioregions in
133 Queensland and New South Wales (Figure 1b). These bioregions are characterized by Mulga
134 (*Acacia aneura*) dry forest ecosystems, which is used as livestock fodder and is typically re-
135 cleared on a 15-year cycle to maintain pasture [65,66]. Avoided deforestation methods have been
136 adopted by 17% of registered projects, and largely protect native forest (primary and previously
137 cleared) in western New South Wales.

138 << insert Figure 1 around here >>

139 To date, 70% of registered ANR projects have been awarded contracts for carbon abatement,
140 compared to only 23% of registered tree planting projects. This suggests the tree planting
141 projects are not sufficiently competitive to be selected by the ERF’s “lowest cost abatement”
142 reverse auction mechanism [67]. Contracts have been awarded for 98% of registered avoided
143 deforestation projects. The 100-year permanence period required by carbon sequestration
144 projects has been highlighted as a major barrier to participation [25,30,68,69], and a 25-year
145 option was introduced in response [70]. Nevertheless, the majority of contracted ANR (56%),
146 avoided deforestation (95%) and tree planting (56%) projects are opted for the 100-year option.

147 The ERF operates under a sealed-bid process, so it is not possible to determine the average cost
148 of implementing ANR, tree planting, or avoided deforestation methods using the data available.
149 However, the data indicate that over three times as many registered projects have adopted ANR
150 methods over tree planting, and contracted ANR projects outnumber successful tree planting
151 projects at a rate of 10:1 (Table S2). While avoided deforestation projects still make up 21% of
152 contracted abatement using vegetation methods, the available data suggests ANR is a cost-
153 effective reforestation approach compared to tree planting, and its availability as carbon offset
154 methods has led to its widespread adoption in Australia.

155 Concerns have been raised about the additionality and permanence of vegetation projects
156 contracted under the ERF [67,71,72]. The operation of the ERF as a government-funded subsidy
157 scheme subjects it to adverse selection, meaning that projects that may have been implemented
158 ‘anyway’ (e.g not clearing forest, or allowing forest to regenerate when farming is not profitable)
159 are cheap, and thus likely to be preferentially funded [67]. Further, deforestation in Australia has
160 accelerated since 2011 (Box 2), and the carbon abatement secured by reforestation under the CFI
161 and ERF has been offset by forest clearing from the past 3 years in Queensland alone [73].

162 << insert Box 2 around here >>

163 **Enhancing the effectiveness of carbon farming for reforestation outcomes**

164 Carbon farming policies primarily use financial incentives to encourage landholders to sequester
165 carbon in vegetation and soils, but like all forest governance interventions [insert reference to
166 introductory paper in special issue] will rely on appropriate institutional arrangements and
167 information dissemination to be effective. The literature reviewed in this paper emphasise a
168 number of factors which must be accounted for in the design and implementation of carbon
169 farming and other reforestation programs, which can be broadly mapped onto the three axes of
170 information, institutions and incentives (Figure 2).

171 << insert Figure 2 around here >>

172 Landholders require clear and accessible information on the relative benefits and costs of
173 adopting reforestation [20,29], including accurate information on the carbon abatement and co-
174 benefits delivered by different reforestation methods [12,52,74], the financial return expected
175 under different carbon prices, how carbon yields may vary according to soil type and rainfall
176 zone, and how reforestation will impact on farm productivity and property value [23,25].

177 There is a need for cost-effective approaches which can assist landholders in identifying the most
178 suitable reforestation method(s) for their property [13]. Carbon sequestration in regenerating
179 forest can be slower, taper off more rapidly and offer lower abatement per unit area than tree
180 plantings [18]. However, further research is needed to establish what are the costs and benefits of
181 ANR relative to tree plantings in a range of landscapes [13,35,75].

182 Information sourced from trusted peers is often more highly valued by landholders than advice
183 from external agencies, and adoption is strongly influenced by social networks
184 [25,26,29,55,56,76]. Effective extension programs which draw on local “champions” and peer
185 learning are crucial to increase awareness and adoption [9].

186 The literature indicates there is a preference for reforestation to be primarily landholder-driven,
187 with “outsider” organisations providing a support and extension role rather than direct
188 involvement [9,20,56]. Indeed, farmer-led reforestation may be the “only way” to achieve large
189 scale forest and landscape restoration [8,9]. Intermediary organisations can play a key role in
190 reducing transaction costs and absorbing performance risks [61,77,78]. In Australia,
191 intermediaries can aggregate multiple sources of carbon abatement together within a single
192 project and manage contracts on behalf of numerous landholders [71,77].

193 Flexibility in the scale, type and configuration of reforestation amongst other land uses is an
194 important consideration, as is the length of time landholders are required to maintain the
195 reforested land [20,24]. ANR may offer greater flexibility to landholders than tree plantings, but
196 additionality and permanence are crucial to the integrity of carbon abatement schemes regardless
197 of the method employed [42]. Given that contract length is a known barrier to adoption
198 [20,25,30,68], arrangements which offer flexibility in duration in exchange for a risk premium
199 [42,79] warrant further investigation.

200 The likely provision of environmental, social and economic co-benefits from reforestation is a
201 key factor influencing adoption. Landholders working in production landscapes value co-benefits
202 such as improved soil, shade for livestock and biodiversity protection [17,25,30]. Reforestation
203 can also offer opportunities to enable or re-establish traditional cultural practices [27] and tap
204 into diversified income streams [54,80]. Importantly, co-benefits need to be incentivized,
205 monitored and reported alongside carbon abatement. The inability to derive an accurate estimate
206 of even the area of native forest to be restored under Australia’s carbon farming policies is highly
207 problematic.

208 Policy uncertainty and complexity are a major barriers to adoption [21,25,56], which is
209 particularly apparent in Australia where climate policy has been characterized by frequent
210 change and political upheaval [72,81,82]. A clear, long-term and systemic incentive is needed to
211 encourage large-scale reforestation, which an economy-wide carbon price can deliver more
212 effectively and efficiently than subsidies [67,83]. Secure land tenure arrangements are
213 fundamental to provide landholders with assurance they will realise the future benefits of
214 reforestation [1,28,56,84]. Finally, institutional controls or sanctions on further deforestation are
215 required to effectively incentivize reforestation [72,85]. The absence of such controls reduces the
216 additionality and integrity of reforestation efforts and create a perverse incentive for
217 deforestation.

218 **Conclusions**

219 Restoration of degraded and deforested landscapes can provide multiple environmental, food
220 security, social and economic benefits for communities. However, translating aspirations for
221 large-scale reforestation into on-ground outcomes will require governance interventions which
222 can effectively motivate landholders within production and multiple-use landscapes to adopt
223 ANR, tree planting, or a combination thereof. Effective incentives for reforestation must be
224 underpinned by a coherent and complementary policy mix [86], and incorporate experiences
225 from carbon farming policies which encourage reforestation in production landscapes [18,25],
226 lessons from extensive research on landholder adoption [20,24], and the growing literature
227 highlighting the potential benefits of ANR for large-scale reforestation [8,9,14].

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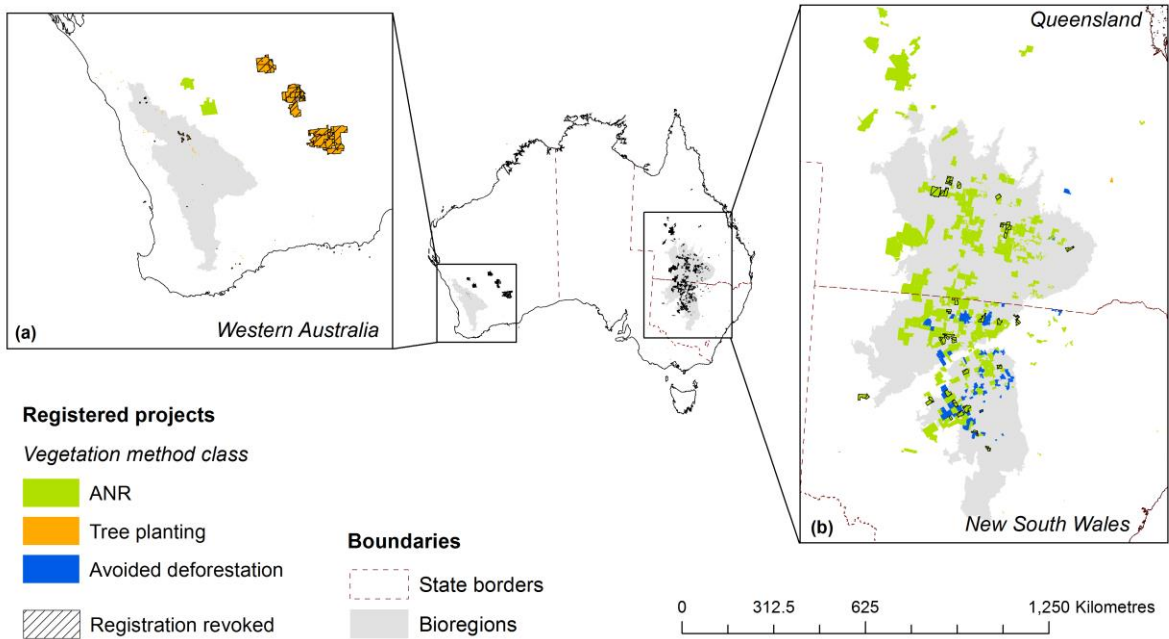
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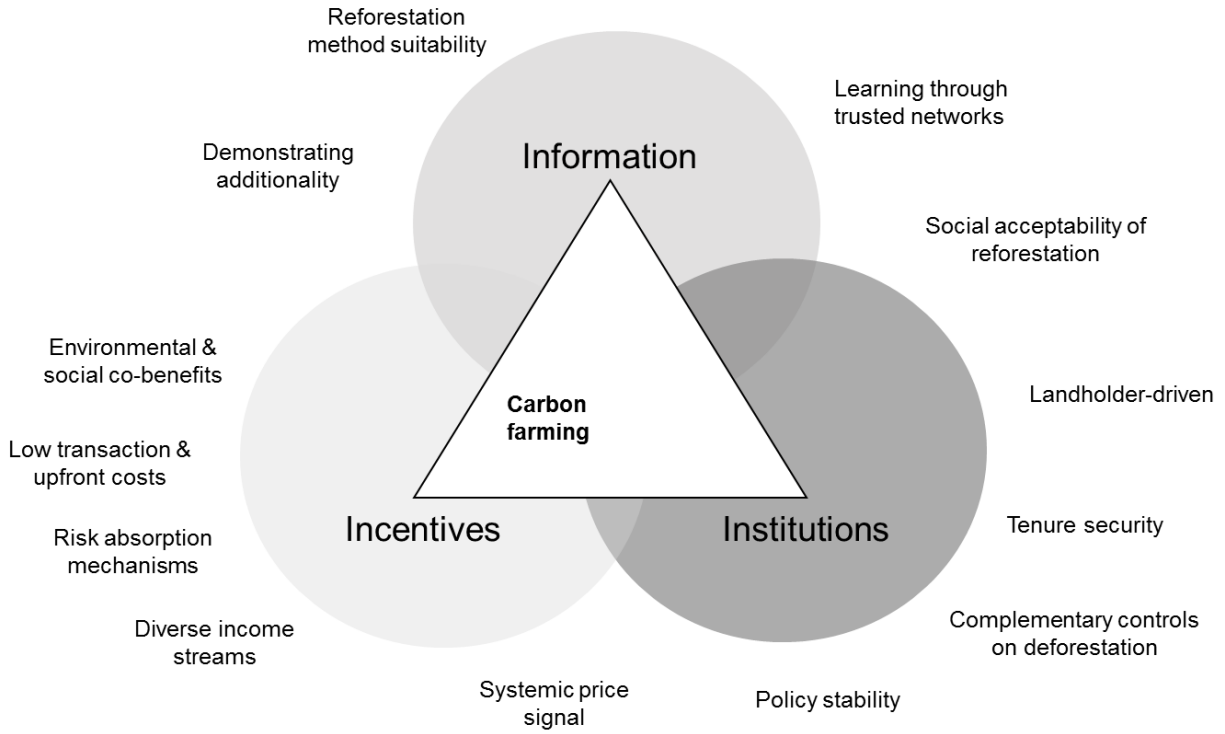
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491 **Figures**



492

493 Figure 1. Distribution of vegetation projects (broken down by method class: ANR, tree planting, and avoided
494 deforestation) registered under Australia’s ERF. (a) Many tree planting projects are located within the highly
495 modified Avon Wheatbelt bioregion in Western Australia. A single tree planting project covering over 1.5 million
496 hectares is located in the semi-arid pastoral landscapes east of the bioregion, but its registration was revoked in
497 February 2018. (b) The majority of ANR and avoided deforestation projects are located in the Mulga Lands
498 bioregion crossing the Queensland state border, and the Cobar Peneplain bioregion south of the border in the state of
499 New South Wales.



500

501 Figure 2. Summary of factors identified from the literature which underpin effective governance
 502 interventions for carbon abatement through reforestation

503

504 **Box 1 Australia’s carbon farming policies**

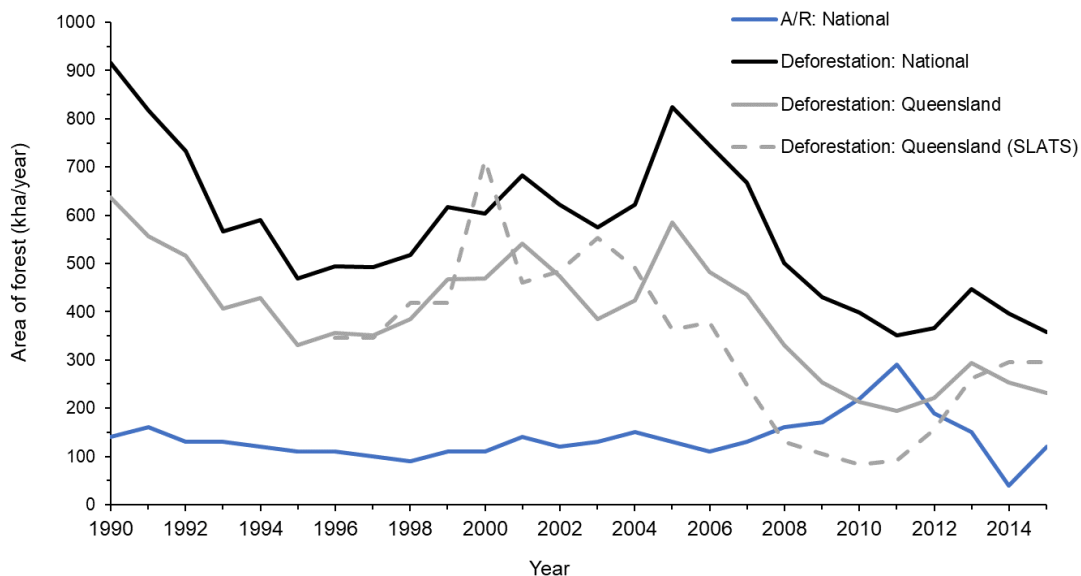
505 Carbon farming was initially established in Australia as a voluntary baseline-and-credit offset
506 scheme, which was designed to work in conjunction with a legislated carbon price of
507 AUD23/tCO₂e (increasing by 5% per annum) from July 2012 [42,43,81]. The Carbon Farming
508 Initiative (CFI) was considered to be the world's first national scheme to regulate the generation
509 and trade of carbon credits from farming and forestry [43]. Through the CFI, landholders could
510 generate Australian carbon credit units (ACCU) using an approved methodology determination
511 (‘method’) and then trade these credits on domestic or international voluntary markets. All
512 carbon sequestration projects were required to be maintained for 100 years to meet permanence
513 requirements, and a 5% risk of reversal buffer is applied to account for the risk of carbon release
514 due to fire or other catastrophic risks.

515 Following a change in government, the carbon price was repealed and replaced by an economy-
516 wide abatement subsidy scheme in 2014 [67]. The Emissions Reduction Fund (ERF) was
517 established with AUD2.55 billion of government funding over 4 years, and a reverse auction
518 mechanism is used to purchase carbon abatement at the lowest per-unit cost. Existing CFI
519 methods and projects transitioned into the new scheme, and a 25-year permanence option was
520 introduced for sequestration projects (a 20% penalty on credits relative to the 100-year option)
521 [70]. Six auctions have occurred as part of the ERF since April 2015
522 (<http://www.cleanenergyregulator.gov.au/ERF/Auctions-results>), with abatement primarily
523 secured through vegetation methods (65% of total volume) and at an average price of
524 AUD12.0/tCO₂e. As of March 2018, AUD265 million remains in the ERF, and a seventh
525 auction is due to be held in June 2018.

526 **Box 2 One tree forward, two trees back: reforestation and deforestation in**
527 **Australia**

528 Deforestation in Australia is globally significant [73,85,87–89], with the latest statistics
529 indicating 400,000 hectares of forest was cleared in the state of Queensland alone in 2015-16
530 [90]. Policies which govern the protection and management of native vegetation in Australia are
531 primarily under the jurisdiction of its eight State and Territory Governments, which since 2010
532 have undergone a process of deregulation and relaxation [85].

533 The Australian Federal Government administers incentives for reforestation (see Box 1) as part
534 of its policy commitment to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 5% below 2000 levels by 2020
535 [91]. However, the latest data indicate that deforestation in Australia still far exceeds
536 reforestation [92,93]. In absence of Federal Government controls on deforestation, the carbon
537 abatement and reforestation outcomes delivered through public investment in carbon farming
538 (Box 1) will continue to be undermined.



539
540 Annual extent of deforestation (primary and regrowth) and afforestation/reforestation at the National scale according
541 to the latest National Inventory Report [92]. For comparison, deforestation in the state of Queensland is plotted
542 using data from [92], and from the Queensland Government’s Statewide Landcover and Trees Study (SLATS)
543 program [93]. The substantial differences in the amount of deforestation identified by the National and Queensland
544 data is largely explained by an inconsistent definition of ‘forest’ [94].