The text that follows is a PREPRINT.

Please cite as:

Fearnside, P.M. 1999. Plantation forestry in Brazil: the potential impacts of climatic change. <u>Biomass and Bioenergy</u> 16(2): 91-102.

ISSN: 0961-9534

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2 PLANTATION FORESTRY IN BRAZIL: THE 3 POTENTIAL IMPACTS OF CLIMATIC CHANGE

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23 June 1998

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1 ABSTRACT--Most climatic changes projected to occur in Brazil 2 would reduce yields of silvicultural plantations, mainly through 3 increased frequency and severity of droughts brought on by global 4 warming and by reduction of water vapor sources in Amazonia 5 caused by deforestation. Some additional negative effects could 6 result from changes in temperature, and positive effects could 7 result from CO₂ enrichment. The net effects would be negative, 8 forcing the country to expand plantations onto less-productive 9 land, requiring increased plantation area (and consequent 10 economic losses) out of proportion to the climatic change itself. 11 These impacts would affect carbon sequestration and storage 12 consequences of any plans for subsidizing silviculture as a 13 global warming mitigation option.

15 Climate change can be expected to increase the area of 16 plantations needed to supply projected internal demand and 17 exports from Brazil. June-July-August (dry season) precipitation 18 reductions indicated by simulations reported by the 19 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) correspond to 20 rainfall declines in this critical season of approximately 34% in Amazonia, 39% in Southern Brazil and 61% in the Northeast. As an 21 22 example, if rainfall in Brazilian plantation areas (most of which 23 are now in Southern Brazil) were to decline by 50%, the area 24 needed in 2050 would expand by an estimated 38% over the constant 25 climate case, bringing the total plantation area to 4.5 times the 26 1991 area. These large areas of additional plantations imply 27 substantial social and environmental impacts. Further addition 28 of plantation area as a global warming response option would 29 augment these impacts, indicating the need for caution in 30 evaluating carbon sequestration proposals.

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33 KEYWORDS--plantations; silviculture; eucalyptus; Brazil; global 34 warming; climate change

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1. INTRODUCTION

Brazil hopes to substantially expand its area of plantations in part through international sources of environmental funding for sequestering atmospheric carbon dioxide to reduce global warming. For example, the FLORAM proposal, put forward by the University of São Paulo, calls for installing an additional 20 X 10⁶ ha of silviculture in Brazil over a period of 30 years as a global warming mitigation option¹.

11 Plantation forestry would be affected by climatic change, 12 both from global warming and from other processes such as the 13 reduction of evapotranspiration that results from converting Amazonian forests to cattle pasture. Most climatic changes would 14 15 have negative impacts on plantation yields, thereby forcing the country to maintain larger areas of silviculture to supply the 16 17 same flows of forest products (and substantially diminishing the 18 profitability of doing so). Nevertheless, Brazil's abundant land 19 resources place it in a privileged position in absorbing the 20 costs imposed by climatic change, as well as in responding to the 21 opportunities offered by proposed countermeasures in the plantation forestry sector. 22 23

24 The trends in Brazil's silviculture sector have been 25 analyzed elsewhere as a reference scenario for assessing the 26 impacts of climatic changes and of programs to combat global 27 warming through subsidizing silvicultural expansion². Plantation 28 expansion can be expected to shift from Southern Brazil to the 29 Northeast and Amazon regions. As plantations expand to meet 30 growing domestic demand and to take advantage of export 31 opportunities offered by international markets for products 32 derived from wood, the marginal yield of new plantations can be 33 expected to decrease as progressively less-productive sites are brought under silviculture². The reference scenario projections 34 35 assume a constant per-capita demand for wood products in Brazil and that Brazil's share of the market for supplying wood products 36 37 to non-tropical countries remains constant (both conservative 38 assumptions). Under this scenario, in which climate is assumed 39 to be unchanged, plantations will expand through the year 2050 to 40 occupy an area 3.2 times larger than the 7 X 10^6 ha of 41 plantations Brazil had in 1991. 42

43 44

[Figure 1 here]

- 45 2. IMPACT OF CLIMATE-INDUCED CHANGES
- 47 2.1. Impacts on silviculture
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1 Climatic change can be expected to reduce silvicultural 2 yields to the extent that the climate becomes drier in major 3 plantation states such as Minas Gerais, Espírito Santo, São 4 Paulo, and Paraná as a result of global warming and/or reduced water vapor transport from Amazonia. (<u>i.e</u>., ref. 3). General 5 6 circulation model (GCM) results for rainfall at low latitudes are 7 sufficiently inconsistent that, pending the availability of 8 better models, few researchers have ventured to calculate the 9 potential impact of precipitation changes on agricultural 10 production⁴. Nevertheless, it behooves us to examine the 11 implications of results from existing climate models, while 12 bearing in mind the degree of uncertainty attached to these 13 findings. The general conclusion of drier, less-favorable conditions over much of the world is consistently found by the 14 15 various modeling groups⁵. This general qualitative result 16 appears unlikely to change as modeling and measurements improve, even though predictions for any particular point on the earth's 17 18 surface are presently much more uncertain. 19

20 Reduced rainfall is the most likely form of climatic change 21 to affect plantations. The influence of precipitation on 22 plantation growth occurs through its effect on soil moisture, and 23 GCM results are less varied for soil moisture than for rainfall. 24 Although soil moisture would provide a more robust GCM output 25 than precipitation itself, information is lacking to predict 26 yield changes from soil moisture, making it necessary to rely on 27 precipitation as the indicator of climatic change. The 28 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) presents results for precipitation changes "around the time of a doubling of CO_2 " in a simulation experiment in which CO_2 was increased by 1%/year 29 30 31 in the United Kingdom Meteorological Office (UKMO) model⁵. 32 Projected changes in the real atmosphere would result in doubling 33 the atmospheric concentration of CO_2 gas, in relation to preindustrial levels, in about 2070 according to the IPCC's 34 35 "business as usual" scenario, while the combined effect of 36 increases in CO_2 and trace gases would reach a level equivalent 37 to doubling pre-industrial CO_2 in about 2025.

39 The IPCC presents results for two seasons: December-January-February and June-July-August. In June-July-August expected 40 41 rainfall declines by 1 mm/day in virtually all of Brazil. In December-January-February it declines by 1 mm/day in Amazonia, 42 43 increases by up to 2 mm/day in part of the Northeast, and stays 44 unchanged in Southern Brazil. In almost all of Brazil (including 45 all parts of the country where silviculture is a significant activity now or in the foreseeable future), June-July-August is 46 47 the dry season while December-January-February is the rainy 48 season. Dry season changes can be expected to have the greatest

impact on silvicultural yields: water often limits growth during this part of the year under present conditions, yet there may be water to spare during the rainiest part of the year. In areas outside of Brazil's extreme south, the annual rings evident in the wood of plantation trees correspond to dry (as opposed to cold) seasons.

8 The impact of a given change in mm/day of rainfall would vary considerably, depending on how much rain a given area 9 10 receives today. In the dry Northeast, a loss of 1 mm/day would 11 represent a large percentage decline, while the relative impact would be lower in areas with more rainfall. A rough idea of the 12 13 magnitude of impacts can be gained from 30-year averages of monthly rainfall reported by da Mota⁶ for 28 weather stations (11 14 15 in Amazonia, 4 in the Northeast and 13 in Southern Brazil). The 16 mean values are 2085 mm for Amazonia and 1489 mm for the 17 Northeast and 1535 mm for Southern Brazil. Considering these 18 means, the changes suggested by the simulation reported by the 19 IPCC represent decreases of annual total precipitation of 20 approximately 18% in Amazonia and 24% in Southern Brazil, and an 21 increase of up to 12% in the Northeast. However, the June-July-22 August precipitation is believed to be most closely related to 23 plantation yields. Considering only the precipitation in this 24 season (269, 150 and 234 in Amazonia, the Northeast and Southern 25 Brazil, respectively) the changes represent large decreases in 26 all regions: by 34% in Amazonia, 61% in the Northeast, and 39% in 27 Southern Brazil. Variability in precipitation may increase as a 28 result of climate change, which would make the impacts on 29 plantations more severe than that indicated by mean values. 30

31 Epaminondas S.B. Ferraz has developed a regression equation 32 relating biomass increment in Eucalyptus to precipitation at 33 three sites in the State of São Paulo⁷. The increments were 34 determined by gamma-ray attenuation dendrometry applied to tree 35 rings in wood samples covering the 1964-1991 period. The samples 36 were from a mixture of species: Eucalyptus grandis, E. propingua, 37 E. saligna and E. alba. Over a range of precipitation from 40% below the mean to 50% above the mean, the percent increase in the 38 39 annual biomass increment above the mean is given by the following 40 equation $(n=39, r^2=0.49)$: 41

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B = -0.017 + 0.348 P Equation 1

44 where:

- B = the percent change in annual biomass increment above the mean
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4 Considering the annual rainfall changes mentioned earlier 5 for the three regions based on the UKMO model results reported by 6 the IPCC, Equation 1 implies yield decreases of 6% in Amazonia 7 and 8% in Southern Brazil, and an increase of 4% in the 8 Northeast. Considering the June-July-August rainfall believed to 9 be most critical, yields in this period would decrease by 12% in 10 Amazonia, 14% in Southern Brazil and 21% in the Northeast. These 11 results must be approached with caution, given the high 12 uncertainty of both climatic change predictions and the magnitude 13 of yield response to precipitation changes. In addition, use of 14 Equation 1 assumes that single-year changes in growth increment 15 (observed) would be the same as a change over many years. The 16 longer-term changes would be influenced by accumulated stress and 17 by changes in carbon allocation in individuals and ecosystems.

19 In practice, the relation of precipitation reduction to 20 plantation yield will not be a straight line decline as implied by Equation 1. The yield of each tree species can be expected to 21 22 follow a curve when related to precipitation, with a steep 23 decline at low precipitation values, tapering to a plateau where 24 precipitation is sufficient for the species. As climatic change 25 progresses, firms can be expected to change the species planted 26 in favor of more drought-resistant ones, such as E. 27 camaldulensis. Losses may be greater than an ideal sequence of 28 species changes would suggest if firms fail to switch species due 29 to misjudgment and due to the rapidity and unpredictability of climatic changes. The composite of individual species curves 30 31 would approximate a straight line with a shallower slope than the 32 one describing the yield of any particular species (Fig. 2). 33 The slope would necessarily be shallower than the average for 34 individual species (independent of the sharpness of the response 35 of each species) because of the horizontal displacement of the 36 individual species curves along the axis representing annual 37 rainfall (Fig. 2). Droughts can affect mortality, as well as 38 yield: in 1993 a drought in a former cerrado (Central Brazilian 39 dry scrub savanna) area of Mato Grosso caused high mortality in 40 stands of E. urophylla, E. pellita and E. cloeziana that had 41 previously been highly productive, although stands of E. 42 camaldulensis maintained their more modest levels of productivity despite the drought⁸. 43

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[Figure 2 here]

The above discussion of precipitation decreases considers only the effect of global warming. Brazil is likely to suffer

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1 additional losses of precipitation due to reduction of 2 evapotranspiration caused by deforestation in Amazonia. About 3 half of the rainfall in Amazonia is water recycled through the forest as evapotranspiration⁹. Maintenance of forest vegetation 4 5 in Amazonia is heavily dependent on this recycled water, which 6 can be expected to decrease with continued replacement of forest 7 by pasture^{10, 11}. Some of the water vapor originating in Amazonia is transported to Southern Brazil^{3, 12}. The rotation of the earth 8 9 causes trade winds to follow a counter-clockwise semicircular 10 path in the Southern Hemisphere, leading from Amazonia to 11 Southern Brazil. Decreased water vapor supply to Southern 12 Brazil, where most of the country's silviculture is located, 13 would aggravate precipitation declines stemming from global 14 warming.

The direct effects of rainfall reduction on yields are likely to underestimate the true effect of climate change. Synergistic effects with other factors could reduce yield substantially more. One is insect attack: trees under stress from droughts provoked by climatic change will be more vulnerable to attack by pests¹³.

A drier climate in plantation areas could also be expected to lead to greater fire hazard. Fire is a problem in plantation silviculture even in the absence of climatic change, requiring a certain level of investment in fire control, and a certain level of losses when burns occur. Pine plantations in Paraná require continuous vigilance¹⁴. <u>Eucalyptus</u> is also fire prone because of the high content of volatile oils in the leaves and bark.

31 Temperature changes can also affect plantation yields. Temperature changes near the time of doubling CO_2 have been 32 reported by the IPCC for various GCMs⁵. The Geophysical Fluid 33 Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) model indicates mean increases of 1- 2° C in Amazonia, 1° C in Southern Brazil and 1° C in the Northeast. 34 35 36 The Max-Planck Institute (MPI) model indicates 1°C increases in 37 all regions of Brazil; the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) model indicates no change, and the UKMO model 38 indicates 2°C changes virtually throughout the country. Other 39 40 models with a more complete representation of plant physiological 41 effects indicate up to 2.6°C average temperature increase in Amazonia resulting from the same increase in CO_2 ¹⁵. The IPCC 42 43 models in the Second Assessment Report (SAR) indicate a 44 temperature increase between 2° and 3° in Amazonia¹⁶. 45

Considering a hypothetical increase of 1.5°C by the year 2050 in Espírito Santo and Minas Gerais, Reis et al.⁸ concluded that either the present plantation area would have to be moved to

higher elevation (a shift considered impractical) or the genetic material would have to be completely replaced following the global strategy proposed by Ledig and Kitzmiller¹⁷. In addition to direct effects of temperature considered by Reis et al.⁸, temperature increases have a synergistic effect with drought, the impact of dryness being worse at higher temperatures (lower elevations) due to higher water demands in plantations.

9 Some expected changes would be beneficial for plantations.
10 Carbon dioxide enrichment increases the water-use efficiency of
11 <u>Eucalyptus¹⁸</u>. Photosynthetic rate increased in these experiments
12 from 96% (<u>E. urophylla</u>) to 134% (<u>E. grandis</u>). Growth of the
13 different plant parts showed similar responses. Higher levels of
14 CO₂ also stimulate nitrogen fixation, which could be expected to
15 lower the fertilizer demands of plantations¹⁹.

16 17 Considerable caution is necessary in interpreting the 18 potential beneficial effects of CO₂ enrichment. One problem is 19 frequent confusion, and occasional outright misrepresentation, of 20 different measures of greenhouse gas increase: doubling [of present day] CO_2 concentrations, doubling of pre-industrial CO_2 , 21 22 and "2 X CO_2 " (doubling of the CO_2 -equivalent impact of all 23 greenhouse gases as compared to the pre-industrial atmosphere) 24 (see review in ref. 20). The 2 X CO_2 mark is expected to be 25 reached around 2025, whereas doubling of the pre-industrial CO_2 26 concentration would occur around 2100, and doubled present day 27 concentration after that. The benefits of CO_2 enrichment at 28 doubled pre-industrial CO_2 , or even of doubled present day CO_2 , 29 are often juxtaposed with the climatic impacts of 2 X CO_2 , rather 30 than with the greater impacts that would exist when the other CO_2 31 concentration landmarks (doubled pre-industrial CO2 or doubled 32 present day CO_2) are reached (see review in ref. 20). In order 33 to have a valid calculation of net changes in yields, the timing 34 of both benefits and impacts must be the same. 35

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2.2 Impacts on areas of plantation

38 Possible impacts of climatic change on yields and areas of 39 plantations can be roughly assessed by a series of simple 40 assumptions, in order to arrive at a preliminary judgment as to 41 whether this is a serious problem for Brazil. Despite 42 uncertainties regarding the magnitude and rapidity of climatic 43 changes, one can gain an idea of the range of potential impacts 44 by constructing scenarios at different assumed percentages of 45 reduction in precipitation. Here calculations are made assuming no climatic change, and assuming reductions of 5%, 10%, 25%, and 46 47 50% in precipitation by the year 2050. As explained earlier, 48 precipitation results reported by the IPCC for "around the time

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1 of doubled CO_2 " indicate that in Southern Brazil (where most of 2 the country's plantations are located), annual total rainfall 3 would decrease by 24% while rainfall in the dry season would 4 decrease by 39%. 5 6 Considering the relationship of Ferraz⁷ given earlier 7 (Equation 1), reductions of 5%, 10%, 25%, and 50% in annual 8 precipitation correspond to reductions in base yields of 1.7%, 9 4%, 9%, and 17%, respectively. Base yields refer to the yield 10 from a given quality of land using 1990 technology. Because the 11 rainy season precipitation that is included in the annual 12 rainfall data on which the regression developed by Ferraz⁷ is 13 based may have less impact on eucalyptus yield than dry season 14 precipitation, the above estimates for reductions in base yields 15 may be conservative. 16 17 Climatic change would require larger areas of plantations 18 (and consequent greater expense) to meet the same levels of 19 demand. The percentage increase in areas required can be greater 20 than percentage decline in per-hectare yields caused by climatic 21 change because expansion of plantation area implies moving onto 22 progressively poorer sites where productivity will be less. 23 24 Figure 3 provides a causal loop diagram of the relationships 25 used to project plantation yields and areas. In diagrams of this 26 type, the sign by each arrow indicates the direction of change 27 in the quantity at the head of the arrow given an increase in the 28 quantity at the tail of the arrow. Increasing areas planted are 29 the combined result if declining marginal yields and increasing 30 total demand for wood products. Marginal yields decline both as 31 a result of reduced precipitation and expansion onto more 32 marginal land (a consequence of using a greater fraction of the 33 available land). 34 35 [Figure 3 here] 36 37 The effects of different climatic change scenarios on the 38 average marginal yield (the yield of new areas of planting) are 39 shown in Fig. 4-A, while the effects on cumulative yields (the 40 average yields over all plantations maintained, including the 41 earlier ones on the best land) are shown in Fig. 4-B. 42 43 [Figure 4 here] 44 45 As plantation yields decline, the consequent need to expand areas of silviculture forces planting onto less-productive land 46 47 quality classes. Marginal yield are lower as planting moves onto 48 poorer land, while cumulative yields also decline, but remain

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1 higher than the marginal yields. The area of short-rotation 2 plantations under different climatic change scenarios is shown in 3 Fig. 5-A. The short-rotation plantation expansion rate under 4 different climatic change scenarios is given in Fig. 5-B. The 5 response of yields and area of short-rotation plantations to the 6 percent of precipitation decline from climatic change by the year 7 2050 is shown in Fig. 6-A in absolute amounts, and in Fig. 6-B as 8 percent difference from the no climatic change scenario. 9 Projections over the 1990-2050 period for a reference calculation 10 with no change in climate (Fig. 5-B) are compared in Figs. 6-A 11 and 6-B with the situation in the year 2050 assuming climatic 12 change (precipitation reduction) ranging from 0-50%. The likely 13 pattern of the effect of climatic change is apparent, with 14 disproportionate increases in plantation areas needed to supply 15 demand when yields decline due to climatic change.

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[Figures 5 and 6 here]

19 Assuming no technological change, if there were a 10% drop in rainfall, a 3.5% drop in marginal yield would result, leading 20 21 to a 5% increase in the area of short-rotation plantations 22 required. A 50% drop in rainfall would produce a 17% drop in 23 marginal yields and a 38% increase in short-rotation area 24 requirements (Fig. 6-B). Conversely, any improvements, such as 25 genetic breeding advances that increase yield by a given 26 percentage, decrease area requirements by more than the same 27 percentage.

29 It is important to realize that positive changes, such as 30 technological advance in tree breeding, could be equal in 31 magnitude to negative changes such as yield decline from climatic 32 change, but that such a conclusion would not be a neutral in 33 terms of its policy implications. This is because negative 34 impacts such as climatic change should best be approached on the 35 basis of the precautionary principle, whereas it is wisest not to 36 count on future technological advances before they occur. Were 37 technology to improve yields over the period by the same amount 38 that climatic change reduces them (by 17% in the most extreme 39 case calculated), the effect would be the same as the zero 40 climatic change scenario. 41

It should be emphasized that the calculations in the current paper are <u>demand driven</u>. This is to say, they assume that the domestic population demand and projected export quantities will be met, and calculate <u>how</u> this would be done, rather than allowing these product flows to be reduced as climatic change renders them too expensive to maintain.

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3. ADAPTATION AND COPING OPTIONS IN THE SILVICULTURE SECTOR

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Actions in the silviculture sector have significant potential as response options to reduce global warming by maintaining or increasing carbon stocks in plantations and wood 5 products and, in the case of charcoal used in Brazil's iron and steel industry, through fossil fuel substitution²¹. 7 The 8 potential of silviculture is more limited, however, for 9 adaptation, or coping in the sense of getting along with climatic 10 change, rather than as a means of fighting against it.

12 Societies can adapt to change by altering the productive 13 activities they pursue to support their populations. If climatic 14 change renders certain areas less appropriate for the 15 agricultural or other use they formerly had and more appropriate, 16 for example, for a silvicultural plantation, then a switch to 17 forestry will be the likely outcome. Even if the climatic 18 conditions at the site in question remain completely unchanged, 19 climatic changes elsewhere may alter the relative prices of the 20 different commodities that might be produced, leading to a 21 decision to use land for forestry rather than, say, for pasture 22 or annual crops. Climatic change, of course, may not be the only 23 or even the principal cause of such shifts: markets for products 24 of plantation forestry can be expected to increase in the future 25 as a result of the continued human destruction of mature native 26 forests in the tropical, temperate, and boreal zones.

28 Rapid tree growth, low land prices, and low labor and tax 29 costs in tropical locations make them likely sites for plantation expansion, including plantations subsidized with funds from 30 31 carbon-offset programs intended to avert climatic change 32 elsewhere in the world. Conversion of land to plantations can 33 deprive local populations of their means of support²². In the 34 case of plantations for charcoal, the industry's competitiveness 35 depends on maintaining most of the labor pool under conditions of extreme poverty. Expansion into drier areas, as in the 36 37 Northeast, would be likely to favor drought-resistant species 38 such as $\underline{E. \ camaldulensis}$ that are more suitable for charcoal than 39 for pulp; any climatic change leading to drier conditions in the 40 existing plantation area would favor the same species shifts and 41 social consequences. Mechanisms are needed to insure that 42 plantation establishment, especially when financed as a carbon offset, is only encouraged where it is $beneficial^{23}$. 43

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45 Among the effects of subsidizing plantation expansion would be increasing supplies of wood products beyond the levels they 46 47 would otherwise reach, with consequent lowering of prices in 48 Brazil and in the countries to which Brazil exports. The

1 macroeconomic impacts of this would be many. Unsubsidized 2 competitors would clearly sustain losses. Any reduction in 3 plantation and wood product pools elsewhere by the losers in this 4 competition would reduce the net carbon benefits of the 5 plantation subsidy program. Evaluation of these and other 6 ramifications of carbon-offset proposals in silviculture are 7 needed before major initiatives are undertaken. 8

9 The ultimate coping mechanism in tropical countries, as well 10 as for the globe as a whole, will be to adjust human population 11 and consumption levels to the carrying capacity of the land. 12 Many climatic changes entail reduction of productive capacity 13 and, on a global scale, will demand diversion of hundreds of 14 billions of dollars in resources to activities intended merely to 15 substitute for natural climate regulation mechanisms and keep the 16 world's environment and human infrastructure at a state roughly 17 equivalent to what we have today for free. Capital, land, and 18 human resources allocated to response options, including forestry 19 initiatives such as plantations motivated by carbon 20 considerations, will not be available for producing food and 21 other necessities. The carrying capacity of the world as a whole will be lower than it would be without climatic change; 22 23 reductions will be greater in some countries than in others, and 24 in a few instances countries may benefit from more favorable 25 climate. 26

27 Human population numbers and levels of consumption must 28 eventually come into balance with the carrying capacity of each 29 country. Particularly in tropical forest countries, carrying capacities for human populations are lower than many have been 30 led to believe²⁴. The process of adjustment to carrying capacity 31 32 limits is likely to be a painful one even without the added 33 strictures imposed by climatic change. The challenges these 34 adjustments pose must be faced with even greater speed in light 35 of impending climatic changes: policies affecting population and 36 consumption should be based on rational decisions. 37

38 Were subsidization of silviculture adopted as a major 39 response option to global warming, the landscape in much of 40 Brazil could be dramatically altered. Global warming response 41 options in the silviculture sector have significant potential to 42 cause social and environmental impacts. An urgent need exists 43 for criteria to assess the impacts of global warming and of 44 proposed response options, and mechanisms to avoid injustices in 45 the way these are distributed. Safeguards are currently 46 inadequate to ensure that major impacts do not result from 47 efforts to avert global warming by promoting carbon sequestration 48 in plantations.

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1 2 4. CONCLUSIONS 3 4 Global circulation models used by the Intergovernmental 5 Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) indicate precipitation declines in 6 Brazil that can be expected to decrease the yields of 7 silvicultural plantations. Simulated climate experiments 8 reported by the IPCC with CO_2 gradually increased to "around the 9 time of CO₂ doubling" produce June-July-August (dry season) 10 precipitation reductions corresponding to approximately 34% in 11 Amazonia, 39% in Southern Brazil, and 61% in the Northeast. 12 Taking as examples rainfall reductions of 5%, 10%, 25% and 50%, 13 plantation area requirements are calculated to increase up to 38% 14 over those without climatic change, which would bring the total 15 plantation area by 2050 to 4.5 times the 1991 area. 16 17 18 Acknowledgments 19 20 I thank Mário Ferreira and S.V. Wilson for comments on the 21 manuscript. The Pew Scholars Program in Conservation and the Environment, the National Council of Scientific and Technological 22 23 Development (CNPq AI 350230/97-98) and the National Institute for 24 Research in the Amazon (INPA PPI 5-3150) provided financial 25 support. 26 27 REFERENCES 28 29 1. A. Ab'Saber, J. Goldemberg, L. Rodés and W. Zulauf, 30 Identificação de áreas para o florestamento no espaço total 31 do Brasil. Estudos AVANÇADOS 4(9), 63-119 (1990). 32 33 2. P.M. Fearnside, Plantation forestry in Brazil: Projections 34 to 2050. Biomass and Bioenergy (forthcoming) (nd). 35 36 P.S. Eagleson, The emergence of global-scale hydrology. 3. 37 Water Resources Res. 22, 6s-14s. (1986). 38 39 4. M. Parry, The potential effect of climate changes on 40 agriculture and land use. Adv. Ecolog. Res., 22, 63-91. 41 (1992). 42 43 5. W.L. Gates, J.F.B. Mitchell, G.J. Boer, U. Cubasch and V.P. Meleshko, Climate modelling, climate prediction and model 44 45 validation. in Climate Change 1992: The Supplementary Report 46

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1 FIGURE LEGENDS 2 3 Figure 1 --Regions of Brazil and locations mentioned in the 4 text. "Southern Brazil" refers to the portion 5 that is neither Amazonian nor Northeastern. 6 7 General pattern expected for the relationship of Figure 2 --8 yield to rainfall for different silvicultural 9 species. The composite of individual species 10 curves would approximate a straight line with a 11 shallower slope than the one for any particular 12 species. 13 14 Figure 3 --Causal loop diagram of relationships for 15 projecting plantation yields and areas. Signs by 16 each arrow indicate the direction of change in the 17 quantity at the head of the arrow given an 18 increase in the quantity at the tail of the arrow. 19 20 Figure 4 --Short-rotation plantation yields under different 21 climatic change scenarios: 22 23 A.) Marginal yields. 24 25 B.) Cumulative yields. 26 27 Figure 5 --Area and expansion rate of short-rotation 28 plantations under different climatic change 29 scenarios: 30 31 Area maintained. A.) 32 33 B.) Expansion rate. 34 35 Figure 6 --Response of yields and area of short-rotation 36 plantations to the percent of precipitation 37 decline resulting from climatic change by the year 38 2050: 39 40 A.) Response expressed in absolute amounts. 41 42 Response expressed as percentage deviation B.) 43 from the no climatic change scenario.











