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Assessing Urban Forest Effects and Values



Washington, D.C.'s Urban Forest



Abstract

An analysis of trees in Washington, D.C. reveals that this city has about 1,928,000 trees with canopies that cover 28.6 percent of the area. The most common tree species are American beech, red maple, and boxelder. The urban forest currently store about 526,000 tons of carbon valued at \$9.7 million. In addition, these trees remove about 16,200 tons of carbon per year (\$299,000 per year) and about 540 tons of air pollution per year (\$2.5 million per year). The structural, or compensatory, value is estimated at \$3.6 billion. Information on the structure and functions of the urban forest can be used to improve and augment support for urban forest management programs and to integrate urban forests within plans to improve environmental quality in the Washington, D.C. area.

The Authors

DAVID J. NOWAK is a research forester and project leader, ROBERT E. HOEHN III, is a biological sciences technician, DANIEL E. CRANE is an information technology specialist, JACK C. STEVENS is a forester, and JEFFREY T. WALTON is a research forester with the Forest Service's Northern Research Station at Syracuse, NY.

Photographs

Unless otherwise credited, all photographs are courtesy of Dan Smith, Casey Tree Endowment Fund.

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Urban forests provide numerous benefits to society, yet relatively little is known about this important resource.

In 2004, the UFORE model was used to survey and analyze Washington D.C.'s urban forest.

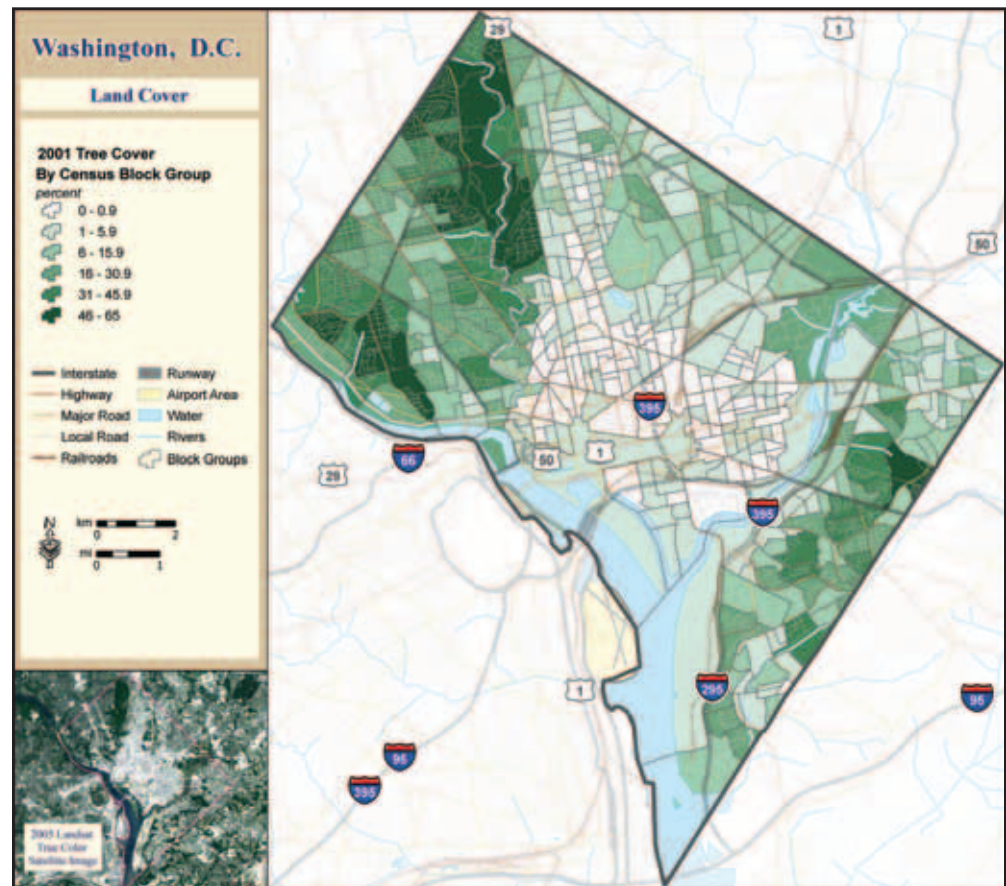
The calculated environmental benefits of the urban forest are significant, yet many environmental and social benefits still remain to be quantified.

Executive Summary

Trees in cities can contribute significantly to human health and environmental quality. Unfortunately, little is known about the urban forest resource and what it contributes to the local and regional society and economy. To better understand the urban forest resource and its numerous values, the USDA Forest Service, Northern Research Station, developed the Urban Forest Effects (UFORE) model. Results from this model are used to advance the understanding of the urban forest resource, improve urban forest policies, planning and management, provide data for potential inclusion of trees within environmental regulations, and determine how trees affect the environment and consequently enhance human health and environmental quality in urban areas.

Forest structure is a measure of various physical attributes of the vegetation, such as tree species composition, number of trees, tree density, tree health, leaf area, biomass, and species diversity. Forest functions, which are determined by forest structure, include a wide range of environmental and ecosystem services such as air pollution removal and cooler air temperatures. Forest values are an estimate of the economic worth of the various forest functions.

Washington, D.C. is often referred to as the “city of trees,” or “city within a park.” The city is home to more than 550,000 citizens and visited annually by more than 16 million. Many residents and visitors show considerable interest in the landscapes of



Percentage tree cover in Washington, D.C. by census tract. The UFORE model, which is in the suite of urban forestry software known as i-Tree (www.itreetools.org), contains numerous maps of Washington, D.C.'s urban forest.



Courtesy of the National Park Service Digital Image Archives

our nation's capital, such as the famous cherry trees of the Tidal Basin, the American elm of the National Mall, and the numerous park, historic, and residential landscapes throughout the city. As in most cities, trees are appreciated for their aesthetic beauty; the ecological role and the monetary value trees contribute often are neither recognized nor appreciated. Consequently, there could be no better city than our nation's capital in which to enhance this awareness with a UFORE analysis. UFORE data is not only useful for increasing the citizen's appreciation of the urban forest, but also is useful in management and planning.

To help determine the vegetation structure, functions, and values of the urban forest in Washington, D.C., a vegetation assessment was conducted during the summer of 2004. For this assessment, one-tenth acre field plots were sampled and analyzed using the UFORE model. This report summarizes results and values of:

- Forest structure
- Risk of insect pests to forests
- Air pollution removal
- Carbon storage
- Annual carbon removal (sequestration)
- Changes in building energy use

Washington, D.C. Urban Forest Summary	
Feature	Measure
Number of trees	1,928,000
Tree cover	28.6%
Most common species	American beech, red maple, boxelder
Percentage of trees < 6-inches diameter	56.3%
Pollution removal	540 tons/year (\$2.5 million/year)
Carbon storage	526,000 tons (\$9.7 million)
Carbon sequestration	16,200 tons/year (\$299,000/year)
Building energy reduction	\$2.653 million/year
Avoided carbon emissions	\$96,000/year
Structural values	\$3.6 billion
Ton – short ton (U.S.) (2,000 lbs)	



Urban Forest Effects Model and Field Measurements

Though urban forests have many functions and values, currently only a few of these attributes can be assessed. To help assess the city's urban forest, data from 201 field plots located throughout the city were analyzed using the Forest Service's Urban Forest Effects (UFORE) model¹.

Benefits ascribed to urban trees include:

- Air pollution removal
- Air temperature reduction
- Reduced building energy use
- Absorption of ultraviolet radiation
- Improved water quality
- Reduced noise
- Improved human comfort
- Increased property value
- Improved physiological & psychological well-being
- Aesthetics
- Community cohesion

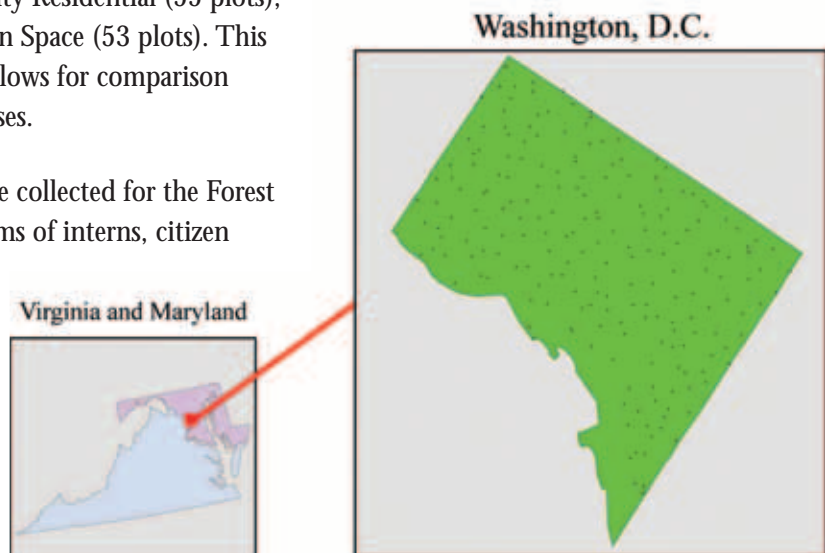
UFORE is designed to use standardized field data from randomly located plots and local hourly air pollution and meteorological data to quantify urban forest structure and its numerous effects, including:

- Urban forest structure (e.g., species composition, tree density, tree health, leaf area, leaf and tree biomass, species diversity, etc.).
- Amount of pollution removed hourly by the urban forest, and its associated percent air quality improvement throughout a year. Pollution removal is calculated for ozone, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, carbon monoxide and particulate matter (<10 microns).
- Total carbon stored and net carbon annually sequestered by the urban forest.
- Effects of trees on building energy use and consequent effects on carbon dioxide emissions from power plants.
- Compensatory value of the forest, as well as the value of air pollution removal and carbon storage and sequestration.
- Potential impact of infestations by Asian longhorned beetles, emerald ash borers, gypsy moth, and Dutch elm disease.

For more information go to <http://www.ufore.org>

In the field, one-tenth acre plots were randomly located with a grid pattern at a density of approximately 1 plot for every 196 acres. In Washington, D.C., land uses were used to divide the analysis into smaller zones. The plots were divided among the following land uses: Commercial (8 plots), Federal/Institutional (20 plots), Industrial (7 plots), Local (6 plots), Low Density Residential (41 plots), Mixed Use (11 plots), Medium to High Density Residential (55 plots), and Park/Open Space (53 plots). This distribution allows for comparison among land uses.

Field data were collected for the Forest Service by teams of interns, citizen





Field Survey Data

Plot Information

- Land use type
- Percent tree cover
- Percent shrub cover
- Percent plantable
- Percent ground cover types
- Shrub species / dimensions

Tree parameters

- Species
- Stem diameter
- Total height
- Height to crown base
- Crown width
- Percent foliage missing
- Percent dieback
- Crown light exposure
- Distance and direction to buildings from trees

foresters, and volunteers working for the Casey Trees Endowment Fund and by students from the University of Maryland's Urban Forestry Program assisting staff of the National Mall and Memorial Parks of the National Park Service's National Capital Region; data collection took place during the leaf-on season to properly assess tree canopies. Within each plot, data included land-use, ground and tree cover, shrub characteristics, and individual tree attributes of species, stem-diameter at breast height (d.b.h.; measured at 4.5 ft.), tree height, height to base of live crown, crown width, percentage crown canopy missing and dieback, and distance and direction to residential buildings².

To calculate current carbon storage, biomass for each tree was calculated using equations from the literature and measured tree data. Open-grown, maintained trees tend to have less biomass than predicted by forest-derived biomass equations³. To adjust for this difference, biomass results for open-grown urban trees are multiplied by 0.8.³ No adjustment is made for trees found in natural stand conditions. Tree dry-weight biomass was converted to stored carbon by multiplying by 0.5.

To estimate the gross amount of carbon sequestered annually, average diameter growth from the appropriate genera and diameter class and tree condition was added to the existing tree diameter (year x) to estimate tree diameter and carbon storage in year $x+1$.



Air pollution removal estimates are derived from calculated hourly tree-canopy resistances for ozone, and sulfur and nitrogen dioxides based on a hybrid of big-leaf and multi-layer canopy deposition models.^{4, 5} As the removal of carbon monoxide and particulate matter by vegetation is not directly related to transpiration, removal rates (deposition velocities) for these pollutants were based on average measured values from the literature^{6, 7} that were adjusted depending on leaf phenology and leaf area. Particulate removal incorporated a 50 percent resuspension rate of particles back to the atmosphere.⁸

Seasonal effects of trees on residential building energy use were calculated based on procedures described in the literature⁹ using distance and direction of trees from residential structures, tree height and tree condition data.

Compensatory values were based on valuation procedures of the Council of Tree and Landscape Appraisers, which uses tree species, diameter, condition and location information.¹⁰

To learn more about UFORE methods¹¹ visit:

<http://www.nrs.fs.fed.us/UFORE/data/> or www.ufore.org



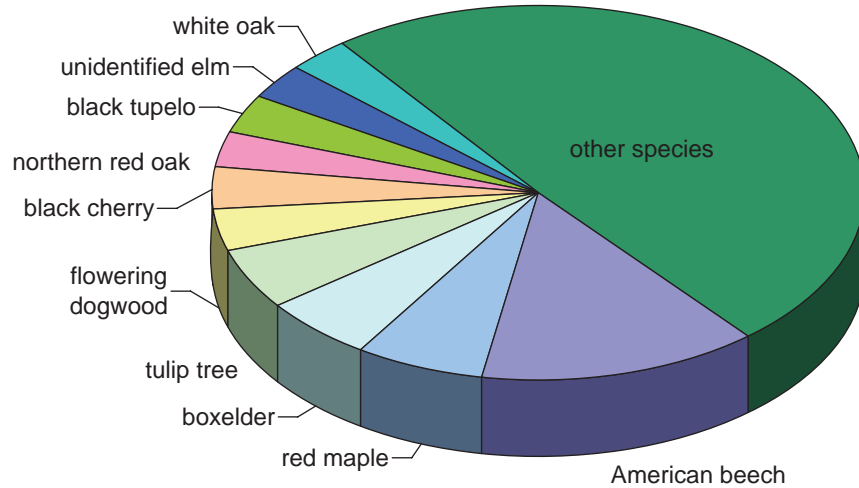
Tree Characteristics of the Urban Forest

The urban forest of Washington, D.C. has an estimated 1,928,000 trees with a tree cover of 28.6 percent. Trees that have diameters less than 6 inches account for 56.3 percent of the population. The three most common species in the urban forest are American beech (14.0 percent), red maple (6.4 percent), and boxelder (5.5 percent). The 10 most common species account for 50.9 percent of all trees; their relative abundance is illustrated below.

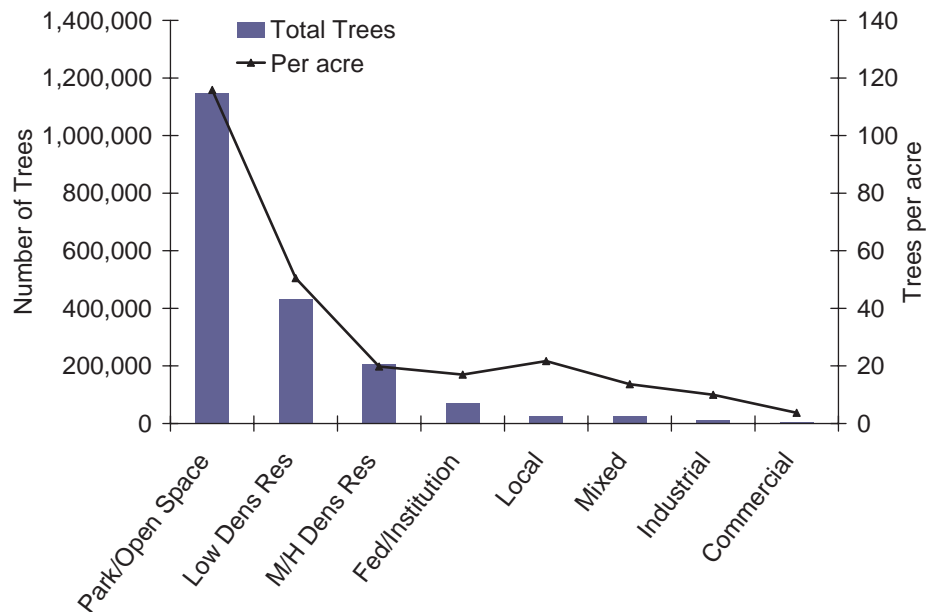
There are an estimated 1,928,000 trees in Washington, D.C. with canopies that cover 28.6 percent of the city.

The 10 most common species account for 50.9 percent of the total number of trees.

Tree density is highest in the Parks and Open Space, lowest in Commercial land use.



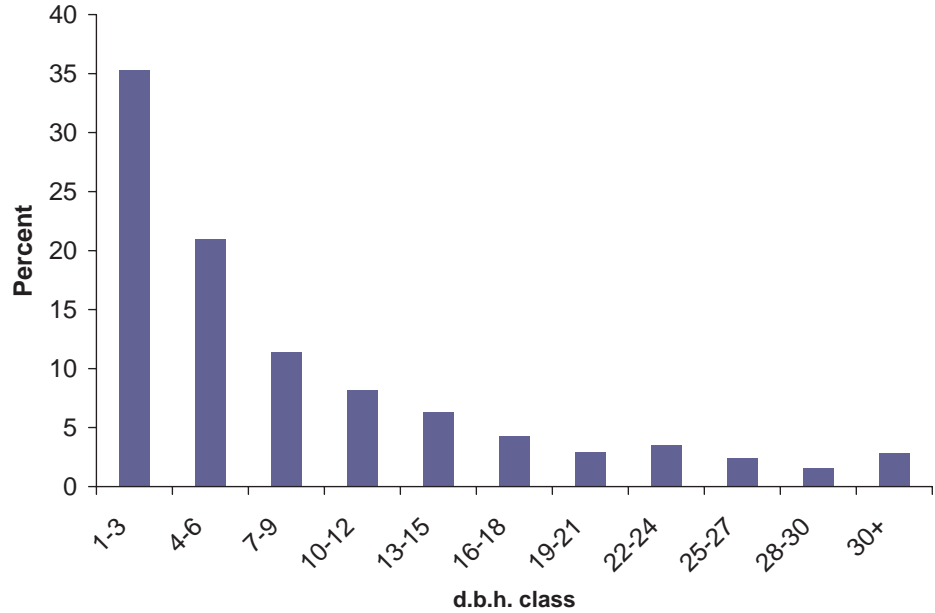
The highest density of trees occurs in the Park/Open Space (115.8 trees/acre), followed by the Low Density Residential (50.5 trees/acre) and the Local (21.7 trees/acre). The overall tree density in Washington, D.C is 49.0 trees/acre, which is comparable to other city tree densities (Appendix I), of 14.4 to 119.2 trees/acre.



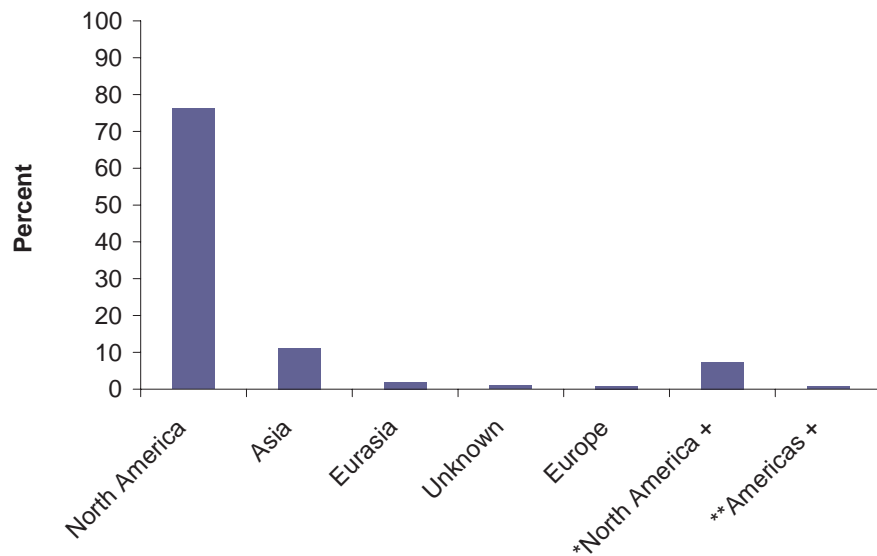


Nearly three-quarters of the tree species in Washington, D.C. are native to North America.

Urban forests are a mix of native tree species that existed prior to the development of the city and exotic species that were introduced by residents or other means.



Urban forests are a mix of native tree species that existed prior to the development of the city and exotic species that were introduced by residents or other means. Thus, urban forests often have a tree diversity that is higher than surrounding native landscapes. An increased tree diversity can minimize the overall impact or destruction by a species-specific insect or disease, but the increase in the number of exotic plants can also pose a risk to native plants if some of the exotics species are invasive plants that can potentially out-compete and displace native species. In Washington, D.C., about 76 percent of the trees are from species native to North America. Trees with a native origin outside of North America are mostly from Asia (11.2 percent of the species).



*North America + refers to tree species that are native to North America and one other continent.
 **Americas + refers to tree species that are native to North and South America and one other continent.

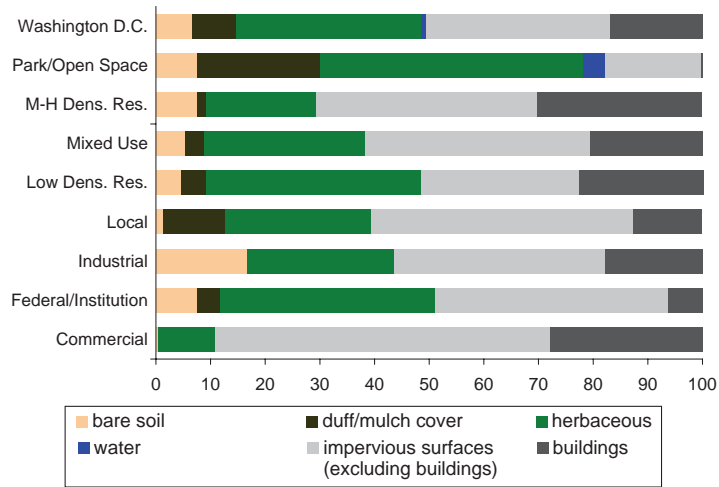


Urban Forest Cover and Leaf Area

Trees cover about 28.6 percent of Washington, D.C.; shrubs cover 7.8 percent of the city. Dominant ground cover types include herbaceous (e.g., grass, gardens) (33.8 percent), impervious surfaces (excluding buildings) (e.g., driveways, sidewalks, parking lots) (33.6 percent), and buildings (17.0 percent).

Healthy leaf area equates directly to tree benefits provided to the community.

American beech has the greatest importance to the Washington, D.C.'s urban forest based on relative leaf area and relative population.



Many tree benefits are linked directly to the amount of healthy leaf surface area of the plant. In Washington, D.C., trees that dominate in terms of leaf area are tulip tree, American beech, and northern red oak.

Tree species with relatively large individuals contributing leaf area to the population (species with percent of canopy much greater than percent of population) are tulip tree, American elm, and northern red oak. Smaller trees in the population are sassafras, flowering dogwood, and callery pear (species with percent of canopy is much less than percent of population). A species must also constitute at least 1 percent of the total population to be considered as relatively large or small trees in the population.

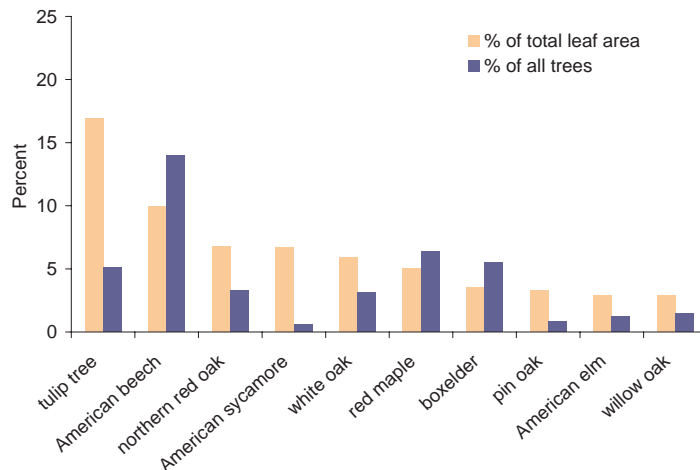
The importance values (IV) are calculated using a formula that takes into account the relative leaf area and relative abundance. The most important species in the urban forest, according to calculated IVs, are American beech, tulip tree, and red maple.

Common Name	% Pop ^a	% LA ^b	IV ^c
American beech	14.1	9.9	24.0
Tulip tree	5.2	16.9	22.1
Red maple	6.4	5.0	11.4
Northern red oak	3.3	6.8	10.1
Boxelder	5.5	3.5	9.0
White oak	3.1	5.9	9.0
American sycamore	0.6	6.7	7.3
Black cherry	3.5	2.7	6.2
White mulberry	1.9	2.6	4.5
Willow oak	1.5	2.9	4.4

^a Percent of population

^b Percent of leaf area

^c Percent Pop + Percent LA





The urban forest of Washington, D.C. removes approximately 540 tons of pollutants each year, with a societal value of \$2.5 million/year.

General urban forest management recommendations to improve air quality are given in Appendix II.

Air Pollution Removal by Urban Trees

Poor air quality is a common problem in many urban areas. It can lead to human health problems, damage to landscape materials and ecosystem processes, and reduced visibility. The urban forest can help improve air quality by reducing air temperature, directly removing pollutants from the air, and reducing energy consumption in buildings, which consequently reduce air pollutant emissions from the power plants. Trees also emit volatile organic compounds that can contribute to ozone formation. However, integrative studies have revealed that an increase in tree cover leads to reduced ozone formation.¹²

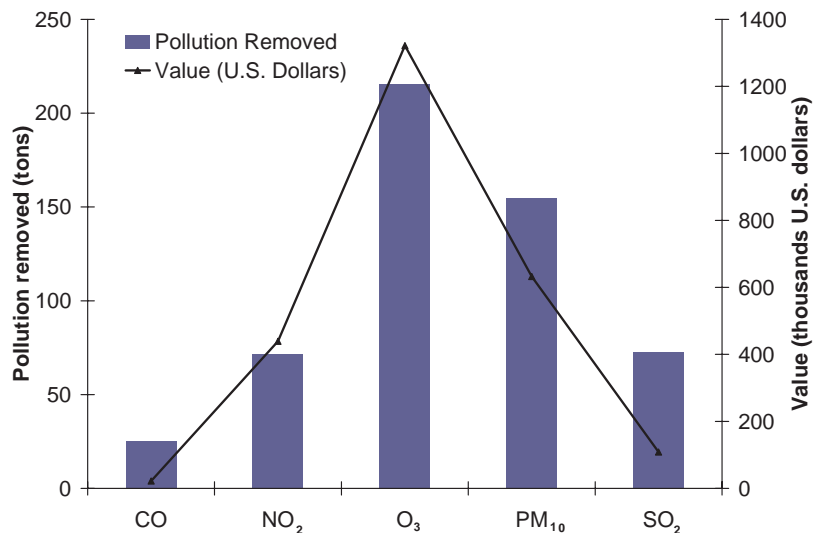
Pollution removal by trees and shrubs in Washington, D.C. was estimated using the UFORE model in conjunction with field data and hourly pollution and weather data for year 2000. Pollution removal was greatest for ozone (O₃), followed by particulate matter less than ten microns (PM₁₀), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and carbon monoxide (CO). It is estimated that trees and shrubs remove 540 tons of air pollution (CO, NO₂, O₃, PM₁₀, SO₂) per year with an associated value of \$2.5 million (based on estimated national median externality costs associated with pollutants¹³). Trees remove about 3.4 times more air pollution than shrubs in Washington, D.C.

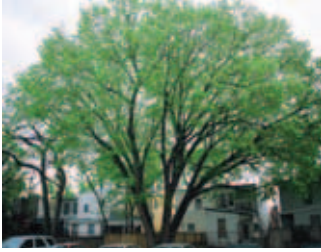
The average percentage of air pollution removal during the daytime, in-leaf season was estimated to be:

- CO 0.003%
- NO₂ 0.49%
- O₃ 0.83%
- PM₁₀ 0.71%
- SO₂ 0.82%

Peak 1-hour air quality improvements during the in-leaf season for heavily-treed areas were estimated to be:

- CO 0.05%
- NO₂ 6.0%
- O₃ 13.4%
- PM₁₀ 9.4%
- SO₂ 14.3%





Carbon Storage and Sequestration

Climate change is an issue of global concern. Urban trees can help mitigate climate change by sequestering atmospheric carbon (from carbon dioxide) in tissue and by reducing energy use in buildings, and consequently reducing carbon dioxide emissions from fossil-fuel based power plants.¹⁴

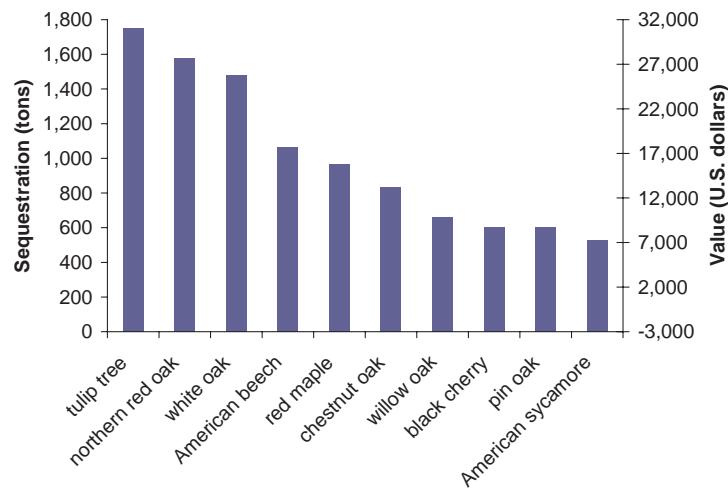
Trees reduce the amount of carbon in the atmosphere by sequestering carbon in new tissue growth every year. The amount of carbon annually sequestered is increased with healthier trees and larger diameter trees. Gross sequestration by trees in Washington, D.C. is about 16,200 tons of carbon per year with an associated value of \$299,000. Net carbon sequestration in the Washington, D.C. urban forest is about 12,900 tons.

Carbon storage:

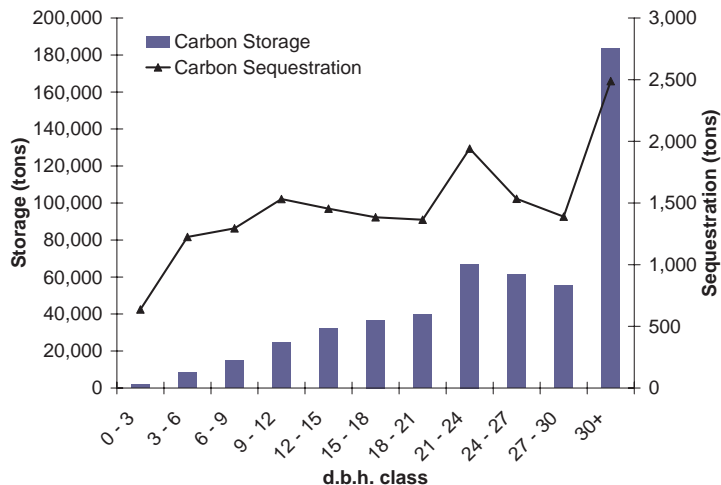
Carbon currently held in tree tissue (roots, stems, and branches).

Carbon sequestration:

Estimated amount of carbon removed annually by trees. Net carbon sequestration can be negative if emission of carbon from decomposition is greater than amount sequestered by healthy trees.



Carbon storage by trees is another way trees can influence global climate change. As trees grow, they store more carbon by holding it in their accumulated tissue. As trees die and decay, they release much of the stored carbon back into the atmosphere. Thus, carbon storage is an indication of the amount of carbon that can be lost if trees are allowed to die and decompose. Trees in Washington, D.C. are estimated to store 526,000 tons of carbon (\$9.7 million). Of all the species sampled, white oak stores the most carbon (approximately 13.6% of the total carbon stored), while the tulip tree is estimated to sequester the most carbon annually (10.4% of all sequestered carbon).





Trees affect energy consumption by shading buildings, providing evaporative cooling, and blocking winter winds.

Interactions between buildings and trees save an estimated \$2.65 million in heating and cooling costs.

Lower energy use in residential buildings reduced carbon emissions from power plants by 5,220 tons (\$96,000).

Trees Affect Energy Use in Buildings

Trees affect energy consumption by shading buildings, providing evaporative cooling, and blocking winter winds. Trees tend to reduce building energy consumption in the summer months and can either increase or decrease building energy use in the winter months, depending on the location of trees around the building. Estimates of tree effects on energy use are based on field measurements of tree distance and direction to space-conditioned residential buildings⁹.

Based on average energy costs in 2002 dollars, trees in Washington, D.C. are estimated to reduce energy costs from residential buildings by \$2.65 million annually. Trees also provide an additional \$96,000 in value per year by reducing the amount of carbon released by fossil-fuel based power plants (a reduction of 5,220 tons of carbon emissions).

Annual energy savings due to trees near residential buildings

	Heating	Cooling	total
MBTU ^a	2,000	n/a	2,000
MWH ^b	100	27,900	28,000
Carbon avoided (t)	40	5,180	5,220

^aMillion British Thermal Units

^bMegawatt-hour

Annual savings^c in (U.S. \$) residential energy expenditures during heating and cooling seasons.

	Heating	Cooling	Total
MBTU ^a	17,000	n/a	17,000
MWH ^b	8,000	2,628,000	2,636,000
Carbon avoided	800	95,200	96,000

^aMillion British Thermal Units

^bMegawatt-hour

^cBased on state-wide energy cost (Maryland)



Structural and Functional Values

Urban forests have a structural value based on the tree itself (e.g., the cost of having to replace the tree with a similar tree). The structural value¹⁰ of the urban forest in Washington, D.C. is about \$3.6 billion. The structural value of an urban forest tends to increase with a rise in the number and size of healthy trees.

Urban forests have a structural value based on the tree itself.

Urban forests also have functional values based on the functions the tree performs.

Large, healthy, long-lived trees provide the greatest structural and functional values.

A map of priority planting locations for Washington, D.C. is given in Appendix IV.

Urban forests also have functional values (either positive or negative) based on the functions the tree performs. Annual functional values also tend to increase with increased number and size of healthy trees, and are usually on the order of several million dollars per year. There are many other functional values of the urban forest, though they are not quantified here (e.g., reduction in air temperatures and ultra-violet radiation, improvements in water quality). Through proper management, urban forest values can be increased. However, the values and benefits also can decrease as the amount of healthy tree cover declines.

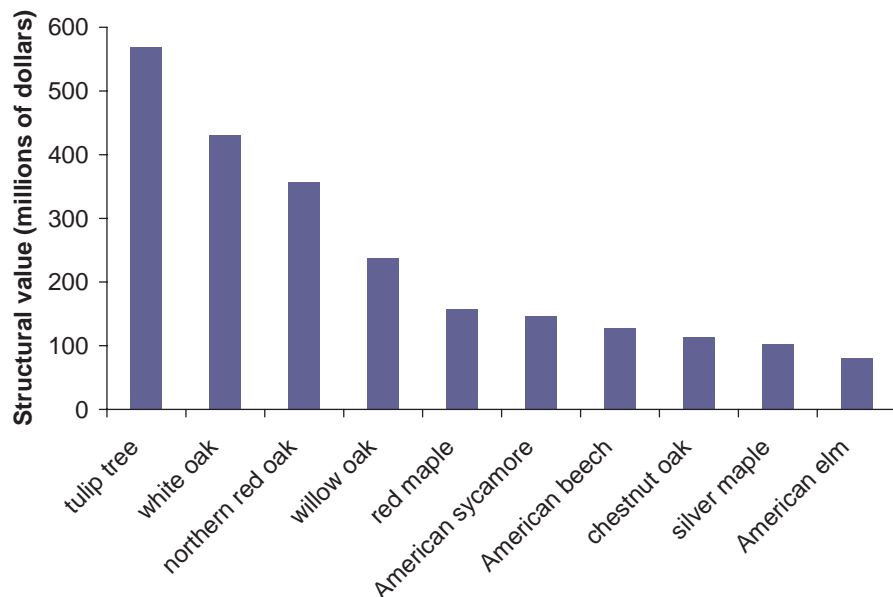
Structural values:

- Structural value: \$3.6 billion
- Carbon storage: \$9.7 million

Annual functional values:

- Carbon sequestration: \$299,000
- Pollution removal: \$2.5 million
- Lower energy costs and reduces carbon emissions: \$2.75 million

More detailed information on the urban forest in Washington, D.C. can be found at <http://www.fs.fed.us/ne/syracuse/Data/data.htm>. Additionally, information on other urban forest values can be found in Appendix I and information comparing tree benefits to estimates of average carbon emissions in the city, average automobile emissions, and average household emissions can be found in Appendix III.



Asian longhorned beetle



Kenneth R. Law
USDA APHIS PPQ
(www.invasive.org)

Gypsy moth



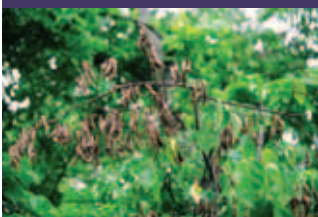
USDA Forest Service Archives
(www.invasive.org)

Emerald ash borer



David Cappaert
Michigan State University
(www.invasive.org)

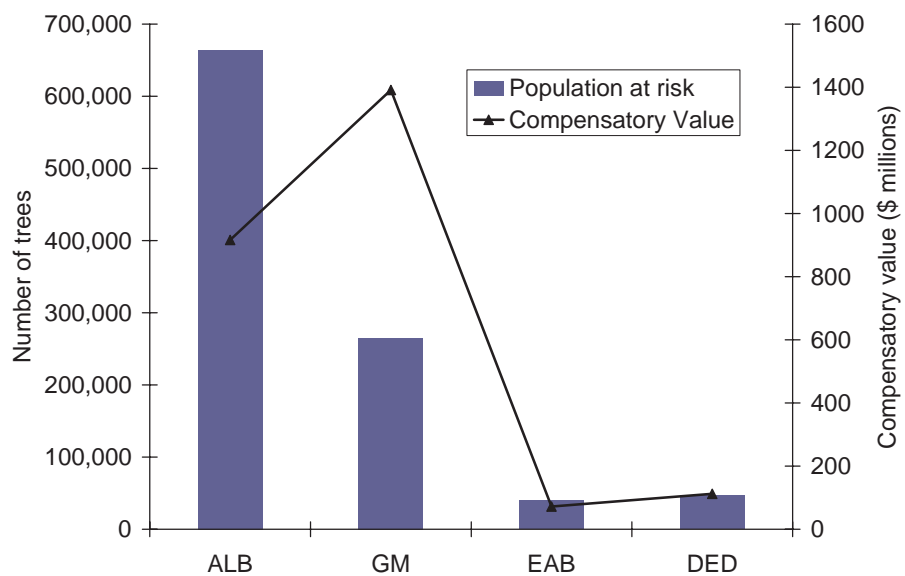
Dutch elm disease



Potential Insect and Disease Impacts

Various insects and diseases can infest urban forests, potentially killing trees and reducing the health, value and sustainability of the urban forest. As various pests have differing tree hosts, the potential damage or risk of each pest will differ. Four exotic pests were analyzed for their potential impact: Asian longhorned beetle, gypsy moth, emerald ash borer, and Dutch elm disease.

The Asian longhorned beetle (ALB)¹⁵ is an insect that bores into and kills a wide range of hardwood species. ALB represents a potential loss to the Washington, D.C. urban forest of \$916 million in structural value (34.4 percent of the tree population).



The gypsy moth (GM)¹⁶ is a defoliator that feeds on many species causing widespread defoliation and tree death if outbreak conditions last several years. This pest could potentially result in a loss of \$1.39 billion in structural value (13.8 percent of the tree population).

Emerald ash borer (EAB)¹⁷ has killed thousands of ash trees in Michigan, Ohio, and Indiana. EAB has the potential to affect 2.1 percent of the population (\$72 million in structural value).

American elm, one of the most important street trees in the 20th century, has been devastated by the Dutch elm disease (DED). Since first reported in the 1930s, it has killed more than 50 percent of the native elm population in the United States.¹⁸ Although some elm species have shown varying degrees of resistance, Washington, D.C. possibly could lose 2.4 percent of its trees to this disease (\$112 million in structural value).

Appendix I. Comparison of Urban Forests

A commonly asked question is, “How does this city compare to other cities?” Although comparison among cities should be made with caution as there are many attributes of a city that affect urban forest structure and functions, summary data are provided from other cities analyzed using the UFORE model.

I. City totals, trees only

City	% Tree cover	Number of trees	Carbon storage (tons)	Carbon sequestration (tons/yr)	Pollution removal (tons/yr)	Pollution value U.S. \$
Calgary, Canada ^a	7.2	11,889,000	445,000	21,400	326	1,611,000
Atlanta, GA ^b	36.7	9,415,000	1,344,000	46,400	1,663	8,321,000
Toronto, Canada ^c	20.5	7,542,000	992,000	40,300	1,212	6,105,000
New York, NY ^b	20.9	5,212,000	1,350,000	42,300	1,677	8,071,000
Baltimore, MD ^d	21.0	2,627,000	597,000	16,200	430	2,129,000
Philadelphia, PA ^b	15.7	2,113,000	530,000	16,100	576	2,826,000
Washington, DC ^e	28.6	1,928,000	526,000	16,200	418	1,956,000
Boston, MA ^b	22.3	1,183,000	319,000	10,500	284	1,426,000
Woodbridge, NJ ^f	29.5	986,000	160,000	5,560	210	1,037,000
Minneapolis, MN ^g	26.4	979,000	250,000	8,900	306	1,527,000
Syracuse, NY ^d	23.1	876,000	173,000	5,420	109	568,000
San Francisco, CA ^a	11.9	668,000	194,000	5,100	141	693,000
Morgantown, WV ^h	35.5	658,000	93,000	2,890	72	333,000
Moorestown, NJ ^f	28.0	583,000	117,000	3,760	118	576,000
Jersey City, NJ ^f	11.5	136,000	21,000	890	41	196,000
Freehold, NJ ^f	34.4	48,000	20,000	545	22	110,000

II. Per acre values of tree effects

City	No. of trees	Carbon Storage (tons)	Carbon sequestration (tons/yr)	Pollution removal (lbs/yr)	Pollution value U.S. \$
Calgary, Canada ^a	66.7	2.5	0.12	3.7	9.0
Atlanta, GA ^b	111.6	15.9	0.55	39.4	98.6
Toronto, Canada ^c	48.3	6.4	0.26	15.5	39.1
New York, NY ^b	26.4	6.8	0.21	17.0	40.9
Baltimore, MD ^d	50.8	11.6	0.31	16.6	41.2
Philadelphia, PA ^b	25.1	6.3	0.19	13.6	33.5
Washington, DC ^e	49.0	13.4	0.41	21.3	49.7
Boston, MA ^b	33.5	9.1	0.30	16.1	40.4
Woodbridge, NJ ^f	66.5	10.8	0.38	28.4	70.0
Minneapolis, MN ^g	26.2	6.7	0.24	16.4	40.9
Syracuse, NY ^d	54.5	10.8	0.34	13.5	35.4
San Francisco, CA ^a	22.5	6.6	0.17	9.5	23.4
Morgantown, WV ^h	119.2	16.8	0.52	26.0	60.3
Moorestown, NJ ^f	62.1	12.4	0.40	25.1	61.3
Jersey City, NJ ^f	14.4	2.2	0.09	8.6	20.7
Freehold, NJ ^f	38.3	16.0	0.44	34.9	88.2

Data collection group

^a City personnel

^b ACRT, Inc.

^c University of Toronto

^d U.S. Forest Service

^e Casey Trees Endowment Fund

^f New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

^g Davey Resource Group

^h West Virginia University

Appendix II. General Recommendations for Air Quality Improvement

Urban vegetation can directly and indirectly affect local and regional air quality by altering the urban atmospheric environment. Four main ways that urban trees affect air quality are:

- Temperature reduction and other microclimatic effects
- Removal of air pollutants
- Emission of volatile organic compounds (VOC) and tree maintenance emissions
- Energy conservation in buildings and consequent power plant emissions

The cumulative and interactive effects of trees on climate, pollution removal, and VOC and power plant emissions determine the overall impact of trees on air pollution. Cumulative studies involving urban tree impacts on ozone have revealed that increased urban canopy cover, particularly with low VOC emitting species, leads to reduced ozone concentrations in cities. Local urban forest management decisions also can help improve air quality.

Urban forest management strategies to help improve air quality include:

Strategy	Reason
Increase the number of healthy trees	Increase pollution removal
Sustain existing tree cover	Maintain pollution removal levels
Maximize use of low VOC-emitting trees	Reduces ozone and carbon monoxide formation
Sustain large, healthy trees	Large trees have greatest per-tree effects
Use long-lived trees	Reduce long-term pollutant emissions from planting and removal
Use low maintenance trees	Reduce pollutants emissions from maintenance activities
Reduce fossil fuel use in maintaining vegetation	Reduce pollutant emissions
Plant trees in energy conserving locations	Reduce pollutant emissions from power plants
Plant trees to shade parked cars	Reduce vehicular VOC emissions
Supply ample water to vegetation	Enhance pollution removal and temperature reduction
Plant trees in polluted or heavily populated areas	Maximizes tree air quality benefits
Avoid pollutant-sensitive species	Improve tree health
Utilize evergreen trees for particulate matter	Year-round removal of particles



Appendix III. Relative Tree Effects

The urban forest in Washington, D.C. provides benefits that include carbon storage and sequestration, and air pollutant removal. To estimate a relative value of these benefits, tree benefits were compared to estimates of average carbon emissions in city¹⁹, average passenger automobile emissions²⁰, and average household emissions.²¹

General tree information:

Average tree diameter (d.b.h.) = 8.8 in.

Median tree diameter (d.b.h.) = 4.0 in.

Average number of trees per person = 3.5

Number of trees sampled = 976

Number of species sampled = 106

Average tree effects by tree diameter:

D.b.h. Class (inch)	Carbon storage			Carbon sequestration			Pollution removal	
	(lbs)	(\$)	(miles) ^a	(lbs/yr)	(\$/yr)	(miles) ^a	(lbs)	(\$)
1-3	6	0.06	20	1.9	0.02	7	0.1	0.19
3-6	40	0.37	150	6.0	0.06	22	0.2	0.39
6-9	137	1.26	500	11.8	0.11	43	0.3	0.69
9-12	308	2.84	1,130	19.3	0.18	71	0.5	1.15
12-15	521	4.80	1,910	23.6	0.22	86	0.6	1.40
15-18	881	8.12	3,230	33.2	0.31	121	0.9	2.07
18-21	1,386	12.77	5,080	47.7	0.44	175	0.9	2.04
21-24	1,951	17.97	7,150	56.5	0.52	207	1.2	2.71
24-27	2,634	24.26	9,650	65.9	0.61	242	1.7	3.90
27-30	3,537	32.57	12,950	88.7	0.82	325	1.2	2.88
30+	6,667	61.41	24,420	90.3	0.83	331	3.2	7.52

^a miles = number of automobile miles driven that produces emissions equivalent to tree effect

The Washington, D.C. urban forest provides:

Carbon storage equivalent to:

Amount of carbon (C) emitted in city in 57 days or
Annual C emissions from 315,000 automobiles or
Annual C emissions from 158,400 single family houses

Carbon monoxide removal equivalent to:

Annual carbon monoxide emissions from 78 automobiles or
Annual carbon monoxide emissions from 300 single family houses

Nitrogen dioxide removal equivalent to:

Annual nitrogen dioxide emissions from 3,500 automobiles or
Annual nitrogen dioxide emissions from 2,300 single family houses

Sulfur dioxide removal equivalent to:

Annual sulfur dioxide emissions from 82,400 automobiles or
Annual sulfur dioxide emissions from 1,400 single family houses

Particulate matter less than 10 micron (PM₁₀) removal equivalent to:

Annual PM₁₀ emissions from 315,200 automobiles or
Annual PM₁₀ emissions from 30,400 single family houses

Annual C sequestration equivalent to:

Amount of C emitted in city in 1.8 days or
Annual C emissions from 9,700 automobiles or
Annual C emissions from 4,900 single family homes

Appendix IV. Tree Planting Index Map

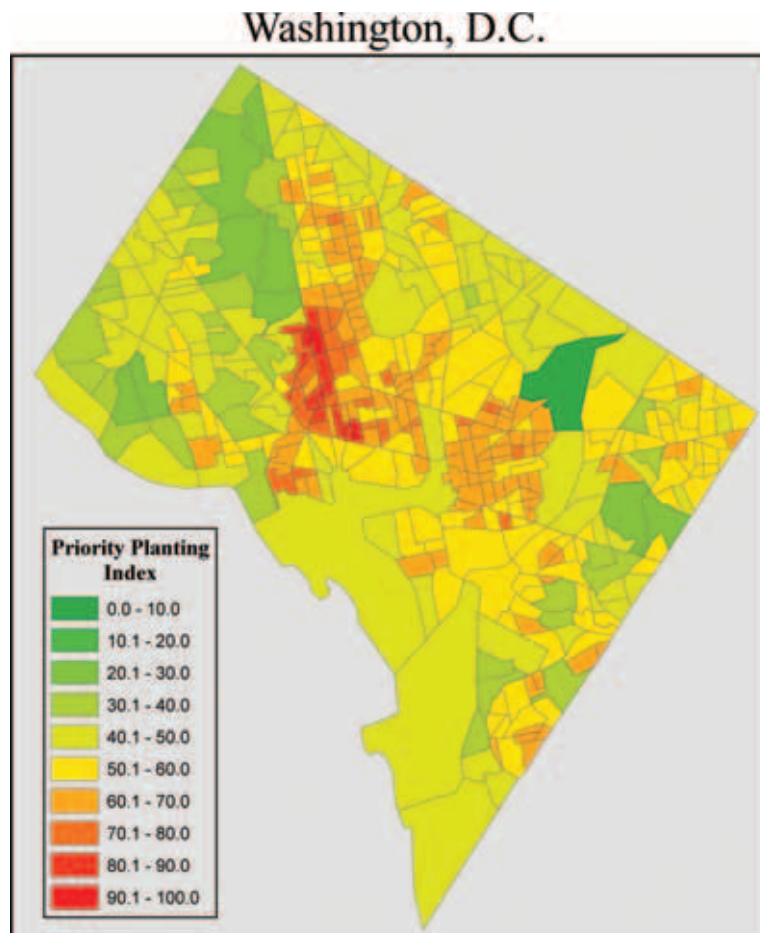
To determine the best locations to plant trees, tree canopy and impervious cover maps from National Land Cover Data²² were used in conjunction with 2000 U.S. Census data to produce an index of priority planting areas. Index values were produced for each census block with the higher the index value, the higher the priority of the area for tree planting. This index is a type of “environmental equity” index with areas with higher human population density and lower tree cover tending to get the higher index value. The criteria used to make the index were:

- Population density: the greater the population density, the greater the priority for tree planting
- Tree stocking levels: the lower the tree stocking level (the percent of available greenspace (tree, grass, and soil cover areas) that is occupied by tree canopies), the greater the priority for tree planting
- Tree cover per capita: the lower the amount of tree canopy cover per capita (m²/capita), the greater the priority for tree planting

Each criteria was standardized²³ on a scale of 0 to 1 with 1 representing the census block with the highest value in relation to priority of tree planting (i.e., the census block with highest population density, lowest stocking density or lowest tree cover per capita were standardized to a rating of 1). Individual scores were combined and standardized based on the following formula to produce an overall priority index value between 0 and 100:

$$I = (PD * 40) + (TS * 30) + (TPC * 30)$$

Where I = index value, PD is standardized population density, TS is standardized tree stocking, and TPC is standardized tree cover per capita.



Appendix V. List of Species Sampled in Washington, D.C.

Genus	Species	Common Name	% Population	% Leaf Area	IV ^a	Potential pest ^b			
						ALB	GM	EAB	DED
Acer	campestre	Hedge maple	0.2	0.0	0.2	○			
Acer	negundo	Boxelder	5.5	3.5	9.0	○			
Acer	platanum	Japanese maple	0.3	0.2	0.5	○			
Acer	platanoides	Norway maple	1.4	1.7	3.1	○			
Acer	rubrum	Red maple	6.4	5.0	11.4	○			
Acer	saccharinum	Silver maple	0.6	1.6	2.2	○			
Acer	saccharum	Sugar maple	1.0	1.0	2.0	○			
Acer	species	Maple	0.4	0.4	0.8	○			
Ailanthus	altissima	Tree of heaven	1.4	0.8	2.2				
Albizia	julibrissin	Mimosa	0.2	0.0	0.2	○			
Buxus	species	Boxwood	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Carpinus	caroliniana	American hornbeam	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Carpinus	species	Hornbeam	0.6	0.1	0.7				
Carya	aquatica	Water hickory	0.1	0.2	0.3				
Carya	cordiformis	Bitternut hickory	0.3	0.0	0.3				
Carya	glabra	Pignut hickory	1.2	1.1	2.3				
Carya	ovata	Shagbark hickory	0.3	0.1	0.4				
Carya	species	Hickory	1.2	0.5	1.7				
Carya	tomentosa	Mockernut hickory	0.7	0.2	0.9				
Castanea	species	Chinkapin	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Catalpa	bignonioides	Southern catalpa	0.1	0.1	0.2				
Catalpa	species	Catalpa	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Catalpa	speciosa	Northern catalpa	0.3	0.1	0.4				
Cercis	canadensis	Eastern redbud	0.3	0.0	0.3				
Chamaecyparis	species	Chamaecyparis cedar species	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Cornus	florida	Flowering dogwood	3.7	0.4	4.1				
Cornus	kousa	Kousa dogwood	0.3	0.1	0.4				
Cornus	species	Dogwood	0.4	0.0	0.4				
Crataegus	phaenopyrum	Washington hawthorn	0.2	0.0	0.2				
Cupressocyparis	na	Leyland cypress	0.6	0.1	0.7				
Cupressus	species	Cypress	0.5	0.0	0.5				

Continued

Appendix V continued.

Genus	Species	Common Name	% Population	% Leaf Area	IV ^a	Potential pest ^b			
						ALB	GM	EAB	DED
Diospyros	virginiana	Common persimmon	0.2	0.2	0.4				
Euonymus	alatus	Winged burningbush	0.3	0.0	0.3				
Fagus	grandifolia	American beech	14.1	9.9	24.0				
Ficus	carica	Common fig	0.3	0.0	0.3				
Fraxinus	americana	White ash	1.2	1.1	2.3	○		○	
Fraxinus	pennsylvanica	Green ash	0.5	0.4	0.9	○		○	
Fraxinus	species	Ash	0.4	0.5	0.9	○		○	
Ginkgo	biloba	Ginkgo	0.8	0.9	1.7				
Gleditsia	triacanthos	Honeylocust	0.5	0.4	0.9				
Hibiscus	syriacus	Rose-of-sharon	0.2	0.0	0.2	○			
Ilex	attenuata	Topal holly	0.3	0.7	1.0				
Ilex	opaca	American holly	1.1	0.2	1.3				
Juglans	nigra	Black walnut	0.3	1.4	1.7				
Juniperus	virginiana	Eastern red cedar	0.9	0.4	1.3				
Lagerstroemia	indica	Common crape myrtle	1.7	0.4	2.1				
Lindera	species	Spicebush	0.4	0.0	0.4				
Liquidambar	styraciflua	Sweetgum	1.3	1.1	2.4		○		
Liriodendron	tulipifera	Tulip tree	5.2	16.9	22.1				
Lonicera	species	Honeysuckle	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Maclura	pomifera	Osage orange	0.1	0.1	0.2				
Magnolia	acuminata	Cucumber tree	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Magnolia	grandiflora	Southern magnolia	0.5	0.4	0.9				
Magnolia	virginiana	Sweetbay	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Malus	species	Crabapple	1.2	0.5	1.7	○		○	
Morus	alba	White mulberry	1.9	2.6	4.5				
Morus	rubra	Red mulberry	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Nyssa	sylvatica	Black tupelo	3.2	0.9	4.1				
Ostrya	virginiana	Eastern hophornbeam	0.1	0.3	0.4		○		
Other	species	Other species	1.1	0.0	1.1				
Paulownia	tomentosa	Royal paulownia	0.3	0.1	0.4				
Picea	abies	Norway spruce	0.2	0.1	0.3				

Continued

Appendix V continued.

Genus	Species	Common Name	% Population	% Leaf Area	IV ^a	Potential pest ^b			
						ALB	GM	EAB	DED
Picea	omorika	Serbian spruce	0.3	0.2	0.5				
Picea	species	Spruce	0.2	0.2	0.4				
Pinus	resinosa	Red pine	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Pinus	species	Pine	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Pinus	strobus	Eastern white pine	1.5	1.2	2.7				
Pinus	thunbergii	Japanese black pine	0.2	0.0	0.2				
Platanus	acerifolia	London planetree	0.1	0.0	0.1	○			
Platanus	occidentalis	American sycamore	0.6	6.7	7.3	○			
Populus	deltoides	Eastern cottonwood	0.5	0.2	0.7	○			
Prunus	pensylvanica	Pin cherry	0.2	0.0	0.2	○			
Prunus	persica	Nectarine	0.1	0.0	0.1	○			
Prunus	serotina	Black cherry	3.5	2.7	6.2	○			
Prunus	serrulata	Kwanzan cherry	0.2	0.2	0.4	○			
Prunus	species	Cherry	0.5	0.2	0.7	○			
Prunus	subhirtella	Higan cherry	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Prunus	yedoensis	Yoshino flowering cherry	0.2	0.1	0.3				
Pyrus	calleryana	Callery pear	1.3	0.2	1.5	○			
Quercus	alba	White oak	3.1	5.9	9.0		○		
Quercus	nigra	Water oak	0.1	0.4	0.5		○		
Quercus	palustris	Pin oak	0.8	3.3	4.1		○		
Quercus	phellos	Willow oak	1.5	2.9	4.4		○		
Quercus	prinus	Chestnut oak	0.8	1.7	2.5		○		
Quercus	robur	English oak	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Quercus	rubra	Northern red oak	3.3	6.8	10.1		○		
Quercus	velutina	Black oak	0.6	0.3	0.9		○		
Rhododendron	species	Rhododendron	0.2	0.0	0.2				
Robinia	pseudoacacia	Black locust	1.1	0.7	1.8	○			
Sassafras	albidum	Sassafras	1.0	0.1	1.1				
Taxus	canadensis	Canada yew	0.1	0.0	0.1				
Taxus	species	Yew	0.1	0.0	0.1				

Continued

Appendix V continued.

Genus	Species	Common Name	% Population	% Leaf Area	IV ^a	Potential pest ^b			
						ALB	GM	EAB	DED
Thuja	occidentalis	Northern white cedar	0.9	0.1	1.0				
Thuja	species	Red cedar	0.3	0.0	0.3				
Tilia	americana	American basswood	0.3	0.2	0.5	○	○		
Tilia	cordata	Littleleaf linden	0.3	0.7	1.0	○	○		
Tilia	species	Linden	0.2	0.3	0.5	○			
Tsuga	canadensis	Eastern hemlock	1.0	0.5	1.5				
Ulmus	alata	Winged elm	0.1	0.0	0.1	○			○
Ulmus	americana	American elm	1.2	2.9	4.1	○			○
Ulmus	glabra	Wych elm	0.4	0.1	0.5	○			○
Ulmus	parvifolia	Chinese elm	0.1	0.3	0.4	○	○		
Ulmus	pumila	Siberian elm	0.3	1.0	1.3	○			
Ulmus	rubra	Slippery elm	0.5	0.2	0.7	○			○
Ulmus	species	Elm	3.1	1.3	4.4	○			○
Ulmus	thomasii	Rock elm	0.8	0.7	1.5	○			○
Viburnum	species	Viburnum	0.2	0.0	0.2				
Zelkova	serrata	Japanese zelkova	0.3	0.6	0.9				

a IV = importance value (% population + % leaf area)

b ALB = Asian longhorned bettel; GM = gypsy moth; EAB = emerald ash borer; DED = Dutch elm disease

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Explanation of Calculations of Appendix III and IV

19 Total city carbon emissions were based on 2003 U.S. per capita carbon emissions, calculated as total U.S. carbon emissions (Energy Information Administration, 2003, Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 2003. <http://www.eia.doe.gov/oiaf/1605/1605aold.html>) divided by 2003 total U.S. population (www.census.gov). Per capita emissions were multiplied by Minneapolis population to estimate total city carbon emissions.

20 Average passenger automobile emissions per mile were based on dividing total 2002 pollutant emissions from light-duty gas vehicles (National Emission Trends <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/trends/index.html>) by total miles driven in 2002 by passenger cars (National Transportation Statistics http://www.bts.gov/publications/national_transportation_statistics/2004/).

Average annual passenger automobile emissions per vehicle were based on dividing total 2002 pollutant emissions from light-duty gas vehicles by total number of passenger cars in 2002 (National Transportation Statistics http://www.bts.gov/publications/national_transportation_statistics/2004/).

Carbon dioxide emissions from automobiles assumed 6 pounds of carbon per gallon of gasoline with energy costs of refinement and transportation included (Graham, R.L.; Wright, L.L.; Turhollow, A.F. 1992. The potential for short-rotation woody crops to reduce U.S. CO₂ emissions. *Climatic Change*. 22:223-238.)

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CO emission per kWh assumes one-third of 1 percent of C emissions is CO based on:

Energy Information Administration. 1994. Energy use and carbon emissions: non-OECD countries. DOE/EIA-0579(94). Washington, DC: Department of Energy, Energy Information Administration. <http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/bookshelf>

PM₁₀ emission per kWh from:

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CO₂, NO_x, SO₂, PM₁₀, and CO emission per Btu for natural gas, propane and butane (average used to represent LPG), Fuel #4 and #6 (average used to represent fuel oil and kerosene) from:

Abraxas energy consulting. <http://www.abraxasenergy.com/emissions/>

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CO, NO_x and SO_x emission per Btu of wood based on total emissions from wood burning (tonnes) from:

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Emissions per dry tonne of wood converted to emissions per Btu based on average dry weight per cord of wood and average Btu per cord from:

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22 National Land Cover Data available at: www.epa.gov/mrlc/nlcd.html.

23 Standardized value for population density was calculated as:

$$PD = (n - m)/r$$

where:

PD is the value (0-1)

n is the value for the census block (population/km²)

m is the minimum value for all census blocks, and

r is the range of values among all census blocks

(maximum value – minimum value).

Standardized value for tree stocking was calculated as :

$$TS = (1 - (T/(T+G)))$$

where:

TS is the value (0-1)

T is percent tree cover, and

G is percent grass cover.

Standardized value for tree cover per capita was calculated as:

$$TPC = 1 - [(n - m)/r]$$

where:

TPC is the value (0-1)

n is the value for the census block (m²/capita)

m is the minimum value for all census blocks, and

r is the range of values among all census blocks

(maximum value – minimum value).

Nowak, David J.; Hoehn, Robert E. III, Crane, Daniel E.; Stevens, Jack C.; Walton, Jeffrey T. 2006. **Assessing urban forest effects and values, Washington, D.C.'s urban forest.** Resour. Bull. NRS-1. Newtown Square, PA: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Northern Research Station. 24 p.

An analysis of trees in Washington, D.C. reveals that this city has about 1,928,000 trees with canopies that cover 28.6 percent of the area. The most common tree species are American beech, red maple, and boxelder. The urban forest currently store about 526,000 tons of carbon valued at \$9.7 million. In addition, these trees remove about 16,200 tons of carbon per year (\$299,000 per year) and about 540 tons of air pollution per year (\$2.5 million per year). The structural, or compensatory, value is estimated at \$3.6 billion. Information on the structure and functions of the urban forest can be used to improve and augment support for urban forest management programs and to integrate urban forests within plans to improve environmental quality in the Washington, D.C. area.

Keywords: urban forestry; ecosystem services; air pollution removal; carbon sequestration; tree value





Northern

RESEARCH STATION

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Capitalizing on the strengths of existing science capacity in the Northeast and Midwest to attain a more integrated cohesive landscape scale research program

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