

# 1 Forest energy and certification in Sweden and Europe

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## 14 **Abstract**

15 Different certification standards, address different needs. Well known examples are the ISO  
16 9000 and ISO 14000 families of management standards, offered by the ISO (International  
17 Organisation for Standardization). Some standards mainly concern the need for technical  
18 specification and quality assurance; others provide user safety assurance while others certify  
19 that specific rules of production have been adhered to for one or several tiers of the supply  
20 chain. Certification aiming mainly at business administration and production management  
21 will not be dealt with in detail in this paper. Instead, it is focused on certification of  
22 sustainability and purposefulness of systems used to produce solid biomass for energy  
23 purposes, mainly as solid biofuels, and in particular from forestry.

24 It is put forward that it is advantageous for many reasons that such certification should be  
25 based on existing standards for forest management. These are typically of the Chain-of-  
26 Custody (COC) type, meaning that an agreed set of standards is applied throughout the supply  
27 chain. Of twenty or so available standards for forestry and forest products, there are two  
28 standards that are of main interest in northern Europe: FSC (Forest Stewardship Council) and  
29 PEFC (Programme for the Endorsement of Forest Certification schemes). Both standards are  
30 resting on the three fundamentals for sustainability: economy, ecology and social values. The  
31 current standards regarding forest energy of the two major certification systems are described.  
32 Furthermore, illustrated by a Nordic example, an evaluation of how the utilisation of forest  
33 energy affects economy, ecology and social values is made.

34 *Keywords: solid biofuels, forest fuels, certification, standardisation, sustainability, forestry*  
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36 **Introduction**

37 Certification has become an increasingly important factor in various situations; business,  
38 management, trade, environment and ethics are some of the issues that can be certified. The  
39 certification is normally audited by a separate, third-party organisation, that checks and  
40 verifies that the enterprise comply with the certification rules. There are several organisations  
41 that provide certification.

42

43 The basic idea behind certification is the same as for any standardisation and quality control  
44 through technical and economical standardisation, to minimise friction of transactions through  
45 common rules of measures, procedures etc that have been agreed beforehand. Through  
46 certification, the customer is guaranteed that a product or service incorporates certain defined  
47 properties, and these properties do not have to be independently investigated for every  
48 transaction.

49

50 The most important areas for certification concern technical and administrative specification.  
51 ISO (International Organization for Standardization) is the world's largest developer of  
52 standards. Although ISO's principal activity is the development of technical standards, ISO  
53 standards also have important economic and social repercussions. There are two different,  
54 widespread types of ISO certification standards, the ISO 9000 and ISO14000.

55

56 The ISO 9000 family is primarily concerned with "quality management", i.e. what an  
57 organization does to fulfil:

- 58 • the customer's quality requirements, and
- 59 • applicable regulatory requirements, while aiming to
- 60 • enhance customer satisfaction and value added through logistic services, and
- 61 • achieve continual improvement of its performance in pursuit of these objectives

62

63 In the field of technical certification of biofuels, the European Committee for Standardisation  
64 (CEN) currently carries out some very important work. Technical Committee 335 (Solid  
65 Biofuels) are currently, under leadership of the Swedish Standardisation Organisation, SIS  
66 preparing some 30 technical specifications for solid biofuels including classification,  
67 specification and quality assurance of solid biofuels (Alakangas, Valtanen & Levlin 2005).

68 The classification will be based on origin and source (woody biomass, herbaceous biomass,

69 fruit biomass and mixtures). The specification and quality assurance on detailed technical  
70 material characteristics of major traded forms such as briquettes, pellets, olive cake, wood  
71 chips, hog fuel, logs, sawdust, bark and straw bales. Significant properties such as calorific  
72 value, dimensions, mechanical durability, moisture, ash and sulphur content etc. is covered  
73 and classified by the standard. The specification will enable producer and consumer to make  
74 case-specific agreements on specifications that may be objectively controlled. The standard  
75 will be of utmost importance both to simplify transactions and assure overall quality as  
76 international biofuel trade increases. An interesting feature is that the standard will be coupled  
77 to CEN/TS 15234 which covers fuel quality assurance and quality control. This means that  
78 traceability is guaranteed and that the full supply chain from source to end consumer is  
79 controlled and specified.

80

81 The ISO 14000 family is primarily concerned with "environmental management". This means  
82 what the organization does to:

- 83 • minimize harmful effects on the environment caused by its activities, and to
- 84 • achieve continual improvement of its environmental performance.

85

86 However, the ISO 14000 certificate mainly rates the structure and methods of environmental  
87 management in an organisation, and does not define and grade actual performance.

88 For land based products, e.g. from forestry, certification has received a lot of attention in the  
89 last decades. But to other sectors, certification is not a new phenomenon. In the U.S.,  
90 Underwriters Laboratories have been setting standards and certifying safety for electrical  
91 appliances for almost a century (Meidinger, Elliott & Oesten 2003). What is striking about  
92 forest certification is not the novelty of the idea itself, but that non-governmental  
93 organisations have replaced the public sector in performing the certification functions, largely  
94 to guarantee public credibility.

95

96 Obviously, it make no sense to certify a forest as such. Instead, forest certification means that  
97 the people and organisations responsible for the management of a forest are doing their job  
98 properly. To achieve this, we must have a common understanding of what proper forest  
99 management means. Further the quality of forest management by the party applying for  
100 certification must be assessed by unbiased expertise who will certify that the forest is properly  
101 managed or withhold certification if this is not the case (Meidinger, Elliott & Oesten 2003).  
102 Thus, as compared to e.g. the ISO environmental standards, forest certification systems

103 normally also define performance levels and achievements. That a forest product is certified  
104 as sustainable means that it has passed rigorous guidelines for responsible harvesting,  
105 ecosystem management and conservation, and long term sustainable management  
106 (Massachusetts Technology Initiative 2005).

107

108 Presently, there are around 20 different forest certification programs, of which only a few are  
109 affiliated with agencies and ministries (Meidinger, Elliott & Oesten 2003). There are three  
110 major standards for forest certification, SFI (Sustainable Forest Initiative of American Forest  
111 & Paper Association), FSC (Forest Stewardship Council) and PEFC (Programme for the  
112 Endorsement of Forest Certification schemes). Together, they are currently certifying around  
113 250 million hectares of forestland as properly managed. From a European perspective, the  
114 two most significant systems are FSC (60 M ha) and PEFC (130 M ha). Both systems have  
115 basic rules that define sustainable forestry in general terms and then allows for specific  
116 national regulations.

117

118 The objective of this paper is to analyze plausible certification regulations for utilizing  
119 bioenergy and especially for energy based on forest biomass. The FSC and PEFC certification  
120 schemes will be examined and a further look at how forest energy utilization may affect the  
121 general principles of sustainable will be made.

122

123 The overriding rationale behind substitution of fossil fuels for bioenergy is to reduce the risk  
124 of detrimental climate change. Further, the development of bioenergy technologies is part of a  
125 drive for increased sustainability. The aim is to end the dependence of limited resources and  
126 to develop technologies with as small negative impact on the environment, and on the liberty  
127 of action of future generations, as possible. Although any type of biomass may be used to this  
128 aim, forest biomass plays the dominating role. Great importance is attached to forests and  
129 forestry as a means of fighting fossil GHG emissions and in the development of sustainable  
130 bioenergy systems. The role of forests in this struggle is not only due to its' potential as an  
131 alternative energy source with the ability to re-circulate carbon, but also through its' potential  
132 to stock carbon either directly in the forest ecosystem or in wood-based products. The  
133 principal workings of the forest and forestry systems from a carbon balance perspective are  
134 outlined in Figure 1. As seen in the figure, the forest ecosystem contains three main pools of  
135 carbon; live biomass, detritus and soils. When forestry converts live biomass into products,  
136 additional carbon pools appear in the form of more or less durable products or in landfills. All

137 carbon pools leak carbon to the atmosphere, but only live biomass assimilates carbon from the  
138 atmosphere. The use of fossil fuels introduces fossil carbon to the atmosphere in an extent that  
139 is not balanced by this assimilation (Vine, Sathaye & Makundi 1999).

140

141 (FIGURE 1 AROUND HERE)

142

143

144 Forest management practices may be used in three principally different ways to decrease  
145 influx of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere:

- 146 1. Management for *carbon conservation* (of existing carbon pools in forests including  
147 forest preservation, fire and pest control etc.)
- 148 2. Management for *carbon sequestration and storage* (increased area and carbon density  
149 of forests, increased use of durable wood-based products etc.)
- 150 3. Management for *carbon substitution* (transfer of forest biomass into materials and  
151 products that can replace fossil fuel based energy and products)

152

153 When biomass is used in place of fossil fuel, net greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions are  
154 reduced, as long as the carbon dioxide produced through combustion of biomass is  
155 assimilated by new, growing biomass. But bioenergy is not truly GHG neutral since more or  
156 less GHG intensive inputs of energy are normally needed for the production, handling and  
157 transport of the biomass. Thus, the GHG balance of alternative production chains need to be  
158 audited to ensure efficiency in GHG savings. In light of the aim to increase sustainability, it  
159 would be counterproductive to promote development of such practices and use of bioenergy  
160 that involve serious risk for environmental damages or that may cause unacceptable social  
161 effects. For example (LowCVP 2005), production of bioenergy crops on cleared virgin forest  
162 land may 'have implications for both biodiversity and GHG emissions. Large monocultures of  
163 bioenergy crops may impact on local biodiversity or place unacceptable demands on water  
164 resources.'

165

166 In conclusion, certification is needed to ensure that we 'get things right' and, due to the likely  
167 imperfections of the emerging alternatives, to provide decision support for choice of  
168 technology and for perpetual improvement of the chosen alternatives. A certification system  
169 for bioenergy must cover carbon balance issues as well as wider sustainability issues such as  
170 biodiversity, sustained yield (nutrients, soil and water management) and social issues such as

171 health and safety, fair pay and equal opportunities. This puts bioenergy in the same class of  
172 commodities as other land-based products. Although it is possible to construct accreditation  
173 systems for bioenergy *per se*, it would also be advantageous if for bioenergy from forestry,  
174 the certification dovetail with existing and accepted forestry certification schemes to prevent  
175 confusion and duplication. This approach is discussed further in the following section.  
176

### 177 **Forest certification**

178 The two major international standards of forest certification, FSC (Forest Stewardship  
179 Council) and PEFC (Programme for the Endorsement of Forest Certification schemes) are  
180 fundamentally very similar. They are based on the basics of sustainable forestry as outlined at  
181 the Rio summit (United Nations 1992). They endorse the promotion of sustainable forest  
182 management resting on the three principles:

- 183 • economically viable management of forests for present and future generations
- 184 • environmentally appropriate
- 185 • socially beneficial

186  
187 For Swedish conditions both standards state that the forest management should make sure that  
188 (the quotation is from FSC 2003, but similar regulations can be found in PEFC 2005):

- 189 • *Extraction of biofuels complies with the recommendations of the National Board of*  
190 *Forestry and the volume removed is documented on a stand level. Fertilizing/ash*  
191 *recycling to compensate for biofuel extraction, liming of forest land, and revitalization*  
192 *fertilizing is carried out in accordance with regulations, general guidelines and*  
193 *recommendations of the National Board of Forestry*

194 The forest owner should in addition keep records of biofuel extraction on stand level. In the  
195 FSC standard there is also a general paragraph (FSC 2000):

- 196 • *Extraction of biofuels should not be made in such ways that it impairs the conditions*  
197 *for biological diversity*

198  
199 So the recommendations from the Swedish National Board of Forestry are of vital  
200 importance. The Forestry Act states:

- 201 • *Under regulations issued by the Government, or public authority designated by the*  
202 *Government, a forest owner is obliged to notify the Regional Forestry Board of:*  
203 *(i) felling operations and **removal of logging residuals for fuel**, to be carried out on*  
204 *his land;*

205  
206 In the Board's recommendations the following sentences are the only ones referring to  
207 utilization of biofuels (Swedish National Board of Forestry 1998):

208  
209 • *Leave the needles in the forest and do not utilize other parts than the stem wood more*  
210 *than once during a rotation*

211 or

212 • *Compensate by fertilizing with nutrients (primarily using pure wood-ash)*

213  
214 There are also some statements about the maximum supply of ash during a rotation (3 tonnes  
215 dry matter per ha) and in what form (stabilised and slow soluble).

216

217 All in all, the certification standards do not in any way prohibit the utilisation of forest fuels.

218 Finland has similar certification rules. To some extent stumps are extracted in Finland for  
219 utilisation as fuel, which require more precaution as the risk of damages and other negative  
220 consequences are likely to be higher in comparison with when only above-ground biomass is  
221 extracted.

222

### 223 ***Effects of forest fuel utilisation on sustainable management***

224 Possible effects of the utilisation of logging residues for energy may be examined  
225 through the consequences of the practice to sustainable forestry, for each of the three main  
226 criteria of sustainability; economy; ecology; and social values.

#### 227 **Economy**

228 Forest fuel utilisation is primarily positive to the economy. An additional assortment means  
229 an additional income. However, another positive consequence is that the removal of the  
230 harvesting debris facilitates the subsequent operations of regeneration. Planting, and to some  
231 extent also soil scarification, is much easier and therefore less costly on an area cleared from  
232 harvesting residues.

233

234 The major concern to the economy is the long-term productivity of the soil, and hence the  
235 long term economy. The removal of branches and tops add to the drainage of nutrients from a  
236 stand that harvesting implies. As long as the natural long-term soil nutrient status is  
237 maintained, the long-term productivity is secure; if not it will be jeopardised.

238 Studies have shown that even on fertile sites there is a risk of over-utilisation (Sverdrup et al  
239 2002). The recommendation to leave harvest residues for one season to let the needles fall off  
240 the branches is due to this reason. The needles contain relatively more nutrients than the  
241 lignified parts.

## 242 **Ecology**

243 The most positive ecological effect of using forest energy is not found in the stand or even  
244 within a region, but on a global scale. The substitution of fossil fuels is increasingly important  
245 as the effects of the green house gases to the climate change become more evident. Forest  
246 energy is almost carbon dioxide neutral. Just a small amount of fossil fuel (~4% of the  
247 produced energy) is required for procurement, handling and transportation of the forest  
248 energy (Hansson et al. 2003).

249

250 In the Nordic countries, removal of branches and tops from logging sites seem to be  
251 insignificant with respect to preservation of biodiversity. But at the same time studies have  
252 shown that the high degree of utilisation in harvestings in the Nordic countries has led to a  
253 lack of coarse dead wood in the forests, compared to natural conditions. Coarse dead wood in  
254 various degrees of decay is important to numerous different species, many of them rare in the  
255 north European forests. Different kinds of insects, lichens and fungi thrive on the decaying  
256 wood. Hence, it is of importance that the collection of forest energy not gets overambitious,  
257 but leaves a sufficient amount of dead wood on the site.

258 The nutrient balance of the soil has an implication for the biodiversity as well. If nutrients are  
259 depleted the biological conditions may change so that the species present at a site may not  
260 prevail. This is a slow process and may be very hard to detect.

## 261 **Social values**

262 Studies on forest recreation preferences have indicated that harvest residues to most people is  
263 perceived as very negative (Lindhagen & Hörnsten 2000). The removal of harvest residues  
264 will in fact increase the recreational value of a site. Beside the aesthetics, which are very  
265 important to many visitors in the forests, the absence of residues increase the accessibility to a  
266 site. Even if most forest visitors stay on tracks and pathways, berry and mushroom pickers as  
267 well as orienteering people, appreciate the increased ease of mobility over an area.

268

269 The big concern is also for the social values that a depletion of nutrients may change the  
270 natural conditions in an unfavourable direction.

271 **Conclusions**

272 The utilisation of harvest residues as forest energy has a positive implication on sustainable  
273 forest management in general. However, the nutrient balance of the soil has be taken in  
274 concern, as a depletion of nutrients may have a negative effect on all the aspects (economical,  
275 ecological and socially) of sustainable forestry. Furthermore, to improve the biodiversity, the  
276 utilisation of forest energy must not lead to a decline of the amount of coarse dead wood in  
277 the forests.

278

279 Considering these issues the utilisation of forest energy is mostly favourable to the promotion  
280 of sustainable forest management. This is also reflected in the certification regulations which  
281 put no hindrance to utilising forest energy, even if they not promote it explicitly.

282

283

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324 **Figures**

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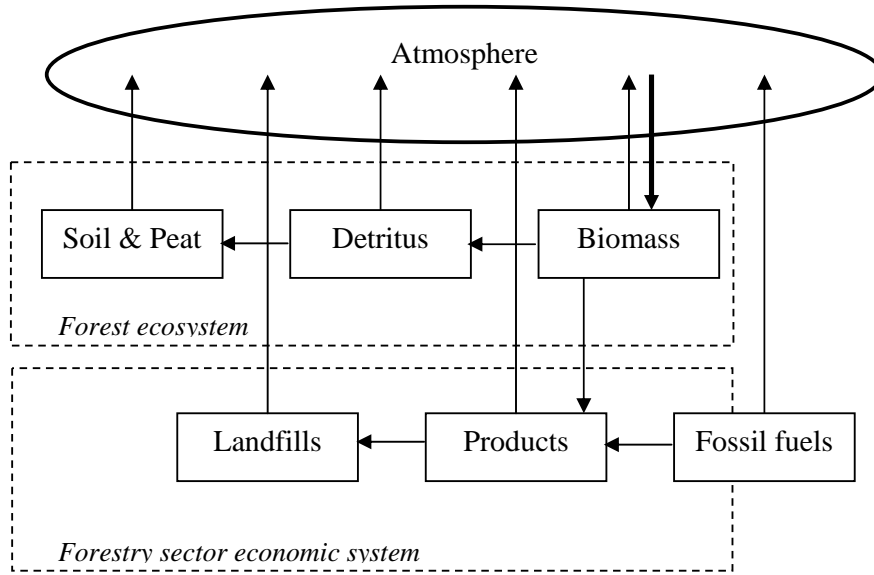
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337 Figure 1. Carbon cycles of forest systems (after Vine, Sathay & Makundi 1999, Apps & Price 1996)

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