Oregon Women in Timber

To create awareness and appreciation for the value of trees, and encourage an understanding about the protection, management and conservation of the renewable forest

Chair Imeson, State Forester Daugherty, and members of the Board:

Thank you for your time today. My name is Amanda Astor. I am a forester from Eugene. I hold a Bachelor of Science in both Forest Management and Forest Biology, a minor in botany, and a graduate certificate in Forest Carbon Science, Policy, and Management. I am also the Secretary for the Oregon Women in Timber, Lane County Chapter.

As someone who works in the woods and as a young woman who wants to have a family one day, I am always thinking about the future. What will the community my child grows up in be like? Will there be a healthy economy? Will the community be safe? Will the schools be good? I also think deeply about the environment, climate change, and what my child's life may be like once I am long gone.

Thankfully, Oregon has forests! Forests not only provide oxygen and remove carbon dioxide; our forests provide renewable wood products and family wage jobs. Working in the woods is not easy, often requiring back breaking work and long hours when no one else is awake, so why do we do it? It's because we love our forests, we love our industry and we are proud of it. Our heart and soul is put into what we do every day! It is our identity! Many of the companies working in the forest sector are small family-owned businesses with razor thin margins. As the Board considers policies that affect their ability to survive, remember that Oregon's forest sector is made up of real people, with real families, who need real food.

I also encourage members to recognize that climate benefits from constructing and designing with wood products have been seen around the globe. According to the American Forest Foundation, building with wood is better for the environment, it helps reduce energy consumption, and improves energy efficiency. Using engineered wood I-joists instead of steel joists results in 22 pounds of avoided greenhouse gas emissions for every square foot of floor.

Oregon Women in Timber supports science based policy and management; actively managing forests also has climate benefits. According to Bruce Lippke of the University of Washington, "The carbon in sustainably managed PNW forest stands is restored […] at time of harvest. The […] forest remains carbon neutral because […], removals are set to be not larger than net growth." Lastly, a Dovetail Partners Incorporated report suggests "forests do not accumulate carbon indefinitely. […] Older forests tend to have higher carbon densities than young forests, but low or near-zero rates of additional carbon sequestration as they reach maturity. […] In old forests where catastrophic losses are likely […] active management can provide carbon benefits. […] a no harvest strategy can mean missed opportunities for greater carbon mitigation over the long-term, and also increase the risk of loss."

As members of the Board of Forestry, you can prevent this loss by supporting those of us who work in the forests, ensure our forests continue to sequester maximum amounts of carbon, and help keep forests healthy for our children and future generations.

Please consider this information moving forward and thank you for hearing my public comment.

Wood: A Good Choice for Energy Efficiency and the Environment ()

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Today, building "green" is good business. As a building material, wood offers many environmental benefits that matter to communities across the country. It is the only major building material that is renewable and sustainable. Compared with concrete and steel, wood products help to increase a building's energy efficiency and minimize the energy consumed throughout the life of the product. Using wood also helps keep carbon out of the atmosphere, helping to mitigate climate change. Trees store carbon dioxide as they grow. After harvest, wood products continue to store much of this carbon. These benefits continue when wood is reclaimed to manufacture other products. Wood. It's a better way to build.

- **Wood is better for the environment** in terms of greenhouse gas emissions, air and water pollution, and other impacts. Steel and concrete consume 12% and 20% more energy, emit 15% and 29% more greenhouse gases, and release 10% and 12% more pollutants into the air, and generate 300% and 225% more water pollutants than wood, respectively.
- **Wood helps reduce energy consumption** across the life cycle of growth, harvest, transport, manufacture and construction compared to other structural building products according to life cycle assessment (LCA).
- **Wood can improve energy efficiency.** An excellent insulator, wood has a cellular structure that allows for air pockets, helping to slow the conductivity of heat.
- **Wood products store carbon,** helping to mitigate climate change while also providing a good alternative for materials that require large amounts of fossil fuels to produce.
- **Using wood helps to sustain our forests and increases our carbon storage potential** by helping to ensure that it is affordable for forest owners to continue sustainably managing their forestland

EXAMPLES

- Constructing a wall using kiln-dried wood studs, oriented strand board (OSB) sheathing, and vinyl siding instead of concrete with an exterior stucco coating results in 15 pounds of avoided CO2 emissions for every square foot of wall area.
- Using engineered wood I-joists with an OSB sub-floor rather than steel joists and OSB sub-flooring results in 22 pounds of avoided CO2 emissions for every square foot of floor area

CASE STUDY: EL DORADO HIGH SCHOOL, EL DORADO, ARKANSAS

One of the first schools in Arkansas to make extensive use of wood, El Dorado High School, was constructed with 153,265 cubic feet of lumber, panels and engineered wood, which stores 3,660 metric tons of carbon.

By using wood instead of more fossil-fuel-intensive materials like steel and concrete, the building's designers avoided 7,780 metric tons of carbon emissions – equivalent to keeping 2,100 cars off the road for a year, or operating a single-family home for 970 years.

RESOURCES

Tackle Climate Change – Use Wood. (http://www.woodworks.org/why-wood/sustainable-design/carbon-footprint/) Published in 2010 by the British Columbia Forestry Climate Change Working Group and California Forestry Association.

Science Supporting the Economic and Environmental Benefits of Using Wood and Wood Products in Green Building Construction. (http://www.fpl.fs.fed.us/documnts/fplgtr/fpl_gtr206.pdf.)General Technical Report FPL-GTR-206,U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Forest Products Laboratory.

Carbon calculators (http://www.woodworks.org/design-tools/online-calculators/)—to help building designers quantify

RESOURCES (/TOOLS-RESOURCES-FOR-WOODLAND-OWNERS)

My Land Plan for Landowners (/my-land-plan-for-landowners) [illegible] Outreach [illegible] Pieces of the Puzzle Report [illegible] Building with Wood (/wood-a-better-way-to-build) [illegible] Forestland Report [illegible] Risk Report [illegible] (/woodland-owners-protecting-wildlife)

The Wood: A Better Way to Build materials were developed with support from the USDA Forest Service Forest Products Laboratory (http://www.fpl.fs.fed.us/).

the environmental benefits of wood buildings

WoodWorks on energy efficiency (http://woodworks.org/why-wood/sustainable-design/energy-efficiency/)

American Wood Council fact sheet on life cycle of building products (http://awc.org/pdf/GBFactSheets/life_cycle.pdf)

American Wood Council fact sheet on wood and carbon footprint (http://awc.org/pdf/GBFactSheets/Wood_Products_And_Carbon.pdf)

Download a printable pdf of Wood: A Good Choice for Energy Efficiency and the Environment (/stuff/contentmgr/files/1/ee2b60e4cd2e9e45e19827714d29208c/miscdocs/wood_energy_efficiency_and_environment_final_2.pdf)

Photo credit: Timothy Hursley

Comparing Life-Cycle Carbon and Energy Impacts for Biofuel, Wood Product, and Forest Management Alternatives*

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Abstract

The different uses of wood result in a hierarchy of carbon and energy impacts that can be characterized by their efficiency in displacing carbon emissions and/or in displacing fossil energy imports, both being current national objectives. When waste wood is used for biofuels (forest or mill residuals and thinnings) fossil fuels and their emissions are reduced without significant land use changes. Short rotation woody crops can increase yields and management efficiencies by using currently underused land. Wood products and biofuels are coproducts of sustainable forest management, along with the other values forests provide, such as clean air, water, and habitat. Producing multiple coproducts with different uses that result in different values complicates carbon mitigation accounting. It is important to understand how the life-cycle implications of managing our forests and using the wood coming from our forests impacts national energy and carbon emission objectives and other forest values. A series of articles published in this issue of the *Forest Products Journal* reports on the life-cycle implications of producing ethanol by gasification or fermentation and producing bio-oil by pyrolysis and feedstock collection from forest residuals, thinnings, and short rotation woody crops. These are evaluated and compared with other forest product uses. Background information is provided on existing life-cycle data and methods to evaluate prospective new processes and wood uses. Alternative management, processing, and collection methods are evaluated for their different efficiencies in contributing to national objectives.

Sustainably managed forests remove carbon from the atmosphere during their growth cycle, transferring that carbon by harvesting and processing to product carbon stores or fuels that displace fossil fuel–intensive products and fuels. The increasing storage of carbon in products extends the carbon stored in the forest to growing carbon pools outside of the forest, offsetting some fossil fuel–intensive product and fuel emissions. The use of wood products and biofuels to substitute for fossil fuel–intensive nonwood products or fossil fuels directly reduces the one-way flow of fossil fuel carbon emissions to the atmosphere. Wood products and wood-based biofuels are coproducts of

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* This article is part of a series of nine articles addressing many of the environmental performance and life-cycle issues related to the use of wood as a feedstock for bioenergy. The research reported in these articles was coordinated by the Consortium for Research on Renewable Industrial Materials (CORRIM; http://www.corrim.org). All nine articles are published in this issue of the *Forest Products Journal* (Vol. 62, No. 4).

Forest Prod. J. 62(4):247–257.

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sustainable forest management along with the other values forests provide such as clean air, water, and habitat. Producing multiple coproducts with different uses that result in different values complicates carbon mitigation, accounting for both policy and investment decision makers, especially because so many of the values, including carbon, have no clear market value, thereby increasing the risk of investing in biofuels production.

The potential to divert feedstock to uses that may produce unintended consequences is an ever-present risk, such as burning wood for fuel when it might result in significantly greater carbon mitigation if used in engineered wood products that also use low-valued resources. The different ways to produce and use wood result in a hierarchy of carbon and energy impacts that can be characterized by their efficiency in using wood to reduce carbon emissions and/or to reduce fossil energy imports. Effective policy and investment decisions must consider how forest management and wood use impact fossil energy use and carbon emissions. Using life-cycle inventory (LCI) measurements for every input and output for every stage of processing followed by life-cycle assessments (LCAs) of key human health and ecosystem risks provides consistent comparisons between alternative materials, processes, and engineering designs in search of environmental improvement opportunities. The focus of this article is on characterizing the hierarchy of alternative uses of biomass that reduce global warming potential (GWP) measured by greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) in units of CO_2 or C equivalence and on characterizing the impact of liquid biomass fuels that can also directly reduce energy dependence.

Comparisons of interest include biofuels from lower grades of wood that are not substituting for fossil fuel–intensive products but can still substitute directly for fossil fuels, including liquid fuels that are being imported, contributing to energy dependence. Producing ethanol from short rotation woody crops such as willow provides both the benefits of higher yield per acre, shorter rotations, productive use of marginal agricultural land, and less forest waste, while contributing directly to energy independence as well as carbon mitigation. Collecting forest residuals left to decompose because the cost of removing them may exceed their market value provides the opportunity to displace emissions from fossil fuels. Thinning stands to improve wood quality or reduce fire risks can also contribute substantially to biomass feedstock for carbon mitigation and energy independence goals.

Alternative Scenarios Spanning the Range of Impacts on Carbon Mitigation and Energy Independence

To reduce the number of wood and biofuel use alternatives to a manageable range that would reveal the hierarchy of wood uses and improvement opportunities, the US Forest Service sponsored the Consortium for Research on Renewable Industrial Materials (CORRIM 2010) to assemble a workshop of experts to develop a research plan. The series of articles published in this issue of the *Forest Products Journal* reports on life-cycle assessments for the biofuels and their feedstocks selected for the research plan along with comparisons to other wood uses. The options selected included three liquid fuel alternatives: pyrolysis bio-oil from whole trees (thinnings or restoration) compared with residual fuel oil (RFO), ethanol from thermochemical gasification from forest residuals, and biochemical fermentation from a short rotation woody crop (willow) compared with gasoline. Pyrolysis was selected as the conversion process that might be economical on a smaller scale that could better match local supply regions. Fermentation was selected as the likely best use for high yield, high moisture short rotation crops. Gasification was considered more likely able to handle variation in the quality of the forest residual feedstock. These alternatives were compared with the prior LCI/LCA evaluations for wood product uses. Biofuels are usually a jointly produced coproduct with wood products requiring analysis of the integration back to the managed forest to assess impacts on total carbon.

These recent studies of the life-cycle implications of biomass collection and biofuel processing opportunities provide the data needed to extend the evaluation of potential benefits from products to fuel use and to identify those options that produce improvements that would contribute to the national goals of carbon mitigation and energy independence as promulgated by the Energy Independence and Security Act (Sissine 2007). The LCI/LCA data used in this article for biofuel feedstock collection and production were developed and are published in the series of articles in this issue of the *Forest Products Journal*. The findings were extended in this article to include the integration from forest management through feedstock collection, product processing, and end use. Various wood products and biofuels are compared with alternative nonwood products and fuels in order to identify best options to effectively improve environmental performance while acknowledging the lack of polices that promote carbon values in the US market relative to fossil fuel taxes in Europe and carbon taxes in British Columbia.

To gain perspective on the carbon benefits for various uses of wood, the highly leveraged impact of using wood products to substitute for energy-intensive steel products, such as the carbon impact of substituting engineered wood product (EWP) I-joists for steel joists in residential floors, is introduced first. There is a hierarchy of wood uses, with some uses having a much higher impact on reducing fossil fuel emissions than others. The comparison between alternatives relies on using LCI data for each stage of processing and time event with conservative end of life assumptions, i.e., the finally discarded wood products for this example are burned with no energy recovery. Lippke et al. (2011) demonstrated that substituting EWP I-joists for steel floor joists produced one of the higher leveraged carbon mitigation opportunities, although only indirectly contributing to energy independence. Life-cycle data have been collected over the last decade for most primary products, providing a database to make carbon emission/carbon storage comparisons between wood and nonwood products. Data for each type of steel and wood product are available from the US LCI database (National Renewable Energy Laboratory 2012). These data are representative of national markets that are served by regional exports. With the newly collected life-cycle data on biofuel collection and processing options reported in this issue of *Forest Products Journal,* the product alternatives now include pyrolysis of woody feedstocks to bio-oil and thermochemical gasification or biochemical fermentation to ethanol. Life-cycle data on each stage of processing are linked to the time profile for growing trees, harvesting, transporting, wood processing

Table 1.—Carbon impacts for each stage of processing comparing high leveraged engineered wood product (EWP) I-joists with steel, average wood substitution, and biochemical ethanol from willow biomass crops.

	Pacific Northwest (PNW) 45-y rotation (metric tons C/ha)						Willow 3.3-y rotation (metric tons C/ha)		
	EWP I-joist	Steel I-joist	EWP-steel net	Wood construction	Meta substitution	Wood-meta net	Biochemical ethanol	Gasoline	Ethanol-gasoline net
Carbon in forest (before harvest)									
a. Stem and bark	132	0	132	132	0	132	24	0	24
b. Crown	24	0	24	24	0	24	7	0	7
c. Roots	32	0	32	32	0	32	7	0	7
d. Forest biofuel	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
e. Total (a–d)	188	0	188	188	0	188	38	0	38
Carbon in wood products (after harvest)									
f. Long-lived	84	0	84	84	0	84	0	0	0
g. Short-lived	34	0	34	34	0	34	0	0	0
Carbon in wood processing									
h. Processing and transport	−51	0	−51	−20	0	−20	−16	−1	−15
i. Mill biofuel avoided natural gas	8	0	8	8	0	8	24	0	24
j. Short-lived avoided energy	17	0	17	17	0	17	0	0	0
k. Mill fossil fuel (h+i+j)	−26	0	−26	5	0	5	8	0	8
l. Net product and processing (f+k)	58	0	58	89	0	89	8	−1	9
Carbon in other processing									
m. Other processing	0	−403	403	0	−177	177	0	0	0
n. Other biofuel use	0	0	0	0	0	0	−7	−7	0
Product, processing, and avoided carbon (total carbon except forest carbon)									
o. (l+m+n)	58	−403	461	89	−177	266	2	−8	10
Substitution									
p. Wood used/stored	84	0	84	84	0	84	24	0	24
q. Fossil displaced	0	−403	403	0	−177	177	2	−8	10
r. C_subs/(C_used)			4.8			2.1			0.4
s. C_subs/(wood use)			9.6			4.2			0.8
Total carbon accumulated with time measured just before harvest (after decay and end of short lives)									
Year 45 rotations: 1 PNW; 13 willow	188	0	188	188	0	188	59	−103	162
Year 90 rotations: 2 PNW; 27 willow	246	−403	649	277	−177	454	81	−215	295
Year 135 rotations: 3 PNW; 41 willow	304	−805	1,109	367	−354	721	103	−326	429
Year 180 rotations: 4 PNW; 55 willow	278	−1,208	1,485	372	−531	903	125	−437	562
Total carbon mitigation trend (tC/ha/y)	0.7	−8.9	9.6	1.4	−3.9	5.3	0.5	−2.5	3.0
Forest removal yield (tC/ha/y)	2.9	0	2.9	2.9	0	2.9	7.5	0	7.5

including energy production, wood use, recycling, and final demolition/discard, hence providing "cradle-to-grave" environmental footprint comparisons for many alternatives.

Method of Analysis

The total carbon emissions resulting from the production and use of each product and process, e.g., EWP I-joists, is first computed from its LCI profile generated from primary survey data from producing mills; then the emissions resulting from the production and use of an alternative product, e.g., steel floor joists, are computed, with the difference between the two alternatives providing a direct measure of the impact when substituting one product for the other (Table 1). Indirect impacts that may result from the changes in markets to support this substitution, such as land use changes (referred to as consequential LCAs), are not included in this direct comparison (Lippke et al. 2011).

Forest carbon is derived by simulating representative sustainable forest growth rotations with periodic harvests of stem and bark as a primary input to life-cycle measures derived from mill surveys (or processing models in the absence of operating mills) applied to all inputs and outputs for every stage of wood processing. LCI data are derived as a snapshot for every stage of process under current (fixed) technology for a specific range of uses. International standards allow simulations of changing technologies but require transparent differentiation from LCI analysis. Alternatives are used to define and compare different technologies. The LCI data in Table 1 are limited to current (fixed) technologies using different alternatives to characterize regional product and process differences.

Each product/process alternative is characterized by a column in Table 1, with the LCI data for each specified stage of process provided in rows. When the LCI for one alternative is directly compared with another, such as substitution of one for another, the net comparison provides an LCA between the two alternative footprints. Row titles identify each stage of processing or an aggregation of several stages. Generally used stages of processing proceed from forest pools and forest activities to processing and use for any given alternative.

Stem and bark at harvest: Measure of forest carbon removed for products.

Crown: Measure of aboveground carbon left in the forest after harvest.

Roots: Measure of carbon in roots left in the forest; soil carbon is considered stable and is not included (Lippke et al. 2011).

Forest biofuel feedstock: Thinnings that are either unrecovered or recovered whole tree.

Long-lived wood products: Carbon in long-lived products such as housing with 80 years life (Winistorfer et al. 2005). These products result in a decrease in carbon mitigation after 80 years of product life with the ultraconservative assumption that discarded wood is burned, returning carbon to the atmosphere.

Short-lived wood products: Carbon in products expected to be decomposed by the end of a 45-year rotation, e.g., chips for pulp and paper.

Processing and transport: Carbon emissions from forest management, harvesting, transportation to mill, and wood processing.

Mill biofuel avoided natural gas: Partial offset of processing energy by the use of mill residues to avoid natural gas use, e.g., providing 50+ percent of the thermal energy needed for product drying by combusting mill residues.

Short-lived avoided energy: Avoided energy in pulp and paper production from the portion of wood chips used for energy.

Mill fossil fuel and avoided natural gas: Sum of processing and transport, mill biofuel avoided natural gas, and short-lived avoided energy.

Net product and processing: Sum of long-lived wood products, carbon storage net of carbon emitted from mill fossil fuels plus short-lived avoided fossil fuels.

Other product processing: Emission impact of substitute products or fuels.

Other biofuel or vehicle end use: Emissions from combustion of biofuels or fossil fuels.

Product, processing, and avoided carbon: Sum of net product and processing, other product processing, and other biofuel or vehicle end use, e.g., total net carbon except forest carbon.

Total carbon accumulated with time measured just before harvest: Sum of carbon in forest at harvest plus total product processing and avoided carbon that survived to the end of rotation. All short-lived impacts are insignificant, because forest carbon uptake offsets their emissions such that they have no impact on sustained carbon mitigation.

Total carbon mitigation trend: Total carbon emissions avoided by sustainable management and wood use (measured in C units per hectare per year).

Forest removal yield: Forest carbon removals per hectare per year over a rotation for comparison to total carbon growth (e.g., lower than total carbon from high leveraged displacement of fossil fuel–intensive products).

Results

Results from high leveraged wood product substitution

When EWP I-joists produced in the Pacific Northwest (PNW) from sustainably managed forests substitute for steel floor joists in the US market, a sustainable reduction in emissions to the atmosphere occurs by the avoided fossil fuel–intensive steel product emissions (Table 1, column "EWP-steel net"). The carbon in the wood products is also stored, offsetting fossil fuel emissions over the product's useful life. The EWP I-joist does, however, use much more energy to produce the product than using dimension lumber in wood construction (Table 1, column "EWP I-joist" vs. column "Wood construction," impact difference in row h "Processing and transport"), suggesting that the use of processing energy by itself is not a useful performance metric because it leaves out the impacts of how the wood is used and what nonwood options are available. GHGs (or C equivalence in Table 1) contributing to GWP provide a more robust environmental impact burden for emission comparisons.

For example, the substitution of wood joists for steel joists across multiple forest rotations results in the total carbon mitigation trend growing sustainably at the rate of 9.6 metric tons of carbon per hectare per year (tC/ha/y) or 35.2 $tCO_2/ha/y$ of reduced emissions from sustainably managed PNW forests. The PNW region of the United States supports the highest rate of carbon going into long-lived products (Fig. 1 and Table 1, first three columns).

When measuring carbon related to PNW forestland, C units are directly measured, resulting in about 0.5 metric tons C for every bone dry metric ton of wood. The equivalent CO_2 is 3.67 times greater than a unit of C.[1] While not an upper bound for carbon mitigation from managing forests, the EWP I-joist substituting for steel floor joist does provide a high leverage carbon mitigation opportunity to contrast with other alternatives, demonstrating that there is a hierarchy of emission reduction potentials across the range of products, their uses, and the resources available.

Results from average product substitution of wood products for nonwood products

The more typical use of wood framing in housing as an alternative to wall construction using concrete results in a 1.3-tC/ha/y increase over concrete framing (Lippke et al. 2011). The dominant reason that the carbon mitigation is so low is that the substitution of wood frame for concrete only covers a small share of the wood used in the building, and the carbon stored in wood products that is not a part of framing barely offsets the emissions from producing the nonwood materials used in the house. Only 8 percent of the nonwood materials in the house (by weight) are displaced by wood framing substitution relative to concrete (Perez-Garcia et al. 2005). Much of the carbon stored in wood products becomes an offset to other fossil fuel–intensive materials used in wood or concrete framed structures even if they are not direct substitutes. In contrast, the substitution of EWP I-joists for steel floor joists provides a very direct substitution not involving significant amounts of other materials. Similarly, when a biofuel substitutes for a fossil fuel, the substitution results in a direct displacement of fossil fuel emissions.

A generalized product substitution comparison has been quantified by using a meta-analysis derived from many substitution studies. Sathre and O'Connor (2010) evaluated all available substitution studies and concluded that while there was a wide range of results from different substitution

[1] The forest C is converted to CO_2 equivalent by multiplying by their molecular weight ratio of 44/12 or 3.67. CO_2 per unit of wood is obtained by multiplying C by 3.67 times 0.5 for the carbon in the wood used, or 1.835.

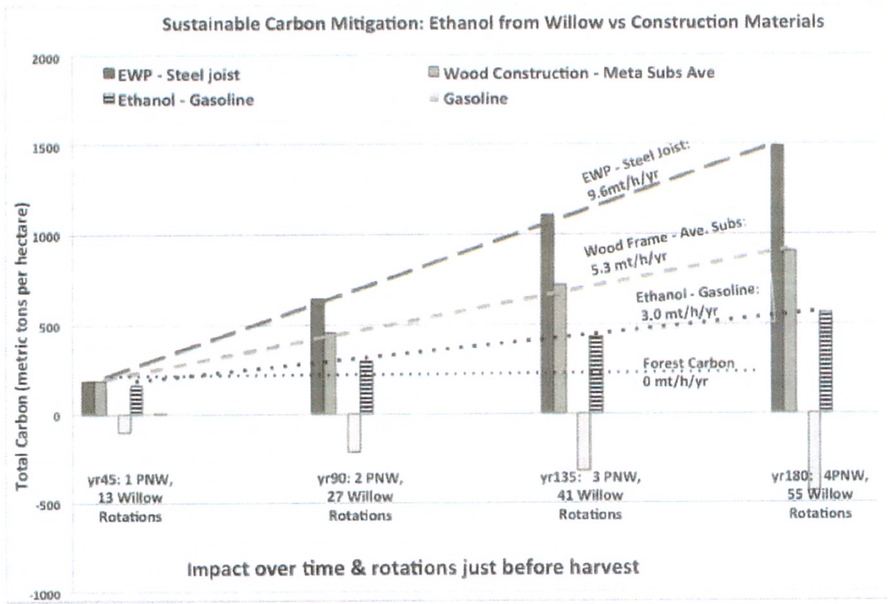

Figure 1.—Sustainable forest carbon mitigation from average (Ave) to high leveraged product substitution (Subs) contrasted with biochemical ethanol from short rotation willow substituting for gasoline. EWP = engineered wood product; PNW = Pacific Northwest.

alternatives, the average of their meta-analysis resulted in 2.1 tC reduction in emissions for every 1.0 tC in the wood used. A base management case for wood construction using this average rate of product substitution from the same PNW land base grows sustainably at 5.3 tC/ha/y (Table 1, columns "Wood construction," "Meta substitution," and "Wood-meta net"). The meta-analysis reflects an average rate of wood substitution of roughly one-half that of high leveraged products such as the EWP I-joist comparison. Other processing assumptions include considering the energy value from the wood in chips for pulp, a coproduct output as avoided energy (i.e., half the short-lived products were used as a conservative estimate of the biofuel in producing pulp, avoiding the need for fossil fuel). The variation across different pulp mills is, however, large. There are insufficient data available to estimate the substitution benefits of paper as an addition to the avoided fossil energy. The other half of the fiber in the short-lived products was assumed to decompose within the rotation, although the potential exists to collect that waste material for its energy value, or alternatively when landfilled it may contribute to carbon stores or emissions from the methane releases resulting from oxygen-deprived decomposition.

Results from a no-harvest alternative compared with sustainable management

The carbon in sustainably managed PNW forest stands is restored across each 45-year rotation at time of harvest. The total forest remains carbon neutral because under sustainable management, removals are set to be not larger than net growth. Unharvested forests in the region tend to reach their carrying capacity limits within the next 100 years. Once this carrying capacity is reached, there is no significant contribution to carbon mitigation or energy independence, since any growth in forest carbon is offset by mortality. Analysis of federal lands in western Washington, where the sample of old forests is adequate to estimate the impact of increasing mortality in aging stands, showed little net growth beyond 100 years. A no-harvest alternative produces no CO_2 mitigation after about 100 years because the forest stand reaches its productive carrying capacity. In contrast, the sustainable carbon mitigation trends demonstrated in Figure 1 when substituting wood for nonwood products produces 5.3 tC/ha/y (19 tCO_2/ha/y) for the average rate of substitution. There are exceptions in some areas, such as forests in peat bogs where the dead wood from the old forest does not decompose rapidly, resulting in an increasing pool of carbon in the forest floor over time, not unlike the increasing store of carbon in products.

Some have questioned the carbon impacts of management, noting that harvesting often leaves considerable waste in the forest to decompose, with the forest carbon stocks substantially lower following harvest. In such cases the sum of the carbon in products and the forest can be less than a no-action alternative of not harvesting for a period of time. But that leaves out the substitution of wood replacing nonwood. The impact of wood products substituting for nonwood products more than offsets the shortfall in product carbon relative to the no-harvest alternative immediately. When the objective is sustainable carbon mitigation, achieved by using the wood removed from forests to displace fossil intensive products and fuels as well as to store carbon in products outside the forest, the dead wood left in the forest or short-lived products are of no concern. Both the dead wood and short-lived products decay as the forest is restored. For sustainable carbon mitigation, one only needs the time points just before harvest where these short-term carbon impacts have expired because they do not influence the sustainable substitution of carbon stored in wood products that displaces the emissions from nonwood products and fuels.

Results from biochemical ethanol displacement of gasoline using short rotation willow crop feedstock

Using biochemical ethanol produced from willow biomass crops grown in the Northeast to displace gasoline

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(Budsberg et al. 2012) addresses a large market demand and is estimated to result in a 3.0-tC/ha/y (11-tCO_2/ha/y) trend increase in carbon mitigation (last three columns of Table 1 and Fig. 1). Burning surplus lignin for electricity in the biochemical ethanol production offsets the fossil energy needed for harvesting and feedstock collection. Because of the surplus energy contributing to avoided emissions, biochemical ethanol processing can be better than carbon neutral, resulting in a 100+ percent reduction of the fossil fuel emissions when displacing gasoline (Table 1, in the column "Biochemical ethanol," LCI row "Processing and transport" [h] is more than offset by "Mill biofuel avoided natural gas" [row i]).

The ratio of fossil carbon reductions per unit of carbon in the wood used (C:C or CO_2:CO_2) provides a measure of wood's efficiency in reducing emissions. This displacement ratio is 4.8 when EWP replaces steel joists (not counting the forest carbon, which is not changing, or the carbon stored in the product) compared with only 0.40 for displaced gasoline emissions per unit of carbon used in biofuel. The meta-average from building product substitution studies produced a 2.1-tC displacement for every 1.0 tC of wood used, substantially higher than when using wood as a biofuel, but requires higher grade solid wood feedstock sourced by much slower growing species. High biomass growth rates from short rotation woody crops offset much of the relatively low carbon displacement efficiency from producing ethanol.

A growth scenario assumption of 7.5 tC/ha/y (27.5 tCO_2/ha/y) was used for willow feedstock based on early experience with field plots (Volk et al. 2011). The forest carbon growth in removals yield for the PNW was 2.9 tC/ha/y, somewhat lower than the trend growth in carbon across all products, which is enhanced by the benefits of high leverage product substitution. The willow crop yield at 7.5 tC/ha/y is higher than the sustainable mitigation trend, 3.0 tC/ha/y, as a consequence of the low carbon displacement efficiency in producing ethanol. The differences in forest/crop yield are also impacted by regional and species productivity differences.

Results from thermochemical ethanol displacement of gasoline using forest thinnings in the US SE

Advances in forest management technology are resulting in increasing investments to raise the volume and quality of wood available to forest products. Precommercial thinnings are used frequently in the Southeast (SE), resulting in a large volume of biomass waste from the thinnings. A midrange estimate of management intensity and site class productivity (Johnson et al. 2005, 2012) is used here to provide a comparison of the impacts of whole tree collection of thinnings for use as a biofuel. As a management activity, thinning is justified by the increased value of the final harvest. Therefore precommercial thinnings for biofuel are only allocated the fossil fuel emissions from the collection and delivery of the thinning material to the biofuel facility as other forest management emissions are allocated to the uses of the final harvest.

Forest management in the US SE is substantially different from management in the PNW, with much shorter rotations (25 y SE vs. 45 y PNW) and a much larger portion of the harvest directly serving pulp and paper uses rather than wood product uses. With the life-cycle data for average intensity sites from Johnson et al. (2005) and the lumber mill data for the production of wood products from Milota et al. (2005), a carbon tracking profile for SE forests similar to that developed for the PNW is produced including biofuel from collection of whole tree thinning treatments. The biomass from thinnings at age 17 years is collected but the forest residuals left behind at final harvest are not because the collection of whole tree thinning can be much less costly than attempting to collect postharvest slash. The volumes are roughly one-third in whole tree thinnings for biofuel, one-third pulp logs direct to paper mills, and one-third to lumber mills, with 55 percent of that volume ending up in solid wood products or composite products, 32 percent in pulp chips, and 13 percent in mill residuals for drying. While only 32 percent of the harvest is used for pulp in the PNW, in the SE about 66 percent goes to pulp without collection of thinnings and 77 percent including thinnings.

The impact of thermochemical gasification from thinnings for SE forests (Daystar et al. 2012) is compared with and without the production of ethanol: (1) the base case uses the meta-average substitution for building products and avoided energy for paper production, while leaving the thinnings to decompose rather than producing ethanol and (2) the alternative includes the collection of thinnings and production of ethanol (Table 2).

The base case produces a sustainable carbon mitigation of 0.8 tC/ha/y (2.9 tCO_2/ha/y) without the production of ethanol. The collection of thinnings and production of ethanol increases the sustainable carbon mitigation by 50 percent to 1.2 tC/ha/y (4.4 tCO_2/ha/y). This is less than the rate of carbon growth in the young forests (2.5 tC/ha/y) because so much of the product is being used for paper. Including postconsumer paper collection and recycling would increase the sustainable carbon mitigation rate. Paper disposed of in landfills could increase the rate if the methane emissions from oxygen-deprived decompositions are captured for their energy value, or the trend could be reduced if the methane leaks from the landfill.

It is noteworthy that the decomposing dead wood from precommercial thinnings provides enough forest carbon to more than offset the emission reductions from using ethanol at the time of the first rotation but not beyond. The transition from not removing thinnings to using them to displace gasoline results in more carbon in the forest when thinnings are not collected than the avoided emissions from substitution until the dead wood has decayed to a level less than the displaced emissions from using the biofuel.

Results from producing thermochemical ethanol from forest residuals

Short rotation woody crops require dedicated land to the production of a biofuel. In contrast, forest residuals from sustainably managed forests can be collected to produce biofuel requiring no change in land use area. There are a number of studies on how much of the forest residuals left behind after harvest or forest thinnings might be available for bioenergy feedstock.

For an example case of using forest residuals for biofuel, the collection of 45 percent of the aboveground forest residuals is analyzed in Table 3 based on a study that sampled 2,000 slash piles in eastern Washington with a subsample measured after grinding at the cogeneration facility (Johnson et al. 2012). The percentage of residuals that are recoverable can be higher with whole tree chipping

Table 2.—Carbon impacts for each stage of processing producing ethanol from southeast (SE) thinnings with construction and paper products from final harvest.

	SE wood use with and without thinning for ethanol (metric tons C/ha)	
	Base case: building materials and paper without ethanol	Building materials and paper with ethanol
Carbon in forest (before harvest)		
a. Stem and bark	42.2	42.2
b. Crown	13.0	13.0
c. Roots	14.5	14.5
d. Unrecovered thinnings at 17 y	0	2.5
e. Whole tree thinning at 17 y	0	21.0
f. SE forest total at 25 y (a–c)	69.7	69.7
g. SE forest + thinnings at 25 y	80.1	
Carbon in products (after harvest)		
h. Long-lived wood products	9.9	9.9
i. Short-lived (chips for paper)	5.7	5.7
j. Short-lived pulpwood for avoided energy	24.2	24.2
k. Mill biofuel for avoided natural gas	2.4	2.4
l. Total carbon used (h+i+j+k)	42.2	42.2
Carbon in wood processing		
m. Processing and transport	−2.7	−2.7
n. Short-lived avoided energy	14.9	14.9
o. Forest thinnings to ethanol	0	8.0
p. Mill fossil fuel + avoided (k+m+n+o)	14.6	22.6
Total product, processing, and avoided carbon (total carbon except forest carbon)		
q. Long-lived product net processing (h+p)	24.5	32.5
Substitution		
r. Wood used/stored	42.2	63.2
s. Fossil fuel displaced	24.5	32.5
t. C_subs/(C_used)	1.7	1.9
Total carbon accumulated with time measured just before harvest (after decay and end of short lives)		
Year 25: 1 SE forest + 1 ethanol sub	80	78
Year 50: 1 SE forest + 2 ethanol subs	94	110
Year 75: 1 SE forest + 3 ethanol subs	119	143
Year 100: 1 SE forest + 4 ethanol subs	143	175
Year 125: 1 SE forest + 5 ethanol subs	158	198
Total carbon mitigation trend (tC/ha/y)	0.8	1.2
Forest removal yield (tC/ha/y)	1.7	2.5

on flatlands or lower in mountainous terrain where collection is more difficult, but we consider leaving 55 percent of the slash and/or leaving trees for ecosystem functions to be a reasonable estimate.

If we assume the collection of 45 percent of the forest residuals converted to ethanol by thermochemical processing, then the carbon mitigation from using wood products is raised by only 9.5 percent from 5.3 tC/ha/y (19 tCO_2/ha/y) to 5.8 tC/ha/y (21 tCO_2/ha/y). The collection of 45 percent of forest residuals does not contribute to the high leverage in reducing carbon emissions that products do because the carbon efficiency to produce ethanol is only about one-fifth as great as substituting wood for fossil fuel–intensive products (0.38 tC displaced compared with 2.1 tC displaced).

Results from pyrolysis of whole tree forest residuals compared with ethanol alternatives

Pyrolysis provides another processing option resulting in the ability to operate on a smaller scale, making use of forests that lack the capacity to serve large-scale ethanol biofuel facilities. However, the fuel is not suitable as a direct substitute for gasoline without further refinement. The bio-oil produced can be used as a substitute fuel for RFO, a lower grade of liquid fuel than ethanol that is used in large utilities for heat and power. The emissions from producing bio-oil displacing RFO (Steele et al. 2012) are compared with the several alternatives for producing ethanol to displace gasoline. The comparisons (Fig. 2) show common characteristics. Each of the wood-based fuels produces fewer emissions than their fossil fuel alternative, resulting in a substantial reduction in carbon emissions when displacing the fossil fuel by a wood-based fuel. Each also exceeds the 60 percent reduction of the fossil energy emissions required by the US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA).

Discussion of Results

When producing ethanol, about 0.4 metric tons of C (or CO_2) are displaced for every metric ton of C (or CO_2) in the biofuel feedstock used (Fig. 3). While displacement of RFO by the bio-oil from pyrolysis is about 20 percent higher than from ethanol, it is not an acceptable transportation fuel. Further processing in order to make it acceptable would

Table 3.—Carbon impacts for each stage of processing producing ethanol from 45 percent recovery of forest residuals.

	Pacific Northwest product use and forest residual recovery to biochemical ethanol (metric tons C/ha)			
	Wood construction-meta substitution net	Residuals (45%) to ethanol	Gasoline	Ethanol-gasoline net
Carbon in forest (before harvest)				
a. Stem and bark	132	132	0	132
b. Crown and slash	84	84	0	84
c. Roots	32	32	0	32
d. Forest carbon total (a–c)	248	248	0	248
Carbon in wood products (after harvest)				
e. Long-lived	84	84	0	84
f. Short-lived	34	34	0	34
Carbon in wood processing				
g. Processing and transport	−20	−20	0	−20
h. Mill biofuel avoided natural gas	8	8	0	8
i. Short-lived avoided energy	17	17	0	17
j. Mill fossil fuel + avoided (g+h+i)	5	5	0	5
k. Net product and processing (e+j)	89	89	0	89
Carbon in other processing				
l. Substitution + ethanol and gas	177	110	−31	140
m. Residuals recovered	0	59	0	59
Product processing and avoided carbon (total carbon except forest carbon)				
n. (k+l+m)	266	258	−31	289
Substitution				
o. Wood used/stored	84	143	0	143
p. Fossil displaced	177	169	−31	200
q. C_subs/(C_used)	2.1	1.2		1.4
Total carbon accumulated with time measured just before harvest (after decay and end of short lives)				
Year 45 forest carbon (FC)	248	248	0	248
Year 90 FC + meta subs + ethanol subs	514	506	−31	537
Year 135 FC + 2 meta subs + 2 ethanol subs	780	764	−61	826
Year 180 FC + 2 meta subs + 3 ethanol subs	963	938	−92	1,030
Total carbon mitigation trend (tC/ha/y)	5.3	5.1	−0.7	5.8
Forest removal yield (tC/ha/y)	2.9	4.2	0	4.2

reduce the emission reductions as well as carbon displacement efficiency somewhat. Fossil carbon emission displacement by ethanol produces only about one-fifth of the 2.1 tC average rate of displacement by wood products; however,

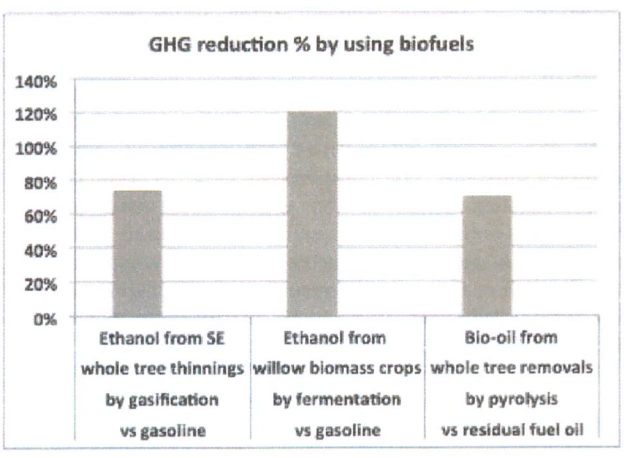

Figure 2.—Emission reductions using biofuels: (1) thermochemical ethanol versus gasoline, (2) biochemical ethanol versus gasoline, (3) pyrolysis bio-oil versus residual fuel oil. GHG = greenhouse gas; SE = Southeast.

the ethanol is derived from residues that are generally not suitable for producing wood products.

In effect these comparisons show that where it is possible to produce wood of sufficient quality to produce wood products, they provide the most effective opportunities to sustainably reduce carbon emissions. While using wood for products is more effective at carbon mitigation, the liquid fuels substitute directly for imported fossil fuels and contribute to energy independence as well as carbon mitigation. While the efficiency to produce liquid fuels per unit of wood used is low, the value of reducing energy dependence may be high enough to offset the low efficiency. Reducing the nation's energy dependence on petroleum imports reduces a hidden tax on the domestic economy in terms of lost jobs, economic activity, and tax revenue along with the increased national security costs. In economic terms, the value of energy independence is much higher than carbon mitigation alone. Producing cellulosic biofuels from short rotation crops can reduce emissions and energy dependence better than corn ethanol, current grass, shrub, or low-value crop uses (US EPA 2009).

Evaluating the relative efficiency of these options in contributing to either carbon mitigation or energy independence objectives is further complicated by establishing values for the different metrics, i.e., reduced energy imports

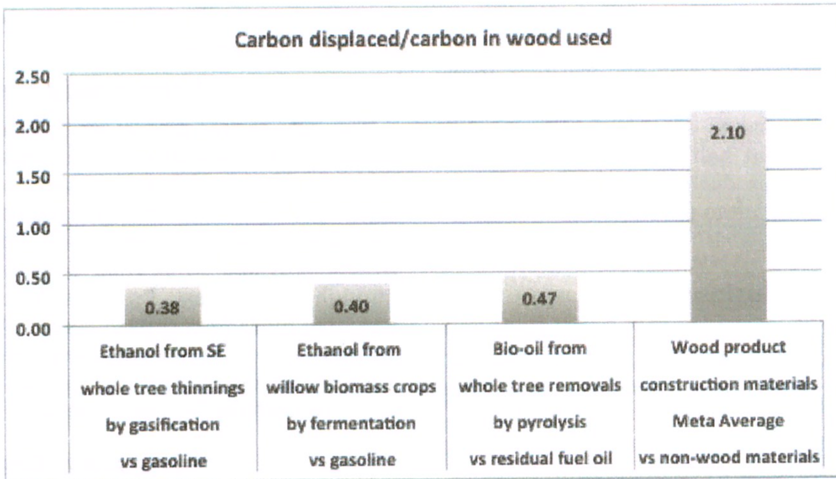

Figure 3.—Carbon equivalent emission reductions per unit of carbon in the wood used. SE = Southeast.

versus reduced emissions. The fact that existing policies do not directly consider the benefit in value terms of reducing emissions versus reducing energy dependence complicates any determination of what method is best and where it is best applied. Incentives such as the ethanol tax credit provided by the US Congress or carbon emissions taxes being used in British Columbia, Canada, create relative cost advantages for wood uses over fossil fuels. Direct taxes on fossil fuels such as practiced in Europe have increased the cost of fossil fuels and hence the collection of biomass to displace them (Fouche 2008, Lippke et al. 2011). Carbon exchanges that provide a monetary value for some sources of carbon may or may not alter the relative cost of biobased products and fuels to fossil sources. They may even be counterproductive to carbon objectives, for example, paying for forest carbon stores by not harvesting increases the use of fossil fuel–intensive products and fuels.

While in the United States there may not be many situations where collecting the feedstock for biofuels will economically break even in competition with natural gas or gasoline prices or until there is a carbon tax or other incentives, the potential to contribute to carbon mitigation is still very real. The $13 per metric ton of CO_2 ($48/tC) as valued in the European Climate Exchange (Cozijnsen 2012) a several year average could contribute $24 (bone dry equivalent) toward the cost of collecting wood if the markets were not otherwise restricted, thus monetizing the value into products proportional to their carbon value, thereby offsetting about half of the cost of delivering forest residuals. The carbon emitted in collecting the feedstock, even though higher than hauling merchantable logs, is usually only 1 to 3 percent of the carbon available to produce fuel. Cost of collection is a substantial barrier that will be reduced if and when the value of carbon is internalized in markets, whether through carbon taxes or incentives. The emissions from collection are small and will not have a significant impact on the cost of collection. If the incentive derives from higher fossil fuel costs, such as fossil fuel carbon taxes, markets will seek out the most efficient response to cover the cost of collection. Regardless of the uncertainty in the value of different alternatives, understanding the relative efficiencies of different collection and processing options is an essential first step.

It does not appear that thermochemical gasification processing produces significantly different carbon displacement efficiency than biochemical fermentation. Thermochemical processing could divert lignins to electricity production, offsetting fossil fuel uses in collection and hauling, much like the biochemical fermentation example, and become carbon neutral. However, these fuels are substantially different in other aspects, such as sensitivity to wet or dry wood, because as a dry process gasification benefits from dry wood, whereas biochemical fermentation uses water and benefits from wet wood.

Using fast-growing short rotation woody crops can produce a significant reduction in carbon emissions, while at the same time contributing to energy independence, with much of the lower displacement efficiency by not substituting for wood products offset by the much faster growth of short rotation woody crops. While the displacement efficiency in the willow example is only 43 percent less than the average for wood product substitution, this difference will be directly related to the productivity potential of the sites, in addition to processing efficiency differences. While the LCI data include all of the purchased inputs needed to support willow biomass crops, they do not include impacts of any land use change, which will require a more extensive land use analysis for any land that is converted from other productive uses. Conversion of unproductive land to willow will most likely increase the below-ground carbon stored in the crop but does not change soil carbon levels over successive rotations (Pacaldo et al. 2010, 2011).

There is, however, substantial natural variation in site-specific forest growth conditions such that any attempt to scale results up to national potentials would require a more detailed regional modeling effort linked to processing models and collection methods that model local differences.

To gain insight into the benefit of using liquid fuels to reduce emissions, they can be compared with the emissions from an auto averaging about 12,000 miles of use per year with 24 miles per gallon efficiency, which would consume 500 gallons of gasoline per year, producing 4 metric tons of CO_2. The average rate of wood product substitution for nonwood products offsets 19 metric tons of CO_2 per year per hectare, such that the emissions from almost five auto years are offset by 1 hectare of sustainable forest used to reduce nonwood construction materials. Using the willow biomass crop offsets 11 metric tons of CO_2 per year, equivalent to 2.8 autos per year. Using the feedstock from thinnings in the SE or collecting 45 percent of the forest residuals in the west contributed about 0.5 tC/ha/y (1.8 tCO_2/ha/y), thus adding about half an auto per year per hectare to the much larger production alternatives. These waste residuals are otherwise left to decompose or burned in piles.

Conclusions

The analysis of alternative uses of wood for products and fuels suggests that there are many feedstock sources for biofuel, including forest residuals, thinnings, and short rotation crops, that can directly substitute for fossil fuels, reducing their one-way flow of emissions to the atmosphere. Biofuels are not as effective as wood products in reducing carbon emissions, because wood products tend to substitute for more fossil fuel–intensive products, resulting in much higher efficiency to displace fossil fuel emissions per unit of wood used. However, producing cellulosic biofuels from wood resources that are currently wasted or are not of adequate quality to produce wood products can still substantially reduce emissions by substituting for transportation fuels that also have a disproportionately larger impact on reducing energy dependence.

These differences create a hierarchy of wood uses and processes for reducing carbon emissions and energy dependence. High leverage products like EWP I-joists substituting for steel joists provide large opportunities for reducing carbon emissions by penetrating light commercial structures. The current average of displacement from product substitution studies remains far above the displacement efficiency of biofuels. But biofuels make use of materials not suitable for products and can have a disproportionately large impact in reducing imports, which provide considerable added benefits to the domestic economy.

It is important to note that the sustainability of reducing carbon emissions or fossil fuel imports flows directly from using wood to displace fossil fuel–intensive products and fuels, forest rotation after rotation. Carbon stored in the forest or wood products may offset fossil fuel carbon emissions for a period of time but do not displace them. Carbon stores can only be increased by using the harvest to produce items that store carbon. Increasing carbon stores in existing forests that could otherwise be used for products or biofuels ultimately reduces opportunities to displace fossil fuel emissions.

Since the primary barrier for collecting lower quality waste woods for biofuels is their relatively high cost compared with fossil fuels, incentives such as a tax on carbon emissions that raise the cost proportional to the carbon being displaced would effectively avoid diverting feedstock to less valuable end uses and could enable a substantial competitive market for biofuel production. The opportunities to increase sustainable carbon mitigation and energy independence are significant if and when the financial barriers are reduced through a higher value for carbon stores or higher cost for carbon emissions. Designing incentives that are not counterproductive, such as misdirecting feedstock to lower leveraged carbon mitigation uses, is however difficult, and without LCA built into the criteria, it is likely to be counterproductive. Opportunities for improvement will be sensitive to site and regional conditions as well as scale.

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MANAGING FORESTS FOR CARBON MITIGATION

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Managing Forests for Carbon Mitigation

Introduction

The role of forests in carbon and climate mitigation may seem to be very straightforward. Since trees capture carbon as they grow and forests store massive quantities of it, it is easy to conclude that trees and forests should be treated as carbon sinks and left alone. But this kind of thinking reflects an incomplete understanding of the role of forests in carbon mitigation. In reality, forests have multiple roles to play in carbon mitigation, and forest management can help to optimize those roles. A new report from the Society of American Foresters,[1] based on an extensive review of numerous recent studies of forest carbon relationships, shows that a policy of active and responsible forest management is more effective in capturing and storing atmospheric carbon than a policy of hands-off management that precludes periodic harvests and use of wood products.

While acknowledging that forests have a myriad of values and that it is not appropriate to manage every forested acre with a sole focus on carbon mitigation, the report's authors conclude that national environmental and energy policies need to be based upon a shared understanding of forest carbon benefits. The research identifies four basic premises to establishing effective policies:

1. Energy produced from forest biomass returns carbon to the atmosphere that plants absorbed in the relatively recent past. It essentially results in no net release of carbon as long as overall forest inventories are stable or increasing (as is the case with forests in the United States).

2. Energy derived from burning fossil fuels releases carbon that has resided in the Earth for millions of years, effectively creating a one-way flow to the atmosphere. Whether emissions from fossil fuel combustion are ultimately taken up by land, ocean or forests, they are not returned to fossil fuel reserves on anything less than a geologic time scale.

3. Wood products used in place of more energy-intensive materials, such as metals, concrete, and plastic reduce carbon emissions, store carbon, and can provide additional biomass that can be substituted for fossil fuels to produce energy.

4. Sustainably managed forests can provide greater carbon mitigation benefits than unmanaged forests, while delivering a wide range of environmental and social benefits including timber and biomass resources, jobs and economic opportunities, clean water, wildlife habitat, and recreation.

The report emphasizes that a rational energy and environmental policy framework must be based on the premise that atmospheric greenhouse gas levels are increasing primarily because of the addition of geologic fossil fuel–based carbon into the carbon cycle. Findings indicate that forest

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[1] Malmsheimer, R.W., J.L. Bowyer, J.S. Fried, E. Gee, R.L. Izlar, R.A. Miner, I.A. Munn, E. Oneil, and W.C. Stewart..2011. Managing Forests Because Carbon Matters: Integrating Energy, Products, and Land Management Policy. *Journal of Forestry* 109(7S):S5-S48, October/November.

carbon policy that builds on accumulated scientific knowledge can be an important part of a comprehensive energy policy that reduces fossil fuel consumption and provides carbon mitigation benefits while also delivering a full range of environmental and social benefits, including clean water, wildlife habitat, and recreation. This report provides a summary of the analysis completed by the Society of American Foresters and of the related research reviewed by report authors.

Forest Carbon Stocks and Flows

Forest Carbon Dynamics

About one-half the dry weight of wood is carbon. Carbon is also contained in the bark, branches, roots, and leaves of trees, and within forest litter and soils. In the growth process trees capture carbon dioxide from the atmosphere, combine it with water drawn from the ground, and produce sugars that are then converted into wood. Oxygen is released as a by-product.

Not all the carbon captured by trees ends up as long-term stored carbon. Approximately three-fourths of the carbon fixed by photosynthesis is released through ecosystem respiration.[2] In forests, about half of the respiration comes from the above-ground vegetation and half from the forest floor and forest soils. The amount of forest floor and soil respiration is proportional to how much woody debris is decomposing on site.

Forests do not accumulate carbon indefinitely. The process of forest renewal and tree growth, competition, aging, and death is ongoing. Eventually, all trees die, and when they do, their carbon moves into other pools (e.g., dead wood, soil, products, atmosphere).

As forests grow they accumulate carbon, and large quantities of it, providing substantial climate benefits. For instance, the rate of net carbon accumulation on highly productive lands in California averages almost 0.6 tons of carbon/acre/year (Fried 2010). However, forests do not accumulate carbon indefinitely. As the average age of trees in forests increases, both carbon inventories and carbon losses to mortality increase (Stinson et al. 2011). Carbon losses from disturbances also accrue over time and are accentuated as live biomass is converted to dead biomass that then slowly releases carbon dioxide as decay occurs. Eventually, all trees die, and when they do, their carbon moves into other pools (e.g., dead wood, soil, products, atmosphere).

The process of tree growth, competition, aging, and death is ongoing. Growing trees compete with one another for light, water, and nutrients. Over time competition between them intensifies, and some die while others thrive. With increasing age the rates of growth and carbon capture slow, and net carbon storage may even decline as a result of increasing natural mortality. Growth declines are inevitable as gross primary productivity[3] is reduced by nutrient and other resource limitations, and carbon allocations shift from wood production to respiration (Ryan et al. 2004). Carbon storage decline in forest stands generally begins at 100 to 150 years of age as tree mortality losses increase, although there is variability among species and disturbance intervals.

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[2] Respiration is a process whereby plants and micro-organisms breakdown carbon-containing compounds that results in the release of carbon dioxide.

[3] Gross primary productivity is a measure of the total assimilation of energy and nutrients by an organism or a plant community per unit of time.

In Swiss alpine forests storage capacity has been found to peak at about 100 years, after which forests become net emitters of carbon (Schmid et al. 2006). In contrast, 190-year-old and older ponderosa pine forests in central Oregon were found to still be accumulating carbon, although slowly (Law et al. 2003); this study found that some 85% of the woody biomass-based carbon storage in ponderosa pine was in stands older than 100 years, but that there is significant risk of carbon loss from wildfire in these stands. Alaska's Tongass National Forest, where fire is unlikely, holds 8% of the forest carbon in the United States but is approaching a state of no additional carbon sequestration because carbon emissions via microbial respiration nearly equals newly sequestered carbon via photosynthesis (Leighty et al. 2006).

About one-half the dry weight of wood is carbon. This carbon remains stored within wood products even as new carbon is captured as the forest re-grows.

Carbon is stored in the main stems, branches, bark, and roots of trees, in forest litter, and in the shallow and deep soils. Carbon makes up a considerable proportion of wood volume, amounting to about 50% of the moisture-free weight. In 2005–2010, some 24 to 25 billion metric tonnes (t) of carbon were stored in standing trees, forest litter, and other woody debris in U.S. forests, and another 20 to 21 billion t were stored in forest soils and roots (U.S. EPA 2011).

Soil carbon exists in two forms. Organic soil carbon occurs in the topmost layers and represents about 1% to 12% of forest soil carbon (Schlesinger 1997; Fisher et al. 2000; Sollins et al. 2006). Mineral-associated carbon exists at greater depths, accounting for about 90% of all soil carbon, and has the longest residence time (Gaudinski et al. 2000; Fisher et al. 2000; Jobbagy et al. 2000). Mineral-associated carbon can have residence times of hundreds to thousands of years, with carbon in the deep soil (below 1 meter) having the longest residency (Gaudinski et al. 2000; Trumbore 2000).

Natural Disturbance and Forest Carbon

Forests of all types are subject to natural effects of wildfire, windstorms, ice storms, insect and disease infestations, and decay which follows tree aging and death. Average tree age, diameter and forest stocking levels have been increasing nationwide for a number of years. While this forest growth is impressive, the downside of this trend is the resulting rise in natural mortality – a natural consequence of increasing age. These conditions have increased the probabilities of catastrophic losses. In the American West, fire and insects pose a very immediate threat of catastrophic loss of live tree carbon, potentially turning affected forests into carbon emitters.

Fire can be a major cause of carbon loss from forests, but the magnitude of loss depends on fire severity. On time scales relevant to forest carbon offsets, fires can release massive quantities of carbon, adding significant uncertainty to projections of carbon storage (Wiedinmyer and Neff 2007). Intense, stand-replacing fires in heavily stocked forests release a substantial proportion of the carbon stored above-ground, and can be so severe that substantial soil carbon stores are lost and soil structure and nutrient capital destroyed. In part because of a century of fire suppression combined with climatic factors (Littell et al. 2009; McKenzie et al. 2004, 2008), fire is now the dominant disturbance agent in most of the West and is important to consider in virtually every forest management strategy. Even in wet forests along the Pacific coast, areas not normally subject to catastrophic fire events, intense fires have occurred.

Although high-severity wildfire can release significant amounts of carbon from soil pools, the loss can be reduced through well-designed fuel reduction programs based on thinning and prescribed fire. Stephens et al. (2009) accounted for storage in harvested wood products and documented emissions from prescribed fire, thinning treatments, and a combination of both, with and without a subsequent fire. They found that thinning treatments produced fewer emissions than under a non-management strategy for almost any plausible assumption of fire probability, and that the effectiveness of thinning/prescribed fire combinations in reducing carbon emissions increased as the likelihood of fire increased.

Low-severity wildfires and prescribed fires have little effect on soil carbon and may even increase mineral soil carbon through deposition and mixing of partially burned or residual organic matter into the surface mineral soil (Johnson and Curtis 2001; Hatten et al. 2005; Hatten et al. 2008). Conversely, high-severity wildfire decreases soil carbon stocks by 10% to 60% (Baird et al. 1999; Hatten et al. 2008; Bormann et al. 2008). Recovery rates after moderate- to high-severity fire may be similar to a post-harvest scenario, provided soil productivity is not damaged.

Mortality wrought by insects and disease can rival that of fire and is a significant factor in carbon emissions over time in forests across the United States. These agents tend not to reduce dead biomass and soil carbon pools (as does fire). For example, bark beetle outbreaks generate considerable quantities of dead wood but may cause no change in soil respiration rates (Morehouse et al. 2008). The effect of insects and disease on forest carbon over time depends in large part on whether the agent attacks all the tree species in a stand or only a few. As long as unaffected trees are present in significant numbers, the leaf area and growth potential of the site "transfers" to the surviving trees – at least some of the surviving trees claim access to the growing space vacated by trees that succumb. If the dead-tree carbon can be recovered, via salvage harvest for wood products or energy, the effect on stand carbon trajectories would be similar to the effects of a thinning. However, if a stand is a monoculture or an agent attacks all tree species, reversals in carbon storage may be significant, especially if salvage through harvesting is not an option. Some agents, including exotic invasive pests, may have the potential to prevent certain tree species from becoming reestablished at a site. This can represent a longer-term impact, essentially changing the capacity of a site to store carbon unless alternative species with equivalent growth potential are available.

Carbon Implications of Forest Harvesting

Harvesting and Forest/Forest Products Carbon Pools

It is a simple fact that harvesting removes carbon from forests. Despite the near-term impact on forest carbon stores, there are clear benefits of sustainable forest management. Forest management done responsibly helps to:

- prevent overstocking and reduce risks of catastrophic fire, disease, and insect infestation thereby protecting the long-term carbon storage capacity of forests;
- capture a portion of what would otherwise be natural mortality and associated release of carbon;
- create new carbon pools within long-lived forest products; and

- avoid substantial fossil carbon emissions when wood is used in place of high energy intensity products and materials, or when used as a source of energy in place of fossil fuels.

Forests managed so as to optimize carbon benefits are typically of younger average age than unmanaged forests. These forests sequester carbon rapidly and are managed so as to reduce and capture mortality. Over-crowding and high natural mortality are avoided through thinning, a practice that also enhances growth of remaining trees. Older forests tend to have higher carbon densities than younger forests, but low or near-zero rates of additional carbon sequestration as they reach maturity.

In the United States forest cover has increased and net growth has exceeded removals for more than 70 continuous years, translating to increasing carbon stocks.

Temperate forests worldwide continue to expand as carbon sinks even though large quantities of wood products are removed from these forests annually. The quantity of carbon stored within forest products is continuing to increase as well. In the United States forest cover has increased and net growth has exceeded removals and mortality for more than 70 continuous years, which has resulted in increasing carbon stocks, despite the removal of over 850 *billion* cubic feet of timber during that time frame. The current rate of carbon accumulation in temperate forests may decline, however, if the average age of the forest continues to increase.

The rate of net carbon accumulation in U.S. forests during the period 2005–2007 is estimated to have been 220 million metric tons per year. In addition, carbon continues to accumulate in harvested wood products pools. The annual rate of carbon accumulation within wood products in use and in landfills was estimated at about 28 to 29 million tons during the same 2005-2007 period. This rate of storage in products equates to 12-13% of the rate of sequestration within forests, and 20- 21% of the annual additions to non-soil forest carbon stocks (U.S. EPA 2011). Rates of accumulation in harvested wood products were notably lower in 2008–2010 because of the sharp decrease in overall economic activity and home construction.

Carbon within wood products is stored for the life of the product. Carbon is stored in the structure of homes and other wooden buildings, within furniture, and within a myriad of other long-lived products that contain wood. Across the whole United States, carbon removed from the atmosphere by forest growth or stored in harvested wood products each year is equal to 12% to 19% of annual fossil fuel emissions (Ryan et al. 2010; U.S. EPA 2010).

Harvesting and Soil Carbon

The effect of harvesting and replanting on soil carbon is difficult to generalize, as much depends on the initial soil depth, the depth to which soil is sampled, and the strategies employed following harvesting to replenish the forest. Harvesting and thinning alter soil carbon cycling by altering the supply of root and litter inputs, disturbing the soil surface, and changing temperature and moisture regimes. These changes all tend to increase respiration rates; however, they also move some forest floor carbon into deeper, mineral soil layers. Measured effects tend to be slight in the short term, with carbon decreases concentrated in the forest floor and near the soil surface. On the other hand, harvesting appears to add to mineral carbon stores or to not affect them.

A few meta-analyses and review papers conclude that the net effect of harvest is a reduction in soil carbon, with forest and soil type determining the magnitude of carbon loss (Johnson and Curtis 2001; Jandl et al. 2007; Nave et al. 2010). Johnson and Curtis, for example, reviewed 26 studies of the impacts of forest harvesting on soil carbon, concluding that forest harvesting, on average, had little or no effect on soil carbon and nitrogen. Jandl et. al. (2007) confirmed harvest-related losses of carbon from the organic (upper) layers of soil, but also found that carbon storage capacity within deep soils can be enhanced by increasing forest productivity. Nave et al. (2010), after a review of 432 reported responses of soil carbon to harvesting in temperate forests worldwide reported an 8% average reduction in soil carbon stocks after harvesting, over all forest and soil types studied, noting that the forest floor was the only soil layer to show an overall, significant change in C storage following harvest. They also reported an average increase in deep mineral soil concentrations of 19%. One study found that even whole-tree harvesting for biomass production has little long-term effect on soil carbon stocks if surface soil layers containing organic material are left on site, nutrients are managed, and the site is allowed to regenerate (Powers et al. 2005). Forest thinning and competition control have a much smaller disturbance on soil characteristics and therefore affect soil carbon stocks less.

The impacts of forest harvesting on soil carbon can be different in old forests. Heavy or stand replacement harvesting has been shown to release a great deal of carbon in high-volume old-growth stands where catastrophic losses are unlikely. So much carbon can be released that it may take decades before the new stand demonstrates greater net uptake of carbon than if the old-growth had been left alone (Janisch and Harmon 2002). Such stands, which are found almost exclusively on public lands, are rarely harvested or even actively managed in the United States today. In old forests where catastrophic losses are likely (e.g., in drier forest types where fire or insects cause disturbance and mortality) the carbon calculations are different. In this case, active management can provide carbon benefits.

It is important to recognize that forests are living and dynamic systems that undergo change with or without management. Choosing not to manage has its own carbon consequences.

Reducing tree density and carbon stocks in forests managed for commercial products decreases risks. Management can address the risk of financial and carbon losses due to episodic disturbances, such as wildfires or severe storms. At the same time, management results in increasing carbon storage within wood products. On the other hand, a no-harvest strategy focused on increasing forest stocks can increase the volume of carbon stored in the forest in the near-term. However, a no-harvest strategy can mean missed opportunities for greater carbon mitigation over the longer-term, and also increase the risk of loss. It is important to recognize that forests are living and dynamic systems that undergo change with or without management. Choosing not to manage has its own carbon consequences.

Forest Products, Bioenergy, and the Substitution Effect

Building Products Manufacture and Use

Forests store carbon, and so do wood products. Evaluations of carbon flows show that conversion of wood to useful products can significantly reduce overall societal carbon emissions. To understand the overall forest sector impact on atmospheric carbon, a clear understanding of material and energy flows is needed. Thorough analysis shows that sustainably managed forests can provide a steady flow of forest products, which when substituted for energy intensive and fossil fuel intensive products can help to offset the flow of carbon dioxide from fossil carbon reserves to the atmosphere.

A key factor in the carbon benefits of forest products is that they have lower embodied energy (the amount of energy it takes to make products) than comparable products. The manufacture of forest products is also far less reliant on fossil fuels than other products because forest industries generate much of their energy needs from biomass. As a result, there is a beneficial substitution effect when wood is used in place of other types of building materials. This substitution results in: 1) the consumption of significantly less energy, and considerably less fossil energy, and 2) lower emissions of carbon, and particularly fossil carbon. The magnitude of the substitution effect varies by use and product, but on average every 1 ton of wood used avoids the addition of 2.1 tons of carbon (or 7.7 tons of carbon dioxide) to the atmosphere.

Forest products have lower embodied energy than comparable products. The manufacture of forest products is also far less reliant on fossil fuels than other products. As a result, there is a beneficial substitution effect when wood is used in place of other types of building materials.

The following table (Table 1) is based on a life cycle inventory[4] comparing the construction of two functionally equivalent wall systems (Edmonds and Lippke 2004). The data illustrates the substitution effect. Shown is consumption of fossil fuels associated with exterior wall designs in a warm-climate (Atlanta area) single family dwelling beginning with raw material extraction and through construction. In this case using concrete, rather than lumber, for construction of the exterior walls of a home results in consumption of 2.5 times the fossil fuel energy and even greater increases in emissions of fossil carbon than when using lumber. The substitution effect of using concrete, rather than wood, can be quantified as a 38 percent increase in total energy consumption, a 150 percent increase in fossil fuel consumption, and greater than 150 percent increases in fossil carbon emissions.

[4] A life cycle analysis begins with a careful accounting of all the measurable raw material inputs (including energy), product and co-product outputs, and emissions to air, water, and land; this part of an LCA is called a life cycle inventory (LCI).

Table 1
Consumption of Fossil Fuel Energy in Production of Exterior Wall Systems in a Warm-Climate Home in the U.S. Southeast

	Fossil fuel energy (MJ/ft²)	
	Lumber-framed wall	*Concrete wall*
Structural components[a]	6.27	75.89
Insulation[b]	8.51	8.51
Cladding[c]	22.31	8.09
Total[d]	37.09	92.49

[a] Includes studs and plywood sheathing for the lumber-framed wall design and concrete blocks and studs (used in a furred-out wood stud wall) for the concrete wall design.
[b] Includes fiberglass and six-mil polyethylene vapor barrier for both designs.
[c] Includes interior and exterior wall coverings. Exterior wall coverings are vinyl (lumber-framed wall design) and stucco (concrete wall design). Interior wall coverings are gypsum for both designs.
[d] Includes subtotals from structural, insulation, and cladding categories.

Similar studies have compared other building materials. In comparisons of wood with steel framing with an average recycled content, the manufacture of wood framing has been found to require one-half or less of the total energy, and one-fourth to one-fifth the fossil energy. Similar results are obtained when comparing wood, concrete, aluminum, and plastics. Consequently, there are large differences in emissions of fossil carbon associated with these various materials, with substantially lower carbon emissions linked to production of wood building products than potential substitutes. In addition, the large quantity of carbon stored within wood also sets this material apart from potential substitutes. No other common building material comes close to having the carbon storage capacity of wood.

Energy from Wood

There are direct carbon benefits to the substitution of woody biomass for fossil fuel energy. When the use of fossil fuels is avoided, a greenhouse gas offset occurs when the fossil fuel and associated carbon remains underground and the flow of fossil carbon to the atmosphere is reduced.

Bioenergy (heat and electrical power) production from wood is attractive since only a small amount of fossil fuel is needed to produce bioenergy. Approximately one unit of fossil fuel is needed for every 25 to 50 units of bioenergy (Matthews and Robertson 2005; Börjesson 1996; Boman and Turnbull 1997; McLaughlin and Walsh 1998; Matthews and Mortimer 2000; Malkki and Virtanen 2003). Net carbon emissions from the generation of a unit of electricity from biomass can be 10 to 30+ times lower than emissions from fossil-based electricity generation, depending on the systems and fuel types being compared (Cherubini et al. 2009; Mathews and Robertson 2005; Boman and Turnbull 1997; Mann and Spath 2001; Matthews and Mortimer 2000).

Although energy self-sufficiency is one reason for pursuing the development of woody biomass-to-energy initiatives (EISA 2007), there are other reasons to use woody biomass as an energy source. In the West, wildfire risk is high and increasing, and removing excess biomass to reduce risks is desirable in many cases. Reduction of fire risks while maintaining other forest values often entails removing low-value biomass from the forest, a practice that promotes growth of higher-value trees for multiple benefits. Without a market for biomass (i.e., for bioenergy and biofuel) the costs of fire risk reduction are prohibitive, reducing greatly the likelihood of action.

Potential advantages notwithstanding, there are concerns that if too many bioenergy and biofuel plants are established, they will not be sustainable over the long run. In response, several states, such as Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Pennsylvania have developed woody biomass removal guidelines to ensure that bioenergy plants can operate sustainably, meeting long-term environmental, ecological and economic needs. Forest certification programs which are widely used in the U.S. provide similar management protocols for fuel harvests.

There can be environmental trade-offs involved in removing harvest residuals where the residuals have value in maintaining site productivity and biodiversity. Studies suggest that the productivity of most sites is largely resilient to removal of harvesting residuals. Documentation of negative effects on site productivity due to biomass removal is rare. However, studies also consistently show neutral or positive impacts on species diversity from forest thinning due to increased structural complexity, but lower abundance of cavity- and open-nesting birds and invertebrates following removal of large quantities of downed coarse woody debris and/or standing snags (Riffell et al. 2011). Effects of harvesting coarse and particularly fine woody debris on other taxa do not appear to be great, although there have been few studies of these practices (Riffell et al. 2011). These results indicate the need for care in the planning and execution of biomass removal.

All things considered, the available supply of biomass for energy, including forestry biomass, depends upon a number of factors. The total amount that is physically available may be limited by environmental, economic, and policy considerations. Even ambiguity in policy language may limit supply; for instance, current federal policy that contains numerous and often conflicting definitions of biomass appears to be hindering policy implementation and development of biomass markets. On the other side of the biomass supply equation, supplies may be increased by continued investments in forest productivity and declining use of traditional forest products. Overriding all of these factors will be preferences of forest landowners who are motivated by both economic reality and sustainability considerations.

Forest Carbon Policies

At the national level, increasing net carbon sequestration rates in forests, using wood products rather than fossil fuel–intensive products, and using forest residues for energy will reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. While some project-based carbon accounting rules consider the volume of carbon in harvested wood products, none at this point account for avoided emissions through the substitution effect. Unfortunately, rules that ignore or undercount benefits and risks can result in conclusions that encourage less than optimum carbon mitigation practices.

Forestry offset protocols have been created to serve different purposes. Some were created as part of cap-and-trade programs, either mandatory or voluntary, or as part of emissions reduction programs. Others were developed independently but have since been adopted by others. Although the concept of offsets is the same, the number of carbon credits generated for the same project can differ dramatically depending upon the sets of carbon pools allowed and the baseline approach employed.

Forestry offset projects generally can be classified as afforestation, reforestation, forest management, forest conservation, or forest preservation. The estimates of net climate benefits from forest management, conservation, or preservation projects depend largely on the assumptions about the carbon storage and substitution benefits of wood products; this is less true for afforestation and reforestation projects. For an offset project to have any effect on net GHG emissions to the atmosphere, the net amount of carbon sequestered must be additional to what would have occurred anyway. For forest projects, additionality is relatively easy to establish when new trees are planted and maintained but considerably more difficult to demonstrate when based on what did not or will not happen (e.g., "I was going to harvest in 10 years but instead will wait 30 years"). If forest carbon credits are used to permanently offset industrial emissions, a forest project must demonstrate permanence by ensuring that initial emissions are balanced by an equivalent amount of new carbon storage over time. However, strict project-level guarantees or insurance increase the cost of forest carbon credits. Also, U.S. forestry projects that increase in-forest carbon sequestration through a short-term reduction in harvests may have national market leakage rates that approach 100% (i.e., virtually all of the reduction in harvest will simply be shifted elsewhere) if harvests from non-project forests are used to meet consumer demand.

> **"In the long term, a sustainable forest management strategy aimed at maintaining or increasing forest carbon stocks, while producing an annual sustained yield of timber, fibre or energy from the forest, will generate the largest sustained mitigation benefit."**
>
> *Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Fourth Assessment Report (2007)*

Carbon accounting protocols differ greatly in their requirements for monitoring and verification, carbon measurement, and third-party certification. For instance, when six different forest carbon protocols were applied to the same southern pine plantation by Galik et al. (2009), break-even carbon prices ($/tCO_2e$) had a 20-fold range depending on a given protocol's rules about baseline values, reversals, leakage, and uncertainty. Thus, there is significant potential for confusion, variability, and even fraud in carbon accounting. Moreover, transaction costs per unit of land were found to also vary substantially, by as much as a factor of five.

The measurement challenges and relatively high transaction costs inherent in forest carbon offset systems motivate consideration of other policies that can promote climate benefits from forests without requiring project-specific accounting. For example, market prices for building and energy products that reflect emissions, economic incentives for tree planting, and credible information disclosure on the relative climate impacts of different products could prove more effective at a national scale. This is essentially what was suggested by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change in their Fourth Assessment Report (IPCC 2007): "In the long term, a sustainable forest management strategy aimed at maintaining or increasing forest carbon stocks, while producing an annual sustained yield of timber, fibre or energy from the forest, will generate the largest sustained mitigation benefit."

Summary

Forests are an integral component of the global carbon cycle and may change in response to climate change. U.S. forest policies can foster responsible management actions that will provide measurable reductions in carbon emissions over time while maintaining forests for environmental protection and societal benefits, such as timber and non-timber forest products, vibrant rural communities, clean water, and wildlife habitat. Founded on the four premises outlined in the introduction of this report, the essential policy recommendations are:

1. **Keep forests as forests and manage appropriate forests for carbon.**

   Forests provide substantial carbon benefits and retention of forested land is therefore an important component of any carbon mitigation strategy. Active management is also important so as to capture the greatest carbon mitigation potential. Forests undergo change with or without management, and choosing not to manage has its own carbon consequences. Young, healthy forests are carbon sinks. As forests mature, they generally become carbon-cycle neutral or even carbon emission sources because net primary productivity declines, natural mortality increases, and the probability of massive carbon loss increases over time. If a forest is unmanaged, decay of trees killed by natural disturbances—windstorms, fire, ice storms, hurricanes, insect and disease infestations—emits carbon without providing the carbon benefits available through product and energy substitution.

2. **Recognize that substantial quantities of carbon are stored in wood products for long periods of time.**

   Wood is one-half carbon by weight, and it lasts a long time in service—and often for a long time after being retired from service. Placing wood into long term use adds to carbon pools outside the forest, leveraging the carbon capturing ability of forests.

3. **The substitution effect is immediate, irreversible, and cumulative and should be recognized in development of policy instruments.**

   Compared with products made of non-renewable materials, wood products require vastly less fossil fuel–derived energy to produce. As a consequence, when wood products from sustainable managed forests are appropriately substituted for energy intensive alternatives there are very substantial carbon benefits that accumulate over time. The substitution effect similarly applies to production of energy from biomass rather than from fossil fuels.

4. **It is imperative in policy development that objective, science-based analyses are used, that holistic thinking that encompasses the full suite of options in forest management be employed, and that particularly close attention be paid to assumptions and models underlying analyses.**

   Conserving forests for recreational, aesthetic, and wildlife habitat goals has been a strong policy driver in the United States in recent decades. Evidence of increasing losses to disturbances and decreasing rates of carbon accumulation in maturing forests, particularly in the western U.S., suggests that a strategy that precludes management may not produce intended global climate benefits. In assessing policy options, it is important to recognize that tracking the allocation of forest carbon across live and dead trees, understory shrub and herbaceous vegetation, soils, the forest floor, forest litter, harvested wood products, and energy wood is far more difficult than conducting traditional inventories of commercially valuable wood volume. Understanding the dynamics of these allocations, how they are affected by stand age, density, and management, and how they will evolve with climate change is fundamental to fostering the capacity for sustainably managed forests to remove carbon dioxide (CO_2) from the atmosphere.

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