

# 1      **Challenges and Opportunities for the Northeastern Forest Bioindustry**

## 2      **Introduction**

3            In recent years, rising and increasingly volatile energy costs have combined with  
4 growing concerns over global climate change to fuel interest in the development of carbon-  
5 neutral, sustainable energy sources. Throughout the U.S. and abroad, a host of policies and  
6 research initiatives are in progress to address economic and technological barriers that  
7 restrain the transition to a sustainable “bioindustry.” In the U.S., the Energy Independence  
8 and Security Act (EISA), passed in December of 2007, mandates a 5-fold increase in biofuel  
9 production over the next 15 years, with 60% (22 billion gallons/year) to be derived from  
10 cellulosic or non-corn feed stocks – including woody biomass.

11            Producing sufficient feedstock for the challenge ahead has spurred a growing  
12 number of studies on biomass availability. Perlack *et al.* (2005) found that for the U.S. as a  
13 whole, the largest potential share of sustainable feedstock will continue to be derived from  
14 crop residues (446 million dry tons (mmdt/year)), followed by perennial crops (377  
15 mmdt/year) and forest and wood residues (370 mmdt/year). This is not to suggest that the  
16 only renewable energy options for the Northeast U.S. will be from biomass for, as identified  
17 by Short (2008), several other sources should be considered including solar, wind, and water.  
18 If the above projections are true, however, it is likely that biomass harvested directly from  
19 the forest will play an important role in creating and sustaining the bioindustry.

20            The seven states of the Northeastern U.S. (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New  
21 Hampshire, New York, Rhode Island, and Vermont) have abundant forest resources and an  
22 established forest sector. The emerging bioindustry offers great opportunities in using these  
23 resources to offset energy needs, but realizing this potential will take a coordinated effort by

24 both the public and private sectors. This paper examines the opportunities and challenges  
25 the Northeastern U.S. faces in using forest biomass as a feedstock for the emerging forest-  
26 based bioindustry. We first summarize proven and “near-to-market” forest-based processes  
27 and technologies, and then highlight key aspects of the region’s forest resources. These  
28 issues provide the framework for the bioindustry, but many other critical pieces must be in  
29 place before this industry can develop in a sustainable manner. We show that careful  
30 consideration must also be given to feedstock specifications, existing facilities and  
31 infrastructure, forest operations, public policy, and the wide range of social values likely to  
32 emerge as the industry grows.

### 33 **The Forest Bioindustry**

34         The Northeast bioindustry includes proven technologies related to bioenergy such as  
35 electricity generation, heat-only facilities, and co-gen facilities combining both heat and  
36 power. Wood-chip fired biomass electricity-only plants are estimated to operate with  
37 efficiencies in the range of 28% (electric energy generated/total energy available in the wood  
38 fuel used) (Timmons *et al.* 2007a). This low level of efficiency suggests a natural fit for co-  
39 locating industrial operations requiring heat with biomass-fired electricity generating  
40 facilities.

41         Bioenergy facilities have a long history in the Region. Wood residues from  
42 integrated sawmill operations have been used for decades to generate combined heat and  
43 power for mill operations. The oil crisis in the 1970s which spawned many wood to energy  
44 initiatives including Burlington Electric Department’s McNeil Generating Station which has  
45 been in operation since 1984 (Irving 2002). Vermont’s “Fuels for Schools” program, which  
46 started in the 1980s and now serves 20% of Vermont public school students, is responsible  
47 for heating 32 schools with wood chip systems (McElroy 2007).

48           The above technologies may be new to specific geographic areas and/or applications  
49 and as such, they represent an important near-term source of potential demand for forest  
50 biomass. One projection for Southern New England estimated that Connecticut,  
51 Massachusetts, and Rhode Island would generate a total renewable energy demand of 6.9  
52 Giga-Watt-hours in 2015 (Timmons *et al.* 2007a) as a result of public policies requiring  
53 renewable power generation. Grace and Corey (2002) estimate that 29% of this energy will  
54 be generated by biomass-fired electricity generating plants. With current technology, this  
55 level of additional biomass-fired electricity would require approximately 2.6 million green  
56 tons of wood chips annually. Mount Wachusett Community College in Gardner,  
57 Massachusetts, recently installed a wood-chip fired hot-water heating system for the 450,000  
58 ft<sup>2</sup> of building space on its campus. The system delivers 8 million BTU/hour, saving the  
59 campus \$276,000/yr compared to its original electric heating system (Mount Wachusett  
60 Community College 2008). Maine’s recently announced “Wood-to-Energy” initiative  
61 envisions a school heating program similar to Vermont’s, along with several pilot wood  
62 pellet projects.

63           The Northeast bioindustry also includes near-to-market products and technologies  
64 related to biofuels and bioproducts. Technologies that convert wood to biofuels such as  
65 cellulosic ethanol, as well as a growing list of other bioproducts, are in varying stages of  
66 development and commercialization. Currently, the majority of ethanol is derived from corn  
67 feedstock, which is grown and processed largely outside of the Northeast. Given its  
68 abundant forest cover, however, the Northeast has great potential to supply forest-derived  
69 biomass for ethanol production, with additional supplies likely from perennial crops  
70 (Timmons *et al.* 2007b) and, to a lesser degree, annual crops. Biorefineries like the one  
71 planned for Old Town, Maine (see side bar) are envisioned to be able to convert forest

72 biomass into ethanol as well as a range of additional value-added products, with a goal of  
73 maximizing the profit potential of the end-product mix. Nace (2007) gives an idea of what  
74 the product stream from such a biorefinery might include. Using cellulosic biomass as an  
75 input feedstock, a biorefinery may produce biodiesel derived from levulinic acid (a high-BTU  
76 char product) and other commodity acids, and value-added chemicals that could be used as  
77 feedstock for the polymer, plastics, pharmaceuticals, and chemicals industries. All of these  
78 technologies and products are being developed with the expectation that forest biomass will  
79 be at least one component of the feedstock.

## 80 **The Resource**

81         The seven-state Northeastern Region is endowed with abundant forest resources.  
82 Within the Region, however, the distribution of species and biomass is uneven, with  
83 southern portions tending toward scattered hardwood stands in fragmented parcels set amid  
84 rapidly urbanizing communities. In contrast, much of northern Maine is dominated by  
85 softwood species within an undeveloped landscape of what were once large industrial  
86 ownerships that are now rapidly fragmenting.

87         Throughout the Region, forest acreage, stand volumes, and growth have been  
88 increasing since historic lows in the mid-1800s. Currently, the Region boasts an average  
89 accessible forest land cover of 70.6%, ranging from a low of 52.8% in Rhode Island, to a  
90 high of 88.4% in Maine (USDA Forest Service 2008). Based on 2001-2005 inventories, total  
91 accessible forest land area totals 49.9 million acres. Given many differences in development,  
92 population, and timber supply across the Region, it is expected that development of a  
93 bioindustry is likely to come from the northern forest region which is comprised of 21  
94 million acres of forestland from upstate New York to Maine (Short 2008).

95           Given the rapid pace of technological development in the area of forest-based  
96 bioproducts, little is known about the relative values and future market potential for the  
97 Region's tree species. The most recent USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory Analysis data  
98 show that growth exceeds removals for the growing stock of hardwoods on timberlands.  
99 Most recent data indicate annual growth of hardwood growing stock in the seven states is  
100 877 million cubic feet, with only 500 million cubic feet in annual removals. New York has  
101 the largest net hardwood growth of about 229 million cubic feet of annually.

102           The softwood resource condition is less certain. Recent softwood harvest rates in  
103 Maine and New Hampshire contribute to a net reduction in overall softwood growing stock  
104 levels for the Region. This trend may have changed, however, with the recent housing slow-  
105 down and divestitures of large industrial timberland holdings in Maine and elsewhere. Data  
106 for the remaining five states show that, for softwood growing stock, growth exceeds  
107 removals by a ratio of nearly 2:1. For Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island  
108 and Vermont, combined annual growth of the softwood growing stock was reported at 197  
109 million cubic feet, with only 104 million cubic feet of removals.

110           Forests in the Northeast are largely under private ownership, although the last  
111 decade has witnessed significant changes in ownership class, land use, and parcel  
112 fragmentation. In remote northern areas of the Region, large industrial ownerships have  
113 been sold off to a host of financial groups like TIMOs and REITs (Hagan *et al.* 2005). In  
114 more populated areas to the south, development pressures have lead to the steady  
115 conversion of forests and farmlands for residential and commercial use (Stein *et al.* 2005). In  
116 both cases, fragmentation of large tracts into smaller parcels is a dominant process across the  
117 landscape.

118           The heavy representation of non-industrial private forest (NIPF) ownership suggests  
119 a highly decentralized resource that can readily respond to market signals such as higher  
120 prices. Moreover, widespread distribution of the resource limits the need to transport raw  
121 material over large distances, favoring the emergence of an industry based on local  
122 processing and supply systems. In addition, landowners are generally familiar with timber  
123 growing and harvesting practices, with a host of institutions and regulations in place to foster  
124 a competitive market for timber while protecting lands for the continued production of both  
125 commodities and ecosystem services. Finally, the Region has some of the highest levels of  
126 third-party environmental certification in the country. For example, Maine leads the nation  
127 with nearly 7 million certified acres, including 500,000 acres of public land, 6 million acres of  
128 large-parcel private lands, and 350,000 acres of smaller private lands (Maine Forest Service  
129 2005).

130           While current resources appear sufficient to support an emerging bioproducts  
131 industry, growing development pressures and forest ownership fragmentation are likely to  
132 increasingly impact future resource supplies. First, the rapid development and urbanization  
133 taking place across the Region permanently removes lands from the forest base. In addition,  
134 a growing number of studies have shown decreased willingness by landowners to invest in  
135 stand management and engage in timber harvests as forests are fragmented and population  
136 densities increase (Alig *et al.* 2004, Stein *et al.* 2005). Another consideration for timber  
137 management and long-term access to timber supplies is the growing number of acres under  
138 conservation easements (deGooyer and Capen 2004). Although conservation easements do  
139 not preclude harvesting by definition, they are often associated with restricted access for  
140 timber production. How these changes ultimately impact the availability of forest resources  
141 is of considerable interest and warrants further study.

## 142 **The Opportunities and Challenges**

143           Established technologies and products, combined with an available resource at the  
144 Regional level, provide a generally positive outlook for the emergence of a forest-based  
145 bioindustry in the Northeast. Yet there are many additional pieces to this puzzle that will  
146 ultimately determine whether or not the industry can prosper. For example, the degree to  
147 which feedstock needs overlap between new bioproducts industries and the traditional forest  
148 products industry will in large part determine the level of competition for raw materials.  
149 Moreover, an extensive industrial infrastructure is required to bring even the most basic  
150 technology to commercial operation. This includes the industrial facility itself, as well as the  
151 entire forest operations supply chain. In addition, public policy decisions at all levels of  
152 governance can have significant impacts on emerging and established sectors of the forest  
153 industry. As noted above, given the Northeast's largely private and fragmented ownership,  
154 any policies must consider a broad array of landowner and management objectives, as well as  
155 a broader range of social values likely to emerge along with the industry.

## 156 **Feedstock Specifications**

157           Despite the Northeast's abundant forest resource, production rates in the short-term  
158 are determined by existing logging capacities. In addition, much of the available material is  
159 already being used by the existing forest industry. As a result, new forest-based bioproducts  
160 facilities need to understand their own feedstock specifications in order to successfully  
161 compete for raw materials, or, better yet, integrate their operations into existing facilities.  
162 One example where competition for feedstock is likely to occur is between bioenergy plants  
163 and pulp mills. Indeed, both facilities use wood in comminuted form, and pulp-quality wood  
164 chips (bark free and uniform size) would work well in a bioenergy plant. The reverse is not

165 true, however, since whole-tree chips used in bioenergy plants contain more contaminants  
166 and bark than would be acceptable by a pulp mill. As a result, and depending on distance  
167 between facilities and overlap in their respective wood baskets, wood chip prices may rise  
168 due to increasing competition between facilities.

169 In contrast, an example of an integrated approach is that proposed by Red Shield  
170 Environmental, where hemicellulose is extracted from wood chips prior to the pulping  
171 process (Arnold 2007). Cellulosic ethanol is to be made from the hemicellulose without  
172 affecting the pulping process or product quality. This integrated approach offers obvious  
173 advantages, but since market forces cannot be controlled, new wood-using facilities --  
174 regardless of the specific technology or product -- must have realistic expectations regarding  
175 long-term feedstock price and availability.

## 176 **Industrial Facilities**

177 The Northeastern Region's existing industrial sites represent a key asset for the  
178 emerging forest-based bioindustry. Many pulp and paper facilities have excess capacity due  
179 to previous scale backs, and as a result offer opportunities for co-location of bioproduct  
180 processing facilities. These sites not only have human resources, procurement policies, and  
181 timber supply networks in place, but also access to utilities (e.g., water, electricity, natural gas,  
182 oil supplies), and waste treatment facilities (e.g., wastewater, solids and sludge, ash). Existing  
183 sites are also well positioned with respect to production inputs (e.g., zero or low-cost inputs  
184 like black liquor, processing wastes and byproducts), and transport systems for both inputs  
185 and finished products via roads, barges and railways. Existing sites may have liabilities  
186 stemming from past environmental waste hazards, and just because an industrial site exists  
187 does not mean that public acceptance will be forthcoming when it comes to altered or  
188 expanded uses – even in communities under economic stress (Moreira 2006).



189           Size of operation is also important. Given the rapidly evolving nature of the  
190 bioindustry and associated technologies, a range of scales is possible – an advantage given  
191 the diversity of possible facility locations in the Region. Some emerging biomass  
192 technologies such as gasifiers can operate at a small scale, with the advantage of having a  
193 small environmental footprint (Weaver 2007). Others, however, require a large physical plant  
194 of 70,000 to 100,000 ft<sup>2</sup>; the ability to procure, store and move massive quantities of  
195 biomass; and the need for both inside and outside storage (Nace 2007, Kingsley 2007). In  
196 this regard, the scale of proposed liquid fuels facilities (e.g., large-scale ethanol production)  
197 may be too large for this region. From a feedstock perspective, biomass fuel is already a large  
198 business in the Northeast, with 5.4 million tons of usage in 2005 and \$75-100 million in  
199 delivered value (Irland 2007). Still, for some Northeast states, significant long-term  
200 investment is needed to make efficient use of forest biomass – especially in terms of logging  
201 infrastructure as described below.

202           Despite the Region’s abundance of forests and existing wood processing facilities,  
203 challenges exist. First, bioproducts processors will have to successfully compete against  
204 existing wood buyers, a challenge heightened by the significant quantities of wood under  
205 long-term procurement agreements (Kingsley 2008). Moreover, current biomass prices are  
206 already pushing the limits of conversion technologies, so that increased competition for  
207 supplies will raise prices and squeeze profit margins even more. Adding to these risks is the  
208 absence of long-term pricing options such as is available for corn, which makes it difficult to  
209 forecast input costs subject to volatility in biomass prices (Kingsley 2007).

210           Fortunately, the assumption that biomass prices will always increase is open to  
211 debate. This is important given the tight margins of many existing technologies. For  
212 example, Kingsley (2007) found that one chip truck with 30 tons of green chips can produce

213 0.6 MWH of electricity or 40 gallons of ethanol. At \$30/ton delivered, electricity generating  
214 costs would exceed \$0.05/kwh excluding facility costs (e.g., staffing, maintenance, etc) and  
215 before profit. Similar scenarios apply for ethanol. Ironically, the Region's forest products  
216 sector's divestment of land from mills over the last 15 years may add needed flexibility and  
217 competition to the supply side of the market.

218 Product distribution for market and/or additional processing is another  
219 consideration. Rail unit-cars are the most effective mode of transport for ethanol, but this  
220 option is lacking in the Region given its highly fragmented ownership of existing rail lines. In  
221 addition, the Region has limited proximity to ethanol refineries, with the closest in Shelby,  
222 New York (Renewable Fuels Association 2008), and large-scale facilities in New Jersey. Such  
223 distances limit access to market, although the Region's relative proximity to refineries and  
224 population centers may still place it at an advantage to corn-based ethanol produced in the  
225 Midwest.

226 The Region's high energy costs present both opportunities and challenges. High  
227 electricity costs in the Northeast can limit the viability of launching a successful bioproducts  
228 operation. Alternatively, many facilities have on-site electrical generating capacity (commonly  
229 on the order of 7-10 MW of power) and can sell power back to the grid. High energy costs  
230 may also create local markets for home heating substitutes like bio-oil and wood pellets.  
231 Similar opportunities are likely to exist for excess steam-generating capacity, as well as waste  
232 heat recovery in processing.

### 233 **Forest Operations**

234 Just as the Region's abundant forests and existing wood products facilities present  
235 opportunities and challenges to the emerging bioindustry, so does the existence of a long-  
236 established forest operations sector. Additional raw materials can be supplied through

237 increased harvesting activity, and/or more intensive harvests (i.e., leaving less logging residue  
238 on-site). Opportunities exist to offset management and silvicultural costs through biomass  
239 harvesting, thereby promoting management and increasing stand productivity. Other  
240 opportunities exist for forest and ecosystem health and restoration from future insect and/or  
241 disease epidemics. In addition, many stands in the Region are overstocked with small-  
242 diameter trees and could benefit silviculturally from what would traditionally be considered  
243 pre-commercial thinning. For example, in Maine 10% of the forestland (1.75 million acres) is  
244 overstocked and in the sapling stage of development (McWilliams *et al.* 2005). In some areas,  
245 such harvests could also reduce fuel loads and wildfire risk – especially in rapidly urbanizing  
246 areas near metropolitan centers. For those opportunities to be realized, a healthy forest  
247 operations infrastructure is required.

248 Forest operations are central for the supply of raw material to the entire forest  
249 products industry. Traditionally, the focus has been on round wood products. Trees are  
250 harvested and transported to roadside for processing after which they are delivered to wood  
251 using facilities. Conceptually this supply chain is simple, but in reality it is rather complex.  
252 The logging and trucking industry in the Northeast is comprised of many independent  
253 contractors that provide a service to a diverse group of landowners and supply multiple  
254 wood-using facilities. The form of wood delivered to roadside varies, as does the amount  
255 and type of processing on the landing. Decisions of this nature depend on several factors  
256 including equipment availability, mill demands, site characteristics, and stand conditions.  
257 Extensive road networks are critical to efficient transportation of forest products and  
258 advanced communication and satellite technology are often used to improve efficiencies in  
259 production. Cost of production is a constant focus throughout the supply chain for all forest  
260 products and biomass is no exception.

261           Several additional challenges exist for forest operations to supply forest biomass to  
262 the bioproducts industry. Logging residue has a low bulk density which presents handling  
263 difficulties for all aspects of forest operations. It is also possible that specifications will be  
264 established by the bioindustry for raw material characteristics (e.g., species composition, bark  
265 content, and chip size), depending on which technology is used. This will further complicate  
266 handling and sorting. Extraction of forest biomass presents a compromise in economic,  
267 environmental, and social values. Each of these challenges will have to be addressed to  
268 ensure a stable supply of forest biomass to the bioproducts industry.

269           Handling forest biomass presents the greatest challenge for forest operations because  
270 logging residue has a low bulk density. The proportion of solids in logging residue and chips  
271 is less than 20% (Anderson *et al.* 2002). Compared to handling roundwood, it is simply more  
272 awkward and inefficient to work with logging residue. Eckardt (2007) identifies harvesting,  
273 accumulation, processing, and transport as four required phases for conversion of forest  
274 biomass into a usable form for bioproduct facilities. Handling logging residue in each of  
275 those phases is difficult because existing logging equipment is largely designed to handle  
276 roundwood. Specialized equipment has been designed to facilitate that process and is  
277 commercially available (Anderson *et al.* 2002, Turner 2005, CBI 2006, Paiement 2008), but  
278 these machines represent significant capital investment and hence additional cost for  
279 contractors. With respect to trucking, it is difficult to achieve full payload of biomass in  
280 chips vans (Anderson *et al.* 2002).

281           Furthermore, all forest biomass is not created equal. If a given bioproduct  
282 technology requires a specific quality of raw material defined by species, bark content, size  
283 distribution, or contaminant limits, forest operations will need to increase sorting at  
284 roadside. The opportunity that this creates for forest operations in the bioproducts industry

285 is one of service. New harvesting, comminution, and sorting technologies may be required  
286 and additional handling will increase costs, but forest operations can increase value to the  
287 supply chain in that regard. For this to occur, bioproducts facilities will have to communicate  
288 their needs to forest biomass suppliers. Pricing will also need to reflect the realities of added  
289 costs associated with harvest and processing.

290         Balancing economics with environmental concerns related to water quality, soils, and  
291 forest biodiversity is a greater challenge with forest biomass harvesting. A standing dead tree  
292 can be habitat for wildlife, can be used in skid trails to reduce soil compaction and erosion,  
293 and can be harvested as biomass. Logging residue can be left scattered throughout a site to  
294 decompose, can be used in trails, or can be processed as biomass. Often, the logging  
295 contractor or operator is left to make that decision. Other times, requirements are set by  
296 third-party environmental certification standards like those found under SFI. Since these  
297 decisions require tradeoffs, it is important for proper guidelines and policies to be in place to  
298 help landowners, contractors and foresters make informed decisions in this regard  
299 (Minnesota Forest Resources Council 2007).

300         For the region as a whole, the same challenges that currently face the forest products  
301 industry will confront the bioindustry. Many of these issues are localized and include truck  
302 weight limits, labor issues, inefficiencies in the supply chain, wait times at mills, rising logging  
303 and energy costs. There must be excess capacity within the existing system to supply  
304 biomass, otherwise the bioindustry will have to compete with traditional wood using  
305 facilities for contractor services. As a result, an increased demand for forest biomass will not  
306 solve existing challenges, and may in fact exacerbate them.

307 **Public Policy**

308 Public policy represents both an opportunity and a challenge to the growth of the  
309 Region's forest-based bioproducts industry (Solomon et al. 2007). Support comes in the  
310 form of legislation at both state and federal levels. Stokes (2007) points to at least 10 federal  
311 policies, most involving the Department of Energy, that seek to foster biomass  
312 development. At the other end are growing regulations over forest practices, BMPs,  
313 certification, shoreland protection, vernal pools and deer winter areas. These measures are  
314 important in protecting environmental quality, but often increase harvest costs and limit  
315 resource availability – at least in the short-term.

316 A host of policy interventions have the potential to foster the bioindustry while  
317 advancing long-standing efforts to aid rural economic development (Breger 2007, Timmons  
318 *et al.* 2007a). This, combined with growing concern over energy costs and the steady erosion  
319 of the manufacturing sector, suggests a favorable political climate toward the bioindustry  
320 cluster. For example, new wood pellet plants create rural jobs, reduce energy costs, and  
321 recycle energy expenditures within state and local economies. Biomass facilities are a  
322 significant tax source for host communities, with perhaps 150-250 new jobs created by each  
323 new bioproducts facility (Ireland 2007). Revitalizing pulp and paper mills through the co-  
324 location of biorefineries has the potential to increase value-added and enhance  
325 competitiveness within the industry.

326 At present, the growth potential and structure of the bioindustry is uncertain, but  
327 recent examples suggest substantial gains in both jobs and economic output. Timmons *et al.*  
328 (2007a) estimated the potential economic impacts from developing new biomass energy  
329 generation in Massachusetts by 2015. Their findings indicated a likely “build-out” of 165  
330 megawatts (MW) of new biomass-fired electricity generation. This would generate 1,000 new

331 jobs and \$97 million in additional annual economic output during a 5-year construction  
332 phase. On-going supply and generation activities would total approximately 600 permanent  
333 new jobs and \$79 million in combined annual economic output. And this represents just one  
334 business segment -- biomass electricity generation -- in only one state in the Region. Clearly,  
335 the potential for the entire bioindustry could represent tens of thousands of new jobs and  
336 potentially billions of dollars in regional economic activity in the medium-term future. This  
337 development might particularly benefit mill communities that have been negatively impacted  
338 by recent plant closures and cutbacks.

339       The speed of permitting new facilities and even expansion plans has been identified as a  
340 key factor in project timeline and economic feasibility (Kinglsey 2007). Given the large  
341 capitalization costs and uncertain markets, there are needs for tax credits and a clear, long-  
342 term commitment to nurturing the industry. High capital costs for building and/or  
343 retrofitting plants, combined with the perception that Maine and other New England states  
344 are not “business friendly” (due to taxes and regulatory bureaucracy) may limit the  
345 willingness of firms to make the necessary investments in the sector. As a result, the co-  
346 location of new facilities on or near existing sites can reduce these costs, with the added  
347 benefit of an existing trained work force.

348       On the revenue side, Renewable Portfolio Standards (RPS) is an example of state-level  
349 government policies that favor the development of biomass energy facilities. RPS policies,  
350 such as those adopted by Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, seek to diversify  
351 energy sources, reduce energy price volatility, and foster green-energy and rural economic  
352 development while decreasing fossil fuel use, greenhouse gas emissions, and dependence on  
353 imported energy (Breger 2007). The Massachusetts policy provides additional incentive  
354 through a provision that grants Renewable Energy Certificates (REC) to approved

355 producers. These certificates represent the environmental attribute that the electricity was  
356 generated from a renewable energy facility and are traded on a market. REC values have  
357 recently been trading in the area of \$0.05 per kWh, which represents a substantial premium  
358 for renewable energy providers.

359 As currently configured, RPS programs in the Region exclude most older biomass  
360 plants, although these facilities can apply for credits on incremental improvements in  
361 technology (Breger 2007). While RPS programs may stimulate interest in the use of biomass  
362 for electrical power generation, they do little to improve logging infrastructure and capacity,  
363 leaving developers with significant fuel procurement risks. Also, since RPS programs apply  
364 to electricity generating facilities, they in-effect disadvantage other bioproduct technologies  
365 that are ineligible for REC credits. For example, the use of biomass for thermal applications  
366 is also not recognized under RPS programs.

367 State participation in RPS programs vary, but several of the Northeastern states are  
368 providing real dollars to developers of bioenergy facilities. Moreover, public acceptance of  
369 biomass energy facilities is likely to be enhanced by the low emissions standards set in RPS,  
370 presenting an opportunity to challenge old ways of thinking that burning biomass is bad for  
371 the environment (Roe et al. 2001). RPS programs are in the public policy domain and subject  
372 to the legislative process, so although they are providing incentive currently, such programs  
373 are always subject to change.

374 Finally, sustaining interest in bioproducts development in an era of increasingly volatile  
375 oil prices raises serious concerns to the sector's proponents – especially for those who  
376 witnessed the rise and fall of the 1980s renewable energy boom. Then, falling oil prices  
377 undermined the demand for renewable energy, leaving many on the production-side of the  
378 sector with expensive and specialized equipment sitting idle. Similar risks accompany



379 uncertainties over future REC earnings, biomass prices and availability, and feedstock supply  
380 infrastructure. Fortunately, the growing recognition of the need for a comprehensive energy  
381 policy at both state and federal levels may avoid the repeating of past mistakes.

## 382 **Social Values**

383 Finally, as the forest bioindustry develops in the Region, it must continually assess  
384 and respond to how it is perceived by a variety of stakeholder groups (Elghali et al. 2007).  
385 Within the forest sector itself, primary stakeholders include forestland owners, loggers and  
386 truckers, and processors. Each of these groups potentially hold different views and interests  
387 regarding the industry. For example, large industrial forestland owners are well acquainted  
388 with biomass operations, while small non-industrial owners are not. How these groups view  
389 industry-driven changes in harvest practices is anyone's guess, but initial research suggests  
390 that increased biomass removals from stands will raise concerns over long-term site  
391 productivity, water quality, and wildlife habitat (Sample 2007). For loggers and truckers, the  
392 industry's need for new equipment like chippers and chip vans could be difficult given aging  
393 demographics (Egan and Taggart 2004, Baker and Greene 2007) and lingering skepticism  
394 from the collapse of the biomass industry in the 1980s. Finally, existing wood processors are  
395 unlikely to welcome increased competition for wood supplies, although new enterprises that  
396 generate demand for waste or increase competition for byproducts like sawdust would be  
397 viewed favorably (Bolkesjo et al. 2006).

398 Secondary stakeholders have a host of other interests not directly tied to the  
399 growing, harvest, transport, and processing of timber. These range from local governments,  
400 civic organizations and the general population, to environmental NGOs and the business  
401 community. Here, views towards the emergence of a bioindustry are likely to span the gamut  
402 from enthusiastic support to caution or even outright opposition (Buchholz et al. 2007).

403 Business interests and local government officials will likely endorse new jobs and  
404 opportunities to capture value-added production while reducing the outflow of dollars to  
405 purchase imported fossil fuels (Short 2008). For the environmental community, stakeholder  
406 perceptions are likely to be complex, with the benefits of bioproducts as a carbon neutral,  
407 sustainable replacement for fossil fuels being offset by concerns over the environmental  
408 impacts of increased harvesting pressures on forestlands (Righelato and Spracklen 2007).

409 It is likely that stakeholders will evaluate the impacts of an emerging forest  
410 bioindustry based on expected impacts on the forest resource, processing, and end use  
411 (Liliehalm 2007). These views will be dynamic and subject to wide uncertainties (McCormick  
412 and Kaberger 2007). They will also likely exhibit geographic variation, with rural resource-  
413 based residents and communities favoring forest sector growth, while more ecologically-  
414 conscious suburban and urban residents expressing concerns over environmental tradeoffs  
415 (Lowe and Pinhey 1982). As a result, efforts will be needed to understand and respond to  
416 stakeholder concerns as they emerge. Failure to do so could cause conflict later.

## 417 **Conclusions**

418 The key to success for the Northeast forest bioindustry is to bring the abundant  
419 forest resource and emerging technologies together in a manner which compliments the  
420 Region's infrastructure, forest operations sector, public policies, and social values.  
421 Challenges that are currently facing the forest products industry will be magnified by the  
422 emerging bioindustry if they are not addressed now. A healthy forest operations community  
423 is critical to the success of this industry. Not all technologies and products within the forest  
424 bioindustry are complimentary to each other or to the existing forest products industry.  
425 Integration of new technologies into existing facilities and taking advantage of the available  
426 infrastructure is one way to increase the profitability and flexibility of an operation. Further

427 research is needed into the social values held by the varied stakeholders, and what impact  
428 those views may have on the supply of raw material for the bioindustry, processing practices,  
429 and demand for the products. Well-planned policies related to all aspects of the bioindustry  
430 are crucial to eventual success. For example, climate change policies expected by the new  
431 federal administration will likely be favorable to the forest bioindustry. All of these pieces  
432 must come together in the right way for the entire bioindustry “puzzle” to be complete.  
433 Difficult and strategic decisions are required to overcome the many challenges described  
434 above, but the opportunity to create a thriving and sustainable bioindustry and ultimately  
435 reduce our dependence on fossil fuels necessitates the effort.

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