

## Title: **Pan-European Sustainable Forest Management indicators for assessing Climate-Smart Forestry in Europe**

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## Abstract

The increasing demand for innovative forest management strategies to adapt to and mitigate climate change, and benefit forest production, so called Climate-Smart Forestry, calls for a tool to monitor and evaluate their implementation and their effect on forest development over time. The Pan-European set of criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management is considered one of the most important tools for assessing many aspects of forest management and its sustainability. This study offers an analytic approach to select a subset of indicators to support the implementation of Climate-Smart Forestry. Based on a literature review and the analytic hierarchical approach, 10 indicators were selected to assess, in particular, mitigation and adaptation. These indicators were used to assess the state of Climate-Smart Forestry trend in Europe from 1990 to 2015, using data from the reports on the State of Europe's Forests. Forest damage, tree species composition and carbon stock were the most important indicators. Though the trend was overall positive with regard to adaptation and mitigation, its evaluation was partly hindered by the lack of data. We advocate for increased efforts to harmonize international reporting and for further integrating the goals of Climate-Smart Forestry in national and European-level forest policy making.

Keywords: silviculture, adaptation, mitigation, forest inventory, forest damage.

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 Over the years, the anthropogenic impacts on natural resources due to the increased societal demand for  
3 ecosystem services have challenged the sustainable management of forests. Climate change has further  
4 increased the pressure on forests, threatening their stability, biodiversity and productivity, thereby, limiting  
5 the provision of forest ecosystem services. This has fostered the development of the concepts of Climate-  
6 Smart Forestry (CSF) (Jandl et al. 2018; Kauppi et al. 2018; Nabuurs et al. 2018; Yousefpour et al. 2018;  
7 Bowditch et al. 2020; Verkerk et al. 2020), which mostly focused on the improvement of production,  
8 adaptation, mitigation and the maintenance of biodiversity and delivering of ecosystem services. For these  
9 reasons, forest policy decision-makers and managers are called to define and implement proactive forest  
10 management strategies to promote resistance and resilience to climate change, as well as to develop policies  
11 to use forests, forestry and the wood industry for carbon sequestration and substitution (Klenk et al. 2015).

12 In general, adaptation to climate change deals with the reduction of the adverse impacts of climate change on  
13 forest ecosystems, through the adjustment of forestry practices, in order to optimize the provision of forest  
14 goods and services (Seidl and Lexer 2013). In particular, adaptation measures aim to decrease the occurrence  
15 and impacts of forest damages triggered by climate change, and at the same time exploit the beneficial  
16 opportunities to promote the environmental, economic and social sustainability (Jandl et al. 2013).

17 Developing adaptive management measures is challenging due to the rapid changes in climate and land use,  
18 and because of the wide range of forest types and the traditional management objectives that characterize the  
19 European forestry sector. For this reason, appropriate indicators for monitoring and supporting CSF are  
20 necessary to counteract and promptly respond to ongoing environmental changes.

21 It is worldwide recognized that forests and forest management play a crucial role to mitigate climate change  
22 (Makundi 1997; Grace et al. 2014; Nabuurs et al. 2017). This important awareness among forest policy and  
23 decision makers, and more in general amongst stakeholders of the forestry sector, has promoted a wide range  
24 of forest management strategies, which in the last three decades mainly resulted in an increment of European  
25 forest area and ageing of forests (Forest Europe 2015). These dynamics of forest ecosystems were further  
26 exacerbated, particularly in southern Europe, by the depopulation of rural environments and abandonment of  
27 forestry practices (Burrascano et al. 2016), namely in mountain areas. Nevertheless, the increased growing

28 stock, alone, is not enough to ensure the effective contribution of forests to the mitigation of climate change,  
29 and active forest management is required to valorise the role of forests and to improve the effectiveness of  
30 mitigation strategies. For example, the integration of mitigation actions with policy and programs that  
31 promote wood production is strongly recommended (Makundi 1997; Colombo et al. 2012; Jasinevičius et al.  
32 2017; Bowditch et al. 2020), in order to sequester carbon in long-lived wood products. Balancing the  
33 provision of regulating, cultural and economic forest ecosystem services is becoming a demanding task ever  
34 more.

35 Forestry plays an important role in fulfilling the reduction goals of greenhouse gas emissions and National  
36 governments are encouraged to deliver forest policy recommendations for climate change mitigation (FAO  
37 2018). This can be achieved with appropriate silvicultural interventions to facilitate for example tree and  
38 forest growth, such that more CO<sub>2</sub> is sequestered from the atmosphere than released from the forest through  
39 respiration, decay of deadwood and production of wood for energy (Colombo et al. 2012; Jandl et al. 2013;  
40 Köhl et al. 2020). This typically encompasses abandoning timber harvesting, which may be in conflict with  
41 policies that aim at raising the capacity of forests to adapt to climate change by reducing rotation lengths and  
42 harvesting cycles, promoting more drought and disturbance resistant tree species and by generally fostering  
43 tree species diversity (Lindner et al. 2010; Diaconu et al. 2017; Jandl et al. 2019). Reducing timber  
44 harvesting may also conflict with policies aimed to sequester carbon in wood products and to substitute fossil  
45 fuel in intensive energy building material (Colombo et al. 2012; Jasinevičius et al. 2017).

46 Management for adaptation may conflict with nature conservation goals, such as retention of old-growth  
47 forest structures, and mitigation goals may collide with the need for ensuring advanced regeneration and  
48 stability in forests that protect against rockfall and avalanches in mountain areas (Brang et al. 2006). Hence,  
49 mitigation, adaptation and the provision of ecosystem goods and services need to be balanced in CSF  
50 recommendations, at local to national scale (Bowditch et al. 2020).

51 In the last years, the concept of CSF become a promising solution to integrate both adaptive and mitigation  
52 management strategies (Bowditch et al. 2020; Tognetti 2017). Previous applications of the CSF concept  
53 mainly focused on mitigation potentials at national to European level (Nabuurs et al. 2018), or simulations of  
54 forest development under various management scenarios (Jandl et al. 2018; Yousefpour et al. 2018), though

55 there are likely many other benefits, beyond the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions, if planned and  
56 implemented carefully (Nabuurs et al. 2018; Verkerk et al. 2020). In this context, forest growth models and  
57 climate change scenarios have been used to assess future and long-term forest dynamics (Bontemps and  
58 Bouriaud 2014; Pretzsch et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2015).

59 Though the CSF concept is increasingly used among forest and forestry actors in Europe, a comprehensive  
60 assessment method that simultaneously accounts for the two CSF aspects of adaptation and mitigation at  
61 national to European scale is still lacking. Developing both adaptive and mitigation management strategies  
62 requires accurate and updated information about forest resources. In Europe, National Forest Inventories  
63 represent the most important source of data about forest ecosystems (Winter et al. 2008), while the Pan-  
64 European set of criteria and indicator (C&I) for sustainable forest management (SFM) is considered the most  
65 important tool for monitoring, assessing and reporting on forest management in Europe (Santopuoli et al.  
66 2016a; Wolfslehner and Baycheva-Merger 2016). Facilitating the assessment of CSF is necessary to provide  
67 quick responses about forest management and practices helpful to minimize climate change impacts. To  
68 accomplish this target, the development of a methodology to use SFM indicators for assessing adaptation,  
69 mitigation and CFS is required. Though Bowditch et al. (2020) provided a first step to select CSF indicators,  
70 to date, no set of indicators has been suggested to comprehensively monitor and assess CSF, even though  
71 several sets of C&I for SFM were developed worldwide (Castañeda 2000).

72 The aim of this study is twofold, (i) to develop a viable method for assessing CSF using data collected  
73 through the Pan-European set of C&I for SFM, and (ii) to assess the CSF trend over time across Europe. For  
74 the purposes of this study, we address the following research questions: Are SFM indicators suitable to  
75 assess CSF? How is the CSF trend over time in Europe?

## 76 **2. Methods**

77 The methodological approach implemented in this study comprises (i) a literature review and (ii) an  
78 evaluation of CSF trend over time. The literature review focused on collecting papers that deal with the  
79 adaptation and mitigation potential of forest management, directed to select SFM indicators useful for  
80 assessing CSF. To evaluate forest development with regard to CSF indicators at European level, two sub  
81 steps were required. The first step aimed to assign a weight for each Pan-European SFM indicator selected

82 through the literature review, using an analytical hierarchical process (Saaty 1990, subsection 2.1). The  
 83 second step aimed to assess and display the trend over time of aggregated indicators, describing both the  
 84 capacity of forests to adapt to climate change and to mitigate climate change across European countries  
 85 (subsections 2.2 and 2.3).

## 86 **2.1. Indicator selection through a literature review**

87 For this study, we selected a subset of indicators from the current Pan-European C&I set as reported by  
 88 Forest Europe (Forest Europe 2015), through a literature review. In particular, we used literature review to  
 89 identify the most recurrent indicators, from the whole quantitative C&I set, that are suitable measures for  
 90 adaptation to and mitigation of climate change in forest ecosystems.

91 The literature review was carried out in February 2020 using the Scopus® database. We used two queries,  
 92 one for adaptation and one for mitigation:

- 93 • (TITLE-ABS-KEY (climat\* AND adapt\*) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (sustainable AND forest  
 94 AND management) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (indicator))
- 95 • (TITLE-ABS-KEY (climat\* AND mitigat\*) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (sustainable AND forest  
 96 AND management) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (indicator))

97 We did not use constraints on the year of publication, but excluded non-English as well as non-relevant  
 98 articles, i.e., which are not strictly focused on the use of SFM indicators. For this reason, all papers were  
 99 accurately screened to remove duplicates and extract the SFM indicators used to assess adaptation and  
 100 mitigation, respectively. Ecological, social and economic aspects of the SFM were considered equally  
 101 important, and indicators were selected if explicitly mentioned in the articles, or if there was some clear  
 102 linkage to them. For example, indicator 4.1 “*tree species composition*” was mentioned as a solution to  
 103 promote adaptation through forest management strategies by many authors (Jandl et al. 2013; Hlásny et al.  
 104 2014; Klenk et al. 2015). On the other hand, forest *carbon stock* and *energy from wood* were cited several  
 105 times as indicators to assess many aspects of mitigation strategies, such as ecological sustainability  
 106 (Colombo et al. 2012), forest harvesting and bioeconomy (Jasinevičius et al. 2017; Paletto et al. 2017), and  
 107 wood energy (Forsius et al. 2016; Buonocore et al. 2019; Szulecka 2019).

108 Following the literature review, a subset of indicators was selected from the current Pan-European C&I set.  
 109 The criteria used for selecting indicators were: (i) the indicators should reflect as many aspects of adaptation  
 110 and mitigation issues as possible; and (ii) the number of indicators should not exceed nine, as this was  
 111 required for the method (Analytic Hierarchical Process: see next section) to weight the indicators among  
 112 each other (Saaty and Ozdemir 2003). We prioritized those indicators that were mentioned the most in the  
 113 reviewed literature. In particular, we assessed the frequency of each indicator and, thereafter, selected those  
 114 indicators that were in the third quartile in terms of times mentioned. This resulted in a selection of eight  
 115 adaptation-related indicators that were mentioned at least three times and four mitigation-related indicators  
 116 that were mentioned at least five times.

## 117 2.2. Analytic Hierarchical Process to weight SFM indicators

118 The Analytic Hierarchical Process (AHP) can be used to assign indicator weights through a pairwise  
 119 comparison and is frequently used in environmental and forest sectors as a decision support tool (Kuusipalo  
 120 and Kangas 1994; Ananda and Herath 2003; Wolfslehner et al. 2005; Santopuoli et al. 2016b).

121 To implement the pairwise comparison, firstly the relative priority of indicators was calculated as follows:

$$122 \quad RP = \left( \frac{Cit_{np}}{Cit_{pmax}} \right) \left( \frac{1}{Cit_1} + \frac{1}{Cit_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{Cit_n} \right)$$

123 Where

124 RP is the relative priority

125  $Cit_{np}$  is the number of publications that mention the focal indicator

126  $Cit_{pmax}$  is the maximum number of times that one of the indicators was mentioned (i.e., seven for *tree species*  
 127 *composition* and 12 for *carbon stock* for adaptation and mitigation, respectively).

128  $Cit_1$  is the total number of indicators mentioned by the same author at first time

129  $Cit_2$  is the total number of indicators mentioned by the same author at second time

130  $Cit_n$  is the total number of indicators mentioned by the same author at n time

131 For example, indicator 1.2 *growing stock* was mentioned in three papers ( $Cit_{np}=3$ ) among those used for the  
 132 adaptation review. The total number of indicators mentioned by the first paper was seven ( $Cit_1=7$ ), while the  
 133 second and third papers mentioned a total of six ( $Cit_2=6$ ) and five ( $Cit_3=5$ ) indicators respectively.

134 Considering the  $Cit_{pmax}$  of seven, the RP for growing stock was 0.218.

135 Subsequently, the RP were used to create the reciprocal matrix (Saaty 1980; Kangas et al. 1993; Mendoza  
 136 and Prabhu 2000) for adaptation and mitigation separately, in order to obtain the Eigenvector for each  
 137 indicator. The pairwise comparison was carried out considering the differences between RP, and obtaining  
 138 the consistency ratio lower than 10% (Ananda and Herath 2003), which was 0.07 for both matrices.

139 The overall priority was calculated for each indicator considering the ratio of the number of articles, 11 and  
 140 19 for adaptation and mitigation, respectively, and the total number of the articles (30) multiplied by the  
 141 Eigenvectors (i.e. overall priority= $0.37 * Eigen_A + 0.63 * Eigen_M$ ).

### 142 2.3. Calculation of adaptation and mitigation indicators

143 The calculation of the aggregate indicators for adaptation and mitigation was based on the data reported in  
 144 the State of Europe's Forests (SoEF) database (<https://foresteurope.org/state-europes-forests-2015-report/#1476295991324-493cec85-134b>, accessed on 11<sup>st</sup> March 2020). First, all available data were  
 145 downloaded for the years 1990, 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2015, for each indicator. Data on other wooded lands  
 146 were then excluded from the analysis, because we focused only on forests. We assessed the trend in indicator  
 147 development for four time-periods, 2000-1990; 2005-2000; 2010-2005; 2015-2010, by calculating the  
 148 percentage changes in the values of each of the 10 indicators at country level.

150 The direction of change in the value of indicators was considered differently, depending on the SFM  
 151 indicator in calculations of aggregated indicators for adaptation and mitigation. For most indicators, a  
 152 positive development was assumed to positively affect adaptation (*growing stock*, *carbon stock*, *roundwood*,  
 153 *deadwood*, *net revenue*) and mitigation (*carbon stock*, *energy from wood resources*). However, an increment  
 154 in forest damages between two consecutive years was considered to negatively affect both adaptation and  
 155 mitigation. Changes in regeneration, calculated as the ratio between the afforested (by planting and seeding)  
 156 forest area and the naturally regenerated or coppiced forest area, were considered to positively affect

157 adaptation. A positive change in naturalness, which was assessed as an increase in the percentage of forest  
158 plantation cover with respect to the total forest cover, was considered to negatively impact mitigation. Tree  
159 species composition was calculated as the ratio of mixed forest to pure forest and its change was interpreted  
160 to positively affect adaptation.

161 The relative change of each indicator was multiplied by the overall priority value, for adaptation and  
162 mitigation, separately. The obtained weighted indicator values were then summed for each country and for  
163 each period and displayed in a scatter plot, with adaptation as the x axes and mitigation as the y axes.

164 Three out of 46 Pan-European countries (Holy See, Monaco and Russian Federation) were excluded because  
165 data were not available for all indicators and for all the years. Finally, results were displayed for the 27  
166 countries of the European Union, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, and a European-level estimate was  
167 calculated as the average of the country-level adaptation and mitigation estimates.

### 168 3. Results

#### 169 3.1. SFM indicators frequently used to assess adaptation and mitigation

170 A total of 73 scientific papers were extracted from the Scopus® database, 36 for adaptation and 37 for  
171 mitigation. During the screening phase, 43 papers were considered non-relevant articles. The final list of  
172 papers used for identifying SFM indicators suitable for CSF assessment consisted of 30 articles, 11 for  
173 adaptation and 19 for mitigation, respectively. All the articles were published in the period 2011-2020,  
174 except one in 1997.

175 Scrutinizing the 30 articles revealed that 30 out of 34 quantitative indicators were suitable to assess  
176 adaptation and mitigation (Figure 1). Twenty out of 30 indicators were useful to assess both adaptation and  
177 mitigation, while seven indicators were mentioned only for adaptation (i.e., 2.2 *soil condition*, 4.4 *introduced*  
178 *tree species*, 4.6 *genetic resources*, 4.7 *landscape pattern*, 4.8 *threatened forest species*, 6.4 *expenditure for*  
179 *services*, 6.8 *trade in wood*) and three only for mitigation (i.e., 1.1 *forest area*, 3.3 *non-woods goods*, 6.5  
180 *forest sector force*). The most frequent SFM indicators mentioned for assessing adaptation were 4.1 *tree*  
181 *species composition*, 3.2 *roundwood*, 2.4 *forest damage*, 1.4 *carbon stock*, and 1.2 *growing stock*.

182 Concerning the assessment of climate change mitigation, 1.4 *carbon stock*, 6.9 *energy from wood resources*,

183 2.4 *forest damage* and 4.3 *naturalness* were the most suitable indicators. The indicators 6.1 *forest holding*,  
 184 6.6 *occupational safety and health*, 6.7 *wood consumption*, and 6.11 *cultural and spiritual values* were never  
 185 mentioned.

186 [Insert figure 1 here]

187 The overall most frequent indicators, considering both adaptation and mitigation, were 1.2 *growing stock*, 1.4  
 188 *carbon stock*, 2.4 *forest damage*, 3.2 *roundwood*, 4.1 *tree species composition*, 4.2 *regeneration*, 4.3  
 189 *naturalness*, 4.5 *deadwood*, 6.3 *net revenue*, and 6.9 *energy from wood*. They represent the subset of  
 190 indicators selected from literature review and used for assessing the CSF trend over time, in Europe, in this  
 191 study (Table 1).

192 [Insert Table 1 here]

193 The AHP highlighted that *tree species composition* and *forest damages* were the indicators with the highest  
 194 priority values, with 0.399 and 0.238, respectively, for adaptation (Table 1). *Carbon stock* and *energy from*  
 195 *wood resources* were the most important indicators for climate change mitigation, showing priority values of  
 196 0.660 and 0.211, respectively. *Carbon stock*, *tree species composition* and *forest damage* yielded the highest  
 197 overall priority (ranks 1-3), while *growing stock*, *deadwood* and *net revenue* yielded the lowest (ranks 8-10).  
 198 This reflects the frequency of these indicators to be mentioned in connection with adaptation and mitigation  
 199 in the literature.

### 200 3.2. CSF trend from 1990 to 2015

201 The trend in the period 1990-2000 was positive, particularly for mitigation, for which most of countries, but  
 202 Netherlands and Slovenia, showed positive values (Figure 2). On the contrary, the negative trend of  
 203 countries, such as Netherlands and Slovenia, registered for adaptation was most probably driven by the  
 204 increased forest damages between 1990 and 2000 (see National Report available on  
 205 <https://foresteurope.org/state-europes-forests-2015-report/#1476295965372-d3bb1dd0-e9a0>, accessed on 11<sup>st</sup>  
 206 March 2020).

207 The decrease in forest damages between 1990 and 2000 in most countries was the most influencing aspect,  
 208 resulting in positive values of adaptation and mitigation. In particular, the positive trend observed in Spain

209 could be mainly ascribed to the increment of forest carbon stock and the reduction of forest damages. In  
210 addition, further positive values were observed also for net revenue and growing stock. Positive values for  
211 Italy mainly depended from the reduction in burned forest area registered for 2000 with respect to 1990, i.e.,  
212 82000 and 48000 hectares, respectively.

213 [Insert Figure 2 here]

214 The trend observed in the period 2000-2005 is overall positive, even if some countries showed negative  
215 values for both, adaption and mitigation (Figure 3). The negative trend was mostly influenced by the  
216 countries, such as Italy, Latvia and Cyprus, which reported very negative values, especially for the indicator  
217 forest damages. Contrary to the previous period, the increase in forest damages between 2000 and 2005 was  
218 affected by the addition of types of forest damages considered in the national reports, which were not  
219 considered in the previous years.

220 [Insert Figure 3 here]

221 Positive trends were observed in many countries, as in Netherlands, for which not only a reduction of forest  
222 damages was observed in 2005 with respect to 2000, but also an increment of net revenue, tree species  
223 composition and deadwood, which strongly contributed to the positive trend in adaptation. This was  
224 particularly evident in Slovenia, where increased forest damages, and the higher increment of both tree  
225 species composition and the net revenue strongly contributed to the positive evaluation of adaptation.

226 Most of the countries showed positive values for both adaptation and mitigation in the period 2005-2010, and  
227 the average trend in Europe was positive too (Figure 4). The introduction of forest damages by abiotic agents  
228 within the forest damage indicator caused a large part of the negative trend in both adaptation and mitigation  
229 in Ireland. Nevertheless, the value for mitigation resulted higher due to the impacts of energy from wood,  
230 which increased from 2005 to 2010. The European value was particularly influenced also by the data from  
231 Slovenia, where adaptation was strongly and negatively affected by the reduction in the tree species  
232 composition indicator (ratio of area of mixed forests to pure forest), while the increment of net revenue and  
233 energy from wood positively affected the evaluation of the mitigation trend. The increment of the production  
234 of energy from wood observed in Finland and United Kingdom in the period 2005-2010, positively impacted

235 the overall mitigation trend. On the other hand, the increment in tree species composition and the reduction  
236 of forest damages positively affected the adaptation trend, as observed for example in Belgium and  
237 Netherlands.

238 [Insert Figure 4 here]

239 A positive trend was observed in the period 2010-2015, for both adaptation and mitigation in all countries  
240 (Figure 5). Nevertheless, the data were strongly affected by the lack of data in 2015 for forest damages,  
241 regeneration, tree species composition, deadwood, and net revenue. For this reason, countries, such as  
242 Cyprus and the United Kingdom, which reported a positive trend in energy from wood, showed increased  
243 values for mitigation. Little changes among countries were observed for adaptation, within which Romania  
244 showed the highest value due to the increase in the naturalness indicator.

245 [Insert Figure 5 here]

## 246 4. Discussion

### 247 4.1. Multifaceted shape of SFM indicators

248 In this study, selected SFM indicators were used to assess the trend over time of adaptation and mitigation,  
249 which according to many authors are considered two important aspects of CSF (Spittlehouse 2005; Nabuurs  
250 et al. 2018; Bowditch et al. 2020). Adaptation and mitigation, together with the social dimension, are crucial  
251 to counteract climate change and its negative impacts on forests and society, as well as to ensure the  
252 provisioning of forest ecosystem services (Bowditch et al. 2020; Verkerk et al. 2020). Despite the increased  
253 awareness among forest decision makers and managers to promote adaptation and mitigation management  
254 strategies, there are still large uncertainties on how to evaluate the effects of their implementation.

255 Differences in social-economic and environmental conditions, challenges in data collection and the analysis  
256 of climate change impacts in general are mentioned by many authors as causes of these uncertainties (Seidl  
257 and Lexer 2013; Forsius et al. 2016; Viccaro et al. 2019). The versatility of the SFM indicators allows to use  
258 them for multiple aspects of forest management, as for example to assess stakeholders' perceptions  
259 (Santopuoli et al. 2012; Paletto et al. 2014; Pastorella et al. 2016), facilitating the balancing of alternative  
260 management options in specific environmental and socio-economic contexts. Recently, a study of Bowditch

261 et al., (2020) based on the participatory approach revealed that SFM indicators can support CSF  
262 implementation. However, evaluations based on participatory approaches could be subjective, depending on  
263 the stakeholder's experiences and priorities, hindering a solid comparison over time because they change  
264 depending on the involved stakeholders. With this study, we offer for the first time a fairly analytic method  
265 to assess CSF based on a literature review and AHP. This approach allows to objectively weight indicators,  
266 which are frequently used to assess adaptation and mitigation, supporting forest managers and decision  
267 makers. The economic and political implications of the SFM-CSF interface, although crucial to develop  
268 appropriate management strategies, are difficult to quantify and are, thus, not directly considered in this  
269 analytic approach. However, the C&I were developed through a Pan-European voluntary high-level political  
270 process for intergovernmental dialogue and cooperation on forest policies in Europe, therefore, indirectly  
271 comprising also a political meaning.

#### 272 **4.2. Most important CSF indicators**

273 Results reveal that 30 out of 34 indicators from the list of the Pan-European set of C&I are useful to assess  
274 CSF. Nevertheless, the literature review highlights that only a subset of 10 indicators are frequently used to  
275 assess adaptation and mitigation management strategies of forest ecosystems. *Carbon stock* (mitigation), *tree*  
276 *species composition* (adaptation and mitigation) and *forest damage* (adaptation and mitigation) are in  
277 absolute terms the indicators that yielded the highest overall priority value. Results confirm what arisen from  
278 a previous study (Bowditch et al., 2020), within which most of these indicators were considered core  
279 indicators for assessing CSF. Contrarily, the social aspect is poorly considered, even if recent evidences  
280 report that it is one of the main pillars of the CSF concept (Bowditch et al. 2020), while ecological rather  
281 than economic aspects are frequently considered among scientific articles. Particularly, our results highlight  
282 that forest damage is the most impacting indicator, determining the CSF evaluation in several cases.  
283 Variation in forest damages affect both adaptation and mitigation, resulting with extreme values of CSF  
284 evaluation, as in the Netherlands, in the period 1990-2000, or in Italy, in the period 2000-2005. Reducing  
285 forest damages, due to biotic and abiotic disturbances, is crucial to promote resistance and resilience to  
286 climate change (Jandl et al. 2013; Hlásny et al. 2017; Viccaro et al. 2019), as well as to promote CSF. Future  
287 climate change is likely to deteriorate forest health and to cause increases in the occurrence of natural

288 disasters (IPCC 2014). For this reason, continuous monitoring of damages in forest ecosystems is crucial to  
289 identify the best adaptive management strategies to prevent and reduce the negative impacts caused by  
290 climate change on forest health. However, in some cases, the variation in such indicators was not caused by a  
291 real change of damages in forest ecosystems but by the source of information, as for Netherlands using the  
292 average value of burned area (30ha/year) of past 20 years, or a change of the recorded data, as for Italy and  
293 Spain that introduced the biotic damage only for one period (2005). Additionally, reference definitions of the  
294 different indicators (as area of damaged forest) may differ between countries, complicating the comparison.  
295 In the light of this, we strongly recommended to foster the facilitation and harmonization of data survey and  
296 collection.

297 The observed positive CSF trend highlights that, if well organized, implementation of adaptation measures  
298 can support many aspects of the forest sector and foster local economies. Particularly, for countries where  
299 growing stock and net revenue increased jointly the outcome was a positive trend for CSF over time, as in  
300 Spain, in the period 1990-2000. Increasing the rotation period of forest harvesting activities allows both to  
301 increase the growing stock and to obtain high quality timber products due to the increment of tree sizes,  
302 promoting mitigation options (Jandl et al. 2018, 2019; Köhl et al. 2020). Beyond the economic benefits  
303 (Colombo et al. 2012; Jasinevičius et al. 2017; Paletto et al. 2017), alternatively, adaptive management  
304 strategies that involve increased timber harvesting may allow storing carbon in forest products for a long  
305 period, supporting climate change mitigation.

306 Our results reveal that indicator 6.3, *energy from wood*, plays a very important role in the assessment of  
307 mitigation as observed for Finland, United Kingdom and Slovenia, in the period 2005-2010, or for Cyprus  
308 and the United Kingdom, in the period 2010-2015, within which an increment of this indicator positively  
309 affected the trend of CSF over time. For instance, Finland National Inventory Reports, belonging the United  
310 Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), reported an increase of wood fuels  
311 consumption by energy industries from 1990 to 2015, and an increase of growing stock as well as of carbon  
312 stock in both forests and harvested wood products. This study reveals that energy from wood yielded a high  
313 priority importance, for mitigation and for CSF, as previously observed (Bowditch et al. 2020). Forest  
314 management strategies aimed to improve the efficiency of fuelwood promoting the use of wood for energy to

315 replace fossil fuel-based energy could reinforce the forest sector and at the same time promote climate  
316 change mitigation (Sacchelli et al. 2013; Lewandowski 2015; Szulecka 2019).  
317 Biodiversity conservation strongly supports adaptive management strategies (Klenk et al. 2015; Isbell et al.  
318 2015). In fact, this study shows that four out of nine indicators of criterion 4 “Forest Biological Diversity”,  
319 i.e., 4.1 *tree species composition*, 4.5 *deadwood*, 4.3 *naturalness* and 4.2 *regeneration* were included in the  
320 subset of indicators selected for assessing forest adaptation. Adaptive management strategies need to  
321 promote mixed forests, with regular harvesting activities because the unutilised forest resources are more  
322 vulnerable to natural disasters (Jasinevičius et al. 2017). Well planned projects of afforestation and forest  
323 plantation, growing faster than natural regeneration, are helpful to implement adaptive management  
324 strategies, if carefully balanced with promoting forest resilience and biodiversity conservation goals. By  
325 contrast, the amount of deadwood within old growth or less managed forests plays an important role for  
326 climate change mitigation, allowing long-term carbon storage.

327 The subset of selected indicators represents a valid tool to provide quick responses about the usefulness of  
328 adaptation and mitigation management strategies. As such, it will support researchers to develop new and  
329 more appropriate scenarios for the sustained provision of ecosystem services.

### 330 **4.3. Data collection and availability**

331 This study confirms that SFM indicators are a powerful tool for monitoring and assessing multifaceted  
332 aspects of forest management. However, it needs to be highlighted that, although numerous efforts were  
333 made to harmonize estimates from forest inventories (Winter et al. 2008; Tomppo et al. 2010; Vidal et al.  
334 2016), comparisons among countries and between years is still challenging due to gaps in data availability.  
335 Even though in 2015 data for many indicators were missing, the study revealed that the overall trend  
336 between years 1990 and 2015 was positive. Many aspects affect the availability of data over time. The costs  
337 for data survey and collection, particularly for forest ecosystems, is one of the most important aspects that  
338 hinder data availability. Furthermore, the timeline and the survey protocols represent challenging features  
339 that require additional efforts to allow the comparison over time, as well as the comparison among different  
340 geographical areas, as regions or countries. This makes a more complete (full) use of SFM indicators in  
341 practical applications difficult (Santopuoli et al. 2016a).

342 Advances in remote sensing techniques provided a powerful support to facilitate monitoring and mapping of  
343 forest resources at large scales (Chirici et al. 2012; Maselli et al. 2014; Frate et al. 2016; Antonucci et al.  
344 2017; Santi et al. 2017). Nevertheless, the collection of data for specific indicators, e.g., energy from wood,  
345 net revenue, age class and distribution, require field surveys, which are expensive and time consuming. The  
346 reports provided by National Forest Inventories represent the most important source of data about forest  
347 resources. Most of the SFM indicators depends on National Forest Inventory protocols. However, forest  
348 inventory protocols differ among countries and the output obtained requires further elaborations to perform  
349 comparisons (Winter et al. 2008). Yet, the forest inventory timeline is different, often longer than the  
350 reporting period of the SoEF. As a consequence, countries report the same values for two consecutive SoEF  
351 reports, hindering trend evaluation for some indicators. This aspect is somewhat overcome in this study  
352 because the CSF trend evaluation is based on more than one indicator.

#### 353 **4.4. Management and policy implications**

354 The widespread array of ecosystem services that forests provide to society, call for multi objective forest  
355 management. This is exacerbated by climate change that threatens the health and vitality of forest ecosystems,  
356 as well as the delivery of forest goods and services, and requires appropriate adaptive and mitigation  
357 management strategies (Nabuurs et al. 2018; Yousefpour et al. 2018; Jandl et al. 2019; Bowditch et al. 2020;  
358 Verkerk et al. 2020). Balancing adaptation and mitigation strategies in forest management is challenging.  
359 Adaptation aims to reduce the adverse effects of climate change (Jandl et al. 2013), acting on the forest stand  
360 characteristics, while mitigation management strategies mainly focus to increase the capacity of forests to  
361 store carbon in living and dead trees, litter and soil, as well as in harvested timber products (Colombo et al.  
362 2012; Jasinevičius et al. 2017). However, to improve the effectiveness of both adaptation and mitigation  
363 management strategies, ensuring forest health and vitality is mandatory. It should be noticed that unutilised  
364 forest resources are more vulnerable to natural disasters and, in the event of a disturbance, may emit more  
365 carbon than if harvested (Jandl et al. 2019). Moreover, healthy forests allow to obtain high quality timber  
366 products, which is important to revitalize the forestry sector, particularly in the inner and mountain areas. In  
367 particular, activities focused on the development of bioeconomy will represent an optimal compromise  
368 between adaptive and mitigation management aims.

369 The overall ageing of European forests is ongoing, particularly in the southern countries (i.e., the most  
370 vulnerable to climate change), due to the lower value of harvesting rate (Forest Europe 2015), the  
371 depopulation of inner areas and the abandonment of rural activities (Marchetti et al. 2018). Adaptive  
372 management strategies are urgently required to improve the resilience of forest ecosystems, to enhance forest  
373 health and to promote forest productivity, particularly in more vulnerable regions. Rethinking to the forest  
374 sector framework will be necessary to adopt adaptive forest management, supporting the sustainability of  
375 forest management and the application of CSF strategies.

376 Forest management decisions with regard to climate change adaptation need to explicitly address the  
377 reduction of the vulnerability of forests, which is particularly high in forests subjected to a low intensity of  
378 silvicultural interventions or unmanaged for several years. Contextualizing silvicultural practices and  
379 management aims with landscape and local feasibility is necessary to improve the efficiency in delivering  
380 forest ecosystem services (Vizzarri et al. 2014). For example, mitigation practices, such as reducing forest  
381 degradation, optimizing carbon stock and improving the substitution effects, are required to foster multiple  
382 co-benefits to the society (Smith et al. 2020). Particularly important for managed forests is the substitution  
383 effect played by harvested timber products (Pilli et al. 2015; Erb et al. 2018). Durable timber products will  
384 warrant carbon storage for a long period, with the requirement to replace products over time promoting  
385 circular bioeconomy. Assessing the trade-offs between storing carbon stock and ensuring timber for raw  
386 materials and energy purposes (Erb et al. 2018), as well as among other forest ecosystem services, is  
387 mandatory to optimize SFM and, at the same time, promote CSF. Maintaining and enhancing forest health  
388 and vitality, allow to promote CSF implementation and, on the other hand, to improve the forestry chain,  
389 with profitable revenue for forest owners.

## 390 **5. Conclusion**

391 C&I confirms to be a powerful tool to support SFM, not only for reporting, but also for assessing different  
392 aspects of SFM, in particular CSF. Ten indicators from the original set of 34 quantitative SFM indicators  
393 resulted to be the most frequent indicators used to assess CSF, in the here reviewed literature. Among them,  
394 forest damage is the most impacting indicator showing the greatest variation, while carbon stock, tree species  
395 composition and energy from wood are the most important in terms of citations in the literature. The overall

396 trend of CSF in Europe is positive, and slightly better for mitigation rather than for adaptation. Nevertheless,  
397 the lack of data impacts the trend evaluation and represents one of the most hindering challenges to perform  
398 such evaluations over time. Improvements on the harmonization of National Forest Inventories information  
399 are still required for obtaining better evaluation.

400 Beyond applying the sustainability concept, we strongly recommend that forest management adopt adaptive  
401 and mitigation strategies, as well as socio-economic dimension, to face climate change, in short the CSF  
402 approach. In particular, as highlighted in the international agreements, such as Land Use, Land Use Change  
403 and Forestry (LULUCF) regulation, management strategies have to reduce emissions, maintain and enhance  
404 sinks and carbon stocks, also through long-life cycles harvest timber products. These strategies should aim to  
405 maintain forest health and vitality, increase forest resistance and resilience. In addition, anticipating the  
406 adverse effects through the adoption of appropriate actions, as well as to take advantages from opportunities  
407 that may arise, it is strongly recommended, to prevent or minimize the damages caused by climate change.  
408 For instance, the increasing number of power stations using biomass in UK is a successful example of  
409 mitigation strategy. However, mitigation measures may have to be differently adopted for high conservation  
410 value forests, where the carbon stored in the soil and deadwood is often higher than the amount stored in the  
411 living trees.

412 The proposed subset of indicators could represent the minimum set for developing a practical toolbox to  
413 foster CSF implementation and to monitor and re-evaluate national to European-level forest policy making.

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610 Figure captions list

611 Figure 1: SFM indicators used to assess adaptation and mitigation in the reviewed literature.

612 Figure 2: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 1990 and 2000. Note that a positive change in both  
613 adaptation and mitigation (top-right quadrant) is considered climate smart. The ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 are used  
614 for country abbreviations.

615 Figure 3: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 2000 and 2005.

616 Figure 4: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 2005 and 2010.

617 Figure 5: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 2010 and 2015.

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621 Table 1: Indicator weights for the subset of SFM indicators used in the evaluation of adaptation and  
 622 mitigation across Europe. The reported values represent the Eigenvectors obtained through the pairwise  
 623 comparison (Saaty 1980) for adaptation ( $Eigen_{Adaptation}$ ) and mitigation ( $Eigen_{Mitigation}$ ) and the overall  
 624 priority. The rank reflects the overall priority values.

SFM indicator	Adaptation	Mitigation	Overall priority	Rank
1.2 - Growing stock	0.026		0.009	8
1.4 - Carbon stock	0.147	0.660	0.472	1
2.4 - Forest damage	0.238	0.079	0.137	3
3.2 - Roundwood	0.100		0.037	5
4.1 - Tree species composition	0.399		0.146	2
4.2 - Regeneration	0.039		0.014	7
4.3 - Naturalness		0.050	0.032	6
4.5 - Deadwood	0.026		0.009	9
6.3 - Net revenue	0.025		0.009	10
6.9 - Energy from wood resources		0.211	0.134	4

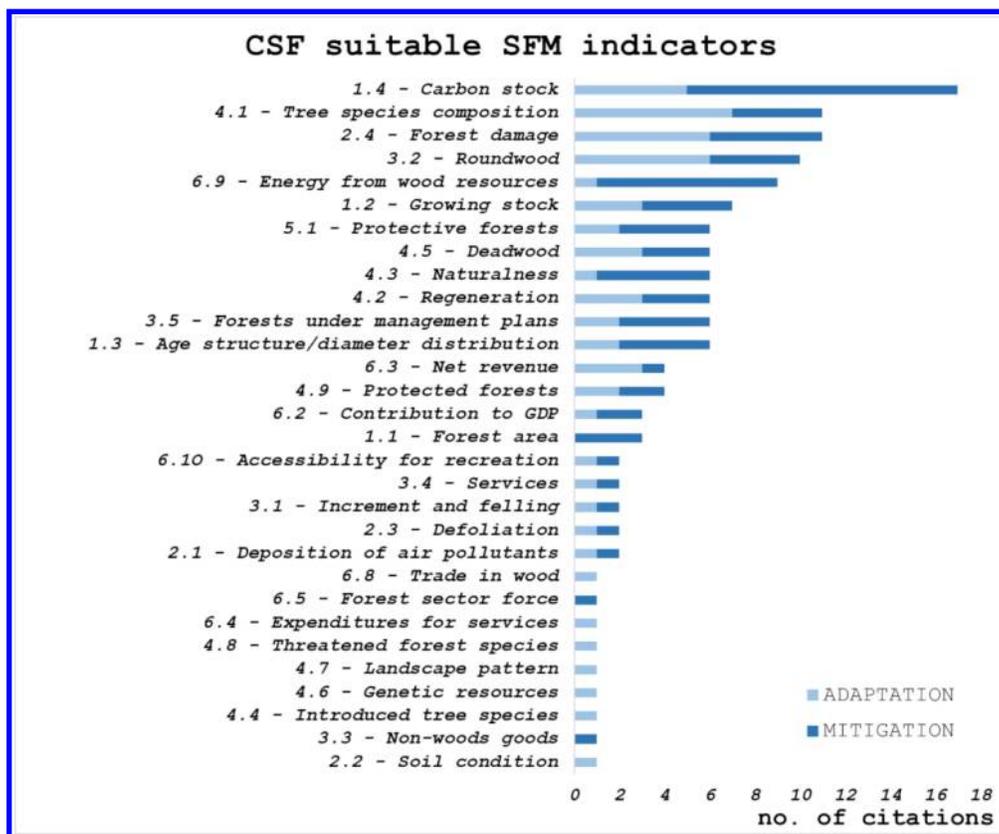


Figure 1: SFM indicators used to assess adaptation and mitigation in the reviewed literature.

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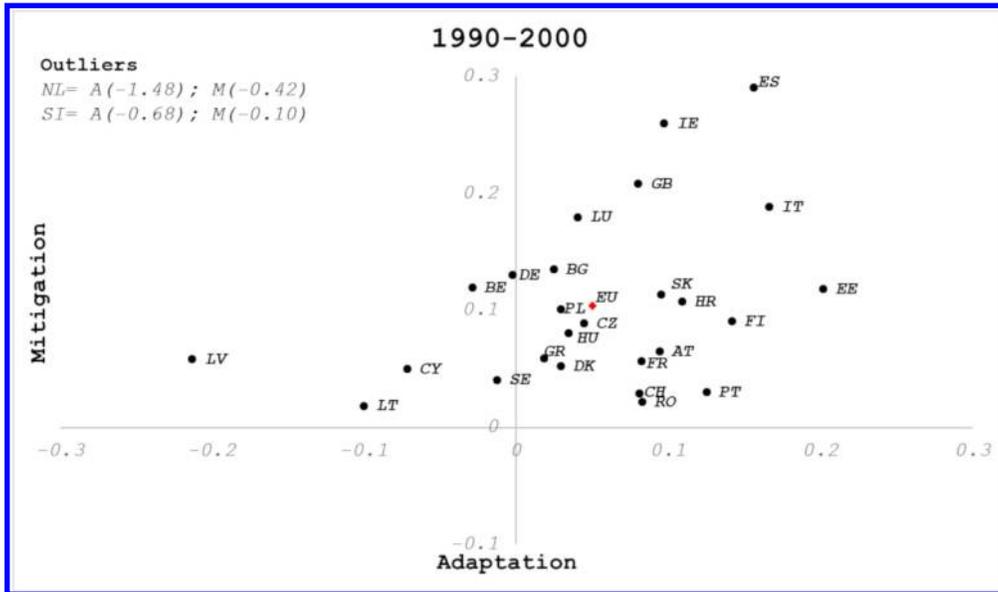


Figure 2: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 1990 and 2000. Note that a positive change in both adaptation and mitigation (top-right quadrant) is considered climate smart. The ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 are used for country abbreviations.

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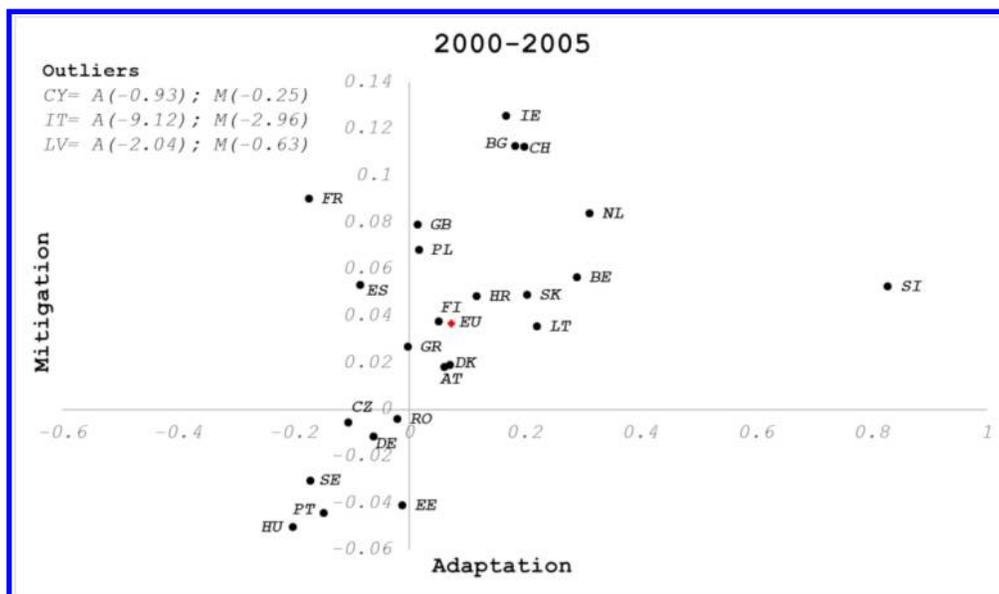


Figure 3: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 2000 and 2005.

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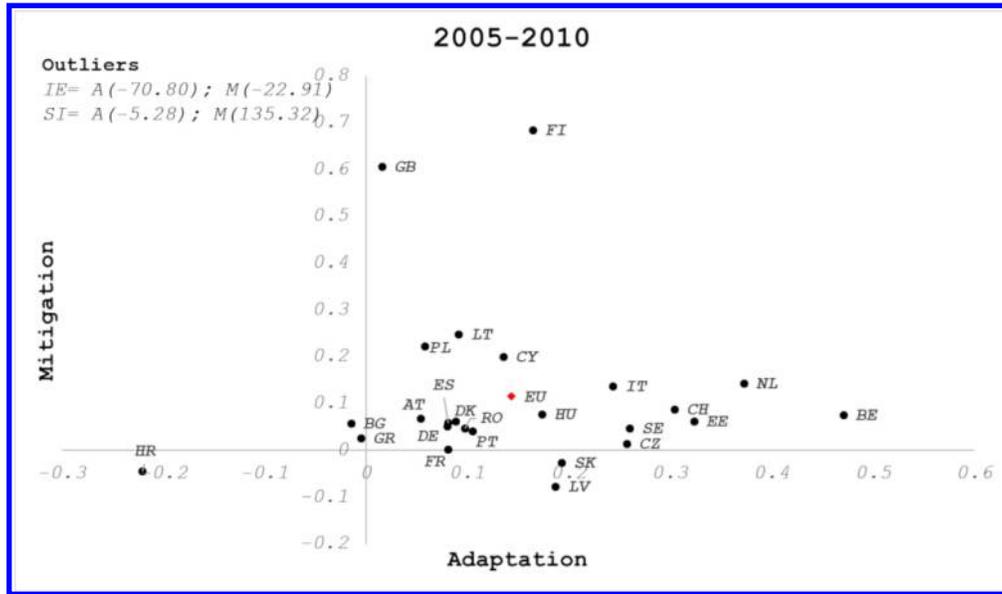


Figure 4: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 2005 and 2010.

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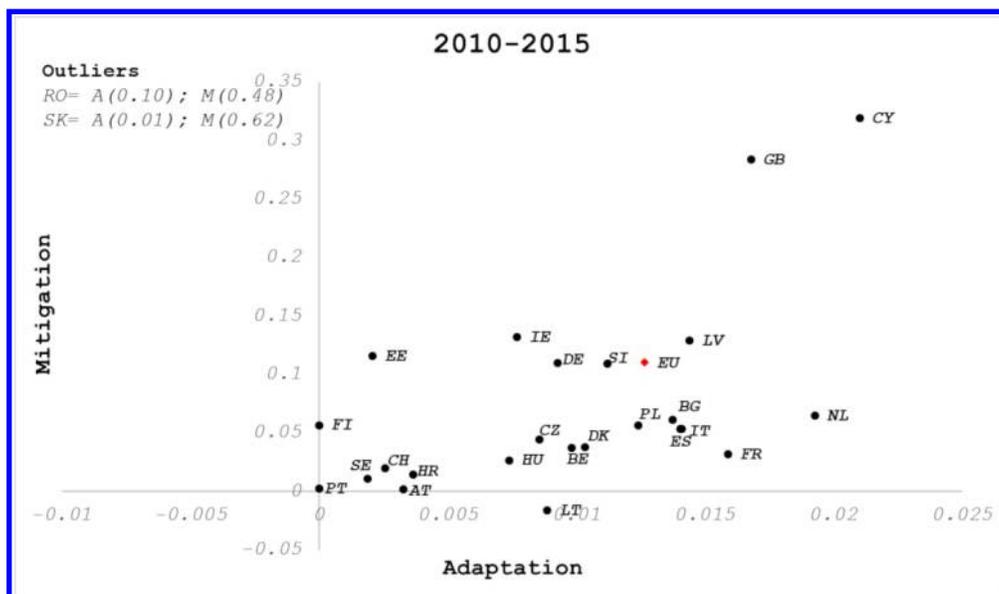


Figure 5: Changes in adaptation and mitigation between 2010 and 2015.

256x150mm (300 x 300 DPI)