This briefing summarises the ways that EU membership affects Scottish forestry. It also looks at the implications of alternatives to EU membership.
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Although the EU has no legislative competence in forestry, it does have a Forest Strategy, and several EU directives and conventions affect the forestry sector. Therefore EU membership has a strong impact on Scotland’s forestry sector.

The most important aspect of the EU’s influence over forestry is the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). Pillar 2 of the CAP provides grants for forestry projects, which play an essential role in incentivising woodland planting and management. Pillar 1 of the CAP provides direct payments to farmers, encouraging use of land for agriculture which could alternatively be forested. The future availability and quantity of grants for forestry and other competing land uses will therefore have a strong influence on activity within the sector in the wake of Brexit.

Various EU directives, conventions and regulations impact on Scottish forestry. The extent to which the Scottish and UK governments are free to alter this legislation will depend on the nature of the relationships between Scotland, the UK and the EU following Brexit. For example, membership of the European Economic Area would require much EU legislation to be maintained.

Since the UK is a major timber importer, the impacts of any new trade barriers on the costs and quantities of imported timber will in turn affect the domestic forestry and timber sectors. According to the National Institute of Economic and Social Research, both imports and exports of goods and services are predicted to fall following Brexit, which could increase demand for domestically produced timber. However, changes in total domestic timber demand will also play a role in this respect and currency exchange rates are also important.

Seasonal migrant labour is important in some parts of the forestry sector, meaning that the sector could be affected by any restrictions on freedom of movement of workers.
INTRODUCTION

On 23 June 2016, the United Kingdom voted in a referendum to leave the European Union (EU). This is one of a series of briefings which examine the implications of leaving the EU for Scotland in a number of policy areas.

The Scottish forestry sector was recently estimated to support over 25,000 full time equivalent jobs and to contribute around £1 billion of gross value added (CJC Consulting 2015). More information on Scottish Forestry can be found in the recent SPICe briefing on Scottish Forestry (Tatchell-Evans, 2016).

HOW EU MEMBERSHIP CURRENTLY IMPACTS FORESTRY

EU COMPETENCIES

The EU has no legislative competence in forestry. However, the EU does have a Forest Strategy, in addition to a range of policies and pieces of legislation which impact on Scottish forestry, as detailed in the remainder of this section. The forestry sector also receives grant funding via the EU’s Common Agricultural Policy.

UK FORESTRY GOVERNANCE

In Scotland and England, forestry is the responsibility of the Forestry Commission (FC), whose duties are detailed in the Forestry Act 1967. The FC is a non-ministerial department of the UK government (Forestry Commission England/Central Services 2016). Most of the functions of the FC in Wales and Northern Ireland are now undertaken by Natural Resources Wales and the Forest Service, respectively.

The Scotland Act 1998 requires the Forestry Commissioners to “comply with such directions as may be given to them by…the Scottish Ministers in relation to the exercise of their functions as regards Scotland”, effectively devolving responsibility for forestry in Scotland. This led to the formation of Forestry Commission Scotland (FCS), which effectively operates as a department of the Scottish Government’s Environment & Forestry Directorate, although it is part of the cross border FC organisation (Forestry Commission Scotland 2016a).


A full description of the governance structure surrounding forestry in Scotland is available in Spice Briefing SB 16-93.

COMMON AGRICULTURAL POLICY

The Scottish forestry sector receives EU funding via the European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development (EAFRD), which forms Pillar 2 of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). Pillar 1 relates to direct support payments, whilst Pillar 2 supports the Rural Development Programme. The EAFRD reimburses 55% of the Forestry Grant Scheme, which is administered by Forestry Commission Scotland (FCS) in conjunction with the Scottish Government’s Rural Payments and Inspections Division (Scottish Government 2013a). The Forestry Grant Scheme forms part of the Scottish Rural Development Programme. The current round of the scheme aims to make
available £252 million from 2014-2020. The grants are a key tool in delivering targets related to forestry, with most landowners’ decisions regarding woodland planting and management being heavily influenced by the available grant schemes (Forest Research 2013). Activities supported by the Forestry Grant Scheme include:

- creation of new woodland,
- enhancement of biodiversity in existing woodland,
- bringing more woodland into active management,
- action preventing spread of diseases affecting trees,
- development of road access to inaccessible woodlands to reduce freight costs,
- woodland creation for flood mitigation,
- creation of small scale woodlands on agricultural pasture or forage land,
- improving public access to woodland, and
- investing in equipment for local small-scale harvesting.

Besides grants directed at forestry, investment in woodland creation and management is affected by grants available for other land uses (Forest Research 2013). The key competing land use is farming, for which EU grant funding is available through the CAP. The funding comes primarily in the form of direct payments to farmers under the European Agricultural Guarantee Fund, commonly known as Pillar 1 of CAP. Around £3.3 billion will be made available through Pillar 1 in Scotland from 2014-2020 (Audit Scotland 2016). A further £1.3 billion is available for rural development (including forestry) through Pillar 2 of CAP.

The availability of these grants can leave farmers with little incentive to create woodland on land which is suitable for agriculture, depending on the levels of payment offered by the different schemes. This can be exacerbated by the long term commitment represented by woodland creation, in comparison with agriculture which can offer a quicker return on investment, again depending on the levels of the available grants.

Stakeholders within the Scottish forestry sector have stated that the current budget available for the Forestry Grant Scheme will not be sufficient to meet the Scottish Government’s target of creating 100,000 hectares of new woodland in the ten years to 2022 (Rural Economy and Connectivity Committee 2016). However, this is primarily due to low planting rates in previous years. Planting rates close to 10,000 hectares per annum are expected to be achievable in the near future, as investors become accustomed to the current round of CAP funding (2014-2020).
LEGISLATION

A number of EU directives and conventions impact on UK forestry. The Forestry Commission (2011) lists these as follows:

- **Forest Reproductive Material Directive 1999/105/EC** – This directive states that all seeds and cuttings from a set list of tree species\(^1\) having been produced within and being sold within the EU for forestry purposes must be traceable to the region in which they were produced. The directive also requires producers of this material to be officially registered within their respective member state. This directive is implemented in Great Britain by the Forest Reproductive Material (Great Britain) Regulations 2002.

- **Environmental Impact Assessment Directive 85/337/EEC** – This directive details what kinds of projects require environmental impact assessments (EIAs). Afforestation schemes are mentioned, with the requirement for an EIA for these schemes left to the discretion of the respective member state. The EIA directive is implemented in Scotland by a number of regulations. The most important for the forestry sector is The Environmental Impact Assessment (Forestry) (Scotland) Regulations 1999, which gives the Forestry Commissioners the right to exempt individual forestry projects from EIAs, provided that the reason for exemption is given in writing. All forestry projects covering an area exceeding 5 hectares must undergo an EIA according to the regulations.

- **Environmental Liability Directive 2004/35/EC** – This directive makes all operators carrying out occupational activities liable for environmental damages caused by that work, where fault can be proven. It is implemented in Scotland by the Environmental Liability (Scotland) Regulations 2009.

- **Birds Directive 2009/147/EC** – This directive (i) defines bird species whose habitats are deemed to require special conservation measures, (ii) details restrictions on hunting, capture and trade of birds and (iii) requires member states to protect habitats important to birds. This directive is enacted in Great Britain by the Wildlife and Countryside Act 1981, as amended. Its provisions have been strengthened since devolution by the Nature Conservation (Scotland) Act 2004, and most recently by the Wildlife and the Natural Environment (Scotland) Act 2011.

- **Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC** – This directive requires member states to identify and protect sites requiring conservation measures in order to protect species of flora and fauna reliant upon the habitats they provide. This directive is implemented within Scotland by the Conservation (Natural Habitats &c.) (Scotland) Regulations 2004 (as amended), which also lists European Protected Species of animals and plants. Water – This directive requires member states to take action to protect the quantity and environmental quality of water available for human use and to limit levels of pollution in all bodies of water. It is implemented in Scotland through the Water Environment and Water Services (Scotland) Act 2003.

- **European Landscape Convention** – This convention requires member states to implement landscape policies which conserve and enhance landscapes in terms of their cultural and natural heritage.

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\(^1\) Listed in Annex 1 of the Directive, includes all of the most common tree species in Scottish woodland
In addition, the EU Timber Regulation (EUTR), enacted in 2010, prohibits the sale of illegally harvested timber and timber products within the EU. It applies both to imported and domestically produced timber (European Commission 2016a). The EUTR is enacted across the UK by The Timber and Timber Products (Placing on the Market) Regulations 2013.

The EUTR works in tandem with the EU Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) Action Plan, which was published in 2003 and seeks to reduce illegal logging (EU FLEGT Facility undated). Timber and timber products covered by FLEGT licenses are considered to comply with the EUTR. One important element of FLEGT is the development of Voluntary Partnership Agreements between the EU and other timber-producing countries which promote trade in legal timber.

POLICIES & STRATEGIES

Forestry Strategies

The EU Forest Strategy is a non-legislative framework which provides guidance on the development of policies having an impact on forests (European Commission 2016b). The strategy notes the importance of forestry in relation to rural development, environmental quality, biodiversity, bioenergy, climate change and forest-based industries. It also calls on member states to consider its stipulations when developing domestic forestry policies. It aims to build on the work of Forest Europe and other international initiatives in producing an EU woodland resource which:

- is sustainable,
- contributes to biodiversity,
- provides a source of sustainable construction materials and bioenergy,
- contributes to rural development, and
- is resilient to climate change, pests and diseases.

The current Scottish Forestry Strategy (SFS) was published in 2006 (Scottish Executive 2006). The Scottish Government’s Land Use Strategy (March 2016), included a commitment to review the SFS, although no date was set for this review. The objectives of the SFS are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Objectives of the Scottish Forestry Strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assist community participation.</th>
<th>Facilitate the development of markets for forest products.</th>
<th>Contribute positively to soil, water and air quality.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enhance opportunities for health and enjoyment.</td>
<td>Facilitate rural business diversification and development.</td>
<td>Contribute to landscape quality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribute to growth in learning and skills.</td>
<td>Increase the contribution of forestry to tourism.</td>
<td>Protect and promote the historic environment and cultural heritage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop a more efficient and competitive timber supply chain.</td>
<td>Help to tackle climate change.</td>
<td>Help to protect and enhance biodiversity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Scottish Executive 2006
The EU Forest Strategy and the SFS may be seen to be broadly similar in their objectives. Unlike the EU Forest Strategy, the SFS does not include reference to resilience to climate change, pests and diseases. However, FCS and Forest Research are actively working on resilience to climate change (Forestry Commission Scotland 2016b), and the importance of continuing action on pests and diseases has been highlighted in the Scottish Government’s consultation document on the future of Scottish forestry (Scottish Government 2016a). Hence it may be concluded that there is strong alignment in forestry policy objectives between the EU and the Scottish Government.

Biodiversity Strategies

Woodland can provide a habitat for a range of species, with different tree species tending to support different groups (Humphrey et al. 2003, Brockerhoff et al. 2008). However, planting of new woodland on previously unforested land can impair biodiversity, particularly in the short term, where the land being forested has well-developed, pre-existing ecosystems (Brockerhoff et al. 2008). Various management practices can be used to enhance woodland biodiversity (Brockerhoff et al. 2008, Humphrey et al. 2003).

The EU’s Biodiversity Strategy is a non-legislative framework document which specifically addresses forestry in its target to “Achieve more sustainable agriculture and forestry” (European Commission 2016c). There are 5 actions associated with this target, as follows:

- Enhance CAP direct payments to reward environmental public goods such as crop rotation and permanent pastures; improve cross-compliance standards for GAEC (Good Agricultural and Environmental Conditions) and consider including the Water Framework Directive in these standards.

- Better target Rural Development to biodiversity needs and develop tools to help farmers and foresters work together towards biodiversity conservation.

- Conserve and support genetic diversity in Europe’s agriculture.

- Encourage forest holders to protect and enhance forest biodiversity.

- Integrate biodiversity measures such as fire prevention and the preservation of wilderness areas in forest management plans.

Scotland’s Biodiversity Strategy and the SFS both acknowledge the need to ensure that future afforestation is consistent with biodiversity objectives, and that action is needed to ensure that existing woodland is managed so as to maximise its contribution to the nation’s biodiversity (Scottish Government 2013b, Forestry Commission Scotland 2015). The Scottish Government’s (2015a) Six Big Steps for Nature, produced to supplement the Biodiversity Strategy, set targets to:

- Increase the amount of native woodland in good condition.

- Create 3,000-5,000 ha of new native woodland per year.

- Restore around 10,000 ha of native woodland to satisfactory condition.

Scotland’s Biodiversity Strategy also includes reference to encouraging creation of woodland on farms with a view to protecting biodiversity.

The Scottish and EU biodiversity strategies and the SFS may be seen to be largely complementary in their aims.
Climate Policy

Trees absorb carbon dioxide (CO$_2$) and store the carbon as organic matter, such that they act as ‘negative emitters’ of greenhouse gases (GHGs). However, forestry can also cause positive GHG emissions from soils, and through the use of fertilisers. In 2014 the Scottish forestry sector acted as a net emissions sink, absorbing **10.2 mega tonnes of CO$_2$ equivalent** (Scottish Government 2016$^b$). This represents 21.8% of the total net GHG emissions of Scotland during the same year. Woody biomass can also be used as a substitute for fossil fuels in the generation of heat and electricity, which can help to reduce GHG emissions (Wentworth 2012).

Targets for reducing GHG emissions have been set at EU, UK and Scottish levels. As shown in Table 1 the UK and Scotland have adopted targets which are more ambitious than those set by the EU for 2020 and 2030, and the same as those set for 2050.

**Table 1: EU, UK and Scottish greenhouse gas emissions reduction targets.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% reduction in GHG emissions from 1990 levels</th>
<th>By 2020</th>
<th>By 2030</th>
<th>By 2050</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>42%$^1$</td>
<td>64%$^2$</td>
<td>80%$^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>34%$^3$</td>
<td>57%$^4$</td>
<td>80%$^5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>20%$^5$</td>
<td>40%$^5$</td>
<td>80%$^5$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Leaving the EU does not remove the legally binding UK or Scottish GHG emissions reduction targets. However, the Scottish Government has noted that Scottish GHG emissions are strongly impacted by policies at UK and EU level (Scottish Government 2015$^b$). Similarly, the UK Committee on Climate Change (2016) have identified that EU-level policies such as efficiency standards and the Renewable Heat Incentive are set to account for 55% of the emissions reductions required by the UK by 2030.

**BEYOND THE EU: UK INVOLVEMENT IN INTERNATIONAL ACTION ON FORESTRY**

The UK is actively involved in various international initiatives aimed at improving environmental standards in forestry. The decision to leave the EU does not directly impact this activity.

The UK is a member of Forest Europe, a pan-European voluntary organisation which seeks to develop a European forest resource which supports “a green economy, livelihoods, climate change mitigation [and] biodiversity conservation” (Forest Europe 2011). The members of Forest Europe establish and commit to standards of forestry described in the Pan-european Operational Level Guidelines (PELOG), which were last updated in 2015 (Forest Europe 2015$^a$, Forest Europe 2015$^b$). The stipulations of the latest commitment focus on maintaining timber resources, ensuring strong carbon uptake, and protecting biodiversity and soil health.

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$^2$ CO$_2$ equivalent is a unit used to quantify the global warming impact of gases with different warming intensities. For example, methane has 21 times the global warming potential of CO$_2$, hence 1 tonne of methane is equal to 21 tonnes of carbon dioxide equivalent (OECD 2013).
As a member of the United Nations, the UK is also involved in the UN Forum on Forests (UNFF), which is tasked with promoting sustainable development of forests. Specifically, the UNFF seeks to “strengthen political commitment and action” around sustainable forestry, to “enhance the contribution of forests” to the UN’s development goals, and to “provide a framework for national action and international cooperation” (UN 2016).

All publicly funded forestry in the UK is required to meet the UK Forestry Standard (UKFS) (Scottish Executive 2006). This is a reference standard for sustainable forestry, and “provides a framework for the delivery of international agreements on sustainable forest management” (Forestry Commission 2011). It seeks to protect biodiversity whilst maintaining a good supply of forestry products and ensuring public access to woodland for recreation. It includes guidance on meeting the relevant EU directives and conventions.

The requirements of the UKFS provide the basis for the UK Woodland Assurance Standard (UKWAS). This is an audit scheme recognised by both the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) and the Programme for the Endorsement of Forest Certification (PEFC)\(^3\). The UKWAS also implements the commitments of the PELOG (UKWAS 2012). All FC woodland is audited against the UKWAS and by extension certified under the FSC, whilst as of 2016, 35% of non-FC woodland in Scotland has been audited and certified (Forestry Commission 2016a). Outside of the FC, certification is usually only sought by larger forest holdings and those with a focus on timber production, due to the associated expense.

**REACTION TO THE DECISION TO LEAVE THE EUROPEAN UNION**

At the time of writing there has been little public comment from stakeholders on the likely impacts of Brexit on the forestry sector.

UK forestry sector representative body Confor (2016a) produced a report on the likely impacts of Brexit in August 2016. The report notes the importance of the CAP and its funding of both forestry and agriculture land uses, and predicts that uncertainty over future availability of grant funding will act as a barrier to investment in large planting schemes. The report also notes that at present, allocation of this funding within the UK is decided at Westminster, despite policy on agriculture and rural development being devolved.

Confor (2016b) has made a series of policy recommendations which it suggests would benefit the UK forestry sector in the wake of Brexit. Its recommendations include:

- Streamlining applications for approval for woodland creation schemes.
- Moving towards "presumption in favour" of new planting schemes.
- Removing the need for environmental impact assessments for new woodland creation in low risk areas.
- Incorporating an assessment of benefits of a scheme into EIAs.

\(^3\) The FSC and PEFC are voluntary, international certification schemes which are independent of governments, and are intended to give customers assurance of the sustainability of the forests from which a product is harvested.
• Introducing a requirement for phytosanitary certification\textsuperscript{4} for all imported material to reduce the risks of importing pests and diseases.

• Restricting imports of firewood to reduce risks of importing pests and diseases and to increase demand for domestically produced fuel.

• Introducing longer term grant schemes to reduce the tendency for ebbs and flows in new woodland creation which have been seen with the cycles of CAP grants currently available.

The RSPB (2016) sees Brexit as an opportunity to rethink the distribution of grants available to the forestry sector, and to direct this investment so as to produce forests having multiple benefits, from habitat conservation and restoration to sustainable timber production.

Jon Hollingdale of the Community Woodlands Association has suggested that a single grant scheme which incentivises desirable land uses would be more effective than separate grant schemes for agriculture and forestry, as exist now (Rural Economy and Connectivity Committee 2016).

The Woodland Trust (2016) in the wake of Brexit talks about ensuring that real protection for wildlife and habitats is secured and if possible improved; an integrated approach to land use that balances development with productivity and nature conservation; and ensuring that the social, environmental and economic benefits of trees and woods are increasingly recognised and valued.

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\textsuperscript{4} Phytosanitary certificates act as a guarantee from the relevant authorities within the country exporting the relevant plant product that due diligence has been undertaken to ensure that the product meets the importing country’s phytosanitary regulations.
HOW MIGHT ALTERNATIVES TO EU MEMBERSHIP AFFECT FORESTRY?

POSSIBLE POST-EU MEMBERSHIP SCENARIOS

Membership of the EU includes membership of the European Single Market. The Single Market has four cornerstones laid out in the EU Treaties (EUR-Lex 2016):

- Free movement of goods – customs tariffs are not permitted within the Single Market.
- Free movement of workers – every EU citizen has the right to move freely, to stay and to work in another member state.
- Right of establishment and freedom to provide services – legal and administrative barriers to the development of service activities between Member States are not permitted.
- Free movement of capital – most restrictions on movement of capital within the EU and between Members States and third countries are not permitted.

A report for the Scottish Parliament describes three possible scenarios of UK relations with the EU following the UK’s leaving the union (Fraser of Allander 2016):

1. The Norway model

In this scenario, the UK secures membership of the European Economic Area (EEA). This would give the UK full access to the Single Market, whilst requiring the UK to retain the majority of EU laws, and to enable free movement between the UK and the EU.

2. The Switzerland model

In this scenario, the UK secures membership of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), but not the EEA. The UK would negotiate a bilateral agreement with the EU, and would have to implement some EU regulations as part of this agreement. Freedom of movement between the UK and the EU would be required.

3. The World Trade Organisation (WTO) model

In this scenario, the UK would have no special relationship with the EU, with WTO rules applying to international trade. The UK would have no obligation to apply EU laws, although goods traded with the EU would have to meet EU standards. Freedom of movement between the UK and the EU would not be required.

GRANTS & SUBSIDIES

Subsidies available for forestry and competing land uses play a key role in determining levels of activity within the sector, as detailed earlier.

The UK government has guaranteed that CAP funding awarded while the UK remains a member of the EU will be paid in full by the UK government following departure from the EU (HM Treasury 2016). This means that payments will continue until 2020, which is the end of the current phase of CAP.
Allocation of CAP funds within the UK is reserved, whilst the implementation of CAP in Scotland is devolved. Providing evidence to the Scottish Parliament’s European and External Relations Committee in July 2016, Prof Graeme Roy, director of the Fraser of Allander Institute, noted that the proportion of UK funding for agriculture may fall if the way in which it is calculated changes:

“Scotland has about 8 per cent of the UK population, but about 18 per cent of UK CAP payments come to Scotland. How will that funding reach the Scottish budget? It will not come through tax revenues. If it comes through Barnett, you will get 8 per cent of the equivalent spending in England and Wales, which is certainly not 18 per cent. What is the mechanism by which those additional revenues will flow into the Scottish budget?” (European and External Relations Committee 2016)

Confor has called for a new grant scheme for forestry following Brexit which offers greater long term stability than the SRDP system. The current system operates on seven year cycles, with numbers of grant applications tending to fall towards the end of a cycle due to uncertainty around the change over to a new cycle (Forest Research 2013).

ENVIRONMENTAL STANDARDS & PLANT HEALTH

In October 2016 the UK Prime Minister announced plans to convert the existing body of EU law into British law on the UK’s exit from the European Union (May 2016). The intention would then be to “amend, repeal and improve” individual laws as and when desired. The extent to which the UK and Scotland are free to “amend, repeal and improve” these laws will depend on the nature of future relationships with the EU.

All of the scenarios discussed for the UK’s post-Brexit relationship with the EU will give the UK and Scotland greater freedom regarding governance of environmental issues. Whilst the “Norway model” requires most EU environmental regulations to be maintained, the Habitats Directive, Birds Directive, and the Common Agricultural Policy would not be retained since they are not included in the EEA agreement (Burns et al 2016).

Timber standards

As members of both EFTA and the EEA, Norway, Iceland and Lichtenstein have been required to implement the EU Timber Regulation (European Commission 2016a). Switzerland, as a member of EFTA only, has not been required to implement this, although it is in the process of implementing a similar regulation (European Commission 2014a).

The Forest Trust (2016) has noted that the UK was one of the main driving forces behind the Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) Action Plan, which led to the introduction of the EUTR, and would therefore seem unlikely to retract the associated UK regulation. The Forest Trust further notes that whilst the FLEGT Regulation is not included in the EEA agreement, the UK would be expected to continue to recognise FLEGT licenses as denoting legally-felled timber.

Environmental legislation

On the Birds Directive, Confor (2016a) notes that the UK is a signatory to the Bern and Bonn conventions, and, assuming the UK did not wish to withdraw from these conventions, any changes to regulation around the protection of birds would have to be within their bounds. The Birds Directive essentially implements the stipulations of the Bern and Bonn conventions within the EU (JNCC 2014).
Confor (2016a) has called for relaxation of the requirements for Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs) for new woodland creation following Brexit, as detailed earlier. Changes to strengthen EIAs could act as barriers to woodland creation, and changes which weakened EIAs could reduce barriers. As noted earlier, the EU’s EIA directive leaves the requirement for EIAs for afforestation schemes to the discretion of member states, but Scotland has legislated for the requirement of EIAs for most forestry projects. Therefore, it may be supposed that there is an appetite within government for applying EIAs to forestry.

**Pests & diseases**

The EEA Agreement only allows members to place restrictions on imports and exports of goods where they can be justified on grounds of the protection of health and life of humans, animals or plants (EFTA 2016). Similarly, WTO rules state that phytosanitary measures can only be applied where doing so is necessary in accordance with scientific principles (WTO 2016). This suggests that the blanket requirement for phytosanitary certification and restrictions on firewood imports called for by Confor would not be permitted under any scenario.

**Indications of UK and Scottish Governments’ attitudes towards environmental protection**

As detailed earlier, the UK has traditionally played a leading role in international efforts to improve sustainability of timber production. This could be taken as an indication that the UK would be unlikely to wish to weaken the environmental governance around forestry.

However, it should be noted that whilst the UK is a signatory to international conservation and biodiversity conventions, these are not enforced, unlike EU legislation. A report from the House of Commons’ Environmental Audit Committee (2016) prior to the referendum vote found evidence that the UK had at times sought to delay or block EU environmental directives. Some stakeholders suggested to the committee that this indicated a likelihood that Brexit could lead to less stringent environmental regulations within the UK.

The Scottish Parliament (2016) in October 2016 passed a motion recognising that EU membership has led to progress on environmental issues in Scotland, and calling for the importance of Scotland’s natural environment to be recognised by the UK government in future trade negotiations. However, Friends of the Earth Scotland (2016) has expressed concerns that cuts to budgets for environmental management, as well as pressure from farming and fishing lobbies and the UK government, will threaten Scottish progress on environmental issues in the wake of Brexit.

**IMPORTS & EXPORTS**

The UK is one of only 3 major timber importers in the EU (Winkel & Derks 2016). To a lesser extent, the UK also exports timber and wood products. In most categories of wood products, the majority of UK imports come from the EU (Forestry Commission 2016b). For plywood and wood pellets, the majority comes from outside of the EU. The volumes and monetary values of UK wood & timber and paper & pulp imports and exports are shown in Table 2. Total wood production in the UK in 2015 was 11.3 million green tonnes6, with Scotland accounting for around 64% of this (Forestry Commission 2016c).

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5 Responsibilities for most environmental matters are devolved (Reid 2016), as, effectively, are forestry matters. Hence the Scottish Government’s position on environmental governance may be the most important.

6 Green tonnes is the mass of timber at the point of harvesting, i.e. prior to any processing.
Table 2. UK imports and exports of wood & timber and paper & pulp.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Exports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Volume (million cubic metres)</td>
<td>Value (£ billion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood &amp; timber products</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulp &amp; paper</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Forestry Commission 2016

Note: 85% of the UK’s paper and pulp exports are in the form of recovered paper, i.e. paper and cardboard collected for recycling.

Researchers from the National Institute for Economic and Social Research (Ebell et al., 2016 and Ebell & Warren, 2016) carried out economic modelling to estimate the impacts of the 3 post-EU membership scenarios on the UK’s total imports and exports of all goods and services to 2030. They predicted significant reductions in both imports and exports in all scenarios. Imports in 2020 were predicted to be reduced by 14% under the Norway model, 16% under the Switzerland model and 21% under the WTO model, in comparison with the expected imports if the UK remained within the EU. Reductions in exports were predicted to be slightly larger.

Since the UK is a substantial net importer of wood and timber products, it follows that reductions in imports and exports such as are predicted by Ebell et al. (2016) and Ebell & Warren (2016) would be likely to increase demand for domestically produced timber. However, any changes in total domestic demand for wood and timber products would also have an impact. International trade in timber and timber products is also sensitive to currency exchange rate fluctuations. The impact of Brexit via exchange rates will therefore also be significant.

**FREE MOVEMENT OF LABOUR**

Confor (2016) notes that seasonal migrant labour is important in the forestry sector (for example tree planting operations) and is often required at short notice. In current circumstances, any restrictions to migrant labour or delays in approval of working visas could have a negative impact on the sector. This would only be an issue if the UK’s future relationship with the EU does not include freedom of movement.

**RESEARCH FUNDING**

The FC’s research duties are undertaken by Forest Research, which is an Executive Agency of the FC operating across Scotland, England and Wales (Forest research 2003 & 2016). 6% of Forest Research’s funding in 2014-15 and 3.3% of funding in 2015-16 came from the EU (Forest Research 2016).

Some of Forest Research’s EU funding comes through Horizon 2020, an EU research and innovation programme providing a total of €80 billion of research funding between 2014 and 2020. Horizon 2020 seeks to foster interactive innovation with strong knowledge sharing across member states. The current programme includes work on pest organisms, which Forest Research are collaborating on (Pest Organisms Threatening Europe, undated, Forest Research, undated).
16 non-EU member states also participate in Horizon 2020 as ‘Associated Countries’ (European Commission 2016). Associated Countries participate in Horizon 2020 under the same conditions as Member States, with their respective financial contributions determined in agreements made on a case by case basis (European Commission 2014, Council Regulation (EU) No 1291/2013).

The UK Treasury has confirmed that it will underwrite EU funding which has been awarded by the EU on a competitive bid basis, such as Horizon 2020 funding (HM Treasury 2016). This applies to all funding awarded prior to the UK leaving the EU. At the time of writing, the UK government has made no statement regarding the possibility of seeking Associated Country status within Horizon 2020 following Brexit.

**INFLUENCE ON INTERNATIONAL FORESTRY**

In all of the scenarios detailed above, the UK would play no formal role in development of EU policies and legislation, even if it were bound by some EU legislation as in the Norway and Switzerland models. Prior to the Brexit referendum, Winkel & Derks (2016) published results of interviews undertaken with EU forest and environmental policy experts regarding the possible impacts of Brexit on EU forest related environmental policies. The authors noted considerable uncertainty amongst interviewees, as well as differences of opinion. The key impacts predicted were:

- A lessening of importance attached to policy development regarding timber imports (since the UK is one of only 3 major timber importers in the EU).
- A lessening in the influence of the EU in international forest governance, since the UK has traditionally been a driving force in global forestry initiatives.
- An increased importance attached to regulations and directives, rather than market based mechanisms for addressing environmental concerns.

Beyond the EU, the UK’s influence in negotiations on international agreements impacting on forestry may be expected to decrease following Brexit (Burns et al. 2016). The EU is generally seen as having been very successful in influencing international environmental agreements, whereas the UK will be a relatively small player in such negotiations.
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