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## 8        **FSC forest certification effects on biodiversity: a global review and meta-analysis**

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29 **Abstract**

30 FSC is a worldwide recognized forest certification scheme, that aims to promote the  
31 environmentally responsible management and conservation of the world's forests. Despite its  
32 broad application, there is little evidence of its effect on biodiversity. To address this important  
33 knowledge gap, here we conducted a systematic review and a hierarchical meta-analysis of the  
34 effects of FSC on biodiversity worldwide. Our review yielded 57 studies spanning 2004–2022.  
35 Most studies were in the Americas and Europe (31 % and 28 %, respectively), and largely focused  
36 on vascular plants (41 %). Half (51 %) of the studies aimed to determine the effect of FSC  
37 certification on biodiversity. There were 15 studies with sufficient information for meta-analysis,  
38 resulting in 231 effect sizes for mammal, bird, and vascular plant abundance and 10 for vascular  
39 plant richness. Overall, there is a neutral effect of certification on taxa abundance, with only a  
40 positive effect on mammal assemblages. Responses varied considerably between mammals' traits.  
41 Threatened species, individuals with reduced body weight, and omnivorous species benefit from  
42 management under the FSC scheme. Vascular plant richness exhibited significantly higher values  
43 in FSC-certified areas. Moreover, the abundance of vascular plants also differs among traits, with  
44 shrubs and adult trees benefiting from FSC certification. Our systematic review and meta-analysis  
45 revealed strong variation in biodiversity responses to FSC, and major geographic and taxonomic  
46 knowledge gaps. The overall neutral effect and the divergent responses of taxa and species traits  
47 suggest that taxa/species-specific management and improvement of FSC criteria are required.

48

49 **Keywords**

50 Forest certification; Forest stewardship council; Biodiversity conservation; Review; Meta-  
51 analysis

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## 55 **1. Introduction**

56 The world has been losing biodiversity at a significant rate, regardless of conservation efforts  
57 (Butchart et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2017). Human activities such as agricultural expansion  
58 (Foley et al., 2011; Tilman et al., 2017, 2011), and the transformation of natural habitats into  
59 planted and intensively managed forests (Payn et al., 2015) are the major drivers that promote this  
60 crisis. As a result of this pressure, the world's native forest area was reduced on average by 4.7  
61 million hectares per year between 2010 and 2020 (FAO and UNEP, 2020). One of the most  
62 common conservation and management strategies to respond to these changing events has been  
63 the establishment of protected areas (Pringle, 2017). However, in recent years many protected  
64 areas have experienced degazetting and downscaling processes, being currently insufficient to  
65 prevent biodiversity loss (Jenkins and Joppa, 2009). Within this context, regulations implemented  
66 also outside protected areas have been seen as complementary tools to conservation efforts (De  
67 Alban et al., 2021). The increase of resource demand and consumption by the human population  
68 will add pressure on biodiversity conservation, hence it is essential to find suitable measures to  
69 integrate economically viable production outside protected areas and biodiversity conservation  
70 values (Gavin et al., 2018; Miller et al., 2011).

71 As a complement to protected areas, the management of private and public lands (e.g., planted  
72 and agricultural lands), which incorporates conservation values and or minimizes production  
73 impacts on biodiversity (Miralles-Wilhelm, 2021) has become an increasingly recognized  
74 strategy to reduce biodiversity losses (Bingham et al., 2017; Kamal et al., 2015). Planted forests  
75 with competent conservation management can still support some biodiversity (Hartley, 2002;  
76 Norris, 2008; Teixeira et al., 2020). But simply stating the adoption of reliable practices in  
77 production systems is not enough. The evaluation of the effective use of such options, and their  
78 impacts on the preservation of natural values is a pivotal issue to assure that biodiversity is still  
79 protected. Forest certification (FC) has been the most prominent private initiative to address  
80 responsible conservation management targeting forestry systems (Tollefson et al., 2009). FC is  
81 based on third-party auditing, considered a nonstate market regulation developed by several  
82 governmental actors through public processes, that assesses the quality of forest management

83 according to environmental, social, and economic standards (Marx and Cuypers, 2010). Within  
84 the context of forest management, several types of certification initiatives were developed,  
85 including the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC), the Lembaga Ekolabel Indonesia (LEI), the US  
86 Sustainable Forest Initiative (SFI), and the Programme for the Endorsement of Forest  
87 Certification Schemes (PEFC). However, the FSC is considered the only multistakeholder third-  
88 party certification scheme since the others utilize a form of self-regulation (Abbott and Snidal,  
89 2009). Forest Stewardship Council was established in 1993, to promote “environmentally  
90 appropriate, socially beneficial, and economically viable management of the world's forests”  
91 (Auld et al., 2008), and individual/company participation was voluntary. FSC is based on 10 equal  
92 important principles and 57 criteria covering environmental, social, and economic characteristics  
93 of forest management. The standards (principles and criteria) certify responsible forest products  
94 that aim to promote high-quality management practices (Cubbage et al., 2010). Additionally, FSC  
95 monitors illegal and controls legal logging, thus contributing to halting deforestation and forest  
96 degradation. The standards used by FSC certification are considered some of the major and  
97 pioneering improvements in current environmental conservation (Agrawal et al., 2008). The area  
98 under FSC certification has increased worldwide in the last decades and to date covers about 160  
99 million ha of forests, in 89 countries (<https://connect.fsc.org/>), representing 5 % of the world's  
100 forested area (FAO and UNEP, 2020). Despite FSC has been active for almost 30 years, the  
101 assessment of its effectiveness as a tool to assure the preservation of biodiversity in productive  
102 areas has been mostly carried out in tropical forests (Arbainsyah et al., 2014; Campos-Cerqueira  
103 et al., 2020; Romero et al., 2017), and especially targeting flora responses to the implemented  
104 management (Kalonga et al., 2016; Medjibe et al., 2013), with few studies implemented in  
105 temperate regions and using vertebrates as models (but see Dias et al., 2013; Oliveira et al., 2016).  
106 Forestry outcomes, auditing, and implementation practices diverge widely under FSC schemes  
107 (Burivalova et al., 2017; Nebel et al., 2005), which challenge the rigorous assessment of FSC  
108 impacts on biodiversity. Despite these constraints, several studies highlighted that compliance  
109 with FSC schemes reduces some environmental management impacts on biodiversity (Gullison,  
110 2003; Johansson and Lidestav, 2011; Villalobos et al., 2018). By reducing environmental impacts,

111 FSC can benefit the species richness and abundance of mammalian and plant communities, but  
112 the specific way that these species respond to FSC differs with species traits (e.g., morphological  
113 traits, trophic level; Lõhmus and Kraut, 2010; Sollmann et al., 2017).

114 In the context of global human pressure on forests, forest certification, particularly FSC  
115 certification, may represent an important tool for future forest sustainable management, and thus  
116 biodiversity conservation. However, to overcome some criticisms (e.g., Gullison, 2003) and  
117 distrust in the effectiveness of the process, it is pivotal to assess if the application of FCS  
118 principles can generate globally (geographically and taxonomically) positive impacts on  
119 biodiversity values. Studies that assess FSC certification outcomes often use conservation  
120 thresholds linked to natural and pristine areas (and not to uncertified production areas) and  
121 therefore tend to conclude that it falls short as a tool for assuring the maintenance of biodiversity  
122 values (Elbakidze et al., 2011). This suggests that the standard against which FSC outcomes are  
123 evaluated may affect the scale of the detected impacts. Moreover, the variation in scale and  
124 diversity of contexts of FSC-certified areas creates a significant challenge to adequately assess its  
125 effectiveness as a tool for biodiversity conservation (Panlasigui et al., 2018), and no general  
126 pattern has been assessed until now.

127 Therefore, we present here a global review and a hierarchical metaanalysis to evaluate how the  
128 FSC certification scheme affects biodiversity values. The specific objectives of this study were to  
129 (1) synthesize the published literature targeting the impact of FSC certification on biodiversity on  
130 a global scale, (2) highlight the major geographical and taxonomic knowledge gaps regarding the  
131 effect of FSC certification on biodiversity, (3) determine the overall effect of FSC on richness  
132 and abundance of different taxa, and (4) evaluate how the response to FSC certification varies  
133 across the detected species' traits.

134

## 135 **2. Methodological Approaches**

### 136 **2.1 Literature Search**

137 We conduct a detailed literature search aimed at identifying all the published articles that assess  
138 commonly used biodiversity metrics (e.g., species richness/abundance) in areas certified by the

139 Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) across the world. To accomplish this, we used a combination  
140 of the following keywords that correlate the FSC certification scheme with biodiversity: “FSC”  
141 OR “Forest Stewardship council” AND “Forest\* certifi\*” OR “Forest\* manage\*” OR “certifi\*”  
142 OR “manage\*” AND “Biodivers\* Conserv\*” OR “Biodiv\* Protec\*” OR “Conserv\*” OR  
143 “Protect\*” OR “Effecti\*” OR “Affect\*” OR “Effic\*” OR “Animal\* protec\*” OR “Animal\*  
144 conserv\*” OR “Species conserv\*” OR “Species protec\*”. This query is associated with the  
145 research topic, broadly used, as well as accurate, however not overly specific to ensure a complete  
146 relevant literature. The search was performed using the Web of Science, and Scopus search  
147 engines, and included all the articles in English, between 1993 (establishment of FSC; Auld et al.,  
148 2008) and July 2022. We supplemented our literature search with publications used in previous  
149 reviews with similar topics to those targeted by our research (Burivalova et al., 2017; Romero et  
150 al., 2017). After title and abstract screening using the Revtolls R package (Westgate, 2019), our  
151 review yielded 131 studies. This number was reduced to 57 studies after the full-text screening  
152 (supplementary information Fig. S1), considering exclusion criteria, i.e., articles mentioning the  
153 FSC, although not focused on biodiversity metrics.

154 We recorded the following information from all the articles in the final database: date of the study,  
155 country, and continent, target taxa, and biodiversity metric (abundance, richness). We also  
156 retained whether the effect of the FSC certification was determined, the baseline against which  
157 FSC is evaluated (i.e., uncertified or protected/pristine forest), and if the effect was explicitly  
158 tested.

159

## 160 **2.2 Meta-Analysis**

161 To conduct the meta-analysis, we retained studies that measured biodiversity responses between  
162 FSC areas and uncertified areas. We used two measures commonly used as effective measures of  
163 biodiversity: i) species richness, and ii) species and/or assemblage abundances (Maurer and  
164 McGill, 2011). Species richness included observed/estimated richness, and genera richness.  
165 Species and/or assemblage abundances denote indices of abundance sensu lato (e.g., density,  
166 capture frequency, occupancy), for a single species and/or across species assemblages, both in

167 FSC and uncertified areas (data available in the supplementary material). These conditions were  
168 only verified in studies targeting mammals, birds, and vascular plants, hence our meta-analysis  
169 only comprises these taxa. Most of the reviewed studies included mean, standard deviation of the  
170 metric, and sample sizes. Sample sizes were typically the number of sites sampled in each  
171 category, or plots/fixes used in data analysis. For studies with standard deviation omitted, we  
172 calculated it from confidence intervals/standard error using assertion methods (Higgins and  
173 Green, 2008). When data were presented only in figures, we retrieved those statistics using the  
174 metaDigite package in R (Pick et al., 2019). For each study, we measure the effect size Hedge's  
175  $d$  (Koricheva et al., 2013), which is an estimate of the standardized mean difference (i.e., the  
176 effect size) between control (uncertified) and treatment (FSC areas). This metric has the  
177 advantage of being not biased by small sample size, since it adjusts for variation with the study  
178 effort i.e., sample size (Gurevitch et al., 2001). A negative response to FSC is indicated by a  
179 negative effect size (e.g., reduction in species abundance/richness in FSC areas). We carried out  
180 a hierarchical meta-analysis, which allow us to consider the multiple effect sizes gathered from  
181 the same study (Stevens and Taylor, 2009). Hence, we include a random effect comprising the  
182 publication level (i.e., study identification) as a nesting factor to incorporate the hierarchical  
183 dependence, as some studies presented various datasets. The effects of FSC certification were  
184 considered significant if the 95 % confidence intervals (CIs) of the effect sizes did not overlap  
185 zero (Koricheva et al., 2013). First, we analyzed the data with random effects model to determine  
186 the overall mean effect size of FSC on mammal, vascular plants, and bird species richness and  
187 abundance data, separately. Second, we considered mammal and vascular plant traits in the  
188 analysis, since species with different ecological traits may respond differently to forest  
189 certification (Lõhmus and Kraut, 2010; Sollmann et al., 2017). For mammals, we retrieved the  
190 body mass and converted it into three classes: i) small body mass (i.e., lower than 5 kg), ii)  
191 medium (i.e., between 5 and 100 kg), and iii) large (i.e., higher than 100 kg) (Hoffmann et al.,  
192 2010). Additionally, we collected information on the IUCN Red List threat category, trophic guild  
193 (herbivore, omnivore and carnivore), and locomotion mode (fossorial, and arboreal) for each  
194 mentioned species. Mammal information was obtained from the Pantheria database (Jones et al.,

195 2009). Vascular plant traits were allocated into three main categories: seedlings, shrubs/herbs,  
196 and adult trees. Vascular plant information was retrieved from the article's information (i.e., the  
197 article stated one of these categories).

198

### 199 **2.3 Publication bias and study heterogeneity**

200 We explore the potential publication bias in our full dataset using two different methods. First,  
201 we performed Kendall's rank correlation on the full model dataset to test if the Hedge's d effect  
202 sizes are correlated, thus indicating publication bias (Jennions et al., 2013). Second, we computed  
203 Rosenthal's fail-safe number, which calculates the number of non-significant studies that would  
204 need to be added to the given set of observed outcomes to change the overall results. A fail-safe  
205 number is considered robust if it is larger than  $5n + 10$ , where n is the original number of studies  
206 included in the review (Jennions et al., 2013). Study heterogeneity among effect sizes was  
207 evaluated with a Q statistics heterogeneity test ( $I^2$ ), which are weighted sum of squares tested  
208 compared to differences among categories, i.e., fixed effect sizes such as taxa, continent,  
209 mammal, and vascular plant traits in the model. Higher  $I^2$  values indicate that a greater proportion  
210 of variation between effect sizes is due to variation between studies, rather than chance (Higgins  
211 and Green, 2008).

212 All the analyses were conducted in R Studio© version 1.1.463, and R version 3.5.3 (R  
213 Development Core Team, 2017), using the 'metafor' package (Viechtbauer, 2010).

214

## 215 **3. Results**

### 216 **3.1 Systematic Review**

217 Our systematic review exhibited an increasing trend from 2015 onwards. Although FSC started  
218 in 1993, we only found studies that meet our criteria from 2004 onwards, nearly 10 years after  
219 FSC standards started to be implemented (Fig. 1). The continents for which we detected a greater  
220 number of published studies are the Americas (31.5 %), followed by Europe (28.1 %), Asia (22.8  
221 %), and Africa (17.6 %). However, studies on the Americas are predominantly from South  
222 America (68 %), and only 16 % of the studies were from North and Central America. Studies

223 retrieved in our literature search were mostly country-specific, with only a few encompassing  
224 more than one country (ca. 5 %).

225 The taxa more often targeted in our reviewed studies were vascular plants (40.8 %), followed by  
226 mammals (26.8 %), and the least studied groups were invertebrates (8.5 %), herptiles (i.e., reptiles  
227 and amphibians; 7 %), and fishes (1.4 %; Fig. 1). Overall, the majority of the studies included  
228 only one taxon, with a limited number of studies incorporating more than one taxon (5.6 %  
229 focusing on two taxa and 7 % on three taxa).

230 In total, 31 studies attempted to determine the effect of FSC certification on biodiversity values.  
231 Of those, 10 aimed to determine the effect of FSC in comparison to reference sites (i.e., protected  
232 areas, pristine forests), and 29 to uncertified sites (Fig. 2). Only 8 undertook the assessment of  
233 FSC biodiversity values and used both reference and uncertified sites for comparisons.

234 Overall, the impact more often associated with FSC effectiveness was positive (ca. 47 %), with  
235 83 % of this being quantified (Fig. 2). The negative impact of FSC when compared to uncertified  
236 sites was less often detected, with only three studies stating this pattern. Concerning the effect of  
237 FSC when compared to reference sites, half of the studies had a neutral impact, 40 % had a  
238 negative effect, and only one study refers that FSC had a positive effect on biodiversity when  
239 compared to a reference site (Fig. 2).

240

### 241 **3.2 Meta-analysis**

242 From the original database with 57 studies, 15 of them met the criteria to be included in our meta-  
243 analysis, i.e., the difference in biodiversity values between FSC and uncertified sites was  
244 quantified. Several studies provided several observations; therefore, we obtained 243  
245 observations (i.e., effect sizes). However, due to a reduced number of effect sizes comprehending  
246 herptiles ( $n = 2$ ), we considered only 241 effects, 231 for abundance measures, and 10 related to  
247 species richness. The geographical coverage of this meta-analysis comprises 12 countries, from  
248 four continents. However, most research is from Asia and Europe, encompassing more than half  
249 of the effect sizes (68.8 %).

250

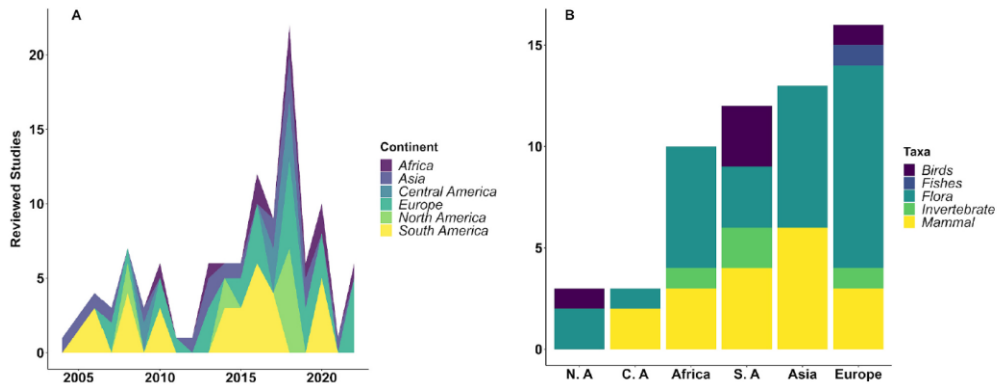


Fig. 1. Number of reviewed studies (total 57) per continent per year (a) and per continent per taxa (b). N. A (North America), C. A (Central America), S. A (South America).

251

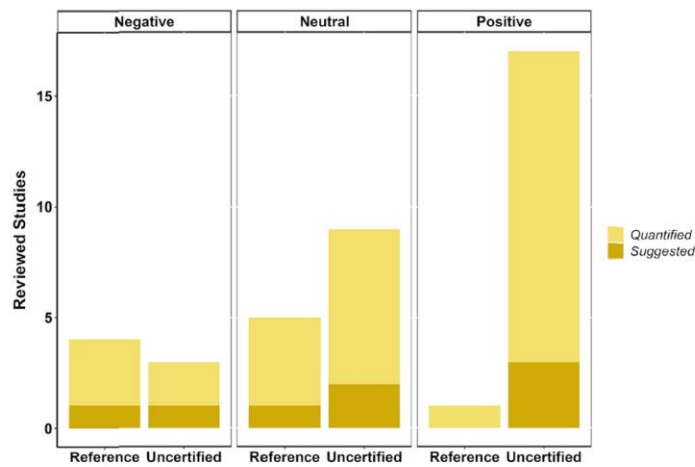


Fig. 2. Number of reviewed studies that incorporate the impact of FSC certification on biodiversity values when compared to reference and uncertified areas, and whether the impact was quantified or suggested by the authors (i.e., the authors' view, explicit in the study, concerning the FSC certification effect on biodiversity or possible effect).

252

253

254 We identified six studies that resulted in only 10 effect sizes covering species richness (NV. plants  
 255 = 8 effect sizes,  $N_{\text{birds}} = 1$ , and  $N_{\text{mammals}} = 1$ ); therefore we were not able to implement a taxa-based  
 256 study. Nevertheless, the heterogeneity was relatively high across those studies ( $QM = 70.8$ ,  $P <$   
 257  $0.001$ ,  $I^2 = 85\%$ ), and the overall effect of FSC certification on species richness was positive ( $\beta$   
 258  $= 0.79 \pm 0.28$ ;  $CI_{95} 0.24 / 1.34$ ), indicating that in FSC certified regions species richness is higher  
 259 when compared to uncertified sites.

260 The overall effect of FSC certification on biodiversity abundance, when compared to uncertified  
 261 sites, was neutral, since the effect was close to zero ( $\beta = 0.03 \pm 0.33$ ), and the 95 % Confidence  
 262 Intervals overlap zero (Fig. 3). We found significant heterogeneity of effects among taxa ( $QM =$   
 263  $39.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  $I^2 = 97\%$ ) indicating that FSC affects differently taxa abundance. The most  
 264 important pattern was the detected positive effect on mammals' abundance ( $\beta = 0.74 \pm 0.12$ ;  $CI_{95}$

265 0.51 / 0.97; Fig. 3). The effect of certification on the abundance of different taxonomic groups  
 266 had no significant difference across continents (Fig. 3), as observed from the non-significant  
 267 heterogeneity between studies of each continent (QM = 1.6, P = 0.9).

268

### 269 3.2.1 Vascular Plants

270 Vascular plant traits database included 97 effect sizes with a relatively high heterogeneity across  
 271 the studies (QM = 1890.01, P < 0.001, I<sup>2</sup> = 97 %). Despite the overall effect of FSC on vascular  
 272 plant abundance was not significant, the certification exhibited a positive effect on shrubs and  
 273 adult trees abundance (Fig. 4). The seedlings' abundance seems to be lower in certified areas,  
 274 however the effect sizes had confidence intervals that overlapped zero and hence provided little  
 275 additional insight.

276

### 277 3.2.2 Mammals

278 The mammal trait dataset had 118 effect sizes, from 48 different species. Heterogeneity tests  
 279 revealed variation between studies for all mammalian traits (supplementary information Table  
 280 S1). The FSC has a positive impact on the abundance of small mammals (body mass ≤ 5 kg), in  
 281 the IUCN Red List, and of omnivores, when compared to populations inhabiting uncertified  
 282 regions (Fig. 5). Contrariwise, the abundance of mammals with a carnivorous diet, and arboreal  
 283 locomotion were negatively influenced by FSC (Fig. 5).

284

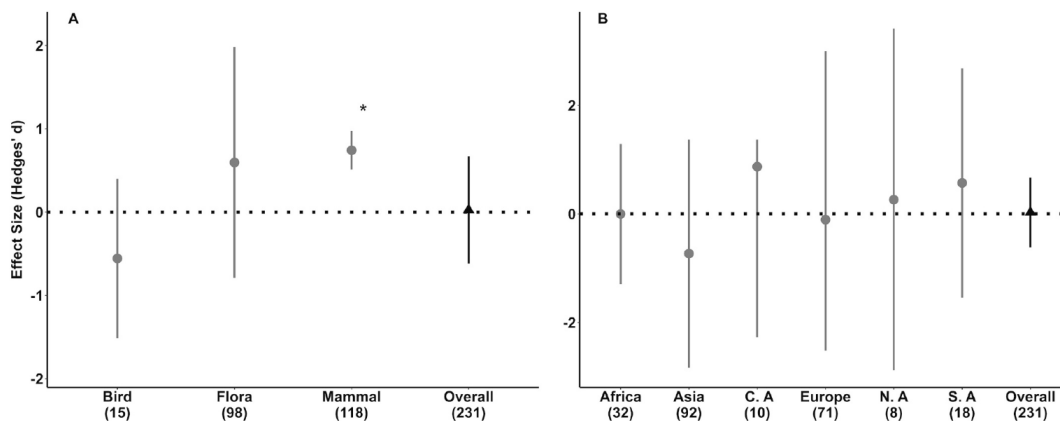


Fig. 3. Overall weighted-mean effect sizes and 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals of FSC certification effects on (a) taxa abundance and (b) biodiversity abundance per Continent. The dashed horizontal line shows Hedge's d = 0. (\*) Indicates significant Hedge's d values (i.e., values that did not overlap zero).

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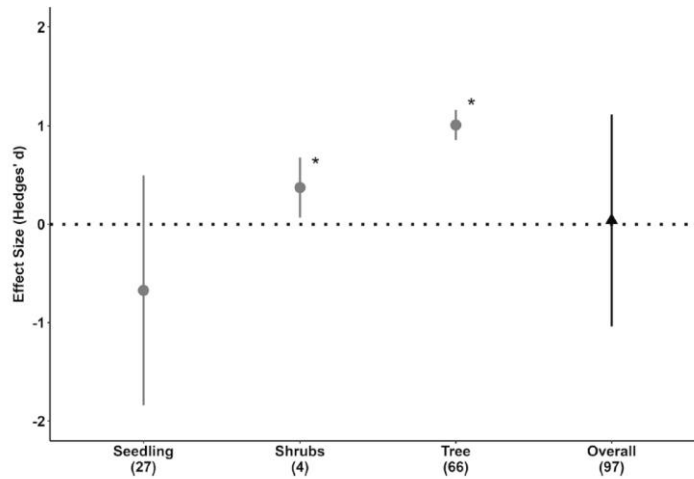


Fig. 4. Overall weighted-mean effect sizes and 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals of FSC certification effects on vascular plant type abundance. The dashed horizontal line shows Hedge's  $d = 0$ . (\*) Indicates significant Hedge's  $d$  values (i.e., values that did not overlap zero).

286

287

### 288 3.3 Publication bias and study heterogeneity

289 We did not detect evidences of publication bias, neither in our general abundance (Kendall's tau  
 290 = - 0.04,  $P = 0.35$ ) and richness datasets (Kendall's tau = 0.41,  $P = 0.10$ ), nor in the mammal and  
 291 vascular plant traits datasets (Kendall's tau = 0.07,  $P = 0.30$ ; Kendall's tau = - 0.10,  $P = 0.17$ ,  
 292 respectively). Also, the Rosenthal's fail-safe number was higher than  $5n + 10$ , implying that the  
 293 overall results achieved in our analysis are robust ( $14,470 > 85$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Altogether, our meta-  
 294 analysis is not influenced by publication bias, indicating that our results efficiently describe the  
 295 effect of FSC certification scheme on the targeted taxa in the studied geographical regions.

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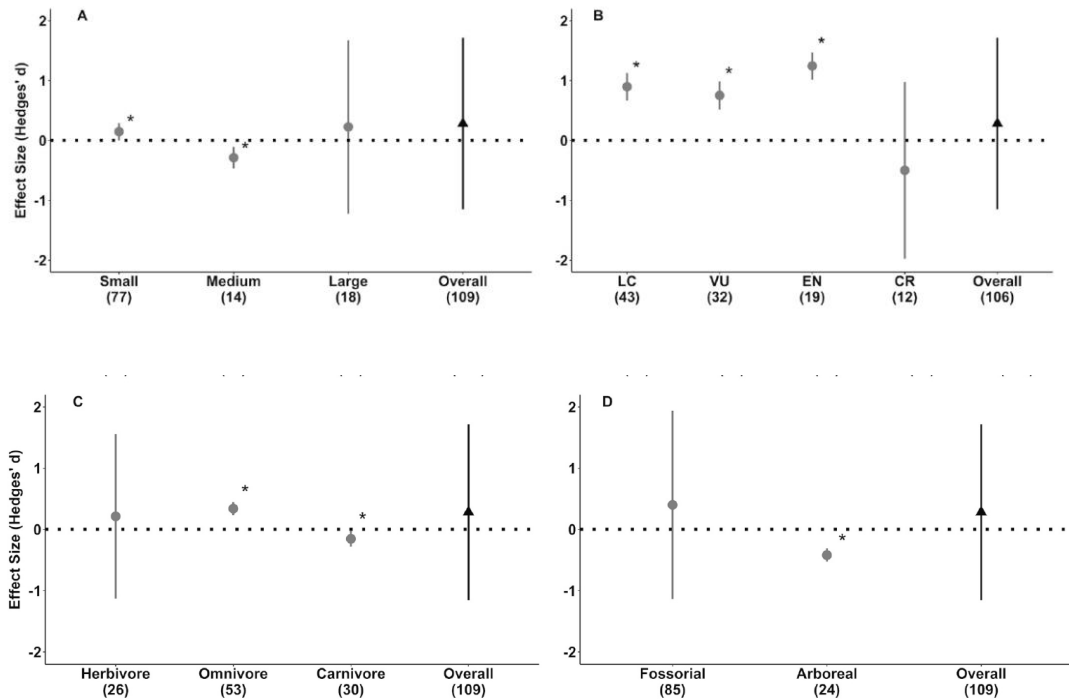


Fig. 5. Overall weighted-mean effect sizes and 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals of FSC certification effects on mammals abundance: (a) body weight (small  $\leq 5$  Kg; medium  $> 5$  Kg and  $\leq 100$  Kg; large  $\geq 100$  Kg); (b) IUCN Red List categories (<https://www.iucnredlist.org/>); (c) trophic guild; and (d) locomotion mode (fossorial dwelling, arboreal dwelling). The dashed horizontal line shows Hedge's  $d = 0$ . (\*) Indicates significant Hedge's  $d$  values (i.e., values that did not overlap zero).

300

301

302

#### 303 4. Discussion

304 Forest certification, namely FSC, is a pioneering scheme of a multistakeholder governance system  
 305 that gives equal weight to the economic, environmental, and social dimensions of production,  
 306 being the world's most trusted forest certification system (FSC consumer insights global report  
 307 2021; <https://fsc.org/en/consumer-awareness>). Despite its existence of about 30 years, our  
 308 systematic review found several shortcomings: 1) the reduced number of studies on its effect on  
 309 biodiversity, 2) geographic bias, with limited knowledge regarding the African and Central/North  
 310 American continents systems, and 3) a bias in the studied taxa, with a lack of studies targeting  
 311 bird, invertebrate and fish community. Moreover, most of the detected studies did not include  
 312 measurements of the volume, and area of harvesting. This information can have an important  
 313 impact on species abundance, and therefore should be included in the research description to allow  
 314 the reader to better understand the mechanistic processes shaping the presented patterns (FSC,  
 315 2015; Gómez-González et al., 2020). Alongside, the majority of the studies reported biodiversity

316 outcomes are related to flora measures (e.g., deforestation, forest cover). This may be linked to  
317 the fact that there is an assumption that native forest cover is a useful surrogate for biodiversity,  
318 although such an assumption is not always true (Burivalova et al., 2019). Moreover, forest cover  
319 and deforestation can be consistently estimated from satellite imagery (Hansen et al., 2013),  
320 which facilitates data acquisition even for more remote areas, while species  
321 richness/abundance/densities metrics are more expensive and logistically challenging to estimate  
322 (Ganivet and Bloomberg, 2019).

323 Our review suggested that the most frequently associated impact of FSC certification on  
324 biodiversity was positive, with most of these studies quantifying the impact. Such patterns on  
325 species richness were confirmed by our meta-analysis; however, it also revealed that the overall  
326 effect of FSC on the abundance of the studied taxa was neutral. This mismatch may be linked to  
327 the isolated or interaction effect of two factors: the variation in environmental contexts of FSC  
328 areas, and the wide divergence of FSC implementation practices, as showed by Keskitalo et al.  
329 (2009), which illustrates that the national infrastructure and market characteristics, results in  
330 significant differences in the impact of FSC at the local level. Such variation can make the  
331 generalization of FSC effects on the biodiversity patterns a challenging task (Panlasigui et al.,  
332 2018). In general, most studies included in our review quantified the FSC impact using a  
333 community measure (e.g., average species abundance), whereas in the meta-analysis we used the  
334 metrics for each species, which may influence the FSC effectiveness pattern, since species may  
335 respond differently to the forestry scheme (Lõhmus and Kraut, 2010), and estimating community  
336 metrics may mask species individual effects. This overall neutral effect on abundance may  
337 indicate that the FSC-certified areas and the management measures applied do not promote the  
338 overall species abundance when compared to non-certified areas. Even in certified concessions,  
339 forest loss and anthropogenic disturbance are inevitable due to road construction, logging, and  
340 logging camps (Burivalova et al., 2017). Furthermore, as far as we know, there is no indication  
341 of the permitted rate of forest loss for an FSC-certified concession, thus, it may be possible that  
342 in some regions the intensity, volume, and area of logging are similar in certified and non-certified

343 areas (Blumroeder et al., 2019; Medjibe et al., 2013). Thus, the possible absence of differences in  
344 these forestry metrics may influence the abundance of the studied taxa in our meta-analysis.

345

#### 346 **4.1 Vascular Plant Responses to Forest Certification**

347 The abundance and vascular plant species richness, in areas certified with the FSC schemes, tend  
348 to be higher when compared to uncertified areas, despite the high variability in our data. The FSC  
349 scheme imposes a management of forests, either natural and production forests, guided by well-  
350 defined criteria concerning the vegetation dimension of management. For example, criteria 6.8  
351 highlights that management units must be regulated to maintain and/or restore a varying mosaic  
352 of species, sizes, ages, spatial scales, and regeneration cycles appropriate for the landscape values  
353 in that region; and criteria 10.2 determines that concessions shall use native species and local  
354 genotypes for regeneration. Thus, by complying with these criteria, managers assure that  
355 plantations aligned with FCS criteria are having a positive effect on native vascular plant  
356 communities, by contributing to greater abundances and species richness in FSC areas when  
357 compared to non-certified forestry areas.

358 Furthermore, different types of vegetation, e.g., seedlings, shrubs, and trees, respond differently  
359 to FSC certification management. Shrubs and trees benefit from the management of forest  
360 certification and present higher abundances in FSC concessions. These results may be linked to  
361 the fact that areas managed competently through the FSC scheme must maintain and/or restore  
362 mosaics of different species/sizes for enhancing environmental and economic resilience (criterion  
363 6.4 FSC; FSC, 2015). The same pattern was detected in several studies, where the abundance and  
364 richness of adult trees of different sizes were positively influenced by certification (Kalonga et  
365 al., 2016; Schaaf et al., 2020). Seedling's abundance effect sizes had variances that overlapped  
366 zero, suggesting FSC had no effect on this initial phase of plant's life cycle, or it was highly  
367 variable and uncertain. Concession deprived of sustainable use of forest resources under FSC  
368 scheme present also lower species richness (Blumroeder et al., 2019). We believe that the detected

369 patterns are linked to the production forest commercial objective. The priority of the concession  
370 is timber exploration, and therefore, optimize profit. In such context, and without a sustainability  
371 perspective introduced into management by FSC it is expected that managers will prioritize within  
372 productions species that enhance profit (e.g., through timber extraction), and remove most of  
373 those that may compete for resources (e.g., space, light, nutrients, water), thus lowering species  
374 richness and abundances.

375

#### 376 **4.2 Mammals' Responses to Forest Certification**

377 FSC-certified concessions when compared to uncertified stands. Mammals have different  
378 ecological traits, which may imply different responses to forestry activities and therefore, forest  
379 management (Carvalho et al., 2021; Tobler et al., 2018). We observed that small mammals (i.e.,  
380 body mass  $\leq 5$  kg), omnivores, and species included in least concern, vulnerable and endangered  
381 IUCN Red List categories reached higher abundances in certified forests when compared to  
382 populations inhabiting uncertified areas.

383 FSC certification requires that at least 10 % of the management unit is predominantly managed  
384 for biodiversity conservation (hereafter conservation zones; Tollefson et al., 2009). According to  
385 criterion 6.4, the conservation zones within the management unit shall protect rare and threatened  
386 species and their habitats (FSC, 2015). Conservation zones promote tree regeneration and shrubs  
387 diversity (Dias et al., 2016), which are crucial covariates for supporting functional small mammal  
388 communities (Afonso et al., 2021; Gonçalves et al., 2012), as well as threatened species (Penton  
389 et al., 2021). Thus, these conservation zones within FSC management units may provide sufficient  
390 habitat (including food and refuge resources) to increase the areas' carrying capacity in regions  
391 governed by logging activities, thus playing an important role in small mammals' well-supported  
392 communities (i.e., least concern species), and for threatened species. Moreover, FSC fosters  
393 habitat heterogeneity, especially inside conservation zones (Mexia et al., 2022). This  
394 heterogeneity might increase the food resources (Stein et al., 2014) and opportunities for

395 omnivore species to achieve greater abundances (Denny et al., 2018) in FSC-certified concessions  
396 compared to uncertified regions. These results seem to confirm that criterion 6.4 is being fulfilled,  
397 leastways for the mammalian species inhabiting the study areas included in our meta-analysis.

398 This meta-analysis also indicated that mammals with a carnivorous diet and arboreal locomotion  
399 has lower abundances in certified areas when compared to non-certified areas. This result  
400 contradicts some studies that demonstrated that certification and competent management can  
401 benefit carnivores (e.g., jaguar, Tobler et al., 2018). We believe that this mismatch may be  
402 associated with the studies' methodological design. Our study includes 11 carnivore species,  
403 mostly over 10 kg (e.g., Leopard, African golden cat, Clouded leopard; Table S2). These species  
404 have greater home ranges and dispersal distances (Ofstad et al., 2016; Sutherland et al., 2000),  
405 and are often resilient to highly disturbed forests (Gardner et al., 2010). Most studies sampling  
406 designs did not assure spatial independence of the study areas, and therefore the FSC  
407 certified/non-certified areas are often contiguous in space. In such a spatial context is legitim to  
408 consider that these species individuals manage to use more than one area within the study period.

409 In addition, some studies were located nearby natural areas (e.g., Natural Parks, and Nature  
410 Reserves) that surrounded the logging concessions, making it possible for medium-sized  
411 mammals to use undisturbed areas more regularly. Therefore, these results need to be interpreted  
412 with caution, as these species could have been more detected in non-certified areas due to the  
413 study design and spatial ecology of the species (i.e., home range size, dispersal distance) and the  
414 landscape spatial structure. The negative effect of certification on the abundance of species with  
415 arboreal locomotion might be related to the lack of difference in harvesting disturbance between  
416 the two contexts. For most studies no difference was found between the harvested area and  
417 volume intensity of the FSC certified and uncertified areas (Imai et al., 2009; Sollmann et al.,  
418 2017). This absence of differences in disturbance scale does not imply that the FSC areas are not  
419 implementing their environmental management properly. It might indicate that the uncertified  
420 areas used in these studies have management schemes comparable to the FSC-certified areas.

421 Hence, uncertified areas may provide equally suitable resources for arboreal species to thrive in  
422 logging concessions not using FSC certification.

423

#### 424 **4.3 Study limitations**

425 Our literature study exhibited a taxa and species trait-specific effect of FSC certification. This  
426 pattern may be linked to the fact that ecological communities encompass a wide variety of  
427 populations, with very different ecological adaptations. Thus, researchers use community metrics  
428 that allow easier comparison between communities (e.g., species richness and/or relative  
429 abundance), but that may do not entirely address the complex nature of communities (Dornelas  
430 et al., 2011). Species presence and abundance may say little about how populations persist (i.e.,  
431 survive and produce viable offspring) and to which extent they are affected by forestry activities  
432 and certification. High dispersal rates may generate a mismatch between species  
433 occurrence/abundance patterns and the ecological importance of the habitat (i.e. source-sink  
434 dynamics; Guisan and Thuiller, 2005). Additionally, specialist species with narrower niches,  
435 living in low abundances and usually across a limited distribution range, remain often undetected,  
436 or underestimated by the biodiversity indexes used in this meta-analysis. As specialist species  
437 tend to be more prone to changes and disturbances in the landscape (Sverdrup-Thygeson et al.,  
438 2017), missing their contribution to biodiversity indexes might underestimate the actual impact  
439 of disturbance. Thus, species presence/abundance in concessions should not be viewed as a sole  
440 surrogate of a suitable management regime, and factors such as habitat/resource use patterns and  
441 fitness could be valuable complementary monitoring metrics (Martínez-Abraín et al., 2010;  
442 Teixeira et al., 2019).

443 Furthermore, these metrics may be affected by temporal phenomena (e.g., reproduction,  
444 dispersion), as most studies included in our metaanalysis sampled communities over a short  
445 period of time. For example, it has been described that before a population collapse, the  
446 abundance and species richness may experience an increase (Pálinkás and Hufnagel, 2021), which

447 may lead to an incorrect evaluation of their biodiversity status. Since human forestry activities in  
448 concessions that can have a negative effect on species abundance and richness (Chaudhary et al.,  
449 2016), have also a seasonal/yearly character linked to the production cycle (tree thinning/  
450 harvesting; Elkin et al., 2015; Timo et al., 2014), future studies must incorporate a multi-season  
451 approach to encompass these phenomena in the assessment of biodiversity indexes.

452

#### 453 **4.4 FSC Limitations & Recommendations**

454 The FSC's limited effectiveness in safeguarding and promoting biodiversity was highlighted  
455 throughout our work, as in other studies worldwide (Burivalova et al., 2019; Blumroeder et al.,  
456 2018, 2019). This inadequacy may result in a loss of biodiversity in several ecosystems around  
457 the world, with detrimental effects on the ecosystem functionality (Blumroeder et al., 2019).

458 The way FSC's environmental criteria are defined, quantified, and especially complied, is often  
459 poorly formulated, which may lead to inaccurate interpretation (Blumroeder et al., 2018).  
460 According to the FSC principle 8, FSC concessions are required to demonstrate that progress  
461 toward achieving the management objectives, the impacts of management activities, and the  
462 condition of the management unit, are monitored and evaluated proportionate to the scale,  
463 intensity, and risk of management activities, in order to implement adaptive management.  
464 However, to determine whether the management is FSC-efficient, is pivotal to define a precise  
465 and unambiguous evaluation metric that should be compared to the patterns estimated for  
466 uncertified concessions as well as a non-managed system (e.g. native habitat), as proposed by  
467 (Elbakidze et al., 2011). Accordingly, we suggest that the creation of a standard evaluation  
468 protocol, which allows quantifying the effectiveness of FSC applying measures such as  
469 abundance and species richness, using uncertified and non-managed regions as a comparison  
470 method, would be extremely vital for reliable insight into FSC certification worldwide.  
471 Nevertheless, our review showed that very few studies have adopted this approach.

472 The disagreement over the conservational value of tree plantations is in part related to the  
473 reference ecosystem considered, such as primary forests (Wang et al., 2022). It has been reported  
474 that tree plantations imply a decrease in biodiversity when the reference ecosystems are primary  
475 forests (Gómez-González et al., 2020). However, it has also been stated that FSC-certified  
476 concessions revealed greater bird richness when compared to noncertified and reference sites  
477 (primary forests with no logging history) (Campos-Cerqueira et al., 2020). Hence, accurate  
478 casual-comparative design to evaluate the effects of the FSC scheme on biodiversity should  
479 require an evaluation across multitrophic levels and appropriate reference ecosystems (i.e., non-  
480 FSC concessions and unmanaged systems).

481 It is critical that FSC certification scheme enhance the criteria related to: 1) the monitoring plan -  
482 it is essential to include uncertified areas as a control to determine the real effect of the  
483 management actions, and 2) volume/area harvesting limit - to our knowledge, FSC does not  
484 indicate a limit to the harvesting area/volume within certified stands, as the scale of harvesting  
485 will induce different impacts on wildlife. Thus, we suggest that FSC should create a legal  
486 harvesting volume/area limit (lower than the national harvesting limit for timber extraction)  
487 equivalent to a fixed proportion of the concession's size. These criteria, if correctly applied, may  
488 play an important role in biodiversity conservation, especially in areas where logging is the main  
489 activity.

490

## 491 **5. Conclusion**

492 FSC certification scheme was accepted as a system for achieving at least 11 goals within the  
493 agenda of the Sustainable Development Goals (FSC, 2016), thus it is assumed to be effective and  
494 reliable regarding biodiversity conservation and human wellbeing. However, our results suggest  
495 that there is no clear difference between the abundance of most taxa in FSC concessions compared  
496 to concessions deprived of ecologically responsible harvesting, i.e., uncertified stands. Our  
497 findings also highlight that further research is still needed. There are taxa that were not

498 represented in our meta-analyses and that provide important ecosystem services and play crucial  
499 functional roles in ecosystems, such as invertebrates and aquatic fauna, evidencing gaps in  
500 knowledge. Moreover, given the divergent responses between taxa and species highlighted in our  
501 study, our meta-analysis emphasizes that prescribing a one-size-fits-all approach to managing  
502 biodiversity conservation could potentially have negative biodiversity outcomes. Finally, our  
503 results support the need to adapt some of the FSC criteria that mitigate forest activities and  
504 improve biodiversity conservation, to enhance the efficacy of this certification scheme for all taxa,  
505 at an international level. Without a full evidence base proving scientifically solid data of the  
506 benefits of FSC for biodiversity, decision-makers may be still reluctant to adopt and encourage  
507 advances in forestry practice toward environmentally sustainable production. Knowing that  
508 responsible management is likely to be fundamental to the long-term sustainability of production  
509 forests (Bicknell et al., 2015), our results clearly show that more research is needed to improve  
510 forestry practices and the assessment of biodiversity conservation management actions.

511

#### 512 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

513 Gonçalo Matias: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing –  
514 original draft. Francesca Cagnacci: Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Supervision.  
515 Luís Miguel Rosalino: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review & editing,  
516 Supervision, Funding acquisition.

517

#### 518 **Declaration of competing interest**

519 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
520 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

521

522

523 **Data availability**

524 The data used in this article is available on figshare  
525 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23635815>) Data for Matias et al. "FSC forest certification  
526 effects on biodiversity: a global review and meta-analysis" (Original data)

527

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534

535 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

536 Supplementary data to this article can be found online at  
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538

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