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Efficiency of small-scale firewood processing operations in Southern Europe

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(Article begins on next page)

1 Efficiency and cost of firewood processing technology and 2 techniques

3

4 Abstract

The study determined the performance of small-scale commercial 5 firewood processing operations under the typical work conditions of 6 southern Europe. In particular, five units were tested, fed with the same 7 2.1-m long beech logs. All machines were tested with sorted and unsorted 8 logs. Productivity varied between 1.1 and 2.1 t h⁻¹, and cost between 20 9 and $39 \in t^1$. There were significant differences between machines, which 10 may partly be attributed to operator effect. Feeding the machines with 11 sorted logs has a strong and significant effect on the productivity of all 12 machines on test, increasing production by 40% and reducing cost by 13 34%. Fuel use varied between 1.3 and 2.8 l t⁻¹. The energy balance was 14 always very favourable. The ration between output and input was never 15 smaller than 59 and peaked at 130. In other words, processing required 16 17 about 1% of the energy contained in the firewood - or 1.7% in the worst case. The productivity figures reported in this experiment were much lower 18 than reported for northern Europe, which seems to confirm the significant 19 effect of regional work conditions - especially different wood species - on 20 firewood processing performance. 21

22

23 Keywords: biomass, energy, productivity, forestry, beech

25 Introduction

The global consumption of firewood is estimated at over 1.5 billion m³ per 26 year (Parikka 2004). Use is especially intense in the developing countries, 27 where it accounts for 80% of the total supply of primary energy (Keam and 28 (McCormick 2008). India uses about 300 million m³ of firewood per year, 29 and China over 180 million m³ (Eurostat 2013). However, traditional 30 chopped firewood is still widely used in all industrialised countries, 31 especially in rural areas (Lillemo and Halvorsen 2013). Here, firewood was 32 never been completely supplanted by fossil fuels and it enjoyed a revival 33 in recent years with the increasingly severe oil crisis (Warsco 1994). In 34 fact, Europe still uses more traditional firewood than any other industrial 35 energy wood product (Nybakk et al. 2003). Although refined solid biofuels 36 (e.g. pellets and briquettes) are increasingly popular in Europe, their 37 consumption is still minor compared to traditional firewood (Trømborg et 38 al. 2008). In modern countries like Finland, Norway and Sweden firewood 39 still satisfies between 20 and 25% of the heating needs of detached 40 households (Halder et al. 2010, Lindroos 2011, Statistic Norway 2013) and 41 hovers around 5 million m³ per year and country. Firewood consumption is 42 even higher further south. It reaches 22 million m³ in France (Elyakime 43 and Cabanettes 2013) and 18 million tonnes in Italy (Caserini et al. 2008). 44 Overall, modern Europe still uses over 100 million solid m³ of firewood per 45 year, about twice as much as Canada and the US together (FAO 2007). 46 What is more, available statistics may be underestimating the size of the 47 traditional firewood market, where transaction often go unrecorded. 48

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50 Compared to other fuel types, traditional chopped firewood benefits from 51 decentralised availability and a very simple production process. Once logs 52 are extracted from the forest, fuel preparation only requires cross-cutting 53 and splitting (Lindroos 2008). That allows manufacturing at a local level by 54 individuals and small-businesses, even on a part-time basis. As a result, 55 the production of firewood is often a small-scale activity run by farmers,

forest owners and small rural entrepreneurs (Kärhä and Jouhiaho 2009). 56 In Finland, the average firewood producer runs a part-time operation 57 processing between 50 and 150 m³ of firewood per year (Seppänen and 58 Kärhä 2003). Larger industrial operations are found in Italy, but even there 59 the average company is quite small (Spinelli et al. 2013). For this reason, 60 firewood production is important to rural development and forest 61 management, especially where coppice forests are prevalent (Lasserre et 62 <mark>al. 2011)</mark>. 63

64

65 However economically and socially efficient, the dominance of diffused small-scale rural companies implies a very limited capacity to attract 66 67 interest from all major actors in the technology development sector. Firewood producers are so small to be virtually invisible, and they can 68 neither fund research nor leverage substantial political support for R&D in 69 the area. So far, there has been little research on traditional firewood. 70 None of the major bioenergy conferences held in Europe during the last 71 decade have addressed the future of traditional firewood (Nybakk et al. 72 <mark>2013</mark>). 73

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In particular, firewood processing has received the least attention, possibly 75 because it is considered a very simple operation, with little potential for 76 dramatic improvement. The large productivity variation between existing 77 systems is a good witness to the contrary (Lindroos 2008), while the high 78 frequency of work accidents highlights the urgent need for further 79 development (Lindroos et al. 2008, Owen and Hunter 1993). Firewood 80 processing cost could be further reduced through improved technology 81 and work techniques, thus making firewood production safer and more 82 competitive than it currently is (Nybakk et al. 2013). At present, all the few 83 recent studies on firewood processing performance come from Nordic 84 Europe (Lindroos 2008, Kärhä and Jouhiaho 2009). Looking further back, 85 86 one finds more Nordic studies (Björheden 1989, Ryynänen and Turkkila

1982, Swartström 1986). These are very good studies, but they cannot 87 represent Europe as a whole. The work conditions encountered in Nordic 88 countries are much different from those of Central and Southern Europe, 89 90 where firewood production is much larger (Eurostat 2013). The main difference is with species, which are generally denser and harder following 91 a southern gradient. In northern Europe, firewood is obtained from birch, 92 pine and spruce, while beech, oak and hornbeam are dominant further 93 94 south. These species have dramatically different characteristics (Table 1). Additional differences concern log length, which ranges from 2 to 6 m in 95 96 northern Europe, and from 1 to 2 m in southern Europe, due to the different extraction methods (Magagnotti et al. 2012, Zimbalatti and Proto 97 98 2009).

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Therefore, the goal of this study was to determine the performance of commercial firewood processing operations under the typical work conditions of southern Europe. In particular, we endeavoured to determine the productivity, cost and energy use of firewood processing with a range of different machines, under two different work techniques.

105

106 Materials and methods

Firewood processing trials were conducted in Piemonte, north-western 107 Italy. The authors identified 5 commercial operations, run by rural 108 109 entrepreneurs and considered representative of the small-scale commercial operations of southern Europe. The sample represented a 110 wide range of small-scale firewood processing equipment, specifically 111 designed for crosscutting and splitting firewood logs into stove wood. The 112 main differences between the models on test were in the crosscutting 113 device and the splitting force, the latter always exerted through a hydraulic 114 wedge device. All the main crosscutting devices were represented, 115 including disc saw, chainsaw and band saw (Table 2). Crosscut pieces 116 117 were automatically moved to the splitter, except for the band saw unit,

118 where the cut piece was manually positioned onto the splitter plate. This specific machine adopted an older traditional design, and was served by 119 two operators instead of one. All other machines were served by one 120 121 operator only, since the cross-cutting/splitting sequence was automatic. All firewood processors were powered by old farm tractors, through the 122 tractor's power take-off. Semi-stationary use at a log yard does not require 123 124 a new tractor. Anything goes, as long as the engine and the power take-off 125 are still in good shape. Resorting to an old tractor allows a dramatic reduction of investment cost, which is especially important for small-scale 126 127 rural companies.

128

At the time of the study, all machines were fed with 2.1 m long beech logs, which they processed into 35 cm long split stove wood. Processed wood was semi-fresh, with a moisture content between 35 and 40%. All machines were operated by experienced professionals, who had run them for several years and knew them well. These operators were reputed as reliable and motivated, as they were the companies' owners or co-owners.

Machines were observed while working at the company's log yard. The 136 study compared two different work techniques, with and without 137 preliminary sorting. In the sorted treatment, the machines were fed with 138 selected logs with a small-end diameter between 18 and 25 cm. In the 139 140 unsorted treatment, the same machines were fed with a mix of small and large logs, with a small-end diameter between 8 and 30 cm. All machines 141 142 were equipped with rubber-belt conveyors and discharged their product into bin trailers. Each repetition consisted of a full 8-hour work day. Each 143 combination of machine and technique was replicated three times, for a 144 total of 30 replications, or 30 work days. 145

146

147 The experiment consisted of a typical time and motion study (Magagnotti 148 and Spinelli 2012). Work time was determined with stop watches,

including all delays up to a maximum duration of 30 minutes (Spinelli and
Visser 2009). Meal time was excluded from the records. Firewood output
was determined by taking all bin trailers to the certified weighbridge
available at the log yard.

153

154 Machine costs were estimated with the method developed within COST Action FP0902 (Eliasson 2013). Machine owners provided their own 155 estimates for fuel consumption, insurance cost and maintenance cost. 156 Machine owners also declared an annual production between 300 and 157 158 1200 tons, which was used to estimate a mean annual usage of 500 hours. Labour cost was assumed to be 15 € per hour, inclusive of indirect 159 160 salary costs. The calculated operational cost of all teams was increased by 20% to account for overhead costs (Hartsough 2003). Further detail on 161 cost calculations is shown in Table 3. 162

163

Both direct and indirect fossil energy use were estimated, reflecting the 164 same principles followed by Pellizzi (1992) in his energy analysis of Italian 165 agriculture. Direct energy use was estimated by multiplying the measured 166 diesel consumption by the energy content of 37 MJ I^{-1} (Bailey et al. 2003), 167 and then inflating this value by 1.2 in order to account for the additional 168 fossil energy used in the production, transportation and distribution of 169 diesel fuel (Pellizzi 1992). The indirect use represented by machine 170 manufacture, repair and maintenance was estimated as 44 % of direct 171 energy use (Mikkola and Ahokas 2010). No allowance was made for the 172 embedded energy of a barn for housing the machines, on the assumption 173 that machines used in forestry often rest outdoors, or under very simple 174 makeshift structures, with a negligible energy content. Results are shown 175 in Table 3. The energy content of beech firewood with a 38% moisture 176 content was estimated at 10520 MJ t⁻¹, using the methods reported by 177 Magagnotti and Spinelli (2012). 178

Data were analyzed with the Statview advanced statistics software (SAS 181 1999). Since data distribution violated the normality assumption, the 182 statistical significance of the eventual differences between machine 183 models was tested with Scheffe's test, which is particularly robust against 184 such violation. The significance of differences between work techniques 185 (sorted vs. unsorted) was tested with the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, 186 which is the non-parametric equivalent of the standard paired t-test.

187

188 **Results**

189 All machines were simple and relatively inexpensive, as appropriate for adoption by small-scale entrepreneurs (Table 3). Using second-hand farm 190 191 tractors gave a further contribution to containing capital outlay, which was 192 slightly higher than 30,000 € at most. That was particularly important in view of the low annual usage, estimated at 500 h per year. Machine rates 193 varied between 36 and 45 \in h⁻¹, including a 20% overhead surcharge. 194 Labour cost was a major contributor to machine rate, accounting for about 195 50% of the total (Figure 1). In contrast, fuel and lubricant represented less 196 than 15% of total cost, even if none of the operators used tax-free red 197 diesel, reserved to farmers. 198

199

Productivity varied between 1.1 and 2.1 t h⁻¹ (Table 4). Both Pezzolato 200 machines were significantly more productive than the others, regardless of 201 work technique. As an average, productivity increased by 40% when 202 working with sorted logs, rather than unsorted logs. In fact, different 203 machines had different sensitivity to work technique. The Pezzolato 750TL 204 had the lowest sensitivity, because it was specifically designed for 205 processing multiple logs. That reduced the effect of small log handling and 206 minimized sensitivity to sorting, which still allowed a 24% productivity 207 increase. In any case, the effect of log sorting was highly significant 208 (Wilcoxon Signed Rank test, p = 0.0007). 209

Processing cost ranged from 20 to 39 \in t¹. The BGU, Posch and 211 Pezzolato A800 operations incurred significantly higher cost than the other 212 operations, regardless of work technique. Lower productivity and relatively 213 214 high capital cost can explain the result for BGU and Posch. As to Pezzolato A800, the higher cost was explained by its larger crew: the 215 increased labour cost was not fully offset by the higher productivity, 216 resulting in a relatively high processing cost per product unit. Work 217 technique had a highly significant effect on processing cost (Wilcoxon 218 Signed Rank test, p = 0.0007). Sorting logs before processing allowed 219 saving between 5 and 13 \in t¹, or between 20 and 34% of the original cost 220 incurred when processing unsorted logs. 221

222

Fuel use varied between 1.3 and 2.8 I t⁻¹. The machines on test were divided in two groups: BGU and Posch belonged to the first group, with a mean fuel use of 1.9 I t^{-1} (sorted) and 2.6 I t⁻¹ (unsorted); Gandini and the two Pezzolatos belonged to the second group, with a mean fuel use of 1.3 I t⁻¹ (sorted) and 1.8 I t⁻¹ (unsorted). Working technique had the same effect and significance as recorded for processing cost, being calculated exactly the same way.

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The energy balance was always very favourable. The ration between output and input was never smaller than 59 and peaked at 130 (Figure 2). In other words, processing required about 1% of the energy contained in the firewood - or 1.7% in the worst case. Sorting increased the overall energy efficiency by 40%.

236

237 Discussion

Despite the significant individual differences, the productivity of all machines on test is comparable, and no machine is dramatically outclassing the others. That was expected, since all machines were fed with the same assortment types, they cut the same stove wood length and

they belonged to the same machine size class. Radically different results 242 may have resulted from comparing small-scale with industrial firewood 243 processor, or from feeding different machines with different assortments. 244 245 Different operator performance may account for part of that variability, as already shown by Lindroos (2008) specifically for firewood processing. 246 Therefore, we may generalize the results of this study to some extent, and 247 state that the productivity of small-scale firewood processors used under 248 249 southern European conditions commonly varies between 1 and 2 fresh tonnes per hour. 250

251

Such figures are much lower than reported for northern Europe by Kärhä 252 and Jouhiaho (2009), who indicate a productivity range between 4 and 6 253 m³ h⁻¹ for machines in the same size class. Part of the difference can be 254 explained by the different measurement units used in the study. Kärhä and 255 Jouhiaho (2009) used cubic meters instead of tons, and net work hours 256 instead of scheduled hours. One cubic meter of spruce or birch is much 257 lighter that a ton, which may reduce the difference between northern and 258 southern figures. What is more, the Nordic productivity figures were 259 inflated by the absence of any delay time in the divider. In contrast, our 260 study included delays up to a maximum duration of 30 minutes, which 261 reduced the final productivity estimate. However, such methodology 262 differences cannot fully account for a factor 3 difference in productivity 263 levels. Therefore, this study seems to confirm the significant effect of 264 regional work conditions on firewood processing performance, as it was 265 hypothesized in the introduction of this paper, and indicated by the same 266 Kärhä and Jouhiaho (2009) in their most interesting study of Nordic 267 firewood processors. Productivity differences are the main reason for the 268 much lower processing cost found in the Nordic study (ca. $10 \in t^1$), since 269 our labour cost and annual utilization assumptions are very near to those 270 made by the Nordic colleagues. 271

272

Work technique has a powerful effect on productivity, which was also 273 found earlier on by Lindroos (2008), although not to as strong as here (ca. 274 20% instead of 40%). The potential gains obtained through log selection 275 raise the important issue of product strategy, and namely: whether it is 276 best to convert all logs into firewood, or rather divide them between 277 firewood and chip production, through integrated harvesting. In the latter 278 case, logs in the ideal size class range could be used for firewood 279 production, while smaller logs could be diverted to chip production. 280 Processing of more logs in a single batch (i.e. mass handling) may make 281 282 chipping more efficient than firewood processing when dealing with small logs. Even small chippers manually fed with small logs can exceed the 283 productivity of 1 t h⁻¹ reached by the firewood processor under the same 284 conditions (Spinelli and Magagnotti 2010). However, a chipper incurs a 285 higher investment cost and fuel use, which may partly offset the 286 productivity gain over a firewood processor. A desk calculation performed 287 with the Chipcost calculator (Spinelli and Hartsough 2001) allowed 288 estimating the chipping cost of smaller logs as used in this study (diameter 289 10 cm, length 2.1 m) at $38 \in t^1$, which is about the same cost sustained for 290 turning them into stove wood. 291

292

Nor is fuel efficiency much higher for any of the two options, i.e. firewood or chips. A small scale chipper for rural contractors can use between 1.5 and 2.5 I of diesel per ton of chips (Spinelli and Magagnotti 2013), which overlaps quite well with the 1.3-2.8 I t⁻¹ range found here for the firewood processors.

298

We do not deny the potential of product strategy in optimizing biomass operations, but we need to highlight that no option is overwhelmingly superior to the other. Therefore, choosing the best alternative requires exact knowledge of the specific work conditions and some fine-tuning of all operational aspects. At this stage, the only thing one can safely state is that chip production is preferable whenever dealing with the abundant
 species that cannot be marketed as firewood, such as alder, poplar, willow
 and most softwoods in Southern Europe.

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Energy efficiency is very high, and in the same order of magnitude recorded for chip production chains (Timmons and Viteri-Mejia 2010, Marchi et al. 2011) after accounting for the different system boundaries considered in these studies. That should ease concerns about the energy performance of traditional firewood production chains.

313

Finally, we need to stress that this work focused on small-scale firewood processors rather than on larger industrial units. The latter are widespread all over Europe and are much more productive and expensive to purchase. These are stationary or semi-stationary plants, generally powered by electric motors and designed for advanced automation. Their performance should be investigated with further studies in the near future.

320

321 Conclusions

Small-scale firewood processor contain some level of automation and are 322 relatively inexpensive, which allows purchase by small-scale companies. 323 However, productivity is relatively low, which results in a high processing 324 cost. Feeding firewood processors with sorted logs is a good way to boost 325 productivity and contain processing cost. Such technique is especially 326 effective with simpler machines, designed for processing one log at a time. 327 328 Larger units that can handle multiple logs are less sensitive to sorting. Wood species may have a strong effect on productivity, possibly 329 explaining the differences between the northern and the southern 330 productivity figures. Energy efficient is very high, with the processing work 331 requiring a very small proportion of the total energy contained in the 332 firewood. 333

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Table 1 – *Physical characteristics of some tree species used for firewood*

Common name	Latin Name	Density at	Compression	Shear	Bending	Modulus of
		15% mc	strenght	strenght	strength	elasticity
		kg m⁻³	N mm ⁻²	N mm ⁻²	N mm ⁻²	N mm ⁻²
Norway spruce	Picea abies Karst.	450	38	6.5	73	15000
Scots pine	Pinus silvestris L.	550	45	7.6	97	13750
Birch	Betula alba L.	650	59	6.0	120	13000
Beech	Fagus sylvatica L.	730	61	8.0	118	14700
Common oak	Quercus robur L.	820	61	9.8	108	12500
Hornbeam	Ostrya carpinifolia Scop.	820	48	8.5	133	12560
493	Note	e: from <mark>G. Gior</mark>	<mark>dano 1986</mark>			
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 Table 2 – Main characteristics of the machines on test

Make		BGU	Gandini	Pezzolato	Pezzolato	Posch
Model		SSA 310	Forest Cut 45	TL750	800	Spaltfix 320
Power source	type	Tractor	Tractor	Tractor	Tractor	Tractor
Tractor power	kW	35	35	33	37	44
Cutter	type	Disc	Chainsaw	Disc	Band	Disc
Cut capacity	cm	30	35	28	40	32
Splitter	type	Hydraulic	Hydraulic	Hydraulic	Hydraulic	Hydraulic
Splitter	travel	Horizontal	Horizontal	Horizontal	Vertical	Horizontal
Splitter	power	11	11	11	12	15
Transfer	type	Gravity	Gravity	Kicker	Manual	Gravity
Weight	kg	900	750	900	700	1450
Operators	n°	1	1	1	2	1
Price	€	12,700	9,200	16,500	8,500	22,000

507 Note: data obtained from the manufacturers; transfer = method for transferring cut log

508 portions to the splitter

 Table 3 – Costing and energy use: assumptions and total figures

Make		BGU	Gandini	Pezzolato	Pezzolato	Posch	
Model		SSA 310	Forest Cut	TL750	800 A	Spaltfix 320	
Investment	€	21,700	18,200	24,000	17,500	32,000	
Resale (20%)	€	4,340	3,640	4,800	3,500	6,400	
Service life	years	10	10	10	10	10	
Utilization	h year ⁻¹	500	500	500	500	500	
Interest rate	%	4%	4%	4%	4%	4%	
Depreciation	€ year ¹	1,736	1,456	1,920	1,400	2,560	
Interests	€ year ¹	556	466	614	448	819	
Insurance	€ year ¹	2,500	1,922	2,500	2,500	2,500	
Diesel	€ year ¹	1929	1929	1819	2040	2426	
Lube	€ year ¹	193	193	182	204	243	
Maintenance	€ year ¹	1736	1456	1920	1400	2560	
Total	€ year ¹	8,650	7,422	8,955	7,992	11,107	
Total	€ h ⁻¹	17.3	14.8	17.9	16.0	22.2	
Crew	n.	1	1	1	1	1	
Labour	€ h ⁻¹	15	15	15	15	15	
Overheads (20%)	€ h ⁻¹	6.5	6.0	6.6	6.2	7.4	
Machine rate	€ h ⁻¹	38.8	35.8	39.5	37.2	44.7	
Energy inputs							
Direct	MJ h ⁻¹	114	114	108	121	144	
Indirect	MJ h ⁻¹	50	50	47	53	63	
Total	MJ h ⁻¹	164	164	155	174	207	

Note: ; Cost in Euro (€) as on November 22, 2013 - 1 € = 135 US\$; *investment cost also*

includes the purchase of an old farm tractor, at a price between 7500 and 10000 € depending on rated engine power; all machines use standard diesel fuel, and not tax-free

diesel for agricultural use; h = Scheduled hours, including delays

Table 4 – Firewood processing productivity and cost							
Make	Model	Model Unsorted Sorted					
	Product	ivity (t h⁻¹)					
BGU	SSA 310	1.05 ^a	1.47 ^a	40			
Gandini	Forest Cut 45	1.31 ^{bc}	1.86 ^b	42			
Pezzolato	TL750	1.45 ^c	1.80 ^b	24			
Pezzolato	A 800	1.42 ^c	2.15 ^c	51			
Posch	Spaltfix 320	1.16 ^a	1.58 ^a	36			
	Processin	g cost (€ f ¹)				
BGU	SSA 310	37.0 ^a	26.6 ^a	-28			
Gandini	Forest Cut 45	28.5 ^b	20.0 ^b	-30			
Pezzolato	TL750	27.4 ^b	22.0 ^{bc}	-20			
Pezzolato	A 800	39.0 ^c	25.7 ^c	-34			
Posch	Spaltfix 320	38.5 ^{ac}	28.3 ^a	-26			

Note: t = fresh tons, with a 38% moisture content; h = scheduled hour, inclusive of delays; different superscript letter along the same column indicate that the differences between mean values are statistically significant at the 5% level, according to Scheffe's post-hoc

test; differences between values on the same row (i.e. unsorted vs. sorted) are

statistically significant at the 5% level according to the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test.

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Figure 1– Breakdown of equipment cost by main cost items
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