

# 9 CERTIFICATION AND LABELLING

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<b>Acknowledgements:</b>	Melanie Chatreaux, Nigel Dudley, Grit Ludwig, Alice Ruhweza, Anne Teller, Frank Wätzold
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## Content of this chapter

9.1 Incentives for Ecosystem Service and Biodiversity Conservation .....	162
9.2 How Do Certification and Labelling Work? .....	164
9.3 The Role of Local Policy in Certification .....	165
9.4 Potential Pitfalls and Challenges of Labelling and Certification .....	169
9.5 Action Points: Local Policy Makers Engaging in Certification .....	170
For further information .....	171

## Key Messages

- **Labels inform.** Labelling can highlight ecosystem services connected with particular products. They provide the opportunity for consumers to choose products that maximise environmental and social benefits.
- **Certification assures.** By setting and ensuring standards certification provides a credible guarantee, that goods and services have been produced in a sustainable way. This helps to ensure the flow of ecosystem services for local development.
- **Labels pay.** Certified products sometimes achieve a significant price premium; even if not certification can help to ensure improved market access, increased market share or improved reputation.
- **Labels create common ground.** The process of working together with other stakeholders in finding appropriate standards and working towards certification can help local actors to jointly address ecosystem services.
- **Choose your own path.** Local governments, NGOs have many different options to support local business through certification and labelling. They can inform, support, participate or develop their own schemes.

This chapter gives an overview of certification and labelling. It defines certification and discusses its role as an instrument for sustainable resource manage-

ment. It outlines how certification can be supported and implemented, drawing from several regional and globally based schemes.

## 9.1 INCENTIVES FOR ECOSYSTEM SERVICE AND BIODIVERSITY CONSERVATION

For many people, nature has important cultural and spiritual →*value*. In addition, →*ecosystem* services such as clean water, food production and forest →*resources* are necessary to the long-term viability of local development – from agriculture to industry. These benefits, however, are often not immediately visible and therefore not reflected in the costs of many production processes. **Typically, markets do not distinguish between products by the ways in which they affect ecosystem services.** Producers who take extra care to ensure that they do not undermine →*ecosystem services* are unlikely to see this reflected in the value of their product; thus, incentives for sustainable production are often weak. As a result, the public, rather than the polluter, often bears the cost of pollution and over-exploitation.

This is changing however. Consumer decisions are now an increasingly powerful force in driving sustainable management, as a growing number of consumers are demanding goods that are produced in ways that protect ecosystem services and →*biodiversity*. Demand is growing for a range of sustainably produced products such as cosmetics, food and textiles. Consumers are also looking for products that are more resource-friendly, such as energy-saving electronics.

**Certification and labelling assist consumers to**

**make good choices in purchasing decisions.** They are effective instruments for producers who wish to communicate their efforts towards environmentally-friendly production.

The process of certification is usually linked with an exchange of knowledge. Producers learn about more sustainable methods. Certification organizations usually help to market products, such as organic meat, by informing consumers about the benefits of adhering to environmental standards or about the environmental and social costs associated with conventional production methods.

**Certification markets the benefits of ecosystem services and biodiversity.** Achieving certification of sustainable goods produced from a particular locality can help to secure market share and employment for a region. Local authorities can benefit directly from certification. For example, their reputation can be enhanced if they use certification schemes to create recreational areas, openings for →*public management* and opportunities for local producers. Equally, certification may improve the overall environmental appeal of a region, attracting tourists and other business. The exchange of information and adoption of standards can also increase productivity and lead to more efficient management practices. Environmental risks resulting from company operations can

### Box 9.1 Definitions

**Certification:** A procedure by which a third party gives written assurance that a product, process or service is in conformity with certain standards.

**Accreditation:** The evaluation and formal recognition of a certification programme by an authoritative body.

**Standard:** Documented agreements containing technical specifications or other precise criteria to be used consistently as rules, guidelines or definitions, to ensure that materials, products, processes and services are fit for their purpose. Standards include environmental standards; organic standards; labour standards; social standards; and normative standards.

**Label:** A label or symbol indicating that compliance with specific standards has been verified. Use of the label is usually controlled by the standard-setting body.

Source: FAO 2003

also be reduced. Further, certification standards often result in higher worker and external →*stakeholder* satisfaction, reducing the risk of criticism, boycotts and blockades in the case of otherwise controversial products (Araujo et al. 2009; Kooten et al. 2005).

For many reasons, **the shift towards sustainable production is usually costly**. For example, more expensive production processes and reduced harvests affect overall production expenses. Further costs may be borne by the producer for assessment and monitoring. In addition, the upfront cost of obtaining certification may be prohibitive, particularly for small-scale producers. For this reason, some certifiers and NGOs are searching for alternative non-third party certification or verification mechanisms for small-scale producers (see box 9.2 and 9.4). One example is Participatory Guarantee Systems (PGS), with approximately 10,000 small-scale farmers involved in over 20 countries worldwide. Farmers can establish their own democratic organization, deciding on which standards they want to follow and which verification procedures they would like to implement. The most significant operational cost for smallholders tends to be time spent developing and running the scheme. Time invested, however, leads to capacity building, empowerment and the protection of local biodiversity (TEEBcase Participatory Guarantee Systems for organic agriculture, India).

In some regions, certified products can be sold at a premium, helping local producers to defray certification costs and increase their profit. For example in Asia Pacific timber products can obtain premiums of more than 20% for industrial plantations (TEEBcase Benefits of Forest Certification, Solomon Islands). However, this premium can be negligible when the costs of certification are taken into account (Sedjo and Swallow 2002).

Even if certification does not lead to price premiums, there are **other economic arguments for certification**. Local businesses may choose to sell certified products in response to consumer demand or legislation (such as biomass in Germany), or in order to remain competitive. Certified timber does not necessarily get producers more money but allows them access to retailers and users who insist on certified products. In Wallonia one community lost PEFC (Programme for the Endorsement of Forest Certification, one alternative to FSC) certification in March 2010, because they did not succeed in managing the game population. Sawmills in the region now fear they will not be able to sell their products, because of the strong demand for certified products. Similar problems exist in surrounding communities, creating a strong incentive for them to fulfil standards and remain certified (Druez and Burgraff 2010).

### Box 9.2 Forest certification: benefiting local communities in Tanzania

In 2009 the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) awarded a certificate to two Tanzanian communities for community-managed natural forest in Africa. Villagers participating in the Mpingo Conservation Project have been able to develop sustainable forest management plans in accordance with Tanzania's system of Participatory Forest Management. This grants them secure tenure over the valuable timber resources. Certification helps consumers to differentiate between timber produced from well-managed community forests and illegally logged timber.

The timber (African blackwood or mpingo) is highly prized for making clarinets, oboes and bagpipes. Certification is anticipated to enable communities to earn more than US\$ 19 per log, compared to a previous US\$ 0.08. Central to the project's success is consumer demand for sustainably harvested timber (particularly from an international market), an important →*driver* for future community wood production in the country.

*Source: FSC Certification for maintaining ecosystem services, Tanzania. TEEBcase by Sara Oldfield (see TEEBweb.org)*



## 9.2 HOW DO CERTIFICATION AND LABELLING WORK?

Product labels inform customers about production methods and resource use as well as the environmental, social and cultural standards of a product or service. It is important that certification labels are recognizable, simple (but informative) and credible. For example, if a label claims organic production methods or ethical working conditions, this must be valid and verifiable. For this reason, certified producers undergo a **certification process to guarantee consumers that specified standards are fulfilled**. Certification is carried out by an independent third party.

Whether eco-labelling is relevant to the marketing of certified products depends on both the level of consumer awareness and consumer demand for

certified products. While consumers may care, people generally are neither able nor willing to give much time to understanding and reading labels. Many supermarket products carry multiple labels that often cover similar standards, but the overwhelming amount of information leads to confusion among consumers. → *Labels* are therefore kept simple, rarely communicating the full range of ecosystem services benefiting from certain production practices. Building consumer demand often relies on the involvement of ‘middlemen’, such as retailers and wholesalers. The functions of middlemen, which differ between industries, must be understood to be able to market certified products (Russillo et al. no date).

### Box 9.3 Standard setting process of the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil

The 'Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil' (RSPO) is a global, non-governmental multi-stakeholder initiative whose members include palm oil producers, retailers and environmental and social NGOs. The aim of the RSPO is to develop and implement global standards for sustainable palm oil that focus on the protection of the ecosystem services of palm oil plantations. Setting standards is the key mechanism employed for achieving RSPO goals.

The standard setting processes can be divided in two phases: standard development and certification (von Geibler 2009). In the standard development phase of the RSPO, eight principles and 39 criteria for sustainability were defined in respect to social and ecological issues with participation of various stakeholders and public consultations. To ensure that the global principles and criteria consider national needs and regulations, → *indicators* for individual countries were specified by different national interpretation working groups, with engagement of sub-national organisations. The standard criteria have been evaluated in practical pilot studies for two years from 2005 to 2007 (RSPO 2010). The certification phase implies independent auditors checking palm oil mills as well as respective supply chain audits in order to ensure compliance with the RSPO principles and criteria. In case of complaints against RSPO members a grievance process aims to resolve disputes (RSPO 2010).

First certificates were given out in 2008 under the label of 'GreenPalm'. Producers who can produce according to the RSPO standards can register online with GreenPalm and receive certificates per ton sustainably produced palm oil. The certificates are then sold on the Green Palm web-based trading platform, where manufacturers or retailers buy certificates and thus support sustainable palm oil production. The certification system will be reviewed by RSPO after two years.

Source: Palm Oil Certification, Indonesia. TEEBcase by Justus von Geibler (see TEEBweb.org)



An enormous number of certification schemes exist for a wide variety of different products, such as fisheries (Marine Stewardship Council, MSC) or natural cosmetics. Schemes cover different industries from food to electronics to green financial investments (see also TEEB in Business 2011, Chapter 5). Schemes also exist for tourism, building standards (such as LEED and BREEAM) and management practices (see Chapter 4) to name a few.

Certification schemes can differ in many ways:

- **Target market:** Some schemes are designed for international trade and export markets, (such as forest and marine councils) while others are

designed for a regional market (see Box 9.5).

- **Management:** Businesses, NGOs and consumers or state-led schemes (such as the new Euro-leaf organic certification scheme run by the EU) can manage certification schemes.
- **Attributes:** Certification standards may address environmental, social and/or ethical issues.
- **Scope:** The impacts of market products or services can be measured at different levels — the product itself (for example timber) during production (for example organic agriculture), chain of custody or the whole life cycle of a product (from production, transport, consumption to disposal).



## 9.3 THE ROLE OF LOCAL POLICY IN CERTIFICATION

Stakeholders such as businesses, consumer organizations, local governments and NGOs can use certification schemes if there is a market for certified products and certification helps to achieve their policy aims.

Following an analysis of the role of ecosystem services in local development, appropriate certification schemes can be sought out (see Figure 9.1). Before selecting a particular certification scheme, it is prudent to define the aims and goals of a scheme. Not all schemes serve all purposes. Some may aim to support biodiversity while others may seek to maintain social and cultural values. In addition, different schemes have different outcomes. Some may help to secure local jobs better than others and certain production methods may be easier to adapt for sustainability standards. In addition, not all sectors are relevant for every region.

**In order to decide whether certification is a useful instrument, assess ecosystem services and development needs.** When developing a certification scheme, it is important to determine what is most important to the region concerned. For example, an ecosystem services assessment could be carried out to determine which standards are needed and what kind of certification scheme might be most suitable (see also Chapter 2). This assessment could be carried out for the purpose of the project or as part of another

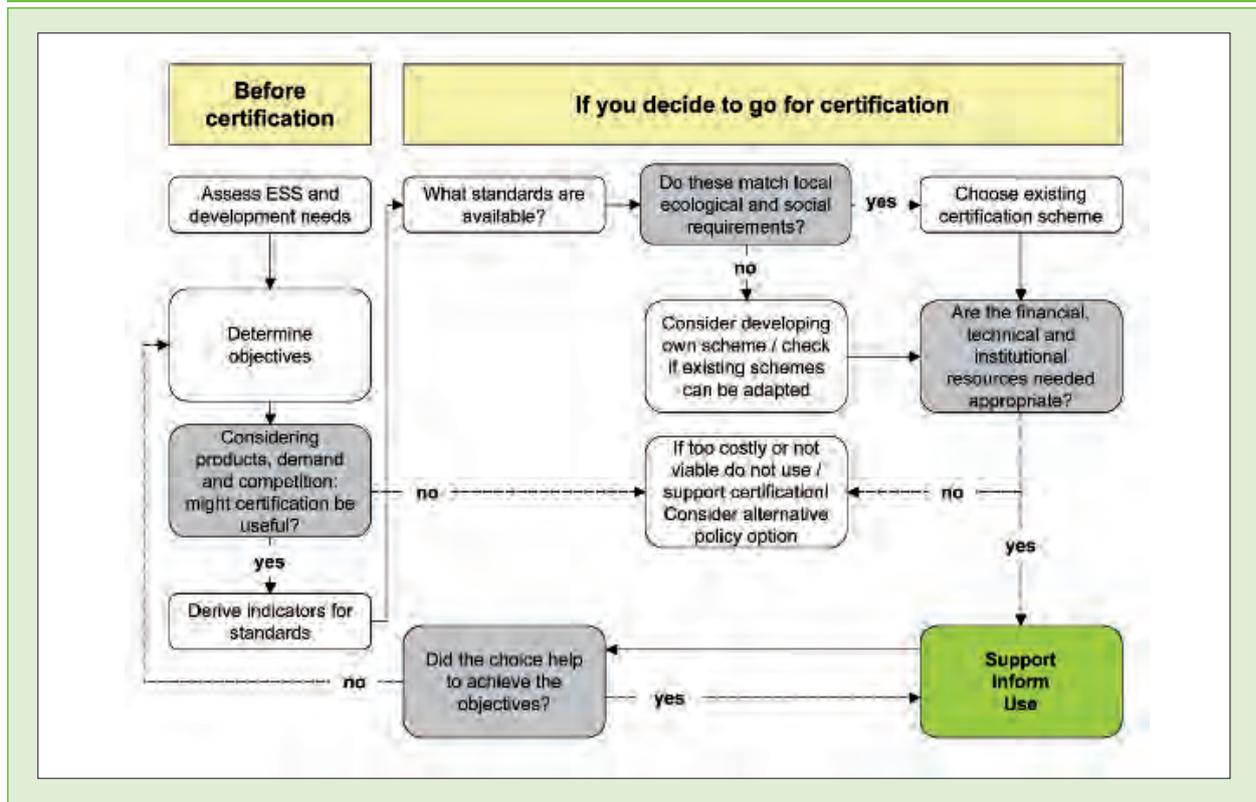
process. Those with an interest in developing a certification scheme often evaluate whether the cost of certification exceeds the benefits. If the costs are too high, other policy options may be more effective in achieving the stakeholder's objectives.

There is a broad range of opportunities for local administration, producer corporations or NGOs to use or support certification for regional goals.

**Providing information to consumers and producers:** Workshops can be organized and meetings arranged with experts. Consumers and producers can be provided with handbooks and best practice guides. In Florida, for example, citizens have access to resources such as 'A Meeting Planner's Guide to Going 'Green'. Tips and Best Management Practices' ([www.dep.state.fl.us/greenlodging/files/MeetingPlannerGuide.pdf](http://www.dep.state.fl.us/greenlodging/files/MeetingPlannerGuide.pdf)) and the Green Lodging website ([www.treeo.ufl.edu/greenlodging/](http://www.treeo.ufl.edu/greenlodging/)).

**Support for small-scale producers:** Due to issues related to cost and regulatory standards, certification currently favours producers in Northern countries compared to small-scale producers in developing countries (Pattberg 2005). While some certification schemes have developed approaches to support and enable the certification of smaller businesses, problems remain. Small-scale farmers, for example, often need to find new structures and organizations

Figure 9.1 Steps to consider when applying certification



Source: own representation inspired by von Geibler 2009

if they choose to become involved in organic or sustainable certification. In countries with weak farmer groups and limited cooperative culture, local governments and NGOs can support processes to strengthen farmer groups and progressively build PGS. They can encourage PGS projects by providing facilities such as meeting rooms and market stalls, in addition to skilled extension staff and access to land and local procurement policies. Legislation can also be a means to improve the status of small producers exemplified by the case of Brazil's 'Social Fuel Seal' which requires large biodiesel producers to purchase a significant share of their raw materials from family farmers. Although the program has garnered criticism from some corners, it is nonetheless a pioneering illustration how policy making can create a trickle-down effect to small producers (Leopold and Aguilar 2009).

**Active promotion and integration of more bottom-up approaches to certification:** Some local policy makers choose to take leading roles as mediators between local and external players and interests, particularly because small-holder producers are

generally the weakest players in the value chain – even when certified. Local governments may choose to increase the organizational and business capacities of smallholders. At the same, policy makers may take it upon themselves to address external players (global corporations, in particular) that may need to be convinced to more effectively adapt their production methods to local conditions. This would allow for more sustainable, tailor-made certification within more equal partnerships.

**Public procurement and other incentive for certification:** Requiring certified products in public procurement creates demand. For example, since 2009, the United Kingdom requires that all forest products purchased by the public sector for construction, office furniture or office products such as paper, should be from legal and sustainable sources. In Florida (USA) state employees are required to book hotels for conferences and meetings that are part of the 'Green Lodging program' whenever possible. Australia gives advantages to certified boat operators through extended licensing. It is within the power of

### Box 9.4 NGO support for Participatory Guarantee Systems in Southern India

Nilgiris, a hill district in southern India where most of the native forests have been destroyed. The areas that are not destroyed are under continual pressure from the unsustainable collection of Non Forest Timber Products (NFTP) (such as wild nutmeg, cinnamon, and herbal plants) by local indigenous communities.

Both sustainable harvesting and effective marketing of NFTP is central to rural development and the protection of the full range of forested ecosystem services as well as the areas' underlying biodiversity. Keystone, an NGO, aims to help the local Nilgiris community develop a PGS. This PGS is intended to provide an affordable model of organic labelling with integrated ecological monitoring and capacity building functions – ensuring sustainable harvesting.

Working with individual farmers, Keystone is reviving traditional crops, providing food security, improving health and livelihoods. Its goal is assist in finding alternatives to the monoculture plantations which have destroyed the ecology of the area. Keystone also hopes to decrease the local community's dependence on nearby plantations for income. To this end, it has helped the local community establish a number of 'green shops', set up village seed banks and plant nurseries.

*Source: Participatory Guarantee Systems for organic agriculture, India. TEEBcase by Robert Jordan (see TEEBweb.org)*



some governing bodies to give tax breaks and reduce import duties for certified products (see TEEB in National Policy 2011, Chapter 5).

**Tailoring certification to meet local and regional needs:** Local governments and regulators often know best about their region and the threats facing its local ecosystem services. This knowledge can be valuable to developing appropriate certification schemes, standards and monitoring systems. Some certification schemes include national and regional adaptation (for example FSC or RSPO), in others it may have to be added on. Experience has shown that the process of negotiating this can be helpful in better understanding local needs.

#### Development and support of regional labels:

Support for regional labels can be a very direct way in which local governments can help producers in their area but this approach requires a significant amount of expertise and resources. Success requires that the labelled products or services have a ready and informed consumer base and market with purchasing power. Such markets may be found in nearby cities or, if a biosphere reserve or similar attraction is within the region, visiting tourists can provide a suitable market. In regions with a high recreational value, or regions with well recognized ecosystem services, there may be an option to use regional labelling to improve the marketing potential for regional products.

### Box 9.5 Regional branding in biosphere reserve areas

The management of Schorfheide-Chorin, a UNESCO biosphere reserve in north east Germany, has developed a regional brand ('Prüfzeichen'). The 'Prüfzeichen' is a voluntary labelling scheme targeted at local businesses and other stakeholders with the aim of encouraging the production of local and sustainably produced goods and thus conserving the reserve's rich cultural and environmental legacy. Under this scheme, in rural areas, short paths between points in the production line are given preference (a preference for regional markets) because this reduces the need for transport.

The 'Prüfzeichen' currently exists for a range of different sectors including food, handicrafts, hotels, nature tourism and sustainable timber processing. At present, there are more than ninety labelled enterprises, with additional pending applications. The nearby capital, Berlin, is a potentially large market for certified products and services.

*Source: Regional labelling in biosphere reserve, Germany. TEEBcase by Beate Blahy and Jörg-Dieter Peil (see TEEBweb.org)*



### Box 9.6 The Blue Flag certification for coastal areas: an economic argument?

A blue flag is awarded annually to beaches and marinas that meet certain environmental, amenity and safety criteria and assures recreational users of a quality visit to the beach. Those locations holding a Blue Flag can use the award scheme to attract tourists and recreational users to the area (Cumberbatch 2005). The Blue Flag certification scheme is targeted at local authorities, the public and the tourism industry in coastal areas. Schemes now operate in 41 countries and more than 3,400 beaches from Europe to Latin America and the Caribbean to Africa.

Some evidence suggests that the initiative has a significant effect. Studies from South Africa show economic benefits from increased tourist visits due to the Blue Flag award. In the holiday town of Margate along the Kongweni Estuary, the loss of Blue Flag status is estimated at a potential economic loss of between US\$ 2.7 million and US\$ 3.4 million per annum (Nahman and Rigby 2008). In Durban, a decrease in consumer confidence was attributed partly to the lost status in 2008 (personal communication, Alison Kelly, National Blue Flag Program Manager at WESSA).

On the other hand, case studies focussing mainly on European and North American beaches did not find a clear relationship between the award and tourist visits, providing a weak economic argument for achieving the award (McKenna et al. in press).

*Source: Blue Flag certification for beach quality, South Africa. TEEBcase by Anna Spenceley (see TEEBweb.org)*

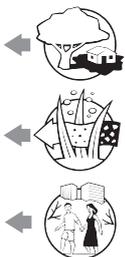
**Participation in national and international competitions and awards:** A number of →certification schemes target community and regional levels. Participation may improve a local government's reputation and lead to an exchange of information and access to new strategies for best practices. This can also help to improve reputation of the region and build identity and pride.

A region's tourist industry, for example, can apply for certification with Green Globe which certifies sustainability within the tourism sector. In North America, the National Wetlands Awards are awarded to individuals who make extraordinary contributions to wetland conservation. In the Slow Cities movement, local communities jointly promote the maintenance of cultural values, quality of life and other ecosystem services. Agricultural products can apply for AOC-certification (Appellation d'Origine Contrôlée) which guarantees the origin of a product and traditional production methods.

There is also potential for the sustainable management of a region or city to be recognized by several award systems such as the Habitat Scroll of Honour Award run by UN-HABITAT or the European Green Capital award, first won by Stockholm in 2010. Since

2001, cities in Japan compete to become the 'top eco-city' ([www.eco-capital.net](http://www.eco-capital.net)). The top city has to achieve an ambitious score out of 15 criteria including waste reduction, the adoption of an environmental management system and a transportation policy. Nagoya, one of the cities that has recently competed, has created region-specific waste policies which will both protect tidal flats that are valuable for migratory birds and save economic costs. Less sustainable waste-management practices fill the tidal pools with waste while new waste policies have helped reduce the amount of waste and protect tidal flats. For this achievement Nagoya won the Environment Grand Prix Award in 2003 (TEEBcase Waste reduction to conserve tidal flat, Japan).

**There is potential for international cooperation from local to local.** Some regions or cities may create special partnerships, and, in other cases, relations between countries stemming from migrants and holidays or business contacts may initiate international relationships. These relationships may assist with creating trade opportunities and implementing certification or labelling. One example for this is JustUs!, a Canadian Coffee Roaster that created a partnership with producers in Mexico.



The benefits of this relationship are threefold. Mexicans get improved salaries, migrating birds are protected through more sustainable plantation

practices and Canadians have a guaranteed coffee quality (TEEBcase Fair Trade Certification for coffee, Canada).



## 9.4 POTENTIAL PITFALLS AND CHALLENGES OF LABELLING AND CERTIFICATION

**Setting standards** is an essential part of certification and its impacts on ecosystem services. For example, setting similar, possibly even global, standards in different countries may be feasible for industrial production (such as capping carbon dioxide emissions). While technologies may be known and transferable across the board, social standards are not homogenous. Workers' rights, for example, differ from nation to nation. Furthermore, ecosystems and their associated requirements differ regionally, making it difficult to generate criteria that are applicable to a broad range of ecosystems, economic and social conditions (Rehbinder 2003).

A challenge for setting standards is ensuring that they can be **adapted to local, site-specific conditions**. Some certification standards, such as the Forest Stewardship Council (FSC), attempt to address this challenge by creating national standards through wide consultation with many different stakeholders. There are, however, examples of adopted standards which do not reflect what is relevant for an underlying ecosystem (see Box 9.7).

Not only do differences in ecological conditions play a role, but so do cultural and structural differences. A study of third-party-organic shrimp farming in Indonesia has shown that technical standards developed by Western countries are often not understood and accepted. This may lead to non-compliance, suggesting that strong stakeholder involvement and communication efforts in the setting of standards improve their effectiveness (Hatanaka 2010).

**Increased demand can make it difficult to maintain standards:** Increased consumer demand can have negative impacts on ecosystems. For example, most of the coffee grown in Latin America is sun, or

plantation coffee. The market for shade grown coffee, however, is the market that is growing. Producers face three possibilities in response to this demand. Firstly, if they already produce shade grown coffee, they may seek certification. Secondly, if they have sun coffee, they may replant (with high investment costs) their plots with shade loving varieties along with newly planted trees. Thirdly, producers may respond by abandoning their sun coffee plots and starting a new plantation in the forest. While this is prohibited under the certification scheme, it is hard to verify.

**Effective monitoring and enforcement** can ensure that standards are adhered to. While certification standards may be fulfilled in principle, there may be indirect impacts that are difficult to measure. One example is the Renewable Energy Directive of the EU that protects land identified as significant to biodiversity and areas with large carbon stores (such as peatlands) from being converted for the production of biofuels. However, biofuels might displace other land uses that are not protected by the directive. To date there is no methodology that accounts for impacts of indirect land use change in certification schemes (Gawel and Ludwig, submitted).

**Certification requires a high level of organization and capacity:** Producers with sufficient knowledge, technical capacity and information can implement sustainable production techniques. Unless effective monitoring systems for certification are in place, compliance with standards cannot be guaranteed. This is a particular challenge for developing countries with small-holder producers. Some developing countries have a tradition of production co-operatives that can help to share information and organise certification processes.

### Box 9.7 Protection of biodiversity through certification? Forest coffee in Kaffa and Bench Maji Zone, Ethiopia

Ethiopia is the world's sixth largest coffee producing country. Due to its popularity with coffee drinkers worldwide, shade coffee contributes to about 20% of Ethiopia's export earnings. Organic certification of Ethiopian coffee began in the late 1990s and by 2007 a total of 12 forest coffee co-operatives were certified according to Fairtrade Organic (an EU standard) and Utz Certified standards.

Research has shown, however, that forest coffee certification does not necessarily lead to the protection of the forest ecosystem and biodiversity. Certification standards are designed for plantation or sun coffee and not forest coffee. There is evidence that the increased demand and higher profits from certified coffee provides an incentive for coffee farmers to intensify production by slashing the undergrowth and felling larger trees, effectively destroying the forest and its biodiversity.

These findings are not an argument against certification, which can have substantial positive impacts. These findings do, however, illustrate that, in order to avoid indirect and unwanted impacts, an appropriate standard is one that fits the commodity being certified. In the case of Ethiopian forest coffee, a step forward may be to certify the ecosystem coffee forests – not only the coffee or the coffee cooperatives – and to reward sustainable forest management with a price premium.

*Source: Certification for forest coffee, Ethiopia. TEEBcase by Till Stellmacher, Ulrike Grote and Jörg Volkmann (see TEEBweb.org)*

**Supporting governance:** Certification is currently not in a position to effectively compensate for weak governance. Forest certification has been most successful in states which have an acceptable forest governance framework (Ebeling and Yasué 2009; Guéneau and Tozzi 2008). However, certification systems with independent reviewers can also help

to support governance. An important impact of certification is that it can bring stakeholders together to discuss regional and national standards. That process leading to standards based on exchange and negotiation is valuable. This may also be a stepping stone for the future development of compulsory standards.

## 9.5 ACTION POINTS: LOCAL POLICY MAKERS ENGAGING IN CERTIFICATION

- **Use available assessment** tools to make sure a standard is appropriate: Is it economically feasible? Ecologically effective? Socially appropriate? Is the ecosystem services perspective useful (see Chapter 2)?
- Establish ways for local governments to **make sure** national and international **schemes reflect the needs of local producers and ecosystem services**. Local support for national and international certification schemes could be conditional on local criteria.
- NGOs and local governments can **offer support to overcome prohibitive upfront costs** that prevent small scale producers from participating in certification schemes.
- Local authorities can play an important role in ensuring that certification schemes offer the **best opportunities to producers in their region**, perhaps even developing their own regional certification schemes.
- Local authorities, NGOs or other stakeholder groups can **facilitate the development of local certification schemes** by providing infrastructure, capacity building, promotional efforts, and advise local producers.

## FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

### Certification

CREST (undated) Ecotourism Handbooks on Certification I-IV. The user-orientated guide series provides an overview as well as information on funding, marketing, finance of tourism certification programs in an easy accessible format. English and Spanish versions are available at: [www.responsibletravel.org/resources/index.html#EcotourismHandbooks](http://www.responsibletravel.org/resources/index.html#EcotourismHandbooks);

Cashore et al. (2006) Confronting sustainability: forest certification in developing and transitioning countries. By presenting case studies from around the world, this comprehensive report (617 pages) provides insights into forest certification. [environment.research.yale.edu/documents/downloads/o-u/report\\_8.pdf](http://environment.research.yale.edu/documents/downloads/o-u/report_8.pdf)

### Labelling

ICLEI (2006) Buy Fair – A guide to the public purchasing of Fair Trade products. The short leaflet introduces Fair Trade principles and gives advice in how to implement it in public procurement. [www.buyfair.org/fileadmin/template/projects/buyfair/files/buyfair\\_guide\\_final\\_www.pdf](http://www.buyfair.org/fileadmin/template/projects/buyfair/files/buyfair_guide_final_www.pdf)

IIED (2005) Organic Cotton: A New Development Path for African Smallholders? By presenting case studies from Sub-Saharan Africa this brochure illustrates the multiple benefits of organic cotton. [www.iied.org/pubs/pdfs/14512IIED.pdf](http://www.iied.org/pubs/pdfs/14512IIED.pdf)

### Standards

In an effort to achieve sustainable development the German Technical Cooperation GTZ launched its Programme on Social and Environmental Standards. An introduction, guidelines and case studies are available at [www.gtz.de/social-ecological-standards](http://www.gtz.de/social-ecological-standards).

Information on voluntary standards for sustainable tourism and the recently formed Tourism Sustainability Council (TSC) are available at [www.sustainabletourismcriteria.org](http://www.sustainabletourismcriteria.org).

**Further sector specific information on certification and eco-labelling is available on websites of the following organisations:**

- **Organic agriculture:** IFOAM (International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements) [www.ifoam.org](http://www.ifoam.org)
- **Fisheries:** MSC (Marine Stewardship Council) [www.msc.org](http://www.msc.org)
- **Forestry:** FSC (Forest Stewardship Council) [www.fsc.org](http://www.fsc.org), PEFC (Programme for the Endorsement of Forest Certification Schemes) [www.pefc.org](http://www.pefc.org)
- **Sugar cane:** BSI (The Better Sugar Cane Initiative) [www.bettersugarcane.com](http://www.bettersugarcane.com)
- **Overarching (agriculture, forestry, tourism):** Rainforest Alliance [www.rainforest-alliance.org](http://www.rainforest-alliance.org)
- **Carbon credits:** CCB Standards (Climate, Community and Biodiversity Project Design Standards) [www.climatestandards.org](http://www.climatestandards.org), Gold Standard [www.cdmgoldstandard.org/](http://www.cdmgoldstandard.org/)
- **Environmental and Social Standards:** ISEAL (International Social and Environmental Accreditation and Labelling Alliance) [www.isealalliance.org](http://www.isealalliance.org)
- **Mining:** ARM (Alliance for Responsible Mining) [www.communitymining.org](http://www.communitymining.org)

### Awards

Habitat Scroll of Honour: [www.unhabitat.org/content.asp?typeid=19&catid=588&cid=6601](http://www.unhabitat.org/content.asp?typeid=19&catid=588&cid=6601)

European Green Capital: [ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/environment/europeangreencapital/index_en.htm)

National Wetlands Awards: [www.nationalwetlandsawards.org](http://www.nationalwetlandsawards.org)

Japan's Top Eco-City Contest: [www.eco-capital.net](http://www.eco-capital.net)