Life Cycle Assessment of Palm Oil at United Plantations Berhad 2020

Results for 2004 – 2019

Summary report
Preface

This report is carried out by Jannick Schmidt and Michele De Rosa (2.0 LCA consultants, Denmark) for United Plantations Berhad (Teluk Intan, Malaysia). The study includes data collection and calculation of LCA results for United Plantations Berhad’s palm oil production 2004-2019. The study was undertaken during the period January to June 2020.

The current report updates the results of a series of previous studies to also including 2019, and it summarises the main findings of a detailed life cycle assessment report of palm oil production at United Plantations 2004-2019. When citing the report, please use the following reference:


Jannick Schmidt & Michele De Rosa, Aalborg, Denmark, June 2020
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Executive Summary

Background and objectives
This report presents a summary of a detailed life cycle assessment (LCA) study of palm oil production at United Plantations Berhad (Teluk Intan, Malaysia). LCA is a technique to assess environmental impacts associated with all the life cycle stages of a product or service from ‘cradle to grave’. The current study was undertaken during the period January to February 2020 – and it builds on top of four other large studies carried out for United Plantations in 2008, 2011, 2014 and 2017. The study in 2008 was the first LCA of palm oil ever, which was fully compliant with and critical reviewed according to the international standards on LCA: ISO 14040 and 14044. The current study includes a major update of the entire LCA model and background database, which implies that all results from 2004-2019, which have previously been published, are now recalculated to reflect state-of-art emission models and LCA databases.

The environmental impact of palm oil is presented as greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, i.e. carbon footprint, as well as for a number of other impact categories such as biodiversity, respiratory effects and toxicity. The environmental impacts relate to the life cycle of palm oil from cultivation to the gate of the refinery, including all upstream emissions, e.g. from the production of fertilisers, fuels and machinery. The results are shown per kg of refined palm oil.

Over the last decade, United Plantations Berhad has worked intensively in reducing their environmental impacts. The effect of this work is illustrated by tracking the carbon footprint for the company’s production of palm oil from 2004 to 2019.

The primary purpose of the LCA is to document and assess the environmental impacts from the production of palm oil at United Plantations Berhad. Secondly, the purpose is to follow over time the GHG emissions from the production of palm oil at United Plantations Berhad. Thirdly, to compare United Plantation’s production of palm oil with average Malaysian/Indonesian palm oil and other major vegetable oils, and fourthly, to analyse improvement options for United Plantation’s production of palm oil.

Functional unit
The functional unit is central for an LCA. The functional unit is a quantified performance of the product under study for use as a reference unit, i.e. it is what all the results relate to. The functional unit is defined as 1 kg of neutralized, bleached and deodorized (NBD) vegetable oil for food purposes at refinery gate. The distribution, use and disposal stages are not included.

In addition to the functional unit mentioned above, the life cycle results are also shown for United Plantations total product portfolio.

Data sources and data collection
The oil palm cultivation stage is inventoried for the 12 oil palm estates owned by United Plantations (nine in Malaysia and three in Indonesia). Similar to this, the palm oil mill stage is inventoried for United Plantations’ five palm oil mills (four in Malaysia and one in Indonesia). The refinery state includes an inventory of United Plantations two refineries in Malaysia; Unitata and UniFuji. The data for United Plantations’ estates, palm oil mills and refineries have been collected on-site in collaboration with the United Plantations Research Department (UPRD). Data for activities outside United Plantations, such as production of fertiliser, fuels and machinery, are obtained from the EXIOPBASE database (hybrid version 3.13).
**Land use changes and nature conservation**

The link between land use (e.g. occupation of 1 hectare during one year) to deforestation and related emissions and biodiversity impacts are included in the study. Since the cultivation of oil palm takes place on already cleared land, it is not associated with any direct land use changes, i.e. land use changes that takes place in the oil palm field – except at replanting which is not associated with impacts because it involves conversion from oil palm to oil palm. However, the use of land for oil palm contributes to the general pressure on land, leading to land use changes somewhere else. This is referred to as indirect land use changes (iLUC). This study covers iLUC by means of a model documented in Schmidt et al. (2015) and its integration in the EXIOBASE database (Schmidt and De Rosa 2018). This model considers that demand for land leads to two main effects: conversion of land (land use changes) and intensification of land already in use – both effects are associated with GHG emissions.

Besides the iLUC effects described above, the benefits from nature conservation are also included in the study. United Plantations has set-aside large areas as nature conservation in their land bank in Indonesia. The effect of nature conservation is that conversion from forest to oil palm is avoided locally. However, since the decision to conserve land does not reduce the overall demand for land, an equivalent amount of land needs to be taken into production somewhere else, i.e. indirect land use changes are induced. The benefit of nature conservation is the difference between the avoided local impact and the indices indirect impact.

**Results: impacts from United Plantations’ palm oil production**

The results are calculated in three different ways:

1. Results excluding iLUC
2. Results including iLUC
3. Results including iLUC and savings from nature conservation

The most significant impact categories are global warming, respiratory effects, and nature occupation (biodiversity impacts caused by land use changes). All results exclude the stored carbon in the vegetable oil, i.e. CO₂ uptake in the cultivation stage, which is released again in either the use stage or the end-of-life stage, which are not included in the LCA.

The contribution to global warming (not including iLUC) from 1 kg NBD palm oil produced in United Plantations in 2019 is 1.65 kg CO₂-eq. The major part of the contribution originates from the oil palm cultivation stage where the main contributors are field emissions of CO₂ from oxidation of peat soils and N₂O. Previously, one of the main contributions were methane from POME treatment at the oil mills. However, this has been eliminated by installation of methane capture facilities at all palm oil mills, starting in 2006.

When iLUC is included, the total contribution to GHG emissions is 1.90 kg CO₂-eq. per kg NBD palm oil. Hence, iLUC is a significant contributor to GHG emissions.

When including nature conservation too, the impact from the Indonesian production decreases significantly – the offsets from nature conservation reduces the GHG emissions per kg NBD palm oil from 1.74 kg CO₂-eq. to 0.72 CO₂-eq. For United Plantation’s entire production, the nature conservation in Indonesia reduces the GHG emissions from 1.90 to 1.64 CO₂-eq. per kg oil.
Results: evolution of GHG emissions over time
The time series for NBD palm oil at United Plantations show a reductions from 2004 to 2019 of 52% (without iLUC), 48% (with iLUC) and 55% with iLUC and nature conservation. Reductions in GHG emissions levels are seen when new technology have been installed replacing older less clean technologies; this mainly relates to the installation of biogas plants and avoiding methane emissions from anaerobic digestion in POME treatment. A large reduction was also obtained with the increased area of nature conservation.

Results: palm oil from United Plantations vs. industry averages for other vegetable oils
United Plantations’ production of palm oil has been compared with industry averages for three major vegetable oils, namely RSPO certified palm oil and non-certified palm oil (Malaysia/Indonesia), rapeseed oil (Europe), and sunflower oil (Ukraine). The comparison shows that palm oil at United Plantations in 2019 performs better than all the other oils for all compared impact categories.

Results: United Plantations’ total product portfolio
The GHG emissions associated to United Plantations’ total product portfolio, i.e. all the products sold by UP, are 704,000 t CO₂-eq (without iLUC), 794,000 t CO₂-eq (with iLUC), and 697,000 t CO₂-eq (with iLUC and nature conservation).
1 Introduction

United Plantations is one of the pioneer plantation companies to grow and process oil palm in Malaysia. It has been practicing sustainable agriculture for many years. Currently, it is one of the highest yielding and most efficient producers of palm oil in Malaysia.

This report presents a summary of a detailed life cycle assessment (LCA) study of palm oil production at United Plantations Berhad (Teluk Intan, Malaysia). The current study was undertaken during the period January to February 2020, and it builds on top of four large studies carried out for United Plantations in 2008, 2011, 2014 and 2017. The current study is a major update of the study from 2019, which is based on a major update in 2017.

Over the last decade, United Plantations Berhad has worked intensively in reducing their environmental impacts. The effect of this work is illustrated by tracking the carbon footprint for the company’s production of palm oil each year from 2004 to 2019.

The main focus in the presentation of the results is on greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, i.e. carbon footprint, but other impacts are also addressed. The environmental impacts relate to the life cycle of palm oil from cultivation to the gate of the refinery including all upstream emissions. The results are shown per kg of refined palm oil. In addition, the results are also shown for the entire product portfolio of United Plantations Berhad in 2019.

1.1 Palm oil production in United Plantations Berhad

United Plantations Berhad has nine estates in Peninsular Malaysia and three estates in Central Kalimantan Indonesia, in total a planted area with oil palm of 41 979 ha. The locations of the estates are illustrated in Figure 1.1. The hectares of each of the 12 estates are summarised in Table 1.

![Figure 1.1: Location of United Plantations Berhad’s estates. Map of Malaysia and Indonesia: Google Maps (2014) and detailed maps of United Plantations’ estates: United Plantations Berhad (2014a).](image-url)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Estate</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Planted area (ha)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UIE</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>8,958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jendarata</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>5,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ladang Ulu Basir</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>3,737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ladang Sungai Erong</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>3,508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ladang Sungai Chawang</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>3,240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulu Bernam</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>3,065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lima Blas</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>2,745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landang Changkat Menti</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>2,364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seri Pelangi</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>1,337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT Surya Sawit Sejati (PT SSS), Lada estate</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>4,917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT Surya Sawit Sejati (PT SSS), Runtu estate</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>3,562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT Surya Sawit Sejati (PT SSS), Arut and Kumai</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Malaysia</strong></td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td><strong>32,902</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Indonesia</strong></td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td><strong>9,077</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total all</strong></td>
<td>Malaysia and Indonesia</td>
<td><strong>41,979</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Overview of United Plantations’ oil palm estates in 2019.

United Plantations has nature conservation reserves in Malaysia and in Indonesia. Recently, United Plantations has expanded its operations into Central Kalimantan, Indonesia, where much of the land that has been acquired consists of degraded secondary and logged over forests as well as large tracks of alang-alang grasslands. Of the company’s total land bank in Kalimantan, 7,500 ha is set-aside as land under permanent conservation. In Malaysia, 188 ha is set-aside as nature conservation reserves.

United Plantations have four palm oil mills in Peninsular Malaysia and one in Indonesia. Table 2 provides an overview of the palm oil mills. Since 2013, two mills in Malaysia have been closed, namely the Seri Pelangi mill (May/June 2013) and the Lima Blas mill (August 2015). After the closure of these oil mills, the FFB is transported to the Jendarata and the Ulu Basir mills respectively. The effect of this is that the FFB is transported 38-45 km extra and that it is processed in oil mills with biogas capture. The GHG emissions reductions from biogas capture by far exceed the additional transport. In 2018, the new Optimill with biogas capture replaced the older Ulu Berman oil mill. With this, 100% of United Plantations FFB is processed in oil mills with biogas capture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Palm oil mill</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Biogas capture</th>
<th>Processed FFB, tonne</th>
<th>Produced crude palm oil (CPO)</th>
<th>Produced palm kernels (PK)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UIE</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>236,292</td>
<td>51,844</td>
<td>9,518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jendarata</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>130,745</td>
<td>29,529</td>
<td>6,664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulu Basir</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>46,622</td>
<td>10,219</td>
<td>2,130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulu Bernam Optimill</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>401,892</td>
<td>87,453</td>
<td>18,541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT Surya Sawit Sejati</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>275,360</td>
<td>61,381</td>
<td>12,135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Malaysia</strong></td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td></td>
<td>815,551</td>
<td>179,045</td>
<td>36,854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Indonesia</strong></td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td></td>
<td>275,360</td>
<td>61,381</td>
<td>12,135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total all</strong></td>
<td>Malaysia and Indonesia</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,090,910</td>
<td>240,426</td>
<td>48,989</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Overview of United Plantation’s palm oil mills and their production in 2019.

United Plantations has one palm oil refinery, Unitata, where all crude palm oil produced in United Plantation’s Malaysian palm oil mills is refined. A large share of the steam consumption at Unitata is supplied by the Jendarata palm oil mill; partly by exported steam from the palm oil mill boiler and partly by utilisation of the captured biogas from the oil mill’s POME treatment. In the Unitata refinery, the crude palm oil undergoes neutralisation, deodorisation and bleaching to produce NBD oil as well as fractioning to produce olein and...
stearin fractions as well as further refined products such as cocoa butter alternatives, fats for filling, fats for coating, fats for bakery products, vegetable oil for margarine, nutrolein golden palm oil, and salad oils. The current study only includes the refinery processes until NBD oil is produced.

United Plantations produce most of their FFB themselves, but buys some from external growers. The majority of the produced CPO at United Plantations’ palm oil mills is processed in UP’s refineries Unitata and Unifuji, while a smaller share is sold. Around half of the feedstock for the Unitata refinery is CPKO produced externally. The oil mills sell kernels for further processing in external kernel crusher plants. The final products of the Unitata and Unifuji refineries are various fractions of refined palm oil. A by-product of the refineries is palm acid oil (PAO), which mainly contains free fatty acids (FFA).

![Sankey diagram of the flows of United Plantations in 2019, through their estates, oil mills and refineries. The product portfolio includes “CPO exported”, “Kernels exported”, “Refined palm oil” and “FFA”. The FFA (free fatty acid) is also sometimes referred to as palm acid oil (PAO).](image)

**Figure 1.2:** Sankey diagram of the flows of United Plantations in 2019, through their estates, oil mills and refineries. The product portfolio includes “CPO exported”, “Kernels exported”, “Refined palm oil” and “FFA”. The FFA (free fatty acid) is also sometimes referred to as palm acid oil (PAO).

### 1.2 Sustainability in United Plantations Berhad

In keeping with its commitment to the production of sustainable palm oil, the company is interested in documenting its environmental performance. For this reason, it has worked intensively with life cycle assessments of their production since 2008. In order to support future company’s actions to make the production even more sustainable, the LCA studies also aim to predict the potential environmental benefits of implementing new technologies and practices. Here, the focus is on the effects of implementing projects like the four Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) projects in its other palm oil mills.
Selected parts of United Plantations’ Policies on Carbon Footprint, Pesticides, and Biodiversity & Environment:

**Carbon footprint initiatives:** “It is the goal of United Plantations to reduce their emissions of GHG by 50% per metric tonnes of NBD Palm Oil by 2018 vis-à-vis the 2004 level.” (Bek-Nielsen 2014)

**Pesticide use:** “In line with RSPO’s continuous improvements initiative the Company’s Sustainability Committee monitors and reviews the Groups pesticides usage.

Together with several multinational chemical companies such as Bayer, BASF and Syngenta amongst others, United Plantations is exploring avenues to reduce overall pesticide usage as well as evaluating alternative safer pesticides and is committed to phasing out those pesticides that fall under the WHO Class 1A and 1B segment when effective and suitable alternatives are available. One example is United Plantations total ban of Paraquat usage. In this context, United Plantations has been working since February 2008 towards minimizing the usage of Paraquat, as documented in the annual RSPO Surveillance Audits. In May 2010, the Board based on Management’s advice took the decision to voluntarily phase out the usage of Paraquat, a goal reached in October 2010 as a combination of less toxic pesticides could be used as alternative substitutes.” (United Plantations 2014c).

**Biodiversity and Environment Policy:**

“We strive to maintain an open and dynamic approach towards continuous improvements in respect of conservation in HCV, HCS areas and reduction of greenhouse gas (GHG) Emissions. We ensure No Deforestation and No New Development on Peat within our operations”

“We want to ensure that our agricultural operations comply with the following criteria:

- No development on high carbon stock forests (HCS).
- No development on high conservation value forest areas (HCV).
- No development on peat lands.
- Free, prior and informed (FPIC) for indigenous and local communities in all negotiations.
- Compliance with all relevant laws and National Interpretation of RSPO Principles and Criteria.”

Key environmental milestones achieved:

- A No primary forest clearing policy (1990)
- A No HCV forest clearing policy (2005)
- A No Paraquat use policy (2010)
- A No new planting on peat policy (2010)
- A High Carbon Stock Assessment & Land Use Change Analysis for new plantings (2014)


Box 1: United Plantations’ policies on carbon footprint, pesticides, and nature conservation.

More recently, the company has also expanded its operations into Central Kalimantan, Indonesia, where much of the recently acquired land consists of degraded secondary and logged over forests as well as large tracks of alang-alang grasslands. The Indonesian oil palm estates cover 9,179 ha. In addition to the land planted with oil palm, 7,500 ha is set-aside as land under permanent conservation.
CDM projects in United Plantations Berhad

United Plantations is currently hosting four CDM projects commissioned by the Royal Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The four CDM projects are briefly described below:

Methane recovery and utilisation projects at: Jendarata palm oil mill, Ulu Basir palm oil mill and UIE palm oil mill: A significant contribution to global warming from palm oil production is the emissions of methane from the anaerobic ponds which are used for palm oil mill effluent (POME) treatment. In order to reduce GHG emissions, the anaerobic ponds in the three palm oil mills have been replaced by digester tanks where the generated methane-containing biogas is captured. In the Jendarata palm oil mill, the biogas produced is sent to the nearby palm oil refinery Unitata where it substitutes fuel oil used for steam generation. In the Ulu Basir and UIE palm oil mills, the captured biogas is partly flared and utilised as fuel substitute in the oil mill boilers.

The annual reductions of GHG emissions of the three biogas CDM projects are.

- Jendarata palm oil mill: 20,271 tonne CO₂-eq.
- Ulu Basir palm oil mill: 23,973 tonne CO₂-eq.
- UIE palm oil mill: 14,848 tonne CO₂-eq.

Jendarata steam and power plant: Usually palm oil mills are self-sufficient of steam and power supply. This energy is produced by burning the biomass produced (fibre and shell) from the processed fresh fruit bunches (FFB). The empty fruit bunches (EFB) are usually applied in the plantation as mulch. GHG emissions can be reduced if the energy production in the palm oil mill is increased and the excess energy (steam and power) is exported substituting energy produced by burning fossil fuels. As part of the CDM project, the old low efficiency boilers in Jendarata palm oil mill have been replaced by a new high efficiency boiler in 2006. This was followed by another even more efficient biomass boiler that was commissioned in late 2017 boosting efficiencies further. The new biomass reciprocating boilers have a higher capacity and steam pipes from the palm oil mill to Unitata have been established. In addition to the fibre and shell, the new power plant allows for the burning of the EFB, and the excess steam is exported to Unitata where it displaces fossil fuel used for steam generation.

The annual reduction of GHG emissions of the biomass CDM project is

- Jendarata steam and power plant: 8,851 t CO₂-eq.

Box 2: CDM projects in United Plantations Berhad. The GHG-emission reductions are obtained from (UN CDM project no. project 0558 2006; UN CDM project no. project 1153 2007 ; UN CDM project no. 5150 2011 ; UN CDM project no. 3622 2011).
2 Methodology
2.1 What is a life cycle assessment?

Life cycle assessment (LCA) is a technique to assess environmental impacts associated with all the stages of a product or service from ‘cradle to grave’, that is, from raw material extraction through materials processing, manufacture, distribution, use, repair and maintenance, and disposal or recycling. Not all LCAs include the use and end-of-life stages of a products life cycle. These LCAs are called cradle-to-gate studies. The general procedures, requirements and terminology of LCA are defined in the international standards on LCA ISO 14040 and 14044, which the current study follows.

The functional unit is central for all LCA. The functional unit is a quantified performance of a product system (see Figure 2.1) for use as a reference unit, i.e. the functional unit is what all the results relate to.

Product stages and foreground/background systems: The main stages of palm oil production are illustrated in Figure 2.1: cultivation, palm oil mill and refinery stages. The boxes in the figure are called activities, and the arrows represent flows. Often the activities in a life cycle system are grouped in a foreground system and a background system. The foreground system includes the LCA activities for which data are collected and modelled in the study, while the background system includes the activities for which generic and existing data are used, i.e. often from LCA databases.

Figure 2.1: The main stages of the product system for palm oil production. Dotted lines and boxes represent negative flows and substituted activities respectively. The FFA (free fatty acid) is also sometimes referred to as palm acid oil (PAO). Pictures: UP picture library and Wikipedia.

System boundary and life cycle emissions: The outer boundary of Figure 2.1 represents the system boundary, which is the boundary between the technosphere (where the activities are) and the environment. The net
output of the system is the product under study, here refined oil (neutralised, bleached and deodorised, NBD). Each activity in the system is associated with emissions. Emissions are flows from the technosphere to the environment, i.e. flows that cross the system boundary. The sum of all emissions that cross the system boundary constitutes the life cycle emissions related to the product under study.

Common GHG emissions from palm oil production are:
- nitrous oxide (N₂O) from fertiliser production and crop cultivation where the fertiliser is applied,
- carbon dioxide (CO₂) from combustion of fossil fuels and peat decay during crop cultivation (if it involves organic soils), and
- methane (CH₄) from anaerobic digestion of palm oil mill effluent (POME) in ponds in the palm oil mill.

**By-products:** Some of the activities in Figure 2.1 supply by-products, e.g. the palm kernel oil mill supplies palm kernel meal (PKM) and the refineries supply palm acid oil (PAO)¹ free fatty acids (FFA). Both PKM and PAO are used as animal feed. Assuming that a change in demand for refined palm oil does not affect the output of animal products, then a change in the supply of PKM and PAO will substitute alternative production of animal feed.

**Life cycle impact assessment:** Most often, an LCA software is used for calculating the life cycle emissions. The current study used SimaPro 9. The number of different calculated emissions is often very high – especially when collecting detailed data and when linking to large databases to represent the background system. It is not unusual that 500-1000 different emissions are included in the results of life cycle emissions. Presenting and interpreting such a high number of emissions individually is not meaningful. Therefore, a so-called life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) is carried out. This involves that the emissions are ‘characterised’, which means that each of the different emissions is multiplied with ‘characterisation factors’ that represent the emissions’ relative contribution to a number of impact categories. For each impact category included, an aggregated result is produced, in a given unit of measure. For example, Global Warming Potential is calculated in kg CO₂-eq. from the contribution of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions, among others. The principle of characterisation is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

![Characterisation factor](image)

**Figure 2.2:** The principle of characterisation.

¹ Palm acid oil (PAO) is very similar to palm fatty acid distillate (PFAD) but has a lower free fatty acid (FFA) content.
LCA can be used by decision makers to fulfill several objectives:

- To provide a picture as complete as possible of the interactions of an activity with the environment.
- To identify major environmental impacts and the life-cycle stages or “hot-spots” contributing to these impacts.
- To compare environmental impacts of alternative ways to produce the same product.
- To identify improvement options.

Further, LCA has many application areas, such as (ISO 14040):

- Environmental performance evaluations
- Environmental labels and declarations
- Environmental communication
- quantification, monitoring and reporting of entity and project emissions and removals and validation, verification and certification of greenhouse gas emissions

### 2.2 Indirect land use changes (iLUC)

Land use changes account for around 11% of global GHG emissions (IPCC 2014b). Most often emissions from land use changes are not included in LCA. This is regarded as a major lack of completeness since land use changes, such as deforestation, constitute a major contributor to global GHG-emissions. But what is indirect land use changes? The applied method in this study is described in Schmidt et al. (2015). The iLUC model described in Schmidt et al. (2015) is integrated in the background LCA database EXIOBASE. This is described in Schmidt and De Rosa (2018).

**What is indirect land use changes (iLUC)?** The term ‘land use change’ refers to the fact that crop cultivation is associated with land use changes which involve that land cover types with a high carbon stock (forests) are converted into land cover types with a lower carbon stock (oil palm plantation and other cropland). Such changes in carbon stocks are related to CO₂ emissions. The term ‘indirect’ refers to the place of the land use change, which is somewhere else than where the crop is grown. When modelling the effect on land use changes from crop cultivation, such as oil palm, the challenge is to identify the additional land use changes relating to a change in the cultivation of a given area during a given period. All cultivated crops are grown on already cleared land – obviously, this land can be more or less recently cleared. However, the choice to cultivate a piece of already cleared land cannot lead to the clearing of this particular plot of land (because it is already cleared). Therefore, when land is cultivated it is not associated with any direct land use changes (clearing of the land) on the same plot of land as is being cultivated – instead it contributes to the general demand for arable land, and consequently land use changes somewhere else.

Land is regarded as an asset input to crop cultivation – in line with other assets, such as tractors. Indirect land use changes are then the upstream effect of this input of land – analogically, the upstream life cycle emissions related to the manufacture of the tractor could be called ‘indirect tractor effects’. This is depicted in Figure 2.3. The activities within the grey box in the figure (the activities that represent iLUC) are described in the following.
2.3 Nature conservation

The effect of nature conservation can briefly be described as redirecting where and how new land is brought into productive purposes. When conserving a specific plot of land, local specific eco-systems and carbon stocks are conserved, but the global overall demand for land can be assumed not to be affected. Hence, an equivalent amount of the function of the conserved land will be brought into production somewhere else. This is illustrated in Figure 2.4, where the direct effect refers to the on-site local effects and the indirect effects refer to the equivalent amount of land that will be brought into production somewhere else.

The concept as lined out above means that the nature conservation is a good idea as long as the conserved land hosts a higher value, i.e. biodiversity and carbon stock, than the alternative land to be brought into production. It should be noted that the land equivalent to be brought into production (to compensate for the conserved land) does not necessarily need to be the same area as the conserved land nor it needs to be land at all. This is because productive land can also be created by changing in the productivity (yield) of land, which is already productive, i.e. without changing the area of the productive land.
The effect of nature conservation is quantified per year. Then, this effect is attributed to the palm oil production this year. The following three elements are included in the quantification of the effect of nature conservation:

- **Direct (on-site) effects from avoided transformation of land**: One-year delay of the effects from transformation from non-productive land (i.e., the conserved land) to productive land (i.e., the land use cover that is avoided by the conservation).
- **Direct (on-site) effects from occupation of land**: Direct emissions from occupation during one year (e.g., avoided CO₂ and N₂O emissions from drained peat land if the conserved land is wetland).
- **Indirect (remote) effects induced by avoiding transforming the conserved land into productive land**: This is modelled via the iLUC model, see section 2.2.
3 Goal and scope of the study

3.1 Purpose and functional unit

This LCA study has four goals:

- The primary purpose of the LCA is to document and assess the potential environmental impacts from the production of palm oil at UP.
- Secondly, to follow over time the GHG-emissions from the production of palm oil at UP, in order to identify trends.
- Thirdly, to compare UP’s production of palm oil with average Malaysian/Indonesian palm oil as well as industry averages of rapeseed oil, sunflower oil and peanut oil.
- Finally, the purpose is also to analyse improvement options for UP production of palm oil.

The functional unit is defined as one kilogram (kg) of edible fats and oils as defined in CODEX STAN 19-1981 (2013). For the included oils, the reference flow is one kg refined (Neutralised, Bleached and Deodorised; NBD) vegetable oil at refinery gate. Most oils are traded as bulk oils in trucks or ships; thus, no packaging is needed for delivery of the product of interest.

In addition to the functional unit mentioned above, the life cycle results are also shown for United Plantations product portfolio of (see Figure 1.2):

- 61,000 t crude palm oil (CPO)
- 49,000 t kernels
- 281,000 t refined palm oil
- 11,000 t palm acid oil (PAO)

3.2 System boundaries

Results are presented for United Plantation’s production in Malaysia and Indonesia separately and as a whole. The system boundaries are presented in Figure 3.1 and Figure 3.2. For the Malaysian production, all the three life cycle stages: cultivation, oil mill and refinery are managed by United Plantation, while the Indonesian production only involves the cultivation and the oil mill stages. United Plantations interacts with the Malaysian/Indonesian palm oil industry when United Plantations’ oil mills receive outside crops, when kernels are sent to processing in palm kernel oil mills, and when the Indonesian palm oil mill sells crude palm oil for refining.
Figure 3.1: System boundaries for UP’s palm oil production in Malaysia. Pictures: UP picture library, Google Earth 2014 and Wikipedia.
3.3 Data collection and calculations

Detailed data collection for United Plantations Berhad has been carried out for each year from 2004 to 2018. The data have been collected as part of four major LCA projects for United Plantations in 2008, 2011, 2014 and 2017. Each of the projects have involved several weeks of onsite data collection in collaboration with United Plantations Research Department (UPRD) including interviews with estate, oil mill and refinery managers. The data collection of the current study for United Plantations production in 2017 is carried out by UPRD and the data have been provided at the distance.

Detailed data have been collected for:

- Product flows: FFB yields, crude palm oil and kernel production, and production of refined palm oil.
- Material use: Fossil fuels, fertilisers, pesticides, and other chemicals.
- Energy: Detailed energy balances for oil mill boilers including exported steam for external utilisation.
- By-products: Benefits from the utilisation of kernels (in palm kernel oil mill), biogas from palm oil mill effluent treatment, residues from FFB,
- Specific laboratory tests and measurements, e.g. moisture and nitrogen content of different parts of the oil palm, and data on palm oil mill effluent (quantities and COD).
- Inventory of the use of capital goods: Material use for buildings, machinery, vehicles etc.

The LCA includes the modelling of a number of important emissions: Field emissions of nitrous oxide (N₂O) are calculated using the tier 1 approach in IPCC (2006). To be able to use the most accurate input data for the IPCC
model, detailed nitrogen balances have been established for all estates for 2004-2018. CO₂ emissions from managed peat soils are calculated based on IPCC (2014a). These data are adjusted to reflect water management assuming there is a linear relationship between CO₂ emissions and drainage depth. The emission figures from IPCC (2014a) are assumed to represent an average drainage depth at 75 cm. Because of good water management, United Plantations ensure that the average drainage depth is kept at 60 cm.

3.4 Included environmental impacts
The following environmental impacts are included in the life cycle assessment of palm oil at United Plantations Berhad:

- Global warming
- Biodiversity
- Respiratory effects
- Toxicity (to humans)

The method used for LCIA in this LCA of palm oil at United Plantations is the Stepwise 2006 method, version 1.7². The method is described and documented in Annex II in Weidema et al. (2008) and in Weidema (2009).

Global warming: Special attention is given to the impact category of global warming. There are several reasons for giving special attention to GHG emissions:
- It is a major environmental issue on the global agenda;
- Food (and biofuel) production causes a major contribution of the total global GHG emissions
- It is a high priority issue for United Plantations; and

In Stepwise 2006 v1.7, global warming is calculated using the IPCC’s global warming potential (GWP) for a time horizon at 100 years. The indicator for GWP₁₀₀ is kg CO₂-eq. The characterisation factors are based on IPCC’s fifth assessment report (IPCC 2013). For methane, the characterisation factors are changed according to Muñoz and Schmidt (2016).

It is common to exclude CO₂ emissions of biogenic origin in LCA. One example is that plant uptake of CO₂ from the atmosphere goes into the palm oil as carbon; when the palm oil is used (digested), the carbon content is converted to CO₂ which is emitted to air. In this case, the uptake and emission are equal and they appear with a relative short time interval. Then it can be argued that the climatic effect is very small. This is the reason why such uptake and emissions are typically excluded from LCA. However, there are other situations where biogenic CO₂ becomes important, i.e. for land use changes from land cover types with a high carbon stock (forests) are converted into land cover types with a lower carbon stock (oil palm plantation and other cropland). These emissions are included. However, since the effect on deforestation from land use only includes the timing of deforestation (see section 2.2 on indirect land use changes), the characterisation factor is a special time dependant GWP-factor. The GWP₁₀₀ effect of emitting 1 kg CO₂ 1 year earlier than it would have been is 0.00772 kg CO₂-eq.

² A CSV file with the Stepwise v1.5 for SimaPro 8 is available here:
Table 3: Characterisation factors: selected emission’s/exchange’s contribution to the included impact categories in the Stepwise v1.7 method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emissions/exchanges</th>
<th>Global warming kg CO2-eq./kg</th>
<th>Nature occupation ha<em>year agr/ha</em>year</th>
<th>Respiratory effects kg PM2.5-eq./kg</th>
<th>Toxicity (to humans)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CO₂, fossil</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂, biogenic, at time zero</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂, biogenic, accelerated 1 yr</td>
<td>0.00772</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH₄, biogenic</td>
<td>27.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N₂O</td>
<td>265</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accelerated land transformation from forest to arable</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particles &lt;2.5 um</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particles &lt;10 um</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH₃</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOₓ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO₂</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toxic substances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not listed: thousands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nature occupation (biodiversity): Nature occupation refers to impacts on biodiversity caused by occupation of land. The impact is measured using the unit ha*year equivalents arable land, which represents the impact from accelerating 1 ha transformation of forest to arable land by 1 year. The nature occupation impact is caused via the indirect land use change model. This is described in detail in section 3.4.2 and appendix 2 here: Schmidt and de Saxcé (2016).

Respiratory effects: The impact on human health related to respiratory effects (from emissions of inorganic substances) is expressed as equivalents of particles (PM₂.₅). Typically, the major contributing emissions to this impact category are particles (PM₂.₅ and PM₁₀), ammonia (NH₃), sulphur dioxide (SO₂), and nitrogen oxides (NOₓ).

Toxicity (to humans): The impact on human health related to emissions of toxic substances is expressed in comparative toxic units (chloroethene, C₂H₃Cl) per kg emission. The model considers fate, exposure and effects. Exposure includes inhalation and ingestion of drinking water, leaf crops, including fruit and cereals, root crops, meat, dairy products and fish. The effect factor reflects the change in lifetime disease probability due to change in life time intake of a pollutant (cases/kg intake). The impact is included as the sum of human toxicity carcinogenic and non-carcinogenic in Stepwise v1.7 (Weidema et al. 2008, annex II; Weidema 2009).

### 3.5 Key input data for the LCA

The table below summarizes key data for the environmental performance of palm oil production at United Plantations Berhad in Malaysia and Indonesia, respectively. This is compared with the industry average for Malaysia and Indonesia; data based on (Schmidt 2015).
Table 4: Key input data for the LCA of palm oil production at United Plantations Berhad for 2019, compared with baseline data for the industry. The industry averages are obtained from Schmidt and De Rosa (2019).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key data</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>United Plantations 2019</th>
<th>Industry average 2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultivation stage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFB yield (mature)</td>
<td>t/ha</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertiliser input</td>
<td>kg N/ha</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fossil fuel</td>
<td>MJ/ha</td>
<td>2,689</td>
<td>2,639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peat soil</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peat drainage depth</td>
<td>cm</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature conservation per oil palm</td>
<td>ha/ha</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oil mill stage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFB from third parties</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil extraction rate (OER)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kernel extraction rate (KER)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of POME treated with biogas</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Refinery stage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refined oil yield relative to CPO input</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>95.5%</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palm acid oil (PAO) relative to CPO input</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>5.52%</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4 Results

4.1 Impacts from UP’s palm oil production

The contribution to global warming from 1 kg NBD palm oil produced in UP in 2019 is 1.64 kg CO₂-eq. This result includes the impact from indirect land use changes (iLUC) as well as the offsets from nature conservation. The 1.64 kg CO₂-eq. per kg refined oil is broken down in a detailed contribution analysis in Table 5.

The major part of the contribution originates from the oil palm plantation stage where the four main contributors are 1) field emissions of CO₂ from oxidation of peat soils, 2) N₂O from nutrient cycle, indirect land use changes caused by land occupation, and offsets from nature conservation. The overall contribution from the oil mill stage is negative. This is because the substitutions caused by the kernels (kernel oil substitutes the marginal source of oil on the market and the kernel meal substitutes the marginal source of animal feed) exceeds the other contributions from fuels etc. The major contribution in the oil mill stage is CH₄ from POME treatment, though this is small because all POME is treated with biogas capture. The refinery stage is dominated by energy use, material use and a negative impact related to the by-product of palm acid oil (which substitute animal feed).

If nature conservation was not included in the results, it would change to 1.90 kg CO₂-eq. per kg NBD palm oil, while if both nature conservation and iLUC were excluded, the result would be 1.65 kg CO₂-eq. per kg NBD palm oil. Hence, United Plantations completely offset their contribution to iLUC by setting aside 0.18 ha nature conservation per hectare of oil palm planted area.

Table 5: GHG emissions results for UP’s palm oil production in 2019 (kg CO₂-eq per kg of NBD palm oil) with iLUC and nature conservation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life Cycle Stage</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>UP oil crop cultivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field emissions (related to nutrient cycle)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field emissions (related to peat drainage)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material inputs: fertiliser, pesticides, capital goods etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (transport, waste treatment, assets and services)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect Land Use Changes (iLUC)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCV nature conservation</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total crop cultivation stage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Palm oil mill</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POME treatment</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside crops</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (transport, waste treatment, assets and services)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-product: kernel</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-product: energy and EFB to field application</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total palm oil mill stage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Refinery</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials: chemicals and water</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By-products: PFAD/PKFAD</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal flow of refined products</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total refinery stage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All stages</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Nature conservation

Recently, United Plantations has expanded its operations into Central Kalimantan, Indonesia, where much of the land acquired consists of degraded secondary and logged over forests as well as large tracks of alang-alang grasslands. Of the company’s total land bank in Kalimantan at least 7,500 ha is land under set-aside for permanent conservation. Of the 7,500 ha 31% is on peat swamps. Furthermore, United Plantations has 188 ha nature conservation reserves in Malaysia. This study quantifies and includes in the account the GHG emission savings from nature conservation. The applied methodology is novel and compatible with the applied method for the modelling of iLUC.

When including nature conservation, the impact from the Indonesian production reduces from 1.74 kg CO₂-eq. to 0.72 kg CO₂-eq. per kg NBD oil. It should be noted that both the area of and the carbon stocks in the reserves have been estimated using a conservative approach. The nature conservation reserves in Malaysia are too small to significantly reducing the results for the Malaysian production. For United Plantation’s entire production, the nature conservation reserves reduce the GHG emissions from 1.90 to 1.64 CO₂-eq. per kg oil. For nature conservation, the reduction is mainly associated to the conservation of peat soils, but also the conserved above ground carbon contributes. The contribution analysis for the results including iLUC and nature conservation is shown in Table 5.

The contribution from nature conservation accounts for the indirect effect of nature conservation, i.e. that nature conservation in one place will increase the demand for land somewhere else. In other words, the only credit to UP’s nature conservation accounted in the results is the higher carbon stock in the nature conservation compared to land that is currently being converted to arable land around the world (Schmidt 2016). The high GHG emission saving from nature conservation is due to the fact that a significant share of UP’s nature conservation in Central Kalimantan is on water logged peatland. If this peat was drained and converted to arable land, it would cause significant GHG emissions. Hence, UP is actively preventing peat for being converted to oil palm.

4.3 Time series of GHG emissions from palm oil at United Plantations Berhad

Below, time series of GHG emissions from palm oil at UP are presented. Figure 4.1 shows results without iLUC, Figure 4.2 shows results with iLUC, and Figure 4.3 shows the results including nature conservation.

The time series for NBD palm oil at UP show a reductions of 52% without iLUC, 48% with iLUC and 55% with iLUC and nature conservation from 2004 to 2019.

Declines in the GHG emissions levels typically occurs when installing a new technology replacing less clean technologies. At six points in time, new cleaner technologies have been installed; namely biogas plants, biofuel boiler and the Unifuji refinery, see Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2. This is either by installing a biogas or biomass plant, by closing down old mills and then treating the FFB in mills with cleaner technologies, or by implementing the new efficient refinery Unifuji, which enables for a much better utilisation of energy by-products from the Optimill. Significant reductions in GHG emissions can be observed following the installation of each biogas capture facility. Further, the Seri Pelangi and Lima Blas oil mills closed in 2013 and 2015 respectively. After that, the FFB have been processed in oil mills with biogas capture. A reduction can be observed in the figures for 2010-2011 (where biogas capture was installed in UIE and Ulu Basir) and 2012-2013 (where biogas capture was installed in PT Surya Seberang Seberang), but not for 2006-2007. This is due to the lower yields recorded in all the years when the new technologies were installed; after 2006, 2010 and 2012. For
the two last installations, the benefits of the cleaner technologies have exceeded the increasing GHG emissions due to lower yields. This is not the case for the first one in 2006.

Despite yields mainly decreased from 2008 to 2016, the installation of new technologies has kept the GHG emissions more or less constant – there has even been a decreasing trend. The introduction of the new estates in Indonesia from 2011 has significantly reduced the overall impact on GHG emissions due to a highly efficient palm oil mill with biogas capture from POME contributing to lower emissions and a large area dedicated to nature conservation largely on peat soil. From 2011-2015, the yields in Indonesia have been significantly lower than in Malaysia; mainly because the palms are young and had not reached yet the average yield for oil palms throughout their life cycle. In 2011, the yields in UP’s Indonesian estates were 36% lower than in Malaysia. This gap has steadily been smaller from 2011 to 2019, where it was 14%. In 2016, a higher oil extraction rate in the Indonesian oil mill gave, for the first time, higher crude oil yields per hectare than the Malaysian estates. The reduction from 2017 to 2018 is due to the replacement of the old Ulu Bernam mill with the new Optimill with biogas capture. Further, high yields in 2018 also contributes to the reduction in GHG emissions. In 2019, the GHG emissions further decreased compared to 2018. This is mainly due to a more efficient use of palm oil mill energy by-products from the Optimill in the new Unifuji refinery.

Figure 4.1: Time-series for NBD palm oil at United Plantations Berhad (without iLUC and without nature conservation) for 2004-2019.
**Figure 4.2** Time-series for NBD palm oil at United Plantations Berhad (with iLUC and without nature conservation) for 2004-2019.

*Figure 4.2* shows that the contribution from iLUC has reached a maximum in 2016 due to the extremely low yields obtained in that year, because iLUC is directly proportional to the land use and inversely proportional to the yields. Similarly, in 2008 the yields were the highest recorded at United Plantation Berhad and the iLUC contribution was the lowest observed until now.

**Figure 4.3** Time-series for NBD palm oil at United Plantations Berhad (with iLUC and nature conservation) for 2004-2019.
4.4 Comparison of palm oil from UP with industry averages of other vegetable oils

UP’s palm oil has been compared with industry averages RSPO certified and non-certified palm oil (Malaysia/Indonesia), rapeseed oil (Europe) and sunflower oil (Ukraine). The industry averages are based on Schmidt and De Rosa (2019) and Schmidt (2015). Figure 4.4 shows results excluding iLUC, and Figure 4.5 shows results including iLUC and both iLUC and nature conservation. Figure 4.5 shows separately the effect of nature conservation – see bars ‘UP ex nature’ and ‘UP incl nature’. The data used for the industry averages are associated with large uncertainties for emissions of pesticides and heavy metal contaminants in fertilisers. Therefore, the contributions to toxicity are not included in the comparison.

![Figure 4.4: Comparison of LCIA results (excluding iLUC) for 1 kg NBD palm oil at United Plantations Berhad in 2019 with industry averages for 2016 for palm oil (Malaysia and Indonesia), rapeseed oil (Europe) and sunflower oil (Ukraine).](image1)

![Figure 4.5: Comparison of LCIA results (including only iLUC and both iLUC and nature conservation) for 1 kg NBD palm oil at United Plantations Berhad in 2019 with industry averages for 2016 for palm oil (Malaysia and Indonesia), rapeseed oil (Europe) and sunflower oil (Ukraine).](image2)
UP’s palm oil performs better than all the other oils for almost all impact categories. In particular UP’s oil shows lower GHG emissions even compared to average RSPO certified palm oil and significantly lower emissions compared to non-certified palm oil.

4.5 Results for UP’s total product portfolio in 2019

Table 6 shows the results for the entire 2019 product portfolio of United Plantations in terms of GHG emissions (1000 t CO₂-eq.), divided by the three main production stages: cultivation; oil mills and UP’s refinery, Unitata and Unifuji. The results for the cultivation stage are further divided in contributions from oil palm cultivation at United Plantations’ estates and external estates. Similarly, the results for the oil mill stage are shown separately for United Plantations’ mills and for the external production of CPKO.

The table shows the results with iLUC and nature conservation, with iLUC only and without iLUC and nature conservation.

Table 6: GHG emissions results for UP’s total product portfolio in 2019 (1000 t CO₂-eq) with iLUC and nature conservation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GHG emissions</th>
<th>With iLUC and nat. cons.</th>
<th>With iLUC, without nat. cons.</th>
<th>Excluding iLUC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultivation stage (UP estates)</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultivation stage (external estates)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil mill stage</td>
<td>-72</td>
<td>-81</td>
<td>-60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil mill stage (external production of CPKO)</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refinery (Unitata)</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UP Total</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>794</td>
<td>704</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5 Highlights

GHG emissions 2019: The GHG emissions per kg NBD palm oil from palm oil production at United Plantations Berhad in 2019 are calculated as:

- Result with iLUC and nature conservation: 1.64 kg CO₂-eq.
- Result with iLUC and without nature conservation: 1.90 kg CO₂-eq.
- Result without iLUC and nature conservation: 1.65 kg CO₂-eq.

Reductions in GHG emissions 2004-2019: United Plantations Berhad, via their efforts towards a more sustainable production, have achieved remarkable reductions in the GHG emissions per kg NBD oil:

- Reduction 2004-2019 with iLUC and nature conservation: 55%
- Reduction 2004-2019 with iLUC and without nature conservation: 48%
- Reduction 2004-2019 without iLUC and nature conservation: 52%

Comparison of United Plantations palm oil production with average palm oil and other oils: The 2019 GHG emissions from United Plantations’ production have been compared with average certified and non-certified Malaysian/Indonesian palm oil production, European rapeseed oil and Ukrainian sunflower oil produced in 2016.

![Graph](image.png)

**Figure 5.1:** GHG emission of UP’s palm oil calculated in this report, average palm oil (Schmidt and De Rosa 2019), sunflower oil and rapeseed oil (Schmidt and De Rosa 2019; Schmidt 2015) with iLUC and nature conservation. The chart shows the results for RSPO certified and non-certified RBD palm oil in 2016 and for UP’s NBD palm oil in 2019. The results for RSPO certified and non-certified palm oil are slightly different (~2%) than in Schmidt and De Rosa (2019) due to updated values of capital goods and services and dinitrogen oxides emissions.
6 References

ecoinvent Centre (2017), ecoinvent data v3.3. Swiss Centre for Life Cycle Inventories, St. Gallen.


Schmidt J and De Rosa M (2019), Comparative Life Cycle Assessment of RSPO-certified and Non-certified Palm Oil. This report is authored by Jannick Schmidt and Michele De Rosa, 2.-0 LCA consultants, Denmark, with contributions from the members of a crowdfunded project. https://lca-net.com/p/3339