

Implementing forest landscape restoration in Latin America: stakeholder perceptions on legal frameworks

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2 **legal frameworks**

3 **Abstract**

4 Legal frameworks could play a key role in enabling countries to meet their ambitious forest
5 landscape restoration (FLR) targets. In this paper, we examine the perceptions of different
6 types of stakeholders from 17 Latin American countries on aspects of forestry and
7 environmental legal frameworks that enable or hamper FLR interventions at the national level.
8 We first reviewed general, environmental, social and financial aspects of existing legal
9 frameworks in order to provide the basis for a mixed qualitative–quantitative analysis of
10 perceptions. The analysis combines information from semi-structured interviews and a Likert-
11 scale questionnaire given to relevant stakeholders involved in implementing FLR interventions
12 in the countries assessed. We interviewed stakeholders from government, academia, national
13 non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and local private and non-governmental
14 organizations. We found that most legal frameworks are in the jurisdiction of either the
15 agriculture or the environmental sectors. As a whole, we did not find evidence of the kind of
16 legal frameworks articulation needed to enable the coordinated deployment of various forest
17 FLR interventions across landscapes. We found efforts in Brazil, Colombia, Guatemala, Costa
18 Rica, Ecuador and Mexico to improve cross-sectorial communication and legislation, and to
19 develop innovative financial mechanisms to support FLR interventions. In general,
20 interviewees had a positive perception of the content of legal frameworks in their countries;
21 however, they highlighted weak implementation capacities, insufficient funding, sectorial and
22 social conflicts, and lack of transparency as key impediments for policy implementation.
23 Academic and NGO stakeholders perceived the content of the legal frameworks more
24 negatively, whereas government officials were more positive. Different perceptions and the
25 prevalence of cross-sectorial conflicts highlight the importance of efforts aimed at improving
26 governance mechanisms and policy integration in the region. In addition, a targeted effort is
27 needed to develop long-term, funding options that are public, private or mixed, and to
28 disseminate information on the importance of FLR interventions for national economies and
29 human well-being. We consider our results as a preliminary overview of the legal environment
30 for FLR implementation in Latin America.

31 **Keywords:** forest governance; legal frameworks; forest and landscape restoration; social
32 perceptions.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Forest Landscape Restoration (FLR), a term coined in the early 2000s (Laestadius et al. 2015) is
35 'the long-term process of regaining ecological functionality and enhancing human well-being
36 across deforested or degraded forest landscapes'. FLR occupies center stage in current global
37 discussions on natural resource sustainability, climate change mitigation and adaptation,
38 livelihoods, and biodiversity conservation (Canadell and Raupach, 2008; Wilson and Calagangan,
39 2016). In this context, FLR implies that a suite of different land uses (hereafter called 'FLR
40 interventions') ranging from conservation of natural forest cover to commercial tree
41 plantations, coexist within a multifunctional landscape (Laestadius et al., 2015; Aronson et al.,
42 2017).

43 The Bonn Challenge, launched in 2011, is a global effort to implement FLR interventions. To
44 date, 58 national and subnational governments have committed to restore about 170 million
45 hectares of degraded or otherwise deforested lands by 2020 (IUCN, 2018). In Latin America,
46 these pledges are supported by Initiative 20×20, which brings together governments,
47 investors, researchers and practitioners for the restoration of over 50 million hectares (WRI,
48 2018). Despite such commitment and support, the ability of countries to implement FLR
49 interventions is partially contingent on enabling legal frameworks that can promote such
50 interventions as well as connect national and international restoration aspirations (Meli et al.,
51 2017).

52 Legal frameworks worldwide have been found to promote the implementation of various FLR
53 interventions, from biodiversity offsets in Colombia (Murcia et al., 2017b) to riparian buffers in
54 Brazil (Aronson et al., 2011; Chaves et al., 2015; Brancalion et al., 2016). In China, India and
55 Vietnam, effective regulatory institutions have contributed to increased forest cover (Barbier
56 and Tesfaw, 2015). In Mexico and across Central America, policies concerning payment for
57 ecosystem services and community forestry have also promoted enhanced forest cover (Min-
58 Venditti et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the multidimensional nature of FLR, with its social,
59 economic and environmental goals (Sabogal et al., 2015), requires that legal frameworks – and
60 the institutions that implement them – become articulated at both national and local scales.
61 One key challenge is that governments regulate activities at jurisdictional levels, whereas
62 landscapes are loosely defined based on their biophysical (e.g. a watershed) and social
63 features (e.g. a traditional community territory). This means that FLR implementation requires
64 the integration of policies, institutions, and relevant stakeholders beyond a single jurisdiction.
65 Multistakeholder arrangements are needed to negotiate the 'where', 'what', and 'why' of
66 different interventions, so that potential conflicts can be accounted for and benefits can be
67 evenly distributed (Guariguata and Brancalion, 2014; Mansourian, 2016; Djenontin et al., 2018;
68 Riggs et al., 2018).

69 In this study, we reviewed general, environmental, social and financial aspects of existing
70 forestry and environmental legal frameworks, and gathered the perceptions of various
71 stakeholders across seventeen Latin American countries on the legal frameworks as a way to
72 understand the role of current policies in either hindering or enabling FLR interventions and to
73 identify opportunities for improvement. As such, we focused on existing legal frameworks,
74 even if these predated current FLR initiatives, such as the Bonn Challenge. Recent reviews have
75 identified national and regional constraints and opportunities for implementing FLR in the
76 Latin American region (Méndez-Toribio et al., 2017; Murcia et al., 2017a); our analysis
77 complements these efforts by providing a broader overview of the legal environment based on
78 perceptions of relevant stakeholders across several countries.

79 **2. Research design and methodology**

80 Our study focuses on Spanish- and Portuguese-speaking countries in mainland Latin America.
81 Across these countries, we analyzed the content of current forestry and environmental legal
82 frameworks that legislate a variety of FLR interventions (e.g. conservation, restoration, natural
83 regeneration, agroforestry, commercial silviculture and forest management), and gathered the
84 perceptions of various stakeholders regarding the content and factors that affect the
85 implementation of the legal frameworks in each of the countries. Note that the socio-political
86 landscape in Latin America is very dynamic (Rich et al., 2019); therefore as our research was
87 conducted in 2017, these results reflect the situation at that time.

88 *2.1 Content of legal frameworks regulating forest cover management*

89 We classified the legal frameworks based on which government sector was responsible for
90 implementation. For each legal framework we also assessed specific regulations, plans and
91 decrees that support policy implementation (hereafter referred as 'supportive frameworks').
92 We searched for a series of pre-determined terms related to general, environmental, social or
93 financial aspects to review the legal frameworks in a systematic and replicable manner
94 (Bryman, 2008) (**Table 1**). That is, we reviewed a given framework (and its supportive
95 frameworks) and documented the terms being mentioned. We then counted the number of
96 legal frameworks that mentioned a given term and reported its total frequency of appearance.
97 Given the broad geographical scope of this analysis, we acknowledge that this is a preliminary
98 attempt at evaluating forestry and environmental legal frameworks as they relate to FLR
99 implementation in Latin America. Although we analyzed legal frameworks at the country level,
100 we also acknowledge this offers an incomplete picture in decentralized countries; however,
101 detailed subnational analyses were beyond the scope of our work.

102 *2.2 Perceptions of legal frameworks*

103 To analyze stakeholder perceptions, we used a mixed qualitative–quantitative approach
104 combining information from semi-structured interviews and a Likert-scale questionnaire. We
105 conducted the interviews between January and August 2017 with stakeholders from all of the
106 countries where we evaluated the legal frameworks in section 2.1 (except Nicaragua, for which
107 we did not receive replies from those contacted). We identified interviewees primarily based
108 on our own contacts, followed by snowball sampling (Gentles et al., 2015). This selective
109 sampling guaranteed that interviewed stakeholders were active in the FLR agenda of their
110 respective countries.

111 Semi-structured interviews (e.g. Lewis-Beck et al., 2004; Padgett, 2017) aimed at gathering
112 informed perceptions from relevant stakeholders on the content of the legal frameworks and
113 on aspects related to their implementation (**Table 2**). Interviews were open-ended in order to
114 allow interviewees to further elaborate on their perceptions and reshape questions as needed
115 (Lamarque et al., 2011; **Table S1**). We interviewed stakeholders working in the government (at
116 national and subnational scales), NGO stakeholders (including those working at both national
117 and international scales), academics (including those working in research institutions and
118 universities), and local stakeholders (including those in small local NGOs, businesses and
119 environmental consultancies). (**Table S2**)

120 We used the software MAXQDA (VERBI, 2014) to transcribe, code and analyze interview data.
121 We coded responses based on the predefined leading themes of the interview questions
122 (**Table 2**). We complemented our predefined coding through open coding, which was based on
123 the analysis of word frequencies used to identify concepts or key terms that could constitute
124 emerging ideas beyond the themes predefined in the study.

125

126

Policy content	Terms
	General
Motivation	Forest management, environmental management, biodiversity conservation, commercial reforestation, climate change mitigation, ecosystem service provision, protected areas management, water conservation
Accountability	Fines, penalties, imprisonment
	Environmental
FLR interventions legislated	Silviculture, agroforests, restoration, natural regeneration, forest conservation and forest management
Species origin	Native, exotics, mixed
Target area	Riparian forests, mountain tops, slopes, headwaters, degraded pasturelands, forested areas
	Social
Target social group	Local communities, small-scale landholders, indigenous groups
Communication mechanism	Capacitation workshops, rural extension, information platforms, communication
	Financial
Incentives	Credit lines, non-refundable funding, payments for ecosystem services, tax incentives

127 **Table 1.** Policy aspects and terms searched for during the content analysis of various legal
 128 frameworks in mainland Latin America

129 The application of the Likert-scale questionnaire was twofold: (i) as a quantitative approach to
 130 be complemented and interpreted based on the interviews; and (ii) as a means to corroborate
 131 answers collected through the semi-structured interviews. Interviewees assigned their degree
 132 of agreement to a series of affirmative sentences (**Table S1**). We used a 1–7 scale to value the
 133 level of agreement, where 1 meant ‘total disagreement’ and 7 meant ‘total agreement’. The
 134 sentences in the questionnaire corresponded to the themes used in the interview (**Table 2**). As
 135 with the content analysis of the legal frameworks, and for clarity, we separated legal
 136 frameworks regulating forestry interventions from those regulating environmental
 137 interventions. We linearly transformed the 1 to 7 scale to a -1 to 1 scale, whereby -1
 138 corresponds to total disagreement and 1 to total agreement. We then performed Kruskal-
 139 Wallis tests to detect differences across stakeholder groups.

140

Theme	Subtheme	Description
Content	(1) Institutional structure	– Official institutions in charge of implementing
	(2) Legal frameworks	Motivation and transparency Main objectives of legal frameworks Clarity of legal framework regarding objectives, rights and duties regulated
		Incentives Presence of plans, regulations, decrees and other frameworks that support implementation of the law
		Accountability e.g. credits, payments for ecosystem credits
	(3) Capacities	Institutional Institutional capacity to implement and enforce the regulations
		Infrastructure Infrastructure to implement and enforce the regulations (e.g. roads, tree nurseries)
		Technical Intellectual and information capacity within the institutions
		Social Other institution types, for example, social organizations involved
	(4) Conflicts	Interest Cross-sectorial conflicts of interest concerning duties and regulations related to land management
		Social Social conflicts in general (e.g. land tenure, indigenous rights)
(5) Implementation transparency	–	Monitoring of actions implemented

Table 2. Semi-structured interview themes to assess stakeholders' perceptions on the content and on aspects that affect the implementation of legal frameworks legislating FLR interventions

144

145 **3. Results**

146 **3.1 Content of legal frameworks regulating forest cover management**

147 We analyzed a total of 60 legal frameworks, plus their supportive frameworks, regulating
 148 different FLR interventions across 17 Latin American countries (**Table S3**). Twenty frameworks
 149 fall under the responsibility of the agricultural sector (i.e. ministry of agriculture) while forty
 150 fall under the responsibility of the environmental sector (i.e. ministry of environment). A few
 151 recent legal frameworks on climate change mitigation and adaptation fall under the
 152 responsibility of more than one sector, mostly including the two mentioned above. Below we
 153 further compare aspects of the content of forestry and environmental legal frameworks.

154 The main motivation of legal frameworks falling under the ministry of agriculture related to
 155 the regulation of commercial forestry interventions (hereafter called 'forestry legal
 156 frameworks'), and thus they focused on the management of natural and planted forests. On
 157 the other hand, frameworks linked to the environmental ministry contained a wider variety of
 158 stated motivations, including biodiversity conservation and climate change mitigation (**Figure**
 159 **1**). We found that most legal frameworks reviewed have regulations, plans and decrees to
 160 support their implementation, and most establish accountability measures for policy
 161 enforcement, mainly in the form of fines or withdrawal of concessions (**Figure 1**). That said,
 162 Brazil is the only country with a command-and-control legal framework to promote the
 163 recovery of native vegetation on private lands.

164 Both forestry and environmental legal frameworks legislate for a variety of restorative
165 interventions. However, forestry frameworks mentioned silvicultural activities more often than
166 environmental frameworks. In environmental frameworks, we found a slightly higher presence
167 of the term 'forest restoration' as an action being legislated for. Most legal frameworks,
168 regardless of the responsible sector, did not specify species origin (i.e. native or exotic) for
169 planting purposes (**Figure 1**). Both forestry and environmental frameworks mentioned native
170 forests and reforestation areas (whether degraded or not), as a target for policy
171 implementation. In addition, environmental frameworks usually legislate protected forest
172 areas.

173 Forestry legal frameworks included clauses on the differential application of legislation for
174 certain social groups, mainly indigenous groups and small landholders. Environmental legal
175 frameworks mostly distinguished indigenous groups (**Figure 1**). The majority of forestry
176 frameworks did not consider a policy communication mechanism, whereas almost half the
177 environmental frameworks included a mandate to hold information platforms. On the other
178 hand, forestry frameworks were more likely to consider incentive mechanisms (mainly funding
179 options) than environmental frameworks. Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala and Mexico were
180 the only countries with incentive mechanisms for the implementation of environmental forest
181 restoration, in the form of subsidies and payments for environmental services.

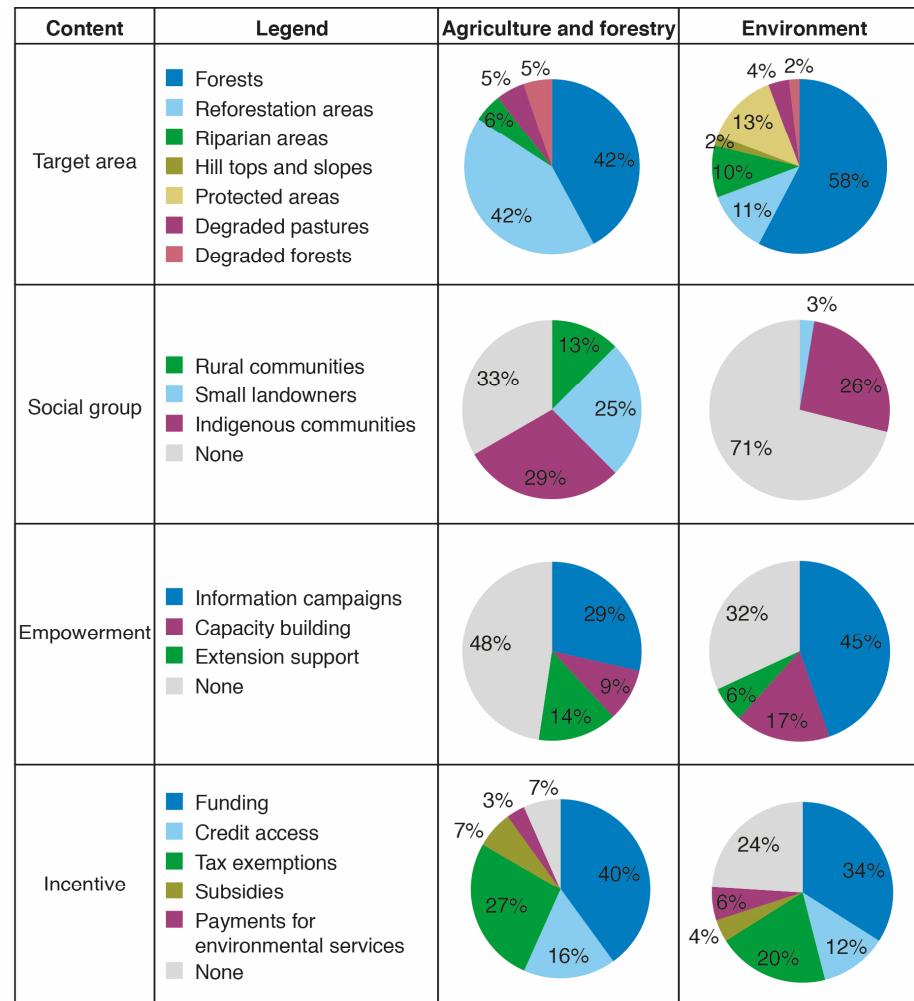
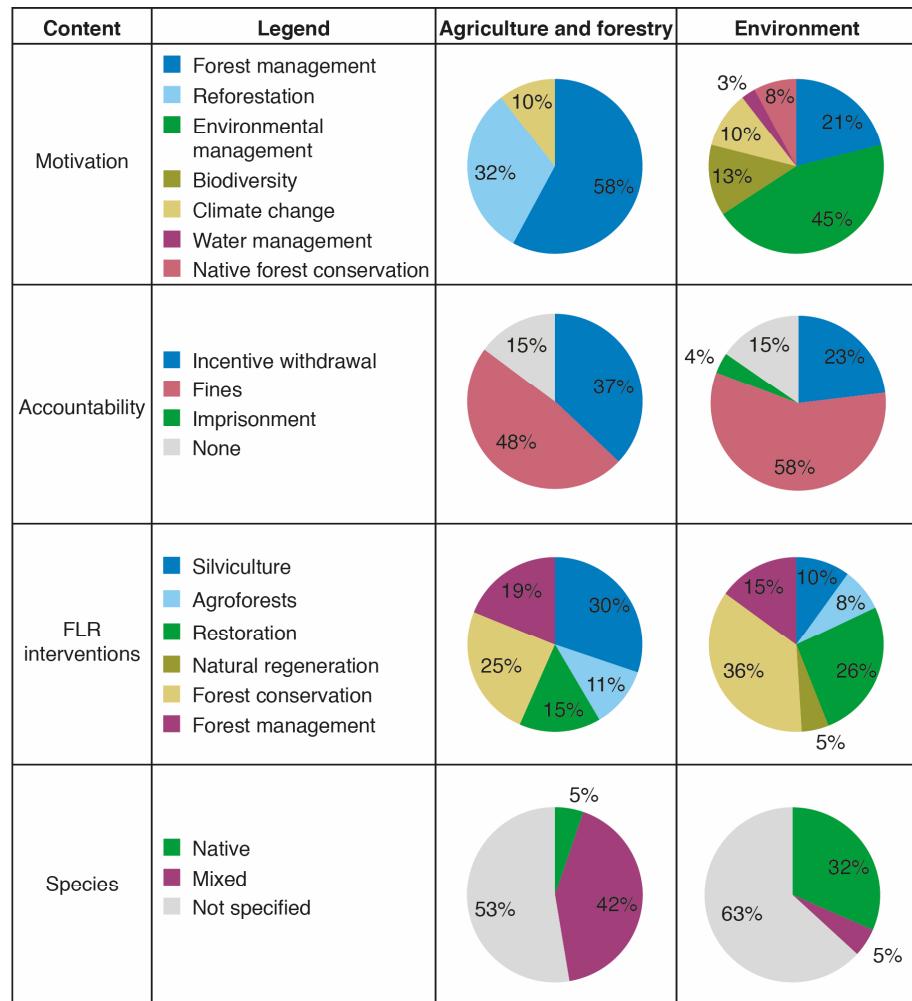


Figure 1. Percentage of forestry and environmental legal frameworks that contained the different terms used to review the policy content

184 3.2. *Perceptions on legal frameworks content and implementation*

185 We interviewed 79 stakeholders from 16 of the 17 countries covered in the analysis. Thirty five
186 percent of stakeholders were from academia, 33% were from government, 17% were local
187 stakeholders and 15% were from NGOs. Countries were unequally represented in the final
188 sample, with most interviewees being from Brazil (11), Mexico (11), Argentina (10) and
189 Colombia (10). We highlight three main points: (i) in general, interviewees disagreed more
190 when Likert statements related to environmental legal frameworks [-0.20; 0.24] than when
191 they related to forestry frameworks [-0.10; 0.23]; (ii) differences were higher between
192 government stakeholders and the other stakeholder types (**Figure 2 and 3**); and (iii) differences
193 among stakeholder types were higher for statements on implementation (**Figure 3**) than for
194 statements on content of the legal frameworks (**Figure 2**). Next, we elaborate on these points,
195 complementing them with information from the semi-structured interviews.

196 Interviewees agreed on the existence of reasonable legal frameworks, institutions and funding
197 mechanisms regulating and supporting forestry (commercial) and environmental FLR
198 interventions in their countries.

199 *There are enough legal frameworks ... I don't see the need for more. (Government,
200 Brazil)*

201 *The governmental structure is quite 'rich' in institutions. (NGO, Colombia)*

202 In some countries, interviewees mentioned the existence of decentralized institutions that
203 support the mandates of both the agricultural and the environmental sector. Examples include
204 the Mexican National Commission for the Knowledge and Use of Biodiversity (CONABIO,
205 Spanish acronym), the Bolivian Forest and Land Audit and Social Control Authority (ABT), the
206 existing coordination between the Chilean National Forestry Corporation (CONAF) and the
207 Forestry Institute (IF) merging forestry management with research, and the National
208 Agricultural Technology Institute (INTA) in Argentina that works with rural extensionists.

209 Even with the existence of relevant institutions and legal frameworks that can support FLR
210 interventions, interviewees (except government stakeholders), did not perceive legislations as
211 overly clear. This was particularly true for environmental legal frameworks, which interviewees
212 found to be conceptually confusing and not specific enough to promote FLR interventions
213 (**Figure 2**):

214 *People [who are] not well informed find the laws confusing ... they are too 'generic',
215 they should be more accessible for a common reader. (Academic, Brazil)*

216 *The law talks about environmental restoration but does not explain it ... the law is not
217 clear on where the priority areas to invest in restoration are ... (Academic, Argentina)*

218 In addition, local stakeholders and academics also mentioned the existence of sectorial
219 conflicts in either the levels of funding attributed to the different institutions or their
220 mandates. As the following quote illustrates:

221 *[E]nvironmental ministries always have fewer resources. (Academic, Argentina)*

222 Interviewees mentioned that legislations with opposite mandates can overlap in a given
223 territory, leading to conflict. The following quotes illustrate this:

224 *The main difficulty of the application of the law ... is that there are latent overlaps
225 between institutions in carrying out certain actions linked, for example, to
226 reforestation. (Academic, Paraguay)*

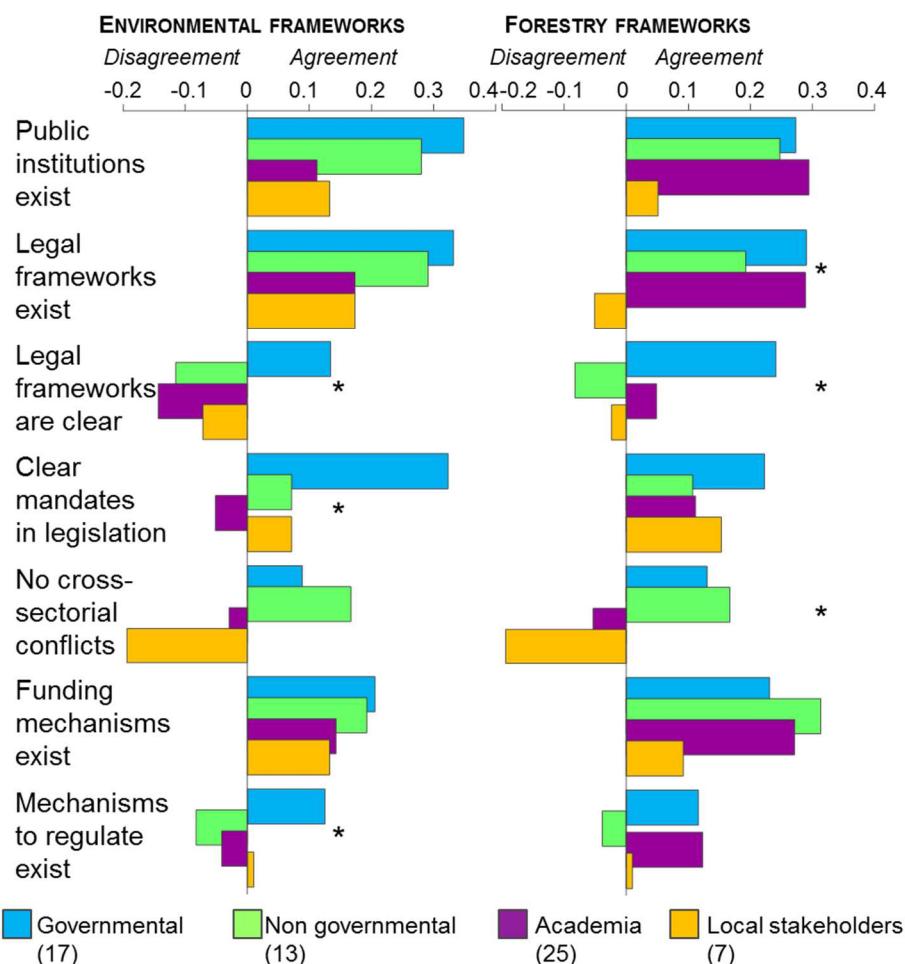
227 *There are some conflicts between the environmental and agriculture ministries, and
228 thus the law has not been implemented. (Local, Brazil)*

229 *Basically in Bolivia the agrarian vision and the forestry vision have always been*
230 *divorced. (Government, Bolivia)*

231 Nevertheless, as the quote below illustrates, interviewees from Guatemala, Brazil and
232 Argentina mentioned incipient efforts aimed at diminishing the traditional division between
233 the agricultural and environmental sectors.

234 *[I]n 2015 a multi-ministry board was set up; a joint table between the Ministry of*
235 *Agriculture and the Environmental Secretary to develop a joint work plan to address*
236 *some conservation matters ... from the table a program called 'Forest Management*
237 *with Integrated Livestock' came out. It is necessary to better operationalize it, but it is*
238 *already working in the territory in some way." (Government, Argentina)*

239



240

241 **Figure 2.** Agreement level of four types of stakeholders in relation to affirmative sentences
242 about the content of legal frameworks regulating FLR interventions across 17 Latin American
243 countries. Local stakeholders represent private and non-governmental organizations working
244 at subnational scales. Asterisks indicate statistical significance at $P<0.05$ from Kruskal-Wallis
245 tests for differences among stakeholder groups. Agreement can potentially vary between -1
246 (full disagree) and 1 (full agree), however, the figure shows the actual range occupied by the
247 responses.

248 Most interviewees agreed on the existence of funding mechanisms (as part of the legal
249 frameworks) to support the implementation of FLR interventions. Those mentioned are

250 subsidies, lines of credit, and payments for environmental services, among others. All these
251 mechanisms are being implemented, and stakeholders perceived they are having positive
252 impacts.

253 Regarding aspects that affect the implementation of the legal frameworks, all stakeholders
254 agreed that insufficient financial resources, weak institutional and technical capacities,
255 conflicts of interest among social stakeholders, low availability of technology and
256 infrastructure, and land tenure issues were all affecting implementation (**Figure 3**). They
257 perceived there are still insufficient human and financial resources for policy implementation,
258 and an unequal distribution of funding across different sectors of society. Interviewees
259 perceived that large-scale landholders traditionally benefit more from governmental subsidies
260 than smallholders. Small-scale rural landholders often cannot apply for funding sources
261 without external support. The following quotes illustrate these issues:

262 *[The] rural population ... is more vulnerable and is victim of institutional and
263 governmental disorder and corruption. Local producers have no interest in
264 conservation; they do not receive any incentives. (**Government, Colombia**)*

265 *There are sectors that do not agree, given that the law benefits the big and medium
266 producers but not the small ones, who do not receive any benefit. (**Academic,
267 Paraguay**)*

268 Local stakeholders and academics always disagreed with statements for both legal framework
269 types (i.e. environmental and forestry) (**Figure 3**). In addition, local and academic stakeholders
270 also perceived that the implementation of legal frameworks is not fully transparent.
271 Stakeholders from these sectors also mentioned the existence of corruption and pressure on
272 public institutions from the productive sector, as well as weak institutional capacities, as
273 aspects that limit the impact of the legislation and the ability to monitor implementation. The
274 quote below illustrates this:

275 *It is quite difficult get access to good environmental information about what is
276 happening in the territory ... it is almost impossible. (**Academic, Argentina**)*

277 Perceptions on social issues also showed important differences. Government and NGO
278 stakeholders agree that society, in general, is empowered to affect legislation, and that people
279 legitimize the current legal frameworks. The following quote exemplifies this:

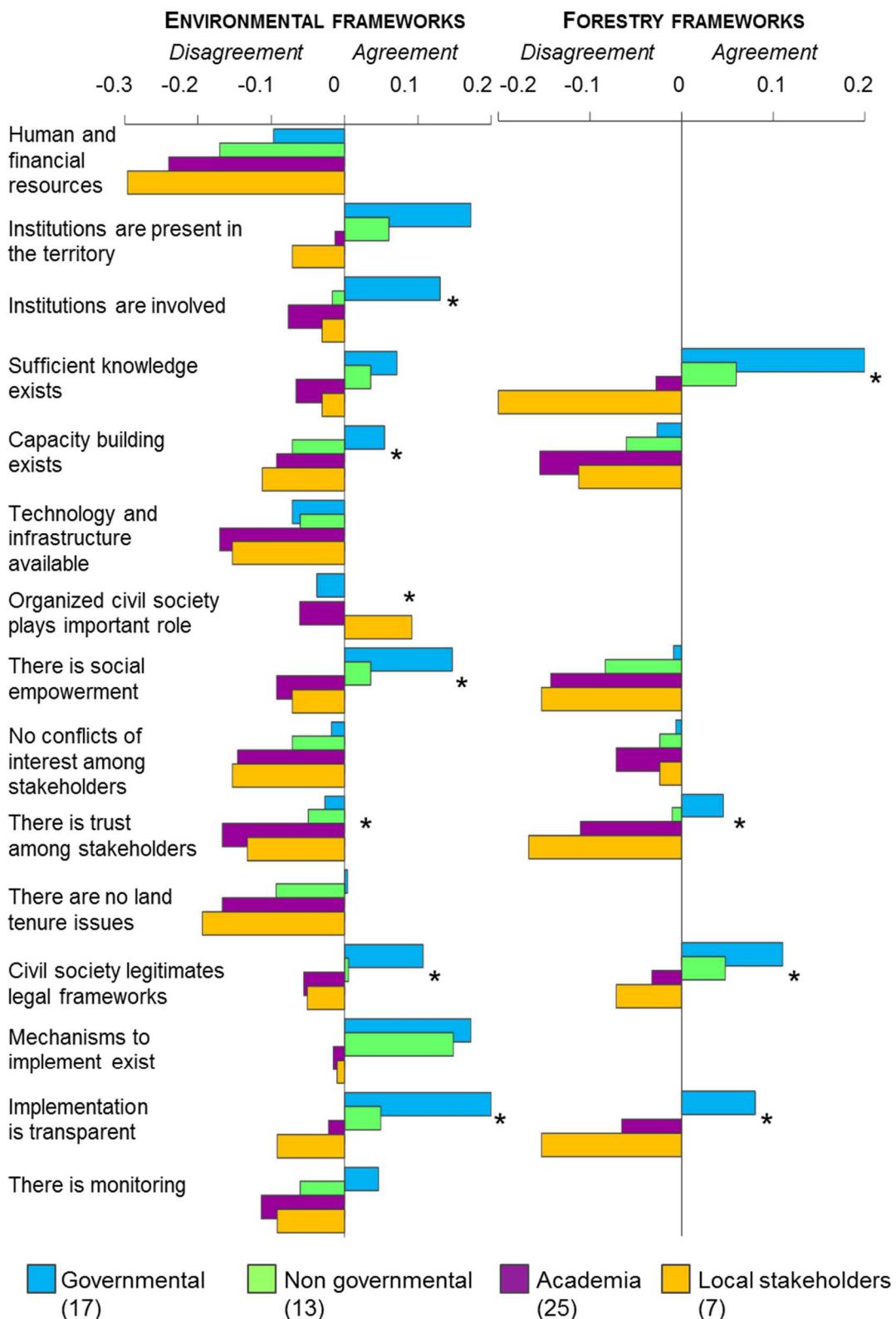
280 *There is good receptivity among the people, since this was an open process where there
281 was social consultation ... (**Government, Guatemala**)*

282 On the other hand, locals and academics mostly disagreed with these aspects:

283 *... [The] producer is quite suspicious; he believes that the legislation will not be enforced
284 and he can drag his feet. (**Local, Brazil**)*

285 *Producers have a better perception of the rural extension agent than of the
286 government ... They see the government as the organism that will fine them for not
287 complying with the law ... (**Academic, Brazil**)*

288 Stakeholders from different countries highlighted different factors limiting implementation of
289 the legal frameworks. For instance, stakeholders from Chile perceived that legal frameworks
290 regulating commercial forestry plantations of exotic species had been more effective in
291 achieving their objectives than those currently regulating native forest management. In Bolivia,
292 Paraguay, Venezuela and Uruguay, stakeholders perceived that forest conservation and
293 restoration were not current government priorities.



294

295 **Figure 3.** Agreement level of four types of stakeholders in relation to affirmative sentences
296 about the implementation of legal frameworks regulating FLR interventions across 17 Latin
297 American countries. Some themes did not apply to forestry frameworks so are left blank in the
298 figure. Local stakeholders represent private and non-governmental organizations working at

299 subnational scales. Asterisks indicate statistical significance at $P < 0.05$ from Kruskal-Wallis
300 tests for differences among stakeholder groups.

301 **4. Discussion**

302 We found Latin American countries have longstanding and binding legal frameworks that
303 regulate a variety of FLR interventions, with commercial forestry falling usually under the
304 responsibility of the ministry of agriculture and environmental forest restoration under the
305 ministry of environment. Overall, stakeholders interviewed had positive perceptions around
306 the content of the legal frameworks, but expressed more negative perceptions around
307 implementation.

308 Positive perceptions on the content of legal frameworks may denote progress on
309 environmental legislation in the region. Brazil's 2012 revision of the Native Vegetation
310 Protection legislation, for example, included innovative compliance mechanisms such as the
311 Rural Environmental Registry, which, although it presents challenges in terms of verification
312 (Soterroni et al., 2018), allows the current extent of forest degradation on private properties to
313 be known (Brancalion et al., 2016). The content assessment conducted showed that Brazil,
314 Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico and Guatemala have diversified their environmental
315 legal frameworks to specifically legislate on issues such as climate change and restoration.
316 Interviewees from these countries perceived the diversification of legal frameworks as a
317 positive sign that governments in these countries support FLR interventions – a result in line
318 with a recent review of National Forest Restoration Plans in the same countries (Méndez-
319 Toribio et al., 2017).

320 Despite observed progress on environmental legislation, we found a prevailing division
321 between productive and environmental FLR interventions. Most legal frameworks that exist in
322 the countries assessed fall either under the sector of agriculture (for forestry-related actions),
323 or under the environmental sector (for environmental interventions). This division was also
324 highlighted by interviewees who, when first approached for our interview, clearly treated
325 productive FLR interventions as separate from environmental restoration. This division has
326 been cited in the literature as problematic for the operationalization of the FLR concept that
327 contemplates ecological and economic goals from landscape restoration (Sabogal et al., 2015).
328 The need for policy integration across sectors and jurisdictions to support FLR is critical. Our
329 results show a prevailing cross-sectorial division, yet also indicate some level of improvement.
330 Climate mitigation frameworks in Brazil, Guatemala and Mexico may minimize sectorial
331 divisions by placing both forestry and environmental sectors as responsible for policy
332 implementation and enforcement. These countries created cross-sectorial platforms as spaces
333 for communication and policy harmonization where agreed-upon strategies for FLR
334 interventions may be found. The 'Mesa de Restauración del Paisaje Forestal' in Guatemala and
335 the 'Commission for the Recovery of Native Vegetation (CONAVEG)' in Brazil are examples of
336 this.

337 The motivations of traditional forestry and environmental frameworks, which, as **Table S3**
338 shows, still dominate the policy arena of land management in Latin America, differ. Forestry
339 frameworks mostly mention a focus on forest management and reforestation, whereas
340 environmental frameworks have a wider array of motivations. However, in terms of FLR
341 interventions being legislated, both forestry and environmental legal frameworks mention a
342 variety of interventions from silviculture to forest restoration, and both types of legal
343 frameworks target mostly the same areas: forest ecosystems, whether degraded or not. The
344 differences in motivations – yet the similarity in actions legislated and areas targeted – show a
345 prevailing division, but also signal opportunities for integration. Beyond the need for new and
346 specific FLR legal frameworks, we believe the integration of current frameworks can provide

347 the required legal support for FLR, contingent upon better policy and sectorial integration plus
348 effective governance platforms for implementation.

349 Despite the perceived sufficiency of existing legal frameworks, we found that FLR interventions
350 with potential for achieving ecological (i.e. Poorter et al., 2016) and/or socioeconomic goals
351 (such as agroforestry and natural forest regeneration) are seldom mentioned in either forestry
352 or environmental legal frameworks. Increased inclusion of all plausible FLR interventions in
353 legal frameworks can better support multifunctional landscapes that optimize both
354 environmental and socioeconomic objectives. Natural forest regeneration, for example, is
355 known to be a low-cost, ecologically efficient restoration approach (Crouzeilles et al., 2017),
356 with high capacity to recover biomass and biodiversity. Although natural regeneration is
357 happening across Latin America as part of a forest transition (Nanni et al., 2019), it could be
358 more explicitly included in the legislation on environmental management. The absence of
359 specific laws – or the existence of ambiguous ones – protecting second-growth forests may
360 compromise their persistence in human-modified landscapes (Vieira et al., 2014; Reid et al.,
361 2018).

362 The forestry frameworks analyzed here mentioned more incentives for the implementation of
363 productive FLR interventions than environmental frameworks did for the implementation of
364 environmental interventions. This result agrees with the perception of most interviewees that
365 public funding for certain FLR interventions exist, but it is still insufficient for environmental
366 interventions. This result further evidences the prevalence of a productive bias in land use
367 management across countries, and the traditional division between the production and
368 conservation sectors. Interviewees in general, but mainly locals and academics, highlighted the
369 prevalence of conflicts between productive and environmental government sectors as a
370 challenge for the integration of different legal frameworks in the restoration of forest
371 landscapes.

372 In some cases, frameworks regulating FLR interventions with environmental purposes emerged
373 from countries with long-standing forestry traditions, as in the case of Chile and Brazil. In
374 recent decades, Chile incentivized large-scale pine plantations; whereas current legal
375 frameworks incentivize the protection, restoration and sustainable management of native
376 forests (Reyes and Nelson, 2014). Interviewees from Chile, however, expressed that incentives
377 for native forest management are not as attractive for rural landowners as those given to
378 forestry companies in the past. In Brazil, difficulties regulating the commercialization of native
379 species significantly affected the success of a large-scale forest restoration project (Ball et al.,
380 2014). Such perspectives warrant the revision of current incentives for native forest
381 protection, native forestry and restoration to make them more attractive. Expansion of
382 commercial tree plantations in countries like Chile and Brazil was promoted by a clear plan,
383 based on the development of professional capacities (e.g. creation of the first undergraduate
384 and graduate courses, and of the first research centers on forestry), as well as attractive credit
385 lines maintained by public subsidies. FLR has the potential to grow as an economic
386 intervention via agroforests or native and mixed-species silviculture (Brancalion et al., 2017),
387 but this needs political support that targets different sizes of land holdings.

388 Despite the inclusion of special funding lines for smallholders and indigenous communities in
389 some legal frameworks, interviewees emphasized that these sectors of society are still
390 marginalized, as they often cannot access fiscal incentives or are affected by unclear tenure
391 rights that deny them access to funding or credit lines. This finding highlights, on one hand, the
392 importance of rural extension agents as stakeholders that can support small landholders and
393 indigenous groups in their applications for funding, thus fostering their engagement in FLR
394 interventions; on the other hand, it underscores the reality of prevailing land tenure conflicts
395 among marginalized societal groups. The financial instruments that support the
396 implementation of FLR interventions are usually oriented to landowners. However, in Latin

397 America the diversity of social contexts is much broader than simple private holdings, and
398 current mechanisms fail to consider this diversity. Interviewees raised this issue as being
399 particularly critical for indigenous communities. Secure land tenure is a key attribute in
400 promoting sustainable land use practices and FLR interventions (Kozar et al., 2014; Djenontin
401 et al., 2018; Higgins et al., 2018), with tensions between formal and informal land tenure
402 regimes viewed as an obstacle to forest restoration in the tropics (Mansourian, 2017). This
403 topic deserves further research, to assess how to include various forms of tenure in legal
404 frameworks promoting FLR.

405 Stakeholders perceived that technology and infrastructure and, to a lesser extent, institutional
406 and human capacity weaknesses, negatively affect the implementation of legal frameworks. All
407 stakeholder types disagreed that there are sufficient human and financial resources for the
408 implementation of policies and to monitor compliance. Institutional, financial and technical
409 weaknesses have been highlighted in previous research studies as important barriers to the
410 implementation of forest restoration and conservation, not only in the Latin American region,
411 but worldwide (Menz et al., 2013). Vieira et al. (2014) found that the implementation of
412 Brazilian forest legislation is hindered by bureaucracies and capacity weaknesses at the state
413 level. Murcia et al. (2017a) highlight that current Bonn Challenge pledges exceed
414 implementation capacities in Andean countries. Weak technical, financial and institutional
415 capacities have been highlighted as undermining the implementation of REDD+ projects
416 worldwide (Cadman et al., 2017). The relevance of capacity weaknesses hindering the
417 implementation of FLR interventions shows this is a critical area to be addressed. We believe
418 that cross-sector initiatives that involve not only NGOs, but also the private sector, can serve
419 as platforms promoting collaborations to support and improve the capacities of public
420 institutions.

421 Finally, we found that the perceptions of stakeholders differed depending on the organization
422 where they worked. Government stakeholders perceived current legal frameworks to be clear
423 and that mechanisms to regulate laws and norms do exist, whereas other stakeholders
424 disagreed. Government stakeholders also perceived quite positively that there is sufficient
425 knowledge to implement policies that mechanisms for implementation exist, and that
426 implementation is transparent and legitimized by civil society. Yet local and academic
427 stakeholders were mainly negative about policy implementation aspects. Such positive
428 perceptions by government interviewees may show an obligation to respond positively, since
429 policies are drafted by government. However, as recent research showed, it may also indicate
430 a better understanding and awareness of policy implications by government stakeholders
431 compared to other stakeholder types (Meli et al., 2019).

432 The different perceptions across stakeholder types highlight the importance of having cross-
433 sectorial platforms as arenas where divergent perceptions can be discussed and strategies for
434 resolving FLR trade-offs and conflicts can be found (Riggs et al., 2018). Despite some cross-
435 sectorial initiatives in certain countries, most forest restoration interventions in the region
436 remain largely 'top-down', initiated either by government or non-governmental organizations
437 (Murcia et al., 2016). In addition, current multistakeholder platforms fail to include all
438 stakeholder types, mainly rural landholders, in discussions on FLR. We believe communication
439 across all stakeholders, at all scales, is very important and can act as an empowering
440 mechanism for rural populations, which are often disenfranchised from decision-making on
441 aspects that ultimately affect them the most, such as decisions over the management of
442 landscapes they live in.

443 5. Conclusions

444 We found that, overall, interviewees felt that sufficient and clear legal frameworks for the
445 regulation of a variety of FLR interventions do exist in Latin America. However, current legal

446 frameworks are not entirely clear with respect to their mandates, and they remain poorly
447 integrated across productive and environmental sectors. FLR calls for the deployment of
448 multiple FLR interventions, both economic and environmental, for attaining multiple socio-
449 ecological benefits. To achieve this, policy integration is crucial, as well as the engagement of
450 all relevant stakeholders across scales, from the national to the local. Some initiatives, such as
451 Brazil's CONAVEG and Guatemala's 'Mesa de Restauración', constitute laudable efforts to
452 bring sectors together into decision-making around the goal of restoration

453 **Acknowledgements**

454 We would like to give special thanks to all who contributed to this work with their knowledge
455 and expertise. M.R. Guariguata conceived the work. D. Schweizer, P. Meli and M.R. Guariguata
456 designed the study. D. Schweizer and P. Meli carried out data collection and analysis. D.
457 Schweizer, P. Meli, P.H.S. Brancalion and M.R. Guariguata wrote the manuscript.

458 **Funding**

459 This work was supported by the CGIAR Program on Forests, Trees and Agroforestry, the United
460 States Agency for International Development (USAID) Climate Change Program, and the
461 Department for International Development of the United Kingdom (DFID) through the
462 KnowFor Program. P.H.S. Brancalion thanks the National Council for Scientific and
463 Technological Development (CNPq - grant #304817/2015-5). P. Meli thanks São Paulo Research
464 Foundation (FAPESP) for a postdoctoral grant (2016/00052-9).

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