

Opinion

Nine actions to successfully restore tropical agroecosystems

Michael David Pashkevich, ^{1,@,*} Francisco d'Albertas, ^{2,@} Anak Agung Ketut Aryawan, ^{3,@} Damayanti Buchori, ^{4,5} Jean-Pierre Caliman, ³ Adrian David González Chaves, ² Purnama Hidayat, ⁵ Holger Kreft, ^{6,7,@} Mohammad Naim, ^{3,@} Appolinaire Razafimahatratra, ⁸ Edgar Clive Turner, ^{1,@} Delphine Clara Zemp, ^{6,9,@} and Sarah Helen Luke ^{1,10,@}

Well-designed approaches to ecological restoration can benefit nature and society. This is particularly the case in tropical agroecosystems, where restoration can provide substantial socioecological benefits at relatively low costs. To successfully restore tropical agroecosystems and maximise benefits, initiatives must begin by considering 'who' should be involved in and benefit from restoration, and 'what', 'where', and 'how' restoration should occur. Based on collective experience of restoring tropical agroecosystems worldwide, we present nine actions to guide future restoration of these systems, supported by case studies that demonstrate our actions being used successfully in practice and highlighting cases where poorly designed restoration has been damaging. We call for increased restoration activity in tropical agroecosystems during the current UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration.

The promise of ecological restoration

Human activity has degraded most terrestrial ecosystems worldwide [1]. Protecting existing pristine areas alone will not achieve conservation and ecosystem service delivery goals; pervasive human impacts on ecosystems must also be halted and reversed [2,3]. Ecological restoration has great potential to reverse the detrimental effects of ecosystem degradation, by enhancing habitat structural complexity [4], benefitting biodiversity [5–9], improving levels of ecosystem functioning and delivery of ecosystem services [5,8–11], and mitigating the effects of climate change [12], while also improving socioeconomic conditions and well-being [13]. Welldesigned restoration approaches can deliver multiple ecological and socioeconomic benefits synergistically [12,14,15]. Owing to this, the UN has declared 2021–2030 the Decade on Ecosystem Restoration: a rallying call to heal our planet (https://www.decadeonrestoration.org).

However, restoration does not guarantee benefits to nature or society [16–18], and poorly designed approaches can be damaging. For instance, large-scale tree planting has resulted in few benefits to forest cover or livelihoods in northern India [18]. Mangrove restoration projects in Thailand and the Philippines saw, on average, 80% of planted propagules dying [19]. Using fire to restore native grasses in the Brazilian Cerrado could inadvertently promote fire-tolerant invasive grass species [20]. These studies and others (e.g., [16,21]) show that various contextual factors including, but not limited to, biome and other climatic conditions [22], land-use history [23], stability of government [24], and local community involvement [24] affect whether different stakeholders judge restoration projects as being successful. Therefore, restoration initiatives must start by considering key questions relating to 'who' should be involved in, and benefit from, restoration, and 'what', 'where', 'when', and 'how' to restore.

Highlights

Ecological restoration can enhance the complexity and functioning of degraded ecosystems and deliver socioeconomic benefits.

Restoring agroecosystems in the tropics has an especially high likelihood of yielding ecological, social, and economic benefits, but only if restoration approaches are well designed.

Evidence-based strategies that demonstrate how to restore tropical agroecosystems successfully and tractably are needed urgently to capitalise on the opportunities afforded by the UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration (2021–2030).

We provide nine actions to guide future restoration of tropical agroecosystems and case studies that demonstrate our actions being applied successfully.

```
<sup>1</sup>Insect Ecology Group, Department of
Zoology, University of Cambridge,
Downing Street, Cambridge CB2 3EJ, UK
<sup>2</sup>Laboratório de Ecologia da Paisagem e
Conservação, Departamento de Ecologia,
Instituto de Biociências, Universidade de
São Paulo, Rua do Matão, 321, Travessa
14. 05508-900 São Paulo, SP, Brazil
<sup>3</sup>Sinar Mas Agro Resources and
Technology Research Institute
(SMARTRI), Jalan Teuku Umar 19.
Pekanbaru, 28112, Riau, Indonesia
<sup>4</sup>Center for Transdisciplinary and
Sustainability Sciences, IPB University,
Bogor 16143. Indonesia
<sup>5</sup>Department of Plant Protection, Faculty
of Agriculture, IPB University, Bogor
16680, Indonesia
<sup>6</sup>Faculty of Forest Sciences and Forest
Ecology, University of Göttingen,
Büsgenweg 1, 37077 Göttingen, Germany
```



Why focus on restoring tropical agroecosystems?

Agriculture is expanding most rapidly in the tropics [25]. Although agricultural production is essential to maintaining food security and improving livelihoods [26], it is also a principal driver of ecological degradation [25] and can contribute to socioeconomic inequity, social conflict, and declines in human well-being [25]. Restoration may have the potential to reduce or reverse many of the negative ecological and social impacts of increased production [8,15].

Strategies for restoring tropical agroecosystems can range from on-farm **ecological intensification** (see Glossary) (e.g., planting of wildflower strips [27]) to removing land completely from cultivation and transforming it to more natural habitat (e.g., re-wetting abandoned croplands in tropical peatlands [28]).

There are high chances that restoring tropical agroecosystems will bring ecological success because, compared with temperate areas, plant growth rates in the tropics are fast, allowing relatively rapid recovery of floral structural complexity and diversity [7]. Also, in many tropical regions, large areas of intact natural habitat remain [29], possibly accelerating the recovery of agroecosystems through spillover of species and ecosystem services [30]. Further, '**Green Revolution**' approaches to intensifying agriculture have been implemented only relatively recently and variably across the tropics [25], potentially making it easier to reverse their impacts [31].

There are also high chances that restoration of tropical agroecosystems will bring social and economic benefits, when strategies are profitable and can be upscaled across large areas of land [15]. Many tropical countries are lower-income and lower-middle-income economies that are heavily reliant on agricultural production [32]. There is therefore potential for large local uptake of restoration strategies that diversify agricultural practices and implement more-sustainable management, which can improve livelihoods by increasing or stabilising per-area yields. However, it is noteworthy that substantial challenges to restoration exist in some regions, such as political regimes that do not support restoration [24].

Nine actions to restore tropical agroecosystems

Despite the high chances of success and benefits that restoration of tropical agroecosystems offers, there is currently a lack of guidance on how best to achieve this, and target objectives are not always reached [33]. Based on our collective experience of restoring tropical agroecosystems worldwide, we present nine actions to improve understanding of the 'who', 'what', 'where', and 'how' to restore these systems (Figure 1). We do not address 'when' to restore, as restoration is clearly needed urgently. Our nine actions identify key areas where improved understanding could increase the success of tropical agroecosystem restoration, and provide tractable steps to help guide future restoration of these systems. Our actions are ordered and somewhat sequential but do not form a mechanistic roadmap, and may need to be used in tandem, in a different order, or perhaps selectively. When actions are relevant to restoration more generally, we provide examples of their use in a tropical agriculture context. We write primarily from an ecological perspective, but consider social, economic, and political factors that may impact ecological restoration. Our actions are as follows.

(1) Involve a diverse network of stakeholders at all stages and in all parts of restoration initiatives When restoring tropical agroecosystems, projects should involve a wide range of the numerous potential stakeholders, including farmers, land owners, local communities, activists, nongovernmental organisations, members of agricultural industries, **sustainability certification organisations**, academics, consumers of agricultural goods, funders, and policymakers [34–36]. Projects should engage stakeholders from the start, to increase the views that are

⁷Centre of Biodiversity and Sustainable Land Use (CBL), University of Göttingen, Büsgenweg 1, D-37077 Göttingen, Germany

⁸WWF Madagascar, BP, 738 Lot prés II M 85 Ter Antsakaviro, Antananarivo 101, Madagascar

⁹Laboratory of Conservation Biology, Institute of Biology, Faculty of Sciences, University of Neuchâtel, Rue Emile-Argand 11, 2000 Neuchâtel, Switzerland ¹⁰School of Biosciences, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington Campus, Nr Loughborough, LE12 5RD, UK

*Correspondence:

pvichm@gmail.com (M.D. Pashkevich). "Twitter: @MDPashkevich (M.D. Pashkevich), @FdAlbertas (F. d'Albertas), @aka_aryawan (A.A.K. Aryawan), @BioGeoKreft (H. Kreft), @naim07 (M. Naim), @EdgarCTumer (E.C. Tumer), @ClaraZemp (D.C. Zemp), and @SarahHLuke (S.H. Luke).





Trends in Ecology & Evolution

Figure 1. Nine actions to restore tropical agroecosystems. Top: We provide nine actions (top, blue) that will help to answer key questions (middle, yellow) regarding 'who' should be involved in, and benefit from, the restoration of tropical agroecosystems and 'what', 'where', and 'how' restoration should occur. We do not consider 'when' to restore, as restoration is needed urgently. Answering these key questions will help to increase future successful restoration action in tropical agroecosystems (bottom, green) during the current UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration. We depict four of the many strategies that may be used when restoring tropical agroecosystems: growing trees, planting native grasses, using prescribed fires, and sowing wildflower strips. The downwards-pointing arrow on the far left indicates the linear relationship between our actions (blue circle, '1'); addressing key questions regarding the 'who', 'what', 'where', and 'how' to restore tropical agroecosystems. Bottom: Drawing on our experience of restoring tropical agroecosystems globally, we provide three case studies (Boxes 1–3) that show our nine actions being used successfully. We highlight three actions (blue symbols, which match their respective actions at the top of the figure) in each study that are particularly demonstrated on the ground and are referenced in their corresponding sections in the main text, although we note that all case studies use the nine actions to some extent.

considered in decision-making and therefore the likely long-term appropriateness of target objectives, methodologies, and chances of achieving direct benefits for nature and society [37]. Involving local stakeholders is essential to decolonise restoration initiatives that are established or managed by outsiders (e.g., researchers from Europe and the USA), support capacity building, and ensure local ownership over restoration [32]. It is especially important that local farmers and members of agricultural industries are engaged, as they ultimately decide whether to initiate restoration strategies on the ground. For instance, in Ghana, an agroforestry initiative

Glossary

Ecological intensification: agricultural management wherein yields are boosted by enhancing biodiversity and associated ecosystem services in agricultural landscapes.

Green Revolution: period of agricultural history since the 1960s when production was increased dramatically by harnessing new technologies and chemical-based growing methods, but which resulted in habitat degradation, partly owing to overuse of chemical fertilisers and pesticides.

Restoration priority areas: regions where restoration action has maximum ecological and socioeconomic benefits relative to the costs of implementation. Socioecological data: information relating to the social, economic, and ecological components of a system.

Sustainability certification

organisations: organisations that oversee schemes promoting more sustainable production practices by farmers, in return for farmers receiving a price premium for goods. Participation is often voluntary and funded by consumers who are willing to pay more for increased sustainability.

Transdisciplinary: research that addresses societal problems by integrating findings from across the sciences, humanities, and non-research contexts, allowing a system to be viewed as a whole rather than a sum of parts.



obtained long-term support for restoration by consulting with local communities from the outset to determine its project aims [38]. A long-term restoration project in Madagascar involved government forest administration officials and nongovernmental organisations including the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), Madagascar National Parks, and the Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust as well as local farmers, mayors, village chiefs, community elders, and business leaders (Figure 1 and Box 1).

(2) Consider the economic benefits and costs of restoration

Although restoration usually results in higher net economic benefits over time [14], economic benefits are not guaranteed, may not be immediately obvious, and may not sustain local livelihoods in the long term [21]. Therefore, the financial trade-offs of restoration should be assessed and conveyed clearly to all stakeholders. We recommend that practitioners emphasise (and eventually quantify) both direct and indirect economic benefits when restoring tropical agroecosystems. For instance, working pantropically, Garibaldi et al. [27] showed that restoring on-farm pollinator communities could directly close yield gaps in small-scale farmlands by 24%. Restoring riparian buffers in tropical agroecosystems has been shown to improve water quality, potentially indirectly improving health and livelihoods for downstream communities [39]. Restoring tropical montane cloud forests in formerly farmed areas led to higher water yields [40], potentially improving local livelihoods by increasing access to water supplies. While all restoration will incur at least some costs, projects should ensure that these do not fall disproportionately on local communities and that, after projects are complete, there are ways that livelihoods can be sustained in the long term [15]. Sustainability certification organisations [e.g., Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil (https://rspo.org) (Figure 1 and Box 2), Cotton made in Africa (https://cottonmadeinafrica.org/), Rainforest Alliance (https://www.rainforestalliance.org)] are particularly promising for offsetting local costs of restoration, since they provide direct financial benefits to farmers [41].

(3) Collect more baseline data from observational studies

Successful restoration of tropical agroecosystems will require increased collection of empirical baseline data as, across the tropics, **socioecological data** are lacking [42]. We need data from reference areas (i.e., regions that are relatively free from human activities or more structurally and ecologically complex than farmlands) to improve understanding of undisturbed ecological networks and to help inform restoration target objectives when restoring abandoned farmland to natural habitat. We also need data from tropical agricultural landscapes that receive business-as-usual management, to assess the extent to which these systems are degraded ecologically, determine how production affects local communities, and provide a reference with which agricultural areas receiving alternative management can be compared [43,44]. We suggest harnessing new technologies to help collect, and process, baseline ecological data more rapidly across spatial and temporal scales, in terms of both resolution and extent. For instance, when testing strategies to restore oil palm agroecosystems (Figure 1 and Box 2), terrestrial laser scanners have been used to measure changes in vegetation growth and structural complexity [4]. Coupling such on-the-ground methods with aerial-borne remote sensing technology offers the possibility to accurately measure restoration progress even in remote areas of the tropics, almost in real time [45,46]. Advances in technology can also help to collect georeferenced socioeconomic data. For instance, in Brazil, farmers submit information on farm ownership, management, and landscape context (e.g., percentage cover of cultivated and natural habitat, including environmentally sensitive areas such as riparian zones) to an online georeferenced database [47]. These data can be coupled with demographic data from government censuses, providing a highly valuable socioecological dataset that restoration scientists can use (Figure 1 and Box 3).



Box 1. Restoring the Madagascan Fandriana-Marolambo landscape

The Fandriana-Marolambo landscape is an area of tropical humid forest in the central eastern region of Madagascar. Although Fandriana-Marolambo has both ecological and sociocultural value, it has been degraded by slash-and-burn cultivation of rice (Oryza sativa), which is grown for local consumption, and sugarcane (Saccharum officinarum), which is used to produce rum [83]. In 2005, the WWF launched the Fandriana-Marolambo Forest Landscape Restoration Project to counteract the effects of regional agricultural production. The project aims to conserve existing biodiversity, increase the delivery of ecosystem services that are linked to the forest, and improve the well-being of local communities. From its start, the project has involved a diverse network of stakeholders to achieve its goals. These include forest administration officials from the Madagascan government and nongovernmental organisations including the WWF, Madagascar National Parks, and the Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust, and mayors, village chiefs, community elders, and business leaders [83]. The project was initially managed through a top-down approach (led by the WWF and the Madagascan forest service), but local communities have been consulted throughout the project's duration, allowing community-driven assessment of all restoration activity. These feedback sessions were conducted in the kabary (a traditional Malagasy communication style that is often led by community elders and through which important, community-wide decisions are made) and started prior to the implementation of any restoration actions. The WWF and the Madagascan forest department respected all decisions made during the kabary, leading to development of trust between stakeholders and paving the way for long-term restoration action [84]. In 2013, more than 95 000 ha of land were protected to form the Marolambo National Park and an additional ~6800 ha were designated for passive or active restoration. The project has provided multiple benefits to local communities, such as diversifying local income sources through altered management of community forests and funding functional literacy courses to help community leaders, especially women, learn skillsets that help in everyday life (e.g., determining prices for goods sold at market). In 2015, management of restoration across the Fandriana-Marolambo landscape was gradually turned over to local stakeholders (Figure I), with the WWF withdrawing entirely from the project in 2018 [83]. Although restoration initiatives remain intact, they have been challenged in recent years by a growing local population, some of whom want agricultural expansion. Restoration advocates are currently in conversation with local communities to ensure that restoration is maintained and expanded upon over the coming years. Restoration of the Fandriana-Marolambo landscape therefore showcases how collaborative action between stakeholders can simultaneously provide ecological and socioeconomic improvements in degraded tropical agroecosystems, and highlights the challenges of maintaining restoration initiatives over the long term.



Trends in Ecology & Evolution

Figure I. Rasolo, a local man, who has been commissioned by the community to produce seedlings (*Ocotea* sp. shown) at a local nursery and ensure the continuation of restoration efforts. Photograph: Appoinaire Razafimahatratra.



Box 2. Restoring cultivated oil palm landscapes in Indonesia and Malaysia

Oil palm (Elaeis guineensis) is a tropical crop that yields palm oil, the most-produced vegetable oil worldwide [85]. Many oil palm plantations have been established on lands that were previously rainforest, causing severe ecological damage [86,87]. Restoration in oil palm-dominated landscapes can help to reverse these patterns and - in still-productive areas potentially also improve palm oil yields by increasing the delivery of ecosystem services. As oil palm is a widely grown (>21 Mha [88]) and long-lived crop (its commercial life is 20–30 years [89]), collaborative restoration in plantations can provide benefits across vast spatial and temporal scales. Recognising this opportunity, academics and members of the Indonesian and Malaysian palm oil industries have established restoration experiments in cultivated oil palm landscapes. Importantly, some of these experiments have been co-developed with farmers or land managers, to ensure that findings address questions that are of interest to growers and therefore more likely to result in changes to oil palm management. Several experiments (e.g., [43]) feature a 'business-as-usual' treatment to collect baseline ecological data from oil palm systems undergoing standard management practices and to provide a control against which experimental treatments can be compared. So far, experiments have included passive and active restoration of riparian buffers [43], planting of diverse tree islands (Figure I) (e.g., [4,90,91]), reducing fertiliser use to help mitigate run-off of nutrients into local waterways [92], manipulating the application of herbicides to increase understory vegetation complexity (e.g., [43,92–95]), and intercropping oil palms with other cash crops (e.g., [96–98]). These experiments have been made possible by building local capacity - for instance, by training research assistants to collect and identify specimens, by international collaborations and knowledge exchange between scientists from both industry and academia, and by working with both smallholder and industrial farmers. As a result, these large-scale, long-term experiments have shown that restoration of oil palm agroecosystems is feasible and can benefit a wide range of taxa [4,43,90,92-98], ecosystem functions [92,99], and crop yields [91]. Associated socioeconomic studies help to show how to promote restoration practices in land holdings owned by local communities [100,101]. Findings from experiments have been disseminated to the wider palm oil industry through widely attended industry conferences [e.g., the International Conference of Oil Palm and the Environment (https://icope-series.com/ICOPE/)] and industry publications (e.g., The Planter [102]). Furthermore, results are being communicated to sustainability certification organisations, regional certification boards, and members of the public [92,100].



Trends in Ecology & Evolution

Figure I. Aerial photograph from EFForTS-BEE, which tests how planting of diverse tree islands affects oil palm ecosystems. Photograph: Watit Khokthong.



Box 3. Restoring the Brazilian Atlantic rainforest

Brazil's Atlantic rainforest is ecologically invaluable and is a global biodiversity hotspot [103]. Additionally, the region has high cultural and socioeconomic value, as it is inhabited by ~130 million people and hosts large- and small-scale agro-industries that are vital to global food security [104]. However, agricultural production has also led to substantial degradation of the Atlantic rainforest [104]. In recent years, efforts to reverse these losses have resulted in some of the most ambitious and large-scale restoration projects globally (Figure I). Restoration has been supported in two main ways: first, by a strong legal framework, for which the cornerstone is the Native Vegetation Protection Law (NVPL) (passed in 2012) [105]. The NVPL states that 20% of all private lands in the Atlantic rainforest must be preserved as conservation set-asides or, if lands are already developed, farmers must restore natural vegetation within their properties or pay to conserve or restore comparable land elsewhere [105]. Underpinning these initiatives is a publicly accessible digital database [called the Environmental Rural Registry, or Cadastro Ambiental Rural (CAR) in Portuguese] that contains georeferenced data on farm boundaries, including lands designated for conservation and restoration [106], and can help to determine whether private land owners are compliant with the NVPL. Restoring the Atlantic rainforest is also supported by strong civic engagement. Notably, in 2009 a coalition of government agencies, nongovernmental organisations, private companies, universities, and landowners formed the Atlantic Forest Restoration Pact (AFRP) [107], which aims to restore 15 Mha of degraded forest by 2050. The AFRP has already achieved successful restoration outcomes. For example, the Instituto de Pesquisas Ecológicas (IPÊ), a nongovernmental organisation and affiliate of the AFRP, uses the CAR to identify large-scale farms that lack NVPL-mandated set-asides and offers technical support, labourers, and access to agroforestry community-based plant nurseries to farmers who pledge to restore their lands. Many of these cooperative farmers are members of the marginalised Rural Landless Workers' Movement ['Movimento Sem Terra' (MST)], who, compared with industrial-scale farmers, champion local farming practices that maintain relatively high levels of biodiversity, including rare species like the black lion tamarin (Leontopithecus chrysopygus) [65]. These efforts have led to the restoration of 1800 ha of forest, and IPÊ-affiliated nurseries have generated ~US\$367 000 of income (2016–2019) for the 23 families that manage them [65]. Restoration in the Atlantic rainforest has become a model example of how collaboration between private and public stakeholders can lead to large-scale restoration of tropical agroecosystems, with benefits to both nature and society [108].



Trends in Ecology & Evolution

Figure I. A riparian corridor in pastured areas in the Atlantic rainforest. Fencing and restoration of forested habitat has helped to improve landscape connectivity. Photograph: Laury Cullen, Jr and Instituto de Pesquisas Ecológicas (IPÊ).

(4) Inform algorithms to better identify restoration priority areas

In recent years, algorithms informed by existing data on biodiversity, ecosystem services, and socioeconomic conditions have allowed the identification of **restoration priority areas**. These algorithms have great potential to combine multiple lines of evidence into tractable recommendations for restoration policy. For instance, at a regional scale, the Brazilian Ministry of Environment is



using restoration prioritisation algorithms to develop a strategic plan to restore agricultural land in the Atlantic rainforest (Figure 1 and Box 3) [12]. At a global scale, these algorithms have identified where current croplands could be relocated, to mitigate the environmental costs of agricultural production and promote recovery of formerly farmed land [48]. However, algorithms will be more useful to local decision-making if they consider the agricultural potential of landscapes (e.g., prioritising restoration of low-yield areas [15]) and are informed by standardised data from a larger number of regions, biomes, sociopolitical contexts (e.g., 'who owns the land and are they supportive of restoration?'), and farm systems (e.g., industrial vs. smallholder farmlands).

(5) Implement large-scale, long-term experiments to test restoration strategies

Experimental approaches are the gold standard for evaluating the merits of any conservation practice [49]. However, field experiments that test strategies to restore tropical agroecosystems are scarce [50–52]. Experiments should be long term, as, for instance, a restoration project in formerly farmed areas in Costa Rica found dramatic changes in recovery patterns over a 15-year period [53]. We have found before–after control–impact (BACI) experimental designs especially helpful when disentangling restoration effects from natural fluctuations in ecosystem dynamics (Figure 1 and Box 2). In addition, experimental treatment, to determine whether more costly active approaches to restoration, such as soil inoculations or tree plantings, are needed [7,54]. Codesigning restoration experiments with industry can form the basis for longer-term partnerships that allow exchange of knowledge and expertise, improve access to facilities and equipment (e.g., [43]), and provide long-term industry funding (e.g., [43]) beyond the lifetime of many research grants [55].

(6) Increase study of additional biomes and regions

Restoration of tropical agroecosystems has, to date, focussed mostly on specific biomes and geographic regions. For instance, with regard to biomes, Buisson et al. [20] found that restoration studies in tropical and subtropical forests were more than seven times commoner than similar studies in grasslands and savannahs, and Silveira et al. [56] found that leading restoration practitioners tweeted nearly ten times more about forest restoration than grassland and savannah restoration. With regard to geographic regions, global assessments of tropical restoration activity indicate that studies in the Americas and Asia are about 2.5-4.3 times commoner than those in Africa [7,10]. We must increase the study of non-forest biomes and additional regions since agricultural production is often high or increasing in these areas. For instance, the Brazilian Cerrado is a hotspot of pastureland and farmland [57], and agriculture is expected to expand rapidly in sub-Saharan Africa over coming decades, matching population increases [58]. Further, we must broaden our focus of study, as successful restoration approaches are rarely one size fits all, and therefore, successful restoration practices may not be applicable in other areas. For example, although it is beneficial in a degraded forest context [54], it is now well known that planting trees in open ecosystems can threaten native grass and shrub species [20,56]. It is likely that successful restoration initiatives in tropical Africa (Figure 1 and Box 1) will need to place more emphasis on providing direct economic benefits to farmers and local communities, owing to lower incomes in the Afrotropics relative to other tropical regions [32] and greater regional activity of smallholder, rather than industrial, farming [59].

(7) Include traditional ecological knowledge and local farming practices in restoration initiatives

Over millennia, local farmers have developed close relationships with natural systems to protect and improve their livelihoods [60], resulting in a wealth of traditional ecological knowledge that can support productive and resilient agroecosystems [61]. Restoration practitioners should work more closely with members of local communities to include traditional ecological knowledge



and local farming practices as experimental treatments when testing restoration strategies, helping to make restoration more **transdisciplinary** in the process [62]. For instance, traditional agroforests of the Lacandon Maya people in Mexico [61] and traditional home gardens in Indonesia [63] and Ethiopia [64] are important habitats that represent a means of restoring local bird biodiversity in agricultural areas. In Brazil, restoration researchers have worked with the marginalised Rural Landless Workers' Movement [*Movimento Sem Terra* (MST)] to champion farming practices that are alternatives to widespread industrial farm management and, by comparison, maintain higher levels of biodiversity (Figure 1 and Box 3) [65]. Including traditional ecological knowledge and local farming practices in restoration planning can also help to ensure that restoration management represents realistic practices that can be adopted by local communities, emphasises the importance of local people when restoring agroecosystems, and preserves aspects of indigenous culture.

(8) Develop techniques to assess and improve restoration over time

When restoring tropical agroecosystems, projects should be assessed regularly and empirically to determine that ecological and socioeconomic target objectives are being reached or whether changes in management are needed. However, it is currently unclear when and how assessment should occur [66]. We recommend that assessment begins before restoration, establishing valuable baseline data. Continued assessment is also needed at key time points in the restoration process. For instance, when using prescribed fire to restore tropical savannahs, assessment should occur soon after burning to assess whether the seeds of pyrophytic species have germinated and several years after re-establishment to assess long-term success [20]. When restoring still-cultivated landscapes, assessments should determine whether restoration is affecting yields and profitability [44]. For example, assessments in Madagascan vanilla agroforests showed that maintaining shade trees increased plot-level biodiversity but had no effects on yield [67]. Involving local communities in assessment can help to ensure that the social and livelihood impacts of restoration are assessed, in addition to ecological impacts. When restoring forests in Madagascar, practitioners have engaged local communities in assessment by respecting their traditional communication styles (Figure 1 and Box 1). To help evaluate restoration success, indicator taxa have been identified in many tropical ecosystems (e.g., [68-72]), alongside more widely applicable measures of ecosystem health, such as water quality and vegetation structural complexity [73], and socioeconomic indicators, such as changes in household income. Recently, a comprehensive set of 61 monitoring indicators was published to help assess the ecological and socioeconomic progress of restoration initiatives (https://globalrestorationobservatory.com/restorationproject-information-sharing-framework/). Individual monitoring indicators can be assessed comparatively (e.g., [74]) or combined into integrated indices (e.g., ecosystem multifunctionality) to showcase how restoration affects a range of different stakeholder interests [75].

(9) Share results and data openly and widely

Methodologies and findings of restoration initiatives must be communicated, to engage stakeholders and increase uptake. Results and data (including contextual data to facilitate comparisons across studies) from individual restoration experiments should be made accessible through online databases and shared with restoration syntheses [e.g., Restor (https://restor.eco/), Global Restore Project (https://www.globalrestoreproject.com), Global Restoration Observatory (https://www. globalrestorationobservatory.com)] to broaden their impact and global relevance [76]. For real change on the ground, it is critical that findings from restoration projects are communicated in a form that allows long-term engagement and education. In Brazil, demonstration field sites have been used to teach both local and outside communities successfully about restoration initiatives (Figure 1 and Box 3) [65]. Blog posts and social media can help to communicate findings to members of the public and inspire them to contribute actively to restoration [56]. Agricultural land managers can be engaged using initiatives such as Conservation Evidence [77], the Cool Farm Tool



(https://coolfarmtool.org/), and PARTNERS (https://partners-rcn.org), which provide free online and print summaries of scientific evidence for management actions that can support conservation and methods to assess current practices. Engaging with policymakers and sustainability certification organisations can ensure that restoration findings are incorporated into legal frameworks and payment schemes [41,78], therefore increasing the scope and uptake of restoration efforts.

Concluding remarks: now is the time to develop solutions

The past decades have seen the increased creation of international [e.g., the Bonn Challenge (https://www.bonnchallenge.org/), the New York Declaration on Forests (https://forestdeclaration. org/)] and regional (e.g., the Atlantic Forest Restoration Pact [36], the African Union's 'Great Green Wall' [21]) agreements, global conferences [e.g., the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity (https://www.cbd.int/cop/), the 26th UN Climate Change Conference (https://ukcop26.org)], and recommendations from academia (e.g., [79]) to protect and restore tropical landscapes. However, increased uptake of restoration efforts is still urgently needed worldwide [2,3]. The current UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration offers unprecedented attention, research funding, and capacity to support restoration initiatives, aiming to inspire a large-scale, crosscultural movement for global ecological restoration. Restoring tropical agroecosystems offers particularly promising socioecological benefits relative to the costs of restoration implementation. We must take advantage of these opportunities to improve understanding of the 'who', 'what', 'where', and 'how' of restoring tropical agroecosystems. We emphasise that the actions we have presented are only a starting point for change and acknowledge that there are unique and substantial challenges to restoring tropical agroecosystems, such as land use conflicts [80] and lack of education and awareness on how restoration can benefit biodiversity and livelihoods [81]. Further, it is likely that there will be serious challenges when applying individual restoration strategies across different regions, climatic conditions, surrounding landscape contexts, land-use histories, and crop systems [5,8,9,23,82]. Upscaling restoration can be further complicated when long-term financial support is lacking or when restoration initiatives cross borders [21]. To avoid poorly designed restoration approaches, additional questions on how ecological, social, political, and economic structures affect the success of individual restoration strategies and how to incentivise restoration uptake across the tropics must therefore still be addressed (see Outstanding questions). Despite these challenges, the promising rewards of restoring tropical agroecosystems make it clear that the time to commit to restoration action in tropical agroecosystems - and indeed all global systems - is now.

Author contributions

M.D.P. led the writing of the manuscript (assisted by S.H.L. and E.C.T.) and figure making (assisted by S.H.L.). S.H.L., D.C.Z., E.C.T., and M.D.P. helped to design the original framework for the manuscript. A.R. led writing of the case study 'Restoring the Madagascan Fandriana-Marolambo landscape'; M.D.P., A.A.K.A., D.B., J-P.C., P.H., H.K., M.N., E.C.T., D.C.Z., and S.H.L. led writing of the case study 'Restoring cultivated oil palm landscapes in Indonesia and Malaysia'; and F.A. and A.D.G.C. led writing of the case study 'Restoring the Brazilian Atlantic rainforest'. All authors provided feedback on drafts of the manuscript and approved the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We thank Gianluca Cerullo, Jake Stone, and three anonymous reviewers for helpful feedback while we developed our manuscript. M.D.P. thanks Gates Cambridge Trust, Jesus College, Cambridge, St Edmund's College, Cambridge, and the Marshall Aid Commemoration Commission for funding. H.K. and D.C.Z. acknowledge funding provided through Collaboration Research Centre 990 EFForTS by the German Science Foundation. F.A. is funded by São Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP) grant 2018/22881-2 and by the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior – Brasil (CAPES) – Finance Code 001. A.D.G.C. is funded by FAPESP grant 2017/19411-1. Long-standing partnerships between coauthors are partly funded by the Isaac Newton Trust, Cambridge, the Natural Environment Research Council (grant number NE/P00458X/1), the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (grant number BB/T012366/1), Sinar Mas Agro Resources and Technology Research Institute (SMARTRI), and Golden Agri Resources (GAR).

Outstanding questions

To what extent are individual restoration strategies applicable and effective across regions, biomes, and farm (e.g., industrial vs. smallholder farmlands) and crop systems?

To what extent is the success of individual restoration strategies influenced by social, political, and economic contexts? This commentary has been written from an ecological perspective, with consideration of social, political, and economic factors that may impact ecological restoration. To complement this, further work from a socioeconomic and political perspective would be highly valuable.

What outcomes do local communities want from restoration of tropical agroecosystems and how are these outcomes best investigated and provided?

What are the most effective strategies for minimising cost–benefit trade-offs when restoring tropical agroecosystems?

How can we better incentivise the uptake of restoration strategies across tropical agroecosystems?



Declaration of interests

Authors are affiliated with the restoration projects that are outlined in the case studies in this manuscript: A.R. (Restoring the Madagascan Fandriana-Marolambo landscape); M.D.P., A.A.K.A., D.B., J.-P.C., P.H., H.K., M.N., E.C.T., D.C.Z., and S.H.L. (Restoring cultivated oil palm landscapes in Indonesia and Malaysia); F.A. and A.D.G.C. (Restoring the Brazilian Atlantic rainforest).

References

- Williams, B.A. *et al.* (2020) Change in terrestrial human footprint drives continued loss of intact ecosystems. *One Earth* 3, 371–382
- Diaz, S. et al. (2019) Pervasive human-driven decline of life on Earth points to the need for transformative change. Science 366, eaax3100
- Leclère, D. et al. (2020) Bending the curve of terrestrial biodiversity needs an integrated strategy. Nature 585, 551–556
- Zemp, D.C. *et al.* (2019) Mixed-species tree plantings enhance structural complexity in oil palm plantations. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 283, 106564
- Barral, M.P. et al. (2015) Quantifying the impacts of ecological restoration on biodiversity and ecosystem services in agroecosystems: a global meta-analysis. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 202, 223–231
- Crouzeilles, R. et al. (2016) A global meta-analysis on the ecological drivers of forest restoration success. Nat. Commun. 7, 11666
- Crouzeilles, R. et al. (2017) Ecological restoration success is higher for natural regeneration than for active restoration in tropical forests. Sci. Adv. 3, e1701345
- Jones, H.P. et al. (2018) Restoration and repair of Earth's damaged ecosystems. Proc. Biol. Sci. 285, 20172577
- Meli, P. et al. (2017) A global review of past land use, climate, and active vs. passive restoration effects on forest recovery. Pl oS One 12, e0171368
- Shimamoto, C.Y. et al. (2018) Restoration of ecosystem services in tropical forests: a global meta-analysis. PLoS One 13, e0208523
- Tamburini, G. et al. (2020) Agricultural diversification promotes multiple ecosystem services without compromising yield. Sci. Adv. 6, eaba1715
- Strassburg, B.B.N. et al. (2019) Strategic approaches to restoring ecosystems can triple conservation gains and halve costs. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* 3, 62–70
- Bradbury, R.B. et al. (2021) The economic consequences of conserving or restoring sites for nature. Nat. Sustain. 4, 602–608
- Martin, D.M. (2017) Ecological restoration should be redefined for the twenty-first century. *Restor. Ecol.* 25, 668–673
- Edwards, D.P. et al. (2021) Upscaling tropical restoration to deliver environmental benefits and socially equitable outcomes. *Curr. Biol.* 31, R1326–R1341
- Holl, K.D. and Brancalion, P.H.S. (2020) Tree planting is not a simple solution. *Science* 368, 580–581
- Hua, F. et al. (2018) Tree plantations displacing native forests: the nature and drivers of apparent forest recovery on former croplands in Southwestern China from 2000 to 2015. *Biol. Conserv.* 222, 113–124
- Coleman, E.A. *et al.* (2021) Limited effects of tree planting on forest canopy cover and rural livelihoods in northern India. *Nat. Sustain.* 4, 997–1004
- Wodehouse, D.C.J. and Rayment, M.B. (2019) Mangrove area and propagule number planting targets produce sub-optimal rehabilitation and afforestation outcomes. *Estuar. Coast. Shelf* Sci. 222, 91–102
- Buisson, E. *et al.* (2019) Resilience and restoration of tropical and subtropical grasslands, savannas, and grassy woodlands. *Biol. Rev.* 94, 590–609
- Editorial (2022) How to make Africa's 'Great Green Wall' a success. Nature 605, 8
- Strassburg, B.B.N. et al. (2020) Global priority areas for ecosystem restoration. Nature 586, 724–729

- Martin, D.A. et al. (2020) Land-use history determines ecosystem services and conservation value in tropical agroforestry. *Conserv. Lett.* 13, e12740
- Osborne, T. et al. (2021) The political ecology playbook for ecosystem restoration: principles for effective, equitable, and transformative landscapes. *Glob. Environ. Chang.* 70, 102320
- Ramankutty, N. *et al.* (2018) Trends in global agricultural land use: implications for environmental health and food security. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* 69, 789–815
- Tilman, D. et al. (2011) Global food demand and the sustainable intensification of agriculture. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 108, 20260–20264
- Garibaldi, L.A. et al. (2016) Mutually beneficial pollinator diversity and crop yield outcomes in small and large farms. *Science* 351, 388–391
- Ward, C. et al. (2021) Smallholder perceptions of land restoration activities: rewetting tropical peatland oil palm areas in Sumatra, Indonesia. *Reg. Environ. Chang.* 21, 1
- Pugh, T.A.M. et al. (2019) Role of forest regrowth in global carbon sink dynamics. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 116, 4382–4387
- César, R.G. *et al.* (2021) It is not just about time: agricultural practices and surrounding forest cover affect secondary forest recovery in agricultural landscapes. *Biotropica* 53, 496–508
- Garibaldi, L.A. *et al.* (2017) Farming approaches for greater biodiversity, livelihoods, and food security. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 32, 68–80
- Erbaugh, J.T. et al. (2020) Global forest restoration and the importance of prioritizing local communities. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* 4, 1472–1476
- Fagan, M.E. *et al.* (2020) How feasible are global forest restoration commitments? *Conserv. Lett.* 13, e12700
- Chazdon, R. and Brancalion, P. (2019) Restoring forests as a means to many ends. *Science* 365, 24–25
- Cooke, S.J. *et al.* (2019) We have a long way to go if we want to realize the promise of the "Decade on Ecosystem Restoration". *Conserv. Sci. Pract.* 1, e129
- Holl, K.D. (2017) Restoring tropical forests from the bottom up. Science 355, 455–456
- Bloomfield, G. et al. (2019) Strategic insights for capacity development on forest landscape restoration: implications for addressing global commitments. *Trop. Conserv. Sci.* 12, 1–11
- Blay, D. et al. (2008) Involving local farmers in rehabilitation of degraded tropical forests: some lessons from Ghana. Environ. Dev. Sustain. 10, 503–518
- Luke, S.H. et al. (2019) Riparian buffers in tropical agriculture: scientific support, effectiveness and directions for policy. J. Appl. Ecol. 56, 85–92
- Teixeira, G.M. et al. (2021) Regeneration of tropical montane cloud forests increases water yield in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest. Ecohydrology 14, e2298
- Tscharntke, T. et al. (2015) Conserving biodiversity through certification of tropical agroforestry crops at local and landscape scales. Conserv. Lett. 8, 14–23
- Reiss-Woolever, V.J. et al. (2021) Systematic mapping shows the need for increased socio-ecological research on oil palm. *Environ. Res. Lett.* 16, 063002
- Luke, S.H. *et al.* (2020) Managing oil palm plantations more sustainably: large-scale experiments within the Biodiversity and Ecosystem Function in Tropical Agriculture (BEFTA) programme. *Front. For. Glob. Change* 2, 75
- 44. Finch, T. (2020) Restoring farmlands for food and nature. One Earth 3, 665–668

.

 Schneider, F.D. et al. (2020) Towards mapping the diversity of canopy structure from space with GEDI. Environ. Res. Lett. 15, 115006

CellPress

OPEN ACCESS

- Pettorelli, N. et al. (2018) Satellite remote sensing of ecosystem functions: opportunities, challenges and way forward. Remote Sens. Ecol. Conserv. 4, 71–93
- d'Albertas, F. *et al.* (2021) Private reserves suffer from the same location biases of public protected areas. *Biol. Conserv.* 261, 109283
- Beyer, R.M. et al. (2022) Relocating croplands could drastically reduce the environmental impacts of global food production. *Commun. Earth Environ.* 3, 49
- Christie, A.P. *et al.* (2020) Quantifying and addressing the prevalence and bias of study designs in the environmental and social sciences. *Nat. Commun.* 11, 6377
- Fayle, T.M. et al. (2015) Whole-ecosystem experimental manipulations of tropical forests. Trends Ecol. Evol. 30, 334–346
- Cooke, S.J. *et al.* (2018) Evidence-based restoration in the Anthropocene – from acting with purpose to acting for impact. *Restor. Ecol.* 26, 201–205
- Gellie, N.J.C. et al. (2018) Networked and embedded scientific experiments will improve restoration outcomes. Front. Ecol. Environ. 16, 288–294
- Holl, K.D. et al. (2020) Applied nucleation facilitates tropical forest recovery: lessons learned from a 15-year study. J. Appl. Ecol. 57, 2316–2328
- Cook-Patton, S.C. *et al.* (2021) Dynamic global monitoring needed to use restoration of forest cover as a climate solution. *Nat. Clim. Chang.* 11, 366–368
- Hughes, B.B. *et al.* (2017) Long-term studies contribute disproportionately to ecology and policy. *BioScience* 67, 271–281
- Silveira, F.A.O. et al. (2021) Biome Awareness Disparity is BAD for tropical ecosystem conservation and restoration. J. Appl. Ecol. 59, 1967–1975
- 57. Klink, C.A. and Machado, R.B. (2005) Conservation of the Brazilian Cerrado. *Conserv. Biol.* 19, 707–713
- Laurance, W.F. et al. (2014) Agricultural expansion and its impacts on tropical nature. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 29, 107–116
 Ordway, E.M. et al. (2017) Deforestation risk due to commodity
- Ordway, E.M. *et al.* (2017) Derofestation risk due to commodify crop expansion in sub-Saharan Africa. *Environ. Res. Lett.* 12, 044015
- Flores, B.M. and Levis, C. (2021) Human–food feedback in tropical forests. *Science* 372, 1146–1147
- Falkowski, T.B. et al. (2020) Assessing avian diversity and community composition along a successional gradient in traditional Lacandon Maya agroforests. *Biotropica* 52, 1242–1252
- Jahn, T. et al. (2012) Transdisciplinarity: between mainstreaming and marginalization. Ecol. Econ. 79, 1–10
- Soemarwoto, O. *et al.* (1985) The Javanese home garden as an integrated agro-ecosystem. *Food Nutr. Bull.* 7, 1–4
- Engelen, D. et al. (2017) Similar bird communities in homegardens at different distances from Afromontane forests. *Bird Conserv. Int.* 27, 83–95
- Chazdon, R.L. *et al.* (2020) People, primates and predators in the Pontal: from endangered species conservation to forest and landscape restoration in Brazil's Atlantic Forest. *R. Soc. Open Sci.* 7, 200939
- Gann, G.D. et al. (2019) International principles and standards for the practice of ecological restoration. (Second edition), Restor. Ecol. 27 pp. S1–S46
- Martin, D.A. *et al.* (2021) Shade-tree rehabilitation in vanilla agroforests is yield neutral and may translate into landscapescale canopy cover gains. *Ecosystems* 24, 1253–1267
- Andersen, A.N. (1993) Ants as indicators of restoration success at a uranium mine in tropical Australia. *Restor, Ecol.* 1, 156–167
- Audino, L.D. *et al.* (2014) Dung beetles as indicators of tropical forest restoration success: is it possible to recover species and functional diversity? *Biol. Conserv.* 169, 248–257
- Lawes, M.J. et al. (2017) Ants as ecological indicators of rainforest restoration: community convergence and the development of an Ant Forest Indicator Index in the Australian wet tropics. Ecol. Evol. 7, 8442–8455
- Ruiz-Jaen, M.C. and Mitchell Aide, T. (2005) Restoration success: how is it being measured? *Restor. Ecol.* 13, 569–577

- 72. Viani, R.A.G. et al. (2017) Protocol for monitoring tropical forest restoration. *Trop. Conserv. Sci.* 10, 1–8
- 73. National Research Council (2000) Ecological Indicators for the Nation. National Academies Press
- Nunes, C.A. et al. (2022) Linking land-use and land-cover transitions to their ecological impact in the Amazon. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 119, e2202310119
- Manning, P. et al. (2018) Redefining ecosystem multifunctionality. Nat. Ecol. Evol. 2, 427–436
- Ladouceur, E. and Shackelford, N. (2021) The power of data synthesis to shape the future of the restoration community and capacity. *Restor. Ecol.* 29, e13251
- Sutherland, W.J. et al. (2019) Building a tool to overcome barriers in research-implementation spaces: the Conservation Evidence database. *Biol. Conserv.* 238, 108199
- Ruggiero, P.G.C. et al. (2019) Payment for ecosystem services programs in the Brazilian Atlantic Forest: effective but not enough. Land Use Policy 82, 283–291
- Di Sacco, A. et al. (2021) Ten golden rules for reforestation to optimize carbon sequestration, biodiversity recovery and livelihood benefits. Glob. Chang. Biol. 27, 1328–1348
- de Jong, L. *et al.* (2021) Understanding land-use change conflict: a systematic review of case studies. *J. Land Use Sci.* 16, 223–239
- Garzón, N.V. et al. (2020) Ecological restoration-based education in the Colombian Amazon: toward a new society–nature relationship. Restor. Ecol. 28, 1053–1060
- Lichtenberg, E.M. et al. (2017) A global synthesis of the effects of diversified farming systems on arthropod diversity within fields and across agricultural landscapes. *Glob. Chang. Biol.* 23, 4946–4957
- Mansourian, S. et al. (2018) Lessons Learnt from 13 years of Restoration in a Moist Tropical Forest: The Fandriana-Marolambo Landscape in Madagascar. WWF-France
- Mansourian, S. *et al.* (2016) Novel governance for forest landscape restoration in Fandriana Marolambo, Madagascar. *World Dev. Perspect.* 3, 28–31
- 85. US Department of Agriculture (2018) Oilseeds: World Markets and Trade. USDA
- Drescher, J. et al. (2016) Ecological and socio-economic functions across tropical land use systems after rainforest conversion. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. Ser. B Biol. Sci. 371, 20150275
- Foster, W.A. et al. (2011) Establishing the evidence base for maintaining biodiversity and ecosystem function in the oil palm landscapes of South East Asia. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond. Ser. B Biol. Sci.* 366, 3277–3291
- Bélanger, J., Pilling, D., eds (2019) The State of the World's Biodiversity for Food and Agriculture, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
- 89. Corley, R. and Tinker, P. (2016) The Oil Palm (5th edn), John Wiley & Sons
- Teuscher, M. et al. (2016) Experimental biodiversity enrichment in oil-palm-dominated landscapes in Indonesia. Front. Plant Sci. 7, 1538
- Gérard, A. et al. (2017) Oil-palm yields in diversified plantations: initial results from a biodiversity enrichment experiment in Sumatra, Indonesia. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 240, 253–260
- Darras, K.F.A. et al. (2019) Reducing fertilizer and avoiding herbicides in oil palm plantations – ecological and economic valuations. Front. For. Glob. Change 2, 65
- Hood, A.S.C. et al. (2020) Removing understory vegetation in oil palm agroforestry reduces ground-foraging ant abundance but not species richness. *Basic Appl. Ecol.* 48, 26–36
- Ashton-Butt, A. *et al.* (2018) Understory vegetation in oil palm plantations benefits soil biodiversity and decomposition rates. *Front. For. Glob. Change* 1, 10
- Hood, A.S.C. *et al.* (2019) Understory vegetation in oil palm plantations promotes leopard cat activity, but does not affect rats or rat damage. *Front. For. Glob. Change* 2, 51
- Ashraf, M. et al. (2018) Alley-cropping system can boost arthropod biodiversity and ecosystem functions in oil palm plantations. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 260, 19–26

Trends in Ecology & Evolution



- Yahya, M.S. et al. (2017) Switching from monoculture to polyculture farming benefits birds in oil palm production landscapes: evidence from mist netting data. Ecol. Evol. 7, 6314–6325
- Syafiq, M. et al. (2016) Responses of tropical fruit bats to monoculture and polyculture farming in oil palm smallholdings. Acta Oecol. 74, 11–18
- Eycott, A.E. et al. (2019) Resilience of ecological functions to drought in an oil palm agroecosystem. *Environ. Res. Commun.* 1, 101004
- Romero, M. *et al.* (2019) Promoting biodiversity enrichment in smallholder oil palm monocultures – experimental evidence from Indonesia. *World Dev.* 124, 104638
- Rudolf, K. *et al.* (2020) Effects of information and seedling provision on tree planting and survival in smallholder oil palm plantations. *J. Environ. Econ. Manag.* 104, 102361
- 102. Foster, W. et al. (2014) The Biodiversity and Ecosystem Function in Tropical Agriculture (BEFTA) project. The Planter 90, 581–591

- Myers, N. et al. (2000) Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities. Nature 403, 853–858
- Joly, C.A. et al. (2014) Experiences from the Brazilian Atlantic Forest: ecological findings and conservation initiatives. New Phytol. 204, 459–473
- 105. Brancalion, P.H.S. et al. (2016) A critical analysis of the Native Vegetation Protection Law of Brazil (2012): updates and ongoing initiatives. *Nat. Conserv.* 14, 1–15
- 106. Soares-Filho, B. *et al.* (2014) Cracking Brazil's Forest Code. Science 344, 363–364
- Crouzeilles, R. et al. (2019) There is hope for achieving ambitious Atlantic Forest restoration commitments. Perspect. Ecol. Conserv. 17, 80–83
- Rezende, C.L. *et al.* (2018) From hotspot to hopespot: an opportunity for the Brazilian Atlantic Forest. *Perspect. Ecol. Conserv.* 16, 208–214