

1 **Title: Synergies and trade-offs between tree cover expansion efforts within**
2 **and outside forests to achieve climate, biodiversity and human well-being**
3 **outcomes**

4
5 **Running title:** Trees inside and outside forests

6
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28 **Abstract:**

29 Increasing tree cover is hailed as a leading climate mitigation strategy, yet there is increasing evidence
30 that there may be trade-offs between trees in different parts of the landscape. Existing science, policy,
31 and practice on natural climate solutions (NCS) assumes that trees outside of forests, for example on
32 farms, homesteads, or in urban areas, are synergistic with forest conservation: if people have more
33 access to trees outside forests, the thinking goes, they will use fewer trees in the forest, leading to
34 forest conservation. However, recent evidence shows that trees inside and outside forests often serve
35 different purposes and produce different ecological, social or economic outcomes. As a result, in
36 many contexts trees outside of forests do not necessarily substitute for trees inside of forests, and in
37 some circumstances, an increase in trees outside of forests could even contribute to forest loss. In this
38 perspective, we review the existing evidence on dynamics and trade-offs of trees inside and outside
39 forests to describe pathways that lead to trade-offs and synergies and identify critical research gaps
40 that, if addressed, can inform the implementation of ecosystem restoration and climate mitigation
41 programs and policies. These diverse pathways are not widely recognized in science, policy, or
42 practice, leading to potentially unproductive policy investments and leaving significant research gaps
43 that we identify in this paper. Additionally, there is a risk that tree planting programs that are not
44 cognizant of potential trade-offs may have negative repercussions for forest conservation,
45 biodiversity, carbon storage, and rural livelihoods. Recognizing pathways that lead to negative
46 outcomes, and identifying research gaps that could anticipate or prevent such negative outcomes will
47 help scientists, policymakers and practitioners move forward with more effective NCS.

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49 **Keywords:** afforestation, trees outside forests, forest, tree planting, forest restoration

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56 **Introduction**

57 Increasing tree cover has been hailed as a leading climate mitigation strategy¹⁻³. Propelled by global
58 initiatives and targets, such as the United Nations (UN) Decade on Ecosystem Restoration⁴ (2021-
59 2030) and the Bonn Challenge⁵, a plethora of tree planting efforts are currently underway, with the
60 goal of remaking global landscapes to store more carbon, as well as to provide benefits such as
61 protecting biodiversity and improving the livelihoods of rural people⁶⁻¹⁰. These tree planting programs
62 often include planting both inside forests and outside of forests — on farms, in non-forested
63 ecosystems (savannahs, wetlands, and rangelands), and along roadsides, for example¹¹.

64

65 A working assumption of most programs appears to be that trees in one part of the landscape can be
66 substituted for trees in other parts of the landscape. Yet, there is accumulating evidence that trees
67 inside and outside forests serve different purposes and produce different outcomes¹²⁻¹⁴, raising the
68 risk that increased planting of trees outside forests may have negative repercussions for trees inside
69 forests across spatial and temporal scales, and vice versa. Given the unprecedented scale of current
70 tree planting efforts^{9,10,15,16}, greater understanding is needed of the potential for trade-offs and
71 synergies between trees planted for different purposes in different parts of the landscape. We review
72 the existing evidence on dynamics and trade-offs of trees inside and outside forests to identify critical
73 research gaps that, if addressed, can inform the implementation of ecosystem restoration and climate
74 mitigation programs and policies.

75

Box 1: Terminology

Various Definitions of forests:

According to FAO, a forest is a land with tree cover of more than 10% in an area of a minimum of 0.5 hectares¹⁷.

According to the International Union of Forest Research Organizations (IUFRO), a forest is a land parcel with a minimum of 10% tree crown cover. This land parcel must have formerly had tree cover and must be natural or artificially regenerated or afforested.¹⁸

Trees outside forests: According to FAO, trees outside forests are trees on land not defined as forest and other wooded land. This may include agricultural land, including meadows and pasture, built-on land (including settlements and infrastructure), and barren land (including sand dunes and rocky outcroppings). It may also include trees on land that fulfils the requirements of forest and other wooded land except that: i) the area is less than 0.5 ha; ii) the trees are able to reach a height of at least 5 m at maturity in situ but where the stocking level is below 5 percent; iii) trees not able to reach a height of 5 m at maturity in situ where the stocking level is below 10 percent; iv) trees in shelterbelts and riparian buffers of less than 20 m width and 0.5 ha area.¹⁹

Forest landscape restoration: According to the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), Forest landscape restoration (FLR) is the ongoing process of regaining ecological functionality and enhancing human well-being across deforested or degraded forest landscapes. FLR is more than just planting trees – it is restoring a whole landscape to meet present and future needs and to offer multiple benefits and land uses over time.¹⁷

Reforestation: According to FAO, reforestation is the re-establishment of forest through planting and/or deliberate seeding on land classified as forest.¹⁷

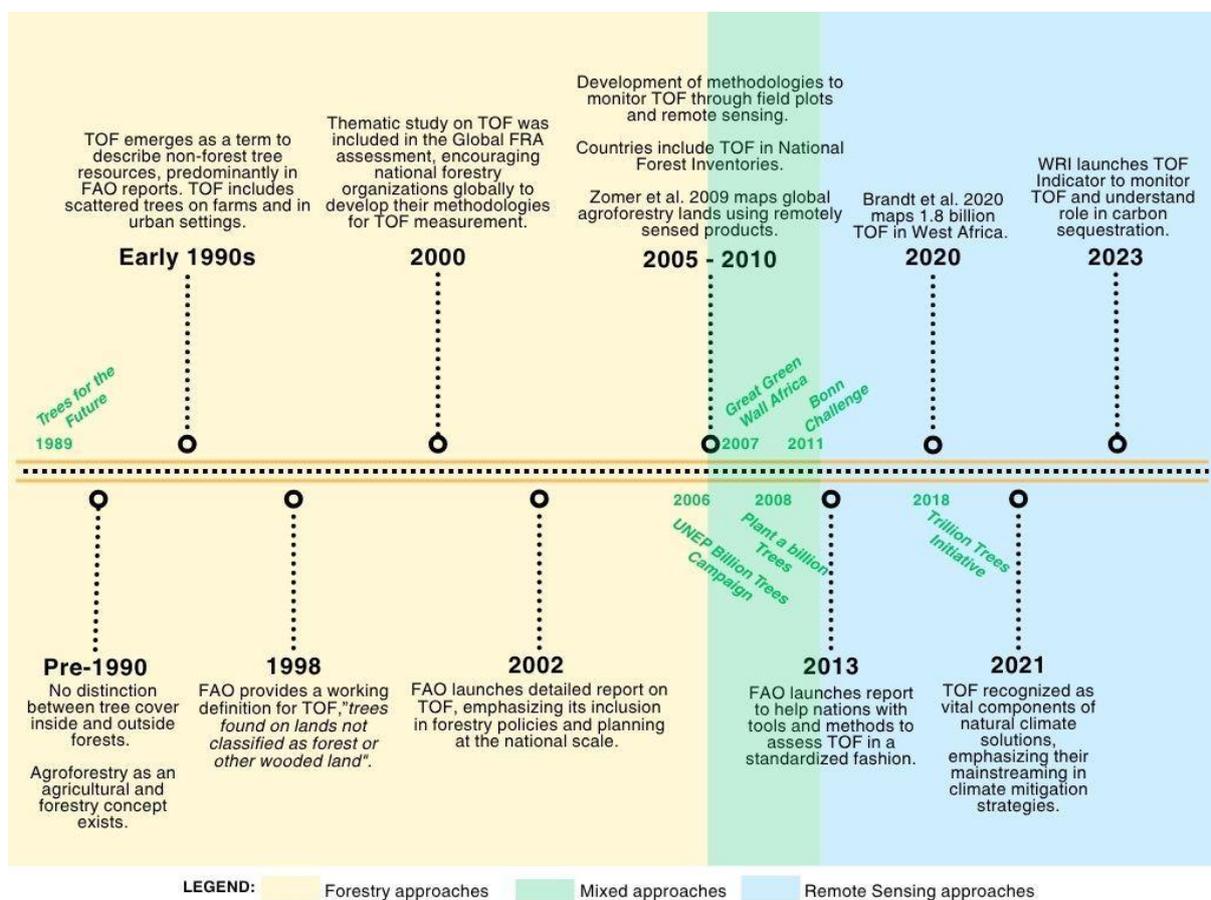
Afforestation: According to FAO, afforestation is the establishment of forest through planting and/or deliberate seeding on land that, until then, was under a different land use, implies a transformation of land use from non-forest to forest.¹⁷

Ecological Restoration: According to the Society for Ecological Restoration (SER), Ecological restoration is the process of assisting the recovery of an ecosystem that has been degraded, damaged, or destroyed²⁰.

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77 The cost-effectiveness and the opportunity for large scale deployment have made increasing tree
78 cover a popular natural climate solution (NCS) (Figure 1)²¹. Governmental efforts to meet their
79 nationally determined contributions include some of the largest global tree planting initiatives²². For
80 example, India's Green India Mission attempted to increase green cover by 5 million hectares by 2025
81 largely through tree planting initiatives²³, or Brazil's Green Growth Program that will plant 24 million
82 trees by 2050²⁴. Approximately 65% of tree planting organizations were established in the last 25
83 years, showing the quick rise in popularity of tree planting as an NCS²⁵ (Figure 2). Moreover, >50%
84 of these organizations focus on planting new trees outside forests through activities such as

85 agroforestry¹⁵, which has contributed to 17% ± 3% or 6 million hectares in the increase in tree cover
 86 in the moist tropical regions from 1982 to 2015¹². It is estimated that trees outside forest systems such
 87 as agroforestry, support approximately 900 million people, especially in the tropics²⁶, with significant
 88 direct material and economic benefits to people^{27,28}. By contrast, only 20% of the tree planting
 89 organizations focus on established low-cost reforestation techniques such as natural regeneration of
 90 trees in previously forested lands²⁵, even though recent estimates have found that natural regeneration
 91 constituted 56% ± 3% of the tree cover increase in the moist tropics¹².
 92



93
 94 *Figure 1: A timeline of the evolution of the concept of 'trees outside forests' and its measurement according to global*
 95 *organizations such as the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). Text in green indicates the year of*
 96 *major global tree-planting programs around the world. The colours represent the approaches or methods predominantly*
 97 *relied on to quantify the trees outside forests in a location. Yellows represent mainly forestry approaches of field-based*
 98 *measurements to create inventories of trees outside forests. Mixed approaches refer to the combination of field-based*
 99 *inventories and early days of remote sensing based tree cover classification and blue refers to primarily remote sensing*

100 *based quantifications of trees outside forests. TOF refers to trees outside forests; FRA refers to forest resources assessment;*
101 *WRI refers to World Resources Institute. Studies referenced in the figure are ^{26,29}.*

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103 **Relationship between tree cover inside and outside forests:**

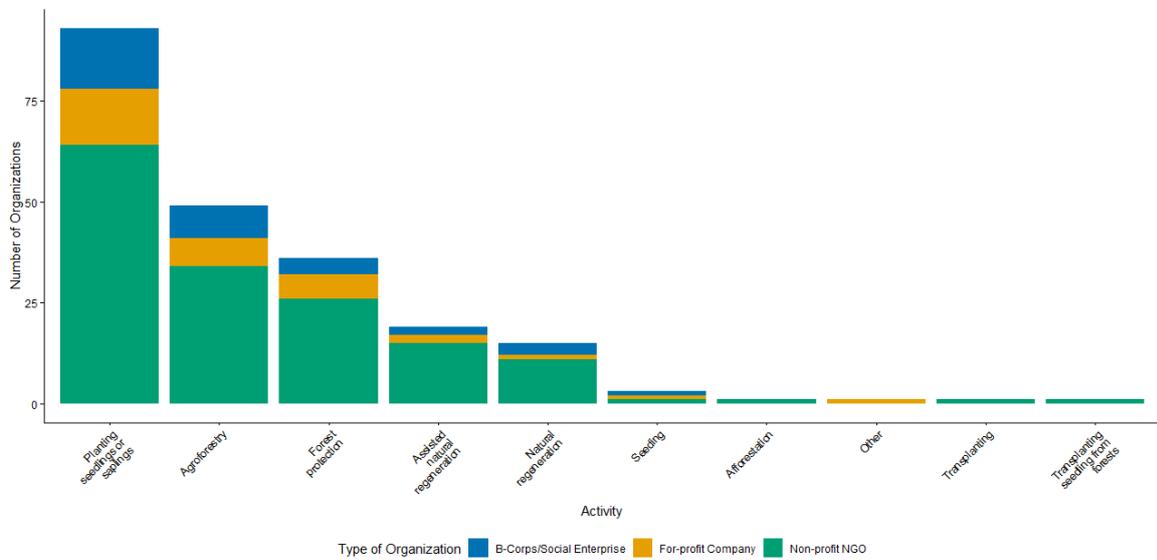
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105 *Assumptions driving tree planting efforts*

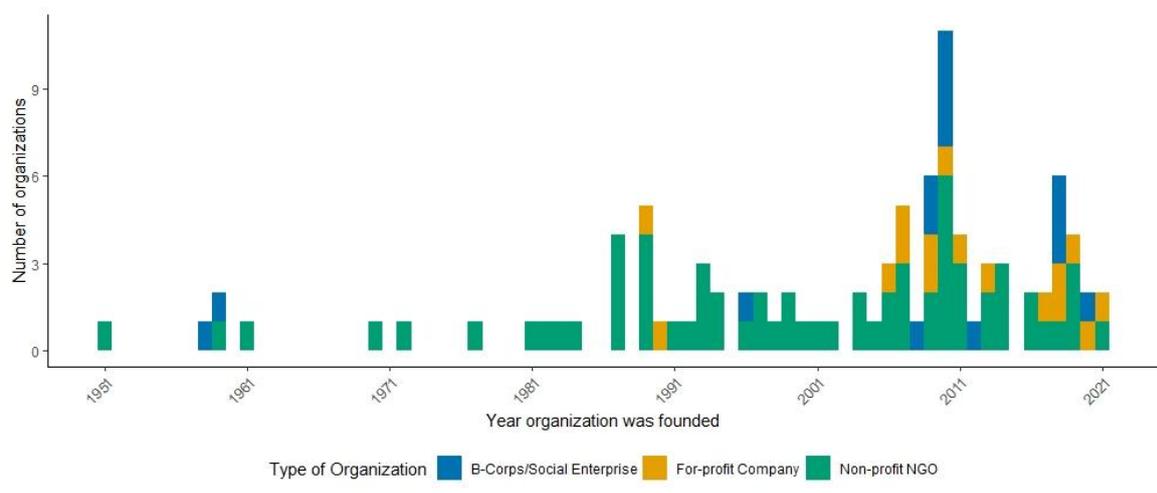
106 In theory, the right trees (for example, native species) in the right places (for example, the appropriate
107 ecosystem for those species) can provide a range of climatic, ecological, economic and social benefits
108 for people³⁰⁻³². However, in practice, trees are often thought to be good regardless of their position on
109 the landscape or their role, in part because of their perceived potential as carbon sinks, with co-
110 benefits ^{2,28,33}. Fulfilling climate and land restoration targets by increasing tree cover, mainly outside
111 existing forest areas, is complex^{8,34}. Many tree planting programs assume incorporating trees on farms
112 and planting trees outside forests will reduce tree harvests and resource use from existing forest areas,
113 potentially reducing deforestation and degradation and their associated carbon emissions³⁵⁻³⁸.
114 However, trees inside and outside of forests may not be substitutes for each other, because they may
115 provide distinct ecosystem services and be subject to different anthropogenic and environmental
116 pressures, among other possible reasons^{13,39}. Furthermore, the climate, biodiversity, and human
117 wellbeing benefits that trees could provide, depend on the land use or ecosystem that they are
118 replacing^{40,41}. For example, grasslands and open natural ecosystems that cover approximately two
119 thirds of the world have, for centuries, been classified as ‘wastelands’ or ecosystems less valuable
120 than forests^{42,43}. This misclassification has led to countless tree planting programs in countries like
121 India, Brazil, and Madagascar to convert grasslands to ‘forests’ or plantations, impacting endemic
122 flora and fauna⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. Ambitious goals of planting as many as a trillion trees¹⁵ assume that landscapes
123 lack cultural, social, or environmental thresholds for tree cover, meaning more trees planted would
124 result in increased tree cover both locally and globally^{31,47}. This, in turn, assumes that tree planting
125 activities are both additional (i.e. that adding seedlings or saplings leads to the growth of trees in
126 places where they were not already growing) and do not lead to leakage (i.e. that planting trees in one
127 place does not lead to loss of trees or forest cover somewhere else)^{2,35,36,38}. These assumptions have

128 not been widely tested, raising concerns for the future of existing and newly planted tree cover inside
 129 and outside forests. We argue that there is an urgent need for research that examines the dynamics of
 130 forest cover and trees outside forests⁴⁸ as there are potential social and environmental trade-offs
 131 between different trees in different places^{12,13}.

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 134 (a)

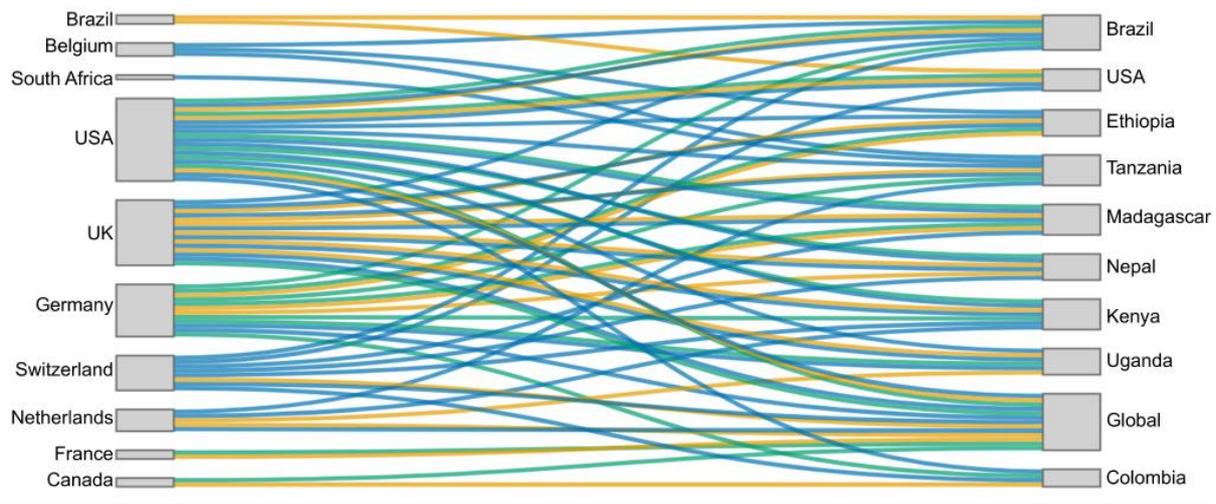


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 138 (b)



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141 (c)



143 *Figure 2: (a) Bar plot of the strategy of tree planting used by different types of organizations. (b) Bar plot of the year in*
144 *which the tree planting organizations were registered or founded. (c) Sankey plot of the top 10 countries with the highest*
145 *number of tree planting organizations registered and the countries where they carry out tree planting activities. For (a), (b)*
146 *and (c), the colours represent the type of organization. Data sourced from Schubert et al. 2024²⁵.*

147

148 *Dynamism of tree cover inside and outside forests*

149 Historically, without long-term and high resolution remotely sensed data, the relationship between
150 trees outside and inside forests could not be studied at the spatio-temporal scales required to
151 understand the contextual factors that determine whether their relationship is **synergistic** (as most tree
152 planting organizations assume) or **antagonistic** (the reality in some cases). Below we outline
153 scenarios that describe synergism and antagonism at a local scale, but these interactions could exist at
154 different spatial and temporal scales. The advent of high resolution satellite imagery and fine spatial
155 and temporal resolution of socio-economic data can allow us to quantify the dynamic relationship
156 between trees inside and outside forests and examine socio-environmental trade-offs associated with
157 different relationships at different spatial scales. For example, most recent global evidence (2000 to
158 2012) shows that tree plantations, which are classified as trees outside forests, have replaced 9.2% of
159 protected forests and natural ecosystems, indicating that in certain cases trees outside forests may
160 directly replace natural forest cover⁴⁸. Previously, without the ability to distinguish tree cover types,
161 an increase in tree cover after a period of loss would be considered a ‘forest transition’⁴⁹. However,

162 with distinctions in tree cover, we can better identify the drivers of the transition pathways (for
163 example, adoption of agroforestry or plantations) and their potential outcomes⁵⁰.

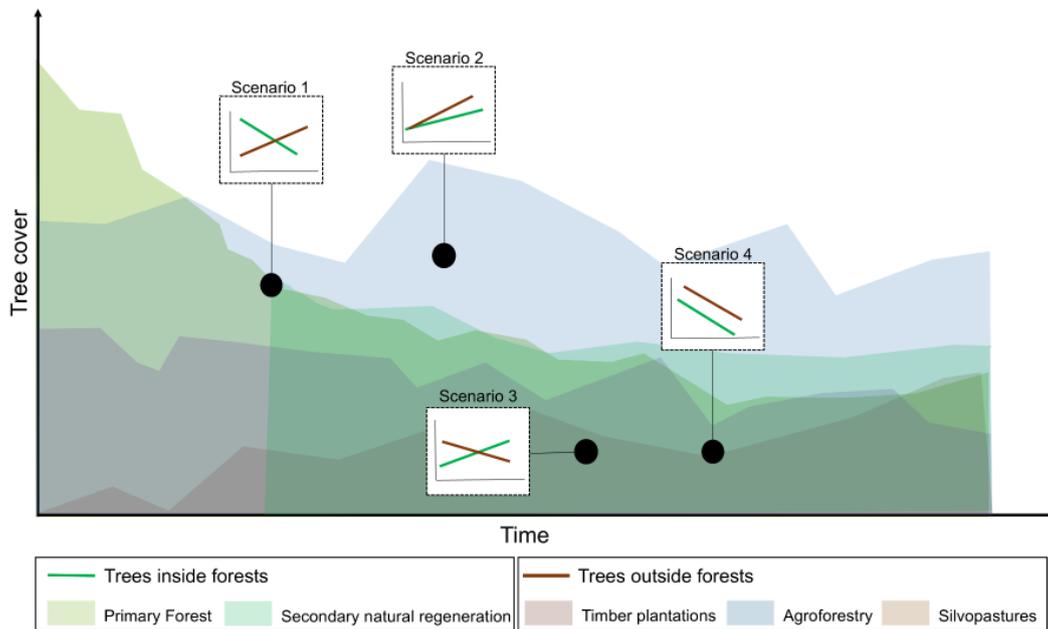
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165 The dynamics between trees outside forests and trees inside forests could be viewed with the same
166 lens as the dynamics between two distinct land covers; for example, similar to the dynamics of
167 agriculture and forest cover, which are often viewed as competing land uses⁵¹⁻⁵³. If there is a
168 commercial value to trees outside forests, especially cash tree crops such as palm oil, coffee, cacao, or
169 timber species, there would be an incentive to reduce forest cover to increase trees outside forests
170 systems^{40,54,55}. Furthermore, plantations or ‘forest plantations’ for timber production and non timber
171 products can provide substantial economic and material benefits⁵⁶, while on the other hand, increasing
172 trees outside forests could result in a change in attitudes toward the environment and thus there are
173 cases when both trees outside forests and forest cover can increase simultaneously⁵⁴.

174

175 Case studies from the last few decades shed light on outcomes of varied trees outside forests- trees
176 inside forests relationships. Figure 3 provides a hypothetical change in different tree cover types over
177 time, both inside and outside forests. Each scenario marked in Figure 3 represents a unique
178 relationship, of which there can be several.

179



180

181 *Figure 3: Scenarios of relationships between trees inside forests (primary forest, secondary natural regeneration) and*
 182 *outside forests (timber plantations, agroforests, silvopastures). The scenarios represent simplified synergistic trends*
 183 *(scenarios 2 and 4), antagonistic trends (scenarios 1 and 3).*

184

185 *Antagonism (Scenario 1 and 3)*

186 In these scenarios, increasing trees outside forests leads to decreases in trees inside forests and vice
 187 versa. Recent evidence from China shows that trees outside forests, predominantly commercial
 188 plantations, often replace native vegetation or forests, leading to an increase in trees outside forests
 189 with an accompanying decrease in trees inside forests. China’s National Forest Protection Program
 190 and the Green-For-Grain Program began in the late 1990s, spending approximately \$19 and \$47
 191 billion respectively, until the early to mid 2010s⁵⁷. An examination of tree cover change from 2000 to
 192 2015 in China’s Sichuan Province revealed incentives to convert croplands to monoculture tree
 193 plantations (~ 50% of converted croplands) by clearing existing regenerating forests on farmlands.

194 Due to a large emphasis on active tree planting, a mere 1.5% of the cropland loss was associated with
 195 native forest increase through natural regeneration⁵⁷. Ultimately, a gross tree cover gain of 32% in the
 196 region hid a ~7% loss of native forest⁵⁷, implying potential trade-offs between forest conservation and
 197 active restoration.

198

199 Another afforestation subsidy, the Decree Law 701, in Chile, has been shown to negatively impact
200 biodiversity due to the creation of plantations in biodiverse forests⁵⁸. In Chile's Valdivia region,
201 where 53% of new plantations were created through the conversion of temperate rainforest, shows
202 that often trees outside forests in the form of pulp or timber plantations are established by replacing
203 native forest cover⁵⁹. Mexico's *Sembrando Vida*⁶⁰, a national restoration and tree planting program
204 displays a similar antagonistic relationship. For example, because of the program there has been a
205 significant reduction in funding to national parks, which may have affected their ability to protect and
206 monitor existing forest and non-forest ecosystems⁶¹. Additionally, although national reports suggest
207 that 720 million trees have been planted as part of the program⁶⁰, evidence suggests that the program
208 may have encouraged the deforestation of 72,000 hectares of forest land across the country⁶², with a
209 portion of it being caused by state-authorized burning⁶³.

210

211 We argue that tree cover changes in Scenario 1 can lead to contradicting outcomes for carbon
212 sequestration. On the one hand, plantations are considered efficient means of sequestering carbon⁶⁴.
213 On the other hand, plantations are known to have substantial negative effects on biodiversity^{65,66}.
214 Emerging evidence shows that monoculture or species poor plantations may not be stable avenues to
215 capture carbon in comparison to species rich forests or polycultures and may not be valuable to meet
216 climate mitigation or biodiversity conservation goals^{67,68}. Moreover, the carbon accumulation from
217 planting trees outside forests may still be less than the carbon lost from deforesting, resulting in a net
218 loss of carbon. Furthermore, trees outside forests could lead to an additional or alternative income for
219 people^{17,36}, with material benefits, such as wood and wood fibre, but with limited biodiversity
220 conservation value^{66,70}. Plantations, especially proposed and incentivized by top-down government
221 schemes, are often associated with negative outcomes for people's interactions and social
222 relationships^{27,71,72}.

223

224 *Synergism (Scenario 2 and 4)*

225 In these scenarios, trees inside and outside forests increase or decrease together. For example, in
226 Scenario 2, trees inside forests increase at the same time that trees outside forests increase. In

227 Southern Ethiopia, an increase of trees inside forests and trees outside forests over 14 years (1999 -
228 2013) took place due to the addition of trees, woodlots, and crops around homesteads⁷³, following two
229 decades of deforestation. Since the 1970s, local people have used an exotic species, *Eucalyptus*, to
230 increase tree cover around their homes to diversify their incomes through the sale of timber⁷³.
231 Moreover, this case study implies that trees outside forests alleviated pressure on existing forest,
232 allowing tree cover to recover within forests.

233

234 In Southeast Asia, Teo *et al.* 2025⁵⁴ found that increasing agroforestry practices around areas of
235 deforestation led to a reduction in the amount of deforestation over a six year period from 2015 to
236 2023. This study suggests that agroforestry (or, more broadly, trees outside forests) can coexist with
237 forest fragments in mosaic landscapes that are often found in Asia. These decreases in deforestation
238 are similar to observations of declining deforestation in parts of Latin America^{74–76}. In Latin America
239 decreases in deforestation as a result of agroforestry were not sustained, indicating that longer time
240 frames may be needed to understand the relationships between trees inside and outside of forests.
241 Many of the agroforestry tree species used commonly in Southeast Asia, including fast-growing
242 timber species, such as *Acacia* or *Eucalyptus*, and tree crops, such as rubber and oil palm⁵⁴ are not
243 native to that region and/or are managed with very high intensity. This may imply trade-offs for
244 carbon and/or biodiversity benefits, as these trees may not provide good habitat for native species
245 and/or be harvested quickly and thus provide limited long-term carbon storage^{65,66}.

246

247 An increase in trees outside forests and trees inside forests (Scenario 2) could result in more stable
248 carbon capture than in Scenario 1, high biodiversity conservation value and possibly more positive
249 outcomes for local livelihoods^{27,69,77}. There can be considerable variability in the carbon capture
250 based on the tree species composition⁶⁸, and thus diverse native trees outside forests can greatly
251 enhance the carbon value of a landscape. For example, agroforests support higher avian biodiversity
252 than monocultures of commercial crops, such as rubber and oil palm^{78,79}. However, the addition of
253 trees- even a minimum of six different species, especially to oil palm plantations can significantly
254 enhance biodiversity and ecosystem functioning in these plantations⁸⁰.

255

256 Chile is an ideal case study for Scenario 4. A remote sensing study by Altamirano and coauthors
257 measuring tree cover changes between 2000 and 2016 found an overall loss in tree cover, both trees
258 outside forests and trees inside forests⁸¹. Over the duration of the study, although there was overall
259 tree cover loss, 51% of tree plantation pixels (predominantly exotic species such as *Eucalyptus*⁸²)
260 were eventually replanted⁸¹. The other half of the plantation pixels returned to bare ground or shrubs
261 and grasses. However, it is likely that over time these pixels too will be replanted. About 50% of the
262 trees inside forest pixels also turned to bare ground and shrublands at the end of the time period
263 studied, indicating clearing of forests for either plantations, agriculture, or natural regeneration. In the
264 case of Scenario 4, it is possible that the relationship between trees inside and outside forests is not
265 causal, and may be driven by commercial or industrial pressures or even misguided natural resource
266 policies as noted in the case of Chile. Here, we assume that trees would be used regardless of where
267 they are, inside or outside forests.

268

269 We predict that a decrease in both trees inside forests and trees outside forests in favour of other land
270 covers such as agriculture and built up areas could lead to a decrease in carbon sequestration and
271 biodiversity conservation value. However, with different land covers, there could be positive
272 outcomes for people's livelihoods and social relations. For example, people may switch from forestry
273 to agriculture, which could bring more income and improve their well-being.

274

275 **Future directions to study tree cover changes and inform tree planting projects**

276 This paper lays out widespread scenarios of relationships between trees inside and outside forests.
277 Understanding the prevalence of different scenarios, their drivers as well as the nature of social-
278 ecological interactions and outcomes within these scenarios are the key to improving efforts to
279 increase tree cover and mitigating any negative effects of these efforts on people and biodiversity. In
280 other words, the crucial question for those who wish to use trees to restore or promote tree-dominated
281 ecosystems or improve human well-being using trees is: when are there synergies between trees inside
282 and outside of forests? Identifying factors that contribute to synergistic scenarios, such as Scenario 2,

283 and the timelines on which they occur will better enable policymakers, tree planting NGOs, and local
284 communities to design programs that achieve their desired outcomes. On the other hand, it is equally
285 important to understand the unintended consequences of well-meaning policies, programs and
286 subsidies, as case studies from Mexico^{62,63}, Chile⁵⁸ and India⁸³ have shown. The most important gap
287 in our understanding, however, is causality, which can be addressed through more rigorous
288 experimental research and cutting-edge causal inference methods.

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