### **POLICY BRIEF**



# NINE WAYS TO AVOID THE AMAZON TIPPING POINT

Bernardo M. Flores\*, Adriane Esquivel-Muelbert\*, Marco Ehrlich\*, Emilio Vilanova, Raquel Chaves, Marina Hirota, Michelle Kalamandeen | \*Co-lead authors

### **KEY MESSAGES**

- (i) Global greenhouse gas emissions, combined with local deforestation and forest degradation, are pushing the Amazonian system closer to a tipping point. Climatic and land-use disturbances are already weakening moisture flow across the Amazon, reducing forest resilience downwind and increasing the risk of forest collapse in peripheral and central parts of the biome. This increases the risk of crossing a large-scale tipping point.
- (ii) A large-scale Amazon tipping point may trigger the collapse of most forests and consequently: (1) accelerate global warming, hindering efforts to achieve the goals of the Paris Agreement; (2) reduce moisture flow across South America, threatening water security for basic socioeconomic activities, such as agriculture; (3) increase temperatures across the Amazon region that may become unbearable for humans living in urban and rural areas; (4) cause mass species extinctions; and (5) compromise the biological and cultural assets that represent key solutions to the current and future challenges of humanity.
- (iii) Synergies between disturbances may cause unexpected tipping behaviour, even in forest regions previously considered as resilient to climate change, such as the central or western Amazon. Current climate models of the IPCC AR6 agree that a large-scale tipping point of the Amazon system is unlikely to be crossed within this or the next century, but these models ignore the multiple interactions and synergies between climate and land-use disturbances (e.g., simultaneous heat waves, prolonged and extreme droughts, and forest fires).

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

To reduce the likelihood of reaching a large-scale tipping of the Amazon forest system, actions that strengthen forest resilience are urgently needed (for detail list see section D):

- (i) Act at global, regional, and local scales to drastically reduce greenhouse gas emissions, to stop deforestation, forest degradation, and wildfires.
- (ii) Implement large scale restoration (natural regeneration and reforestation) along an 'Arc of Restoration' will strengthen forest-rainfall feedback across the Amazon, reducing the risk of tipping events and improving forest connectivity across the Andes-Amazonian frontier.
- (iii) Recognize and strengthen the leadership role of Indigenous peoples and local communities in Amazonian governance, given their diverse ecological knowledge, practices, and biocultural connections that increase forest resilience to global changes. This involves expanding Indigenous territories and sustainableuse protected areas, strengthening Indigenous and environmental agencies, and including the effective participation of Indigenous peoples and local communities in decision-making processes.
- (iv) Monitor Amazonian forest dynamics and responses to environmental stress (e.g., thermal and water stress) and disturbances (e.g., deforestation and degradation due to illegal logging and forest fires), to provide timely information that can help strengthen local governance. This requires investing in research focusing on the impacts of compounding, synergistic disturbances on forest resilience.



GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT. Nine ways to avoid the Amazon tipping point.

### A. THE LARGEST AND MOST DIVERSE TROPICAL FOREST ON THE PLANET AT RISK

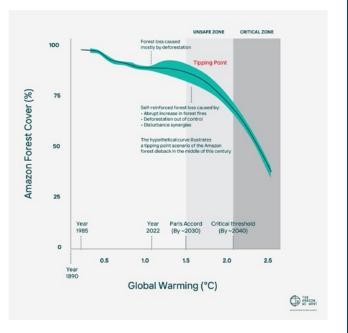
The Amazon forest system has a key role in regulating the global climate system<sup>1,2</sup>, but there is a growing concern that it may cross a tipping point within this century (see Box 1), potentially leading to drastic and irreversible ecosystem shifts. An Amazon forest collapse, even if partial, would have severe consequences to biodiversity, the livelihoods of Indigenous peoples and local

communities, and the persistence of Earth's current climatic conditions. It would disrupt the hydrological cycle of large parts of South America, threatening water supplies for millions of people within and outside the Amazon, in regions such as the Andes, the La Plata Basin, and the Pantanal wetlands. It would exacerbate extreme hydrological events, such as floods and droughts<sup>3.</sup> Forest loss across the Amazon would also increase regional temperatures, making it unbearable for humans in both urban and rural areas<sup>4,5</sup>.

The region is home to over 47 million people, including 410 Indigenous groups with diverse cultures and knowledge systems. These groups are deeply interconnected with Amazonian ecosystems, which allows them to quickly identify changes and become early warning

voices against deforestation, degradation, climate change, biodiversity loss, and ecological transitions. Indigenous peoples are therefore key for developing mitigation and adaptation strategies in the face of global changes<sup>6,7</sup>.

**BOX 1: Tipping point** is a threshold value of a stressing condition at which a given system is unstable, and a small change in conditions could cause the whole system to shift abruptly into an alternative stable state8. As a system approaches a tipping point, it gradually loses resilience while still persisting in a certain state, until suddenly collapsing into a contrasting state. Such tipping behaviour depends on the existence of positive feedback mechanisms, which are self-reinforcing interactions that cause small changes to intensify, spread, or accelerate<sup>9</sup>. **An Amazonian tipping point** is a value of a stressor (e.g., thermal or water stress) beyond which the forest would irreversibly collapse, locally or at larger scale (i.e., systemically), shifting into an open vegetation (non-forested) state.



BOX FIGURE. Potential irreversible collapse of the Amazon forest triggered by a tipping point in global warming. Increased temperatures are already changing the Amazon's regional climate, exposing forests to increasing water stress. In addition, synergies between the impacts of global warming and deforestation, and associated disturbances, such as extreme droughts and forest fires, may anticipate the collapse of the system. The hypothetical curve illustrates a tipping point scenario for Amazon forest dieback in the middle of this century.

## B. DRIVERS OF STRESS AND THE POTENTIAL OF REACHING CRITICAL THRESHOLDS

Greenhouse gas emissions and deforestation are the two main drivers of stresses on the Amazonian system.

Independently or combined, these drivers can lead to drastic changes in three key mechanisms that shape Amazonian resilience:

1. Global warming: Some models indicate a potential large-scale tipping point of the Amazon forest at a critical threshold, somewhere between 2°C and 6°C of global warming¹o. Increasing mean global temperature causes climatic conditions to change in the Amazon region, which is projected to become warmer and drier (with the exception of the north-western Amazon), causing widespread water stress.

**2. Rainfall conditions:** Three potential critical thresholds in rainfall conditions can result in a tipping point related to water stress: (1) annual rainfall below 1,000 mm; (2) annual maximum cumulative water deficit (MCWD, a proxy for seasonality intensity) greater than 450 mm; (3) dry season length above 6-8 months<sup>11-13</sup>.

### 3. Forest cover and landscape connectivity:

At the Amazon biome scale, forest cover loss beyond 20% (20-50%) may weaken basin-wide forest-rainfall feedback, likely accelerating regional climatic changes and

potentially causing more forest loss due to water stress<sup>13,14</sup>. At landscape scales, empirical evidence suggests that forest loss beyond 70% could be a critical threshold for the collapse of ecological integrity in tropical forests, with most vertebrate species disappearing<sup>15</sup>. Parts of the Amazon forest within deforestation frontiers are close to or may have already crossed this critical threshold<sup>5</sup>. Andes-Amazon connectivity is particularly critical for animal mobility and enabling species to migrate to climatic refuges<sup>16,17</sup>.

### BOX 2: Feedbacks that can accelerate a large-scale tipping point

**Global-warming and carbon emissions feedback:** Global warming is projected to increase drought regimes and temperatures across the Amazon<sup>2</sup>, which is confirmed by current satellite observations of climatic conditions<sup>18</sup>. These changes are already increasing tree mortality rates<sup>19</sup> and fire incidence<sup>20</sup>, causing south-eastern Amazonian forests to shift from a carbon sink to a carbon source<sup>21,22</sup>. Greenhouse gas emissions increase from both above- and below-ground sources, particularly from wetlands<sup>23</sup>. For example, with increasing droughts, at least 5 Pg of carbon stored in peatlands and wetlands of the Peruvian Amazon could be released to the atmosphere, further accelerating global warming<sup>24</sup>.

**Forest-rainfall feedback:** Through the process of evapotranspiration, trees cool the lower atmosphere and transfer moisture from the ground to the atmosphere, increasing humidity. Consequently, this increases rainfall amount and stability, at the local and regional scale, via atmospheric circulation<sup>25,26</sup>. This is the mechanism by which the forest itself generates much of its own rain, and that of other regions. Accumulated deforestation may weaken this positive feedback and reduce rainfall in the southern and south-western parts of the Amazon forest, which are the most vulnerable to the cascading effects of deforestation on moisture flow<sup>25,26</sup>. Tree mortality as a result of water stress would further accentuate regional climatic changes, weakening forest-rainfall feedback and reducing moisture flow to other regions, such as the Andes, La Plata Basin, and Pantanal wetlands.

**Tree cover and fire feedback:** Disturbances that open the forest canopy (e.g., logging) and allow grasses to expand can increase forest flammability. As grasses are more flammable, fires can spread more frequently, which in turn prevents tree recruitment, maintaining the ecosystem in an open vegetation state<sup>27,28</sup>.

### C. OBSERVED EVIDENCE OF AN APPROACHING TIPPING POINT

1. Compounding disturbances may accelerate change. Forests may become increasingly overwhelmed with compounding disturbances related to climate and land-use changes. When compounding disturbances interact, powerful synergistic effects may emerge (e.g., by simultaneous heatwaves, extreme droughts, and forest fires) and cause unexpected tipping behaviour<sup>29</sup>, even in regions previously considered resilient. Dry-season mean temperature is already 2°C higher today than 40 years ago in most of the Amazon18. Currently, 16% of the Amazon has been deforested and 17% of remaining forests have been degraded by compounding human disturbances<sup>30,31</sup>, a statistic that reaches 38% if we consider degradation by repeated extreme drought events (e.g., in 2005, 2010, 2014-16, and 2023)<sup>32</sup>. Even remote parts

of the central Amazon are now exposed to warming temperatures, repeated extreme drought events, and wildfires, making them vulnerable to ecosystem transition in the coming decades<sup>8,18,30</sup>. The current 2023 El Niño is demonstrating how these synergies can be destructive for the forest, its fauna, and local human societies.

2. Forests are going through ecological transitions. Tree mortality rates are increasing in most parts of the Amazon<sup>33</sup>, and drought-affiliated tree species are becoming more abundant, changing forest composition and functioning<sup>34</sup>. Trees in the southern fringes of the Amazon are operating beyond their physiological thresholds (hydraulic-safety margin) in terms of water availability<sup>35</sup>. In floodplain forests, wildfires are facilitating the expansion of white-sand savanna ecosystems, with major shifts in the species of trees, birds, and fish<sup>36-38</sup>.



FIGURE 1. Causes, drivers, and solutions that affect the risk of reaching Amazon tipping points. The causes - greenhouse gas emissions and land-use changes - weaken the forest-rainfall feedback; i.e., forest loss contributes to climatic changes that further increase forest loss (Box 2), thus reducing forest resilience. The solutions - increased governance for reduced emissions and land-use changes - strengthen the forest-rainfall feedback, thus increasing forest resilience.

### 3. Amazonian forests are losing resilience.

Forest resilience is declining in threequarters of the Amazon biome, as indicated by observations of satellite data revealing a phenomenon known as 'critical slowing down', suggesting that the system might be approaching a tipping point<sup>39</sup>.

### 4. Disturbed forests struggle to recover.

Approximately 4% of Amazonian forests are in a secondary forest state<sup>40</sup>, but the recovery of

these forests is uncertain, as some areas may persist in a degraded state for decades or even centuries<sup>41-43</sup> as a consequence of positive feedbacks<sup>9</sup> (Box 2). Some examples are forests dominated by Vismia trees, bamboos, and lianas, which are expanding as a result of forest fires and other disturbances4<sup>4-46</sup>. Within agricultural frontiers, flammable alien grasses contribute to the spread of repeated fires, with at least 5% of landscapes in the southern Amazon maintaining an open-canopy degraded state<sup>47,48</sup>.



FIGURE 2. Solutions to avoid the Amazon tipping point include creating and maintaining Protected Areas and Indigenous Territories, as well as supporting large-scale restoration.

**5. Landscapes have lost critical connectivity.** Deforestation in the
Colombian portion of the Andes-Amazon
frontier is disrupting animal mobility<sup>49</sup>,
threatening climate-sensitive species'
survival in the coming decades, including
plant species that depend on animals for
dispersal and pollination<sup>9</sup>. Hydroelectric
dam construction along the Andes-Amazon
frontier also threatens the mobility of
migratory fish, as well as sediment and
nutrient flow, causing food insecurity
for local people and affecting floodplain
ecosystems<sup>50</sup>, for instance, by causing mass
tree mortality<sup>51</sup>.

### D. SOLUTIONS FOR MITIGATION AND ADAPTATION

Actions that strengthen forest resilience are urgently needed if we are to follow a precautionary approach, mitigate the main drivers of stress, and increase the adaptability of the forest and local societies to avoid Amazonian tipping-points.

- 1. Drastically reducing global greenhouse gas emissions is a key first step to mitigate global climate change and its impacts on Amazonian climatic conditions.
- 2. Ending large-scale deforestation, degradation, and forest fires in the Amazon is equally important to mitigate changes in Amazonian climatic conditions. This requires novel policies to address the main drivers of deforestation, degradation, and forest fires in each Amazonian country, and coordination among Amazonian countries to prevent the internationalization of illegal land markets<sup>52</sup>.

- **3. Restoring abandoned and degraded forests at large scales** is crucial to maintain Amazonian climatic conditions<sup>53</sup>. This requires facilitating passive restoration by avoiding deforestation of secondary forests, and active reforestation to promote the recovery of degraded forests by planting diverse combinations of native tree species with economic potential<sup>54</sup>.
- **4. Creating and maintaining protected areas and Indigenous territories** is an effective and low-cost action that contributes significantly to reducing deforestation and fires<sup>55-57</sup>. Constitutional demarcation and the provision of legal rights to Indigenous and local communities' lands is a key step to strengthening the resilience of both the biological and cultural assets of Amazonian ecosystems.
- 5. Investing in science, technology and innovation can strengthen Amazonian resilience. A better understanding of the complexity of the Amazon through long-term monitoring and data-enabled models will help predict how the system will respond to global changes and to synergistic effects of climatic and land-use disturbances. Ultimately, protecting the Amazon requires transdisciplinary research, produced through ethical and fair approaches, across multiple knowledge systems, and including perspectives from Indigenous and local communities<sup>58</sup>. This requires improving the scientific capacity of research institutions in the Amazon.
- 6. Strengthening the participation of civil society organizations in environmental decision making is necessary to maintain a resilient governance system. When public policies from government institutions fail, civil

society organizations can act to maintain and/ or strengthen Amazonian governance.

- 7. Developing a sustainable sociobioeconomy of healthy standing forests and flowing rivers can contribute to empower Indigenous peoples and local communities that retain the ancient ecological knowledge about Amazonian socio-biodiversity<sup>59</sup>. This requires developing supply and value chains with sustainable infrastructure logistics<sup>60</sup>, connecting remote communities and markets, as well as sustainable harvesting initiatives<sup>61</sup>.
- **8. Maintaining forest connectivity across the Andes-Amazonian frontier** is vital to ensure species' resilience; past climactic change events have demonstrated that animal mobility is key for guaranteeing access to climate refuges, with the Andes acting as the cradle of Amazonian biodiversity<sup>16</sup>.
- 9. Including the fundamental rights of the Amazon in the constitution of Amazonian countries. Countries should follow the example of Ecuador, which enshrined the rights of nature in its constitution, and Bolivia and Colombia, which have created legal and jurisprudential support for the rights of nature. Such practices can be effective legal instruments to protect landscapes, ecosystems, rivers, mountains, species, and other elements of the social-ecological system from destructive human activities, while also adopting a systemic perspective that understands all beings are interconnected.

### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

The authors are grateful to those who contributed to this policy brief. This includes the expert opinion of Claudio Almeida; peer reviewers Gilberto Fisch, Germán Poveda, Fernando Roca, Carlos Nobre, Marielos Peña-Claros, and Susan Trumbore; and public consultation participants Jhan-Carlo Espinoza (IRD-France), Jurgen Kesselmeier (Max Planck Institute for Chemistry), Encarni Montoya (Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas), and Camilo Torres (Universidade do Estado do Amazonas). We are also grateful to the SPA Technical Secretariat, particularly Isabella Leite Lucas. Copyedited by Lauren Barredo. Translated from English into Portuguese by Isabella Leite Lucas and into Spanish by Federico Ernesto Viscarra Riveros.

### REFERENCES

- 1. Science Panel for the Amazon. 2021. Executive Summary of the Amazon Assessment Report 2021. Nobre C, Encalada A, Anderson E, et al. (eds). United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network, New York, USA. 48 pages.
- 2. IPCC. 2021. Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Masson-Delmotte V, Zhai P, Pirani A, et al. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- 3. Salazar JF, Villegas JC, Rendón AM, et al. 2018. Scaling properties reveal regulation of river flows in the Amazon through a "forest reservoir". Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. 22: 1735–1748

- 4. Oliveira BFA, Bottino MJ, Nobre P and Nobre CA. 2021. Deforestation and climate change are projected to increase heat stress risk in the Brazilian Amazon. Communications Earth and Environment 2(207).
- 5. Gatti LV, Costa PM, Alencar A, et al. 2023a. Human impact on carbon emissions, losses in ecosystem services, and finance for Amazon solutions. Policy Brief. Science Panel for the Amazon.
- 6. Alexander C, Bynum N, Johnson E et al. 2011. Linking indigenous and scientific knowledge of climate change. BioScience, 61(6), 477-484.
- 7. Ford JD, King N, Galappaththi EK et al. 2020. The resilience of indigenous peoples to environmental change. One Earth, 2(6), 532-543.
- 8. Hirota M, Flores BM, Betts R et al. 2021. Chapter 24: Resilience of the Amazon Forest to Global Changes: Assessing the Risk of Tipping Points. In: Nobre C, Encalada A, Anderson E et al. (Eds). Amazon Assessment Report 2021. United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network, New York, USA.
- 9. Flores BM and Staal A. 2022. Feedback in tropical forests of the Anthropocene. Global Change Biology 28(17), 5041-5061.
- 10. Armstrong McKay DI, Staal A, Abrams JF et al. 2022. Exceeding 1.5 C global warming could trigger multiple climate tipping points. Science, 377(6611), eabn7950.
- 11. Salazar LF, Nobre CA, and Oyama MD. 2007. Climate change consequences on the biome distribution in tropical South America. Geophysical Research Letters 34(9): L09708.

- 12. Sampaio G, Nobre CA, Costa MH et al. 2007. Regional climate change over eastern Amazonia caused by pasture and soybean cropland expansion. Geophysical Research Letters 34(17): I 17709.
- 13. Nobre CA, Sampaio G, Borma LS, et al. 2016. Land-use and climate change risks in the Amazon and the need of a novel sustainable development paradigm. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 113.
- 14. Boers N, Marwan N, Barbosa HM and Kurths J. 2017. A deforestation-induced tipping point for the South American monsoon system. Scientific reports, 7(1), 41489.
- 15. Banks-Leite C, Pardini R, Tambosi LR, et al. 2014. Using ecological thresholds to evaluate the costs and benefits of set-asides in a biodiversity hotspot. Science 345(6200), 1041-1045.
- 16. Rangel TF, Edwards NR, Holden PB, et al. 2018. Modeling the ecology and evolution of biodiversity: Biogeographical cradles, museums, and graves. Science 361(6399).
- 17. Artaxo P, Almeida-Val VMF, Bilbao B, et al. 2021. Chapter 23: Impacts of deforestation and climate change on biodiversity, ecological processes, and environmental adaptation. In: Nobre C, Encalada A, Anderson E, et al. (eds). Amazon Assessment Report 2021. United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network, New York, USA.
- 18. Marengo JA, Espinoza JC, Fu R, et al. 2021. Chapter 22: Long-term variability, extremes and changes in temperature and hydro meteorology in the Amazon region. In: Nobre C, Encalada A, Anderson E, et al. (eds). Amazon Assessment Report 2021. United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network, New York, USA.

- 19. Esquivel-Muelbert A, Phillips OL, Brienen RJW, et al. 2020. Tree mode of death and mortality risk factors across Amazon forests. Nat Commun 11.
- 20. Alencar AA, Brando PM, Asner GP, and Putz FE. 2015. Landscape fragmentation, severe drought, and the new Amazon forest fire regime. Ecological Applications 25(6), 1493-1505.
- 21. Gatti LV, Basso L, Miller JB, et al. 2021. Amazonia as a carbon source linked to deforestation and climate change. Nature 595, 388-393.
- 22. Gatti LV, Cunha CL, Marani L, et al. 2023b. Increased Amazon carbon emissions mainly from decline in law enforcement. Nature 621: 318-323
- 23. Covey K, Soper F, Pangala S, et al. 2021. Carbon and Beyond: The Biogeochemistry of Climate in a Rapidly Changing Amazon. Front. For. Glob. Change 4.
- 24. Hastie A, Coronado ENH, Reyna J, et al. 2022. Risks to carbon storage from land-use change revealed by peat thickness maps of Peru. Nature Geoscience 15, 369–374.
- 25. Zemp DC, Schleussner C-F, Barbosa HMJ, et al. 2017. Self-amplified Amazon forest loss due to vegetation-atmosphere feedbacks. Nat Commun 8: 1–10.
- 26. Staal A, Tuinenburg OA, Bosmans JHC, et al. 2018. Forest-rain- fall cascades buffer against drought across the Amazon. Nat Clim Chang 8: 539–43.
- 27. Cochrane MA, Alencar A, Schulze MD, et al. 1999. Positive feed- backs in the fire dynamic of closed canopy tropical for- ests. Science 284: 1832–5.

- 28. Van-Nes EH, Staal A, Hantson S, et al. 2018. Fire forbids fifty- fifty forest. PLoS One 13: 12–7.
- 29. Willcock S, Cooper GS, Addy J, and Dearing JA. 2023. Earlier collapse of Anthropocene ecosystems driven by multiple faster and noisier drivers. Nature Sustainability.
- 30. Berenguer E, Armenteras D, Lees AC et al. 2021. Chapter 19: Drivers and Ecological Impacts of Deforestation and Forest Degradation. In: Nobre C, Encalada A, Anderson E et al. (Eds). Amazon Assessment Report 2021. United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network, New York, USA.
- 31. Bullock EL, Woodcock CE, Souza Jr. C and Olofsson P. 2020. Satellite-based estimates reveal widespread forest degradation in the Amazon. Global Change Biology 26(5), 2956-2969.
- 32. Lapola DM, Pinho P, Barlow et al. 2023. The drivers and impacts of Amazon forest degradation. Science, 379(6630), eabp8622.
- 33. Brienen RJW, Phillips OL, Feldpausch TR, et al. 2015. Long-term decline of the Amazon carbon sink. Nature 519: 344–8.
- 34. Esquivel-Muelbert A, Baker TR, Dexter KG, et al. 2019. Compositional response of Amazon forests to climate change. Glob Chang Biol 25.
- 35. Tavares JV, Oliveira RS, Mencuccini M, et al. 2023. Basin-wide variation in tree hydraulic safety margins predicts the carbon balance of Amazon forests. Nature 617, 111–117.
- 36. Ritter CD, Andretti CB and Nelson BW. 2012. Impact of past forest fires on bird populations in flooded forests of the Cuini River in the Lowland Amazon. Biotropica, 449-453.

- 37. Flores BM and Holmgren M. 2021. White-Sand Savannas Expand at the Core of the Amazon After Forest Wildfires. Ecosystems.
- 38. Lugo@Carvajal A, Holmgren M, Zuanon J and van der Sleen P. 2023. Fish on Fire: Shifts in Amazonian fish communities after floodplain forest fires.

  Journal of Applied Ecology.
- 39. Boulton CA, Lenton TM, and Boers N. 2022. Pronounced loss of Amazon rainforest resilience since the early 2000s. Nature Climate Change 12, 271-278.
- 40. Smith CC, Healey JR, Berenguer E, et al. 2021. Old-growth forest loss and secondary forest recovery across Amazonian countries. Environ. Res. Lett. 16 085009
- 41. Barlow J and Peres CA. 2008. Fire-mediated dieback and compositional cascade in an Amazonian forest. Philos Trans R Soc London B 363: 1787–94.
- 42. Jakovac CC, Peña-Claros M, Kuyper TW, and Bongers F. 2015. Loss of secondary-forest resilience by land-use intensifi- cation in the Amazon. J Ecol 103: 67–77.
- 43. Brando PM, Silvério D, Maracahipes@Santos L, et al. 2019. Prolonged tropical forest degradation due to compounding disturbances: Implications for CO2 and H2O fluxes. Global Change Biology, 25(9), 2855-2868.
- 44. Mesquita RCG, Ickes K, Ganade G, and Williamsom GB. 2001. Alternative successional pathways in the Amazon Basin. Journal of Ecology 89(4), 528-537.
- 45. Carvalho AL, Nelson BW, Bianchini MC, et al. 2013. Bamboo-Dominated Forests of the Southwest

- Amazon: Detection, Spatial Extent, Life Cycle Length and Flowering Waves. PlosOne.
- 46. Tymen B, Rejou-Mechain M, Dalling JW, et al. 2015. Evidence for arrested succession in a lianainfested Amazonian forest. Journal of Ecology 104(1), 149-159.
- 47. Veldman JW and Putz FE. 2011. Grass-dominated vegetation, not species-diverse natural savanna, replaces degraded tropical forests on the southern edge of the Amazon Ba- sin. Biol Conserv 144: 1419–29.
- 48. Silvério D V, Brando PM, Balch JK, et al. 2013. Testing the Ama- zon savannization hypothesis: fire effects on invasion of a neotropical forest by native cerrado and exotic pasture grasses. Philos Trans R Soc B Biol Sci 368: 20120427.
- 49. Murillo-Sandoval PJ, Clerici N, and Correa-Ayram C. 2022. Rapid loss in landscape connectivity after the peace agreement in the Andes-Amazon region. Global Ecology and Conservation 38, e02205.
- 50. Anderson EP, Jenkins CN, Heilpern S, et al. 2018. Fragmentation of Andes-to-Amazon connectivity by hydropower dams 4(1).
- 51. Resende AF, Piedade MTF, Feitosa YO, et al. 2020. Flood-pulse disturbances as a threat for long-living Amazonian trees. New Phytologist Foundation 277(6), 1790-1803.
- 52. Costa FA, Larrea C, Araujo R, et al. 2023. Land markets and illegalities: the deep roots of deforestation in the Amazon. Policy Brief. Science Panel for the Amazon.
- 53. Barlow J, Anderson L, Berenguer e, et al.2022. Transforming the Amazon through "Arcs of

Restoration". Policy Brief. Science Panel for the Amazon.

54. Sist P, Peña-Claros M, Ascarrunz N, et al. 2023. Forest management for timber production and forest landscape restoration in the Amazon: the way towards sustainability. Policy Brief. Science Panel for the Amazon.

55. Nepstad D, Schwartzman B, Bamberger B, et al. 2006. Inhibition of Amazon Deforestation and Fire by Parks and Indigenous Lands. Conservation Biology 20(1), 65-73.

56. Baragwanath K and Bayi E. 2020. Collective property rights reduce deforestation in the Brazilian Amazon. PNAS 117(34), 20495-20502.

57. Moutinho P, Lucas IL, Baniwa A, et al. 2022. The role of Amazonian Indigenous peoples in fighting the climate crises. Policy Brief. Science Panel for the Amazon.

58. Nóbrega RLB, Alencar PHL, Baniwa B. et al. 2023. Co-developing pathways to protect nature, land, territory, and well-being in Amazonia. Commun Earth Environ 4:364

59. Athayde S, Shepard G, Cardoso TM, et al. 2021.
Chapter 10: Critical Interconnections between
Cultural and Biological Diversity of Amazonian
Peoples and ecosystems. In: Nobre C, Encalada A,
Anderson e, et al. (eds). Amazon Assessment Report
2021. United Nations Sustainable Development
Solutions Network, New York, USA.

60. Schaeffer R, Caceres RB, Klautau A et al. 2023. A New Infrastructure for the Amazon. Policy Brief. Science Panel for the Amazon.

61. Garrett R, Ferreira J, Abramovay R, et al. 2023. Supporting socio-bioeconomies of healthy standing forests and flowing rivers in the Amazon. Policy Brief. Science Panel for the Amazon.

### **AUTHORS AFFILIATIONS**

**Bernardo Flores:** Federal University of Santa Catarina, Graduate Program in Ecology, Florianópolis, Brazil, mflores.bernardo@gmail.com

Adriane Esquivel-Muelbert: School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Birmingham, UK and Birmingham Institute of Forest Research (BIFoR), University of Birmingham, UK. a.esquivelmuelbert@bham.ac.uk

**Marco Ehrlich:** Universidad El Bosque, Av. Cra. 9 No. 131 A – 02, Bogotá, Colombia, marcoehrlich58@gmail.com

**Emilio Vilanova:** Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS). 2300 Southern Boulevard. Bronx, New York 10460.

**Raquel Sousa Chaves:** Universidade de Brasília, Department of Anthropology, Brasilia – DF, Brazil; leadership of the Tupinambá people of Tapajós

**Marina Hirota:** Federal University of Santa Catarina, Department of Physics. Florianópolis, SC, Brazil

**Michelle Kalamandeen:** School of Earth and Environment, McMaster University, 1280 Main St W, Hamilton, ON L8S 4L8, Canada

MORE INFORMATION AT theamazonwewant.org





CONTACT

#### **SPA Technical Secretariat New York**

475 Riverside Drive | Suite 530 New York NY 10115 USA +1 (212) 870-3920 | spa@unsdsn.org