

1 **Forest cover changes and public policy: A literature review for post-conflict Colombia**

2

3 **Abstract**

4 Tackling deforestation remains a significant challenge in tropical countries and even more so in those
5 affected by armed conflicts. This is partly because of the limited local understanding of the causes of
6 forest cover changes (FCC) and how these causes relate to development. In this study, we use Colombia
7 as a model to contribute to the understanding of the links between the causes of FCC in conflict-affected
8 countries and policies aimed at achieving sustainable development by targeting the agriculture, forestry
9 and other land use (AFOLU) sectors. Specifically, we reviewed studies reporting on causes of FCC from
10 1995 to 2019 to build a state-of-the-art review. We then identified relevant public policies targeting
11 AFOLU sectors and used them as a proxy for development. Finally, we discussed the links between these
12 public policies and FCC. From the reviewed literature, it is clear that research on FCC in Colombia has
13 focused on understanding the causes of forest cover losses while disregarding forest cover gains.
14 Although cattle ranching and agriculture dominate the literature as proximate causes of deforestation and
15 policy and institutional factors as underlying causes of deforestation, the relative importance of proximate
16 and underlying causes of FCC in Colombia has changed over time. The main categories of policies that
17 have been linked to FCC deal with conflict and post-conflict issues, coca eradication and, more recently,
18 the implementation of the peace agreement. Another set of policies frequently mentioned are those related
19 to productive activities. In Colombia, these policies' effects on forests will depend on how the state will
20 regulate extractive activities in a post-conflict scenario. Therefore, it is imperative to review and update
21 policies to tackle FCC, mainly deforestation, to successfully achieve sustainability targets in Colombia.
22 **Keywords:** deforestation, public policy, peacebuilding, post-conflict, drivers, Colombia.

23 **Introduction**

24

25 Despite decades of policies and economic instruments targeting the agriculture, forestry and other land
26 use (AFOLU) sector worldwide, countries have more than fallen short on meeting their international
27 environmental commitments, particularly those relating to deforestation (Harris *et al.* 2012, Zarin 2012,
28 Nepstad, Boyd, *et al.* 2013, Redford *et al.* 2013, Seymour and Harris 2019). Several nations have set
29 ambitious targets for halting deforestation under different international agreements, such as the Paris
30 Agreement (United Nations 2015) and the Aichi Targets (Convention on Biological Diversity 2011).
31 Nonetheless, tackling deforestation remains a significant challenge in tropical countries (Seymour and
32 Harris 2019) and even more so in those affected by armed conflicts. This is the case for Colombia, which

33 is emerging from a long period of violence and has seen little to no government presence in most of its
34 forested areas (Castro-Nunez 2018).

35

36 Several policy approaches have been promoted worldwide to influence the AFOLU sector (Pfaff *et al.*
37 2010). Some of these policies emerged with specific forest conservation objectives, such as those oriented
38 toward the delimitation of “natural protected areas” for forest and biodiversity conservation, while others
39 were conceived as development strategies to contribute to economic growth, such as those targeting the
40 development of the agricultural sector and expansion of the agricultural frontier. The contribution of such
41 policies to sustainable development, however, remains debatable, particularly considering that global tree
42 cover loss has nearly doubled over the past 18 years (New York Declaration on Forests 2019).

43

44 These policies on forest cover loss have fallen short of their desired outcomes because the drivers of FCC
45 are diverse, complex and often inextricable. These drivers span biophysical, socio-economic, institutional,
46 environmental and cultural factors, and they interact across local, national and international scales
47 (Lambin *et al.* 2001, Verburg *et al.* 2013). Determining the causes of FCC requires considering land-use
48 dynamics, the agents who carry out forest clearing and the underlying causes that influence land-use
49 decisions. These underlying causes might be linked to agricultural technologies, agroecological
50 conditions, market prices, weak governance, the prioritization of economic development over
51 environmental goals and the economic dependence of tropical countries on natural resources (agriculture,
52 mineral extraction and timber). In conflict-affected countries, such as Colombia, policies aimed at
53 achieving peace, along with the use of forests by armed groups in their military strategies, also influence
54 FCC (Castro-Nunez *et al.* 2016, Castro-Nunez, Mertz, and Sosa 2017, Castro-Nunez, Mertz, Buritica, *et*
55 *al.* 2017, Krause 2020).

56

57 Although conflict affects a significant number of tropical countries, globally promoted efforts to reduce
58 deforestation do not necessarily consider contextual factors related to conflict and post-conflict settings,
59 such as those relating to sustainable development and peace priorities. This is partly because such
60 contextual factors are not yet fully understood and partly because these promoted forest conservation
61 efforts were developed on the basis of global trends without consideration of specific conditions in
62 regions and countries (Blom *et al.* 2010). Understanding the local causes of deforestation, therefore, is the
63 first step toward framing realistic policies and innovative conservation solutions (Davidar *et al.* 2007).
64 Furthermore, understanding the link between (a) policies integrating sustainable development and peace
65 and (b) the causes of forest cover changes is key to the success of efforts to reduce deforestation
66 (Wehkamp *et al.* 2018).

67 An example of these globally promoted strategies is the mechanism for reducing emissions from
68 deforestation and forest degradation in the tropics, otherwise known as REDD+, which has been
69 promoted by the UNFCCC since 2007 as a viable and cost-effective solution to mitigate climate change
70 (Streck and Parker 2012). Assessments targeted deforestation related to land uses with low opportunity
71 costs, such as subsistence agriculture (McCarthy and Tacconi 2011), while disregarding how the social
72 and political contexts that prevail in fragile states would affect both viability and cost-effectiveness
73 (Unruh 2011, Karsenty and Ongolo 2012). More recently, zero-deforestation supply chain interventions
74 have taken center-stage as a promising alternative to reducing deforestation related to the production of
75 agricultural commodities (Lambin *et al.* 2018). Thus far, there has been little evidence that REDD+ has
76 globally reduced degradation of forests across the world (Duchelle *et al.* 2018, Krause 2020).
77 Furthermore, it is not yet clear how effective this approach will be in contexts where the production of
78 agricultural commodities are part of a wider peacebuilding strategy (Castro-Nunez *et al.* 2020). This
79 suggests that defining and implementing effective national policies to halt deforestation requires an
80 improved understanding of the causes of FCC and how they relate to sustainable development and peace
81 priorities, particularly in countries emerging from conflict.

82
83 Using Colombia as a case study, this research contributes to understanding the link between the causes of
84 FCC in conflict-affected countries and policies aimed at achieving sustainable development by targeting
85 the AFOLU sector. We selected Colombia for the case study because it has experienced an alarming rise
86 in deforestation rates in recent years, which recent studies have linked to sustainable development and
87 peacebuilding policies (Baptiste *et al.* 2017, Negret *et al.* 2017, Landholm *et al.* 2019), such as the 2016
88 peace treaty between the government of Colombia and the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia
89 (FARC). Most of these studies were developed with the double objective of understanding the effects of
90 the peace agreement on deforestation and informing policy formulation. These studies presented novel
91 methodological approaches that suggested both negative and positive associations between conflict
92 indicators and deforestation (Landholm *et al.* 2019, Negret *et al.* 2019). Nonetheless, they often fail to
93 discuss their results in light of findings on what drives deforestation in Colombia. Meanwhile, the
94 identification of direct and indirect drivers of FCC and understanding the complexity of their
95 interlinkages are often difficult. This article contributes to increasing the knowledge about this subject by
96 becoming the first attempt to systematically review and analyze the literature on the causes of forest cover
97 changes in Colombia. More specifically, we determined the proximate and underlying causes of forest
98 cover changes in Colombia by developing a systematic review of the scientific literature on the drivers of
99 FCC in Colombia. In the following section, we present examples of economic and policy instruments that
100 have targeted the AFOLU sector in Colombia. We present the methods for and results of our review in

101 sections 3 and 4, respectively. Lastly, we discuss a) the proximate and underlying causes of FCC in
 102 Colombia and whether there are understudied areas within the research on FCC drivers in Colombia; b)
 103 how the understanding of the causes of FCC in Colombia has changed in the literature over time; and c)
 104 how public policies aimed at achieving development priorities targeting the AFOLU sector are linked to
 105 FCC in Colombia.

106

107 **Economic and policy instruments targeting the AFOLU sector in Colombia**

108

109 The conflict between guerrilla and paramilitary groups and the government in Colombia lasted for over
 110 five decades. The armed conflict has internally displaced more than 7 million people (Negret *et al.* 2017)
 111 mostly from rural to urban regions. Illicit coca production has greatly financed the activities of these
 112 guerrilla and paramilitary groups (Álvarez 2007, Sánchez-Cuervo and Aide 2013). Guerrillas and
 113 paramilitaries carried out this illegal activity in large forested lands with weak state presence (Sánchez-
 114 Cuervo and Aide 2013). In November 2016, the Colombian government and FARC, one of the biggest
 115 and oldest guerrilla groups in Colombia, signed a peace agreement.

116 Despite decades of economic and policy instruments targeting the AFOLU sector in Colombia (see Table
 117 1), an average of 1.5 million ha was deforested between 2005 and 2015 (González *et al.* 2018).

118 While some of these policies directly target forest conservation and natural resource management, many
 119 of them mainly aim to achieve economic and rural development. Generally, policies targeting the AFOLU
 120 sector have been related to 1) conflict and post-conflict issues; 2) promotion of production activities; 3)
 121 land tenure and territorial zoning; and 4) conservation and sustainable management of forests and natural
 122 resources.

123 *Table 1. Timeline of the most representative policies targeting the AFOLU sector in Colombia. Policy categories: (1) conflict and*
 124 *post-conflict; (2) promotion of productive activities; (3) land tenure and territorial zoning; (4) conservation and sustainable*
 125 *management of forest and natural resources.*

Timeline of the most representative policies targeting the AFOLU sector in Colombia			
Date	Policy Instrument	Specific Target	Policy Category
1959	Law 2	Protective Forest Areas and General Interest Forests	3
1974	Law 2811	Protective Forest Areas and General Interest Forests	3
1974	Decree law 2811	Logging permits	4
1993	Law 99 article 111	Forest harvesting regimes	4
1994	Law 160	Land distribution mechanisms	3

1995	Decree 2164	Indigenous reserves	3
1995	Decree 1745	Lands of Afro-Colombian Communities	3
1996	Decree 1777	Campesina reserve zones	3
1996	Decree Law 1791	Decentralization of management	3
1997	Decree 900	Incentives for conservation/reforestation	4
2001	Law 685	Promotion of mining	2
2001	CONPES 3125	National forest development plan	4
1999 - 2002	//	Failed peace process	1
2003	CONPES 3218	Alternative development to eradicate illicit crops	1
2003	Decree law 812	Tax discount for reforestation	4
2004	Law 939	Production and commercialization of biofuels	2
2005	Decree 1970	Regulates the law 939 on biofuels	2
2005	Law 99 (1993) regulated by 1220	Environmental licenses	4
2007	Decree law 1151	Assigns MADS the responsibility of developing Payments for Ecosystem Services system (PES)	4
2008	CONPES 3527	National policy for competitiveness and productivity	2
2008	CONPES 3510	Promote sustainable biofuel production	2
2010	CONPES 3669	Manually eradicate illicit crops	1
2011	Law 1448	Land restitution	1
2011	Law 1454	Territorial zoning	3
2011	Law 1450 article 195	Territorial consolidation and reconstruction	1
2013	ENREDD	National REDD+ Strategy	4
2013	CONPES 3762	Projects of national and strategic interest	2
2015	CONPES 3850	Colombia in peace fund	1
2016	Vision Amazonia	Reduce deforestation and carbon emissions	4
2017	TFA Colombia	Zero deforestation value chains	4
2017	Decree 902	Comprehensive Rural Reform (Reforma Rural Integral):	1

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development Programs with Territorial Approach (PDET) • Property rights • New agricultural census and cadaster 	
2017	Decree 870	PES system	4
2018	Law 1931	Climate change management	4

126

127 Policies related to conflict and post-conflict have mostly focused on the eradication of illicit crops and the
 128 development of alternative economic activities (Departamento Nacional de Planeación 2003, 2010). They
 129 have also targeted land restitution and reparations for victims of the armed conflict. Colombia’s Victims
 130 and Land Restitution Law of 2011 was one of the first laws in South America to make reparations to
 131 victims of an ongoing conflict (Forero-Nino 2012); under this statute, the nation is striving to compensate
 132 or resettle some of the 5–6 million farmers displaced from their land during the conflict (Nepstad, Boyd,
 133 *et al.* 2013). After the peace agreement was signed, focus was directed towards implementing the
 134 Comprehensive Rural Reform and the tools to achieve this reform (e.g., PDET).

135

136 Meanwhile, policies targeting production-related activities have mostly focused on increasing the
 137 competitiveness of different sectors. The National Policy for Competitiveness and Productivity
 138 (Departamento Nacional de Planeación 2008), for instance, included an action plan for the
 139 competitiveness of the agricultural sector. This plan detailed actions to improve land use, increase the
 140 efficiency of agricultural production chains and achieve sustainability as a factor of competitiveness,
 141 among others. It also included actions for formalizing land tenure.

142

143 Policies related to land tenure and territorial zoning have included directives to transfer forest
 144 management authority to local governments or communities. For example, Decree 1791 (1996)
 145 established a forest harvesting regime and granted regional autonomous corporations the authority to
 146 manage forest resources within their jurisdictions (de la Torre *et al.* 2011). Also included in this group of
 147 policies is Law 160 (1994), which introduced a market-assisted land reform program (Grusczyński and
 148 Jaramillo 2002) and stipulated that unoccupied government lands could be granted to farmers who have
 149 no land to cultivate as long as two-thirds of the land is used for economic purposes (Article 8).

150

151 Among the policies related to conservation and sustainable management of forests and natural resources,
 152 Law 2 (1959) and Decree Law 2811 (1974) defined special management areas, such as those for the
 153 administration, management and protection of the environment and renewable natural resources. This
 154 group of policies also includes permits for the sustainable use of forest resources, such as the Forest Law

155 (1996), which defined forest-use regimes and regulates the activities of individuals and public
156 administrations with respect to the use, management, exploitation and conservation of forest resources.
157 Likewise, economic incentives have been used to increase the value of standing forests and promote
158 sustainable production alternatives, such as the creation of a PES system through Decree 1151 (2007) and
159 Decree 870 (2017a).

160
161 More recently, Colombia adopted a comprehensive set of ambitious policies and programs in order to
162 achieve its commitment of reaching zero net deforestation in the Colombian Amazon by 2020 (Mendoza
163 *et al.* 2017). These policies include the national REDD+ strategy and others oriented toward sustainable
164 land use, the expansion of protected forest areas and the development of zero-deforestation agricultural
165 supply chains. For example, *Visión Amazonía 2020* was designed as a policy instrument to carry out the
166 national REDD+ strategy through a sustainable development model. The initiative aims to reduce
167 emissions from deforestation by establishing incentives for communities and sectors to sustainably
168 manage forests and improve natural resource use. The "Governance for Conservation and Sustainability at
169 the Heart of the Colombian Amazon" program seeks to conserve and sustainably manage more than 11
170 million ha of forest by consolidating protected areas and indigenous territories in the Amazon so as to
171 restrict the expansion of the agricultural frontier (Nepstad, Irawan, *et al.* 2013). In 2017, Colombia joined
172 the Tropical Forest Alliance, a platform committed to eliminating deforestation along the supply chains of
173 several agricultural products (Tropical Forest Alliance 2020 2017). Through this initiative, public and
174 private institutions are developing sustainable value chains of cocoa, palm oil, wood, fish farming, milk
175 and meat cattle, among others (Tropical Forest Alliance 2020 2017), together with the support of the
176 national government. Policy initiatives under *Visión Amazonía 2020* also target developing zero-
177 deforestation supply chains.

178 **Methods**

179 [Systematic review](#)

180 We conducted a systematic review to identify the main causes of deforestation in Colombia as reported in
181 the literature. A quick search yield that the first article was published in 1995. Therefore, we started by
182 searching for peer-reviewed articles published from 1995 to 2019 within the Web of Science™ database
183 and narrowed the search on the basis of the title, keyword or abstract of each article. We searched using
184 the Spanish and English version of the words deforestation and/or land use change and/or landscape
185 change and/or land cover change and/or forest cover change; and illicit crops and/or cattle ranching
186 and/or biofuels and/or agriculture and/or infrastructure and/or conflict and/or illegal logging and/or

187 mining; and Colombia^{1,2}. We reviewed the titles of the resulting 185 articles to ensure that the documents
188 were related to the main topic of the search. This process yielded 168 selected articles, which we placed
189 in a preliminary database. We then reviewed the abstracts of the articles in that database to ensure they
190 included information on (1) deforestation or forest degradation caused by any activity that results in
191 changes in forest cover and/or (2) the causes of changes in forest cover. We deleted articles that did not
192 comply with the selection criteria. After this process, we had 84 documents that we put into a second
193 database. We fully reviewed the articles from the second database and collected information pertaining to
194 the causes of deforestation and associated public policies. After further analysis, we removed articles that
195 did not present the required information. We added three additional papers that the authors knew of but
196 did not show up during the systematic review³, for a total of 68 papers included for the analysis (see
197 Figure 1).

198 Data analysis

200 We conducted a quantitative analysis of the information collected through the literature review by
201 identifying first the proximate causes and then the underlying causes of changes in forest cover.

202

¹ The exact clause used in English was (1) TS=(deforest*) OR TS=(land NEAR/5 use NEAR/5 change*) OR TS=(landscape NEAR/5 change*) OR TS=(land NEAR/5 cover NEAR/5 change*) OR TS=(forest* NEAR/5 cover NEAR/5 change*) AND TS=(ill* NEAR/5 crops) OR TS=(cattle NEAR/5 ranch*) OR TS=(biofuel*) OR TS=(agricult*) OR TS=(infrastructure*) OR TS=(conflict*) OR TS=(ill* NEAR/5 log*) OR TS=(mining); (2) TS=(clause#1 AND Colombia) AND Timespan=1995-2019

² The exact clause used in Spanish was (1) TS=(deforest*) OR TS=(cambio NEAR/5 uso NEAR/5 suelo) OR TS=(cambio NEAR/5 paisaje) OR TS=(cambio NEAR/5 cobertura NEAR/5 suelo) OR TS=(cambio NEAR/5 cobertura NEAR/5 bosque) AND TS=(cultivo* NEAR/5 ilicito*) OR TS=(ganaderia) OR TS=(biocombustible*) OR TS=(agricultura) OR TS=(infraestructura) OR TS=(conflicto*) OR TS=(tala NEAR/5 ilegal) OR TS=(mineria); (2) TS=clause#1 AND Colombia) AND Timespan=1995-2019

³ While these articles met the inclusion requirements established by the researchers, they were not yielded in the WoS search possibly because at the time of the search this database did not have the rights to the articles. Due to the relevance of each article, the research team opted to include them in the analysis.

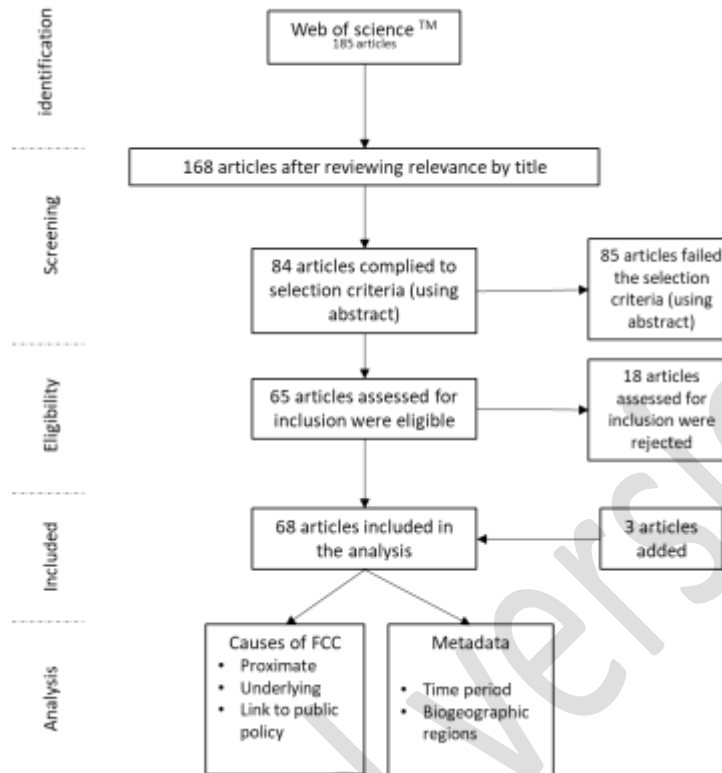


Figure 1. Methodological scheme presenting the selection process of publications for this review.

203
204

205 Coding of proximate causes

206 Geist and Lambin (2002) define proximate causes as human actions related to land use that impact the
207 forest cover directly. For the coding of proximate causes, we adapted to the local context the three
208 categories (infrastructure, agriculture and wood extraction) that Geist and Lambin (2002) propose. This
209 step generated six categories: (1) *agriculture*, which includes large- and small-scale agriculture, biofuel
210 crops (e.g., palm oil) and the agricultural frontier; (2) *livestock*, which falls under the category of
211 agriculture per Geist and Lambin (2002) but is examined separately for the Colombian context because
212 livestock occupies the majority of land suited for agriculture in the country, and cattle ranching represents
213 the second most extensive land use in terms of area after forests, according to the Unidad de Planificación
214 Rural Agropecuaria (UPRA); (3) *illicit crops*, whose cultivation we viewed separately from agriculture
215 for the history of the country's conflict and the role of this crop in financing some of the armed groups in
216 conflict; (4) *infrastructure*; (5) *wood extraction*; and (6) *fires*, which Geist and Lambin (2002) considered
217 to be among “other factors.”

218

219 Coding of underlying causes

220 Geist and Lambin (2002) define underlying causes as social processes that influence decision-making
221 related to land uses. Their impact on forest cover, hence, is indirect. For the coding of underlying causes,
222 we adapted to the local context the five categories that Geist and Lambin (2002) proposed. This resulted

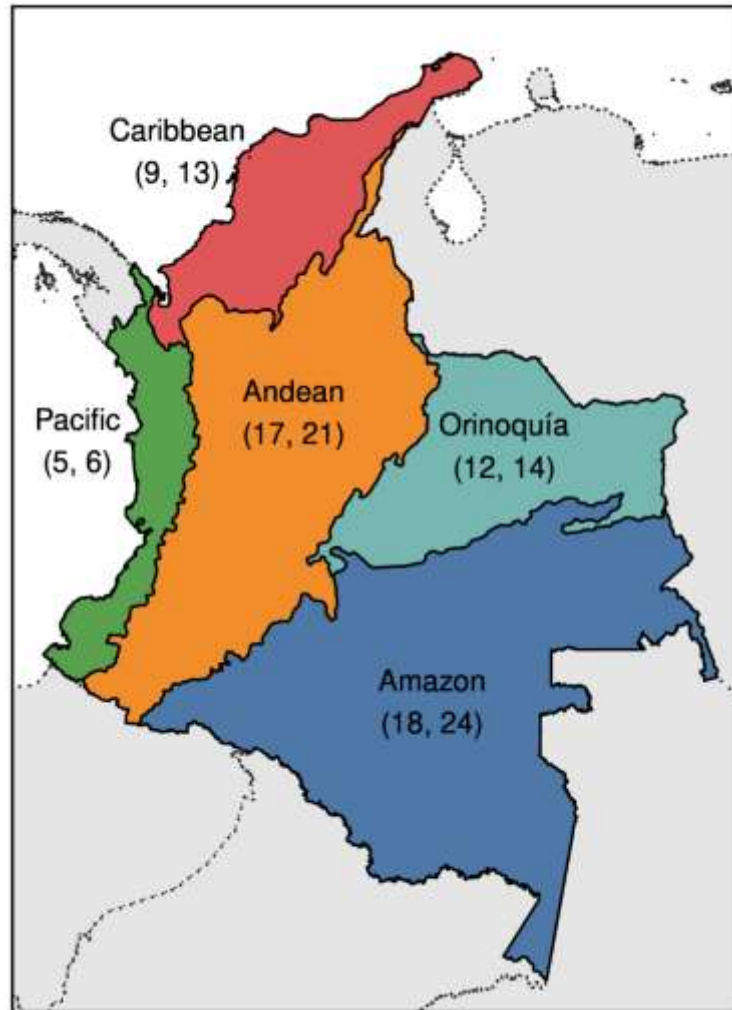
223 in the following categories: (1) *socio-economic factors*, which cover issues related to poverty and
224 communication access; (2) *demographic factors*, which principally include population growth and density
225 and also consider migration not caused by the armed conflict; (3) *conflict factors*, which span all aspects
226 related to the armed conflict in Colombia, including forced displacement; (4) *policy and institutional*
227 *factors*, which encompass policies related to Colombian drug eradication and pacification,
228 macroeconomic and development policies, and topics of land tenure and land acquisition; (5)
229 *technological factors*, which comprise issues related to agricultural practices and productivity; and (6)
230 *environmental factors*, which constitute environmental conditions, including biophysical drivers such as
231 agroclimatic conditions.

232 233 [Metadata of case studies](#)

234 In addition to the information obtained on proximate and underlying causes, we recorded the date of each
235 publication to explore research trends over time. We analyzed the collected information according to the
236 following time periods: 1995–1999; 2000–2004; 2005–2009; 2010–2014; and 2015–2019. We also
237 collected the biogeographic regions mentioned in the literature to identify possible differences between
238 the regions of Colombia. These biogeographic regions constitute the Amazon, Andean, Caribbean,
239 Orinoquia and Pacific. We also added a “national” region category to account for studies conducted and
240 reported at the national level. Furthermore, we collected information on the number of studies at the local
241 or national level (case studies) and identified whether or not the studies disclosed the size of the area
242 under FCC.

243 **Results**

244
245 The 68 articles reviewed in this study reported causes of forest cover changes (FCC) from 111 case
246 studies at national, regional and local levels. Studies carried out at the national scale account for the
247 biggest share of the case studies reviewed (30%), followed by the Amazon region (22%), the Andean
248 region (19%), the Orinoquia region (12%), the Caribbean region (12%) and 5% in the Pacific region (see
249 Figure 2). The most reported FCC was deforestation (93% of case studies). Studies to a lesser extent have
250 reported on forest regeneration (13% of case studies) and forest conservation (2% of case studies).



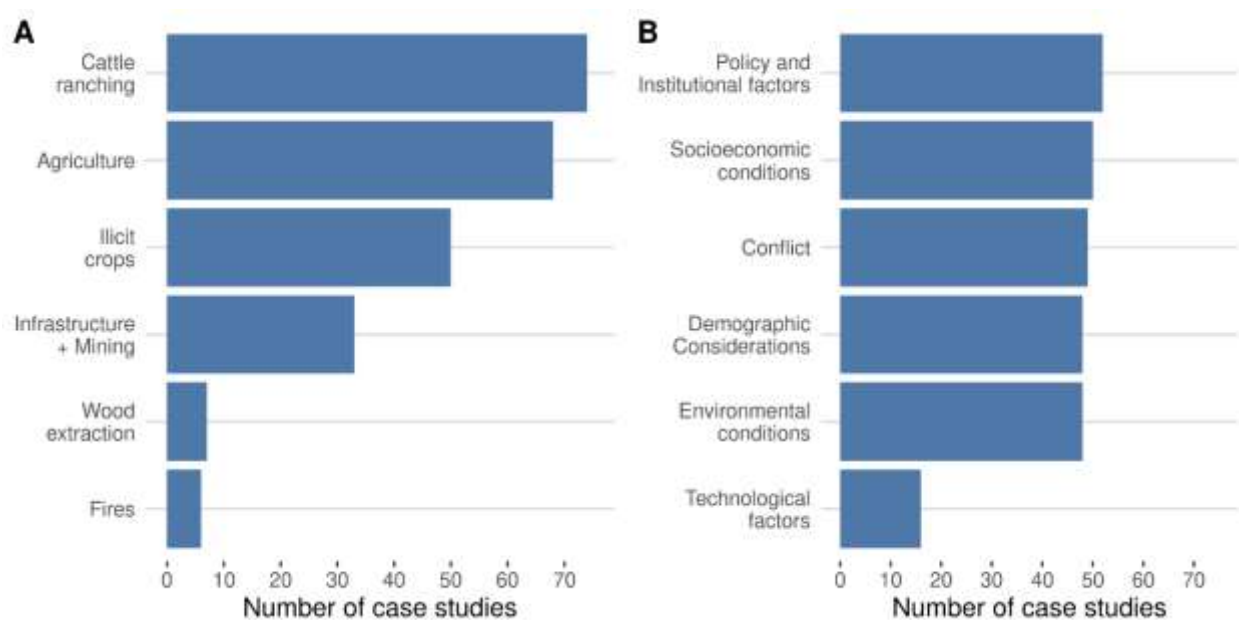
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252 *Figure 2. Map of the biogeographic regions in Colombia and the number of publications and case studies reported per region;*
 253 *national, 30 publications and 33 case studies.*

254 **Proximate causes of forest cover change in Colombia**

255 We identified in the literature six proximate causes of FCC, mainly deforestation. As figure 3A shows,
 256 the most mentioned causes were cattle ranching (31%), agriculture (29%) and illicit crops (21%),
 257 followed by infrastructure and mining (14%), wood extraction (3%) and fires (2%). As expected, forest
 258 regeneration and forest conservation were not frequently linked to any of the six proximate causes
 259 mentioned above. From the studies that mentioned agriculture as a proximate cause of deforestation, 11%

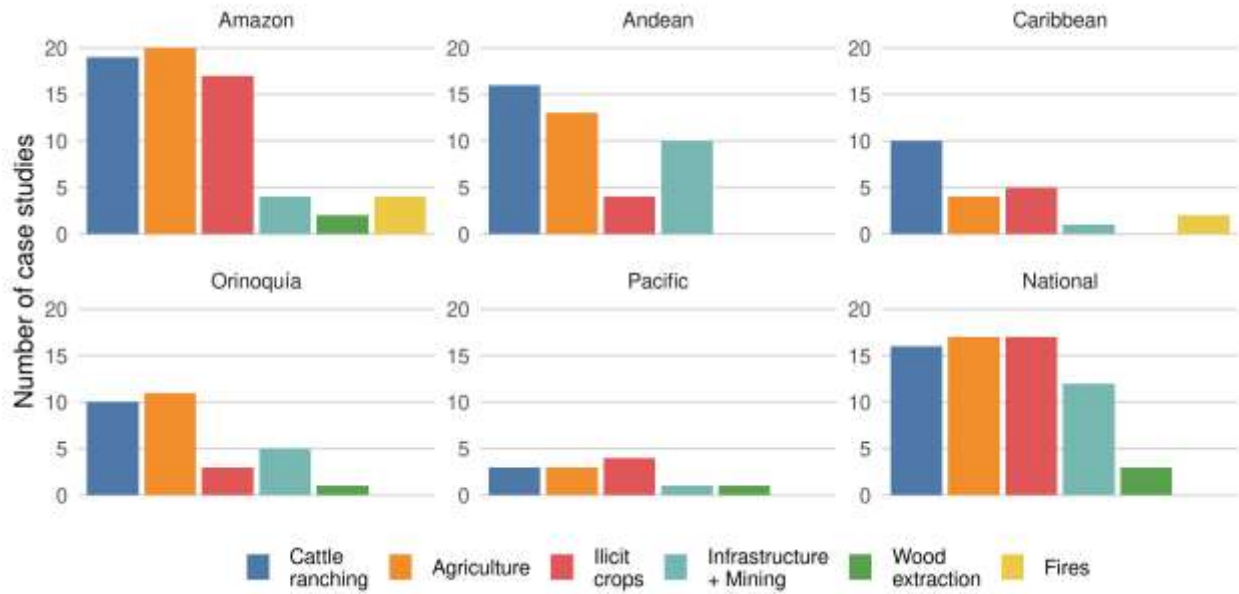
260 explicitly cited agriculture for biofuel production and 10% identified the expansion of the colonization
261 front, which was mainly in the Amazon region.



262

263 *Figure 3. A: frequency of mention of proximate causes of FCC on case studies (studies carried out at the local or national level).*
264 *Figure 3. B: frequency of mention of underlying causes of FCC on case studies (studies carried out at the local or national level).*

265 Figure 4 shows that the literature mentions cattle ranching and agriculture as the two main proximate
266 causes of FCC in the Amazon, Andean and Orinoquia regions. In the Amazon, however, illicit crops are
267 frequently mentioned as well. In the Pacific region, with the exception of fires, the proximate causes —
268 cattle ranching, agriculture, illicit crops, infrastructure and mining and wood extraction — are equally
269 mentioned. However, this region is also the least represented in the studies reviewed. Results also show
270 that illicit crops, cattle ranching and agriculture are the three proximate causes of FCC most mentioned in
271 studies carried out at the national scale.



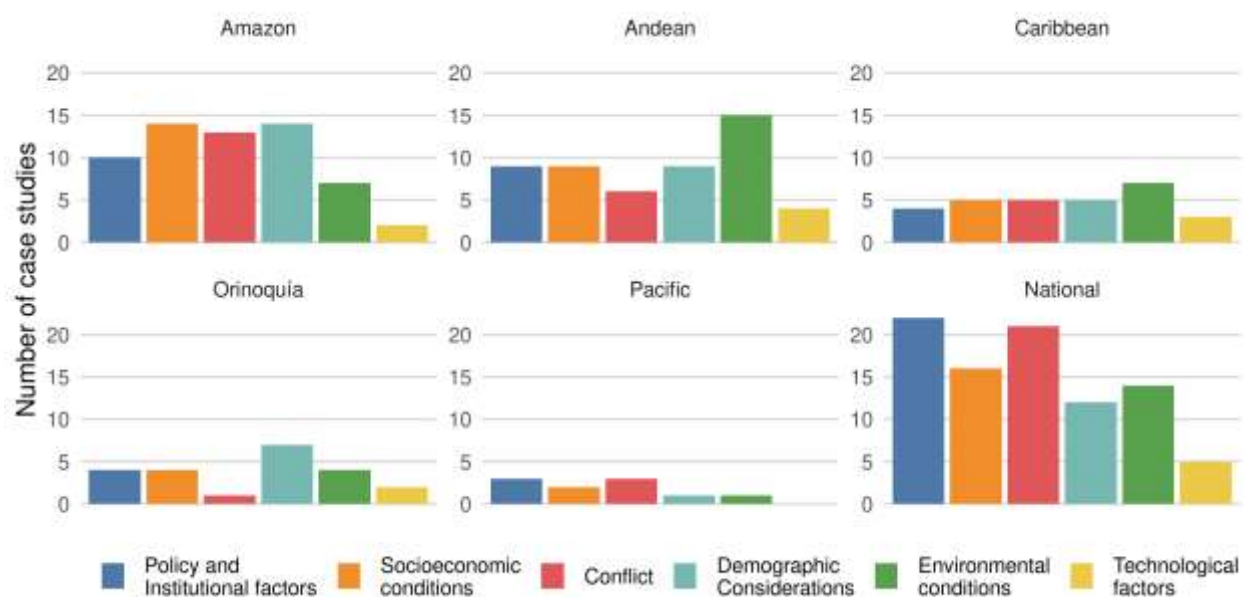
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273 *Figure 4. Main proximate causes of FCC mentioned per biogeographical regions.*

274 **Underlying causes of forest cover change in Colombia**

275 Overall, case studies equally mention all the underlying causes except technological factors (Figure 3B).
276 By only a marginal difference, policy and institutional factors were the most frequently mentioned
277 underlying cause. It is important to note that from the 52 case studies that mentioned policy and
278 institutional factors, 60% relate to land acquisition and land tenure, 46% relate to eradication and
279 pacification policies and 44% relate to macroeconomic and development policies.

280 When looking at the data at the regional level, some noticeable differences emerge. Studies on the
281 Amazon and Orinoquia regions identify demographic considerations as the main underlying cause. In the
282 Amazon, however, socio-economic conditions also appear to be an important underlying cause. Studies
283 on the Andean and Caribbean regions more commonly mention environmental factors as an underlying
284 cause. Those on the Pacific region most commonly cite conflict and policy and institutional factors as
285 underlying causes. None of the local- or national-level studies focused on this region identifies
286 technological factors as an underlying cause of FCC. Studies carried out at the national scale, meanwhile,
287 indicate policy and institutional factors and conflict as the two main underlying causes of FCC.



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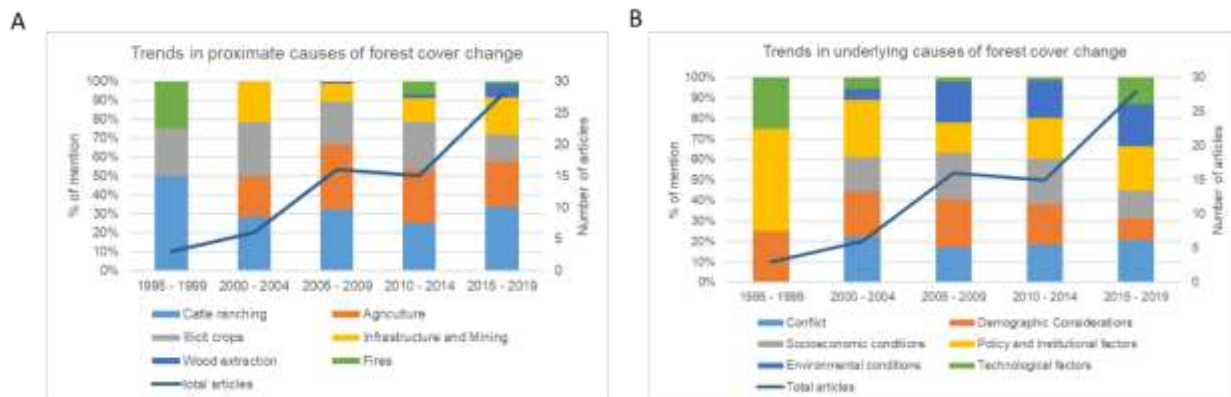
289 *Figure 5. Main underlying causes mentioned per biogeographical region.*

290

291 **FCC in Colombia over time**

292 As Figure 6A and 6B shows, over time, the number of proximate and underlying causes reported in the
293 literature has been growing in parallel with the number of articles. Nowadays, it is more common to find
294 articles that mention both types of causes and dive deeper into the understanding of FCC. The first article

295 included in the present review was published in 1995. Since then, an increasing interest in understanding
 296 the proximate and underlying causes of FCC in Colombia has been seen, with a maximum of 27 articles
 297 published in the period from 2015 to 2019.



298
 299 *Figure 6.A: trends in proximate causes of FCC across five periods.*
 300 *Figure 6.B: trends in underlying causes of FCC across five periods.*
 301

302 During the period of 1995–1999, the majority of the articles mentioned cattle ranching as the main
 303 proximate cause of forest cover change, followed by illicit crops and fires. Underlying causes such as
 304 policy and institutional factors, demographic considerations and technological factors accompanied these
 305 proximate causes. During 2000–2004, studies continued to mention cattle ranching and illicit crops as the
 306 main causes of FCC, but some (20% of articles) noted two additional proximate causes: agriculture and
 307 infrastructure. None mentioned fire as a proximate cause. Similarly, most studies during this period still
 308 mentioned policy and institutional factors as underlying causes, followed by demographic considerations
 309 and conflict. Some studies likewise mentioned socio-economic conditions, technological factors and
 310 environmental conditions as underlying factors.

311 During the period of 2005–2009, reviewed studies started to mention wood extraction and increasingly
 312 mentioned agriculture as proximate causes of deforestation. Cattle ranching and illicit crops continued to
 313 dominate as proximate causes, followed by infrastructure. The underlying causes most frequently
 314 mentioned were demographic considerations, socio-economic conditions and environmental conditions,
 315 followed by conflict and policy and institutional factors. Compared with the previous period of analysis, it
 316 seems that during 2005–2009, technological factors were less frequently mentioned.

317 Reviewed studies for the period 2010–2014 mentioned three proximate causes equally: agriculture, illicit
 318 crops and cattle ranching. Infrastructure and fires were mentioned in fewer cases, and only one article
 319 during this period mentioned wood extraction. The underlying causes seem to resemble the previous time

320 period (2005–2009), but with a small increase in the frequency of mention of policy and institutional
321 factors and a decrease in the frequency of mention of demographic considerations.

322 Finally, during the period of 2015–2019, cattle ranching was again the most frequently mentioned
323 proximate cause, followed by agriculture and infrastructure. Illicit crops were mentioned less frequently
324 than in previous periods but were still regarded as an important cause. During this period, wood extraction
325 became more frequently mentioned, and fire was mentioned only by one article. The most frequently
326 mentioned underlying causes during this time were policy and institutional factors, environmental
327 conditions and conflict. Technological factors started to be mentioned more frequently during this time
328 than in previous periods. Socio-economic and demographic considerations were less frequently
329 mentioned than in previous time periods.

330 **Discussion**

331 In the following sections, the results of the study are used to discuss the following: a) the proximate and
332 underlying causes of FCC in Colombia and the understudied areas within the research on FCC drivers in
333 Colombia; b) how the understanding of the causes of FCC in Colombia has changed in the literature over
334 time; and c) how public policies targeting the AFOLU sector are linked to FCC in Colombia.

335 a) Proximate and underlying causes of FCC

336 Results indicate that the causes of FCC in Colombia have generally been debated and have varied across
337 regions. The literature most frequently mentioned cattle ranching, agriculture and illicit crops as
338 proximate causes, and political and institutional factors, socio-economic conditions and conflict as
339 underlying causes of FCC in Colombia. According to the literature, the impacts of the proximate causes
340 of FCC vary across Colombian regions (Armenteras *et al.* 2009, Armenteras, Rodríguez, *et al.* 2013,
341 Sánchez-Cuervo and Aide 2013) according to certain factors: political, such as the presence of different
342 armed groups; institutional, such as land use categories; socio-economic, demographic and biophysical
343 (Armenteras *et al.* 2009, 2011, Sánchez-Cuervo and Aide 2013, Castro-Nunez, Mertz, and Sosa 2017).
344 The reviewed studies also frequently mentioned population increase as an underlying cause. In that
345 regard, Perz *et al.* (2005) showed a negative relationship between deforestation and migration to urban
346 areas. Based on these results, the authors argue that deforestation in Colombia has little to do with
347 population increase. This claim, however, contradicts what we found in the literature, where 44% of cases
348 mentioned the relationship between deforestation and demographic factors. A considerable number of
349 studies outside Colombia (e.g., Pfaff 1999) make the same argument as Perz *et al.* (2005). These studies
350 suggest that even if demographic factors are related to deforestation, demographic factors are not acting
351 alone in driving deforestation. This corresponds with the trends we identified: we did not find any case
352 that attributes FCC to a single proximate or underlying cause.

353

354 Views differ on how forced displacement relates to FCC in Colombia. Firstly, some authors agree that
355 forced displacement can lead to a decreased pressure on forests, therefore halting deforestation
356 (Armenteras *et al.* 2011). However, other authors agree that after the signing of the peace treaty, displaced
357 people may return to the countryside and therefore increase the pressure on forests (Sánchez-Cuervo and
358 Aide 2013, Salazar *et al.* 2018). Secondly, other authors consider that forced displacement increases
359 deforestation (Hoffmann *et al.* 2018) through two mechanisms: one, violent groups establish pastures as a
360 way to secure and accumulate land, thus displacing people (Urrego-Mesa *et al.* 2018); and two, displaced
361 people move further into the forest to continue growing illicit crops (Dávalos *et al.* 2016). Landholm *et al.*
362 (2019) argue that depending on the region of analysis, the impact of forced displacement on forest cover
363 can be positive or negative.

364 As mentioned before, various studies identified the conversion of forest areas to pastures for livestock as
365 an important proximate cause of FCC — predominately deforestation — in Colombia (Vina and Cavelier
366 1999, Etter, McAlpine, Wilson, *et al.* 2006, Etter *et al.* 2008, Dávalos *et al.* 2011, 2014). Others identified
367 agriculture as a proximate cause of current FCC (Etter *et al.* 2008, Murillo-Sandoval *et al.* 2018,
368 Quintero-Gallego *et al.* 2018). Only a few studies, though, specifically mentioned the type of crop or

369 agriculture that generates the FCC (e.g., Boron *et al.* 2016). Attention is given to palm oil plantations
370 (Romero-Ruiz *et al.* 2012, Boron *et al.* 2016, Ricaurte *et al.* 2017), especially when taking into account
371 policies that have increased the area of palm oil production, such as Law 939 of 2004 and Decree 1970 of
372 2005 (Boron *et al.* 2016). Moreover, the literature highlights the possible risk that palm oil expansion will
373 occur in areas of the colonization frontier (Castiblanco *et al.* 2013), which feature high forest cover.

374 Illicit crops were also frequently mentioned as a proximate cause of deforestation (Cavelier and Etter
375 1995, Álvarez 2002, Armenteras *et al.* 2006, Dávalos *et al.* 2011, Rincón-Ruiz *et al.* 2016, Suarez *et al.*
376 2018, Landholm *et al.* 2019). In this regard, it is important to note that the officially reported
377 deforestation rate for Colombia — more than 300,000 ha/yr between 1990–2005 and around 120,000
378 ha/yr between 2005–2015 (González *et al.* 2018) — far exceeded the area planted with coca, which was
379 approximately 169,000 ha in 2018 (UNODC and Gobierno Nacional de Colombia 2019). This would
380 suggest a low relative impact on forest loss. It is, however, estimated that the area of coca associated with
381 deforestation would be equivalent to 2.5–4 times the area planted due to food crops and airstrips used
382 during the coca production process (Cavelier and Etter 1995, Álvarez 2007). This, therefore, positions
383 illicit crops as an important proximate cause of deforestation. Although the national trend during 2001–
384 2008 demonstrated a decline in coca leaf production (Rincón-Ruiz and Kallis 2013), this decrease was
385 mainly concentrated in the Amazon and Orinoquia regions, where the planted area declined from 71,920
386 ha in 2001 to 22,270 ha in 2008. In the Pacific, Caribbean and Northern Andes, however, the area
387 increased from approximately 2,000 ha in 2001 to about 8,500 ha in 2008 (Rincón-Ruiz and Kallis 2013).
388 This trend suggests a displacement of coca leaf production from some regions of Colombia to others.
389 Some studies argue that this leakage of coca production would have been explained by forced coca
390 eradication policies (as promoted in the National Plan of Alternative Development - PLANTE). An
391 instrument of these policies is the glyphosate aerial spraying program, which has also been associated
392 with losses in forest cover. Specifically, scholars have considered this program a contributor to the
393 displacement of illicit crop production (Rincón-Ruiz and Kallis 2013).

394 There was little mention of wood extraction and mining as proximate causes of FCC in the literature, with
395 the latter even being related to low rates of deforestation (Hosonuma *et al.* 2012, Armenteras, Cabrera, *et*
396 *al.* 2013). This is not to say that the impact in environmental terms that these activities generate is
397 insignificant or that the potential for future impacts on FCC should be ignored. Rather, this could indicate
398 difficulties in monitoring activities that in some cases are being carried out informally (Hoffmann *et al.*
399 2018).

400 This review revealed that deforestation has been the main form of FCC studied in Colombia, while forest
401 regeneration has received little attention. The lack of information on this topic could indicate that

402 assessing forest regeneration in Colombia is difficult because many areas are under grassification. Known
403 as *praderización* in Spanish, grassification refers to the change of forest cover to grazing land associated
404 with cattle that is not used for productive purposes — a practice that hinders natural forest regeneration
405 (González *et al.* 2018). Some articles, however, do report about forest regeneration, mostly in the Andean
406 (Mendoza and Etter 2002, Sánchez-Cuervo *et al.* 2012) and Amazon regions (Etter, McAlpine, Pullar, *et*
407 *al.* 2006). The regeneration reported appears to be linked with rotation practices (Vina and Cavelier 1999,
408 Rodríguez *et al.* 2013). Other authors link regeneration with reforestation programs (Mendoza and Etter
409 2002) and with projects related to the protection of hydrographic basins (Sánchez-Cuervo *et al.* 2012).

410 Another understudied topic is mining. It is important to remain attentive to the potential impacts of
411 mining activities on FCC due to the increasing interest of the Colombian government in this sector: the
412 government sees this sector as an economic motor (Suarez *et al.* 2018). Regarding the biogeographic
413 regions of Colombia, the Pacific region was the least studied region in the literature on FCC. This is
414 surprising because 79% of the region is covered by forest (González *et al.* 2018). It is also important to
415 note that the mining activity in Quibdó, the biggest municipality in the Pacific region, represented 18% of
416 its GDP from 2000 to 2013 (González *et al.* 2018).

417 b) Evolution in the understanding of FCC in Colombia

418 Trends in the reporting of proximate causes of FCC in Colombia demonstrate that the topic started to
419 become more complex as the literature shifted from identifying three main proximate causes in 1995–
420 1999 to six in 2015–2019. Cattle ranching was the main cause mentioned in studies during the 1990s.
421 From 2000 onwards, studies continued to mention cattle ranching but also cited other proximate causes
422 that appeared to be as important as cattle ranching, such as agriculture as well as infrastructure and
423 mining.

424 Regarding the underlying causes, it is clear that the complexity of the topic also has been increasing over
425 time. Policy and institutional factors were the main underlying causes presented in the studies carried out
426 in 1995–1999. Although this continues to be the case in more recent studies (2015–2019), conflict,
427 environmental considerations and technological factors started gaining importance during this later time.

428 Examining the interactions between cattle ranching, illicit crops and land acquisition provides a glimpse
429 into how the understanding of FCC drivers in Colombia has evolved. Early studies reported that
430 interactions between illicit crops and cattle pastures characterized colonization in Colombia because the
431 expansion of new agricultural colonization fronts, in some cases, followed the production of illicit crops,
432 which then resulted in the establishment of large tracts of pasture for livestock (Viña *et al.* 2004, Etter *et*
433 *al.* 2005, Dávalos *et al.* 2009, Van Ausdal 2009, Chadid *et al.* 2015). These studies suggest that livestock

434 and illicit crops play differentiated roles in colonization processes, which accessibility factors would
435 determine. In this way, the changes in forest cover attributed to illicit crops are mainly related to the
436 opening of new colonization fronts, while deforestation caused by cattle pastures is related to the
437 expansion of the agricultural border and consolidation of urban areas (Chadid *et al.* 2015). Cattle ranching
438 has been historically mentioned as a major cause of FCC (Viña *et al.* 2004, Van Ausdal 2009, Chadid *et*
439 *al.* 2015). Recent literature (e.g., Castro-Nunez, Mertz, Buritica, *et al.* 2017, Gutiérrez-Sanín and Vargas
440 2017), however, indicates that cattle ranching is identified as a tool to grab land in Colombia.
441 Specifically, empirical results suggest that economic factors do not influence livestock production and
442 beef production as much as factors related to territory control, land acquisition and grabbing (Yepes 2001,
443 Dávalos *et al.* 2014, Castro-Nunez, Mertz, Buritica, *et al.* 2017)

444 Since 2017, several articles have started to explore the link between the peace agreement in Colombia and
445 its impact on FCC, mainly in terms of deforestation. A few articles have already reported an increase in
446 FCC after the signing of the peace treaty (Salazar *et al.* 2018, Armenteras *et al.* 2019). Others have
447 pointed out that new deforestation drivers could emerge if the government does not prioritize
448 conservation when implementing the peace agreement (Calle-Rendón *et al.* 2018, Hoffmann *et al.* 2018,
449 Salazar *et al.* 2018). Even though the peace negotiations included topics related to land management and
450 development (Castro-Nunez, Mertz, and Sosa 2017, Salazar *et al.* 2018), there remains a degree of
451 uncertainty over how the treaty will affect forest cover. Most of the articles, therefore, pinpoint strategies
452 to avoid environmental impacts as a collateral consequence of the peace treaty. Some of the strategies
453 mentioned include strengthening of environmental institutions (Suarez *et al.* 2018, Armenteras *et al.*
454 2019); the inclusion of local communities in defining land management and conservation programs
455 (Calle-Rendón *et al.* 2018, Hoffmann *et al.* 2018, Armenteras *et al.* 2019); the promotion of forest-
456 friendly land-use systems in the production of global commodities (Baptiste *et al.* 2017); the creation of
457 new protected areas (Calle-Rendón *et al.* 2018); and the prioritization of development strategies in
458 regions where forests are already cleared (Salazar *et al.* 2018). These strategies demonstrate the need to
459 implement sound policies that align with peacebuilding priorities and environmental factors (Castro-
460 Nunez, Mertz, and Sosa 2017).

461 Lastly, due to the scope of this review and the search engine used in our methodology, few Spanish-
462 written publications met our search criteria. Future research should attempt different approaches to
463 incorporate a systematic review of the Spanish literature as Colombia has a significant academic tradition
464 that links the formation of national parks and collective land rights to FCC.

465 c) [Links between forest cover changes and policies targeting the AFOLU sector](#)

466 The following section discusses the links between public policies and FCC to further understand why
467 some public policies in the AFOLU sector slowed deforestation rates and/or negatively impacted forests
468 during and after policy implementation.

469 [Links with policies related to conflict and post-conflict](#)

470 The literature reviewed in this study reveals that conflict and post-conflict policies are related to FCC in
471 Colombia. From these policies, those regarding illicit crops are the most frequently mentioned when
472 studying deforestation causes in Colombia, with the main focus being on policies regarding coca
473 eradication through aerial glyphosate spray.

474 Accordingly, policies related to drug eradication and pacification have influenced land-use decisions in
475 Colombia. Some examples are the increase of deforestation in the distension zone that the Colombian
476 government granted to the FARC at the end of the 1990s (Etter, McAlpine, Phinn, *et al.* 2006). Other
477 examples include PLANTE and Plan Colombia in 1999, the Forest Ranger Families program. The impact
478 of this group of policy instruments in terms of FCC, however, has not been quantified. The impacts
479 reported to date are diverse. On the one hand, some researchers argue that the eradication program has
480 caused leakage of illicit crops to areas where these crops were previously not found, which means that
481 this policy could have indirectly promoted deforestation in previously unaffected areas of the northern,
482 Caribbean and Pacific Andes (Rincón-Ruiz and Kallis 2013, Rincón-Ruiz *et al.* 2013). On the other hand,
483 it has been reported that the Forest Ranger Families program has contributed to the mitigation of climate
484 change through the conservation of forests and the increase of carbon stocks (ACCÍON SOCIAL and
485 UNODC 2010, UACT *et al.* 2012).

486 This review demonstrated that recent studies switched their focus from coca eradication to the impact of
487 the different post-conflict initiatives on FCC. Recent evidence suggests that some of the post-conflict
488 policies could have enabled the implementation of environmental and conservation projects, mainly in
489 areas where past conflict did not allow such initiatives (Castro-Nunez *et al.* 2016). However, in 2016, the
490 year the peace treaty was signed, deforestation spiked, and the annual rate of deforestation increased by
491 70%, followed by a 23% increase in 2017 (González *et al.* 2018, Krause 2020, Murillo-Sandoval *et al.*
492 2020).

493 A comprehensive rural reform comprises Point 1 of the peace agreement and is regulated through Decree
494 902 (2017b). This reform includes several programs in order to be implemented. The land restitution
495 program favors using the land according to its vocation and therefore could reduce pressure on forests (de
496 la Calle and Marquez 2016). However, Decree 902 (2017b) mentions that for land to be granted back to

497 those dispossessed, the land must be sustainably exploited; otherwise, the government can reclaim the
498 land. Yet, the term sustainable exploitation is not clearly defined, and this lack of definition could lead to
499 deforestation and conflict related to ownership of the land.

500 Another important tool from the rural reform is the PDETs. In this program, the environment is lightly
501 considered through pillar 1 (Social organization of rural property and land use). However, the
502 participatory process of the PDETs has highlighted the importance of the environment for local
503 communities. Of the participatory initiatives under this pillar, 70% are related to conservation projects,
504 restoration projects, land formalization, cadaster and indigenous reserves' constitution (Agencia de
505 Renovación del Territorio 2020). In 2019, deforestation in the 170 PDET municipalities dropped by 22%
506 compared to past years. This percentage is significant compared to the national target of reducing
507 deforestation growth by 30% by 2022 (Agencia de Renovación del Territorio 2020). However, when
508 looking at the level of implementation of Point 1 of the peace agreement, only 3% of the commitments
509 have been achieved. In comparison, more than 80% of the commitments have not been initiated or have
510 been minimally initiated (KROC 2019).

511 From this group of policies, the land restitution policy (Congreso de Colombia 2011) has been
512 overlooked, despite being one of the central points of the peace agreement and acclaimed by the United
513 Nations (Forero-Nino 2012). Another policy absent from the reviewed studies is the Colombian peace
514 fund (Departamento Nacional de Planeación 2015). The fund has a strong environmental component
515 because it promotes sustainable rural development, conservation of biodiversity and issues related to
516 climate change. There is also a need for more research on the implementation of Point 1 of the peace
517 agreement and its effects on FCC, as it can have either positive or negative impacts on forests depending
518 on its implementation and the degree of compromise from the state (Graser *et al.* 2020).

519 It is important to note that the post-conflict policies related to the AFOLU sector, and especially those to
520 conserve forests, should be carefully implemented and monitored to facilitate the assessment of the
521 impacts of these instruments on forest cover parallel to peacebuilding — while also considering that a
522 restrictive approach regarding the access and use of forests and land resources has, in some cases, created
523 conditions that prolong conflict (Brottem and Unruh 2009). Several authors suggest that even after the
524 peace agreement was signed, areas of Colombia with weak governance to implement post-conflict
525 policies will continue to deforest due to armed conflict, coca cultivation and the continued dependency on
526 an “extractivist” development model (Negret *et al.* 2019, Krause 2020, Prem *et al.* 2020)

527 [Links with policies related to the promotion of production activities](#)

528 According to our literature review, one of the productive sectors more frequently linked to deforestation is
529 agriculture, mainly for agribusiness and biofuel production. Agriculture for biofuel production requires

530 attention due to its present and potential future impacts. Boron *et al.* (2016) noted that the area for palm
531 oil cultivation has already started to expand, primarily in natural ecosystems, thanks to the different
532 advantages, such as tax exemptions, offered by certain statutes, namely Law 939 of 2004 and Decree
533 1970 of 2005.

534 According to Eufemia *et al.* (2019), it is likely that in a post-conflict era, some production activities will
535 be expanded due to new investments in areas previously affected by the conflict. Therefore, these
536 activities may negatively impact some forested areas (Robayo 2016). Hoffman *et al.* (2018) found that the
537 government is perceived as incentivizing deforestation by fueling extractive activities, mainly oil, and
538 extensive cattle ranching (Baptiste *et al.* 2017). Although mining activities did not prominently figure into
539 the articles we reviewed, activities related to energy production and mining have the potential to expand
540 deforestation in a post-conflict scenario. Thus, it is essential to quantify the impacts of these activities on
541 FCC in a post-conflict scenario. Salazar *et al.* (2018) mentioned that the economic importance of mining
542 activities in Colombia have been increasing in the last 20 years. Mining activities could increase after the
543 signing of the peace agreement due to targets aimed at boosting mining and biofuel production as a way
544 to fuel the country's economic development (Castiblanco *et al.* 2013). Therefore, the impact of mining
545 and energy production activities could increase in the coming years if the government does not take
546 precautionary measures.

547 It is still not clear how policies related to the promotion of productive activities in a post-conflict era will
548 affect forests in Colombia. In some countries, pressure placed by those previously displaced by conflict to
549 have land for productive activities exacerbates deforestation in post-conflict environments (Suarez *et al.*
550 2018). In Colombia, however, this will hinge on how the government promotes productive and extractive
551 activities (Baptiste *et al.* 2017, Salazar *et al.* 2018, Suarez *et al.* 2018).

552 [Links with policies related to land tenure and territorial zoning](#)

553 Our literature review reveals that the link between this group of policies and FCC is not frequently
554 explored. From this group, the policies more frequently mentioned are related to protected areas, such as
555 indigenous reserves, lands for Afro-Colombian communities and farmers' reserves; however, these
556 policies focus more on biodiversity conservation while the FCC issue per se tends to be excluded. Even if
557 the efficacy of protected areas and collective lands in reducing deforestation has been thoroughly
558 documented (Chhatre and Agrawal 2009, Oestreicher *et al.* 2009), the efficacy of farmers' reserves,
559 which is a mechanism designed to contribute to peacebuilding in Colombia, remains an unresolved
560 matter.

561 Despite being sporadically mentioned in the literature, several impacts on FCC by these land tenure and
562 territorial zoning policies have been identified. Some policies had negative impacts, such as the Law 160
563 (1994) that determines access to land for agricultural activities that, through its mechanism for land
564 distribution, has influenced the conversion of forests to pastures for cattle raising (Nepstad, Irawan, *et al.*
565 2013). The mechanism stipulates that landholders must demonstrate economic use of at least two-thirds of
566 their land in order to be formally recognized as owners. Other policy instruments have had positive
567 impacts on forest conservation; nevertheless, the benefits derived from these instruments could be greater
568 if there was no overlap with other land tenure instruments that organize the territory. For instance, the law
569 on forest reserves (Law 2 from 1959) established a framework under which decisions related to land-use
570 and territory occupation were to be made. It took into consideration colonization processes, socio-
571 economic dynamics and criteria for the conservation of the country's natural assets. A high demand for
572 the establishment of agricultural production systems, however, produced land-use conflicts and
573 deforestation within the forest reserves. Moreover, the demand for land to satisfy the commitments laid
574 out in the peace agreement may generate new conflicts in land-use because of the possibility to remove
575 areas suitable for agriculture from the forest reserves (as an alternative to accomplish the land restitution
576 law).

577 [Links with policies related to conservation and sustainable management of forests and natural resources](#)

578 The literature review did not yield a significant number of articles regarding conservation and sustainable
579 management (besides policies regarding protected areas mentioned in the previous subsection). This
580 could be explained by the fact that reforestation and forest regeneration are some of the topics overlooked
581 in the Colombian research related to FCC. However, several policy instruments designed to conserve
582 forests and natural resources have been implemented by the government. Although it is possible to claim
583 that deforestation in Colombia prevails despite the implementation of these instruments (Galindo *et al.*
584 2014), there is evidence of success related to reforestation and forest regeneration in specific contexts. For
585 example, some studies link the reforestation and recuperation of forest cover in the Andean region to the
586 objective of protecting hydrological basins in the area (Sánchez-Cuervo *et al.* 2012). However, socio-
587 economic, geographic and other local conditions that could have influenced the positive impact of
588 policies on forest conservation and natural resources protection have not been assessed. The suitability of
589 including these instruments as part of the national policy against deforestation has been timidly
590 considered.

591 The PES system has also gained increasing attention in the literature. In Colombia, the PES system
592 prioritizes vulnerable communities affected by conflict (Decree 870 2017); however, to avoid unintended
593 effects such as community rejection of this type of project, the community's early involvement is needed

594 (Lliso *et al.* 2020). Although some authors argue that it is an efficient tool for forest conservation (e.g.,
595 Calle 2020), there is uncertainty regarding what will happen if PES funds come to an end (Etchart *et al.*
596 2020). Therefore, attention must be drawn toward having strong financial schemes to prevent
597 deforestation after a PES project is finished (Etchart *et al.* 2020). More recently, the zero-deforestation
598 value chains (cocoa, milk, beef and palm oil) agreements fostered by the Ministry of Environment have
599 been implemented. However, they are still in the early stages, and their success will depend on the
600 commitments of private companies to reduce deforestation. Nevertheless, the number of studies related to
601 zero-deforestation value chains in Colombia is expected to rise; so far, there are three studies from this
602 review that are either related to this topic or call attention to it.

603 The methodology used for this study does have a few notable limitations. First, keywords used in the
604 search have inherent limits, and the selection of keywords was based on the best results given by the
605 search engine. Moreover, most of the work regarding FCC in Colombia has been done through large- and
606 medium-scale spatial resolution satellite imagery, which does not allow for a finer-scale analysis within
607 each of the proximate causes of FCC. We expect that the post-conflict scenario opens up the possibility to
608 carry out FCC studies in Colombia at a finer scale, which will allow researchers to further unpack the key
609 proximate causes of FCC.

610 In addition, the analysis can be strengthened by subsuming it within a broader analytical framework.
611 Despite these limitations, this paper sheds light on the proximate and underlying causes of FCC in
612 Colombia as reported in the literature and their relationships with public policy. Further research must
613 focus on understanding and analyzing the finer details within each of the categories of the causes of FCC
614 identified in this study.

615 **Conclusion**

616
617 This study has brought to light several gaps in research and has demonstrated how national AFOLU policies
618 can influence FCC in a post-conflict setting. Our review has shown that the proximate and underlying
619 causes of FCC in Colombia have changed over time, as has our understanding of them. This research has
620 revealed that rural development policies targeting conflict and post-conflict issues are linked with FCC in
621 Colombia — particularly those regarding eradication of illicit crops. Further research, however, is needed
622 given the trends and the new reality in Colombia following the signing of the peace agreement. As our
623 results show, the most frequently mentioned proximate causes of deforestation are cattle ranching and
624 agriculture, followed by illicit crops. Meanwhile, political and institutional factors, socio-economic
625 conditions and conflict are the most frequently mentioned underlying causes — yet regional differences
626 within Colombia exist. Even though cattle ranching is frequently mentioned, recent studies suggest that

627 livestock is a tool to grab land in Colombia (e.g., Castro-Nunez, Mertz, Buritica, *et al.* 2017, Gutiérrez-
628 Sanín and Vargas 2017). Although our literature review shows that extractive activities, such as mining,
629 are not frequently mentioned as causes of deforestation, it is essential to assess their impacts on FCC as this
630 sector has the potential to increase in a post-conflict scenario. Another topic in need of research is the
631 potential of farmers' reserves — a mechanism designed to contribute to peacebuilding in Colombia — to
632 reduce deforestation.

633 We expect that finer-scale analyses can be conducted in post-conflict Colombia in order to unpack the
634 different aspects of the proximate and underlying causes of FCC (e.g., agriculture).

635

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637

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