

1 Sustainability of Brazilian forest concessions

2 Plinio Sist^{1,8,✉}, Camille Piponiot^{1,8}, Milton Kanashiro², Marielos Pena-Claros³, Francis E Putz⁴, Mark
3 Schulze⁵, Adalberto Verissimo⁶, and Edson Vidal⁷

4 ¹ UR Forests and Societies, Cirad, Université de Montpellier, Montpellier, France

5 ² Embrapa Amazônia Oriental, Belém, Brazil

6 ³ Forest Ecology and Forest Management Group, Wageningen University & Research, Wageningen, The
7 Netherlands

8 ⁴ Department of Biology, University of Florida, Gainesville, United States of America

9 ⁵ Oregon State University, Blue River, United States of America

10 ⁶ Institute for People and the Environment of Amazonia, IMAZON, Belém, Brazil

11 ⁷ Department of Forest Sciences, “Luiz de Queiroz” College of Agriculture, University of São Paulo,
12 Piracicaba, Brazil

13 ⁸ Contributed equally to this work

14 ✉ Correspondence: plinio.sist@cirad.fr

16 Abstract

17 In 2006, the Brazilian Forest Service (SFB) started an ambitious program to establish forest concessions
18 so as to provide a legal framework for long-term sustainable timber production in Amazonian forests.
19 Forest concessions in the Brazilian Amazon currently cover only 1.6 million ha (Mha) but we estimate the
20 area of all potential concessions as 35 Mha. This paper assessed the conditions under which the present
21 and potential concession system can ensure an annual production of 11Mm³. yr⁻¹ to meet the estimated
22 present timber demand. For this we used the volume dynamics with differential equations model (VDDE)
23 calibrated for the Amazon Basin with a Bayesian framework with data from 3500 ha of forest plots
24 monitored for as long as 30 years after selective logging. Predictions of commercial volume recovery rates
25 vary with location.

26 We tested 27 different scenarios by using combinations of initial proportion of commercial volume,
27 logging intensity and cutting cycle length. These scenarios were then applied to the current area of
28 concessions and to the area of all potential concessions (35 Mha). Under current logging regulations and
29 the current concession area (mean logging intensity of 15-20 m³.ha⁻¹, a harvest cycle of 35 years and an

30 initial commercial timber volume proportion of 20%), timber production can be maintained only for a
31 single cutting cycle (35 years). Only the scenario with a logging intensity of $10 \text{ m}^3\text{ha}^{-1}$ every 60 years with
32 a 90% initial proportion of commercial timber species can be considered as sustainable. Under this
33 scenario, the maximum annual production with the present concession areas is $159,000 \text{ m}^3$ (157-159), or
34 less than 2% of the present annual production of 11 Mm^3 . When considering all potential concession areas
35 (35 Mha), under current rules, the total annual production is $10 \text{ Mm}^3\text{yr}^{-1}$ (2-17 $\text{Mm}^3\text{yr}^{-1}$, 95% credibility
36 interval) but is not maintained after the first logging cycle. Under the most sustainable scenario (see
37 above) and a concession area of 35 Mha, the long-term sustainable annual production of timber reaches
38 only $3.4 \text{ Mm}^3\text{yr}^{-1}$. Based on these results we argue that the concession system will not be able to supply
39 the timber demand without substantial reforms in natural forest management practices and in the wood
40 industry sector. We argue that alternative sources of timber, including plantations linked with forest
41 restoration initiatives, must be promoted.

42

43 **1 Introduction**

44 In 2006, the Brazilian Forest Service (SFB) established a very ambitious system of long-term logging
45 concessions (Brazil, 2006). The goals are to provide a legal framework for sustainable timber production
46 in Amazonian forests while reducing illegal logging. Forest concessions in the Brazilian Amazon
47 currently cover only 1.6 million ha (SFB, 2019a), but the SFB estimated that 20 Mha should be sufficient
48 to ensure the sustainable timber supply of the industry (Vidal et al. 2020). The current timber production
49 from established forest concessions is $221,000 \text{ m}^3$ per year, which is only 2% of the timber extracted from
50 the region (SFB, 2019a). Given that these concessions are to be managed with a 50 cm minimum cutting
51 diameter (with the exception of *Swietenia macrophylla*: 60 cm) and a 25-35 year cutting cycle, coupled
52 with rising demand for wood products, an assessment of the expected timber production from these
53 forests over the long-term is warranted.

54 . In the Amazon, selective logging regulations typically set harvest cycles of 20 to 35 years with a logging
55 intensity varying from 15 to 30 m^3 of harvested timber per ha. Such rules are based on an assumed post-
56 logging rate of commercial timber volume increments of about $1 \text{ m}^3.\text{ha}^{-1}.\text{year}^{-1}$ ($0.86 \text{ m}^3.\text{ha}^{-1}.\text{year}^{-1}$ in
57 the Brazilian Amazon). These rules are set to accommodate processing technologies and market demands,
58 rather than the biology and conservation of the harvested species (Sist and Ferreira, 2007). Although
59 reduced-impact logging techniques were seen as a promising way to reduce damage and increase the rate
60 of timber volume recovery (Schulze, Grogan, and Vidal 2008), most studies that assessed the long-term

61 impacts of the reported application of such techniques in the tropics - including the Amazon - show that
62 timber volume will recover at best 50% of its pre-logging value after the first cutting event, within the
63 minimum harvest cycle duration fixed by legislation (Sist and Ferreira 2007; Putz et al. 2012, Avila et al.
64 2017). A recent simulation of post-logging timber volume recovery rates in the Amazon Basin confirmed
65 these results at the regional level and showed that even with cutting cycles of 65 years and logging
66 intensities of only $20 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{ha}^{-1}$, logged forests recover only 70% of their pre-logging timber stocks
67 (Piponiot et al., 2019). Other researchers showed that current harvest regimes can only be sustained over
68 multiple cycles if high-value slow-growing hardwoods are replaced by fast-growing species with low
69 density wood of lower market value (Alder and Silva, 2000; Gardingen et al., 2006; Keller et al., 2004;
70 Phillips et al., 2004; Schulze et al., 2008; Sist and Ferreira, 2007).

71 In the Amazon, forest degradation due to illegal logging is a widespread (Brancalion et al., 2018; Finer et
72 al., 2014; Potapov et al., 2017) and, in the Brazilian Amazon, it affects larger areas than deforestation
73 (Matricardi et al., 2020). Without control of illegal logging and improved practices where logging is legal,
74 timber yields from logged forests will decline dramatically (Piponiot et al., 2019; Putz et al., 2012),
75 decreasing the likelihood of their meeting the demand for timber.

76 Although, the long term sustainability of selective logging in the region is largely questioned, the capacity
77 of logging concessions in the Brazilian Amazon to sustain timber yields during successive cycles has still
78 to be assessed. Here we use a timber recovery model (Piponiot et al., 2019) to estimate the timber volumes
79 that could be produced by all the logging concessions in the Brazilian Amazon with different cutting cycle
80 lengths, logging intensities, and lengths of the list of commercial species. Our assessment and analyses
81 aim to assess the conditions needed to sustain timber yields during successive harvest cycles. It is beyond
82 the scope of this paper to evaluate the socio-economic sustainability of the tested timber yield scenarios,
83 nor do we address the impacts of climate change.

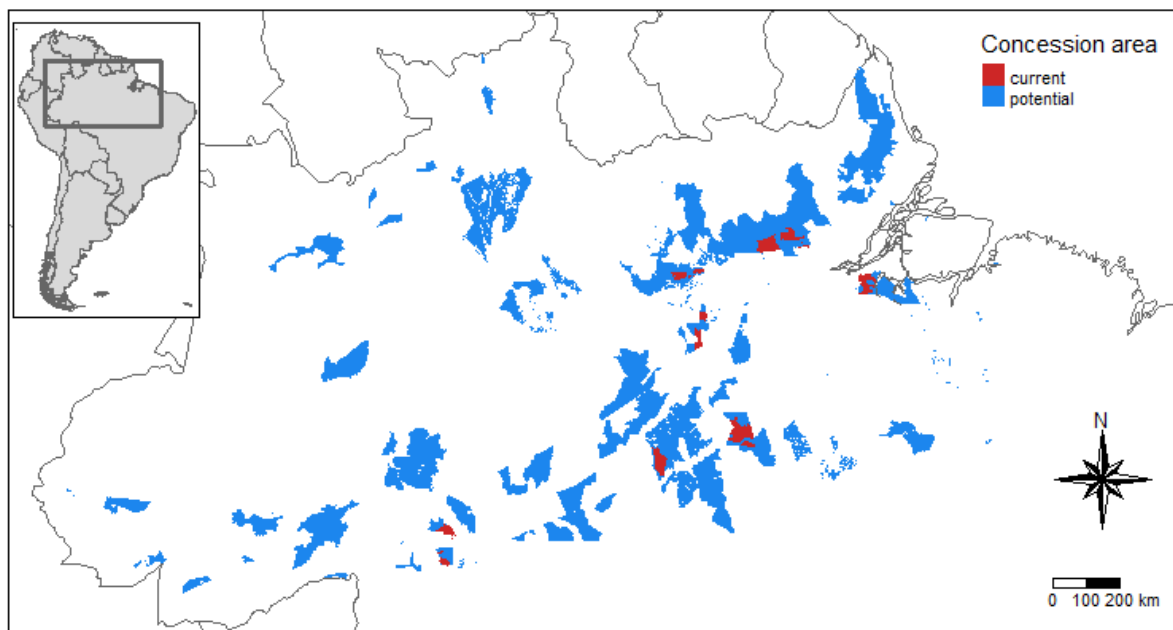
84 In this paper, we assess whether the annual timber yields from current and potential concession areas will
85 be adequate to match the estimated present timber production of $11 \text{ Mm}^3 \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$ (SFB, 2019a; Vidal et al.,
86 2020).

87 **2 Methods**

88 *2.1 Study areas - Brazilian concessions*

89 Our study focuses on forest concessions in the Brazilian Amazon (Figure 1). These concessions are
90 located in public forests and currently cover 1.6 Mha, of which 1.05 Mha are managed by the SFB, and

91 0.6 Mha are managed by state-level agencies (SFB, 2019a). We defined the area of all potential
92 concessions as the area of all public forests that are (i) in the Brazilian Amazon biome, (ii) designated for
93 sustainable use, and (iii) not in community forests - although community forest management is legal and
94 currently covers around 260,000 ha (Miranda 2020), indigenous territories, or military areas [(as defined
95 in SFB (2019a), p. 112; Figure1]. Based on this definition, the potential concession area in the Brazilian
96 Amazon covers an estimated 35 Mha.



97
98 *Figure 1: Forest concessions in the Brazilian Amazon. Current federal concessions are in red; potential concessions*
99 *(public forests designated for sustainable use) are in blue [retrieved from Brazilian Forest Service and IDEFLOR*
100 *websites (IDEFLOR-BIO, 2021; SFB, 2020, 2019b)].*

101 2.2 The VDDE model

102 In this study we used the volume dynamics with differential equations model (VDDE ; Pioniot et al.,
103 2018). The VDDE model calculates the volume of all live trees ≥ 50 cm diameter at breast height (DBH),
104 the standard minimum cutting size in the Brazilian Amazon. The portion of this volume composed of
105 commercial species is referred to as the commercial volume.

106 In the VDDE model, total volume dynamics are the result of two ecosystem processes: volume gains due
 107 to tree growth and volume losses due to tree mortality. Both processes are expressed as a function of a
 108 hidden variable, forest maturity τ , which increases progressively over time in the absence of disturbance.

109 Annual volume growth $g(\tau)$ and mortality $m(\tau)$ are modelled as follows:

$$110 \quad \forall \tau > 0, \begin{cases} g(\tau) = \alpha_G(1 - e^{-\beta_G \cdot \tau}) - \theta \cdot vol(\tau) \\ m(\tau) = \alpha_M(1 - e^{-\beta_M \cdot \tau}) \end{cases}$$

111 where τ is the forest maturity; α_G is the asymptotic gross volume productivity; α_M is the asymptotic
 112 volume mortality; β_G and β_M are the rates at which the asymptotic gross volume productivity and
 113 asymptotic volume mortality are respectively reached; θ is the relative maintenance cost; $vol(\tau)$ is the
 114 total volume at maturity τ .

115 The total volume $vol(\tau)$ can be calculated from the equations of annual volume growth and mortality (see
 116 Piponiot et al., 2018) as:

$$117 \quad vol(\tau) = \frac{\alpha_G}{\theta} \left(1 - \frac{\theta \cdot e^{-\beta_G \cdot \tau} - \beta_G \cdot e^{-\theta \cdot \tau}}{\theta - \beta_G} \right) - \frac{\alpha_M}{\theta} \left(1 - \frac{\theta \cdot e^{-\beta_M \cdot \tau} - \beta_M \cdot e^{-\theta \cdot \tau}}{\theta - \beta_M} \right)$$

118 The total volume increases with the forest maturity, and tends towards the asymptotic volume $vmax =$
 119 $\frac{\alpha_G - \alpha_M}{\theta}$, for high values of maturity of the forest. When a disturbance occurs, whether natural (e.g., a large
 120 windthrow) or anthropogenic (e.g., logging), it abruptly reduces the maturity of the forest, and thus its
 121 total volume.

122 The model was calibrated for the Amazon Basin with a Bayesian framework with data from 3500 ha of an
 123 extensive network of plots scattered throughout the Amazon Basin, among which 845 ha are from 15 sites
 124 monitored for as long as 30 years after selective logging (Piponiot et al., 2019; Sist et al., 2015). Most of
 125 these plots were reportedly logged with some form of reduced-impact logging techniques (skid trail
 126 planning, directional felling, vine cutting, etc. ; Sist et al., 2015, Piponiot et al. 2019), similar to what is
 127 strongly recommended and generally done in Brazilian logging concessions (SFB 2019a). These data
 128 allow predictions of commercial volume recovery rates to vary with location. Amazon-scale predictions of
 129 asymptotic gross volume productivity and asymptotic volume are based on results from the FORMIND
 130 simulator (Rödig et al., 2017); predictions of pre-logging forest maturity are based on aggregated data
 131 from the Rainfor network (Johnson et al., 2016). Other model parameters (β_G , β_M , and θ) were assumed to
 132 be constant across the Amazon. Data and detailed methodology for the Amazon-wide model calibration
 133 are provided in Piponiot et al. (2019).

134 Only a portion of all trees over 50 cm DBH are of commercial value. In this study, the pre-logging
135 proportion of commercial volume was set for each simulation (see “Simulations”). Because logging
136 targets commercial species, the proportion of commercial volume decreases after logging, and increases
137 between logging events through recruitment of < 50 cm DBH trees, as described in Pioniot et al. (2018).

138 Around 20-50% of large trees in Amazonian natural forests have hollows or other defects that make them
139 unsuitable for timber harvesting (Valle et al., 2006). Following Pioniot et al. (2019), we multiplied all
140 timber volumes in our simulations by a factor $(1 - P_{def})$, with P_{def} the proportion of defective volume
141 modelled as:

$$142 \quad P_{def} \sim \text{Beta}(6,14)$$

143 where $\text{Beta}(6,14)$ is the beta distribution of shape parameters $\alpha = 6$ and $\beta = 14$.

144 2.3 Testing Scenarios

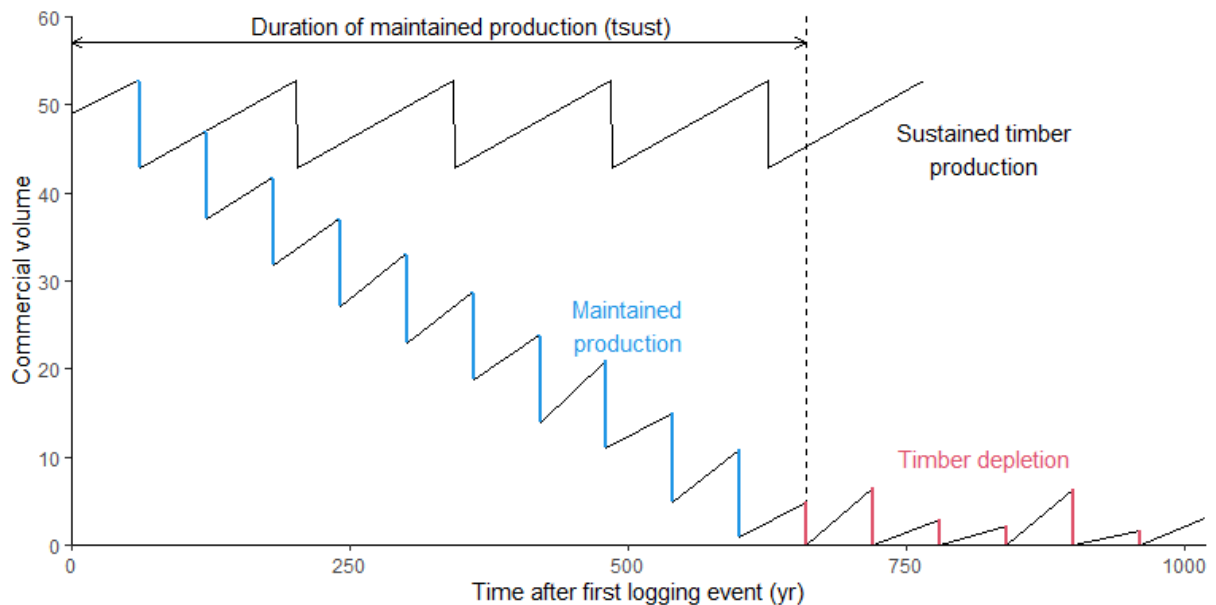
145 Modalities of selective logging can vary substantially according to the number of timber species
146 considered as commercial, logging intensity and cutting cycle duration. To account for these possible
147 variations, we tested 27 different scenarios by using combinations of the following inputs: (i) initial
148 proportion of commercial volume: 20% (highly selective), 50% (intermediate) or 90% (non-selective); (ii)
149 logging intensity: 10 m³ ha⁻¹ (low), 20 m³ha⁻¹ (intermediate) or 30 m³ha⁻¹ (high); (iii) cutting cycle length:
150 20 years (short), 35 years (intermediate) or 60 years (long). The remaining VDDE model parameters (as
151 defined in “Modelling Framework”) are defined spatially at a resolution of 1°.

152 Each logging cycle includes the harvest itself as a function of logging intensity and forest characteristics
153 (i.e. the spatially explicit VDDE parameters, defined in " Modelling framework") and the post-logging
154 volume recovery phase, which varies with logging cycle length and forest characteristics. Logging lowers
155 both the total volume and the proportion of commercial volume, but both then increase during the
156 recovery phase, although the proportion of commercial volume takes longer to recover because it relies
157 solely on the recruitment of trees < 50 cm DBH (Pioniot et al., 2018). These two steps are sequentially
158 repeated to simulate 1000 years of logging.

159 Uncertainties are propagated throughout the model by drawing all parameter values from their calibrated
160 distribution (from Pioniot et al., 2019), and simulating logging cycles with these parameter values. This
161 process is repeated 100 times and summary statistics (medians and 95% credibility intervals) are
162 calculated at each time step.

163 The results are then multiplied by the area of current or potential concessions (see “Study areas”) in each
 164 1° pixel, and by a factor $\pi = 58\%$. This factor π , which was calibrated with data from logging
 165 concessions in French Guiana, reflects the ratio between logged areas and the initially allocated areas,
 166 mostly because of slope restrictions and riparian reserves, but also heavy forest degradation by illegal
 167 logging and other disturbances (Piponiot et al., 2019; Verissimo et al., 2006).

168 For each scenario we determined the duration of maintained timber production, i.e. the time before timber
 169 stocks become insufficient to maintain a constant timber production, as illustrated in Figure 2. This
 170 maintained production is different from sustained timber production which theoretically shows a constant
 171 timber yield and stock over time (Figure 2).



172
 173 *Figure 2: Illustration of the duration of maintained and sustained timber production. The x-axis represents years*
 174 *after the first selective harvest, and the y-axis represents commercial volumes as simulated by the model with a*
 175 *logging intensity of $10\text{ m}^3\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ and a logging cycle of 60 years and 50% of commercial species. At each harvest,*
 176 *commercial volumes decrease (blue segments). If logging cycles are not long enough to allow recovery, the*
 177 *commercial volume decreases until it is not sufficient to maintain a constant production ($10, 20$ or $30\text{ m}^3\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$, red*
 178 *segments). The time taken to reach this limit is the duration of the maintained production. In the sustained timber*
 179 *production scenario, with a longer harvest cycle, both timber yield and stocks remain constant.*

180 3 Results

181 None of the scenarios with an initial commercial volume proportion of 20% are sustainable after the first
 182 logging cycle (Figure 3; Table 1). The present logging practices in the Brazilian Amazon usually

183 correspond to a proportion of commercial species around 20%, a mean logging intensity of 15-20 m³.ha⁻¹
184 and a harvest cycle of 35 years. Under such rules, timber yields are maintained only for a single cutting
185 cycle (35 years, grey line in Table 1). Scenarios with higher proportions of commercial timber show
186 longer durations of maintained production: 70 yr (35 - 140) and 175 yr (35 - 350) when the proportion of
187 commercial species is respectively 50% and 90%.

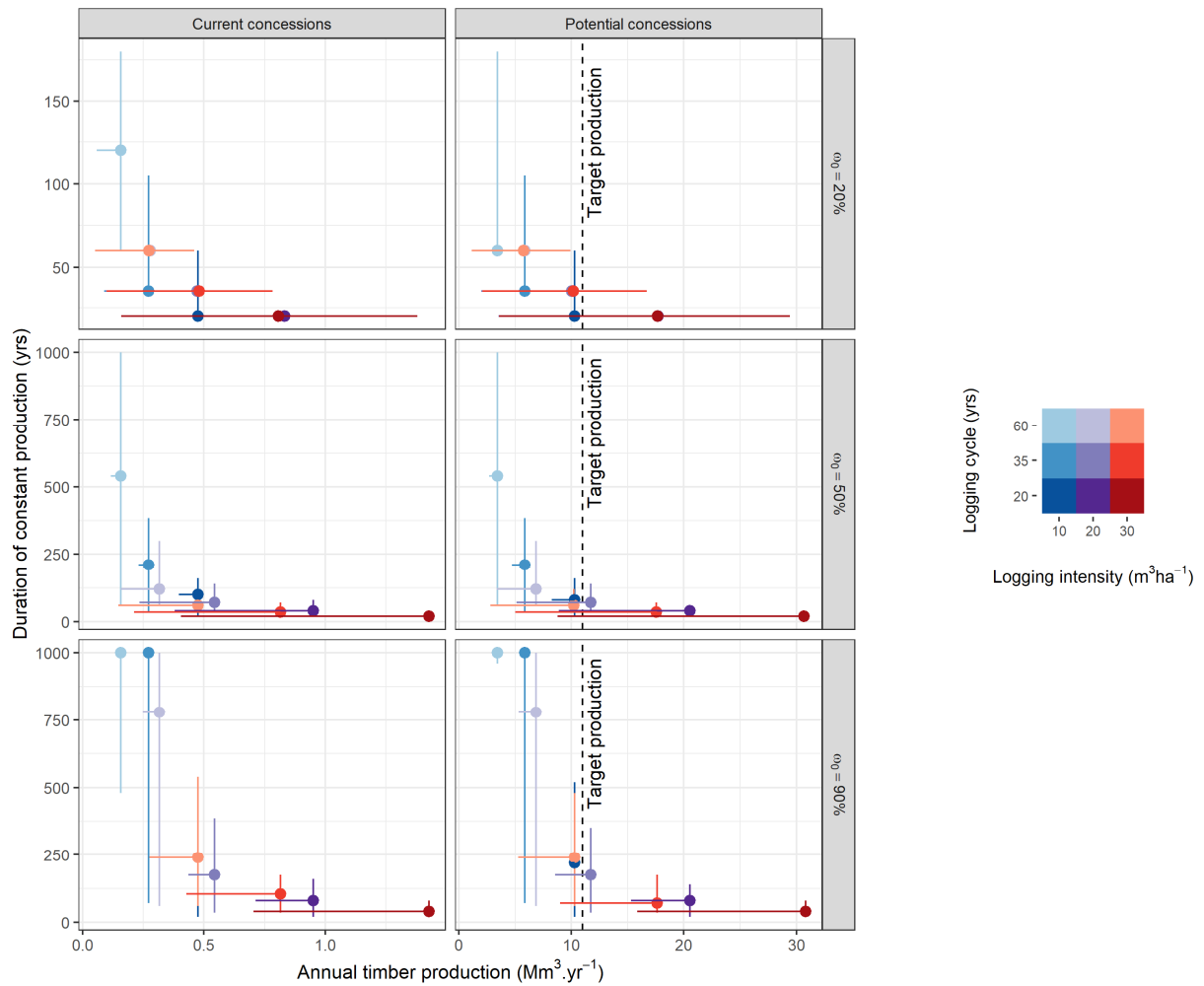
188 Only 4 out of all 27 scenarios (bold rows in Table 1) have median durations of maintained production over
189 500 years, and only one is close to a sustained timber production *sensu stricto* (10 m³.ha⁻¹ every 60 years
190 with a 90% initial proportion of commercial timber species, Figure 4). Three of these scenarios have an
191 initial proportion of commercial volume of 90%, and three correspond to low intensity logging (10 m³.ha⁻¹
192 ¹) with a cutting cycle of 60 years (Table 1).

193 Current timber harvested from the Brazilian Amazon is estimated at 11 Mm³ per year (SFB, 2019a; Vidal
194 et al., 2020) and can be therefore considered as a production target to satisfy the present market demand.
195 Current concessions cannot come close to satisfying this target for even one cycle under any scenario
196 (Figure 3). The maximum annual production from the current concession areas is 1.43 Mm³.yr⁻¹, which
197 can only be reached under the most intensive scenarios: 30 m³.ha⁻¹ of timber extracted every 20 years,
198 with an initial proportion of commercial timber ≥ 50% (Figure 3). Under such conditions, the maximum
199 duration of maintained production is 40 yr (20 - 80) (Figure 3). Under the present harvesting practices of
200 20 m³.ha⁻¹ every 35 years with only 20% of the volume of trees ≥ 50 cm DBH of commercial species, the
201 annual production from the first harvest is only 473,000 m³ and that yield will not be maintained after the
202 first cutting cycle (35 years). Finally under the most sustainable scenario (10 m³.ha⁻¹, 60 years and 90% of
203 commercial species, Table 1 bold characters and grey shadow, and Figure 4), the maximum annual harvest
204 with the present concession areas is 160,000 m³ which is very much less than the present annual harvest
205 of 11 Mm³.

206 When considering all potential concession areas (35 Mha), the annual production of 11 Mm³.yr⁻¹ could be
207 maintained, at best, for 175 yr (35-350) if 90% of the initial volume is commercial, logging intensity is 20
208 m³.ha⁻¹ and cutting cycles are 35 years (Figure 3; Table 1). The two others scenarios that yield close to 11
209 Mm³ during the first 250 years (Figure 3) use logging intensities of 10 and 30 m³.ha⁻¹ and logging cycles
210 of 20 and 60 years, respectively. Under current rules (20 m³.ha⁻¹ every 35 years and 20% proportion of
211 commercial timber), the total annual production is 10 Mm³.yr⁻¹ but is not maintained after the first
212 logging cycle (Figure 3). Under the most sustainable scenario (10 m³.ha⁻¹, 60 years and 90% of commercial
213 species, Table 1 and Figure 4) and a concession area of 35 Mha, the annual production of timber would
214 reach only 3.4 Mm³ (Figure 3).

215 Table 1: Sustainability of all 27 scenarios, characterized by the duration of constant timber production (yrs, last 2
 216 columns). The first 3 columns correspond to the input variables: the proportion of commercial volume (%); logging
 217 intensity ($m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$); harvest cycle length (yr). The last column is the duration of maintained timber production in
 218 potential concession areas, as the median value of all iterations, followed by the 95% credibility interval (between
 219 parentheses). Grey shadowed line: current logging practices, bold characters maintained timber production ≥ 500
 220 years, Grey shadowed line with bold characters: the longest sustained timber production ≥ 1000 years with the
 221 lowest timber stock reduction over time (see also figure 4, blue line).

Commercial volume	Logging intensity	Logging cycle	Duration of maintained production
20%	10 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	20 yr (20 - 60)
		35 yr	35 yr (35 - 105)
		60 yr	60 yr (60 - 180)
	20 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	20 yr (20 - 20)
		35 yr	35 yr (35 - 35)
		60 yr	60 yr (60 - 60)
	30 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	20 yr (20 - 20)
		35 yr	35 yr (35 - 35)
		60 yr	60 yr (60 - 60)
50%	10 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	80 yr (20 - 160)
		35 yr	210 yr (35 - 385)
		60 yr	540 yr (60 - >1000)
	20 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	40 yr (20 - 60)
		35 yr	70 yr (35 - 140)
		60 yr	120 yr (60 - 300)
	30 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	20 yr (20 - 40)
		35 yr	35 yr (35 - 70)
		60 yr	60 yr (60 - 120)
90%	10 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	220 yr (20 - 520)
		35 yr	>1000 yr (70 - >1000)
		60 yr	>1000 yr (960 - >1000)
	20 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	80 yr (20 - 140)
		35 yr	175 yr (35 - 350)
		60 yr	780 yr (60 - >1000)
	30 $m^3 \cdot ha^{-1}$	20 yr	40 yr (20 - 80)
		35 yr	70 yr (35 - 175)
		60 yr	240 yr (60 - 480)

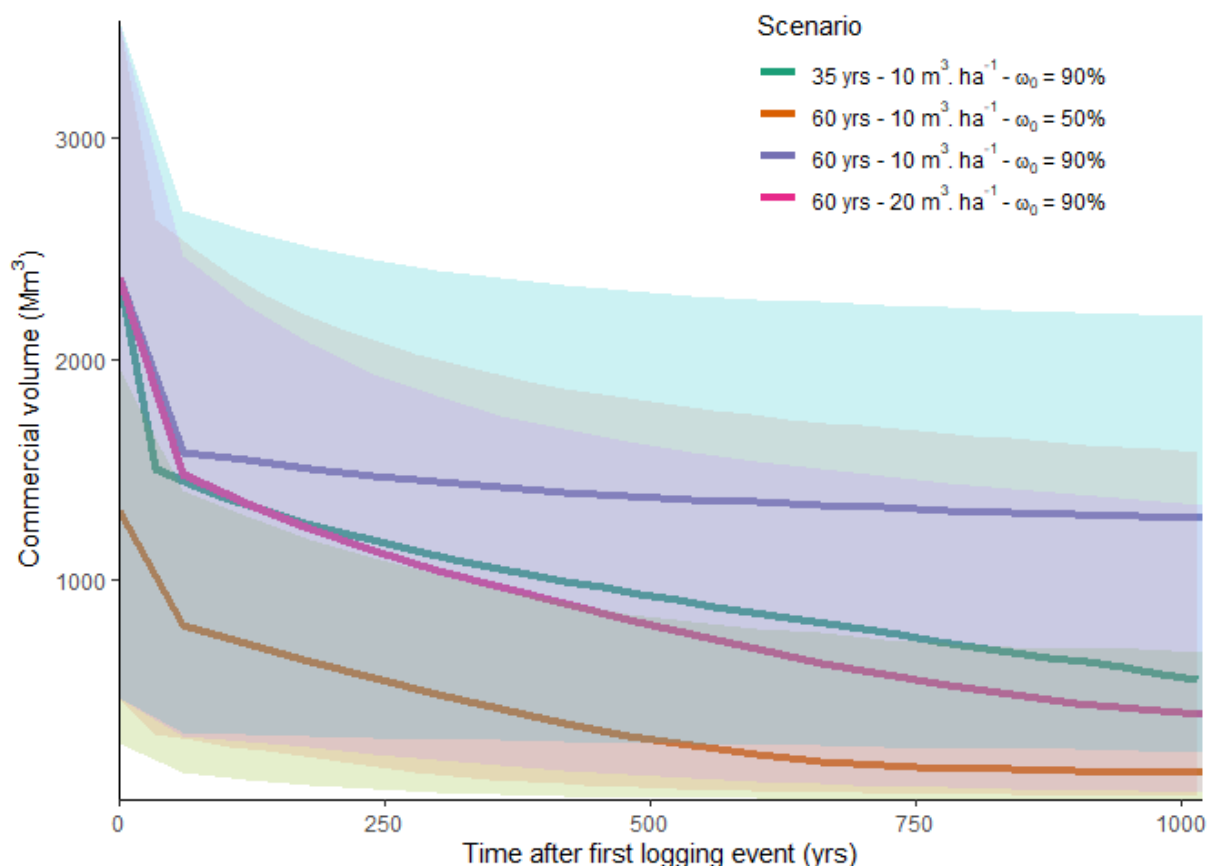


222

223 *Figure 3: Tradeoffs between timber production and sustainability. The x-axis is the annual timber production under*
 224 *each scenario, and in all areas considered in the scenario (left panels: current concessions; right panels: potential*
 225 *concessions). The y-axis is the duration of maintained production in each scenario, in years. The points are the*
 226 *median values over all simulations for each scenario; the vertical and horizontal error bars are the 95% credibility*
 227 *intervals. Colors represent logging rules (3 logging intensities \times 3 logging cycle lengths) and the 3 values of initial*
 228 *proportion of commercial volume (ω_0) are represented by different panels, in increasing order from top to bottom.*
 229 *The target production of timber is $11 \text{ Mm}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$, which corresponds to the current timber production in Brazilian*
 230 *Amazonian forests. Only a few scenarios in the right panels (all potential concessions) are above this target, and all*
 231 *have a median duration of constant production < 500 years.*

232

233



234
 235 *Figure 4: Commercial volume stocks in all potential concession areas for the 4 scenarios with a duration of*
 236 *maintained production >500 years. The x-axis is the time after the first logging event (in years); the y-axis is the*
 237 *total commercial volume stocks in all potential concession areas, in Mm³. The colors represent the 4 scenarios, with*
 238 *the thick lines corresponding to the median and the shaded areas to the 95% credibility interval over all iterations.*
 239 *The scenario extracting 10 m³ha⁻¹ every 60 years with a proportion of commercial timber of 90 % (top blue line) is*
 240 *the most sustainable, with a median duration > 1000 years and an almost constant commercial timber stock.*

241 **4 Discussion**

242 The VDDE model is well suited to study timber recovery in forest concessions throughout the Brazilian
 243 Amazon. It is important to note that we have not included in our scenarios the potential effects of climate
 244 change-related disturbances such as fires and droughts, despite the likelihood of their future increase in the
 245 region (Davidson et al., 2012). The model also ignores the possible losses of forest concession areas due
 246 to deforestation. Our results are therefore likely to be relatively optimistic, and correspond to the potential
 247 productivity of wood under the most favorable conditions.

248 The modeling scenarios relied only on unassisted natural regeneration and were focused on stocks and
249 potential harvest volumes of commercial tree species as a group rather than on sustained production at the
250 species level. Issues such as potential regeneration failure and loss of genetic diversity must be considered
251 if attempting to manage for sustained production from particular commercial tree species, and the uniform
252 harvest rules assessed here are not expected to affect all commercial species equally (Sebenn et al. 2008,
253 Vinson et al. 2015). The scenarios considered also do not consider the potential benefits of the application
254 of silvicultural treatments (e.g., liana cutting) to increase growth and yield.

255 According to the results of our simulations, several challenges need to be addressed to maintain timber
256 yields from concessions in the Brazilian Amazon. The first is to lengthen minimum harvest cycles and
257 reduce maximum logging intensities so as to at least fit the most sustainable scenario of $10 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{ha}^{-1}$ of
258 timber harvested every 60 years with a 90% proportion of commercial species. Under such a scenario, the
259 annual production with 35Mha of concession is only 3.4 Mm^3 , far below the targeted 11 Mm^3 . Our
260 simulations also suggest that the production of 11 Mm^3 can be sustained for at best 170 years with a 90%
261 proportion of commercial species, which is far higher than the 20% currently observed.

262 Changing the harvest rules (intensity and duration of harvest cycles) decrease the annual timber production
263 for the same area. Increasing the area of concessions must be therefore a priority if concessions are to
264 meet the timber demand from the Amazon. Establishment of new forest concessions in the Brazilian
265 Amazon has been slow; 15 years after creation of the Brazilian Forest Service, active concessions cover
266 only 1.6 M ha of the target area of 20Mha. It is beyond the scope of this paper to analyze the reasons for
267 this slow rate of granting forest concessions in Brazil. However, according to Vidal et al. 2020, there is a
268 lack of interest among timber companies to apply for concessions due at least in part to low stumpage
269 prices, while local communities question the presence of concessions and potential impacts on traditional
270 indigenous community rights and livelihoods. Moreover, nowadays, the main factor limiting the
271 expansion of forest concessions in Amazonia is illegal logging, which represented 44% of all timber
272 production between 2015 and 2016 in Parà State (Vidal et al. 2020). Legally harvested timber, which
273 requires substantial long-term investments in machinery, human resources and infrastructure among
274 others, competes poorly with illegal logging, which drives market prices down because of low-cost
275 production linked to the absence of high investments. According to Brazilian foresters, the main actions
276 to promote forest concessions in the Amazon are the following: (i) identify ways to value and differentiate
277 the concessionaire from traditional timber companies that operate on private properties (ii) streamline or
278 reduce bureaucratic requirements (e.g. the environmental licensing process, which is currently under the
279 responsibility of multiple environmental agencies); (iii) improve relationships with local communities; (iv)
280 improve transparency and stakeholder communication; (v) promote research on the social, economic, and

281 biological impacts of concessions; (vi) identify ways to strengthen and promote community-based forest
282 management; and (vii) support capacity-building initiatives for forest management.

283 One possible way to increase legal timber production would be to promote community forest management
284 in conservation units. In 2010, protected areas in the Brazilian amazon covered 44% of the total area of
285 the region or around 220 Mha (Verissimo et al. 2011). Among these, conservation units that allow forest
286 management for timber production cover about 55 million hectares. In these units, community forest
287 management has enormous potential to contribute significantly to timber production in the region.
288 Estimates suggest that if half of this area were under sustainable forest-management regimes, 5.6 Mm³ of
289 timber could be annually harvested (in Vidal et al. 2020). Community forest management could take
290 different forms, from comprehensive management by the communities themselves to partnerships
291 between communities and logging companies (Cruz et al. 2011).

292 The last, and probably the most important biophysical challenge for sustaining timber yields from
293 Amazonian forests is to increase the list of commercial species so that at least 50% of the volume from
294 trees ≥ 50 cm DBH in each harvest cycle would have commercial value. Piponi et al. (2019) showed
295 that by considering all species that have been registered as commercial at least once, 80-95% of the
296 volume trees ≥ 50 cm DBH could have commercial value (Brazil, 1973). This result is encouraging, but it
297 could mean that in the list of commercial species, some may have less favorable mechanical properties
298 and lower market prices than species harvested in the first logging cycle. The harvesting and valuation of
299 these new species must involve drastic changes in the entire wood supply chain. One of the first barriers is
300 at the sawmill level: processing a large variety of species with different mechanical properties poses
301 technical challenges for sawmills (Vidal et al. 2020). In addition, only about 40% of the volume entering
302 sawmills is processed into lumber, and most of the remaining material is burned or left unused (De Lima
303 et al., 2020; Pereira et al., 2010). Improving the efficiency and diversification of sawmills could therefore
304 help to improve the productivity and therefore to increase the sawn-wood production (Vidal et al. 2020).
305 The absence of public policy supporting the import of modern equipment and inadequate support for the
306 industrial sector (sawmills, furniture manufacturing, etc.) is an important obstacle to develop a modern
307 wood industry sector in the Brazilian Amazon. To achieve this goal and make the country a major
308 producer of finished wood products instead of a supplier of raw materials for other countries, it will be
309 critical for all the actors interested in development of this sector (e.g., research institutions, banks and
310 other lenders) to act in an organized manner. Changing consumer habits is also a powerful lever to
311 increase the commercial value of some lesser-known wood species, and has been the goal of advertising
312 campaigns by environmental NGOs (FSC, 2016). Consumers unwillingness to pay high prices for lesser-
313 known wood species combined with unfair competition from illegal logging continue to threaten the

314 financial profitability of improved tropical forest management. The economic and ecological sustainability
315 of logging are therefore linked to forest law enforcement and the fight against illegal logging.

316 Among the impediments to timber volume recovery after selective logging is that most of the higher
317 valued timber species in the Amazon region are relatively slow growing and suffer from competition from
318 others trees and lianas (reviewed by Finegan 2015). For this reason, sustaining timber yields generally
319 requires both extending the time between harvests and applying silvicultural treatments such as the
320 liberation of future crop trees (FCTs) from competition (Wadsworth and Zweede 2006; Mills et al., 2019;
321 Roopsind et al., 2018). For example, in both moist tropical and dry forests of Bolivia such treatments
322 doubled FCT growth rates (Dauber et al. 2005; Peña-Claros et al. 2008, Villegas et al. 2008). Although
323 demonstrated to be effective, silvicultural treatments prescribed to increase stocking and growth of
324 commercial timber species are seldom applied in the field. Cost concerns about applying treatments that
325 only pay dividends after decades are exacerbated by uncertainties about continued access to the managed
326 forests such as non-renewal of logging permits, invasions, and social conflicts. Regarding silvicultural
327 intensification, it would help to know more about the disaggregated costs and various benefits of these
328 treatments for more forests (e.g., Ruslandi et al. 2017). Moreover, our understanding of the long-term
329 benefits of such treatments are still very site specific. Further research on the long term benefits of
330 silvicultural treatment at regional and global scales contribute to the promotion of such practices with
331 specific recommendations.

332 Our simulations suggest that, under present regulations, the production of timber from forest concessions
333 in the Brazilian Amazon can be sustained for only one harvest cycle. Additional sources of timber should
334 be sought from plantations of exotic or native species, enriched secondary or degraded forests, and silvo-
335 pastoral and other agroforestry systems that could be part of the forest restoration programs under the
336 Bonn Challenge Initiative (Lamb et al. 2017; Ngo Bieng 2021). Tree plantations in Brazil are concentrated
337 in the South (SFB, 2019) and cover 9.8 Mha of which 75% is *Eucalyptus* (SFB 2019). In the Brazilian
338 Amazon, plantations cover around 940,000 ha which 83% is *Eucalyptus* (SFB 2019). In contrast,
339 plantations of species other than *Eucalyptus* and *Pinus* only cover around 160,000 ha representing 17% of
340 the total plantation area in the Brazilian Amazon (SFB 2019). These numbers show that in the Brazilian
341 Amazon, plantations of timber native species in the Amazon are still very poorly developed and could be
342 promoted in landscape restoration programs. The rising interest in tropical forest restoration, crystallized
343 by the Bonn Challenge in 2011, enhance opportunities to contribute to this forest transition encouraging
344 restoration of economically viable timber plantations in deforested areas in the Amazon Basin while
345 promoting the sustainable management, the conservation and natural regeneration of remaining natural
346 forests. Yields from these forest restoration programs could decrease pressure on natural production

347 forests – allowing larger areas to be set aside for conservation, and allowing lower-intensity management
348 of production areas. Unfortunately, in the past, industrial plantation, including those for saw timber and
349 veneer, were generally installed after clearance of natural forests (Malkamaki et al. 2018). For this reason
350 it is crucial that timber plantation schemes be carried out in the context of landscape restoration programs.
351 The promotion and development of a diversified approach to timber production in which natural forest and
352 plantation management are complementary, would yield a diversity of assets (carbon, biodiversity,
353 cultural, timber) and promote specific markets and uses of timber from natural forests with possibly higher
354 prices than timber from plantations. This new market for timbers extracted from natural forests with
355 higher prices should take into account the specific wood properties of old natural timber, the costs of
356 sustainable forest management practices and the environmental services provided by well managed natural
357 forests. However, in practice, logged-over forests in the region still cover several hundred millions
358 hectares that are accessible and still provide a cheap source of timber. Specific markets for timbers
359 extracted from managed natural forests cannot be possibly promoted or developed while illegal logging
360 and deforestation remain the main sources of timber. Strong public involvement in fighting both
361 deforestation and forest degradation by illegal logging are urgently needed to promote diversified tropical
362 silviculture and sustainable natural forest management in the Amazon. Finally, restoration initiatives could
363 be a way to promote such new scheme of tropical forest management and silviculture in the Brazilian
364 amazon.

365

366 **Highlights**

- 367 • Under current logging practices in the Brazilian Amazon ($20 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$, 35 year harvest cycles, and
368 20% of commercial timber in the stand) timber production can be maintained for only one harvest
369 cycle
- 370 • The most sustainable logging regime involves extraction of $10 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ at 60 year intervals with
371 90% of the standing timber volume commercial
- 372 • With the current harvesting practices and concession area in the Brazilian Amazon, the annual
373 timber yield from the first harvest is only $473,000 \text{ m}^3$
- 374 • The area of all potential concessions defined as the area of all public forests that are (i) in the
375 Brazilian Amazon biome, (ii) designated for sustainable use, and (iii) not in community forests -
376 covers an estimated 35 Mha.

- 377 • Under the most sustainable scenario (10 m³.ha⁻¹, 60 years and 90% of commercial species) and a
378 concession area of 35 Mha, the annual production of timber would reach only 3.4 Mm³ and will
379 not be able to ensure the present production of 11Mm³ on a long-term basis
- 380 • Silvicultural treatments to increase natural forest yields are needed in addition to sourcing timber
381 from areas undergoing restoration

382 **Acknowledgements**

383 This study was supported by Cirad, the Forest Tree and Agroforestry CGIAR program in the framework
384 of the TmFO network (www.tmfo.org). Edson Vidal thanks the National Council for Scientific and
385 Technological Development (CNPq) for a productivity grant (309319/2018-8).

386 **References**

- 387 Alder, D., Silva, J., 2000. An empirical cohort model for management of *Terra Firme* forests in the
388 Brazilian Amazon. *Forest. Ecol.Manage.* 130, 141–157.
- 389 Avila, A., Schwartz, G., Ruschel, A.R., Carmo Lopes, J., Silva, J.N.M., Pereira de Carvalho, J.O.,
390 Dormann, C.F., Mazzei, L., Hofmann Mota Soares, M., Bausch, J. 2017. Recruitment, growth and
391 recovery of commercial tree species over 30 years following logging and thinning in a tropical rain forest
392 *Forest. Ecol.Manage.* 385: 225–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2016.11.039>.
- 393 Brancalion, P.H.S., Almeida, D.R.A. de, Vidal, E., Molin, P.G., Sontag, V.E., Souza, S.E.X.F., Schulze,
394 M.D., 2018. Fake legal logging in the Brazilian Amazon. *Science Advances* 4, eaat1192.
395 <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aat1192>
- 396 Brazil, 2006. Lei n 11.284/2006. Dispõe sobre a lei gestão de florestas públicas para a produção
397 sustentável; institui, na estrutura do Ministério do Meio Ambiente, o Serviço Florestal Brasileiro - SFB;
398 cria o Fundo Nacional de Desenvolvimento Florestal - FNDF; e dá.
- 399 Brazil, 1973. Projeto RadamBrasil. Levantamento de Recursos Naturais., in: Ministério Das Minas E
400 Energia. Departamento Nacional de Produção Mineral, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.
- 401 Hildemberg Cruz, H., Sablayrolles, P., Kanashiro, M., Amaral, M., Sist, P. 2011. Relação Empresa-
402 Comunidade no contexto do manejo florestal comunitario e familiar: uma contribuição do projeto Floresta
403 em Pé. Superintendência do Ibama no Pará, ISBN 978-85-7300-360-4, 320 pages.

404 Dauber, E., Fredericksen, T.S., Peña-Claros, M. 2005. Sustainability of timber harvesting in Bolivian
405 tropical forests. *Forest. Ecol.Manage.*, 214: 284-304. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2005.04.019>

406 Davidson, E.a., Araújo, A.C. de, Artaxo, P., Balch, J.K., Brown, I.F., C. Bustamante, M.M., Coe, M.T.,
407 DeFries, R.S., Keller, M., Longo, M., Munger, J.W., Schroeder, W., Soares-Filho, B.S., Souza, C.M.,
408 Wofsy, S.C., 2012. The Amazon Basin in transition. *Nature* 481, 321–328.
409 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10717>

410 De Lima, R.B., Ferreira, R.L.C., Da Silva, J.A.A., Guedes, M.C., Da Silva, D.A.S., Oliveira, C.P.D.,
411 Rabelo, F.G., Silva, L.F.D.C., 2020. Effect of species and log diameter on the volumetric yield of lumber
412 in northern Brazilian Amazonia: preliminary results. *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 39, 283–299.
413 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10549811.2019.1636661>

414 Finegan, B. 2015. A 21st Century new point on natural tropical forest silviculture. In *Tropical Forestry*
415 *Handbook*, Pancel, L. and Köhl, M. (Eds.), Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, DOI 10.1007/978-3-642-
416 41554-8_121-1

417 Finer, M., Jenkins, C.N., Sky, M.A.B., Pine, J., 2014. Logging concessionseEnable illegal logging crisis in
418 the Peruvian Amazon. *Scientific reports* 4, 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep04719>

419 FSC, 2016. Lesser Known Timber Species.

420 Gardingen, P.R. van, Valle, D., Thompson, I., 2006. Evaluation of yield regulation options for primary
421 forest in Tapajos National Forest, Brazil. *Forest. Ecol.Manage.* 231, 184–195.
422 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2006.05.047>

423 IDEFLOR-BIO, 2021. Contratos de Concessão Florestal.

424 Johnson, M. O., Galbraith, D., Gloor, M., De Deurwaerder, H., Guimberteau, M., Rammig, A., Thonicke,
425 K., Verbeeck, H., von Randow, C., Monteagudo, A., Phillips, O. L., Brien, R. J. W., Feldpausch, T. R.,
426 Lopez Gonzalez, G., Fauset, S., Quesada, C. A., Christoffersen, B., Ciais, P., Sampaio, G., ... Baker, T. R.
427 (2016). Variation in stem mortality rates determines patterns of above-ground biomass in Amazonian
428 forests: implications for dynamic global vegetation models. *Global Change Biology*, 22(12), 3996–4013.
429 <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13315>

430 Keller, M., Palace, M., Asner, G.P., Pereira, R., Silva, J.N.M., 2004. Coarse woody debris in undisturbed
431 and logged forests in the eastern Brazilian Amazon. *Global Change Biology* 10, 784–795.
432 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1529-8817.2003.00770.x>

433 Arttu Malkamäki, A., D'Amato, D., Hogarth, N., J., Markku Kanninen, M., Pirard, R., Toppinen, A., Zhou,
434 W. 2018. A systematic review of the socio-economic impacts of large-scale tree plantations, worldwide.
435 *Global Environmental Change* 53 (2018) 90–103, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2018.09.001>

436 Matricardi, E.A.T., Skole, D.L., Costa, O.B., Pedlowski, M.A., Samek, J.H., Miguel, E.P., 2020. Long-
437 term forest degradation surpasses deforestation in the Brazilian Amazon. *Science* 369, 1378–1382.
438 <https://doi.org/10.1126/SCIENCE.ABB3021>

439 Mills, D.J., Bohlman, S.A., Putz, F.E., Andreu, M.G., 2019. Liberation of future crop trees from lianas in
440 Belize: Completeness, costs, and timber-yield benefits. *Forest. Ecol. Manage.* 439, 97–104.
441 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2019.02.023>

442 Ngo Bieng M A, Souza Oliveira, M., Roda, J-M., Boissière, M., Hérault, B., Guizol, P., Villalobos, R.,
443 Sist, P. 2021. Relevance of secondary tropical forest for landscape restoration. *Forest Ecology and*
444 *Management*, 493, 119265, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2021.119265>.

445 Pereira, D., Santos, D., Vedovedo, M., Guimarães, J., Veríssimo, A., 2010. *Fatos florestais da Amazônia*
446 2010.

447 Phillips, P.D., Azevedo, C.P. de, Degen, B., Thompson, I.S., Silva, J.N.M., Gardingen, P.R. van, 2004. An
448 individual-based spatially explicit simulation model for strategic forest management planning in the
449 eastern Amazon. *Ecological Modelling* 173, 335–354. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2003.09.023>

450 Piponiot, C., Derroire, G., Descroix, L., Mazzei, L., Rutishauser, E., Sist, P., Hérault, B., 2018. Assessing
451 timber volume recovery after disturbance in tropical forests – A new modelling framework. *Ecological*
452 *Modelling* 384, 353–369. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2018.05.023>

453 Piponiot, C., Rödig, E., Putz, F.E., Rutishauser, E., Sist, P., Ascarrunz, N., Blanc, L., Derroire, G.,
454 Descroix, L., Guedes, M.C., Coronado, E.H., Huth, A., Kanashiro, M., Licona, J.C., Mazzei, L.,
455 D'Oliveira, M.V.N., Peña-Claros, M., Rodney, K., Shenkin, A., Souza, C.R. de, Vidal, E., West, T.A.P.,
456 Wortel, V., Hérault, B., 2019. Can timber provision from Amazonian production forests be sustainable?
457 *Environmental Research Letters* 14, 064014. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ab195e>

458 Potapov, P., Hansen, M.C., Laestadius, L., Turubanova, S., Yaroshenko, A., Thies, C., Smith, W.,
459 Zhuravleva, I., Komarova, A., Minnemeyer, S., Esipova, E., 2017. The last frontiers of wilderness:
460 Tracking loss of intact forest landscapes from 2000 to 2013. *Science Advances* 3, e1600821.
461 <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.1600821>

462 Putz, F.E., Sist, P., Fredericksen, T., Dykstra, D., 2008. Reduced-impact logging: Challenges and
463 opportunities. *Forest. Ecol. Manage.* 256, 1427–1433. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2008.03.036>

464 Putz, F.E., Zuidema, P., Synnott, T., Peña-Claros, M., Pinard, M.a., Sheil, D., Vanclay, J.K., Sist, P.,
465 Gourlet-Fleury, S., Griscom, B., Palmer, J., Zagt, R., 2012. Sustaining conservation values in selectively
466 logged tropical forests: the attained and the attainable. *Conservation Letters* 5, 296–303.
467 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1755-263X.2012.00242.x>

468 Rödig, E., Cuntz, M., Heinke, J., Rammig, A., & Huth, A. (2017). Spatial heterogeneity of biomass and
469 forest structure of the Amazon rain forest: Linking remote sensing, forest modelling and field inventory.
470 *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 26(11), 1292–1302. <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12639>

471 Roopsind, A., Caughlin, T.T., Hout, P. van der, Arets, E., Putz, F.E., 2018. Trade-offs between carbon
472 stocks and timber recovery in tropical forests are mediated by logging intensity. *Global Change Biology*
473 2862–2874. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14155>

474 Ruslandi, Romero, C., Putz, F.E. 2017. Financial viability and carbon payment potential of large scale
475 silviculture intensification in logged dipterocarp forest in Indonesia. *Forest Policy and Economics* 85: 95-
476 102. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forpol.2017.09.005>

477 Schulze, M., Grogan, J., Vidal, E., 2008. O manejo florestal como estratégia de conservação e
478 desenvolvimento socioeconômico na Amazônia: quanto separa os sistemas de exploração madeireira
479 atuais do conceito de manejo florestal sustentável?, in: *O Manejo Da Paisagem E a Paisagem Do Manejo*.
480 pp. 161–213.

481 Sebbenn, A.M., Degen B., Azevedo, V.C.R., Silva, M.B., Lacerda, A.E.B., Ciampi, A.Y.,
482 Kanashiro, M., Carneiro, F., Thompson, I., Loveless, M.D. 2008. Modelling the long-term
483 impacts of selective logging on genetic diversity and demographic structure of four tropical tree
484 species in the Amazon forest, *Forest. Ecol.Manage.*, 254, 335–349.
485 [doi:10.1016/j.foreco.2007.08.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2007.08.009)

486 SFB, 2020. Documentos - Concessões florestais. <https://www.florestal.gov.br/>

487 SFB, 2019a. Brazilian Forests at a glance: 2019. Serviço Florestal Brasileiro.

488 SFB, 2019b. Cadastro Nacional de Florestas Públicas - Atualização 2019.

489 Sist, P., Ferreira, F.N., 2007. Sustainability of reduced-impact logging in the Eastern Amazon. *Forest.*
490 *Ecol.Manage.* 243, 199–209. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2007.02.014>

491 Sist, P., Rutishauser, E., Peña-Claros, M., Shenkin, A., Hérault, B., Blanc, L., Baraloto, C., Baya, F.,
492 Benedet, F., Silva, K.E. da, Descroix, L., Ferreira, J.N., Gourlet-Fleury, S., Guedes, M.C., Bin Harun, I.,
493 Jalonen, R., Kanashiro, M., Krisnawati, H., Kshatriya, M., Lincoln, P., Mazzei, L., Medjibé, V., Nasi, R.,

494 D'Oliveira, M.V.N., Oliveira, L.C. de, Picard, N., Pietsch, S., Pinard, M., Priyadi, H., Putz, F.E., Rodney,
495 K., Rossi, V., Roopsind, A., Ruschel, A.R., Shari, N.H.Z., Rodrigues de Souza, C., Susanty, F.H., Sotta,
496 E.D., Toledo, M., Vidal, E., West, T.A.P., Wortel, V., Yamada, T., 2015. The Tropical managed Forests
497 Observatory: A research network addressing the future of tropical logged forests. *Applied Vegetation*
498 *Science* 18, 171–174. <https://doi.org/10.1111/avsc.12125>

499 Valle, D., Schulze, M., Vidal, E., Grogan, J., & Sales, M. (2006). Identifying bias in stand-level growth
500 and yield estimations: A case study in eastern Brazilian Amazonia. *Forest Ecology and Management*,
501 236(2–3), 127–135. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foreco.2006.08.340>

502 Veríssimo, A., Souza Jr., C.M., Celentano, D., Salomão, R., Pereira, D., Balieiro, C., 2006. Areas para
503 produção florestal manejada: detalhamento do macrozoneamento ecológico econômico do Estado do Pará.

504 Veríssimo, A., Rolla, A., Vedoveto, M. & de Futada, S.M. 2011. Areas protegidas na Amazonia
505 Brasileira, avanços e desafios, Imazon & ISA, 90 pages.

506 Vidal, E., West, T.A.P., Lentini, M., Souza, S.E.X.F., Klauberg, C., Waldhoff, P., 2020. Sustainable forest
507 management (SFM) of tropical moist forests: the case of the Brazilian Amazon, in: *Achieving Sustainable*
508 *Management of Tropical Forests*. pp. 1–31.

509 Villegas, Z., Peña-Claros, M., Mostacdeo, B., Alarcon, A., Livcona, .C., Leño, C., Pariona, W., Choque,
510 U. 2009. Silvicultural treatments enhance growth rates of future crop trees in a tropical dry forest. *Forest*
511 *Ecol.Manage.*, 971-977. <https://doi.org/j.foreco.2008.10.031>

512 Vinson, C.C., Kanashiro, M., Sebbenn, A.M., Williams, T.C.R., Harris, S.A., Boshier, D.H.
513 2015. Long-term impacts of selective logging on two Amazonian tree species with contrasting
514 ecological and reproductive characteristics: inferences from Eco-gene model simulations.
515 *Heredity* 115, 130–139

516 Wadsworth, F.H., Zweede, J.C., 2006. Liberation: acceptable production of tropical forest timber. *Forest*
517 *Ecol. Manage.* 233, 45–51. doi: 10.1016/j.foreco.2006.05.072