

Briefing Note

Regional Fellowship Program

Community Forestry and Rural Livelihoods in Myanmar

Author: Ms.Thin Thin Moe, Fellow from Myanmar

Direct Supervisor: Dr. Kem Sothorn, Senior Instructor **Associate Supervisor:** Ms. Top Davy, Associate instructor

Editor: Dr. Jan Taylor, Communications Advisor

September 2019

Notice of Disclaimer

The Parliamentary Institute of Cambodia (PIC) is an independent parliamentary support institution for the clients Parliament which, upon request of the parliamentarians and the parliamentary commissions, offers a wide range of training and research publications on current and emerging key issues, legislation and major public policy topics. This research product is the outcome of a six month's parliamentary research fellowship program at PIC, during which the author studied parliamentary research methods and applied what they learned to produce this paper. The information in this product is likely to be relevant to parliamentary and constituency work but does not purport to represent or reflect the views of the Parliamentary Institute of Cambodia, their clients Parliament or any of its members.

The contents of this research paper, current at the date of publication, are for reference and information purposes only. This publication is not designed to provide legal or policy advice, and do not necessarily deal with every important topic or aspect of the issues it considers.

The contents of this research paper are covered by applicable Cambodian laws and international copyright agreements. Permission to reproduce in whole or in part or otherwise use the content on this website may be sought from the appropriate source.

© 2019 Parliamentary Institute of Cambodia (PIC)

Abbreviations

CF Community Forestry

Ha Hectare

NGOs Non-governmental Organizations

NTFPs Non-Timber Forest Products

Table of Contents

List of Figures	i
	•••
List of Table	i
1 Introduction	.1
2 State and Status of Community Forestry	
2.1 Trends in forest cover	
2.2 Causes of deforestation and forest degradation	.2
2.3 Situation of Community Forestry	.3
3 Impacts of Community Forestry on rural livelihoods	.3
4 Policy on Community Forestry	.5
5 Conclusion	.6
References Error! Bookmark not define	d.

List of Figures

Table 1: Positive Effects of Community Forestry	
	List of Table
Figure 3: Distribution of CF by State	
Figure 2: Estimated Forest Cover Change	
Figure 1: Status of Forest Cover in Myanmar	2

1 Introduction

Myanmar forest areas have decreased significantly over the past two decades [2, 3]. Losing forest cover has caused environmental damage such as soil erosion, the degradation of soil fertility and the loss of biodiversity, among other issues [1, 4, 5]. Diminishing forest has also meant the loss of a natural safety net for people who have long been depending on it [6, 7, 8]. The main causes of deforestation are: (1) commercial forest logging; (2) agricultural land expansion; (3) the need for land for human settlement and infrastructure construction; (4) natural disasters such as forest fires; and (5) poverty [6, 9, 10]. To ameliorate the situation, a Forestry Policy aiming to promote sustainable forest management has been implemented since 1995. The objectives of this policy include: (1) the protection of soil, water, wildlife, biodiversity and the environment; (2) the sustainability of forest resource use; (3) the provision of the basic needs of people for fuel, shelter, food and recreation; (4) the efficient use, in a socially and environmentally friendly manner, of the full economic potential of forest resources; (5) the participation of the people in the conservation and use of forests; and (6) the promotion of public awareness about the vital role of forests in the well-being and socio-economic development of the nation. Community Forestry falls under the fifth objective of the policy and is also the first program introduced in order for communities themselves to maintain the forest resources and to alleviate poverty [6, 11]. The objective has been to conserve the forest and to reduce community poverty through the sustainable use of forest resources [12]. As defined by the FAO, Community Forestry (CF) relates to "any situation that intimately involves local people in forest activity"[5].

Using the available secondary data, this paper aims to (1) review the current state and status of Community Forestry in the country, (2) examine the impact of Community Forestry on the community and on household livelihoods and (3) highlight key policies in relation to Community Forestry.

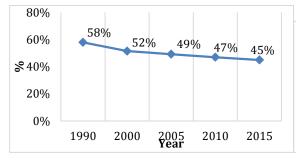
2 State and Status of Community Forestry

2.1 Trends in forest cover

Myanmar's forest cover has been decreasing (Figure 1). With 1.2 percent of forest lost annually, land under forest has diminished from 58 percent in 1990 to 49 percent in 2005 and 45 percent in 2015 – the third highest rate of decrease in the world after Brazil and Indonesia [2, 3]. The total loss has amounted to around 10 million hectares (ha) [13]. It is estimated that 29.1 million ha of

land area remain under forest [2]. The highest rate of forest lost has been noted in Magway, Kayah, Kachin, Bago, Ayeyarwady, Mandalay and Sagaing Division [14]. The Ayeyarwardy Delta alone has suffered a 12 percent forest loss in the last 10 years [3]. Evidence of deforestation can be seen by the fact that, from 1990 to 2015, the area of dense, close forest has decreased from 79 percent to 50 percent and the open forest has increased to 50 percent from 21 percent of total forest area [13] (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Estimated Forest Cover Change



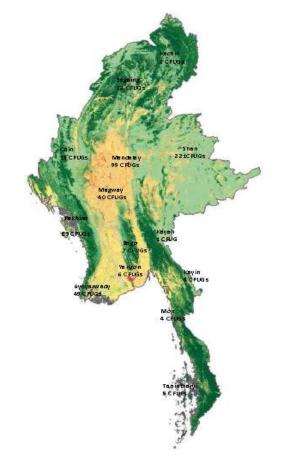
100% 21% 33% 45% 58% 50% 79% 67% 55% 42% 50% 1990 2000 2005 2010 2015 Close Fores Fear Open Forest

Source: Nail (2018) [2] Source: FRA (2015) [13]

2.2 Causes of deforestation and forest degradation

Illegal and legal logging has been the leading cause of forest degradation and has taken place across all of Myanmar's States, most noticeably in Shan and Kachin. From 2001 to 2013, more than 10 million m3 of timber was exported out of the country as unauthorized harvest [15]. Local activities, such as shifting cultivation, the over-harvesting of fuel wood and charcoal, and the over-grazing of livestock, has exacerbated the loss of forest cover [15, 16, 17].

Figure 3: Distribution of CF by State



Source: Kyaw Tint(2011)[1]

Shifting cultivation has long been practiced by indigenous people. This practice has been viewed by the government as natural forest degradation [16]. The approximate forest loss every year from shifting cultivation is 15,000 ha [15]. Rising demand for fuel wood and charcoal exacerbates forest loss. The majority of rural households still rely on traditional biomass for cooking and heating given the under-supply of electricity and fuel gas in the country [6, 18].

Agricultural transition has been underway in Myanmar, and agricultural production has shifted towards cash crop production. This has boosted demand for farmland in the country and accelerated forest clearance. Between 2002 and 2014, it is estimated that a million ha of forestland was cleared for rubber and oil palm plantations, and the plan now is to allocate another 2 million ha of forestland for the production of other commercial crops, including paddy, pulses and sugarcane [15]. The loss of forest cover has contributed to rising temperatures, erratic rainfall and more frequent floods, causing huge losses to the national economy [19].

In response to this rapid loss of forest, the Myanmar government has made significant efforts relating to forest rehabilitation. In 2010, about 13.5 million ha of teak forest was planted and in 2014, the export of logs was banned [13, 15]. The government also reserves about 3.2 million ha of primary forest and 24 million ha of other naturally regenerated forest [13]. One aim of these efforts has been to deliver forest and forest revenue to communities under Community Forestry initiatives [20].

2.3 Situation of Community Forestry

Community Forestry initiatives (CFs) are among the key national programs to support sustainable forest management in the country [21]. The establishment of CFs has aimed both to conserve the forest and to reduce local poverty through the sustainable use of community forest resources [1, 22]. The Forest Department has taken the lead in the implementation of CF programs in collaboration with donors and NGOs [23]. The first Community Forestry initiative was established in 1995 and, by 2017, the number had increased to encompass 3,840 community forest user groups throughout the country[12, 24]. CF implementation areas can be mostly found in Shan State, Mandalay, Magway and Ayeyarwady, where forest degradation has been taking place over a long period (Figure 3) [25]. In 2018, CF initiatives were covering about 217,492 ha (18 percent of the total CF proposed area), and benefiting 99,315 households [24, 26]. The process of establishing a CF initiative begins with the formation of a forest user group and the selection of a chairman. Then,

the community needs to request permission for the establishment of the CF from the district forestry office. Once permission has been granted the community needs to prepare the master plan and submit this to the district forestry office for approval [27].

Among all the established CFs, only half are reported to be working well. Key challenges for the successful implementation of a Community Forestry program can be identified at both national and local level [16]. At the national level, the implementation of CF programs has been hampered by three main challenges: (1) an unclear policy on land tenure and user rights undermine the active participation of local communities in CF activities; (2) the process for obtaining a Community Forestry certificate is difficult; and (3) funding support from NGOs/donors is unsustainable [1, 28]. At the local level, three challenges are encountered: (1) outsider encroachment; (2) tenure security; and (3) management issues within CF such as disagreements about the rules for access and benefitsharing, as well as the limited capacity of local communities to manage their own forest [7, 16, 29]. Despite all of these issues, some successful CFs have report several positive impacts for CF members and their community.

3 Impacts of Community Forestry on rural livelihoods

The effect of Community Forestry on livelihoods and community wellbeing in general are complex, varying according to household, gender, occupation skills, whether individuals are members or non-members of the CF, the rules relating to access to forest resources, the location of the CF and the state of the forest and the resources of the CF itself [1]. The positive effects for the community are summarized in Table 1 [1].

Table 1: Positive Effects of Community Forestry

	Households	Community	Environment
	Improved household food	Enhanced community	Soil protection and nutrient
o U	access	cohesion	cycling
cts	Secured land tenure	Creation of Job	Protection from natural
Effects	Availability of natural safety	opportunities	disasters
	net	Promotion of ecotourism	More secure natural water
	Higher income and	Enhancement of women as	supplies
	household consumption	decision-makers	

Sources: Author's compilation from various literature sources

The direct benefit of CFs on households is the availability of natural resources for household subsistence use and income generation. The establishment of a CF is associated with tenure security and access to forest resources. A number of studies have confirmed that CF members can acquire more income from selling NTFPs [1, 17, 24, 30]. CF members in the Ayeyarwady Delta earn around 36 percent of their household income from selling small timber/mangrove produce while the non-member households achieve only half of that amount [24]. Similar figures have been reported in Bago Region where, in Taungoo District, income from NTFPs accounts for about 37 percent of non-member household income and 46 percent for CF members [25, 31]. The products collected from the forest are also used for domestic purposes [4]. However, income levels might differ according to the amount of rainfall, forest coverage and type of forest areas [32]. For instance, Community Forestry members along the coastal zone have reported increases in crab catch [24]. Community Forestry tends also to be more important for remote villages, given that the local people there rely more on natural resources for their living [24]. The income from selling products collected from CF sites allows community households to meet basic household consumption needs [19]. This is the case in Kyauk Gyi CF, based in Rakhine State, where the CF members are each able to earn between 100,000 kyats (USD 65.8) and 300,000 kyats (USD 197) per month [29]. As another example, about 60 percent of households in Chin State community were able to collect wild food from the forest for both household consumption and to sell [29].

The establishment of a CF initiative provides a strong incentive for tenure security and equity in resource utilisation. The communities with CF certificates have a legal right to equity and justice and can limit the illegal practices of outsiders [24, 33]. Ethnic groups can protect their lands through securing CF certificates. They can grow more trees and use their forest resources in accordance with their CF management plan. Other social impacts from CF implementation include capacity building for local community members to manage and use their resources. CF committee member have their management capacity improved through participation in community programs. They have been able to use the funds collected from registration and membership fees to support social activities and to invest further in CF activities [29]. Two CFs in the Ayeyarwady region have responded to water scarcity by collecting rainwater and organizing a water committee to facilitate the rules relating to access to water [19]. Participation in CF activities has also enhanced the role of women in community decision-making in Chin State [33]. By using profits made from selling products collected from the CF, saving groups have been formed in some CFs in Rakhine State. These can act as financial safety nets for the poor and vulnerable in their communities [29].

Equality in profit-sharing has become an issue in some CFs. For instance, in the Kachin User Groups and Mandalay User Groups, the better-off households have secured better benefits than the poor households have. In Shan, the nature of benefit-sharing depends on individual land ownership [12]. It has been noted that women tend to participate less than men in CF activities, and leadership roles usually fall to men [25, 34]. The poor and landless tend to rely more on forest resources [34]. Improved ecosystem services are the main environmental benefit from the implementation of CFs. Studies have revealed the relationship between forests and the supply of natural fresh water, and an improvement in soil nutrition. These factors can reduce the negative effects natural disasters have on forests [34]. For some CFs in coastal regions, regenerated mangroves have been minimizing the impact from natural disasters such as Cyclone Nargis in 2008 [1, 32]. Biodiversity is reported to have been increasing in some Forestry Community initiatives, while others - in Shan State, for example – have been benefiting to a greater extent from ecotourism due to the regeneration of different kinds of forest and the existence of more wildlife species since establishment of their CFs [35].

4 Policy on Community Forestry

The first policy document related to Community Forestry was embedded in the 1995 Myanmar Forest Policy. The aim was to sustainably manage forests without undermining production capacity to meet social and community needs [14, 20]. This sectoral policy led to the creation of the Community Forestry Instruction for participatory forest management [13, 34]. The National Forest Master Plan 2001-2030 gave more emphasis to the role of Community Forestry in the management of the country's forest resources. The action plan aimed to allocate 0.919 million ha or 1.36 percent of the country to CF initiatives. Under this policy framework, the Community Forestry Instruction was updated in 2016 in order to give communities control over their customary and traditional land and to be able to sell their forest products [13].

The Forest Department is the main government institution in charge of implementing Community Forestry programs. A number of NGOs also support the CF programs at the field level. The major donors to CF programs are the United Nations Development Program, Pyoe Pin Programme funded by Department for International Development and Forest Resource Environment Development and Conservation Association [1].

5 Conclusion

The last two decades have seen a sharp reduction in the country's forest cover mainly due to logging and other related national development activities. However, the Myanmar government has been making significant efforts to rehabilitate the country's forest areas. Major activity has been seen in terms of large-scale reforestation, a logging ban and the conservation of the remaining forests for the benefit of the communities who depend on them. Community Forestry – a sound, inclusive forest conservation initiative – has been implemented since 1995. An increasing number of CFs in the country and in the individual States indicates a strong level of commitment to forest conservation among both local communities and the authorities. The implementation of CFs has, however, been hampered by several factors, primarily relating to difficulties in the process of certifying Community Forestry initiatives, and in encroachment by outsiders. Nonetheless, more than half of the CFs have currently been successful.

For those that have been succeeding, impacts are generally positive, though they can vary according to household situations, the condition of the forest, its location, and how well the community has been able to manage their forest. Member households are reported to receive higher income from selling poles and NTFPs, which has been leading to increases in livelihoods and in the general well-being of the people involved. Community solidarity and social cohesion have improved. The most remarkable social impact has been tenure security over land and community forests. The long-term implementation of CF initiatives has improved ecosystem services including better soil quality, reduced soil degradation, and the regeneration of biodiversity.

References

- 1. Kyaw Tint, Baginski, O. S. and Mehm Ko Ko Gyi (2011). *Community Forestry in Myanmar: progress & potentials*, ECCDI and International Development, University of East Anglia, UK, pp.107.
- 2. Nail, T. (2018). State of land In Myanmar: Land reform or new dynamics of land alienation? *In:* M. L. I. Ingalls andDiepart J.-C. (eds.) *State of land in the Mekong region*. Bern, Switzerland: Centre for development and environment (CDE) ,Mekong region land governance (MRLG), Vientiane, Lao PDR and Open Publishing,Bern (BOP).
- 3. Leimgruber, P., Kelly, D. S. and Steininger, M. K. S. (2005). Forest cover change patterns in Myanmar (Burma) 1990–2000. *Environmental Conservation*, 32(4), pp.356-364.
- 4. Zar Chi Hlaing, Kamiyama, C. and Saito, O. (2017). Interaction between rural people's basic needs and forest products: A case study of the Katha district of Myanmar. *International Journal of Forestry Research*, 2017(1), pp. 1-18.
- 5. FAO. (1978). *Community forestry* [Online]. Available at: http://www.fao.org/3/u5610e/u5610e04.htm [Accessed 26 Apr. 2019].
- 6. Khin Htun (2009). Myanmar Forestry Outlook Study, 2 ed. Bangkok: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Regional office for Asia and the Pacific, pp.55.
- 7. Thaung Naing Oo, (2004). *Status of forest genetic resources conservation and management in Myanmar.* Myanmar: MInistry of Forestry, pp.15.
- 8. Theint Theint Htun, Wen, Y. and Aye Chan Ko Ko (2017). Assessment of forest resources dependency for local livelihood around protected area: A case Study in Popa mountain park, central Myanmar. *International Journal of Sciences*, 6(01), pp.10.
- 9. Aung Aung Myaint, (n.d). *Analysis of drivers of deforestation and forest degradation in Shan State and strategic options to address those.* Myanmar's REDD+ readiness programme, pp.139.
- 10. Thaung Oo, (2018). Myanmar reforestation and rehabilities program. China, pp-69-81.
- 11. Shigetomi, S. and Okamoto, I. (2014). Local societies and rural development:self organization and participatory development in Asia, ed. Cheltenham UK and Northampton USA: Institute of developing economies, pp.67.
- 12. Baginski, O. S., Maung Maung Than, Naw Hser Wah, Ni Ni win and Khin Hnin Myint, (2011). *Community forestry in Myanmar: Some field realities.*
- 13. Barber Cho, Aung Kyaw Naing and Sapkota, L. M., (2017). *Stabilizing and rebuilding Myanmar's working forests: Multiple stakeholders and multiple choices.*
- 14. Ministry of Agriculture Livestock, and Irrigation, and Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, (2016). Formulation and operationalization of national action plan for poverty alleviation and rural development through agriculture (NAPA) Yangon.
- 15. Enters, T., (2017). *Drivers of deforestation and forest degradation in Myanmar.* UN-REDD/ Myanmar Programme.
- 16. Christian Erni, (2018). *Indigenous peoples, land rights and forest conservation in Myanmar.* Yangon, Myanmar, pp.88.
- 17. Kyaw Tint, Baginski, O. S., Duncan, M. and Mehm Ko Ko Gyi (2014). *Unleashing the potetial of commutiy forestry enterprise in Myanmar*, International Institute for Environment and Development
- 18. Win Win Kyu and Dr.Sajjakulnukit, B. (n.d). A study of energy consumption of the household sector in Myanmar,. *Natural Sciences Research*, 4(13).
- 19. Win Win Nwe, Dr.Ei Ei Swe Hlaing and Htike San Soe, (2016). *Assessing the role of community forestry for climate change adaptation from gerder perspective: case study for delta area, Myanmar*. Myanmar: Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Conservation,.
- 20. Macqueen, D., (2015). Community forest business in Myanmar: Pathway to peace and prosperity?
- 21. Professor Own Lwin, (2015). Study on criteria and indicators of international standards for certification contributing sustainable forest management in natural and planted forests in Myanmar. Ministry of Environmenal Conservation and Forestry.

- 22. Kyi Phyu Aung, Billy Ne Win, Tun Tun Win and Khin Thida Tun, (2016). *Impacts of agroforestry practices on local livelihoods of the Ayeyarwady delta towards development of community forestry*. Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Conservation.
- 23. Ei Ei Swe Hlaing and Inoue, M. (2011). Factors affecting participation of user group members: comparative studies on two types of community forstry in the Dry Zone, Myanmar *Journal of Forest Research*, 18(1), PP.60-72.
- 24. Feurer, M., Gritten, D. and Maung Than (2018). Community forestry for livelihoods: benefiting from Myanmar's mangroves. *Forests*, 9(3), pp.150.
- 25. Khaing Thandar Soe and Youn, Y.-C. (2019). Perceptions of forest-dependent communities toward participation in forest conservation: A case study in Bago Yoma, South-Central Myanmar. *Forest Policy and Economics*, 100(n.a), pp.129-141.
- 26. Greijmans, M. F., Gritten, D. and Aung Kyaw, (2018). *Community forestry enterprise development in Myanmar through socially responsible business approaches* Myanmar: The center for people and forests (RECOFTC) and The rights and resources group (RRG).
- 27. Than Naing Win, (n.d). People participation through decentralized forest management towards sustainable forestry development
- 28. Naujoks, J., Barclay, R. and Htun Paw Oo, (2017). *Forest law enforcement government and trade in Myanmar.* UK.
- 29. Fodor, M. and Ling, S., (2019). Assessing the opportunities for scaling up community forestry and community forestry enterprises in Myanmar Washington DC,: The World Bank.
- 30. Inkyin Khaine, Su Young Woo and Kang, H. (2014). A study of the role of forest and forest-dependent community in Myanmar. *Forest Science and Technology*, 10(4), pp.197-200.
- 31. Khaing Thandar Soe and Chang, Y. Y. (2019). Livelihood dependency on non-timber forest products: Implications for REDD+. *Forest* 10(427), pp.25.
- 32. Mya Thandar Toe and Mamoru Kanzaki (2017). Livelihood of Local Communities and Their Dependence on Dry Forests in The Central Dry Zone, Myanmar. *Sustainable Future for Human Security*, 5(1), pp.22-31.
- 33. Khin Moe Kyi, Khin Thiri, Woodward, K. and Williamson, J. (2017). Enhancing human rights through responsible community forestry: a case from Myanmar [Online]. Available at: https://recoftc.wordpress.com/2017/12/10/enhancing-human-rights through-responsible-community-forestry-a-case-from-myanmar/ [Accessed 17 Jun 2019].
- 34. Allendorf, T. D., Khine Khine Swe, Myint Aung and Thorsen, A. (2018). Community use and perceptions of a biodiversity corridor in Myanmar's threatened southern forests *Global Ecology and Conservation*, 15(n.a), pp.12.
- 35. Ei Sandi Sett, (2014). *Ecotourism and community development: A case study in Myanmar's Inle Lake Wildlife Sanctuary*. Myanmar: Ministry of Environmental Conservation and Forestry,.