

DECLINE OF THE PHILIPPINE FOREST

Presented on behalf of ESSC by

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes how the Philippine forests have declined in terms of how they are used, managed and administered. We present two scenarios: one assumes commitment in words only, with no budgetary support for people-oriented programmes but budget support for mining and plantation development. The second, a hopeful one, assumes sincere committed action to implement realistic programmes. We recognise that there is a struggle to strike a balance in terms of the interest of all stakeholders in forest management. We do not propose a concrete alternative but we call for understanding of important concepts that influence actions. Instead, we propose some questions on the premise that we have our own initiatives and that the government has the mandate to provide services and must be capable of change.

In pursuing participation of local communities in forest management, we need to define “community-based” as a strategy. How do communities become organised? Who benefit from community-based undertakings? In whom are the access and control of resources vested? Who has the power? How are conflicts addressed? Do we have real co-operation, genuine partnership or mere collaboration in producing output or fund-driven activities?

Key words: deforestation, change in attitude, participation of local communities and indigenous peoples

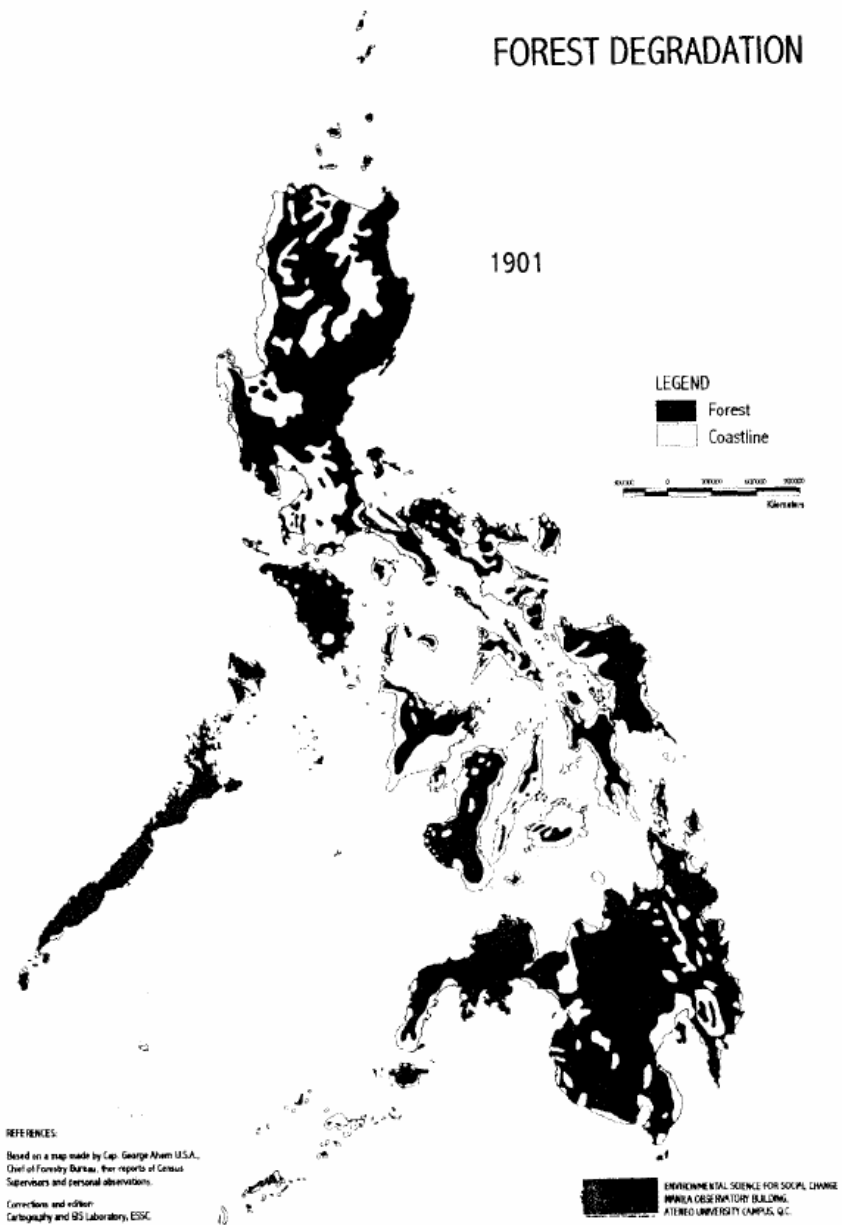
THE FOREST SCENARIOS

In the Philippines, our forests comprised 70% of our total area in 1901; the figure was 21Mha out of 30 Mha. Now, this resource is almost entirely gone and only 5.5 Mha remains, resulting in a low forest cover of 18.3% (see Maps 1 and 2).

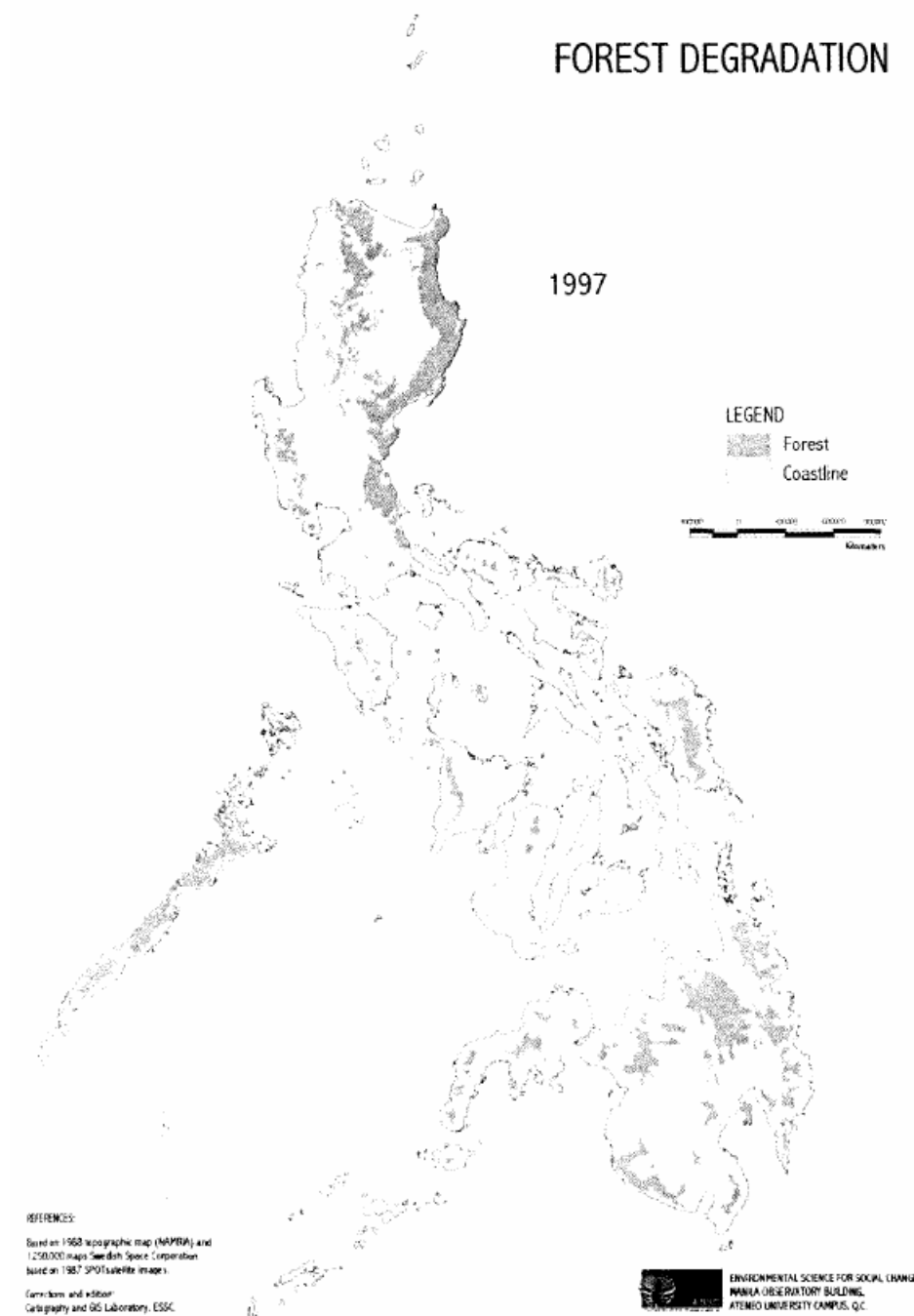
The mangroves were downsized from 500,000 hectares to only 140,000 hectares whilst all the rest of the forest types, particularly the dipterocarps, have been constantly reduced. Records show that this rapid deforestation took place within the last 40 years. As a result, the Philippines is now considered to be one of the most deforested countries in the tropics.

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Map 1. Forest cover in the Philippines, 1901



Map 2. Forest cover in the Philippines 1997.



This tragedy, the decline of our forests, can be described in terms of how they are used, managed and administered and their impact on the people.

In the 1900's the Americans introduced logging. Export of wood became a profitable business, since there was great demand for tropical woods in the international market. To sustain logging, silviculture was also instituted as an intervention in forest management. However, deforestation has continued to outpace rehabilitation through silviculture.

Dictated by the interests of the few who belong to the traditional elite, the military and the realm of politics, the 1960s to mid-1970s were a logging boom in the Philippines. The government saw it was necessary to export natural resources in an attempt to have an industrialised economy. In addition, mining has also found its niche in forestlands. Mining was one of the income-generating businesses that the government depended on for its foreign currency transactions. Prior to these years, the government made a move to clear tracts of forests to accommodate agriculture and settlements projects. Thus, by the end of 1970, the forested area was reduced to 10.2 Mha.

During the 1980's some local officials supported open access to forestlands, whilst the government was trying to implement control measures against rapid depletion of forest areas. The government also imposed a logging ban in some parts of the country. The forces behind illegal logging, however, proved to be much stronger than the government. By the 1990's, therefore, deforestation in the Philippines was 100,000 hectares a year. At this point, the government pushed for the preservation of the primary forests, and legal logging was no longer allowed in those areas. Still, those involved in logging, legal or illegal, managed to circumvent this policy. Even now, many loggers have been taking advantage of the absence of on-the-ground delineation between the secondary and the primary forests. Logging, therefore, may still be ongoing in some primary forests. Much as the multi-sectoral forest protection committees, which have been organised in some areas, would like to negate deforestation, they could not match the degree of influence of those involved in illegal logging.

It was also in the 1980's that the concerns of the upland communities were regarded as major issues in forestland management. The government instituted a number of programmes wherein communities have become one of the major interest groups.

In addition, it is important to point out that, with the depletion of forest resources, local economies dependent on forests were forced to shift to other sources of livelihood. Most people left the uplands and became part of the labour force in the cities and other emerging businesses downstream. Those who could not survive in this new field had no other choice but to suffer in poverty. Thus, upland communities regarded government interventions in forest protection, species conservation and reforestation in terms of economic impact rather than as environmental considerations.

We therefore associate these dynamics of forests and people with more serious problems of food insecurity, water insecurity and wood shortage. Why do we relate the forest cover to these problems? This is because these consequences will become extreme if we do not make the right choice regarding our forest cover.

On food insecurity, we are primarily concerned with production, which in turn is very much dependent on the fertility of the soil. If there is disturbance of the soil, its capacity to

support production is subsequently affected. One disturbance critical to this issue is soil erosion that results in depletion of nutrients and a low crop yield.

In the Philippines, 100,000 hectares of land, to a depth of one meter, have been lost to erosion. Most provinces have already lost at least 50% of their topsoil to erosion and 70% of croplands in the country are vulnerable to erosion. This situation will be exacerbated when more forests are cut and thus pave the way for higher surface run-off.

Concerning water insecurity, the direct relationship between forests and water is embodied in watersheds. These catchments are critical when they support major service areas such as irrigation for food production, electricity for residential and commercial establishments, and potable water. In relation to these major roles of water, it is important to know that more than half of the 57 major watersheds is critically denuded. While there is constant use of water, there is a loss of water that penetrates the ground but fails to recharge water tables nation-wide. Cities like Manila, Cebu, Davao and Baguio are now facing water shortages and new major health risks are arising because of deteriorating water quality.

When the sources of water for these services are on the verge of being lost, then there is no other way but to try to regain it, thus there is reason to adopt sound forestland management to protect watersheds.

Wood shortage is a direct result of losing forest cover. As discussed earlier, the Philippines was a major international wood exporter. Its wood built galleons plying the trade routes during the 1500's up to late 1800's. Now, the Philippines is a net wood importer. This shortage may also lead to increased pressure on remaining forests. Deforestation means increased fires and a loss of carbon to the atmosphere. To address this in a myopic way would also potentially lead to misguided and socially unacceptable siting of plantations that do not respond to local needs.

Therefore, the Philippines is left with two scenarios; Scenario A for disaster and Scenario B for hope (Maps 3 & 4). If the Philippines decides to take option A, then we are completing the tragedy that started in the 1900's. We are not being overly pessimistic here; taking our experiences and with all things constant, only a miracle can save this country from disaster. It would take the other option, Scenario B, with all its radical moves to ease the burden.

Scenario A

Scenario A would result in forest cover of **6.6%** of the total land area. This will happen **if:**

Lack of knowledge and non-involvement of local government units (LGU's) in forest management continues. National policies and specific laws converge at local levels that are under the jurisdiction of LGU's. One area of concern, that has both national and local relevance, is forest management. However, LGU's have no substantial experience in this field, since this task was given to a national department. The involvement of LGU's was limited and did not require their full attention. This lack of meaningful involvement of LGU's in forest management makes them incompetent in the eyes of other agencies,

particularly the national agencies. Therefore, how do we expect them to fully internalise the cause for sound forest management? Without the active participation LGU's in forest management, scenario A will happen.

Social forestry becomes a basis for land speculation. Instead of social forestry as a vehicle for collaboration between the government and the local communities towards people-oriented forest management, it would become an opportunity to exacerbate the land distribution problem. With people already granted tenure in forestlands and the livelihood insecurity brought about by deforestation, many would sell their lands to land speculators; thus such land may end up as titled forest lands.

Community forestry management is not institutionalised as an accepted strategy and the Community-Based Forest Management Programme (CBFMP) is not given a central place. The programme is presently peripheral and has no budgetary support for expansion. Although the government has recognised community forestry management as an approach, there is still a need to actualise its principles, not only in terms of programmes and projects, but also in systems and procedures that regulate forest management activities. If we continue to use the regulations based on our experience with corporations, then there is no institutional translation of community forestry management. Everything will stop when a certain programme or project terminates and there will be no windows for sustaining its efforts. Thus, communities will never be partners in forest management. When this happens, they will again be considered violators of forest laws and regulations for having been residents in public forestlands. The conflict of interests between the government and this sector will inevitably spark anew and the following will occur:

- a) The estimated 100,000 hectares a year of deforestation will increase, due to lack of serious government commitment and the insecurity of people.
- b) Communities are not given a key role in the rehabilitation management and protection of forests and watersheds.
- c) Communities continue to open up new forest and to degrade secondary forest areas.
- d) Forest fires are not controlled, erosion worsens and clean water continues to be scarce.

Consequently, deforestation would not be arrested and people will be discontented. Those in large industries would continue to enrich themselves at the expense of local communities who are caught in a trap of trying to survive whilst losing their means for survival. The logging elite would begin to rule in the guise of large plantation developments. Local communities would serve as labourers and the means of production. The government would continue to receive revenues from loggers but would be unable to reinvest these sums of money in forest rehabilitation. Therefore, deforestation would certainly accelerate.

The present 350,000 to 400,000 indigenous families in the uplands are not given tenure security and have no input to decisions that affect their livelihood. The National Commission on Indigenous Peoples (NCIP) is not given adequate budgetary support and the DENR-ADMP (Department of Environment and Natural Resources-Ancestral Domain Management Programme) is not supported for delineation of new areas of CADC/CADT (Certificate of Ancestral Domain Claim/ Certificate of Ancestral Domain Title) with channels of accountability to communities.

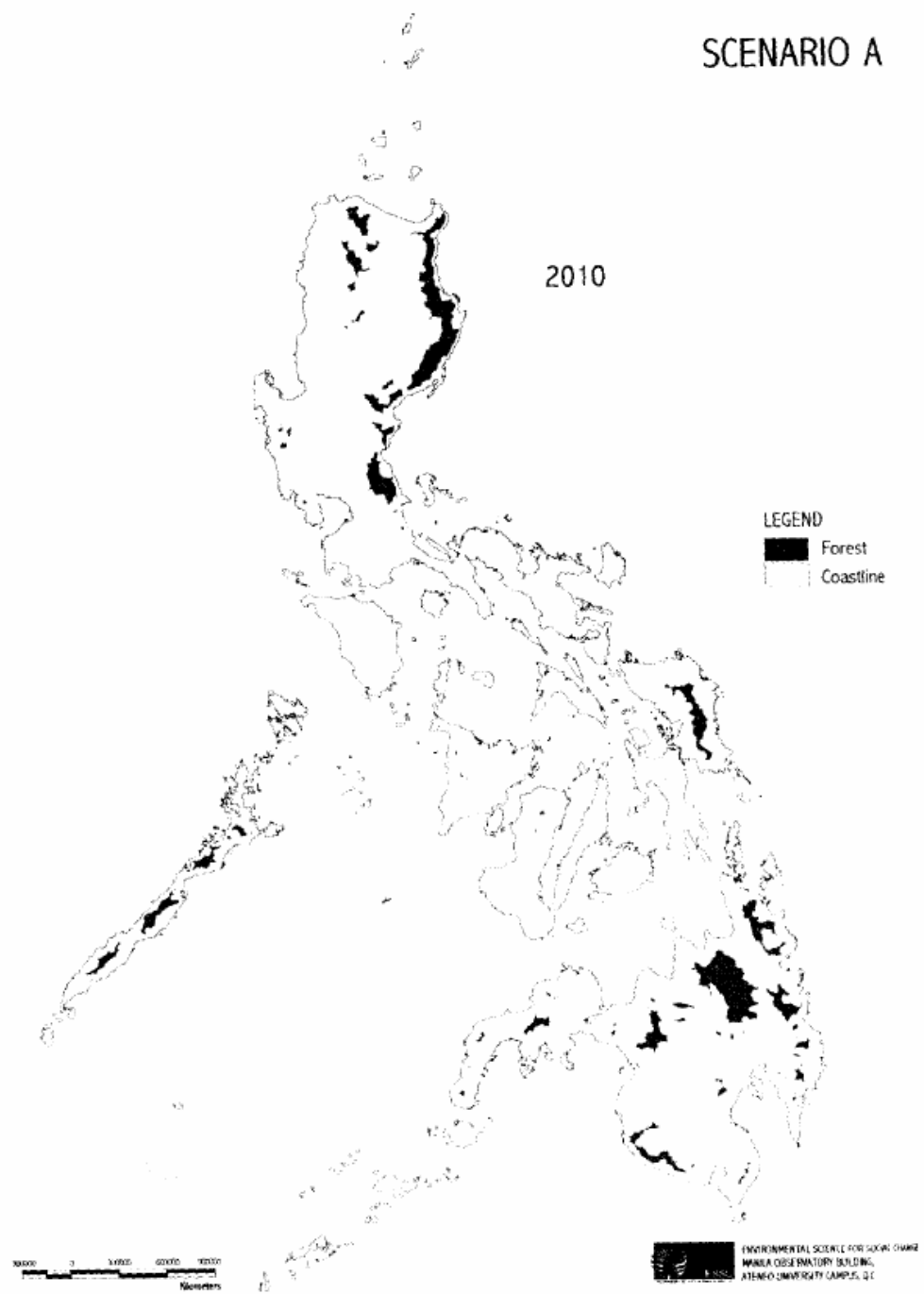
Under the present scenario, the concerns of indigenous peoples' (IP's) would not be considered a significant part of forest management; they would be regarded as another sector without giving due importance to their culture. In effect, the operational problems of the NCIP and the DENR-ADMP would never be an issue as IP's would be left on their own, thus opening the gates for manipulators and capitalists to take advantage of the situation.

Changes in the environment in the uplands that have effects downstream, impact on aquatic resources and increase the cost of basic commodities, are not dealt with or are wilfully ignored. The role of forest as both source and sink of carbon would be set aside. Thus, instead of developing forest management strategies that are relevant to climate change, the forest would only be regarded as a source of timber. Therefore, indiscriminate harvesting of the forest would create an economic imbalance, since the food sector would be adversely affected as earlier discussed. Reduced supply of basic commodities such as rice would mean a higher demand and increased costs. With Scenario A, the government would refuse to see the relationship and would continue to favour revenues from timber.

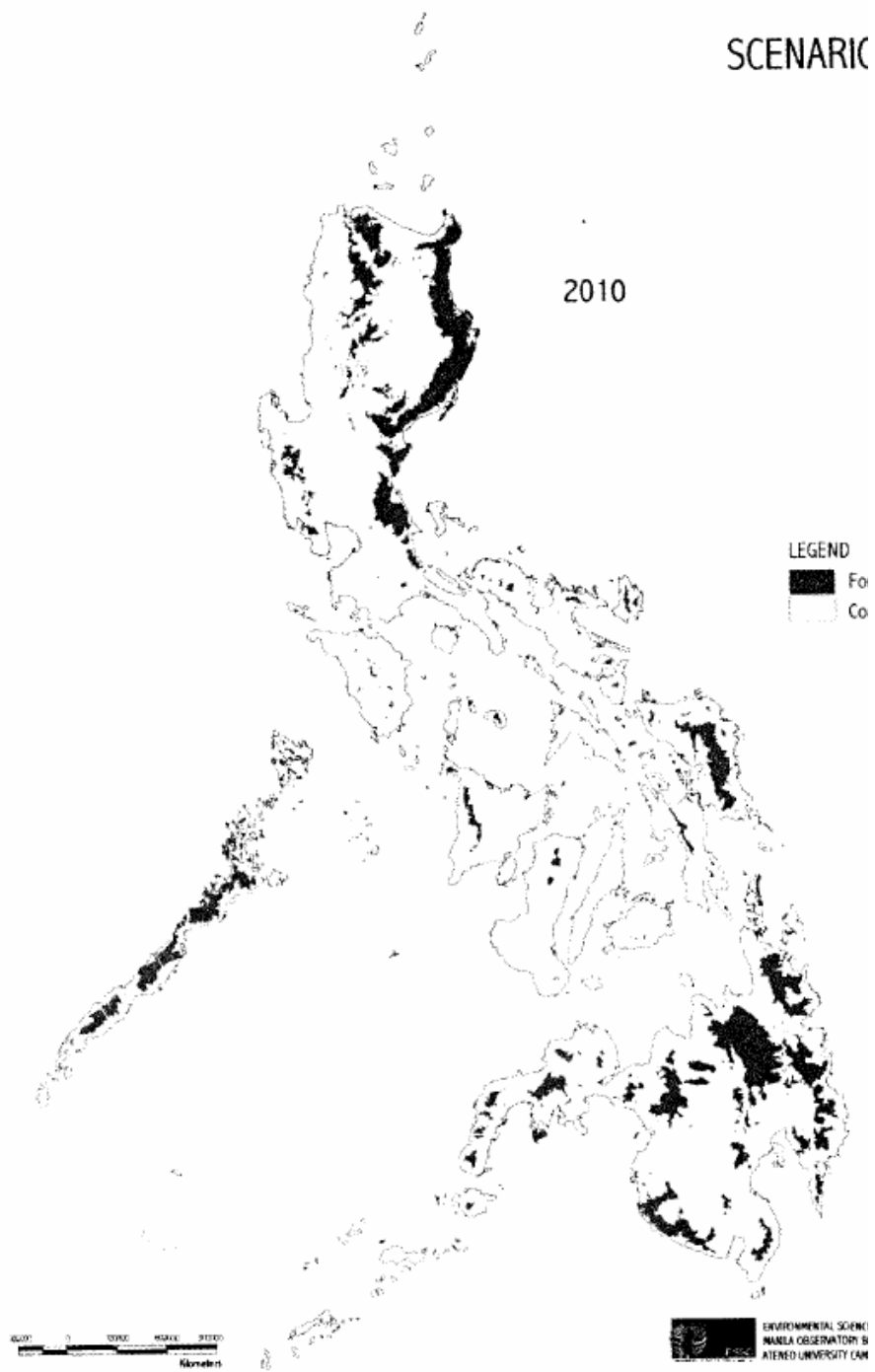
Loss of biodiversity is not given importance. The fifteen biogeographic zones in the Philippines, in which distinctive assemblages of flora and fauna are found, would not be considered in forestland use plans. This may lead to lack of proactive actions toward the protection and conservation of habitats such as rainforests, coral reefs, pine forests, grasslands, mangroves, volcanic craters and lakes. Destruction of these habitats endangers biodiversity.

The components of biodiversity that must be given importance are as follows. In the Philippine, wildlife is represented by over 15,000 known plant species, including 8,120 flowering plants, 1,030 species of ferns and world famous hardwoods such as *apitong*, *tangile*, *yakal*, *bagtikan*, *palosapis* and *manggachapui*. In addition, the coral reefs have 2,000 known fish species and 488 coral species in 78 genera. As earlier mentioned, there are at least five habitats in the Philippines that serve as life support systems for both wildlife and people. Biogeographic zones represent various types of habitats and life forms therefore vary to a certain extent from one habitat to another.

Map 3. Forest cover in the Philippines 2010.



Map 4. Forest cover in the Philippines 2010.



Concerning human activities, extensive agriculture, urbanisation and pollution, road building, selective species collection and hunting also disrupt biodiversity at varying intensities. At the extreme, we can say our interventions have led not only to the extinction of other living things but also to degradation of our quality of life.

A habitat once destroyed will drive away the existing wildlife community and will create a new community that may no longer support human beings. Each organism has its own niche. In a layperson's concept, once we discover some insects, for example, in an unexpected place, then we become aware that their habitat has been disturbed. With due respect to all life forms, we should be aware that we co-exist because there is a balance of nature. Biodiversity is the wealth that goes with that equilibrium and gives value to the role of each organism. We do not want to see wild snakes staying with us in our homes, nor large spiders in our offices. Their value in the cycle of life is best appreciated if they are in their respective habitats such as forests. If we lose such species through deforestation, then we cause a break in the food cycle and will probably end up with unpredictable results. We may also be unable to find some medical answers that require certain species to constitute a certain mix of solutions.

Scenario B

Scenario B offers a better option; it would work provided that i) the deforestation rate is reduced to 50,000 hectares a year and ii) the key role of communities in forest management is recognised and supported. With this scenario, forest cover will increase **slightly to 19% if:**

Primary forest is preserved for propagation purposes, as most seeds cannot be found in secondary forests. This would require banning logging and other commercial extraction activities in primary forests. The government has already promulgated a policy on this. However, serious implementation is needed.

Effective mechanisms are sought to address the different concerns of indigenous peoples and the issues of migration and land speculation in protected areas and Protected Areas Management Boards or PAMB's are given organisational assistance in managing NIPAS (National Integrated Protected Areas System) areas. With the NIPAS, IPRA (Indigenous Peoples Rights Act) and CBFM, the government should be able to organise an integrated approach to such mechanisms. This would require inter-agency collaboration since a sectoral approach would no longer work in an area where all these issues occur at the same time but with different intensities. To achieve this, we need a very strong political will from the government and vigilance from civil society.

The key role of the community in forest management is affirmed, operationalised and supported:

- a) Forest management systems involve communities in the rehabilitation of secondary forests and degraded areas, and clear cutting in these areas is prohibited.
- b) Community programmes such CBFMP are supported by local communities.

- c) TLAs (Timber Licence Agreements) are phased out and community support systems are put in place.
- d) Appropriate infrastructure projects contribute to the welfare of upland communities and help stabilise the environment.
- e) Forest fires are controlled and incentives are created to ensure this in the long term.
- f) Deforestation is reduced to 50,000 hectares a year or much less.

As discussed earlier, the role of local communities should be seriously considered; they are the *de facto* forestland managers. Lessons from within and outside the country reveal that communities can be our assets and we can take their potent force in terms of their organisations in order to move in the same direction in forest management. If indigenous peoples can be victims of degeneration of the forest, they can also be partners in forest regeneration. All we need to do is to provide them with the basic services due to them as people who are as equally important as those in the lowland areas. This requires however, that the services in the lowlands will similarly be improved so that we prevent further migration to the uplands. When the livelihood of people are secured, pressure on the forest will be reduced.

In this scenario, 350,000 to 400,000 indigenous families in the uplands are given tenure security through CBFMA (Community Based Forest Management Agreement) and CADC/CADT. Indigenous communities in upland areas would actively participate in forest management so that they have food security and can assure a sustained supply of clean water for the lowlands.

The domain that supports the indigenous families would be recognised as such and, therefore, their land and food security would be assured. The people would also realise their critical role in supporting life in the lowlands. Hence, the essence of communities both in the uplands and the lowlands would be given meaning in terms of supporting each other, instead of posing threats to one another.

Old reforestation areas are devolved to local governments with a proven track record of good community management. Mining company operations are to have minimal impact, substantive mitigation and are properly accountable to LGU's so that forest resources and water are not degraded in the area under their operational control.

Some form of devolution would have to be undertaken, as the national agency could never be in all necessary places. LGU's could be more effective in some areas; therefore, the national government should let go of these areas and allow LGU's to manage them. The basic assumption here is that there would be provision of capacity building for LGU's to handle the technical aspects of forestry and mining. The line agencies, together with academia and some donors, could craft institutional strengthening for LGU's to prepare them for these new concerns.

A reliable forest management system operates to provide proven plantation managers with the opportunity to reforest degraded grasslands, pasture leases are minimised and agro-forestry is prioritised. Similarly, the private sector could contribute in terms of viable plantations that encompass both forestry and social aspects. Appropriate areas should be made available for these ventures.

With the conversion of natural forests to grazing lands, we effectively limit the areas suitable for rehabilitation aimed at striking the balance between forest cover and lands that can be titled. Pasture leases should be evaluated as to whether they should remain or not. No further areas should be allocated solely for pasture; instead, agro-forestry should be encouraged. In this way we could help to meet concerns relating to both forest cover and economic development.

CULTURE (IN RELATION TO FOREST AND FOREST RESOURCES) AND GOVERNMENT ATTITUDE

Deforestation and population pressures have encouraged governments in Southeast Asia to shift their strategies in relation to forest management. Populations of local communities have been increasing, both in the lowlands and in the uplands, hence, demand for resources, such as wood products and water, has become a core issue in forest management.

Governments will also have to realise that there are still indigenous peoples who are directly dependent on natural resources within their respective domains. The indigenous peoples' own way of treating their natural resources differ from that of upland migrants; they have an intense respect for these resources. They believe that their gods provided them with these resources and that they have to be judicious in utilising them. A wealth of experience and knowledge of forest ecology and sustainable-use practices among the indigenous communities have already been documented.

Many of the indigenous pastoral, swidden farming and agro-forestry systems in Southeast Asia are based on the efficient use of land and labour and cause little damage to the larger forest ecosystem. Some case studies compiled by the Working Group on Community Involvement in Forest Management depict that there are communities that have succeeded in attaining self-sufficient systems of natural resources over time. Indigenous forest management systems show that local populations retain 50 to 80 percent of the biodiversity found in neighbouring natural forest ecosystems (WORKING GROUP-COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FOREST MANAGEMENT).

Inspired by various experiences in the uplands and with the limitations that are imposed by government rule over forest lands, small groups of foresters, scientists, and community development specialists in Southeast Asia were prompted to develop methods to empower forest communities with the rights to manage public lands. Consequently, there has been a growing recognition that local communities are part of the solution to deforestation rather than part of the problem. They can be partners in forest management in addition to the fact that they have rights to share in forest resources. Local communities are usually willing to take on management responsibilities if given the chance.

In the Philippines, we have approximately 150 cultural communities that can be broadly divided into those that are mainstream, sea-based, or upland cultures. We have over 7 million indigenous people and migrant settlers living inside state forestlands and at least 10 million upland migrants and people living in adjacent areas.

Our indigenous peoples whose cultures co-evolved with the land possess a profound land ethic. However, their natural environment has changed and has become degraded to such a degree that it can no longer recover easily from the formerly gentle activities of their ancestors. This is exacerbated by the increasing rate of lowland landless families migrating into forested areas.

Deforestation therefore affects not only the supply aspect of resources but also the habitat of the people who consider the forests as their home.

An important issue to reflect on is cultural erosion, which precedes environmental erosion. A manifestation of this is when the forests are cleared by means of indiscriminate logging in contrast to traditional non-mechanised cutting of trees used by Filipinos. When logging was introduced as an advanced technology in the Philippines, the way of life of the people changed, and hence, our forest environment suffered.

The Philippines belongs to a region that now acknowledges that local communities should be active participants in the management of natural resources. We have a long history in terms of finding the right formula in community-based natural resources management. At this point, we would like to focus on forest management, as it is a very significant subject of the present local governance.

We value how our people-oriented forestry evolved through time as shown in Annex A. However, the present government does not fully support the implementation of CBFM as a Strategy, thereby adversely affecting all programmes and projects anchored to it.

The present government is not supportive of and has no real intention to pursue CBFM. The Secretary of the DENR suspended the processing of cutting permits applied for by the CBFM Agreement holders. After receiving complaints from CBFMA holders and clarification that all application permits were based on respective Community Resources Management Frameworks (CRMF) and anchored on sustainable development, the Secretary lifted the suspension. But, because of lack of understanding of the communities' concern for survival and resources management, he confined tree cutting to plantations. The plantations being offered by the Secretary are mostly located outside the CBFMA holders' areas and are not yet due for harvesting.

DENR has turned its back on their covenant with communities; politically and operationally, CBFM has been put back in the corner. Field personnel have been demoralised due to lack of moral support from top management and therefore, CBFM in the hands of the DENR has lost its momentum.

The government, through DENR, is inclined to promote timber production sharing, industrial forest plantations and similar approaches that are destructive. Records would show that with these approaches, the secondary forest is often cut and monocultures of exotics are planted. In short, the government is going back to the old school of thought that the forest is mainly an economic resource.

The pressures of increasing demand for forest products from the international community have caused the present government to react in the above manner. Coupled with the lack of competence in resource management of the DENR's top management, there is great uncertainty about its reaction to the future strength of market forces towards forest products.

Studies show that the world is biologically capable of supplying the quantity and type of wood that will be needed in the future (WORLD FORESTRY CONGRESS- XI, 1997). However, production is not the only factor that counts. Management of this resource must ensure long-term availability of such forest-based products and services. Therefore, those who have the means and the capacity will most likely put pressure on those who have low purchasing power. Prime products may be given to those who can afford them, whilst the poor are confined to substitutes. So, remaining forest resources in developing countries like ours, could not easily escape from this economic cycle, unless there is a change in attitude on the part of the government and its partners in forest management. Everything will start from the key issue of how we view and treat our forests.

Unless that radical change in attitude and behaviour happens, long-term strategic considerations will be overlooked and taking into account the scenarios presented on forest management, we will be adopting the Scenario A- Disaster.

Another critical concern that may not be attractive to the present government, due its indirect relationship to the economy, is carbon in the context of forest management. There have been agreements on carbon emissions and carbon sequestration. However, more has to be done on their implications for primary and secondary forests, as well as plantations wherein local communities are present.

Local communities can participate in the management of biodiversity and watersheds, since they are most closely involved in these areas. The government may enter into international contracts on these areas but may not be sensitive to the communities within those areas.

Various conferences have shown equitable sharing of benefits by local communities must be considered in addition to (i) provisions for sustainable biodiversity conservation; and (ii) duration, exclusiveness and limits of rights. Similarly, watersheds are hinged on the hydrological functions of forests where there are tenured communities. Governments in Southeast Asia need to prepare for cross-country watershed management although this concern is not yet critical.

CHALLENGES

What needs to be done? A concrete alternative may not be offered at this time. But, important concepts that guide strategies need to be understood.

Reviews of donor agencies on their respective interventions show that collaboration with local communities can be an advantage in forest management. When they are organised and empowered, they can be the best managers of natural resources. Empowerment here also includes legal assistance apart from economic, technical and financial assistance.

In general, governments have the mandate to provide services but they need to strengthen their capacities to provide assistance to local communities. In short, the government must also be capable of change.

In pursuing the involvement of local communities in forest management, we also need to define “community-based” as a strategy. Is it mere inclusion of communities in

government-initiated activities? Or is it the recognition of the community as the core source of power that defines its existence and future?

Apart from the experiences of governments in Southeast Asia in community-based undertakings, other initiatives are also worthy of review where there were no projects introduced and yet people became organised. How are communities organised? In relation to this, we can raise the question of who are benefiting from community-based undertakings by various groups including that of governments. In whom are the access and control of resources vested? Who has the power? How are conflicts addressed? Do we have real co-operation and genuine partnership or mere collaboration in producing output or fund-driven activities?

POSSIBLE RESEARCH UNDERTAKINGS

By participating in this workshop, we hope to enhance our intention of pursuing “*Community-Based Development of Assisted Biodiversity Regeneration Methodologies*”. To contribute to the achievement of scenario B and considering forest restoration efforts in the Philippines, we hope to:

1. assess the rate of natural regeneration of floral communities through:
 - a) plant community mapping with local human communities and
 - b) scientific surveys combining training with incentives;
2. know the value of biodiversity to local communities through:
 - a) regular dialogues and understanding of relationships between local communities’ practices and natural regeneration of the floral community and
 - b) photo and process documentation;
3. allow local communities to understand their own knowledge in the scientific society’s plane and at the same time impart to partners (extension workers, assisting organisations, professionals, LGUs) the capability to understand communities’ methods;
4. produce an evolving handbook (on the premise that users will enhance it) from the experiences of partners and communities and
5. conduct process training for users of the handbook.

The above concerns will better equip those involved in forest restoration in understanding natural regeneration in the light of communities who are directly or indirectly dependent on forests. Therefore, policies and programmes will be sensitive not only to the condition of the forests but also to the communities who are most closely involved in forests.

ACRONYMS

ADMP	Ancestral Domain Management Programme
BFD	Bureau of Forest Development
CADC	Certificate of Ancestral Domain Claim
CADT	Certificate of Ancestral Domain Title
CBFM	Community-Based Forest Management
CBFMA	Community-Based Forest Management Agreement
CBFMP	Community-Based Forest Management Programme
CRMF	Community Resources Management Framework
CTF	Communal Tree Farming
DENR	Department of Environment and Natural Resources
FAO	Forestry Administrative Order
FAR	Family Approach to Reforestation
FOM	Forest Occupancy Management
IP	Indigenous People
IPRA	Indigenous Peoples Rights Act
LGU	Local Government Unit
NCIP	National Commission on Indigenous Peoples
NIPAS	National Integrated Protected Areas System
PAMB	Protected Areas Management Board
PD	Presidential Decree
POFAP	People-Oriented Forestry Action Programme
TLA	Timber Licence Agreement

ANNEX A. Description of Major Legislation, Policies, and Events Leading to the People-Oriented Forestry Action Programmes (POFAPs)

YEAR	POLICY/EVENT	BRIEF DESCRIPTION
1874	Banning of Kaingin-making or shifting slash and burn agriculture	Banned Kaingin Making
1889	Royal Decree of the King of Spain, "Definitive Forest Laws and Regulations"	Imposed heavy penalties on offenders- "kaingineros"
1901	Kaingin Law (Act 274)	Focused on prosecuting, imprisonment and ejection of kaingineros and other forest occupants from forest lands
1904	Forest Act (Act 1148)	Qualified the nature of kaingin making as an offense. Kaingin was no longer absolutely prohibited. It was punishable if done without authority
1939	Commonwealth Act (Act 447)	Allowed kaingin as may be authorized by the Director of Forestry. Lawful and unlawful status of the "kaingineros" remained unclear
1963	Revised Kaingin Law (RA 3701)	Defined actual occupants or occupants as residents, cultivators, those who introduced improvements and profit from the forest land
1964	Kaingin Council Meeting	Gathered representatives from government, private, and academic sectors to discuss the kaingin problem, which was recognised as not only technical or legal but also a socio-economic one
1965	National Conference on the Kaingin Problem	Recommended resettlement of "kaingineros" and increase of jobs in agricultural industries
1971	Kaingin Management and Land Settlement Regulations (FAO 62) Guidelines in the implementation of the Forest Occupancy Management Programme (BFD Circular 11)	Embodied the basic policies on kaingin management and signalled the government's formal adoption of Forest Occupancy (Kaingin) Management as a forest

YEAR	POLICY/EVENT	BRIEF DESCRIPTION
		development and conservation strategy. FAO 62 emphasised the resettlement or relocation of forest occupants while BFD circular focussed on the management -in - place of forest occupants
1974	Forestry Revised Code of the Philippines	Reiterated the implementation of forest occupancy management and relocation plans, agroforestry, census of forest occupants, and employment Created the Kaingin Management Section under the Forest Protection and Utilisation in the BFD
1975	Revised Forestry Code of the Philippines (PD 705)	Prescribed the census, management of forest occupants, and agroforestry development Provisional amnesty was granted to kaingineros who entered into forestlands prior to May 19, 1975, provided they do not increase their clearings and they undertake activities prescribed by BFD
1976	Forest Protection and Forest Occupancy (Kaingin) Management Plans for Timber Licenses and Permittees (BFD Circular 12)	Embodied the basic guidelines for the preparation, submission, and implementation of forest occupancy management plans by timber licencees and permittees
1977	Philippine Environmental Code (PD 1152)	Included in its provisions the implementation of kaingin management and agro-forestry
1978	Amending PD 705, Revised Forestry Code of the Philippines Complete Census of Forest Occupants (BFD Circular 2)	Emphasized the relocation of kaingineros and other forest occupants, whenever the best land use of the areas so demands, to the nearest and most accessible government resettlement areas Prescribed the instructions, guidelines, and procedures for complete census of forest occupants

YEAR	POLICY/EVENT	BRIEF DESCRIPTION
1979	<p>Regulations on Communal Tree Farming (Ministry Administrative Order 11)</p> <p>Creation of the CTF Development Staff in the Bureau of Forest Development (Ministry Administrative Order 2)</p> <p>Implementing Guidelines for Family Approach to Reforestation (BFD Circular 45)</p> <p>Revised Forest Protection and Forest Occupancy Management Plans for Timber Licensees and Permittees (BFD Circular 46)</p> <p>Delegation of authority for approving Forest Occupancy Permits to Regional Directors (BFD Order 117)</p> <p>Additional Guidelines in the Implementation of Forest Occupancy Management Program (BFD Circular 14)</p>	<p>Embodied the basic guidelines for implementing the Communal Tree Farming Programme and signalled the government's adoption of CTF as a strategy in reforestation and forest development</p> <p>Included the composition, organisational set-up, and functions of the CTF Development Staff in the BFD</p> <p>Embodied the basic guidelines for Family Approach to Reforestation Programme and signed the government's formal adoption of FAR as a strategy in reforestation and forest development</p> <p>Prescribed the preparation of four-year (1980-84) Forest Occupancy Management plans by timber licensees and permittees to be integrated in the District's Occupancy Management Plan</p> <p>Contained the delegated authority to BFD Regional Directors to approve/sign FOM permits</p> <p>Mandated the preparation of district-wide Forest Occupancy Management Plans</p>
1980	<p>Issuance of two-year term Forest Occupancy Permit under the Forest Occupancy Management Program (BFD Circular 9)</p>	<p>Provided for the extension of the term of Forest Occupancy Agreement Permits from one to two years, renewable for similar periods</p>
1981	<p>BFD Policy Directions for the 80s (Memorandum of the BFD Director)</p>	<p>Embodied the three major policy directions of BFD: Forestry for Environmental Development,</p>

YEAR	POLICY/EVENT	BRIEF DESCRIPTION
		Forestry for Industrial Development, and Forestry for Rural Development
1982	Presidential Letter of Instruction 1260	Launched the Integrated Social Forestry Programme and signalled the government's formal adoption of social forestry as a forest management and development strategy
1995	Executive Order 263	Declared the Community-Based Forest as the National Strategy for Forest land Management

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QUESTIONS AND COMMENTS

Masakazu Kashio

You said that logging was responsible for most of the deforestation in the Philippines, I think that there are other causes that are as significant, can you explain in more detail?

Marlea P. Munez

Logging is a major cause, not the only one. The Philippines had a logging boom when logging-technology was introduced in the 1900's. They exported logs for construction of ships, all over the world. This was followed by expansion of the industry in the 1960's and 70's for construction and for export, including wood-chips. Whenever forest resources were extracted, this was usually followed by migration of communities into the uplands to use them for farming. So there are many factors.

Masakazu Kashio

Logging causes degradation not deforestation?

Marlea P. Munez

Deforestation means clearing the forest and a loss of biomass, soils etc therefore it is degradation of forests too. It is all semantics. For sure the forest is gone and there is a dire need to integrate the views of government and forest communities in forest management. I cannot say what is most appropriate prescription is, but we need to understand and establish a dialogue between government. and communities and bring them together with scientists to put together methodologies for restoring forests.

Abdur Rashid

What is the proportion of benefit-sharing for communities from forest harvesting?

Marlea P. Munez

Officially there is no more forest cutting, but if you have a plantation under an agreement to harvest, 30% of your proceeds goes to a trust fund, and 70% is reinvested in public forest lands for the community. If you are harvesting secondary forest, you have to pay environmental fees to the government. At the current time a new secretary of DENR has suspended harvesting in community forestry projects.