

### Chapter 1 : Joint forest management in India and the impact of state control over non-wood forest products

*The Indian Forest Act, and the Forest Conservation Act, should be amended in relation to National Forest Policy and the Joint Forest Management resolution. Further the Indian Forest Act and the Conservation Act, need to be amended in relation to the Forest Policy and the Joint Forest Management Resolution.*

Case studies suggest that state NWFP monopolies may have disadvantages for the collectors and for the forests. The policy document asserts that local communities should be motivated to identify themselves with the development and protection of the forests from which they derive benefits. Thus, the policy envisages a process of joint management of forests by the state governments which have nominal responsibility and the local people, which would share both the responsibility for managing the resource and the benefits that accrue from this management. Under joint forest management JFM, village communities are entrusted with the protection and management of nearby forests. The areas concerned are usually degraded or even deforested areas. The communities are required to organize forest protection committees, village forest committees, village forest conservation and development societies, etc. Each of these bodies has an executive committee that manages its day-to-day affairs. With the increasing awareness of their economic potential and growing concerns for the sustainability of the resources and the distribution of the benefits derived from them, various state governments have taken over control of a number of NWFPs. This article, by looking at case studies of some selected NWFPs, questions whether this process has met its objectives - ensuring fair wages to the collectors, enhancing forest protection and increasing state revenues, for example - and examines its impact on joint forest management. First, NWFPs are integral to the lifestyle of forest-dependent communities. They fulfil basic requirements, provide gainful employment during lean periods and supplement incomes from agriculture and wage labour. Medicinal plants have an important role in rural health Prasad and Bhatnagar, In parts of West Bengal, communities derive as much as 17 percent of their annual household income from NWFP collection and sale Malhotra et al. Second, NWFPs have a decided advantage over timber in terms of the time needed to achieve significant volumes of commercially valuable production. Timber production is a long-term endeavour, and in many areas timber harvesting may not be ecologically desirable. Moreover, many NWFPs become available even in the earliest stages of rehabilitation of degraded forest areas. Third, at the national level over 50 percent of forest revenue and about 70 percent of forest export revenue comes from NWFPs, mostly from unprocessed and raw forms Tewari and Campbell ; Prasad, Shukla and Bhatnagar, Thus NWFP management has clear ecological, social and economic benefits. Managing forests for multiple products including NWFPs and adding value to them at the local level are two of the most pressing challenges facing the JFM programme. In attempts to optimize the production of multiple products to meet the objectives of the various stakeholders, due attention should be paid to the potential for sustainable production of NWFPs in forest management efforts, including JFM arrangements. The study was conducted in randomly selected households spread over six districts of Orissa Boudh, Pholbani, Keonjhar, Mayurbhanj, Sundargarh and Gajapati. It was observed that an average tribal family drew about one-half of its annual income from forests, 18 percent from agriculture, 13 percent from cattle and 18 percent from other employment. Approximately one-third of the products gathered from forests were traded. However, as the economic potential of NWFPs has become apparent, the intensity of collection has increased and more significant infrastructures for trade and processing have developed. This has raised concerns for the sustainability of the resources and the distribution of the benefits derived from them. In reaction to these concerns, a number of state governments have taken over the control of a number of NWFPs. Some of the explicit objectives for state monopoly of NWFP trade are: In most cases, trading is controlled through state-owned institutions such as state forest development corporations, federations, cooperatives and tribal societies. In Orissa, however, where the Forest Produce Control and Trade Act provides the scope for a state monopoly on certain selected forest products, the state also has the option to give monopoly leases for collection and trade of forest products. It is noteworthy that some of the 29 items yield very insignificant amounts of revenue yet have nevertheless been taken under the state monopoly. Collection and trade of tendu leaves under state monopoly The first NWFP

brought under state control was tendu leaves *Diospyros melanoxylon*, used to wrap traditional cigarettes bidi. This tree species is found in abundance in tropical deciduous forests, on wastelands to some extent and even on private holdings. The monopolization of tendu was rapidly followed by similar procedures for other economically important NWFPs, including sal seed *Shorea robusta*, gums and myrobalan *Terminalia chebula* and *Terminalia bellerica*. Before Madhya Pradesh adopted a cooperative structure for tendu leaf trade in , the collection of leaves as per official records ranged from 6 to 7 million standard bags Table 2. This was reduced to around 4 million standard bags per year after . The reduction did not result from a lack of resources, but rather from the rejection of leaves that would previously have been collected but were not of high enough quality for the cooperatives Prasad, Shukla and Bhatnagar. However, local manufacturers of bidi cigarettes have been known to buy additional tendu leaves directly from collectors. In Madhya Pradesh, collectors share in profits through a bonus plan at the end of each season. In Orissa, which is also rich in NWFPs, the collectors get only wages for collection; the bulk of the profit goes to the Forest Development Corporation, which has been given monopoly rights by the state government Agramee. As in Madhya Pradesh, collection of tendu leaves is being limited by a desire to collect only the best produce. State trading regulations promulgated by state governments State.

## Chapter 2 : Joint Forest Management in India: Case study of Gorela village | Planning Tankâ,ç

*The Indian Institute of Forest Management (IIFM) (founded ) is an autonomous, public institute of sectoral management located in Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh, India, established by the Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change, Government of India with financial assistance from the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency.*

Strategy to increase cover[ edit ] Forest around a lake in the Western Ghats of India Forest covered hills in Uttarakhand A NASA satellite image of India in April , showing forest cover and about to be harvested crop in its peninsula region. Indian Forest cover map created using Openstreetmap data map as of February In the s, India declared its long-term strategy for forestry development to compose of three major objectives: To achieve these objectives, the National Commission on Agriculture in recommended the reorganisation of state forestry departments and advocated the concept of social forestry. The commission itself worked on the first two objectives, emphasising traditional forestry and wildlife activities; in pursuit of the third objective, the commission recommended the establishment of a new kind of unit to develop community forests. Following the leads of Gujarat and Uttar Pradesh, a number of other states also established community-based forestry agencies that emphasized programmes on farm forestry, timber management, extension forestry, reforestation of degraded forests, and use of forests for recreational purposes. In the s, such socially responsible forestry was encouraged by state community forestry agencies. They emphasized such projects as planting wood lots on denuded communal cattle-grazing grounds to make villages self-sufficient in fuelwood, to supply timber needed for the construction of village houses, and to provide the wood needed for the repair of farm implements. Both individual farmers and tribal communities were also encouraged to grow trees for profit. For example, in Gujarat, one of the more aggressive states in developing programmes of socioeconomic importance, the forestry department distributed million tree seedlings in The fast-growing eucalyptus is the main species being planted nationwide, followed by pine and poplar. India must pursue rural development and animal husbandry policies to address local communities need to find affordable cattle fodder and grazing. To avoid destruction of local forest cover, fodder must reach these communities on reliable roads and other infrastructure, in all seasons year round. The Forest Rights Bill is likely to be harmful to forest conservation and ecological security. The Forest Rights Bill became a law since The government should work closely with mining companies. Revenue generated from lease of mines must be pooled into a dedicated fund to conserve and improve the quality of forests in the region where the mines are located. Power to declare ecologically sensitive areas must be with each Indian state. The mandate of State Forest Corporations and government owned monopolies must be changed. Government should reform regulations and laws that ban felling of trees and transit of wood within India. Sustainable agro-forestry and farm forestry must be encouraged through financial and regulatory reforms, particularly on privately owned lands. Many tribal are giving up their traditional livelihood and taking up farming and cattle rearing in the forest areas causing irreparable damage to forests. The erstwhile protectors of forests are slowly turning into the bane of forests and its wildlife. The government should devise schemes to avert this process and save the dwindling forest area and its flora and fauna. Tribal people have extraordinary understanding of forest flora and fauna which can be productively utilized. All the tribal peoples shall be employed by the government in the expansion and protection of forests and its wildlife till their descendants get educated and diversify into industrial and service sectors. India is a significant importer of forest products. This preference is explained by the availability of inexpensive labor and the large number of productive sawmills. Teak wood is typically seen as a benchmark with respect to grade and prices of other wood species. Major imported wood species are tropical woods such as mahogany, garjan, marianti, and sapeli. Plantation timber includes teak, eucalyptus, and poplar, as well as spruce, pine, and fir. India imports small quantities of temperate hardwoods such as ash, maple, cherry, oak, walnut, beech, etc. In , India imported million cubic metres of roundwood mostly for fuel wood application, Biodiversity in Indian forests[ edit ] Spotted Owlet - one of over bird species in Indian forests Asian Golden cat, one of the 15 feline species found in India Asian paradise flycatcher â€” A bird found in the forests of Himachal Pradesh and Uttarakhand. Indian forests are more than trees and an economic resource. Indian forests represent one of

the 12 mega biodiverse regions of the world. Over mammal species are found here. India has one of the richest variety of bird species on earth, hosting about Many of these flora and fauna species are endemic to India. Indian forests and wetlands serve as temporary home to many migrant birds. Trading in exotic birds[ edit ] India was, until , one of the largest exporters of wild birds to international bird markets. Most of the birds traded were parakeets and munias. Most of these birds were exported to countries in Europe and the Middle East. The passage of the law stopped the legal exports, but illegal trafficking has continued. In , for example, an attempt to smuggle some 10, wild birds was discovered, and these birds were confiscated at the Mumbai international airport. Tens of thousands of birds are trapped from the forests of India, and traded every month to serve the demand for bird pets. Another market driver for bird trapping and trade is the segment of Indians who on certain religious occasions, buy birds in captivity and free them as an act of kindness to all living beings of the world. Trappers and traders know of the need for piety in these people, and ensure a reliable supply of wild birds so that they can satisfy their urge to do good. The trappers, a detailed survey and investigation reveals are primarily tribal communities. The trappers lead a life of poverty and migrate over time. Their primary motivation was economics and the need to financially support their families. For every bird that reaches the market for a sale, many more die. Instead of criminalising their skills at finding, recognising, attracting and capturing birds, India should offer them employment to re-apply their skills through scientific management, protection and wildlife preservation. Allow captive and humane breeding of certain species of birds, to satisfy the market demand for pet birds. Better and continuous enforcement to prevent trapping practices, stop trading and end smuggling of wild birds of India through neighboring countries that have not banned trading of wild birds. Education and continued media exposure of the ecological and environmental harm done by wild bird trade, in order to reduce the demand for trapped wild birds as pets. The role of forests in the national economy and in ecology was further emphasized in the National Forest Policy, which focused on ensuring environmental stability, restoring the ecological balance, and preserving the remaining forests. Other objectives of the policy were meeting the need for fuelwood, fodder, and small timber for rural and tribal people while recognising the need to actively involve local people in the management of forest resources. Also in , the Forest Conservation Act, [26] was amended to facilitate stricter conservation measures. In June , the central government adopted resolutions that combined forest science with social forestry, that is, taking the sociocultural traditions of the local people into. The cumulative area afforested during the period was nearly , square kilometres. However, despite large-scale tree planting programmes, forestry is one arena in which India has actually regressed since independence. Annual fellings at about four times the growth rate are a major cause. Widespread pilfering by villagers for firewood and fodder also represents a major decrement. In addition, the National Forest Policy noted, the forested area has been shrinking as a result of land cleared for farming and development programmes. Between and , as evidenced by satellite data, India has reversed the deforestation trend. Chipko Movement Chipko movement in India started in the s around a dispute on how and who should have a right to harvest forest resources. What caused Chipko is now a subject of debate; some neopopulists theorise Chipko as an environmental movement and an attempt to save forests, while others suggest that Chipko movement had nothing to do with eco-conservation, but was driven primarily to demand equal rights to harvest forests by local communities. According to one set of writers: Since the early s, as they realised that deforestation threatened not only the ecology but their livelihood in a variety of ways, people have become more interested and involved in conservation. The best known popular activist movement is the Chipko Movement, in which local women under the leadership of Chandi Prasad Bhatt and Sunderlal Bahuguna , decided to fight the government and the vested interests to save trees. The residents declared that they would embraceâ€”literally "to stick to" chipkna in Hindi --trees to prevent cutting of ash trees in their district. These scientists point out that very little is left of the Chipko movements today in its region of origin save for its memory, even though the quality of forests and its use remains a critical issue for India. To explain the cause of Chipko movement, they find that government officials had ignored the subsistence issues of the local communities, who depended on forests for fuel, fodder, fertiliser and sustenance resources. These researchers claim that local interviews and fact finding confirms that local communities had filed complaints requesting the right to commercially exploit the forests around them.

Their requests were denied, while permits to fell trees and exploit those same forests were granted to government-favoured non-resident contractors including a sporting company named Symonds. A protest that became Chipko movement followed. The movement grew and Indian government responded by imposing a year ban on felling all trees above metres in the region directly as a result of the Chipko agitations. This legislation was deeply resented by many communities supporting Chipko because, the regulation further excluded the local people from the forest around them. The people behind Chipko movement felt that the government did not understand or care about their economic situation. A major threat to forests of India are in its northeastern states. From ancient times, the locals have practiced slash-and-burn shifting cultivation to grow food. The tribal people consider it a tradition, and economic ecosystem. However, the slash and burn causes damage to a dense forest, to soil, to flora and fauna, as well as pollution. The crop yields are very poor with jhum cultivation. Between and , satellite studies confirmed a net loss of forest cover over these northeastern states. There is a concerted effort by the state government officials to educate, incentivize and train jhum dependent families to horticulture and other high value crops, along with an offer of food supply security. Bamboo-based textiles and value added forest products industries are also being encouraged by the local officials. Mafia raj A publication claimed that protected forest areas in several parts of India, such as Jammu and Kashmir , Himachal Pradesh , Karnataka and Jharkhand, were vulnerable to illegal logging by timber mafias that have coopted or intimidated forestry officials, local politicians, businesses and citizenry.

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*Forest Management in India! There is an urgent need for bringing to halt the ecological degradation in the form of deforestation which in turn results in soil erosion, desertification and harmful climatic conditions.*

Major Specialization[ edit ] A student can have single or dual specialization. A student has to opt for one major specialization by opting minimum 8. The total credit to be taken in the V and VI terms is 6. Minor Specialization[ edit ] A student can also have a minor specialization by opting 4. The choice of opting for minor specialization rests with the students. The minor specialization will not be mentioned on the diploma, but it can be mentioned on transcript. Classroom Sessions Per Course[ edit ] The students are required to complete 43 credits including one credit for fieldwork and two credits for Summer Internship. A one-credit course is of 30 classroom sessions of one hour each and half credit course is of fifteen classroom sessions of one hour each. Each credit course requires from a student about hours of work, inside and outside the classroom. Phil program in , to create future global leaders in field of Environment and Natural resources sector. For open category candidates written test and an interview is conducted. The written test has three components namely English ability, Analytical ability and Natural Resource Management aptitude. The Institute shall set a cutoff limit for the written examination. Candidates qualifying the written test shall be invited for the interview. Based on the performance in the interview a merit list of suitable candidates will be released for admission. The programme consist of i core courses ii special components in the form of field study tours, seminars, panel discussions and experiential presentations and iii Dissertation, which is the centre stage of the program. The course lays emphasis on self-growth through seminars, fieldwork, case studies, and class room discussions. The classroom sessions are designed to provide basic knowledge and practical understanding of concepts, tools and techniques in Natural Resource Management. Core Courses[ edit ] The core courses provides the theoretical underpinning, conceptual and analytical tools and fundamentals on which subsequent parts of the M. Phil Programme are to be built. These courses strengthen the understanding of students on Natural Resource Management in general and climate change in particular. Study tour[ edit ] Students are given field exposure through study tour once at one of the sites where work related to Natural Resource Management is going on. The purpose of the study tour shall be to expose and sensitize the participants to the conditions prevailing in natural resource management sector. This helps in developing linkage between theory and practice and improves their ability to analyze the situations. The field study shall provide an opportunity to examine various natural resource management policies that are being implemented in India and their impact on environment and people. They will also examine the interplay of various forces and their implications in the delivery of Governmental Programmes. The presentation also revolve around innovations in policy formulation, project planning and implementation etc either at the field level or regional or National level. Dissertation[ edit ] The dissertation component shall occupy the centre stage in the M. Participants are expected to undertake a thorough literature review of the chosen subject area, make an in-depth analysis of a specific problem and examine its ramifications. The research proposal outlining the research questions and the methodology to be adopted would constitute the first stage. The topic for the dissertation will be finalized after the research proposal is approved by the concerned supervisor. Participants would be encouraged to start working on their dissertations as early as possible. The participants shall be making a substantial contribution to the theory and practice of natural resource management in area of their interest and demonstrate their analytical skills in the process. The thesis work should be carried out under the guidance and supervision of a faculty member of the Institute. However co-supervisor can be opted from either IIFM or other organizations. Future prospects of M. The programme equips students with knowledge and skill to start a career in: Development sector and contribute significantly in improving livelihood opportunities like eco-tourism etc. Managing Natural Resources by way of conserving and protecting scare resources like wildlife, water, non- renewable energy resources, application of renewable energyhttp:

## Chapter 4 : Joint Forest Management (JFM) in India

*The forests of India have been known to be one of the richest in terms of vegetation types and species diversity, and are classified into sixteen major forest types ranging from the Himalayan temperate forests to dry zone forests.*

Contact Us Search Historically, Indian forest policies have alienated people from the forests, thereby, exacerbating the rates of deforestation. Post-independence forest policies contributed to an expansion in agricultural production, met industrial demand for raw materials, and tightened control of forest lands through restricted access to forests and forest products. Protection policies increased the hardships of vulnerable social groups by denying them access to forests. While the state took responsibility for managing forest resources, it did not have the commensurate resources to effectively manage and police the forests from traditional users. Before state intervention, forests were managed as communal property; the crucial role of forests in the economic subsistence of individuals, families and community was the basis for managing them as communal resources. A failure to recognize community control of forests led to a collapse in institutional norms that were instrumental in protecting and managing forest resources for local use. A shift in property rights to the state steadily undermined the rights of tribals to use and extract forest resources. Involvement of rural communities living close to forests in protection and management of forest resources is enshrined in the National Forest Policy Translation of policy found expression in the resolution of Government of India, Ministry of Environment and Forests issued in June It envisaged that in lieu of the participation, the local communities will be entitled to sharing of usufructs in a manner specified by the concerned State Forest Departments. The objectives of the network are i to act as a regular mechanism of consultation between various agencies engaged in JFM work in the country and ii To obtain constant feedback from various stakeholders on the JFM programme for proper policy formulation and suitable direction to States. The proportion of land area covered by forest globally is one of the indicators for the seventh MDG i. Forests and the Millennium Development Goals The MDGs call for the integration of the principles of sustainable development into environmental policies. Environmental sustainability is being mainstreamed in forest policies around the world, particularly since UNCED, while the integration of the goals of poverty and hunger reduction in forest policies and plans is less widespread. Community-based forestry, or participatory forestry, is particularly well placed to address poverty reduction. Community-based forestry is now well accepted and established in various countries in all regions, and programmes are beginning to generate financial and other benefits. However, much still remains to be done to clarify and secure access rights. Many countries are working to strengthen forest governance, some through decentralization processes that allow the poor to derive more benefits from forests and be more involved in decision-making and forest management itself. Although improving rights and access to forest resources and developing small-holder forest-based enterprises including through community-private sector partnerships show particular promise for poverty reduction, local political and economic realities, opportunity costs for the use of local resources, and other factors may prevent the poor from benefiting from community-based forestry programmes to the extent intended. Intersectoral coordination is important for the achievement of all MDGs, but is particularly critical for reducing poverty and hunger and ensuring environmental sustainability, which are highly cross-sectoral by nature. Improved intersectoral cooperation and coordination will help efforts both to integrate the principles of sustainable development into forest-related policies and to integrate forests into sustainable development plans. Joint Forest Management Forest-based poverty reduction efforts tend to be linked to other land uses and should form a part of rural development strategies. Conversely, the potential for forests and trees outside forests to contribute to environmental sustainability cannot be fully realized without intersectoral cooperation and coordination. Intersectoral coordination, although difficult and time consuming, is necessary for sound decisions on land use and resource allocation, particularly when there are trade-offs between national development goals. National Forest Policy in India treats forests as environmental and social resource. With the initiative of assigning ownership of Non Timber forest Produce NTFP to the local communities including the grass root level democratic institution for enhancing their livelihood opportunities and also improving their income with the

value addition. India has shifted the approach of forest management from regulatory to participatory mode of management with the resolution promulgated in 1982. At present, more than 17 million forests are managed by almost 10,000 Joint Forest Management Committees with the benefit sharing mechanism. In addition, the Government of India is in process to frame legislation for the settlement of tenurial rights of the forest dwelling communities mainly tribal on forests. This would definitely help in reducing the poverty of forest dwelling communities. JFM is a government resolution. A government resolution is an executive order or opinion of the legislature. A resolution does not have any legal backing. JFM as the term indicates is the management of forest by more than one party. In India there are two parties: There are two major reasons behind introducing JFM: The first National Forest Policy was adopted in 1952. Following were the guide lines: Ensure maintenance of adequate forest cover, Meet the needs of local people, Collect maximum revenue after meeting the needs of the local people, Give priority to permanent cultivation over forestry land. In post independent India there was a shift in policy. In 1982, the new forest policy was adopted which covered all the sustainable management approaches. The new policy had a few unique features. Which were as follows; Maintenance of environmental stability and restoration of ecological balance, soil and water conservation, Conservation of natural heritage and genetic resources, Increasing productivity to meet the local needs then the national need, Creating massive peoples participation movement to protect forest and tree cover and achieve the objective of reducing pressure on existing forests and meeting peoples need. Deriving economic benefits must be subordinated to these principal aims. This initiated a process of reform at the local policy and operational level of forest management ensuring that the Forest Department developed close collaboration for protection and sustainable management of forests. The aim was "Involvement of village communities and voluntary agencies of degraded forest land. Important guidelines were as follows: The program should be implemented under an arrangement between a voluntary agency or beneficiaries and the State Department. No ownership rights or lease should be given over the forest land. The beneficiaries should be entitled to share usufructs to the extent and subject to conditions prescribed by the State Government. Access to forest land usufructs should be available only to benefactors who get organized into a village institution especially for forest regeneration and protection. This could be through a village panchayat or a Village Forest Committee. The beneficiaries should be given usufructs like grass, lops and tops of branches and minor forest produce. If they successfully protect the forest they will be a portion from the sale proceeds when they mature. Areas selected from the program should be free from claims from any person who is both a beneficiary under the scheme. The selected site should be worked in accordance of Working Scheme duly approved by the state government. Such a scheme may remain in operation for ten years and revised after that. The working scheme is prepared in consultation of with the beneficiaries It should ensure that there is no grazing at all on the forest land protected by the Village Forest Committee. Permission to cut and carry grass free of cost should be given so that stall feeding is promoted. No agriculture should be promoted on the forest land. Cutting of trees should not be permitted before they are ripe for harvesting. The Forest Department should not be permitted to cut to cut trees protected by the Village Forest Committee except in a manner prescribed in the working scheme. In case of emergency needs the village community should be taken into confidence. The Forest Department should closely supervise the work. If beneficiaries are unable to perform their assigned duties in a satisfactory manner the usufructory benefits will be withdrawn without giving any compensation. Such set-up, however suffered from certain flaws: The aim was to decentralize the process and make JFMC. Now on the same resource base i. There is an obvious unequal distribution of benefit sharing between the parties. However states like Rajasthan are not following this provision. This amendment came into force in on 24th April. It institutionalized the third stratum of government Panchayats at the local level. It does not clarify whether self government means complete autonomously or extension of the state. It is left to states to derive their own interpretation regarding the nature of self government at the local level. Thus this will defeat the purpose of uniformity regarding the nature and concept of self government at an all India level. This task is left to the state legislatures. Again defeating the purpose of uniformity. The consequences will be such that either the states will deny power to the panchyats instead of becoming autonomous local governing units they will basically remain in bureaucratic control. The burecratic trend can be seen most of the states. It is seen in the

State of Goa power and functions have not yet been transferred to the Panchayats. As per the law there should be continuous elections every five years. However the statistics says that this status is not achieved in most of the states. None of the states except WestBengal, Tripura and Rajasthan have not been able to hold continuous elections every five years. The judgment provided by the Supreme Court states that it is mandatory for every state to hold elections to Panchayat. Giving powers to the third stratum of government for effective management of resources at the district ,intermediate and village level. Parallel institutions have come about for management of the natural resources which. With the ST population making up 8. The Beginning of Land alienation Introduction of the alien concept of private property began with the Permanent Settlement of the British in and the establishment of the "Zamindari" system that conferred control over vast territories, including Adivasi territories, to designated feudal lords for the purpose of revenue collection by the British. The predominant external caste-based religion sanctioned and practiced a rigid and highly discriminatory hierarchical ordering with a strong cultural mooring. After the transfer of power, the rulers of the Residency Areas signed the "Deed of Accession" on behalf of the ruled on exchange they were offered privy purse. No deed was however signed with most of the independent Adivasi states. They were assumed to have joined the Union. The government rode rough shod on independent Adivasi nations and they were merged with the Indian Union. The Constitution of India, which came into existence on 26 January , prohibits discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth Article 15 and it provides the right to equality Article 14 , to freedom of religion Articles and to culture and education Articles STs are supposedly addressed by as many as Articles and 2 special schedules of the Constitution - Articles and special schedules which are protective and paternalistic. Article and provides for classification of Scheduled Castes the untouchable lower castes and STs, while Articles , and provides for reservation of seats in Parliament and Assemblies. Out of this By the process of colonisation of the forests that began formally with the Forest Act of and finally the Indian Forest Act of , the rights of Adivasis were reduced to mere privileges conferred by the state. The Imperial Forest Department was formed in

**Chapter 5 : Forest Management in India**

*The Indian Forest Policy of (MoEF, ) and the subsequent government resolution on participatory forest management (MoEF, ) emphasize the need for people's participation in natural forest management.*

This was the beginning of the Imperial Government exercising its control over the Indian Forests, disregarding the previous set of complex rules and regulations woven around socio cultural features and economic activities of the local communities. However the appointment of the commission to assess and enquire the availability of teak failed to conserve the forests, rather it allowed the conservator of forests to plunder and loot the forests. This post was eventually abolished in the year A. D but only after significant damage done to the forests. Therefore the first phase from AD to AD failed to conserve forests as the appointed conservator of forests plundered the forest wealth. This period between phase 1 and phase II was devastating for the Indian forests. Since the local communities and tribes in the forests had already lost their claim over the forests, there were no rules and regulations local or otherwise to maintain the forest cover. Therefore for imperial consideration and absence of any British policies, independent contractors both Indian and European seized the opportunity to cut down the forest cover and use the supply of wood for export, for British navy, for local constructions i. These private contractors were chiefly responsible for the devastation of the forests. Phase 2 This phase marks the beginning of a new era under which we see an attempt being made to formulate new policies for organised forest management in India; legislate the implementation of such policies and some intention of taking administrative steps to conserve forests. The first inspector general of the forest was appointed in After this, the systematic management of forests started. The tasks assigned under the supervision of the inspector general of the forests were mammoth. It ranged from the exploration of resources, demarcation of reserves, protection of forest from fire, assessment of growing stock. Thus the objective of this appointment changed from obtaining timber to protecting and improving forests cover. Along with the appointment, the necessity of treating forests as state property was felt. Forest Act The first step towards asserting the state monopoly over the forest was the enactment of the Forest Act, This Act empowered the government to appropriate any land that is covered with trees. The purpose for promulgating Forest Act, is mentioned in section 2. It also empowers the state to make rules and regulation regarding the management of the same by way of notification provided that such notification should not abridge or affect any existing rights of individuals or communities. Thus, in the name of "scientific management, the Act was an attempt to obliterate centuries of customary use of the forests by rural population all over India " Guha and Gadgil The Act of was refused to be enacted by the Madras Presidency. The Presidency argued that the rights of the villagers over waste lands and jungles were important. In AD, a conference of forest officers was held. The conference went into the defects of the Act. The main proposed task before them was to reverse a process which the Britishers had initiated. The Act was now seen as Worthless. By reversing the initiation they would allow the villagers to exercise user rights unhindered. All the provisions of the Act were found to be defective. The only exception made was to the provision pertaining to arrest. The major lacunae of the Act was that the act provided for the protection of forests but only after it had been selected and declared as Government forest. It was argued that for effective control, State as a sovereign, should have the power to protect any forest for demarcation and management. The main driving force behind the Act of were commercial consideration and revenue generation. In fact, all the provisions of the Act were found to be defective, except Section 8. The Act had only 19 Sections, the Act was comprehensive comprising of 83 Sections, divided into 14 Chapters and a Preamble. The primary objective of the Act was the establishment of absolute state property rights over forests. This was done along with the legal separation of customary rights. The guiding force behind such demarcation were based on commercial benefits. Rights were those which existed earlier and referred to those assertions that existed which were recorded in earlier land settlements by giving them strict legalisitic interpretation. The distinction, by one stroke of the executive pen, attempted to obliterate centuries of customary use by rural populations all over India. Gadgil and Guha, , p. According to reserved forests Chapter II of the Act , the lands were the absolute property of the government. In protected forests Chapter IV of the Act , the lands were the property of the

government but the use-rights of the villagers remained. Village forests consisted of residue forest wastelands with hardly any forest department control. Village forests were largely residue of wastelands with no forest department control. On the other hand the reserved and protected were guided by the commercial revenues from profit of the timber. Initially, those areas needed for the requirements of India and for export to England were designated as reserved forests. It was very difficult to assess the demand needs right away as time went by, the area under reserved forests increased. The conversion was directly proportional to the ever increasing demand of timber. In India the requirement for railway sleepers grew exponentially. By 1850 it was not possible to meet the demands. Each sleeper was calculated to last between 12 to 14 years. The rate at which the railway grew was greater than what was then calculated. The estimation suggested that it expanded from kilometers of track in 1825 to 51, kilometers of track in 1850. It was very well known that the victories of England during its war with Napoleon and maritime expansion [5] was due to the permanent supply of durable timber from India for royal navy [6]. Guha, Initially only three kinds of trees, deodar, teak and sal were used for railway sleepers. However, around 1850, research proved that the blue and chir pines were also suited for this purpose. In the next few years, the extensive pine forests of Garhwal and Kumaon regions were reserved. See Stebbing, Vol. Stebbing, The Forests of India, Vol.

## Chapter 6 : Forestry in India - Wikipedia

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**Joint Forest Management in India: Varma 3 Abstract** The forest policy in India has undergone major changes leading to increased involvement of the forest dependent communities in sustainably managing the forest resources on which they depend. In India, the joint forest management approaches lack such clarity of definition. It gives rise to institutional developments often in conflict with the aspirations of the communities involved. The decentralised governance for sustainable management of the forest resources needs transformation from collaborative servitude to ownership of the stakeholders. This paper discusses these issues in detail with particular reference to India. It analyses the status of the joint forest management of the various categories of the forests that evolved through various policy tools and strategies relying on community participation. Based on this analysis, it argues that success of the management of forests through community partnership depends on the level of the ownership of the forests vested in the stakeholders. This may lead to more sustainable management and utilisation of the forest resources in India.

**Introduction** The management of natural resources in India has primarily addressed the concerns for biodiversity and environment conservation while attempting to meet the livelihood need of the rural people TERI The challenge to meet gap between the demand for fuelwood, fodder, timber and non-timber forest products and physical availability of the resources required has necessitated a reorientation in the forest policy framework with increased stress on the participation of the forest dependent population. Since , it has led to the approaches based on participatory management to achieve sustainability of the resources. At the same time, the policy instruments in India have also undergone changes manifested through the reorientation of national forest policies enunciated in the years , and NFP., The community and partnership processes in forest management in India have evolved with a great emphasis on the relationships between man and the forests. However, meaningful community participation entails adequate institutional support with legal strength. Through various changes in policy guidelines at the national level, the institutional framework has evolved to a stage where issue of moving from servitude to ownership rights has become critical to the success of the participatory approaches to manage forest resources sustainably. The basic legal framework Since the statement of forest policy of , the management of the forest resources has been backed by adequate legal framework. It envisaged classification of the forest resources with ownership vested in the government institutions. Following the strategy of Joint Forest Management MoEF , various states have adopted the guidelines with suitable modifications according to the local needs. These Committees numbering about 63, cover The question arises whether the success of management of the forest resources would be achieved by reorientation of the management strategy towards devolution of the authority to forest dependent communities without the consideration of the ownership of the forest to the communities. Ostrom has analyzed in detail the issue of private versus common property rights with respect to sustainability of natural resources Ostrom ., Following five property rights are most relevant for the use of common pool resources: The right to obtain resources units or products of a resource system e. The right to regulate internal use pattern and transform the resources by making improvements Exclusions: The right to determine who will have the access rights and withdrawal rights and how these rights may be transferred Alienations: The right to sell or lease the management and exclusion rights The property rights defined above relate to individuals or collectives. The bundle of rights associated with the position is given below Table 1. Table 1 Bundles of Rights Associated with Position.

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*Joint Forest Management - History The policies and guidelines of JFM were started in Indian National Forest Policy by central govt. to encourage people's participation in forest management, protection and conservation As an outcome of the forest policy, JFM started in West Bengal's Bakura district, where Ajit Banerjee, a silviculturist, was conducting his*

trails in [Read more](#) â†’.

### Chapter 8 : Joint Forest Management in India by Timothy Hefflinger on Prezi

*Joint Forest Management in India. On the bases of the National Forest Policy of , the environment and forest ministry of Indian Government declared the decision of contribution of local community and volunteer organization to develop forest in barren and eroded soil by a circular.*

### Chapter 9 : Forest Management In India

*various Forest Policies of Orissa in general and Forest Management System in particular. The main objective of the thesis is to focus light on the role of Panchayati Raj Institutions in forest resource management in the scheduled area.*