- 1 Assessment of dependency and consumption pattern of different forest products by the
- 2 forest fringe villages of Shivalik Himalaya, Uttarakhand, India
- 3 Jiju, JS^{*1, 2}, Soumya Dasgupta¹, Amit Kumar¹, Mohit Gera²
- 4 * Corresponding author Jiju J. S.
- 5 1- Wildlife institute of India, Chandrabani, Dehradun, India- 248001
- 6 2- Indira Gandhi National Forest Academy, Dehradun, India 248006
- 7 Jiju J. S. Researcher, Wildlife Institute of India, Chandrabani, Dehradun, India-248001 and
- 8 Indira Gandhi National Forest Academy, Dehradun, India. Email jiju.ujij88@gmail.com. Phone
- 9 -+91-9458124382
- 10 Dr. Soumya Dasgupta, Project Associate, Wildlife Institute of India, Chandrabani, Dehradun,
- 11 India 248001. Email dgsoumya84@gmail.com
- 12 Dr. Amit Kumar. Scientist C, Wildlife Institute of India, Chandrabani, Dehradun, India -248001.
- 13 Email <u>amit@wii.gov.in</u>.
- 14 Dr. Mohit Gera, Professor academics and Member Secretary REDD Plus Cell, Indira Gandhi
- 15 National Forest Academy, Dehradun, India. Email mohitgera87@gmail.com
- 16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

30 Assessment of dependency and consumption pattern of different forest products by the

31 forest fringe villages of Shivalik Himalaya, Uttarakhand, India

32 Abstract:

Forest are essential for human beings for the enormous services it gives for livelihood and 33 subsistence in the developing countries. We estimated the consumption and extraction levels of 34 three major forest products viz., timber, fuelwood, and fodder in 20 forest fringe villages of the 35 Timli forest range of Uttarakhand, India. We used a questionnaire-based household-level survey 36 to collect information on the household economy and dependence of 380 households selected 37 through stratified random sampling. We estimated that 69% of the overall yearly timber 38 consumption of 20 villages, which comes around 2750 cubic meters (cum), was extracted from 39 the nearby forest. The average timber consumption was 0.52 ± 0.22 cum household⁻¹ vear⁻¹. We 40 estimated the total annual fuelwood and fodder consumption to be 298913.89, and 204475 41 Quintal (Qt). The average fuelwood and fodder consumption were estimated to be 417.6 Quintal 42 household⁻¹ year⁻¹ and 49 \pm 9.1 Qt. household⁻¹ year⁻¹. We did general linear regression analysis 43 44 to assess major biophysical and socio-economic determinants of villages and households for dependency on timber, fuelwood, and fodder. We found that the population of the village, 45 distance from forest, distance from market, and annual average income are the major 46 determining factors for timber, fodder, and fuelwood demand of the villages. Extraction of 47 48 timber and non-timber forest products was the primary cause of depletion of forest biomass and forest carbon emission. Conservation effective management strategies in collaboration with all 49 50 the stakeholder departments are needed to conserve forest resources with minimum extraction pressure from forest fringe villages of the study area. 51

52 Keywords: Himalayan foothills, forest dependency, NTFP, biomass utilization,

- 53
- 54 55
- 56
- 57
- 58
- 59

60 Highlights

61	• Questionnaire based household level survey was done to assess extraction and consumption
62	patter of fuelwood, fodder and timber in Shivalik range of Uttarakhand, India.
63	• Fuelwood and Timber consumption was found high compared to other studies in the low
64	altitude areas.
65	• 69% of total timber and 62% of the total fodder requirement met from the adjacent forest
66	areas.
67	• Population of the village, distance from the forest and nearby market place, and annual
68	average income were the major determinants of dependency of different forest products.
69	
70	
71	
72	
73	
74	
75	
76	
77	
78	
79	
80	
81	
82	
83	
84	
85	

86

87 **1. Introduction**

Forest is an important natural resource for rural livelihood providing various services (Hussain et 88 al 2019, Wunder et al 2014). Fuelwood is one of the oldest sources of energy known to man and 89 90 used for over 500,000 years (Sharpe 1976), and by 2.7 billion people along with other traditional biomass, such as dung and agricultural by-products (IEA, 2010, 2017, Rahut et al 2016). In 91 developing and underdeveloped countries, fuelwood is still the most important source of energy 92 (Banyal et al 2013). Along with it, fodder and timber are the other forest products most 93 94 commonly used by the rural people in developing nations (Singh and Sundrival 2009, Nagothu 2001). More than one-third of the total energy demand, especially in the domestic sector of the 95 96 developing countries' rural population met through extracted biomass (Natarajan 1985; Vasudevan and Santosh 1987; FAO 2007). In developing countries, 70% of rural households use 97 fuelwood as primary energy sources for cooking and space heating (Mishra 2008). Dependency 98 on forest and other associated resources as the primary energy source were very high, especially 99 100 in the rural areas of the developing countries (Hussain et al 2019). As for example, the 101 dependency on forest biomass as primary source of energy was up to 87% in India (Madhu 2009, 102 and Bhatt et al 2016), 77% in Nepal (Benato et al 2016), 78% in Bhutan (Rana et al 2016), 73% 103 in Bangladesh (Huda et al 2014), 38.82% in Myanmar (Wen et al., 2017), 30% in Malawi 104 (Fisher, 2004); up to 39% in western Ethiopia (Mamo et al., 2007); 40% in Zimbabwe 105 (Cavendish, 2000) and up to 80% in Sub Saharan Africa (Sassen et al 2015). Fuelwood 106 extraction often leads to forest degradation when the extraction is high, forest resources are 107 limited, and alternative energy resources such as kerosene or Liquid Petroleum Gas (LPG) are unavailable (Kohl et al 2015, Specht et al 2015, WEC 2016, Nagothu 2001). 108

109 Agriculture and livestock rearing are significant livelihood sources in the villages situated near the forest areas (Kumar et al 2019). In turn, rearing livestock depends extensively on the forest, 110 as forests are the major source of grass and fodder for livestock like bovine and ruminants reared 111 by the villagers (Velho et al 2018, Nayak et al 2012). Open and uncontrolled grazing practices in 112 113 Indian forests have an adverse impact on growing stock and regeneration (Agarwala et al 2016). 114 Forest in India can support about 30 million livestock grazing, whereas 270 million cattle graze 115 in (ICFRE 2001). According to Roy and Singh (2008), the estimated annual requirement and 116 availability of dry fodder was to be 569 Metric Ton (MT) and 385 MT, and that of green fodder

117 was to be 1025 MT and 356 MT, respectively. The difference in the requirement and availability 118 clearly explains the high pressure on India's forest due to the livestock population and how the 119 demand for more fodder contributes to forest degradation in the country's human-dominated 120 landscapes.

121 In India, around 275 million people, coming around 40% of the country's total poor population live in the forest fringes and depend on the forest for their livelihood (Velho et al 2018, Nayak et 122 123 al 2012, World Bank 2006). On the other hand, more than 40% of the forests in the country are 124 understocked and degraded (Aggarwal et al 2009; Bahuguna et al 2004). Gera et al (2017) 125 revealed a loss of approximately 16% carbon from 1998 to 2014 due to forest degradation. Various factors starting from geographic to demographic and socio-economic are responsible for 126 127 the degradation (Imai et al 2018, Rustagi et al 2010, Agarwal 2007). An increase in the agriculture depended population having low income, large and unproductive bovine population, 128 129 restricted means of livelihood resulting in a vicious cycle of poverty exerting tremendous 130 pressure on forests and make the ecosystem fragile to come back to its previous state (Davidar et al 2010). The adverse impacts of climate change will be additional pressure on the already 131 vulnerable vegetation (Shrestha et al 2018, Chaturvedi et al 2011), and can significantly affect 132 the flow of services from forests in terms of both quality and quantity (Nelson et al 2013; 133 134 Scholes 2016). The impact will be on the forest dependent communities deriving their livelihood needs from the collection, handling, value addition, and selling of Non-Timber Forest Products, 135 136 as the availability of many of the NTFPs is likely to be decreased more in the effect of climate 137 change compared to timber and fuelwood (Robeldo and Forner 2005).

The socio-economic profile of an area determines the resource use pattern and enables the 138 management authorities to prioritize the needs of the people inhabiting the area (Sharma et al 139 140 2009, Jain 2010, Barnes et al. 2011; Lee et al. 2013; Bansal et al. 2013). Additionally, in the current scenario, forest resources are insufficient, and forest degradation is happening at a faster 141 rate (Gera et al. 2017). Effective human welfare and biodiversity conservation requires an 142 understanding of household and village level factors determining the current patterns of forest 143 144 resource dependencies and the potential changes in the future (Velho et al 2018, Ofoengbu et al 145 2017). It is crucial to evaluate the relationship between wealth and other socio-economic factors 146 like livelihood patterns and socio-political assets modulating forest resources dependencies (Mascia et al 2014, Belchar et al 2015). In the present study, we estimated the extraction and consumption pattern of fuelwood, timber and fodder by the forest fringe villages of Timli reserve forest of Uttarakhand. We assessed the preferred species used as fuelwood and timber by the villagers. We also evaluated the demographic and socio-economic determinants of different forest resource extraction to understand the future conservation and developmental policy formulation for protection of diversity and integrity of the forest structure as well as decrease the resource dependency of the villagers of the study area.

154 2. Study area

The Shivalik landscape (29°57' to 31°20'N and 77°35' to 79°20'E) is the youngest of all the 155 mountains in India and is significant biogeographically, as it has representative taxa from both 156 157 Indo-Malayan to Palaearctic regions (Rawat and Mukherjee 2005). The fragile land formations, 158 subtropical to a tropical climate, varied topography, and alluvial soil characterizes the region 159 with undulating terrain intersected by seasonal streams (locally known as *Rau*) that drain this 160 region (Johnsingh et al 2004; Rawat and Mukherjee 2005). We conducted the study in the forest 161 fringe villages of the Timli Range of Shivalik region of Uttarakhand state, India (Figure 1). The study area is situated in the eastern part of Doon valley (30°19' to 30°32'N and 77°34' to 162 78°0'E) with an area of 99.07 km², and falls under the Kalsi Soil Conservation Forest Division 163 164 of Shiwalik Circle of Uttarakhand. The entire study area comprises 21 villages and 34 households (Gujjar Deras) of Gujjar's, having a total population of 52,162 people (Census India 165 data 2011). The Yamuna River bounds most of the forest area in the northwest and Shiwalik 166 ridge in the south. The vegetation of this region mainly consists of tropical moist deciduous 167 forests dominated by Shorea robusta and its major associates such as Mallotus philippensis, 168 Lagerstroemia parviflora, Ehretia laevis, Terminalia tomentosa and plantations of Tectona 169 170 grandis, Eucalyptus and Bamboo species. As per Champion and Seth (1968), Moist Shiwalik Sal forests (3C/C2a), Dry Shiwalik Sal Forests (5B/C1a), Northern Dry Mixed Deciduous Forests 171 172 (5B/C2), and Low Alluvial Savannah Woodland (3/1S1) are the major forest types in the study area. The temperature of this region ranges from 40°C in summers to very cold (2°C) in winters 173 174 (Yadav and Nandy 2015) and the average annual rainfall is 1550mm. Gujjar community, also 175 known as Van Gujjars locally, are migratory pastoralists of the Himalayas and have distinct 176 culture and traditions (Hussain et al 2017). Rearing buffaloes, goats and sheep are the primary

source of income for Gujjars. Other major inhabitants of the study area include Garhwali andNepali.

179 **3. Methodology**

180

181 We carried out the study along with the working plan exercise of Indian Forest Service officers training courses of 2013-15 and 2014-16 during November 2014 and November 2015. Basic 182 183 information collected from the Census India data set based on 2011 countrywide census data available in census india website and verified through the village-level survey with the village 184 185 head and elderly people of the villages. We have used s standardized questionnaire to conduct the socio-economic survey at the level of villages and households. The introduction on the 186 village's socio-economic profile i.e., population, occupation, landholding & land use, access to 187 drinking & irrigation water, and other facilities such as school, hospital, government institutions, 188 189 and market were recorded through focused group discussion at the village level. We recorded the 190 information on the collection, use, and selling of NTFPs and the human-animal conflict during the village level discussion. After collecting socio-economic information at the village level, we 191 192 collected information on household's economy and dependence of households on forest products, viz., timber, fuelwood, fodder, grazing, and NTFP, etc through a household level 193 survey. The population of the villages varied from 168 (Gujjar Deras) to 5200 (Tipparpur) 194 195 individuals. We selected 15 to 25 households from each village for household-level surveys 196 through stratified random sampling depending on the demography, economy, and societal status within each village. The information on household resource consumption and forest resource 197 198 collection pattern was collected through interviews with a willing member of the household using a semi-structured questionnaire. We collected information on demography, occupation, 199 200 fuelwood, timber and fodder dependency, and extraction pattern, livestock information, distance from the forest, and other resources like water for drinking and irrigation water source from each 201 202 willing household member from 380 households. We estimated the mean values for the villages, 203 from the information collected on fuelwood, timber and fodder collection and consumption. We 204 also assessed the difference in fuelwood, timber, fodder consumption and the amount of extraction from the forest. The details of the household information and average consumption 205 pattern of different forest resources given in Table 1. 206

207 We assessed the major fuelwood species used by the villagers and estimated the Use index value

for all the species following Lance et al (1994) and Mitra et al (2017) using equation 1.

209 I%=n/NX100

equation 1

Use index (I%) presents the percentage of use, 'n' represents the number of villages citing the use of the tree species, and 'N' represents the total number of villages surveyed (Mitra et al 2017). The high value of the use index for a species denotes the high use of that particular species and vice versa.

We estimated the Pearson's correlation coefficient of different factors affecting the annual 214 215 timber, fuelwood, and fodder demand. We used generalized linear regression (GLM) analysis to identify the major determinants affecting the timber, fodder, and fuelwood extraction (response 216 217 variables) by the household using R programming software (R version 3.4.4, 2018-03-15). Earlier studies revealed that education, income, household size, and access to clean energy like 218 LPG availability determines the household's choice of using forest biomass as energy source 219 220 (Jain 2010, Lee et al 2013, Bansal et al 2013). Along with these factors, we used the village's total population, distance from the forest, distance from the market, literacy, and net grazing 221 requirement of the village as factors for the GLM analysis. We used the value of the corrected 222 223 Akaike Information Criteria (AICc) to select the best model representing the major determinants 224 of three response variables.

225 **4. Results:**

We surveyed 20 forest fringe villages near the Timli forest division and the number of 226 227 households varied from 34 in Guijar Deras to 855 in Tipparpur village, and the mean household size estimated 7.1±0.17 persons. The overall literacy rate was 65.4%, which was lower compared 228 to Dehradun city (84.2%), the state's capital. *Dharmawala* (30%) and *Dhaula* (40%) had the 229 230 least literacy rate. The primary source of livelihood includes wage labor and agriculture. However, individual families were also dependent on various occupations such as small-scale 231 business, government, and private services for their livelihood. Wage labor is the primary source 232 of livelihood for most of the respondents, followed by agriculture (18%), albeit small scale, 233 business (7%), government or private services (4%), and others (4%); (Supplementary Figure 1). 234 Within the *Gujjars*, the primary income source was pastoralism (90%), followed by wage labor 235 236 (10%). The land holdings varied from landless to < 2 ha, however, most households (45%) have

237 land holdings up to 0.5 ha, and 36.5% of the households, including *Guijars*, are landless. The most common land use practice was agriculture (irrigated), wherein 64.5% of the land used to 238 239 cultivate crops such as wheat, maize, millets, sugarcane, and rice. The other common land uses 240 in the rest of the land was practiced for un-irrigated agriculture and horticulture. All the villages 241 had education facilities within the vicinities of 1 km, except *Dhaula* (6 km), *Dandipur* (2 km), 242 and *Tipparpur* (2 km) (Fig 1). Rearing livestock constitutes an essential source of livelihood. 243 Most of the respondent families (90.4%) owned livestock; hence they were partially dependent on the adjoining forests for grazing and fodder collection. The total Adult Cattle Unit (ACU) 244 245 holding in all villages was about 14240, with an average ACU of 2.03±0.26 per household. For grazing pressure on the forests, *Mednipur* village had the highest (2718) ACU and lowest (80.5) 246 247 in Aduwala (supplementary Fig 2). The primary drinking water sources were tap water (46%) and hand pump (38%). The other sources like well (9.6%), spring or tank, or pond (6.4%) also 248 contribute to drinking water accessibility. The major sources of irrigation were pump set (48.5%) 249 followed by river or canal (36.5%), tank or pond (7%), and other water harvesting structures 250 (8%). 251

252 **4.1 Timber consumption pattern**

We found that locals were dependent on the nearby forest to partially meet their timber demand 253 254 for agricultural implements, cattle sheds, watch, and ward huts. The total consumption of timber 255 was 991 cubic meters in the study area, of which 69% of the timber extracted from the nearby 256 forest. Among the surveyed villages, Tipparpur, Timli, Majri, Dhaula, Gujjar Deras, Aduwala, 257 and Jatowala were entirely dependent on the nearby forest for timber consumption (Table 1). The 258 timber requirement was highest (66%) for housing, followed by furniture (26%) and agricultural implements (8%). The timber consumption and net timber requirement met from the forest were 259 260 recorded highest (113 cubic meters; hereafter 'cum' and 74 cum, respectively) in *Badripur*, followed by Sabhawala (109 cum and 78 cum respectively), Shahpur (98 cum and 47 cum, 261 respectively) and least in Matak Majri (9 cum and 6.5 cum, respectively) (Figure 2). The total 262 annual timber consumption was 1929.9 cum. We recorded the average timber consumption to be 263 0.52 ± 0.22 cum household⁻¹ year⁻¹, and estimated the average per capita timber consumption to 264 be 0.04 cum year⁻¹ (Table 1). 265

266 **4.2 Fuelwood consumption pattern**

267 We found that villagers were mostly dependent on the forest for fuelwood, as 95% of the total fuelwood used to fulfill the household energy demand met from the fuelwood extracted from the 268 269 nearby forests. About 89% of the fuelwood extracted was used for household energy demand, 270 and 11% were sold to the nearby market for income generation. Fuelwood consumption and net 271 fuelwood requirement met from nearby forests were highest in Timli (32499.6 Qt. and 30874.6 272 Ot., respectively) followed by *Mednipur* (30727.7 Ot. and 30113.2 Ot., respectively), *Dandipur* 273 (29202.6 Qt. and 29202.6 Qt., respectively), and least in Guijar Deras (1649 Qt. and 1649 Qt., respectively; Figure 3). The high fuelwood demand in Timli and Mednipur might be because of 274 275 the low average income and high population of the villages. In Gujjar Deras, the fuelwood demand and net fuelwood requirement from nearby forests were least due to a low population 276 277 (168 individuals). The total annual fuelwood consumption recorded was 29419.3 Qt. The average fuelwood consumption recorded was 41.1 ± 3.5 Qt. household⁻¹ vear⁻¹ and in terms of 278 average per capita fuelwood consumption was about 5.6 Ot. year⁻¹. We found that, due to the 279 280 inclusive dependency of *Guijars* on the forests, the per capita fuelwood demand was high (9.8) Qt. year⁻¹) as compared to total per capita fuelwood demand (5.6 Qt. year⁻¹) (Figure 3). 281

282 **4.3 Fodder consumption pattern**

We recorded the total fodder extraction from the study area to be 204475 Qt with an average of 283 4949 ± 9.1 Ot. household⁻¹ vear⁻¹. The average per capita fodder consumption estimated was 284 3.92 Qt. year⁻¹. We found that the annual fodder consumption of Tipparpur village was the 285 highest (60115 Qt.) followed by Badripur (36354 Qt.), Sabhawala (34047.7 Qt.), while Dhaula 286 had the least (652.9 Qt.; Table 1). Per household fodder demand was highest in Bansoowala 287 followed by Sabhawala and Badripur (Figure 4). The percentage of fodder demand met from 288 nearby forests is highest in Gujjar deras and Timli followed by Dhaula and Kulhal (Figure 4). 289 The locals obtain fodder primarily from nearby forests and farmlands, and from the roadside, 290 riverside forest, and agro-forestry as per the availability. We recorded 17 species belonging to 14 291 292 genera and 10 families, primarily used as fodder by the local inhabitants. The major fodder 293 species extracted from the forests consist of Shorea robusta, Mallotus philippensis, Anogeissus 294 latifolia, Millettia auriculata, Ehretia laevis, Grewia elastica, G. oppositifolia, Haldinia cordifolia, Desmodium oojeinense, Terminalia tomentosa, Bauhinia variegata, B. purpurea, 295 Albizia lebbeck, Ficus benghalensis, F. racemosa, Lannea coromandelica, and Eulaliopsis 296

binnata. The important cultivated fodder crops grown in farms include *Trifolium alexandrinum*locally known as *barseem*, *Sorghum bicolor* locally known as *chari*, and residues of wheat,
paddy, and maize.

300 **4.4 Fuelwood use and preference**

301 We found ten species belonging to ten genera and eight families were primarily used as 302 fuelwood by the local inhabitants, mostly for cooking, boiling water, and space heating. We 303 estimated the use-value of the species ranged from 5 to 95%, which was highest for Shorea 304 robusta (95%; locally known as Sal) followed by the major associates of Sal forests viz., Mallotus philippensis (90%; locally known as Rohini) and Terminalia tomentosa (30%; locally 305 known as Sain). The high use value indicates their great acceptability and availability as 306 307 fuelwood, as well as, high anthropogenic pressure on these species. The remaining species 308 include Syzygium cumini, Anogeissus latifolia, Ardisia solanacea, Eucalyptus tereticornis, 309 Tectona grandis, Clerodendrum viscosum, and Desmodium oojeinense showed <15% use-value, 310 reflected their low availability and low preference. The major fuelwood species with their 'Use Value' based on quality, characteristics, and availability in the area given in Table 2 and 3. 311

4.5 Determinants of resource dependency and resource extraction

We found that annual fuelwood consumption, annual fodder consumption, and net requirement 313 314 of grazing were positively correlated with the number of households and population of the villages ($r^2=0.714$, 0.583 and 0.771, respectively). The percentage of fuelwood requirements met 315 from the forest was negatively correlated with the household's average annual income $(r^2 = -$ 316 0.494). Distance from the nearby market and annual fuelwood demand was positively correlated 317 318 $(r^2=0.557)$. We found that distance from the forest and average annual income were the 319 significant determining factors that affects the household's timber extraction pattern (Figure 5 320 and supplementary S2). We found the distance from the market, the average annual income of 321 the villagers, and the population of the village were the significant determinants of fuelwood 322 extraction by the households (Figure 6, summary given in supplementary S3). The GL models 323 with fodder extraction pattern as response variable showed the population of the village, net 324 grazing requirement, and fodder demand from the forest were the primary determining factor 325 Figure 7 and supplementary S4). The details of all the GL models with parameters used and AIC values were given in Table 4. 326

327 5. Discussion:

Energy is one of the primary requirements for social and economic development, and the 328 329 demands vary regionally depending on the socio-economy and geographical conditions (Jain 2010, Lee et al 2013, Bansal et al 2013, Negi et al 2018). In developing countries like India, bio-330 fuel is a major energy source for people surviving at the subsistence level (Kumar and Sharma 331 2009; Negi and Maikhuri 2016). The fuelwood demand of the country ranges from 96–157 332 million tons having the consumption rate up to 148–242 kg per capita (Bhattacharya and Nanda 333 1992). However, annual consumption was estimated relatively high in various parts of the 334 335 Himalaya (Campbell and Bhattarai 1984; Singh 1989; Metz 1990, Rawat et al. 2009; Negi and Maikhuri 2016; Bhatt et al. 2016). Poor accessibility of the alternative fuelwood sources makes 336 337 the rural population entirely dependent on wood sources (Bhatt et al 2004). In most cases, the fuelwood demand is met solely from the adjoining forests (Hussain et al 2017). This 338 339 uninterrupted extraction of fuelwood and fodder is the major reason for the depletion of forest patches (Singh 1998). Singh et al (2010) showed fuelwood consumption ranging from 20-25 kg 340 households⁻¹ day⁻¹ in high-altitude areas of Garhwal Himalaya, Uttarakhand. Awasthi et al (2003) 341 reported 14.65 kg households⁻¹ day⁻¹ fuelwood consumption in other villages of the Garhwal 342 Himalaya. However, the per capita use values were higher than the ones reported from villages 343 of lower altitudinal ranges of Western Himalaya i.e. 1.49 kg capita⁻¹ day⁻¹ (Bhatt et al 1994), for 344 southern India (1.9–2.2 kg capita⁻¹ day⁻¹; Reddy 1981) and the Himalayan range of Nepal (1.23 345 kg capita⁻¹ day⁻¹; Mahat et al 1987). The change in fuelwood consumption was also evident in 346 347 different altitudinal gradients, as in higher altitude due to cold temperature, fuelwood 348 consumption was 2-3-fold high compared to low altitude, due to essential warming needs (Bhatt and Sachan 2004). In our study we found that the fuelwood consumption by the villagers ranged 349 from 2.6–19.7 kg household⁻¹ day⁻¹ with an average of 11.26 kg household⁻¹ day⁻¹. The amount 350 was higher than the consumption pattern in low altitude areas (Bhatt et al 1994, Mahat et al 351 1987), and India's average fuelwood consumption, i.e. 4.06 kg household⁻¹ day⁻¹ in rural areas as 352 per the Centre for Development Finance (www.householdenergy.in), but comparable with the 353 354 consumption pattern of high altitude areas of Western Himalaya (Awasthi et al 2003, Singh et al 2010 and Negi et al 2018). 355

356 We found that the average fodder extraction from forest by the household was 7.51 kg household⁻¹ day⁻¹, which was much less than that of recorded earlier from other areas of 357 Uttarakhand. Dhyani et al 2011 recorded the fodder extraction by the households near Kedarnath 358 Wildlife Sanctuary range from 62.4 to 80.4 kg household⁻¹ day⁻¹ and Dhanai et al 2014 recorded 359 fodder extraction range from 56.64 to 72.48 kg household⁻¹ day⁻¹ near the Takoligad watershed. 360 The reason may be because of less livestock unit per household in the present study area and the 361 362 villagers also collect fodder from the agricultural field and roadside area and from the bank of small rivulets also. Therefore, the pressure exerted to the forest area for fodder was found much 363 less than expected. 364

Forest, pastures, arable land, cattle, and human population are the five essential components in 365 366 the hill ecosystem which are linked with each other in a series of dynamic relationships starting from the production to transfer and consumption of the energy (Sharma et al 2009, Khuman et al 367 2011). The availability of fodder, fuelwood, and litter is vital for the survival and livelihood of 368 369 the rural settlements in the Himalayas (Dhyani et al 2011, Dhanai et al 2014). In most Indian 370 Himalayan regions, fuelwood obtained from the forest is the sole source of energy available to the residents (Kumar and Sharma 2009; Negi and Maikhuri 2016; Thapa and Weber 1990). The 371 372 present study reveals the population of the village, distance from the forest, distance from the 373 market, and annual average income are the limiting factors for timber, fodder, and fuelwood 374 demand of the villages. The studies from Barnes et al. 2011; Lee et al. 2013; Bansal et al. 2013, 375 Jain (2010) and Bansal et al. (2013) from India; Arthur et al. (2010) from Mozambigue; Andadari et al. (2014) from Indonesia Pine et al. (2011) from rural Mexico, Jan (2012) from 376 377 northwest Pakistan, Beyene and Koch (2013) from urban Ethiopia concluded that the household 378 size, education and household income are the most significant factors that determine the 379 willingness to use cleaner energy instead of forest biomass. Subject to availability, fuelwood as 380 an essential energy source is easy to collect and use (Specht et al 2015), whereas the other 381 commercial sources of energy are beyond the reach due to accessibility in remote areas. Due to 382 remoteness, alternative sources come with high prices and limited supply (FAO 2007). It was 383 evident in various studies, that the rural population makes greater use of wood for heat and cooking fuel (Miah et al 2003; Moran-Taylor and Taylor 2010). So, in the past few years, there is 384 385 an enormous amount of attention given for reducing biofuel use, as it is nested within the three major challenges of the developing world – energy, poverty, and climate change (FAO 2007). 386

387 According to Kanagawa and Nakata (2007), fuelwood consumption increases the direct payments of rural households, and fuelwood collection also takes valuable time and effort 388 389 resulting in loss of education and income generation opportunity for collectors (Hussain et al 2017). Unsustainable fuelwood collection and inefficient conversion technology used in remote 390 391 rural areas have severe implications on the environment (Arnold et al 2003; Chen et al 2006). In 392 recent years, scientists and planners across the world have shown concern about the gap between 393 forecasted estimates of biomass supply and demand. The increased demand will place stress on 394 women, children, and the environment, at the national level and different eco-zones of the country (Gadgil et al 1989). 395

396 The estimation of extraction and consumption pattern of major forest products in the remote rural 397 area is crucial as the human population is increasing and the socio-economic pattern and the environmental conditions are changing day by day. The mean household size of the studied 398 399 village is higher than the mean household size of the communities living in the hilly areas of 400 Uttarakhand and that of the whole country average of 5.3 persons (Census of India 2011). The majority of respondents (67%) indicated wage labor as the primary source of livelihood, which 401 directly indicates that the economic status of the major population is low, which has resulted in a 402 403 low literacy rate (65.4%) as compared to Dehradun (84.2%). The low literacy rate and 404 employment of the locals can be improved with the support for better educational and employment opportunities. 405

406 As the vegetation of the study area is dominated by Shorea robusta and its major associate timber species such as Mallotus philippensis, Anogeissus latifolia, Syzygium cumini, and 407 Terminalia tomentosa, the pressure in terms of the utilization of these resources by the locals is 408 higher as compared to the other species. Practice of selective species harvesting has already 409 410 reported to affect the species composition and assemblage (Negi and Maikhuri 2016, Rawal et al 2012, Singh et al 2010). Therefore, to reduce the anthropogenic pressure on the forests, the 411 412 plantation of indigenous and multipurpose species in consultation with the local inhabitants and the concerned forest department would be the most practical solution. To reduce forest 413 414 dependency and reduction in forest degradation, policy measures to be taken by different stakeholders. The use of LPGs and their availability to the villagers to be taken care of through 415 416 regular supply at a subsidized price. The other suggestive mitigation measures could be the

417 creation of Self Help Groups for alternative livelihood options, assistance in cattle breed improvement and encouraging stall feeding, the establishment of small scale industries such as 418 419 mushroom cultivation, leaf plates using *Sal* leaves, manure making, honey production, etc., along 420 with initiation and encouragement of the locals for adopting biogas plants and solar power are 421 few measures that need to be exploited for the fulfillment of the energy demand of the region. The National Mission for Enhanced Energy Efficiency (NMEEE) under India's National Action 422 423 Plan for Climate Change (NAPCC) is already working on these issues, but the inter-sectoral linkages and deficiency of data sets on energy requirement and consumption pattern of remote 424 areas causing the difficulty implementing policy intervention in the remote areas. 425

426

427 6. Conclusion

428 Understanding the drivers for forest degradation is essential for developing policies and 429 measures that aim to change the current trends in consumption patterns of forest products towards a more environmentally friendly outcome. In the present study, we found that lack of 430 adequate education and dependency of the residents on the natural resource-based livelihood 431 resulting in the high dependence on the timber and non-timber forest resources and thus high 432 433 level of extraction of forest products from the Timli forest. We found that the fuelwood extraction pattern was high when compared to other published literature in low altitude areas, 434 whereas the fodder collection is much less compared to other study result in Uttarakhand. The 435 high level of fuelwood and timber extraction will degrade the forest resources in the future and is 436 not a good option for the future sustainability of the area and its residents. Policy level 437 intervention is needed urgently for alternative livelihood opportunities for the people and to 438 ensure alternative energy sources for cooking and other daily needs. The plantation can be a 439 440 sustainable option for the rejuvenation of forest unless and until there is a change in resource extraction for household and economic needs. Integration of different stakeholders' activity for 441 442 reducing forest dependency and generating alternative sustainable livelihood for the 443 improvement of the socio-economy of the area is urgently needed to conserve the last remaining forest patch and the diversity of the study area for its sustainable future. 444

446 Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge Sh. Vinod Kumar, former Director and Dr. Shashi Kumar, 447 Director of Indira Gandhi National Forest Academy (IGNFA) for consistent support and 448 guidance. We also wish to acknowledge Dr. Jagdish Kishwan, Chairman 'Apex Academic 449 Committee on REDD-plus in relation to global warming and Climate Change' for kind support 450 during various meetings of REDD-plus Cell at IGNFA. The authors are also indebted to IFS 451 Probationers of 2014-16 and 2015-17 courses for their participation in the smooth conduct of the 452 socio-economic survey. Thanks, are also due to Dr. Taibanganba Watham for his help in 453 454 preparation of the map.

- 455
- 456

457 Author Contributions

458 Conceptualization and study design (Jiju J. S., Dr. Mohit Gera); Methodology Formal Analysis

and Investigation (Jiju J. S., Soumya Dasgupta, Amit Kumar); Original Draft Preparation (Jiju J.

460 S. and Soumya Dasgupta); Review and editing (Soumya Dasgupta, Amit Kumar and Mohit

461 Gera); Resources (Dr Mohit Gera and Jiju j. S.) Supervission (Dr Mohit Gera)

462 Funding details - Funding for the study received from REDD+ cell of Indira Gandhi National
463 Forest Academy, (IGNFA), Dehradun, India

464 **Statement on competing interest** - The authors declare that they have no known competing 465 financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work 466 reported in this paper.

467 Permission and informed consent - All the necessary permission and informed consent was
468 taken by the authors wherever it is needed, for the study.

469 **References:**

Aggarwal A, Paul V, Das S (2009) Forest Resources: Degradation, Livelihoods, and
 Climate Change. In: D. Datt, S. Nischal (Ed.) Looking Back to Change Track. New
 Delhi: TERI, pp. 91-108.

473	2.	Agrawal A, (2007) Forests, governance, and sustainability: Common property theory and
474	2	its contributions. Int. J. Commons, 1, 111–136.
475	э.	Arnold M, Ko ⁻ hlin G, Persson R, Shepherd G (2003) Fuelwood revisited: what has
476		changed in the last decade? Bogor Barat, Indonesia: Centre for International Forestry
477		Research (CIFOR), Occasional Paper No. 39.
478	4.	Awasti A, Uniyal SK, Rawat GS, Rajvanshi A (2003) Forest resource availability and its
479		use by the migratory villages of Uttarkashi, Garhwal Himalaya (India). For. Ecol.
480		Manag., 174, 13–24.
481	5.	Bahuguna VK, Mitra K, Capistrano D, Saigal S (2004) Root to Canopy: Regenerating
482		Forests through Community State Partnerships. New Delhi: Winrock International India /
483		Commonwealth Forestry Association India Chapter, pp. 309–316.
484	6.	Bansal M, Saini RP, Khatod DK (2013) Development of cooking sector in rural areas in
485		India-A review. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 17, 44-53.
486	7.	Banyal R, Islam MA, Masoodi TH, Gangoo SA (2013) Energy status and consumption
487		pattern in rural temperate zone of western Himalayas: a case study. Indian For. 139(8):
488		683-687.
489	8.	Barnes DF, Khandker SR, Samad HA (2011) Energy poverty in rural Bangladesh. Energy
490	0	Policy 39 (2), 894-904.
491	9.	Belcher B, Achdiawan R, Dewi S (2015) Forest-based livelihoods strategies conditioned
492		by market remoteness and forest proximity in Jharkhand, India. World Dev. 66: 269–279.
493	10	. Benato A, Pezzuolo A, Stoppato A, Mirandola A, Pandey S (2016) Improvement of the
494		Energy System of a Nepali Village through Innovative Exploitation of Local Resources.
495		Energy Procedia 101, 790-797.
496	11	. Bernard HR (2006) Research Methods in Anthropology: Qualitative and Quantitative
497		Approaches, Altamira Press, Oxford, UK.
498	12	. Bhatt BP, Negi AK, Todaria NP (1994) Fuelwood consumption pattern at different
499		altitudes in Garhwal Himalaya. Energy 19 (4), 465–468.
500	13	. Bhatt BP, Sachan MS (2004) Firewood consumption along an altitudinal gradient in
501		mountain villages of India. Biomass Bioenerg 27, 69-75.
502	14	. Bhatt BP, Rathore SS, Lemtur M, Sarkar B (2016) Fuelwood energy pattern and biomass
503		resources in Eastern Himalaya. Renewable Energy 94, 410-417.

504 15. Bhattacharya B, Nanda SK (1992) Building fuelwood demand supply scenario. J Rural
 505 Dev. 11 (6), 773–787.

- 16. Campbell JG, Bhattarai TN (1984) People and forests in hill Nepal. Preliminary
 presentation of findings of community forestry household and ward leader survey. Project
 paper 10, HMG/UNDP/FAO community forestry development project, Nepal.
- 17. Cavendish W (2000) Empirical regularities in the poverty-environment relationship of
 rural households: Evidence from Zimbabwe. World Dev. Elsevier, vol. 28 (11), 19792003. Doi:10.1016/S0305-750X(00)00066-8.
- 512 18. Census India (2011). The Census register. http://censusindia.gov.in.
- 513 19. Champion HG, Seth SK (1968) A revised survey of the forest types of India, Government
 514 of India, New Delhi ii + 404 pp.
- 20. Chaturvedi RK, Gopalakrishnan R, Jayaraman M, Bala G, Joshi NV, Sukumar R,
 Ravindranath NH (2010) Impact of climate change on Indian forests: a dynamic
 vegetation modeling approach. Mitig Adapt Strateg Glob Change, 16, 119–142,
 doi:10.1007/s11027-010-9257-7.
- 21. Chen L, Heerink N, Berg MVD (2006) Energy consumption in rural China: a household
 model for three villages in Jiangxi Province. Ecol Econ 58(2):407–420.
- 521 22. Davidar P, Sahoo S, Mammen P, Acharya P, Puyravaud JP, Arjunan M, Garrigues J,
 522 Roessingh K (2010) Assessing the extent and causes of forest degradation in India: Where
 523 do we stand? Biological Conservation BIOL CONSERV. 143. 2937-2944.
 524 10.1016/j.biocon.2010.04.032.
- 525 23. Dhanai R, Negi R, Parmar M, Singh S (2014) Fuelwood & Fodder Consumption Pattern
 526 in Uttarakhand Himalayan Watershed. Int. J. Environ 2014; 4(1): 35-40
- 527 24. Dhyani S, Maikhuri RK, Dhyani D (2011) Energy budget of fodder harvesting pattern
 528 along the altitudinal gradient in Garhwal Himalaya, India. Biomass Bioenerg., Volume
 529 35, Issue 5, Pages 1823-1832, ISSN 0961-9534. Doi:10.1016/j.biombioe.2011.01.022.
 530 DOI:10.1007/s40974-016-0050-7.
- 531 25. FAO (2007) A review of the current state of bioenergy development in G8 þ5 countries, 2
 532 (/www.fao.orgS).
- 533 26. Fisher M (2004) Household welfare and forest dependence in Southern Malawi. Environ.
 534 Dev. Econ, 9, 135e154. Doi:10.1017/S1355770X03001219.

- 535 27. Forest Survey of India (2013) India State of Forest Report (ISFR), Forest Survey of India,
 536 Dehradun, Uttarakhand.
- 537 28. Gadgil M, Sinha M, Pillai J (1989) India: A Biomass Budget. Final report of the study
 538 group on fuelwood and fodder. Centre for Ecological Sciences, Indian institute of
 539 Science, Bangalore, India, 36 pp.
- 540 29. Gera M, JS Jiju, Yadav S, Kumar S (2017) Emissions Reduction Due To Avoidance of
 541 Forest Degradation: A Pilot Study, Indian For.143 (9): 915-920.
- 30. Huda ASN, Mekhilef S, Ahsan A (2014) Biomass energy in Bangladesh: Current status
 and prospects. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 30, 504–517.
- 31. Hussain A, Dasgupta S, Bargali HS (2017) Fuelwood consumption patterns by seminomadic pastoralist community and its implication on conservation of Corbet Tiger
 Reserve, India. Energy Ecology and Environment, 2(1): 49-59
- 32. Hussain J, Zhou K, Akbar M, Khan MZ, Raza G, Ali S, Hussain A, Abbas Q, Khan G,
 Khan M, Abbas H, Iqbal S, Ghulam A (2019) Dependence of rural livelihoods on forest
 resources in Naltar Valley, a dry temperate mountainous region, Pakistan. Glob. Ecol.
 Conserv. 20 (2019) e00765.
- 33. Indian Council of Forestry Research and Education (2001) Forestry Statistics of India
 1987-2001. Dehradun: ICFRE, 234 pp.
- 34. IEA (2010) Energy poverty: How to make modern energy access universal? International
 Energy Agency, World Energy Outlook, Paris
- 555 35. IEA (2017) Energy Access Outlook 2017 from Poverty to Prosperity. Website:
 556 www.iea.org
- 36. Imai N, Furukawa T, Tsujino R, Kitamura S, Yumoto T (2018) Correction: Factors
 affecting forest area change in Southeast Asia during 1980-2010. *PLOS ONE* 13(6):
 e0199908. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0199908.
- 37. Jain G (2010) Energy security issues at household level in India. Energy Policy 38 (6),
 2835-2845.
- 38. Johnsingh AJT, Ramesh K, Qureshi Q, David A, Goyal SP, Rawat GS, Rajapandian K,
 Prasad S (2004) Conservation Status of tiger and associated species in the Terai Arc
 Landscape India, Wildlife Institute of India, Dehradun.
- 39. Kanagawa M, Nakata T (2007) Analysis of the energy access improvement and its socioeconomic impacts in rural areas of developing countries. Ecol Econ 62(2):319–329.

567	40. Khuman YSC, Pandey R, Rao KS (2011) Fuelwood consumption patterns in Fakot
568	watershed, Garhwal Himalaya, Uttarakhand. Energy, 36(8), 4769-4776.
569	41. Kohl M, Lasco R, Cifuentes M, Jonsson O, Korhonen K, Mundhenk P, de Jesus Navar J,
570	Stinson G (2015) Changes in forest production, biomass and carbon: results from the
571	2015 UN Global Forest Resources Assessment. For. Ecol. Manage. 352, 21-34.
572	42. Kumar H, Pandey BW, Anand S (2019) Analyzing the Impacts of forest Ecosystem
573	Services on Livelihood Security and Sustainability: A Case Study of Jim Corbett
574	National Park in Uttarakhand. International Journal of Geoheritage and Parks, 2019,
575	Volume 7, Issue 2, Pages 45-55, ISSN 2577-4441. Doi:10.1016/j.ijgeop.2019.05.003.
576	43. Kumar M, Sharma CM (2009) Fuelwood consumption pattern at different altitudes in
577	rural areas of Garhwal Himalaya. Biomass and Bioenergy 33,1413-1418.
578	44. Lance K, Kremen C, Raymond I (1994) Extraction of Forest Products Quantitative of
579	Park and Buffer Zone and Long-Term Monitoring. Report to Park Delimitation Unit,
580	Wildlife Conservation Society/PCDIM, Antananarivo, Madagascar.
581	45. Lee LYT (2013) Household energy mix in Uganda. Energy Economics 39, 252-261.
582	46. Madhu V (2009) Valuation of forest ecosystem services in Uttarakhand Himalayas for
583	setting mechanisms for compensation and rewards for ecosystem services for
584	communities conserving forests of Uttarakhand State. XIII World Forestry Congress.
585	Buenos Aires: Argentina
586	47. Mahat TBS, Griffin DM, Shepherd KP (1987). Human impact on some forest of the
587	middle hills of Nepal. Part 4: A detailed study in Southeast Sindhu Palanchock and
588	Northeast Kabhere Palanchock. Mt Res Dev, 7, 114–134.
589	48. Mamo G, Sjaastad E, Vedeld P (2007) Economic dependence on forest resources: a case
590	from Dendi District, Ethiopia. For. Policy Econ, 2007, 9, 916e927.
591	Doi:10.1016/j.forpol.2006.08.001.
592	49. Mascia MB, Pailler S, Thieme ML, Rowe A, Bottrill MC, Danielsen F, Geldmann J,
593	Naidoo R, Pullin AS, Burgess ND (2014) Commonalities and complementarities among
594	approaches to conservation monitoring and evaluation. Biol. Conserv., 169: 258–267.
595	50. Metz JJ (1990) Conservation practices at upper elevation village of west Nepal. Mt Res
596	Dev, 10 (4), 7–15.

- 597 51. Miah D, Ahmed R, Uddin MB (2003) Biomass fuel use by the rural households in
 598 Chittagong region, Bangladesh. Biomass Bioenergy,24:277–283.
- 599 52. Mishra A (2008) Determinants of fuelwood use in rural Orissa: Implications for energy
 600 transition South Asian Network for development and environmental economics
 601 (SANDEE), Working Paper No. 37-08.
- 53. Mitra M, Kumar A, Adhikari BS, Rawat GS (2017) Fuelwood resources and their use
 pattern by Bhotia community in Niti valley, Western Himalaya. Botanica Orientalis –
 Journal of Plant Science, 10: 1–6.
- 54. Moran-Taylor MJ, Taylor MJ: Land and len[~]a (2010) linking transnational migration,
 natural resources, and the environment in Guatemala. Popul Environ 32:198–215.
- 55. Mukherjee N (1933) Participatory rural appraisal: methodology and applications.
 Concept Publishing Company, Delhi, India.
- 56. Nagothu US (2001) Fuelwood and fodder extraction and deforestation: mainstream views
 in India discussed on the basis of data from the semi-arid region of Rajasthan. Geoforum
 Volume 32, Issue 3, Pages 319-332, ISSN 0016-7185.doi:10.1016/S00167185(00)00034-8.
- 57. Natarajan I (1985) Domestic fuel survey with special reference to kerosene, I. New
 Delhi: National Council for Applied Economic Research.
- 58. Nayak BP, Kohli P, Sharma JV (2012) Livelihood of local communities and forest
 degradation in India: Issues for REDD? New Delhi: The Energy and Resources Institute.
- 59. Negi VS, Maikhuri RK (2016) Forest resources consumption pattern in Govind Wildlife
 Sanctuary, Western Himalaya, India. Journal of Environmental planning and
 management 10.1080/09640568.2016.1213707
- 620 60. Negi VS, Joshi BC, Pathak R, Rawal RS, Sekar KC (2018) Assessment of fuelwood diversity and consumption patterns in cold desert part of Indian Himalaya: implication for 621 622 conservation and quality of life. Journal of Cleaner Production, doi: 623 10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.05.237
- 61. Nelson EJ, Kareiva P, Ruckelshaus M, Arkema K, Geller G, Girvetz E, Goodrich D,
 Matzek V, Pinsky M, Reid W, Saunders M, Semmens D, Tallis H (2013) Climate
 change's impact on key ecosystem services and the human well being they support in

627 the US. Frontiers Ecology the Environment, 11: 483in and 893. https://doi.org/10.1890/120312 628 629 62. Ofoegbu C, Chirwa P, Francis J, Folarannmi, Babalola D, Babalola F (2017) Socioeconomic factors influencing household dependence on forests and its implication for 630 631 forest-based climate change interventions Socio-economic factors influencing household dependence on forests and its implication for forest-based climate change interventions §. 632 633 Southern Forests: J. For. Sci. Doi:10.2989/20702620.2016.1255420. 63. Osei WY (1993) Woodfuel and deforestation-answers for a suitable environment. J. 634 Environ. Manage. 37, 51–62. 635 64. Parry L, Barlow J, Pereira H (2014) Wildlife harvest and consumption in Amazonia's 636 urbanized wilderness. Conserv Lett 7: 565-574. 637 65. Rahut, D.B., Behera, B., Ali, A., 2016. Household energy choice and consumption 638 intensity: Empirical evidence from Bhutan. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 639 53, 993-1009. 640 66. Rana E, Thwaites R, Luck G (2016) Trade-offs and synergies between carbon, forest 641 diversity and forest products in Nepal community forests. Environmental Conservation 642 10.1017/S0376892916000448 643 67. Rawat GS, Mukherjee SK (2005) Biodiversity of foothills of the Himalya. In. Rawat JK, 644 Srivastava SK, Biswas S, Vasistha HB, (Ed.) Proceeding of the workshop on 645 646 conservation of Biodiversity in India-status, challenges and efforts, Indian Council of Forestry Research and Education, Dehradun, 43-50. 647 68. Rawal RS, Gairola S, Dhar U (2012) Effects of disturbance intensities on vegetation 648 patterns in oak forests of Kumaun, west Himalaya. Journal of Mountain Science 9 (2), 649 650 157-165. 69. Reddy AK (1981) An Indian village agricultural ecosystem case study of Ungra village. 651 652 Part II. Dicussion. Biomass 1:77-88. 70. Robledo C, Forner C (2005) Forest and Climate Change Working Paper 2. Adaptation of 653 654 forest ecosystems and the forest sector to Climate Change. Food and Agriculture 655 Organization of the United Nations, Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, 656 and Swiss Foundation for Development and International Cooperation.

71. Roy MM, Singh KA (2008) The fodder situation in rural India: future outlook. Int For Rev 10(2): 217–234.

- 72. Rustagi D, Engel S, Kosfeld M (2010) Conditional cooperation and costly monitoring
 explain success in forest commons management. Science 330, 961–965
- 73. Sassen M, Sheil D, Giller KE (2015) Fuelwood collection and its impacts on a protected
 tropical mountain forest in Uganda. Forest Ecology and Management 354, 56–67.
- 74. Scholes S (2016) Climate change and ecosystem services: Climate change and ecosystem
 services. Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change. 7. 10.1002/wcc.404.
- 75. Sharma C, Gairola S, Ghildiyal SK, Suyal S (2009) Forest Resource Use Patterns in
 Relation to Socioeconomic Status. Mt Res Dev 29. 308-319. Doi:10.1659/mrd.00018.
- 76. Sharpe GW (1976) Introduction to forestry. 4th edition. McGraw-Hill Book company.
 New York 554 pp.
- 77. Shrestha S, Shrestha UB, Bawa K (2018) Socio-economic factors and management
 regimes as drivers of tree cover change in Nepal. PeerJ. Doi:10.7717/peerj.4855.
- 78. Singh G, Rawat GS, Verma D (2010) Comparative study of fuelwood consumption by
 villagers and seasonal "Dhaba owners" in the tourist affected regions of Garhwal
 Himalaya, India. Energy Policy 38(4), 1895-1899.
- 574 79. Singh MP, Bhojvaid PP, de Jong W, Ashraf J, Reddy SR (2017) Forest transition and
 575 socio-economic development in India and their implications for forest transition theory.
 576 For Policy Econ 76: 65–71
- 80. Singh N, Sundriyal RC (2009) Fuelwood, Fodder Consumption and Deficit Pattern in
 Central Himalayan Village. Nature and Science 7(4):85-88) (ISSN 1545-0740).
- 81. Singh SP (1998) Chronic disturbance, a principal cause of environmental degradation in
 developing countries. Environ. Conserv., 1998, 25, 1–2.
- 82. Singh V (1989) Energetic of agroecosystem and its relation to forest ecosystem in the
 Central Himalaya. Ph.D. Thesis, Kumaun University, Nainital, India.
- 83. Specht MJ, Pinto SRR, Albuquerque UP, Tabarelli M, Melo FP (2015) Burning
 biodiversity: Fuelwood harvesting causes forest degradation in human-dominated tropical
 landscapes. Global Ecology and Conservation 3, 200-209.

84. Thapa GB, Weber KE (1990) Actors and factors of deforestation in "Tropical Asia". Environ. Conserv., 1990, 17: 19-27.

- 85. Vasudevan P, Santosh (1987) The role of women in energy related activities in the
 mountains. In: Kumar V, Ahuja D, editors. Rural energy planning for the Indian
 Himalaya. New Delhi: Wiley.
- 86. Velho N, DeFries RS, Tolonen A, Srinivasan U, Patil A (2018) Aligning conservation
 efforts with resource use around protected areas. Ambio. Doi:10.1007/s13280-018-10645.
- 87. Wen Y, Theint Htun T, Chan Ko Ko A (2017) Assessment of forest resources
 dependency for local livelihood around protected area: a case study in Popa mountain
 park, Central Myanmar. Intermt. J. Sci 3, 34e43. Doi:10.18483/ijSci.1176.
- 88. World Bank (2006) Alleviating Poverty through Forest Development (An article of
 World Bank on India). http://www.worldbank.org/ieg.
- 699 89. World Energy Council (2016) World Energy Resources. www.worldenergy.org
- 90. Wunder S, Angelsen A, Belcher B (2014) Forests, Livelihoods, and Conservation:
 Broadening the Empirical Base, World Dev. Volume 64, Supplement 1, Pages S1-S11,
 ISSN 0305-750X. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2014.03.007.
- 91. Yadav BK, Nandy S (2015) Mapping aboveground woody biomass using forest
 inventory, remote sensing and geostatistical techniques. Environ Monit Assess 187(5),
 308.
- 706
- 707
- 708
- 709
- 710
- 711
- 712

713

715		
716		
717		
718		
719		
720		
721		
722		
723		

Table 1: Number of villages and households surveyed in the socio-economic study with theAnnual Timber Demand and Fodder Demand

S.	Name of	Number of	Households	Annual Timber Demand (CuM)					
No.	village	Households	surveyed	Housing	Furniture	Agri- Equipment's	Total	quantity (Qt)	
1.	Grant	450	25	25.56	15.84	1.98	43.38	26017.2	
2.	Shahpur	340	25	0	8.42	8.2	16.62	8190.6	
3.	Judli	428	25	32	6	2	40	4936.6	
4.	Ramgarh	250	15	1.87	6.55	0.67	9.101	14235	
5.	Dharmawala	400	25	26.55	2.38	1.75	30.68	15038	
6.	Bansoowala	55	15	5.92	9.76	0	15.68	10679.9	
7.	Dandipur	538	25	24.44	1.3	0.26	26	20107.9	
8.	Kulhal	110	15	45	30	5	80	4577.1	
9.	Sabhawala	400	25	17.39	2.2	0	19.591	34047.7	
10.	Timli	450	25	73.74	35.96	34.35	144.05	14125.5	
11.	Kunja	450	25	64.24	4.604	166.89	235.74	24273	

12.	Aduwala	190	25	48.28	40.8	88.4	177.48	9313
13.	Majri	335	25	8.885	33.007	50.33	92.222	8005
14.	MatakMajri	225	25	157.5	10.3	0	167.8	3580.6
15.	Mednipur	750	25	28.8	8.34	1.05	38.19	3505
16.	Jatowala	400	25	12	6.55	1.05	19.6	25700
17.	Dhaula	65	15	12.88	1.786	6.908	21.574	652.9
18.	Tipparpur	855	25	407	6	16	429	60115
19.	Gujjar Deras	168	15	777.6	318.4	0	1096	6329
20.	Badripur	500	25	47.34	0.35	0	47.69	36354
G	rand total	7359	450					

727

- 729 Table 2. Major fuelwood species used in different villages of the Timli Range of Shivalik region,
- 730 Uttarakhand, India.

Village	Spee	cies								
	Sh	Mp	Tt	Sc	Al	As	Et	Tg	Cv	Do
Kunja	\checkmark		-	-	-	_	-	_	_	_
Aduwala			-	-	-	-	\checkmark		-	_
Majri		-	-	-	-	-	-	_	-	_
Matak Majari				-	-	-	-	_	-	_
Mednipur	_				-	-	-	-	-	-
Jatowala	\checkmark	\checkmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_
Dhaula			-	-		-	-	_	-	_
Tipparpur				-			-	_	-	-
Gujjar Deras				-	-	-	-	_	-	_
Badripur				-	-	-	-	_	-	_
Grant	\checkmark	\checkmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Shahpur	\checkmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

		 -				·	·		
Judli	\checkmark	 _	-	_	\checkmark	_	_	-	_
Ramgarh	\checkmark	 -	\checkmark	-	-	-	-		_
Dharmawala	\checkmark	 _	—	-	_	_	_	_	_
Bansoowala		 _	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Dandipur	\checkmark	 -	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Kulhal		 _	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Sabhawala	\checkmark	 	-	-	_	_	_	_	\checkmark
Timli	\checkmark	 -	_	-	-	_	_	_	_

731 Abbreviations: Sh= Shorea robusta, Mp= Mallotus philippensis, Tt= Terminalia tomentosa, Sc=

732 Syzygium cumini, Al= Anogeissus latifolia, As= Ardisia solanacea, Et= Eucalyptus tereticornis,

733 $Tg = Tectona \ grandis, \ Cv = Clerodendrum \ viscosum, \ Do = Desmodium \ oojeinense$

734

Table 3. Major fuelwood species with their 'Use Value' based on quality, characteristics and
availability in Timli Range of Shivalik region, Uttarakhand, India.

Family	Density (ind. ha ⁻¹)	Availability [*]	Use Value
			(%)
Dipterocarpaceae	146.1	High	95
Euphorbiaceae	34.4	High	90
Combretaceae	5.2	Medium	30
Myrtaceae	4.6	Medium	10
Combretaceae	1.1	Very low	10
Primulaceae	0.8	Very low	10
Myrtaceae	0.6	Very low	5
Lamiaceae	9.2	Low	5
Verbenaceae	0.5	Very low	5
Fabaceae	1.8	Very low	5
	Dipterocarpaceae Euphorbiaceae Combretaceae Myrtaceae Combretaceae Primulaceae Myrtaceae Lamiaceae Verbenaceae	Dipterocarpaceae146.1Euphorbiaceae34.4Combretaceae5.2Myrtaceae4.6Combretaceae1.1Primulaceae0.8Myrtaceae0.6Lamiaceae9.2Verbenaceae0.5	Dipterocarpaceae146.1HighEuphorbiaceae34.4HighCombretaceae5.2MediumMyrtaceae4.6MediumCombretaceae1.1Very lowPrimulaceae0.8Very lowMyrtaceae0.6Very lowLamiaceae9.2LowVerbenaceae0.5Very low

737 *Availibility (individuals ha⁻¹): Very low= <100, Low= 100-200, Medium= 200-300, High =

738 300-400, and Very high = >400. Species: a = tree, b = shrub.

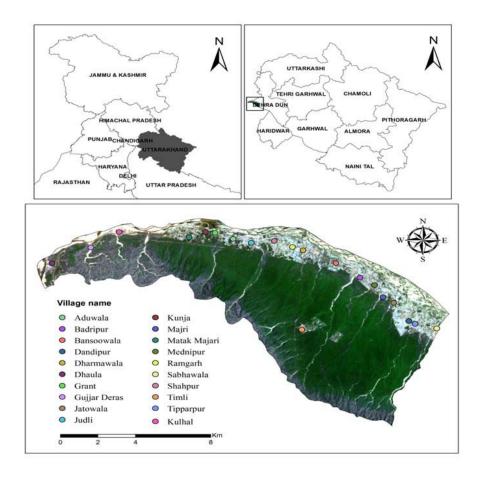
740		
741		
742		
743		
744		
745		
746		
747		

748

749 Table 4: Table showing AIC values of different GLM

	GLM Model	Log Likelihood	AIC	Delta AIC	Weight
pu	Annual Timber Demand~ Distance from Forest+ Annual Income	-26.535	61.069	0.00	0.758
Dema	Annual Timber Demand~ Distance from Forest+ Annual Income+ Distance from Market	-26.108	66.5	2.77	0.190
Annual Timber Demand	Annual Timber Demand~ Distance from Forest+ Annual Income+ Distance from Market+ Literacy	-25.441	69.3	5.61	0.046
Annual	Annual Timber Demand~ Distance from Forest+ Annual Income+ Distance from Market+ Literacy + Population	-25.085	73.5	9.77	0.006
	Annual Fuelwood Demand~ Distance from Market+ Population+ Annual Income	-17.069	48.4	0.00	0.683
p	Annual Fuelwood Demand~ Distance from Market+ Population	-20.698	52.1	3.64	0.111
Annual Fuelwood Demand	Annual Fuelwood Demand~ Distance from Market+ Population+ Annual Income+ Distance from Forest	-16.806	52.1	3.65	0.11
Annual H Demand	Annual Fuelwood Demand~ Distance from Market+ Population+ Annual Income+ Distance from Forest+ Literacy	-16.782	56.9	8.47	0.01
Annu al	Annual Fodder Demand~ Fodder demand from Forest+ Population+ Net Grazing Requirement	-21.91	53.82	0.00	0.962
A _l al	Annual Fodder Demand~ Distance from Market	-27.859	63.2	9.32	0.009

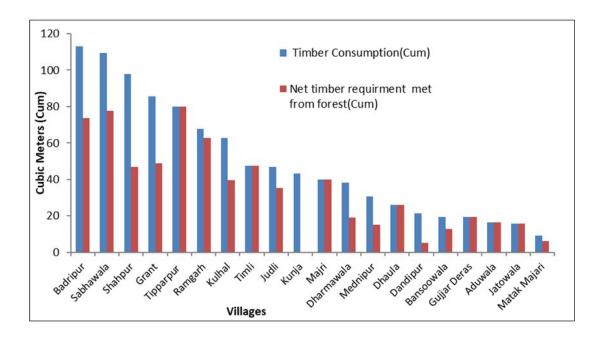
	Annual Fodder Demand~ Distance from Forest	-27.830	63.2	9.26	0.009
	Annual Fodder Demand~ Fodder Demand Met	27.041	61.6	7 60	0.02
	from Forest	-27.041	61.6	7.68	0.02
750					
751					
752					
753					
754					
755					
756					
, 50					
757					



758

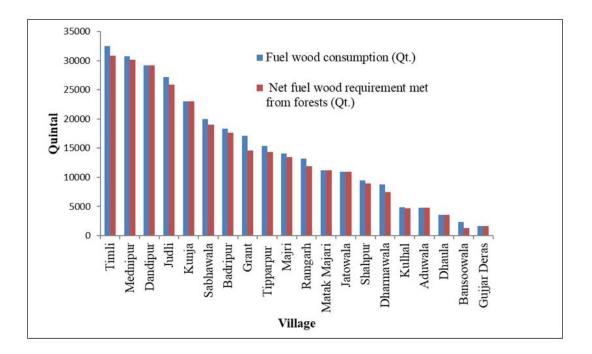
Figure 1. Map showing location of the villages in Timli Shiwalik region of Uttarakhand, India

760



762

Figure 2. Timber demand and net Timber requirement met from forests in the Timli Shivalikregion



765

Figure 3 – Fuelwood demand and Net fuelwood requirement (in Quintal) from Forest of studied
villages.

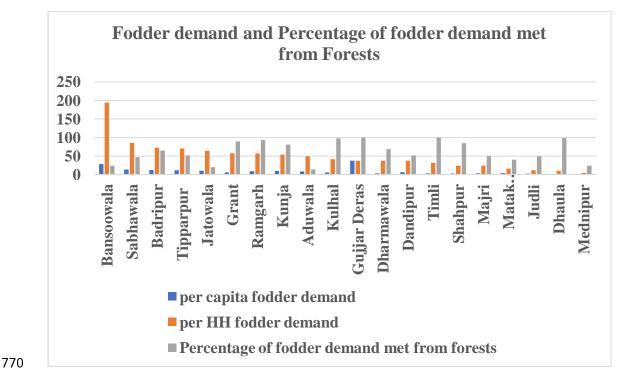
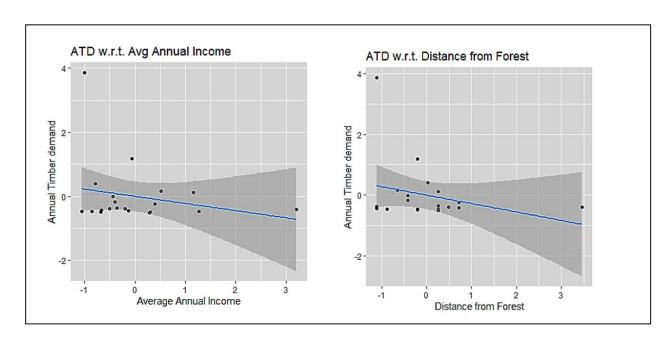


Figure 4 – Per capita fodder demand, per household fodder demand (in Quintal) and percentage
of fodder demand met from nearby Forest of studied villages.





- Figure 5. Annual timber demand with determining variables as found in generalized linearmodeling
- 777

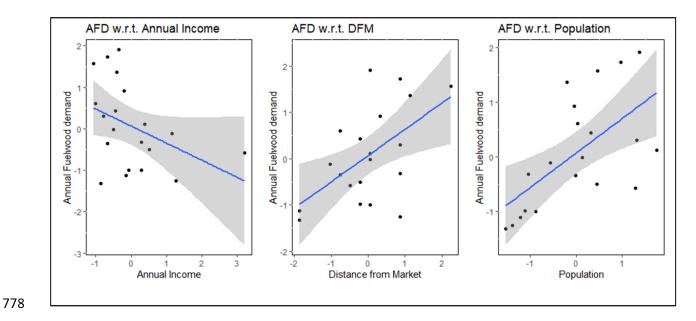


Figure 6. Annual fuelwood demand with determining variables as found in generalized linearmodeling

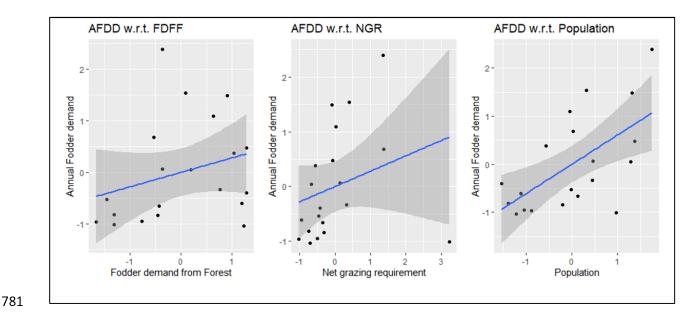


Figure 7. Annual fodder demand with determining variables as found in generalized linearmodeling