PART 3

Case studies and success stories of credit and microfinance support to inland fisheries development and conservation
I. Potential for inland fisheries development and rehabilitation and supporting credit and microfinance programmes at Lake Luoma, China

By Xie Yingliang and Zhu Chengde

1. GEOGRAPHY, HYDROLOGY AND USES OF LAKE LUOMA

Lake Luoma is part of the Yihe River system, located on the Huaibei Plain in the north of Jiangsu Province, situated at latitude 34°00’N–34°14’N and longitude 118°6’E – 118°16’E. Lake Luoma is the third biggest lake in the Huaihe River drainage area and lies in the centre of the industrial belt between Xuzhou City and Lianyungang City, with convenient communication links. The lake falls under the joint jurisdiction of Suyuan County and Xinyi City.

The total drainage area of the lake is 50,800 km² and the water area is 260 km² at a water level of 23 m with a corresponding volume of 864 million m³. The average water depth is 3.32 m and the maximum water depth is 5.50 m. The total length of the lake from south to north is 27 km and the average width is 13 km.

The region around Lake Luoma was often subjected to floods and droughts, and historically considered a backward area. From 1949 to 1958, it was transformed into a large reservoir-type lake through the construction of dams and sluice gates. Wheat was planted around the lake during the dry winter season and water was conserved during the rainy season so that it could be used whenever needed.

For many years, the average freshwater runoff into the lake was 7,050 million m³. Its main water sources are the Yihe River, the Zhongyunhe River and the Fangting River. Lake Luoma is connected to the Xinyi River through the Zhangshan sluice gate, to the Zhongyunhe River through the Zhaohai sluice gate, and to the Liutanghe River through the Yanghe sluice gate. There has been a big fluctuation of the water level of Lake Luoma over the years, with an average water level of 22.6 m, a maximum level of 25.47 m and a minimum level of 17.61 m. The maximum annual fluctuation is 5.93 m and the minimum is 1.90 m. The average annual inflow of water into Lake Luoma is 8,280 million m³ and the average annual outflow of water from the lake is 8,400 million m³ with a frequency of water exchange of about ten times a year.

Annually, 1,150 million m³ of waters of Lake Luoma are used for the irrigation of 66,700 ha of farmlands. The lake also supplies water to villages and towns in the vicinity of the lake, which consume annually 42 million m³ for domestic purposes and 22 million m³ of water for industrial purposes.

Lake Luoma has a warm temperate monsoon climate with abundant sunshine and rainfall. The average annual temperature is 13.5 °C; the annual average precipitation is 913 mm; the average annual period of sunlight is 2,500 hours; and the annual frost-free period averages 219 days. These conditions are favourable for the growth of fish and other aquatic organisms.

Fifty-six fish species have been recorded historically in Lake Luoma with Cyprinidae as the dominant species represented by common carp, crucian carp,
Xenocypris argentea (Basilewsky), grass carp, black carp, silver carp, bighead carp and Salangidae and Erythroculter mongolicus (Basilewsky). In the 1970s, the catch of common carp, crucian carp, Salangidae and Erythroculter mongolicus (Basilewsky) accounted for 60 percent of the total catch.

There is also an abundant resource of freshwater shrimps and the annual catch of Macrobrachium nipponensis (de Haan) can reach 150 tonnes. A fishing boat carrying 400 shrimp cages caught 12.5 kg/day in 1970. Since stocking crabs of Eriocheir sinensis (H. Milne Edwards) in 1972, the annual catch of crabs has exceeded 100 tonnes.

Lake Luoma is divided into the northern lake region and the southern lake region according to water depth and distribution of aquatic plants. There is a shallow area in the northern part of the lake with a sandy bottom and aquatic plants such as Phragmites communis, Trin and Acorus calamus L. A large quantity of water enters into the lake during the rainy season every year and the areas where the water enters become the breeding ground for Megalobrama terminalis (Richardson), Erythroculter mongolicus (Basilewsky) and Erythroculter ilishaeformis (Basilewsky). In addition, some bottom species such as Hemibarbus maculatus (Bleeker) and Pseudobagrus fulvidraco (Richardson) inhabit these areas.

Benthic aquatic plants are plentiful in the shallow waters along the northwest and the northern lakeshores and there is an abundance of benthic animals such as snails, worms and aquatic insects. These areas are breeding grounds for common carp, crucian carp, Hemibarbus maculatus (Bleeker) and other species. Macrobrachium nipponensis is also found here. An open area with a water depth of 2-3 m in the southern part of the lake provides habitat for ice fishes, Erythroculter mongolicus (Basilewsky), carps and other fishes during winter. Palaemon (Exopalaemon) modestus (Heller) and Corbicula fluminea (Müller) are also found here.

The composition of aquatic plants and plankton in Lake Luoma is similar to other lakes in Jiangsu Province. The diversity of habitats in the lake not only offers a vast scope for the reproduction of fish and aquatic organisms, but also a broad perspective for the further development of capture fisheries and aquaculture.

Based on an estimation of food biomass at Lake Luoma, the lake has an annual potential for fish production of 5 537 to 7 209 tonnes (see Table 1), which is much higher than present production.

From the late 1970s to the early 1980s, the annual catch of Lake Luoma was about 1 600 tonnes. With the aim of managing and enhancing the fishery resources at Lake Luoma and increasing fish production, a Fisheries Management Committee (FMC) was established in 1986 by the Fisheries Bureau of Jiangsu Province. The roles of FMC include, among others: monitoring the fishery resources and the aquatic environment; preparing and implementing plans for stocking the lake waters with fingerlings; establishing conservation zones and closed fishing seasons; issuing regulations for fishing and aquaculture, fishing licences and fishing quotas; and undertaking routine inspection of fishing vessels at Lake Luoma. The committee is divided into four sections – an administrative and regulatory section, an aquatic resource and environment section, a scientific research section, and a hatchery section.

As a result of the work of FMC, particularly in the field of fishery resources enhancement and protection, the catch increased to an all-time record high of 4 642 tonnes in 1990, then fluctuated as a result of changing water levels and reached 4 622 tonnes in 2003. Figure 1 shows the annual catch at Lake Luoma since the establishment of the FMC from 1986 to 2003.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>Estimate of potential for production of food biomass at Lake Luoma (tonnes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Species</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aquatic plants</td>
<td>2 415.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phytoplankton</td>
<td>1 224.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zooplankton</td>
<td>1 094.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benthic animals</td>
<td>803.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5 537.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. CONSTRAINTS TO A SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF INLAND FISHERIES

2.1 Economic backwardness and shortage of funds for the development of inland fisheries

Even though there has been considerable progress and economic development in recent years in Xinyi City, Suyu County and other areas of the Huaibei Plain in Jiangsu Province, this part of China still lags behind other parts of the country as far as economic development is concerned. Xinyi City, for example, ranked only 49 of the 64 counties in Jiangsu Province in terms of economic indicators, and Suyu County ranked 53. In terms of the average annual income per farmer, Xinyi City ranked 48 with an average annual income of only 3,479 yuan\(^1\) per farmer; Suyi County ranked 56 with an average annual income of only 3,170 yuan per farmer.

The annual income of full-time fishers at Lake Luoma increased from 1,650 yuan in 1999 to 4,350 yuan in 2003, and was thus slightly higher than that of farmers. Compared to other parts of China, however, it was comparatively lower. Figure 2 shows that the annual income of a full-time fisher at Lake Luoma was only 60 percent of the annual income of his counterpart at Lake Taihu.

The economic backwardness and the resulting shortage of funds, both of government and fishers, are serious constraints to the development of fisheries at Lake Luoma.

Related to the relative economic backwardness of the lake and its surrounding towns and villages, the fishers and farmers living at the lake have a lower literacy and educational level than in other parts of China. Only half of the farmers and fishers have completed school and about ten percent cannot read or write. Related to the low level of education is a lack of awareness of the need for protecting fishery resources and the environment, and of a long-term view of natural resource uses.

Short-term profit-orientation in the exploitation of fishery resources led to the use of illegal fishing practices, such as poisoning of fish, use of explosives and electro-fishing. From 1995 to 1996, 2,559 cases of illegal fishing were discovered and punished. In 2000, illegal fishing still occurred, 631 cases were discovered and punished, and nine fishing boats engaged in electro-fishing were confiscated. In 2002, 383 cases of illegal fishing were discovered and punished, and 143 sets of electro-fishing gear were confiscated. The education of fishers is still a difficult task, which is essential for raising

\(^1\) 1 yuan = US$0.120779 as of 1 September 2004.
2.1 Awareness of the need to conserve fishery resources and the environment, and for reducing conflict between fishers using illegal fishing methods, on the one hand, and government personnel protecting the fishery resources and fishers using responsible fishing methods, on the other.

2.2 Floods, droughts, pollution and changes of water level
The large fluctuation of the water level of Lake Luoma has had a strong influence on fish production. The analysis of data shows that the catch was high in years with small fluctuations of the water level of the lake, as in 1991 and 1998, when the annual catch was 4,267 tonnes and 3,823 tonnes, respectively. In years with large fluctuations of the water level of the lake, such as 1994 and 1995, the annual catch was only 2,959 tonnes and 2,656 tonnes, respectively. The lowest recorded catch was 1,600 tonnes in 1978, a year of serious drought. Even when stock enhancement measures were intensified, as in 1999, the annual catch was only 2,493 tonnes due to a long drought.

Every year from February to March, large quantities of waste water from industries drain into the lake through the estuary of the Yihe River and pollute the water of the lake, resulting in the death of fish and restricting the development of aquaculture and fishery resources enhancement at Lake Luoma. As a result of this pollution, the content of total inorganic nitrogen increased by 108 percent, from 0.684 mg/litre measured in 1976 to 1.423 mg/litre measured in 1998. The nitrogen load of the lake has become considerably higher than that of other lakes in China.

2.3 Unsustainable fishing effort and aquaculture practices
In 1976, there were 4,824 fishers and 817 fishing boats operating at Lake Luoma, of which only 11 had outboard motors. By 1995 the number of fishers had almost doubled to 9,361 fishers and the number of boats had almost tripled to 2,304, of which 1,370 were now equipped with outboard engines and had a combined horsepower of 13,430 HP. The resulting increase in fishing effort led to the overexploitation of the lake's fishery resources and fish stocks, and the average size and age of fish caught declined seriously for some commercial species. Although the high share (20.3 percent of the total composition of catch) of crucian carp in the total catch was maintained, fish under
one year of age accounted for more than 90 percent of the catch by the second half of
the 1990s, while in 1976, 62 percent of the catch had consisted of three- to four-year old
fish. The average annual catch of large-sized *Eryghroculter erythropterus* (Basilewsky)
declined from 330 tonnes from 1986 to 1991 to eight tonnes from 1994 to 1999, reduced
by more than 40 times.

Aquaculture began at Lake Luoma in 1986 with a total area of 38.7 ha and an
annual output of about 70 tonnes. By 1999, the total area under aquaculture had been
expanded to 3 233 ha with an annual yield of 7 156 tonnes. There were 762.13 ha
under pen culture and 1 ha under cage culture. The prevailing form of aquaculture
was pond culture along the lake, with silver carp and bighead carp as the main species,
and wuchang fish, grass carp, common carp and crucian carp as the secondary species
accounting for 70 to 80 percent of the annual yield of aquaculture at the lake. Although
fisheries research institutes and fisheries technical extension stations provided technical
assistance to fish farmers, most still applied extensive culture methods without feeding
due to funds and technology constraints. More intensive culture methods, which
would have been profitable for high value species, were not used.

### 3. CREDIT AND MICROFINANCE PROGRAMMES

Fishers and fish farmers at Lake Luoma benefited from similar credit and microfinance
programmes to that of the fishers and fish farmers at Lake Taihu. From 2001 to 2003,
3.028 million yuan was disbursed to fishers and fish farmers at Lake Luoma. More
than half of this amount was used for the construction and repair of fishing boats and
about a quarter each for fishing gear and pen culture. Table 2 shows the loan amount
disbursed to fishers and farmers at Lake Luoma from 2001 to 2003.

The operating expenses of fishing boats for which credit can be obtained include the
cost of fuel, fish boxes and licence fees. In the case of pen culture, licence fees, the cost
of fingerlings, feed and net cages are the main items covered by a loan.

### 4. ACTION PLAN FOR THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF INLAND FISHERIES

With a view to rehabilitating the aquatic environment of Lake Luoma and to conserve
and enhance its fishery resources, an action plan for the sustainable development of
fishery resources is being implemented at the lake under the overall guidance and
coordination of the FMC. The implementation of the action plan started in 2004 and
will end in 2010. As part of the plan, a law for the protection for the regional fisheries
environment at Lake Luoma is under preparation.

#### 4.1 Protection and rehabilitation of ecology and the environment

Based on data collected in 1997 and 1998, phosphorus accounted for 91 percent
(900 tonnes) of the nutrients flowing into Lake Luoma from rivers, and the nitrogen level
increased to 1.423 mg/litre in 1998. This led to excessive eutrophication in the lake. The
reduction and control of the inflow of fertile waters from farmlands through rivers and
channels into Lake Luoma was chosen as the main approach to reduce eutrophication.

### TABLE 2

Loans disbursed for inland fisheries and fish farming at Lake Luoma, 2001-2003,
in yuan 10 000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Construction, repair and operating expenses of fishing boats</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Buying new nets and equipment</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Pen culture</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total loan amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>97.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>107.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>156.1</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>302.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Protection of aquatic plants and benthic animals

Suitable aquatic plants such as aquatic grass and benthic animals are not only food for some fish species, but also play the important role of consuming nutrients and purifying water. Their protection and rehabilitation has been ensured by introducing year-round conservation zones for fish and closed fishing seasons, and through their consideration in the regulation of fishing effort.

To protect benthic animals and organisms, the method of harvesting snails and other shellfish with suction machines was forbidden all year round. With the aim of rehabilitating clam stocks, 50 tonnes of river clams (*Corbicula fluminea* Müller) were stocked in the lake in 2004.

In recent years, the number of boats excavating sand had increased sharply because of the strong demand. The excessive excavation of sand from the lake bottom not only caused harm to aquaculture operations, but also had devastating effects on the ecology of Lake Luoma. The action plan introduced drastic measures to limit and strictly regulate the excavation of sand.

Closed seasons and conservation zones

Year-round fishing was one of the important factors that placed stress on the fishery resources of Lake Luoma. Since its inception, the FMC of Lake Luoma gradually expanded closed fishing seasons as well as conservation zones. Fishing is closed in the entire lake from 1 March to 1 June. To ensure that all fishers comply with this regulation, all fishing vessels and fishing gears are evacuated from the lake and berthed at pre-determined ports during the closed season in accordance with the Fisheries Law of China and the Fisheries Management Regulations of Jiangsu Province. There are plans to extend the closed season to four months.

Two year-round conservation zones were established on the southern and the northern part of Lake Luoma. The southern conservation zone has a water area of 670 ha and the northern conservation zone has a water area of 1 400 ha. Fishing is prohibited year round. The Baimiaohu zone with a water area of 670 ha has been established to protect ice fish breeding. The use of monofilament gillnets and trawl nets is generally not allowed but depends on the conditions of ice fish stocks.

Fishing licence regulations and fishing quotas

The FMC of Lake Luoma is aware that the present fishing effort is too high and aims to reduce and regulate this effort through a system of licences and quotas. Every fisher who operates on the lake must apply to the FMC for a fishing licence. The total number of licences issued in a given year should be in keeping with the available fishery resources, taking into consideration the livelihoods of the fishers. When limiting and reducing the number of licences, the FMC gives priority to full-time fishers who depend exclusively on fishing for their livelihoods.

According to the Fisheries Management Regulation of Jiangsu Province and the fishing quotas assigned by the Ocean and Fisheries Bureau of Jiangsu Province, the FMC restricts the main fishing gears that are allowed to operate on the lake. In 2004, 398 fishing “barricades” (down from 1 000 “barricades” in 1985) were allowed to operate, and 1 180 fisher households were allowed to operate small fishing gears such as gillnets, shrimp traps, and hooks and lines. The FMC also regulates fishing seasons for some fishing gear, mesh sizes, gear dimensions and locations where gear can be operated. In the case of fishing barricades, for example, regulations stipulate that like all other fishing gear, they cannot be operated during the closed season from 1 March to 1 May. Each barricade cannot have more than four nets and cannot be longer than 200 m. The mesh size of the cod end must be larger than 2 cm and the distance between two barricades must be greater than 50 m. The distance of fishing barricades from conservation zones must be at least 500 m. All harmful fishing gears and methods are
banned from use in the lake, such as electro-fishing, explosives and cloth barrages for ice fish, drift nets with small mesh sizes, drum screens, pound nets and other harmful local fishing gear.

**Stocking of fingerlings**

Stocking of fingerlings is a particularly effective measure for enhancing fishery resources in the case of migratory and semi-migratory fish and crab species, which do not reproduce in the lake. Stocking of fingerlings of grass carp, silver carp, bighead carp and wuchang fish in Lake Luoma began as early as in 1967. Most of the stocked fingerlings had a body length of either 3 cm or 7-10 cm.

In 1976, a hatchery was established at Lake Luoma for stocking fingerlings in the lake’s waters under the jurisdiction of Suqian County. More than two million fingerlings produced at the hatchery with a body length from 7-10 cm were stocked in the lake together with fingerlings of grass carp and wuchang fish with a body length of 3 cm, procured from Xinyi County. Hatchery-raised fish accounted for 6 percent of the total catch of 105 tonnes in 1976 and thus contributed to a higher fish production.

The stocking for fishery resources enhancement at Lake Luoma continues until today and the amount of fingerlings varies depending on availability of funds. From 2000 to 2003, 4,973 kg of fingerlings with 3 cm in body length, 28.8 million fertilized eggs of ice fishes and 12.1 million crabs were stocked in the lake and the total amount of funds spent on stocking was 1.202 million yuan in 2000-2003, as shown in Table 3.

Because of fund limitations and limited hatchery capacity, the amount of fingerlings stocked in Lake Luoma is considerably less than at Lake Taihu, at only 8 percent of the latter. Consequently, the share of hatchery-produced fish in the total catch is less than ten percent while it ranges from 15 to 20 percent at Lake Taihu.

To improve stocking programmes at Lake Luoma, both quantitatively and qualitatively, research must be conducted to improve stocking techniques regarding the species and sizes to be stocked, with due consideration to the characteristics and the state of the different stocks in the lake, and with the objective to maximize recapture rates of stocked species and economic benefits. There are plans to build a new hatchery and to improve the quality and quantity of fingerlings procured from other hatcheries. In the case of ice fish, resource enhancement will shift from stocking fertilized eggs to stocking larvae to improve the survival rate and the resource enhancement effects of the stocking programme.

**Moderation of aquaculture development**

Aquaculture at Lake Luoma was taken up enthusiastically by both fishers and farmers, and the area under aquaculture increased rapidly. As shown in Table 4, by 2003, 4,133 ha in and on the lake were used for aquaculture.

### TABLE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total weight of fingerlings (in kg)</th>
<th>3-cm fingerlings</th>
<th>Fertilized eggs of ice fish (in 10 000)</th>
<th>Crabs (in 10,000)</th>
<th>Expenditure (in yuan 10 000)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1,220</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1,125</td>
<td>1,030</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1,650</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>110</td>
<td></td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,973</td>
<td>6,615</td>
<td>2,880</td>
<td>121.3</td>
<td>120.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Statistics from the Fisheries Management Committee of Lake Luoma, 2004.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Area (in ha)</th>
<th>Yield (in tonnes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>359.3</td>
<td>1,169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>1,746.1</td>
<td>4,715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>3,233.1</td>
<td>7,156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>4,133.3</td>
<td>6,874</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Statistics from the Fisheries Management Committee of Lake Luoma, 2004.*
Three types of aquaculture methods were used in different ecological environments of the lake – pond culture along the shores of the lake with low dykes, pen culture in areas with shallow water, and cage culture in areas with deeper water. Aquaculture development is seen as a way to reduce fishing pressure and thus protect the newly enhanced fishery resources and increase the income of fishers and farmers. There is also awareness that aquaculture can contribute to eutrophication at the lake through the feed used. Aquaculture development should therefore be moderate. The use of eco-friendly and organic aquaculture practices using organic feed and fertilizers, and substances to control diseases is therefore advocated by the FMC.

Eco-friendly pilot aquaculture practices supported by biological and technological scientific research are presently implemented on 45.7 ha for eco-friendly pond culture, 108 ha for eco-friendly pen culture, and 4 125 ha for eco-friendly cage culture. The objective is to diversify the structure of the aquaculture industry on the lake, focusing on growing high-value fishes and shrimps, thereby maximizing both the economic and ecological benefits. In the case of pen culture, there are plans to change the traditional pen culture in parts of the lake, reduce the area under culture, and increase the economic benefits by growing high-value species more efficiently and in a more eco-friendly way. Efforts are also under way to establish brand names for aquaculture products from Lake Luoma that would reflect eco-friendly production methods and command a higher price.

4.2 Promoting additional employment opportunities and capacity building
In 2003, the total yield of capture fisheries and aquaculture at Lake Luoma reached 10 000 tonnes. It is difficult to provide further employment for fishers or farmers in fisheries and aquaculture taking into account the limited possibilities for further increases of fish production. Governments at various levels and the fisheries department are therefore exploring opportunities to create new employment opportunities in the cultivation of aquatic plants, and in secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy in fields such as processing and marketing of aquatic products and value-addition.

At present, there is only a small frozen aquatic products processing plant at Lake Luoma with an annual production capacity of 800 tonnes. To support the processing and marketing of new value-added aquatic products, the government provides financial support for market research and product development. There are presently 142 boats that purchase fresh fish and 76 brokers for aquatic products operating at the lake. The government is trying to expand the team of brokers and improve the services they provide.

Lake Luoma offers good opportunities for cultivating aquatic plants and aquatic vegetables. In 1977, the cultivation of water chestnuts began in an area of 30 ha; the area was extended to 567.8 ha in 1998. In addition, 9 000 yuan/ha worth of lotus roots, gorgon fruits and wild rice were cultivated in 1998. The cultivation of aquatic plants and fruits is being further expanded.

With the aim of increasing the knowledge and skills of fishers and fish farmers on all aspects that concern their occupations, livelihoods and political participation, a short course will be offered twice a year for 50 to 70 participants at a time. It is planned to train a minimum of 500 fishers over the next seven years. The course topics will include: the rehabilitation and protection of fishery resources; ecologically-friendly aquaculture techniques and practices; fishing gear and fishing methods; processing of aquatic products; marketing of aquatic products; and fisheries policies and regulations.

5. FINANCING OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF INLAND FISHERIES THROUGH FISHERY RESOURCES ENHANCEMENT FEES AND GOVERNMENT SUPPORT
Since the establishment of the FMC at Lake Luoma, the Fisheries Bureau of Jiangsu Province has provided funding support to the FMC on a regular basis for various
purposes related to the rehabilitation and management of inland fisheries at Lake Luoma. Funding support went to: the construction and maintenance of the buildings housing the FMC and equipment used by the committee; the construction of patrol boats for the inspection of fishing operations; the construction, maintenance and operation of hatcheries producing fingerlings for stocking purposes and for the purchase of additional fingerlings; the establishment of fish protection and conservation zones; and training and capacity building.

5.1 Scientific research funding
The Ministry of National Science and Technology, and the Science and Technology Bureau of Jiangsu Province support inland fisheries development and rehabilitation at Lake Luoma through research projects on aquaculture technologies and new species to be cultured. From 1995 to 2000, the Ministry of National Science and Technology provided 170 million yuan for a large-scale study on the opportunities of ecologically-friendly fisheries and aquaculture development at Lake Luoma. Ten researchers were involved and demonstrated to fishers and fish farmers various kinds of ecologically-friendly fish-rearing methods and technologies. At present, there are many ongoing research subjects on different aspects of sustainable development of inland fisheries at Lake Luoma, which receive technical and financial support from academic institutions and government agencies.

5.2 Fishery resources enhancement fees
As in the case of Lake Taihu, the FMC of Lake Luoma collects a fishery resources enhancement fee from fishers, fish farmers and also from fish traders. The fee is collected at the time of issuing fishing, fish farming and fish trading licences. In recent years, the annual fishery resources enhancement fees collected amounted to yuan 400 000, of which two-thirds were used to buy fingerlings for stocking and re-stocking.

REFERENCES
II. A success story of inland fisheries development and rehabilitation, and supporting credit and financing programmes at Lake Taihu, China

By Xie Yingliang and Yan Xiaomei

1. GEOGRAPHY, HYDROLOGY AND IMPORTANCE OF LAKE TAIHU

Lake Taihu, one of the five largest freshwater lakes in China, is located in the southern part of the Changjiang River Delta in China between latitude 30°55’40"N–31°32’58"N and longitude 119°52’32"E – 120°36’10"E. The lake covers an area of 2,427.8 km², which includes 48 islands. To the west and southwest of the lake are foothills; the eastern shores face the city of Shanghai. The total area of drainage of the lake is 36,500 km², occupying 0.4 percent of the total land area of China. The Lake Taihu drainage area belongs to three provinces, Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Anhui, and one city, Shanghai. Jiangsu Province covers 52.6 percent; Zhejiang Province, 32.8 percent; Shanghai, 14 percent; and Anhui Province, 0.6 percent of the drainage area of the lake.

In addition to Shanghai City, which falls directly under the jurisdiction of the Central Government, the drainage area includes four other cities in Jiangsu Province (Suzhou, Wuxi, Changzhou and Zhenjiang), three cities in Zhejiang Province (Hangzhou, Jiangxing and Huzhou), as well as 30 counties. Forty-nine percent of the population in the draining area of Lake Taihu live in cities. By 1997, the total population in the drainage area of Lake Taihu was 36.11 million, accounting for 2.9 percent of the total population of China. The drainage area of Lake Taihu is therefore one of the most densely populated regions of China.

As far as the utilization of land in the drainage area is concerned, 41 percent is used for agriculture, 16 percent consists of water bodies, 18 percent is occupied by settlements and buildings, and 25 percent for a variety of other purposes. In the Lake Taihu area, 50,000 people are involved in fisheries-related activities including 20,000 fishers and fish farmers.

The Lake Taihu drainage area has the shape of a dish with high elevations in the southwest, low elevations in the northeast, and both moderately high and low elevations in the centre. Of the total drainage area, 16 percent consists of foothills, 16 percent of rivers and lakes, and 68 percent of plains. The lake is not only located in the centre of a large drainage area, but is also the backbone of water conservation.

The main water source of Lake Taihu is the Zhaoxi water system of Tianmu Mountain in Zhejiang Province. The principal water flows enter into the lake from the Daqian and the Xiaomei River systems in the southwest and from 72 other small streams. Another important water source is the Jinqi water system of Mao Mountain on the boundary between Zhejiang Province and Anhui Province. The main water flows enter the lake through the Dapu River system in the west and its more than ten separate branches. The branches of the river are interconnected through creeks so that the water flow is adjusted automatically. The main water outlets of the lake are located along the
eastern shores of the lake, where the lake water feeds rivers such as the Liangxikou, the Shadeng, the Xukou, the Guajing and the Taipu River. Water flows out of the lake into Yangcheng Lake through the Beijing-Hangzhou Grand Canal and from there into the Changjiang River and the East China Sea through the Huangpu River, the Wusong River and the many creeks between Taichang City and Changshu City.

The holding capacity of Lake Taihu is 4.423 billion m$^3$ at a water level of 2.99 m and the average water depth of the lake is 1.89 m. The lake can hold around 8.3 billion m$^3$ at a water depth of 4.65 m. Because of the large surface area of the lake, an additional amount of 23 million m$^3$ of water needs to enter the lake to cause the water level to rise by 1 cm. For this reason, there is only a small change in the water level between rainy and dry seasons.

Because of the lake’s water-holding capacity, the low-lying areas of the plain in which it is located are protected from floods. The lake also supplies water for irrigation for both areas with lower elevation and areas with higher elevation, such as the foothills to the west of the lake. In years with normal rainfall, the lake provides enough water for irrigation purposes: in years with little rainfall, water is pumped into the lake from Changjiang River. In addition to providing water for agriculture, Lake Taihu also plays an important role in supplying water to cities and towns in the drainage area. Many cities located on the lake, such as Wuxi and Suzhou, draw water directly from the lake. As a source of water for the Huangpu River, it is an important indirect source of drinking water for Shanghai.

Lake Taihu and its drainage area also play an important role in navigation. There are 900 main and branch shipping lines, with a total length of 12 000 km. Over the years, the shipping network has expanded in all directions connecting rivers and lakes to the East China Sea.

### 2. CONSTRAINTS TO INLAND FISHERIES DEVELOPMENT

Fisheries at Lake Taihu have been and are being constrained by a number of factors. The construction of eight major dams and sluice gates along the rivers and lakes in the Lake Taihu drainage area in the 1950s and 1960s, particularly along the Changjiang River, led to a sharp decline of stocks of migratory species entering Lake Taihu through migration between rivers and the sea, and of species that cover shorter intra-river longitudinal distances between rivers and lakes.

In order to increase the production of rice in the 1960s and 1970s, many shallow water areas covered with grass along the lake were enclosed and separated from the lake for rice cultivation. This resulted in a decline of fish and shrimp stocks that had used these areas as spawning and nursery grounds.

Illegal fishing gear and fishing methods brought about a relative decline of large- and middle-sized fish stocks and a relative increase of young and small-sized fish populations. The deterioration of the lake’s environment resulted in the growth and bloom of algae during the summer periods in the middle of the 1980s and 1990s, which resulted in the deterioration of water quality, the death of fish and a sharp decline of fish stocks.

The influx of wastewater from rice fields and fishponds around the lake and from sewage systems is a cause of eutrophication and a serious constraint for the sustainable development of the inland fisheries.

At present, trawling is the main fishing method at Lake Taihu targeting mainly estuarine tapertail anchovy (*Coilia ectenes*), ice fish (*Salangidae*), silver carp and bighead carp.

### 3. EFFORTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS IN REHABILITATING FISHERIES AND THE AQUATIC ENVIRONMENT

Lake Taihu is suitable for the growth and reproduction of finfish. The capture fishery at Lake Taihu targets mainly finfish, which accounts for 85 to 95 percent of the total
catch, followed by shrimp and shellfish. As many as 106 species of fish have been recorded historically. Most of them are resident species, migratory species between river and sea, and semi-migratory species in rivers.

By the end of the 20th century, the number of fish species found in Lake Taihu had declined to about 65 species as a result of the impact of human activities and changes of the natural environment. These activities and changes included the construction of dams and sluice gates, inflow of water polluted by farming and industrial activities as well as fishing operations. Tapertail anchovies, ice fishes and newly introduced silver carp and bighead carp became the dominant species in the lake.

With the purpose of preventing a further deterioration of the water quality of Lake Taihu and its drainage area, the protection of the aquatic and natural environment in and around the lake was placed under the control of national projects. Since then, the Governments of Jiangsu and Zhejiang Provinces and Shanghai City have made joint efforts to fight water pollution in Lake Taihu, which are now showing first positive results. From the late 1990s on, strict regulations were introduced and enforced on the discharge of water and waste by towns, enterprises, industries and fish ponds; the prevention of oil spills from fishing and other vessels; and on other sources of pollution of the waters of Lake Taihu.

The establishment of the FMC of Lake Taihu in 1964 under the leadership of the Government of Jiangsu Province with the participation of the Government of Zhejiang Province introduced the policy of “paying equal attention to enhancement and aquaculture, exploitation and protection, production and management”. The FMC liaises with four cities, seven counties and leaders of fisher associations at the village and town level. As a result of the efforts of the committee pursued over more than 40 years, and through protection of fish reproduction and releasing of hatchery-raised fish fry into the waters of the lake, the annual catch has increased steadily, as shown in Figure 1. The annual catch at Lake Taihu was 30 516.5 tonnes in 2002 and the estimated annual catch for 2003, not included in Figure 4, was 35 000 tonnes, valued at 380 million yuan.

The stocking of the lake’s waters was introduced in the late 1960s; by 1998 as many as 239 million different kinds of fingerlings and 863 million “summer fingerlings” (10 cm in body length) had been released into Lake Taihu. In conjunction with the stocking of the lake’s waters with hatchery-raised fingerlings, seasonal protection for spawning populations was introduced in the late 1960s. By the middle of the 1980s, the FMC of Lake Taihu had enforced a closed fishing season for six months of every

![FIGURE 1](catch_at_lake_taihu_1952-2002.png)

year for the entire lake. The protection zone for spawning fish populations was further extended by the middle of the 1990s. All these measures promoted the sustainable development of fisheries in the lake.

As a result of these measures, each year the value of the catch and average income per fisher increased, as shown in Figure 2. In 2002, the total value of catch at Lake Taihu was 156.3546 million yuan, and the average income per fisher was 6813 yuan, which is higher than the average income of a farmer.

The measures taken to overcome the constraints to fisheries development at Lake Taihu are described below.

3.1 Stocking of lake waters

With the aim of mitigating the effects of dams and sluice gates that obstruct fish migration, the FMC of Lake Taihu began to stock migratory and semi-migratory species that cannot breed in Lake Taihu, such as fingerlings of silver carp, bighead carp, black carp, grass carp, wuchang fish, common carp and crucian carp. In addition to the 239 million fingerlings and 863 million “summer fingerlings” that had been stocked into Lake Taihu by 1998, 2,522 kg of Japanese eel fry were released into the lake from the late 1970s to the early 1980s. From the middle of the 1960s to the early 1990s, 41,600 kg of larvae of Chinese mitten crabs were stocked, and 13,100 kg one-year-old crabs were released from 1988 to 1993.

In 2003, the FMC continued its artificial stocking efforts. Common fingerlings were released during the winter season when their chances of survival were highest. The FMC also fine-tuned their stocking programmes to make them more efficient both in terms of biological and economic results. Larger quantities of fingerlings of high-value species were released. In addition to releasing common fingerlings during the winter period, a method of combining the stocking of fertilized eggs, summer fingerlings and large-size fingerlings was applied.

The annual amount of funds spent on stocking fingerlings in 2003 was 2.853 million yuan. This included funds for stocking 5.4819 million “spring fingerlings” with a total weight of 187,000 kg, 58.9788 million “summer fingerlings” of common carp with a total weight of 37,907.24 kg, 45,994 million fertilized eggs of ice fish, 41,336 juveniles of soft-shelled turtles, 70,947 eel fry, 120,600 \textit{Erythroculter ilishaeformis} (Bleeker) fry and 276,640 seeds of \textit{Hemibarbus maculatus} (Bleeker).
The stocking has played a significant role in the continued and steady increase of fish production at the lake and fishers’ income: the total catch had reached 35,000 tonnes in 2003 valued at 380 million yuan; and the average annual income of fishers had increased to 6,813 yuan by 2003.

3.2 Establishment of seasonal conservation zones and closed seasons
The enclosure of shallow, grassy lake areas and their separation from the lake for farming purposes resulted in a loss of water area of 13,400 ha and in a loss of spawning and nursery grounds of fish, shrimp and other aquatic organisms. To mitigate these negative effects, a seasonal conservation zone with a water area of 800 ha and an abundance of aquatic plants was established in the eastern part of Lake Taihu for the breeding of common carp and crucian carp. This zone was extended to 12,000 ha in 1978, and the conservation season was extended by one month. A perennial conservation zone with a water area of 3,400 ha was established in 1981 between the eastern and western mountains bordering the lake, and an additional conservation zone for spawning was established in 1985 in the Lanthanum area of the lake.

Because of a decline of ice fish stocks, a closed season for fishing ice fish during the spring was enforced during the last four years. A conservation zone for ice fish with a water area of 6,667 ha was established east of the Taihu Bridge in 2003. Ice fish stocks are now managed and monitored on a daily basis all year round so that management measures can be adjusted to changing circumstances. The protection of spawning grounds of fish has been expanded to include more species and to cover longer periods and larger water areas.

For the purpose of protection and rehabilitation of fishery resources, the FMC of Lake Taihu declares closed fishing seasons. During 2003, the closed season was extended from a previous three to seven months. During the closed season, some of the licensed fishing operations are allowed to continue, however.

3.3 Fishing gear regulations and bans
Killing fish with poison, explosives and electric current is illegal. In 1972, small-mesh purse seines with cod ends and crab digging were banned. This was followed later on with bans on other fishing gears that catch or harm juvenile fish, such as shrimp nets, trawling with several vessels, barrier nets, shrimp baskets, nets covering sluice gates and bottom cages. The use of fishing barricades was limited from late September to February, because they kill and wound stocked fingerlings and juvenile fish due to their small mesh size.

The FMC of Lake Taihu introduced and strictly enforces zones for the use of floating and fixed nets with a view to reducing conflicts between operators of the two types of gear and to increase catch of target species.

The FMC also strictly enforces a system of fishing and fish farming licences. In 2003, FMC issued 5,564 licences for fishing and 1,700 licences for aquaculture; in turn, fishing without a licence has been greatly reduced in the lake.

3.4 Integrating fishing with fish farming, fish marketing and processing
Traditionally, fishers on Lake Taihu were subsistence fishers. In the late 1970s, fishers began to construct fishponds and to culture fish in natural ponds. By the late 1980s, 90 percent of the 59 fishing villages along the lake were farming fish with a combined annual yield of more than 4,000 metric tonnes. In addition, they were engaged in processing and exporting aquatic products. Fishing vessels were used for transportation during the period of closed fishing seasons and many fishers set up small enterprises in villages and towns. The contribution of income from fishing to the total income of a fisher’s household declined in many cases to as little as ten percent.
Recently, a new form of aquaculture, pen culture, has been taken up in suitable areas of Lake Taihu. In 1997, the total value of pen culture production at Lake Taihu reached yuan 120 million, exceeding the value of capture fishery production, which was 100 million yuan in the same year.

3.5 Source and use of funds for fishery resources enhancement

The funds, which are used for the stocking programmes and protection of fish in the lake, come principally from two sources: government agencies and, increasingly, the fishers themselves operating at Lake Taihu by collecting a fee for fishery resources enhancement. This reflects the underlying principle of fisheries management at Lake Taihu, that whatever is taken from the lake should be used in its interest, and that fishery resources enhancement should eventually fund itself through resource use fees, rather than through regular government budget expenditure.

**Government contribution**

From 1965 to 1998, a total amount of 20.1688 million yuan was spent on the stocking of Lake Taihu, of which yuan 9.265 million was contributed by the government. This was the largest amount spent on the stocking of any lake in China. Figure 3 shows the annual expenditure.

**Collection of fees for the enhancement of fishery resources**

The FMC of Lake Taihu began to impose a fee for fishery resources enhancement at Lake Taihu in 1965 and 40 000 yuan was collected in the same year. In 1996, a system of fishing licences and new regulations on imposing fees for fishery resources enhancement were introduced. By 1998, a total amount of 12.1135 million yuan had been collected, which covered 95.5 percent of all expenditure incurred in the stocking of the lake’s waters with fingerlings (Table 1).

From 1970 to 1982, the fee for fishery resources enhancement was calculated as a share of the sales value of fish caught in the lake. The fee was collected when fishers sold their catch to consignees along the lake. In the case of full-time fishers residing at the lake, 2.5 percent of the sales value of the catch was retained as fishery resources enhancement fees. With regard to part-time fishers and external fishers, 5 percent of the sales value was collected as the fee. In 1982, the FMC of Lake Taihu changed the calculation of the fishery resources enhancement fee: it was no longer calculated as
a share of the sales value of the catch and collected at the time of selling it, but was calculated according to the tonnage of the fishing vessel operated at the lake and the size of fishing gear used and collected at the time of issuing the fishing licence. This change was much appreciated by fishers as the fee was now uniform for a given size of vessel and its gear, and no longer increased with the value of catch. The change also motivated fishers to participate more actively in the fisheries management of the lake. The combination of issuing and registering fishing licences and collecting fishery resources enhancement fees was embedded in a new fisheries regulation issued in 1986 as part of the “supporting the lake with the lake” policy.

During 34 years, from 1965 to 1998, a total of 53.7523 million yuan was collected as fishery resources use fees. From 1965 to 1974, the average fees collected per year were only 46,000 yuan. This annual revenue more than tripled, increasing to 158,000 yuan from 1975 to 1984; it then increased more than tenfold to 1.9937 million yuan from 1985 to 1993; finally it more than doubled to 5.1846 million yuan from 1994 to 1998.

In the 1990s, following the development of pen culture in Lake Taihu, a regulation on the leasing of water areas for pen culture and other fishery uses was introduced. The lease fees are calculated as a percentage of the annual sales value of the pen culture production and range from 3-5 percent or 6-10 percent, depending on the status of the fish farmer/fishers, i.e. full-time, part-time, local or external, etc.

While fees for fishery resources enhancement were initially exclusively used to finance the stocking of fingerlings in the lake, these fees were later used increasingly to fund the expansion of protection zones for spawning fish. Figure 4 shows the use of fishery resources enhancement fees separately for stocking and for protection of spawning fish, referred to as “multiplication and protection” from 1973 to 1998. In the late 1990s, expenditure for fish protection was higher than expenditure for stocking of fingerlings.

Regarding the question whether the fishery resources enhancement fees were sufficient to meet the expenditure incurred in enhancing and protecting the fishery resources, it is interesting to note that by 1998 the major portion of the expenditure, i.e. 95.51 percent, had indeed been covered by the fees and that the policy objective of fisheries management at Lake Taihu “supporting the lake with the lake” had largely been achieved.

### 3.6 Technical assistance from the Ministry of National Science and Technology

Lake Taihu has been studied by many scientific research institutes, universities and colleges. From 1950 to 1970, ten surveys were conducted on the fishery ecology and

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**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th>Revenue as share of expenditure (%)</th>
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<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
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<td>1998</td>
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Source: Statistics from the Fisheries Management Committee of Lake Taihu, 1999.
biology of the lake and on the fishing gear used. In the late 1970s, the National Science Committee set up a scientific and experimental framework for fishery resources enhancement at the lake. Within this framework, more than ten research institutes at the national, provincial and city level, and universities and colleges in Shanghai, Nanjing and Suzhou supported and cooperated with the FMC of Lake Taihu. Scientific research concentrated on the enhancement and protection of fishery resources and the sustainable development of fish production. Research has played an important role in guiding fisheries management at the lake and further research is planned on environmental rehabilitation through the use of aquatic plants and animals such as fish, shrimp, shellfish, algae and aquatic plants. Funds for the research are provided by the Ministry of Science and Technology.

4. CREDIT AND MICROFINANCE IN SUPPORT OF INLAND FISHERIES

In 1999 and 2000, the Bank of China issued provisional regulations for rural credit cooperatives on the provision of credit and microfinance to agriculturists and farmers, including fish farmers and fishers, as well as guidelines for the management of these loans. These regulations and guidelines played an important role in providing much-needed credit and microfinance support to inland fisheries management and rehabilitation at Lake Taihu. In accordance with regulations and guidelines, fishers and fish farmers can obtain credit and microfinance from rural credit cooperatives operating in the lake region without providing traditional collateral.

4.1 Loan purpose, eligibility and credit-worthiness

Loans are provided for capital investment and working capital requirements of capture fisheries and fish farming. To be eligible for receiving a loan, a borrower must: be a self-employed fisher or fish farmer with a regular income; have a properly registered residence in a county or town on Lake Taihu; and have sufficient labour available in his or her family to carry out the fishing or fish farming activity for which credit is sought in accordance with existing fisheries, environmental and other regulations. The borrower must also have the capacity to manage and repay the loan.

In the place of traditional collateral such as an adequately valued piece of property, which many small-scale fishers and fish farmers do not have, the credit-worthiness of a potential borrower is assessed. The assessment is carried out by a group formed by
the rural credit cooperative, which consists of the director of the cooperative council, the director of the credit department of the cooperative, a loan officer, members of the cooperative’s supervisory council and a fisher/fish farmer representative with an outstanding business and financial reputation. The assessment includes a review of the income of the borrower and his or her family over the last two years, as well as an assessment of their production-related credit needs.

The assessment of credit-worthiness produces a credit rating of the potential borrower. Three grades of credit-worthiness are distinguished – an excellent, good and common credit rating. An excellent credit rating implies that the borrower has a proven loan repayment record over at least three years with a full and timely repayment of both principal and interest of loans taken during that period. Other requirements for an excellent credit-worthiness rating are an annual minimum net family income of 2000 yuan and the capacity to provide an equity contribution to a loan of 50 percent from own finances. A good credit rating requires the repayment of past loans and a net annual family income of at least 1000 yuan. A common credit rating requires a net annual family income of at least 500 yuan and available labour in the family to carry out the activity for which the loan is requested.

4.2 Loan disbursement, monitoring and repayment

Once the assessment of the credit-worthiness has been completed, a credit card is issued, which indicates the annual amount of credit available. Only one card is issued per family or household and the card is not transferable. In case of an excellent credit rating, the borrower can take loans of up to a maximum of 20,000 yuan per year. Throughout the period for which the credit card is valid, the borrower can take several loans without applying again separately for each of them. The borrower can withdraw the loan amount by simply showing his credit card together with an identity card or household card. This practice is very convenient as it prevents delays of loan disbursements due to delays in the processing of individual loan applications.

After a loan has been taken, the credit officer of the rural credit cooperative visits the fisher or fish farmer regularly to supervise the use of the loan. In case of natural calamities, failures of fishing seasons, fish diseases and other causes of genuine default in the repayment of loans, loan repayment can be rescheduled.

In the case of microcredit, the loan is to be repaid within a year. In the case of larger loans, loan repayment periods extend beyond one year. The interest rates charged to borrowers follow the benchmarks established by the Bank of China. These include preferential rates of interest in the case of microcredit for fishers, fish farmers and other small rural entrepreneurs.

From 2001 to 2003, the rural credit cooperative of Jiangsu Province alone provided 9.57 yuan million of credit and microfinance to fishers and farmers at Lake Taihu (see Table 2). In order to promote the development of pen culture, the FMC of Lake Taihu introduced a special programme under which interest rates of loans are subsidized by provincial governments and through other sources of funds. From 1988 to 1993,
450 700 yuan was made available for this purpose by provincial governments as well as 947 900 yuan from other sources.

The credit and microfinance support to fishers and fish farmers at Lake Taihu has helped them finance their production inputs, acquire fishing gear that complies with fisheries regulations, and to shift from capture fisheries to fish farming, thereby reducing the pressure on capture fishery resources. It has further motivated fishers and fish farmers to more actively participate in fisheries management at the lake and to comply with management measures and regulations.
III. Management challenges for riverine fisheries and fishers in India

By P.V. Dehadrai

1. INTRODUCTION

Following the post-independence thrust on overall development in India, the riverine environment has been subjected to tremendous pressures. Human interference in the form of water abstraction, draining of rivers, dam construction, sedimentation and pollution has produced disturbing effects. A reappraisal of fisheries of certain stretches of rivers such as the Ganga (Kanpur to Bhagalpur) has indicated that the yield of major carps and several other commercial species has fallen during the period 1958-1961 to 1980-1986. The impact of man-made barriers on migrating fish species such as *Hilsa ilisha* is also evident from their decline in the upstream waters of River Ganga due to the Farakka Barrage. The example of River Ganga largely illustrates the situation existing in almost all Indian river systems.

Disruption of the environment and creation of man-made lakes on rivers, i.e. reservoirs, have displaced fisherfolk and adversely affected their livelihoods. The solution lies in raising fish productivity of rivers and streams since productivity in any commodity sector will determine employment and income level. The basic objective in riverine fisheries should be to give emphasis to improving water quality and conserving the biological, particularly fishery, resources, while attempting to optimize productivity (Dehadrai, 2002). Yield models need to be developed for multi-species and multi-gear fisheries, particularly in the wake of modified water abstraction and pollution from industry and agricultural fields. Since water has multiple uses, particularly irrigation and abstraction of water for domestic and industrial uses, there is a need for reconciling intersectoral conflicts. The requirements of drinking water, irrigation and fisheries should be treated holistically.

Ecological investigations covering several rivers during the past decades have helped understand the riverine environment and fish catch structure from the viewpoint of fishermen. Recently, due to the overall environmental degradation and man-made interferences in the catchment areas of river basins, there has been a perceptible decline in both fish productivity and production. It is therefore necessary to give added emphasis to fish biology *vis-à-vis* the changed environmental conditions towards eco-restoration and developing management norms in order to provide advice to government development departments.

The restoration of riverine fisheries entails a broad integrated approach, taking into account the requirements of fisheries and of other uses of land and water in the river basin. It also requires regulation of fishing effort, strict enforcement of closed seasons, rejuvenation of endangered fish species through stocking programmes, protection of natural breeding grounds and the setting up of sanctuaries for restoring depleted fish germplasm.

By virtue of their production potential, floodplain lakes constitute the frontline area in a river system where a judicious combination of culture and capture fisheries should be practised. Being a continuum of the river, floodplain lakes also have a vital
bearing on the health of the riverine fisheries ecosystem and therefore need adequate conservation measures in addition to harvesting the fishery resources.

Inland waters vary significantly in the nature and magnitude of their resources. Accordingly, these waters are managed differently for fishery activities under various property and management regimes. This mechanism has a direct bearing on the socio-economic conditions of the ultimate end users, the fishers (Sinha, 2002).

2. THE RIVERS

Traditionally, rivers have been managed as a common property resource. These resources have multiple uses for the riparian area population. The residents of the riparian area cannot be excluded from its use because they have the same rights and duties as in common property regimes.

The crux, however, lies with the commercial users or the individuals who depend on rivers for their livelihood, for instance, members of fishing communities, agriculturists using water for irrigation, the sand excavation industry, and shipping and water transport services. Property regimes must clarify the perceptions of the collective use of scarce and valuable resources or those worth protecting. It would restrict all users to exploit the resource within tolerable limits in order to avoid any encroachment on the interests of other users with the same or different purposes. Riverine fish stock, a scarce and valuable natural resource, has been declining over the past few decades due to human intervention, which acts against the fishers’ interests through water abstraction, dam construction, draining of rivers and sedimentation, etc.

In India, rivers are state property and various river stretches within or between states belong to departments of fisheries, revenue, forestry, village panchayats and other government agencies and authorities. These departments and authorities apply different policies for fishing in river stretches under their control. With rivers being fluvial and fish being migratory renewable resources, it is difficult to apportion fish biomass to territorial limits. From the fisheries’ viewpoint, most of the rivers are in open access areas, with some exceptions where they are leased to cooperatives or private parties.

The fishery requisites such as fishing gear and craft for river stretches with open access, and those leased by cooperatives are either owned or shared by fishermen. In the case of river stretches leased to private parties, usually fish traders and contractors, fishing gear and craft belong to fishers or may be financed or provided by these contractors. Table 1 shows that the remuneration for catch and distribution of profits to fishers are highest in open access regimes. Fishing is remunerated according to contribution in terms of fishing effort and fishery requisites. Fishers contributing boats and nets receive a higher share than those sharing these requisites with their owners.

In the case of river stretches leased by contractors and cooperatives, the remuneration and payments largely depend on the pattern of catch disposal and the method adopted for payments under the respective regime. The contractor, usually a fish trader himself, does not share his profits with the fishers. In the case of cooperatives, the remuneration of fishers is a percentage of the market price of fish caught after deducting the commission of the cooperative society for rendering its service. The profits are later distributed among the members of the cooperative society according to their share capital.

Table 1 also shows that the working efficiency and extent of remuneration are presently highest under a cooperative management regime and open access, and lowest under a private property regime. This finding suggests that privatization of fishing rights in riverine fisheries in India would accelerate the process of social disequilibrium and broaden income inequalities. It would push the downtrodden further down and the already economically well-off fish traders further up the social and economic ladder.
2.1 Inter-state river management conflicts and their effect on fisheries development

In India’s federal policy there are in-built strains between the Union Government and the states, which are independent and coordinating authorities and not subordinated to the former. Entry 14 of List II of Article 246 of the Indian Constitution places agricultural research and education on the State List, whereas regulation and development of inter-state rivers and river valleys are covered under Entry 56 of List I, which is the Union List.

The recent history of India is replete with inter-state river disputes. As the ownership and rights of the management of rivers are vested in multiple agencies, it becomes difficult to have a coordinated approach. Whereas Article 262 provides a mechanism for resolving disputes or complaints with regard to the use of waters of inter-state rivers and river valleys, no such mechanism exists for the regulation of fisheries of such rivers on a uniform basis. In the case of River Ganga, which flows through four states, Uttaranchal, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and West Bengal, the exploitation policies are at variance, depending on the importance of riverine fisheries in each state. There is a definite need for carrying out stock assessment studies and associated aspects, namely, patterns of breeding and recruitment. Furthermore, the impact of man-made changes and disturbances in the catchment areas of the river basin needs to be linked to fish productivity and production. Therefore, the creation of a controlling agency, namely, an inter-state riverine fisheries board, should be considered for the formulation of a rational and ecologically sound exploitation policy for the fisheries of inter-state rivers. Once this is agreed on in principle, the modalities can be worked out by a committee of experts. This authority may be along the lines of the National Highway Authority as in the case of surface transport.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Open access</th>
<th>Leased by private parties</th>
<th>Leased by cooperatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Input profile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of fishers with type of gears</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gillnet</td>
<td>67.06</td>
<td>56.27</td>
<td>57.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dragnet</td>
<td>18.14</td>
<td>32.23</td>
<td>17.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castnet</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hook and line</td>
<td>24.37</td>
<td>21.73</td>
<td>34.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of fishers with own boat</td>
<td>79.64</td>
<td>62.13</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual fishing effort (workdays/year)</td>
<td>281.82</td>
<td>293.24</td>
<td>147.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Output</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch per household (kg/year)</td>
<td>1 431.67</td>
<td>780.02</td>
<td>376.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch per day (kg)</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Costs and benefits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed cost per year (INR)</td>
<td>2 907.31</td>
<td>3 017.17</td>
<td>1 451.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable cost per year (INR)</td>
<td>1 712.21</td>
<td>1 737.39</td>
<td>285.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cost per year (INR)</td>
<td>4 619.52</td>
<td>4 754.56</td>
<td>1 736.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price received (INR per kg)</td>
<td>24.09</td>
<td>18.79</td>
<td>34.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross return per year (INR)</td>
<td>34 488.93</td>
<td>14 656.58</td>
<td>13 108.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net returns per year (INR)</td>
<td>29 869.41</td>
<td>9 902.02</td>
<td>11 371.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net returns (INR per kg)</td>
<td>20.86</td>
<td>12.69</td>
<td>30.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input-output ratio</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>7.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 Constitutional position and proposals for legislative reform

Entry 21 of List II of Article 246(3) of the Indian Constitution puts fisheries in the State List, whereas regulation and development of inter-state river and river valleys figure in Entry 56 of List I, i.e. the Union List. Under Section 3 of the Indian Fisheries Act, which came into force in 1897, the states promulgate rules and regulatory measures that generally comprise limiting access to fishery resources, licensing fishing gear, gear restrictions and leasing, and auctioning of fishing grounds.

The operation of various fishery laws in the country, however, has not yielded the desired results. Although declarations and intentions are ambitious, little has been achieved at the implementation stage. The time is now ripe to revisit the fishery laws and other associated rules for the development of inland fisheries. The following proposals for legislative reforms merit attention:

• To deal with the conflicts in regard to the management of river basins and of the inter-state fishery resources, the inclusion of the fisheries management of the inter-state rivers could be considered in the Concurrent list of the central and the state governments.

• The anachronistic Indian Fisheries Act of 1897 should be repealed and a new comprehensive act should be formulated after taking stock of all the changes in the last five decades.

• Keeping in view the diverse local conditions, the central law may be of limited use, but related rules should be promulgated within the basic framework of a comprehensive Central Act.

• Inland fisheries should be included in the Concurrent list of the Indian Constitution so that the Union Government can also frame laws.

• Although deterrence is not the sole basis of law, the punishment prescribed in fishery laws is very mild. Even in the matters of food adulteration and drugs, it becomes difficult to bring offenders to court. Unfortunately, in fisheries, violation of the rules is not taken very seriously.

• An expert group comprising environmentalists, fishery scientists and jurists should examine the possibility of making offences relating to destruction of habitat environment and aquatic life cognizable and non-bailable.

• The enforcement machinery needs strengthening although it may lead to an increase in the financial liability of development departments. Without adequate manpower and social ethics, it is difficult to implement even ideally conceived laws. The duty of conservationists, planners and decision-makers does not end by adding a new law to the statute book unless it is administered properly.

• The river-cleaning programme should be closely linked to afforestation of the river basins and the overall catchment areas. Further, man-made interferences may push us near to the point of no return if we do not oppose them with an iron will.

In view of the above, the following may be considered for promulgation and implementation (Dehadrai, 2002):

• A reliable database on a time series mode should be generated while planning the formulation of development strategies for open water fisheries, especially the riverine fisheries in the country.

• Special programmes should be implemented in identified areas to raise awareness on the conservation of biodiversity, initiate revival of commercially viable biomass and protect the habitat.

• Open water fisheries and riverine fisheries cut across the geographical boundaries of various states. Conservation and sustainable exploitation measures taken in one state need to be complemented by the neighbouring states up- or downstream of the rivers following globally agreed principles of responsible fisheries. Mechanisms for inter-state understanding and coordination would need to be developed.
Indiscriminate fishing from secluded pools of water created along the banks of the rivers after floods recede has been a major cause of depletion of commercially important fish stocks in rivers. These breeder pools may be protected by declaring them fish breeding parks and sanctuaries.

Certain identified strategic but manageable high-altitude streams and lakes may be adopted under a biodiversity conservation programme through a ban on fishing, protection of habitat through punitive orders, and enhancement of natural populations with ranching certain species such as Mahseer and snow trout through hatchery breeding.

The existing rules and regulations under the Indian Fisheries Act (1897) have provision to control and monitor the use of gear and mesh size, as well as the observance of closed seasons.

For effective implementation of the regulations, the following measures may be considered:

- While leasing riverine stretches to lessees, conditions should be clearly stipulated with punitive clauses on violations of conditions.
- Mesh size regulations may be monitored by inspecting landing centres for fish size in particular seasons and parties operating along certain river stretches made responsible.
- Riverine stretches to be leased may be enlarged in length to minimize fishing pressure per unit length of the river by the lessee.
- Lease period should have a flexible component with the possibility to extend the period depending on the performance of the lessee.

2.3 Socio-economic status of fishers of River Ganga

Studies have been conducted to ascertain the factors responsible for declining fish production, but investigations on changes of the social, economic, cultural and occupational status of fishers are lacking.

A study conducted by Tyagi in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar along the Hardoi-Bhagalpur stretch of River Ganga shows that inland fishers are in the grip of severe poverty. In both states, 73.29 percent of inland fishers fall below the poverty line and 27.55 percent are classified as very poor.

3. INLAND OPEN WATER FISHERIES

Around 2.4 million out of the total 3.2 million tonnes of inland fish production in 2002/2003 came from inland aquaculture. Of the remaining 0.8 million tonnes, the contribution of reservoirs was around 0.6 million tonnes and the remaining 0.2 million tonnes were contributed by the open water fisheries of rivers and floodplain lakes.

The development of riverine fisheries is at a critical point. In the case of the Indian rivers, floodplain lakes and wetlands, degradation and loss of habitat are rapidly increasing. With respect to the environmental status of the rivers, the enhancement of fish yield appears to be a distant possibility. The multiple uses of these resources make the implementation of ameliorative measures difficult. Evidently, conserving the germplasm in an open water regime is more purposeful than efforts to increase yield, because biodiversity could at least be preserved, particularly the fish fauna. If such measures could be implemented, there could be an overall improvement in the habitat, and fish production from rivers and floodplain lakes could reach up to around three million tonnes.

At present, the fishery resources are “exploited” by entrepreneurs and contractors and “utilized” by fishers and fish farmers. There is need to conduct a study on the impact of development efforts on the techno- and socio-economic status of fishers to generate benchmark data, which could serve as a base for the future development strategies in the open water fishery sector. A well-formulated project could help
establish credit and microfinance systems for inland fishers and their families, train fishers, create ancillary vocations, construct roads, and develop infrastructure including health, school education, nutrition and sanitation, etc. Preparatory research would be essential, such as:

- studies on credit needs and traditional credit sources of fishers;
- identification of best approaches to poverty alleviation among inland fishers in close cooperation with fishers, executive members of fisheries cooperatives, heads of SHGs, bankers, fishery administrators, etc;
- evaluation of costs and earnings of various inland fishing craft and gear, and analysis of their technical and financial viability;
- credit and microfinance programmes design and document formulation for the management of these programmes;
- workshops to impart training to all concerned with the management of these programmes.

4. MICROFINANCING MODEL

As fishers are scattered and poor in the riverine fisheries sector, the microfinance approach would be the most suitable approach, as indicated in Figure 1 by Upare’s modified model, SHGs/cooperatives – bank linkage with NGOs as financial intermediaries (2004).

NGOs have emerged as key players and are the most common institutional type of microfinancing institutions. In the light of governments being inefficient as microfinance providers, NGOs could venture into financing not only groups, but also individuals, particularly women, in support of their income-generating activities and trades.

The growing awareness of the importance of women as economic providers and their pivotal role in sustaining the family increases the need to include them in new development programmes and to facilitate their participation in ongoing programmes. It has been observed that income earned by women is more likely to be spent on food and other basic needs of the family than income earned by men. Consequently, it is recognized that an increase in women’s income is more likely to improve family status than increased household income per se.

The Department for International Development (DFID)-funded programme in West Bengal and Orissa is an exemplary case showing success in SHG-formation for rural aquaculture and fisheries (Tripathi and Dutta, 2004). Facilitated by community organizations, the project used group formation as its entry point. This helped build social capital in clusters of villages, whereas “financial capital” was built up through group savings, in which microfinancing could also contribute.

In this and other efforts to alleviate poverty among inland fisherfolk, improving their livelihoods and rehabilitating and developing inland fisheries, the “natural

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**FIGURE 1**

Modified model of SHGs/cooperatives – bank linkage with NGOs as financial intermediaries

- **NGO** (financial intermediary)
- **Banks**
- **Promote, train and provide credit support**
- **SHGs and cooperatives**
capital” is already available with the potential fish catch from the rivers, the scope for cage and pen culture, and the tapping of other resources from open water fisheries. But the “physical capital” in the form of nets, boats, baskets, ice, landing centres, transport and communication, etc. would need to be provided. Similarly, the human capital consisting of technical knowledge of fishing, fish processing, marketing and other fishery-related skills would have to be developed.

In addition to fishing operations, the following ancillary enterprises should be promoted among inland fishers for income generation, particularly during non-fishing seasons, and for supporting microfinance facilities needing to be extended:

- fish net making and repair;
- sale of fishing gear through cooperatives, SHGs or NGOs;
- spawn collection from flooded rivers during monsoons;
- cage culture of fish in suitable river stretches;
- pen culture of fish in suitable areas of river banks;
- fish product development (pickles, chips, noodles, munches, etc.);
- marketing of fish products;
- sport fishing and ecotourism;
- dried fish trade;
- aquaculture in ponds;
- ornamental fish breeding and marketing;
- bamboo cultivation with supporting nurseries bamboo handicrafts.

The involvement of women needs to be encouraged in all the above vocations.

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Upare, M.A. 2004. *Experience of fisheries credit project management in India, Sierra Leone, Vietnam, Malawi, Bangladesh*. Third Indian Fisheries Science Congress, 4-6 November 2004, New Delhi, India. (abstracts)
IV. Credit and microfinance programmes in inland capture fisheries in West Bengal and Assam, India

By M.A. Upare

1. INTRODUCTION

After China, India has the second largest inland capture fishery production in the world. Fisheries play a very important role in the Indian economy as they provide employment opportunities and are an important source of protein for their population. It is also an important source of foreign exchange earnings. The fisheries sector contributes 1.21 percent to the total GDP and 5.37 percent to the GDP of the agriculture sector. The sector generated export earnings from marine products of US$1 425 million in 2002-2003 and provided employment for 5.9 million full-time and part-time fishers, and for a similar number of people in ancillary and supporting activities. The present fish production is estimated at six million tonnes compared to an assessed potential of 8.4 million tonnes. Opportunities are thus available for further development of the sector and the consequent strengthening of the rural economy, employment generation, reduction of poverty and generation of additional export earnings. The States of Assam and West Bengal are important inland fisheries states in the country, not only from the point of view of their potential for the development of fish farming, but also because fish is the main constituent of the local diet and about 95 percent of the states’ populations consume freshwater fish.

2. PRESENT STATUS OF INLAND CAPTURE FISHERIES IN INDIA

India has vast inland fishery resources in rivers and canals (171 334 million km), reservoirs (3.1 million ha), tanks and ponds (2.2 million ha), estuaries, floodplain lakes (0.24 million ha) and wetlands, offering tremendous scope for fish production. However, irrational forms of exploitation can endanger the delicate balance of a fragile inland fishery ecosystem. Open water resources are managed on the basis of exploitation of natural stocks. Therefore, sound environmental protection norms should be established and followed to develop inland fishery resources exploitation in a sustainable manner.

The river system of India comprises 14 major rivers, 44 medium rivers and innumerable small rivers and desert streams. A variety of river systems provides one of the richest fish genetic resources in the world. The Indian floodplain lakes are primarily a continuum of the rivers Ganga and Brahmaputra. Floodplain lakes usually take the form of oxbow lakes locally called mauns, chaurs, jheels and beels, especially in the States of Assam, Manipur, West Bengal, Bihar and Eastern Uttar Pradesh. Reservoirs constitute the single largest inland fishery resource both in terms of resource size and production potential. A study conducted by FAO in 1995 estimated a total of 19 370 reservoirs in India with a total area of 3.15 million ha (Table 1). The study also classified the reservoirs into small, medium and large as follows:
2.1 Rivers and floodplains

The extensive network of Indian rivers (45 000 km) and canals (126 334 km) constitute one of the major inland fishery resources of India. Rivers also serve as primary habitat for the original germplasm of Indian fishes. The present-day riverine fishery yield is low, with an average yield of 0.3 tonne per km, which is only 15 percent of the estimated potential. Riverine fisheries are considered fisheries that generate yields below subsistence level. Catch statistics over many years indicate a declining trend for riverine catches, both in quantitative and qualitative terms. The average yield of major carps in River Ganga declined from 26.62 to 2.55 kg/ha/year during the last four decades. Biologically and economically desirable fish species have started to be replaced by low-value species as their populations are rapidly declining. Recent studies have shown that environmental changes, such as the decline of water level and volume due to sedimentation and water abstraction accompanied by river course modifications and irrational fishing practices, are the key factors responsible for the decline of riverine fish production.

Most Indian floodplain lakes are located in the States of Assam, West Bengal, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. They occupy an important position in inland fisheries of India because of their magnitude and production potential, and because they serve as breeding and nursing ground for riverine fish stocks. These water bodies are extremely rich in nutrients. Unfortunately, the floodplain lakes in India have not been cared for and many are in the process of becoming swamps. Floodplain lakes are capable of yielding on average one tonne of fish per ha if subjected to scientific management. Therefore, a vast untapped production potential is yet to be harnessed in floodplain wetlands.

While much emphasis has been placed at various national and international scientific fora on the conservation of fish germplasm and diversity, particularly through the adoption of effective conservation measures for riverine and floodplain fisheries, such measures have yet to be incorporated into fisheries development plans and fisheries regulations in India. Floodplain fisheries schemes received attention, however, in the IX Development Plan of the Central Government of India and were initiated in 1995-1996 for the floodplain fisheries in UP and Bihar through a World Bank-assisted project.

2.2 Estuaries

India’s estuarine systems (2.7 million ha) have been identified as important sources of fish and prawn seed, which are vital for both riverine and marine fisheries. The fisheries in estuaries in India are considered to produce yields above subsistence level, with average annual yields between 45 and 75 kg per ha. The commissioning of the Farakka Barrage, for example, has resulted in changes of the salinity and species composition of the Hooghly Matlah estuary. The increased water volume had a positive impact on the fishery of this estuary. The proposed impoundments in the Narmada River will completely change the ecology and the fisheries of the estuary in years to come. With some exceptions, the changing physical and economic environment is expected to offer an immense potential for fishery enhancements. In coastal areas, unfortunately, no specific measures have been taken yet for the development of estuarine fisheries.
2.3 Reservoirs
After independence, many small, medium and large river valley projects were implemented in India, which created a chain of impoundments in the form of reservoirs. Covering a total area of 3.15 million ha, reservoirs are today the most important inland open water fishery resource; in another two decades, they are expected to cover six million ha. The present fish production from reservoirs is estimated at 94 000 tonnes: 79 percent is contributed by small reservoirs, followed by large (14 percent) and medium ones (seven percent). Because of the lack of proper management, the present average annual yield of 20 kg per ha is far below the potential. While much higher yields can be achieved, even a moderate increase to 100 kg/ha for small reservoirs and to 50 kg/ha for medium and large reservoirs can provide an additional increment of 165 000 tonnes of fish valued at INR495 000 million at INR 30/kg. For this reason, reservoirs hold the largest potential for future fisheries development in India.

2.4 Upland fishery resources
Indian upland aquatic resources include rivers (8 253 km), natural lakes (21 900 ha) and reservoirs (29 700 ha). The capture fishery of these waters is poorly developed; it is characterized by low primary productivity of resources, slow growth rate of fish, inefficient fishing practices and inaccessibility of fishing and landing sites. Information on fishery resources and fish catches lacks proper documentation due to the diffused nature of the resources and the small quantity of catch per fisher. The information gathered in the recent past indicates an alarming downward trend in the quantity and average size of indigenous snow trout, mahseer and other fishes. Upland fisheries are less developed than other fisheries, primarily because of the low income derived from this enterprise. Upland fishers are often part-time fishers using traditional craft and gear.

3. ASSAM
3.1 Present status of fisheries and future potential
Fish is an important constituent of the diet of 95 percent of the state's 25 million population. The present annual fish production from all resources is about 160 000 tonnes against a demand of 300 000 tonnes, leaving a gap of 140 000 tonnes between supply and demand. The per capita availability of fish has been reported as 6.77 kg per year against a nutritional requirement of 11 kg per year. The gap between supply and demand is partially met by importing fish from other states such as Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Bihar. Fisheries play an important role in the Assam State's economy in addition to providing livelihoods for rural people, directly or indirectly.

Assam State has two major river systems, several beels, lakes, tanks/ponds and swamps, and is endowed with valuable fishery resources. Fishery resources and production of the state are shown in Table 2, together with the estimated level of exploitation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fishery resources</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Annual production</th>
<th>Exploited area/level of exploitation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Riverine fisheries (4 820 km)</td>
<td>205 000 ha</td>
<td>50 kg/km</td>
<td>Negligible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beels and oxbow lakes</td>
<td>100 000 ha</td>
<td>180 kg/ha</td>
<td>30 400 ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reservoir fisheries</td>
<td>1 713 ha</td>
<td>Negligible</td>
<td>35% in terms of average productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ponds and tanks</td>
<td>25 423 ha</td>
<td>1.2 tonnes/ha</td>
<td>2 390 ha and 35% in terms of average productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low lying areas and swamps</td>
<td>26 421 ha</td>
<td>not available</td>
<td>Negligible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest fisheries</td>
<td>5 017 ha</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derelict water bodies</td>
<td>10 000 ha</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>347 153 ha</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Department of Fisheries, Government of Assam.
As can be seen from Table 2, less than ten percent of ponds and tanks, and less than one-third of beels and oxbow lakes are used for fishery purposes. Riverine and reservoir fisheries are negligible.

**Tanks and ponds**

Although almost ten percent of the tanks and ponds in Assam are being utilized for fish culture, productivity levels are very low. It is estimated that the average annual productivity is approximately 1,200 kg per ha, while it is 4,000 kg/ha in other Indian states. There is scope for increasing the productivity to levels between 3,000 and 4,000 kg/ha/year by adopting scientific management measures and proper fisheries extension work.

**Beel and wetland fisheries**

Beels are considered one of the most productive inland water systems owing to their characteristic interactions between land and water. The flow of organic matter from the catchment area brings large amounts of nutrients, which increase the productivity of the beels. The present level of fishery production from beels is very low (14 to 488 kg/ha), with an average of 180 kg/ha. It is estimated that only one-fifth of the fishery potential is being realized from these waters. The utilization of the full potential of beel fishery would add up to 82,000 tonnes of fish per year to the total fish production of Assam. The annual net economic gain would total approximately INR3280 million assuming a price of INR40 per kg of fish.

Wetlands perform many important environmental functions. They maintain the stability of lowland ecosystems, retain floodwater and recharge ground water. They also provide water for drinking and irrigation, serve as habitat for aquatic organisms and migratory birds, and conserve biodiversity. Floodplains are vital breeding and nursery grounds for numerous fish species populating rivers and other open waters.

There are many stakeholders associated directly and indirectly with beels, including fishers, leaseholders, state governments, NGOs and others. Each of them operates at a different level. At the ecosystem level, the state government is associated with beels through drafting and implementing resource use policies for the production and conservation of aquatic resources and environment. At the resource level, leaseholders and managers are responsible for managing the fishery resource; at the exploitation level, individual fishers or groups of fishers exploit and manage the resource. There are various management domains with different components and outputs. The multiple uses of aquatic resources such as beels and wetlands for various purposes generate conflicts between different stakeholders, users and uses. Therefore, the objective of management should be to facilitate trade-offs between the different interests involved in the use of aquatic and fishery resources of beels and wetlands.

Generally, wetlands are managed for various broad objectives such as economic benefits, biodiversity conservation, protection of habitat, and maintenance of the ecosystem. Most important among them seems to be the economic objective. Profitability and higher economic return are the prime motives for beel managers in Assam. Many people are directly dependent on beels for various livelihoods. Food and livelihood security are other important objectives of beel management. As these resources are state-owned or commodity-owned, equity considerations also influence management. Overall sustainability is the fundamental objective of beel resource management.

Among other things, regular dredging and deepening of connecting channels to respond to siltation, clearing of weeds, changes in lease policies and proper technology transfer are essential for developing beel fisheries. Development programmes for beel fisheries involve the proper zoning of water bodies so that central areas can be used exclusively for capture fisheries and marginal areas for aquaculture in ponds, pens and cages. It is suggested that 20 percent of the available beel area, i.e. 20,000 ha, may be
brought under the fold of aquaculture over the next ten years. This is expected to yield a productivity of 4 000 kg per ha per year. Capture fisheries in the remaining beel area can be developed to yield 500 kg per ha per year by employing 15 000 fishing craft and gear units.

**Reservoir and riverine fisheries**

It is estimated that fisheries can be developed in 1 713 ha of existing reservoirs in Assam by suitably stocking them after assessing their production potential. The reservoirs are expected to yield a production of 150 kg/ha/year over the next ten years by employing about 100 fishing units.

The scope for the development of riverine fisheries in the state depends on the implementation of both short-term measures, such as a ban on capture of fingerlings, and the establishment of closed seasons and conservation areas for brood stock protection, and on long-term management measures, such as a systematic survey of riverine stretches to obtain accurate information on various parameters of the present status of fisheries and on optimizing and modernizing fishing gears and crafts. Conservation measures coupled with optimum fishing efforts can lead to better exploitation levels. If these measures are taken, the average yield over the next ten years is expected to increase to 500 kg per km of river by employing 12 000 fishing units.

**3.2 Property and use rights**

Property and use rights regulate the allocation and access to fishery resources. These rights vary considerably throughout the state, from the highly controlled and exclusive private aquatic properties to the open access beels. Various factors such as the size of a beel, traditional and customary rights, physiographic dimensions, physical accessibility and connectivity to the rivers are the determining variables for the nature of property and use rights.

Over the years, a transition in property regimes in beel fisheries can be observed from open access fishing and control by groups of fishers towards exclusive use rights of leaseholders. This shift is mainly due to two reasons. First, the marketing potential of fish is increasing as the demand – and consequently the price of fish – are increasing. The second reason is the scarcity of fishery resources. The transition has benefited the state government, which is earning a higher amount of lease fees, although at the cost of reduced social equity, since many poor fishers are being excluded from the use of fishery resources.

In Assam as elsewhere, fishing rights are considered non-exclusive for other uses of waters, such as navigation, irrigation and human consumption, among others. While destructive fishing practices such as catching juveniles, using small mesh sizes, poison and explosives are not allowed according to the regulations, the enforcement of the regulations is generally weak. The power to take punitive action is vested with deputy commissioners and subdivisional officers.

**Open access**

Beels with a larger expanse of water, i.e. 300 to 1 000 ha, and a length from 2 to 10 km are under open access regimes. The exclusion of fishers from exploiting these waters is difficult in practice and involves considerable costs. In Assam, there are many unclaimed and disputed water bodies used by fishers as open access resources. Similarly, the impounded waters beyond the demarcated margins of a beel are open to everyone for fishing.

In most of the beels, customary rights of tribal people and other indigenous ethnic groups are legally safeguarded. These customary fishing rights are species-, gear- and purpose-specific. The use of small fishing gear such as scoop nets, dip nets, hooks and lines, and other small gear is allowed throughout the year for subsistence fishing of
naturally occurring fishery resources. Marginal areas of beels, where women fishers usually fish, are also recognized as open access areas after the main harvesting season.

In the case of subsistence fishers fishing in water bodies leased by a private party or group, the leaseholder charges a nominal amount of rent from small-scale fishers. These fishing rents vary from INR10 to 20 per day for fishing with small nets such as scoopnets and dipnets, depending on the particular fishing season but not on the catch of the subsistence fisher.

**Ownership and control**

More than 67 percent of the beels in Assam are owned by the government, which are the most productive ones. They are owned by three state departments, the Assam Fisheries Development Corporation (AFDC), the Revenue Department and the Forest Department. The beels under AFDC are used for fishery purposes. AFDC leases 192 beels for a period of five years to cooperatives or individuals. A small number of beels are also leased out by the Revenue Department. Beels under ownership of the Forest Department are not utilized for fisheries since they are located in national parks and reserve forests.

Non-government agencies such as community bodies, autonomous tribal bodies, village councils (panchayats) and schools, etc. control about 33 percent of the beels. These beels are leased out to individuals or groups of individuals. These agencies follow their own procedures of leasing out beels under their control. The lease amount or the rent is generally used for social causes, such as the maintenance and running of schools, construction and maintenance of roads, and donations to religious institutions. The proceeds are occasionally used for providing assistance to the poor within the community and for social functions such as marriages and funerals.

**Leasing policy**

According to the leasing policy of the state government, fisheries cooperatives are preferred for leasing out beels owned by government. The percentage of beels that can be leased out to cooperative societies is not to exceed 60 percent, however. Cooperatives are given the chance to win a lease bid at a lower rate than a private party. In the absence of a cooperative bidding for a lease, members of the fishing community or backward classes have priority. A concession of 7.5–10 percent is given to an individual leaseholder belonging to a fishing community or backward class. At present, the amount of lease fees is about 20 to 30 percent of the revenue generated by fishing.

The lease period varies from three to five years, which is considered too short because it encourages the leaseholder to overfish broodstock and thereby deplete the beel’s fishery resources. Longer lease periods would encourage more sustainable and responsible harvesting and management.

**Conditions of fishing in leased or owned waters**

The conditions for fishing in a beel that has been leased or is owned by a private party or community vary widely across the state. In community-owned beels, only fishers belonging to the same community are allowed to fish. In most other cases, groups of fishers having had previous contracts or arrangements are preferred over others. In some places, fishing groups from outside the state are preferred because they are considered more efficient and less demanding in negotiations. In a few localities, such as Majoli Island, the fisher groups have to pay INR5 000 to 10 000 as entry fees, in addition to the share of their catch that accrues to the owner or leaseholder of the water. The share of fishers varies between 30 and 70 percent, depending on the availability of fish, ease of catch, type of catch, prevailing practices, provision of craft and gear, provision of food and utensils, membership in fishing groups, and other factors. When fish is abundant, a
larger share goes to the leaseholder. When the leaseholder has to provide fishing boats and nets, her/his share increases by 20 percent.

Within the group of fishers, the leader (locally called a hawaldar) takes 60 percent of the catch when he does provide food, utensils, boats, nets and other essential fishing requisites; the remaining 50 percent is distributed among the fishers. In the case that the fishing equipment is collectively owned or hired, the revenue from fishing is equally distributed among the group members after deducting all costs.

3.3 Institutional and regulatory framework

The formal sector

The Department of Fisheries, the Assam Fisheries Development Corporation (AFDC) and the apex cooperative Fish Marketing and Processing Federation Limited (FISHFED) are the major formal institutions associated with fisheries development in Assam.

There are approximately 200 registered fishermen cooperative societies in Assam, of which only seven are presently operating. The cooperatives were originally organized under the Cooperative Department of the State of Assam. FISHFED was established to support the marketing of fish through providing necessary infrastructure, and to promote exports and value-addition. But as most of the cooperatives, however, FISHFED is barely functional and is only involved in the marketing of fish on a limited scale. Therefore, cooperatives and their apex cooperative FISHFED presently do not play a significant role in fisheries development in Assam.

The informal sector

The informal sector consists of NGOs, informal groups, social institutions, village communities, SHGs and others who are involved in fisheries activities. These institutions emerged with the need for a collective effort. They are mostly based on social relationships and perform other functions in addition to fisheries. They are efficient in terms of mutual reciprocity, information flow and accountability within the system. Informal organizations are also very flexible and therefore highly efficient in their operations.

In Assam, the family is the most important informal institution in the fisheries sector. The work and responsibilities of fishers and their work groups are distributed and divided within the family and kin-group according to their capabilities and skills. Women are involved in net making, selling fish, and preparing and supplying food to men at landing sites, drying and preserving fish, and similar activities, as well as occasionally catching fish in open waters.

Different types of groups can be distinguished concerning their role in inland fisheries. There are fishing groups, management groups and caste groups. Large-scale fishing is a group activity, particularly in large water bodies, which requires bigger nets and group-based fishing practices. For this purpose, permanent and semi-permanent fishing groups operate in Assam, which generally consist of 10 to 14 members belonging to the same caste. They either own or hire fishing craft and gear collectively. The value of the collective assets of many groups varies from INR50,000 to 200,000. The groups are locally known as hawal. The senior-most member with the best knowledge and experience in fishing is made group leader, locally known as the hawaldar. The leader acts as a representative of the group in negotiations with leaseholders and owners of water bodies. Each member of the group is entitled to an equal share after the fixed and variable expenses have been deducted including the cost of food during fishing. Occasional absences from fishing due to illnesses or family emergencies are tolerated and minor medical expenses in the case of accidents are paid from the collective income of the group.

In addition to fishing groups, there are management groups. Membership varies from two to four members. Management groups perform functions such as taking and managing a fishing lease, investing in fishing craft and gear, and selling catch. The
individual responsibilities vary from place to place. The shares of the group members are based on their relative contribution to the management tasks.

Caste groups are important means of social reciprocity and sharing information. They are also important for collective bargaining, especially for ensuring free access rights, percentage sharing and negotiating the terms of entry into fishing grounds controlled, owned or leased by others. Caste groups also interact with each other. There are various caste groups belonging to different communities, such as Hindu fisher groups, Maimal community fisher groups, Bangladeshi fisher groups, Bihari fisher groups and Muslim fisher groups.

3.4 Supply and support systems
External inputs are essential components for the scientific management of beels, the most crucial among them being seed. To purchase the appropriate size and quality of seed at the time of stocking is costly. The seed cost/ha varies between INR3 000 and 4 000. Quality seed is usually not available in adequate quantity at the time of stocking. Therefore, the government needs to take appropriate policy measures for fish seed production. In addition, the managers of beels need to invest in clearing weeds, constructing fish screens and providing fishing crafts and gears. The credit supply from financial institutions for these purposes is insufficient.

Another weak link in the development of beel fisheries in Assam is the lack or low degree of technological innovation and slow transfer of technology. Because the diversity of fishery resources needs specific technological interventions for different inland fisheries, the interaction of inland fisheries managers with fishery research institutions is a pre-requisite for the scientific management of inland fisheries. At present, only the Department of Fisheries and AFDC are involved in the technology transfer process. Their extension workers are not adequately trained and there is limited geographical coverage of fisheries extension services.

The infrastructure for value-addition and export of fishery products, such as road and transport infrastructure, ice plants and cold storages, hatcheries and other facilities, and the necessary public and private investments need to be promoted by the concerned government agencies. Another important area of attention is the marketing structure for fishery products and pertinent regulations. The share of middlemen in the retail price of fish in Assam is presently as high as 50 to 60 percent. Regulations on prices, margins and marketing channels and practices should be introduced in order to ensure that fishers get a fair and remunerative share. Measures such as the organization of market functionaries, promotion of horizontal cooperation in the marketing chain of fish, supply of market information, and development of public fish markets will improve the links of producers and local markets with domestic urban markets and export markets.

3.5 Credit and microfinance
Over the years, fishery credit schemes in India have been supported with refinance assistance from the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) with a cumulative disbursement of INR54.8 million. The trends in the disbursement of refinance for fishery credit schemes in Assam are shown in Table 3.

Refinancing fishery credit schemes in Assam focused on the provision of credit for fish farming and the purchase of nets and boats. Generally, the flow of institutional credit for fisheries in Assam has been poor due to a lack of awareness of the need and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Amount (INR million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>1.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2001</td>
<td>0.351</td>
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<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td>0.269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-2003</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-2004</td>
<td>2.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NABARD Annual Reports.
usefulness of investments in inland fisheries development and rehabilitation, and due to a widespread absence of entrepreneurship both in fishery industry and management and in financial institutions.

Because non-institutional credit in Assam is very costly and not easily available for the inland fishery sector and other sectors of the rural economy, the institutional credit supply systems need to be improved for developing inland fisheries. With reference to rural credit, particularly to microfinance services, the linkage of sources of institutional credit with informal fishing groups would help to develop inland fisheries and fishers simultaneously, and lead to a greater flow of investment. The main hurdle for institutional credit in the past has been the requirement of collateral in terms of landed property. To increase the flow of credit, this requirement needs to be changed and other types of collateral, such as lease deeds of water bodies, should be accepted by banks as collateral instead.

The rural poor’s access to microfinance services is being promoted through the SHG-Bank linkage programme. Under this programme, the formation of SHGs among the rural poor is encouraged and facilitated by banks, NGOs and government agencies. The groups and their members receive training and assistance in identifying their needs and opportunities for improving their livelihoods in simple business management, organizational skills, and vocational training, which in some cases enables them to take up new income-generating activities or to improve their traditional activities.

The groups are also encouraged to generate savings and use them for lending funds to their members for productive and other purposes. Once SHGs have shown that they are able to handle small savings and lending programmes using their own resources, they are then linked to banks and receive loans from these banks, where they also deposit their savings. The SHGs are then “bank-linked”. After initially using their own funds, the banks involved can obtain refinance from NABARD for their lending to SHGs. SHGs, whose loans are refinanced by NABARD, are then “refinance-linked”.

Unlike in other parts of India, the SHG-Bank linkage programme of microfinance has generally not progressed well in the State of Assam. The main reason is a lack of awareness and exposure among the various stakeholders. However, there has been visible progress of the programme from 2000-2201 onwards, as shown in Table 4. SHGs and their members are usually engaged in a variety of income-generating activities, of which fishing may be but one. In general, it is estimated that 20 percent of the SHGs in Assam are also involved in fishery-related activities.

Most of the SHGs can be found in Morigaon District and many have taken up fish farming, fishing and fishery-related activities such as fish drying, marketing of dried fish and net making.

There are 188 NGOs working in different districts of Assam with the major concentration in Kamrup District for the improvement of livelihoods of rural communities. To date, only a few of these NGOs are involved in the SHG-Bank linkage programme.

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**TABLE 4**

**Progress of SHG-Bank linkage programme, 1998–2003, in INR million**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of SHGs bank-linked</th>
<th>No. of SHGs refinance-linked</th>
<th>Bank loan</th>
<th>NABARD refinance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1998-1999</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>0.406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2001</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>3.343</td>
<td>1.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td>748</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>9.666</td>
<td>6.427</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NABARD Microfinance Report
3.6 Constraints
There are various constraints to inland fisheries development and financing in Assam, particularly lack of coordination and extension support, and of the flow of credit and microfinance.

Technology, fisheries, extension support and coordination
- Lack of suitable fishing craft and gear for riverine fishing;
- Lack of suitably trained fisheries extension staff;
- Lack of coordination between various government agencies and organizations, such as the State Fisheries Department, the Assam Fisheries Development Corporation, the Assam Fish Farmer’s Development Agency and the Assam Fisheries Cooperative Federation;
- Low productivity of carp culture ponds and tanks due to lack of fish farming extension support and training;
- Lack of fishing and fish farming technology in hilly and mountainous parts of Assam;
- Lack of fish culture technology for swamps and flooded forest;
- Neglect of beel fisheries due to their management by the Revenue Department;
- Lack of skills for the management and exploitation of ornamental fish resources in mountain streams.

Flow of institutional credit
- Perception of fish farming as high risk by financial institutions due to the inadequate supply of required quantities of quality fingerlings during the stocking season and due to the regular occurrence of floods;
- Lack of insurance cover for fishing and fish farming;
- Lack of legally valid title deeds and other land documents, especially in the case of lands acquired by way of inheritance;
- Poor loan recovery performance of past fisheries lending.

Flow of microfinance
- Lack of awareness and exposure to microfinance programmes, and lack of a clear understanding of the government’s and NABARD’s rural self-employment programme – Swarnajayanti Gram Swayamrojgar Yojana (SGSY), and of understanding the concept of the SHG–Bank linkage programme among bankers and government officials;
- Communication gaps between rural bank branches and the controlling offices;
- Unclear legal status and collateral requirements of SHGs;
- Lack of experience of NGOs in the promotion of SHGs;
- Difficult law and order situations in some parts of Assam;
- Difficulties in establishing a credit rating of SHGs.

3.7 Opportunities and scope for the development of sustainable inland capture fisheries
Once the above constraints have been properly addressed, there are ample opportunities for the sustainable development of inland fisheries in Assam.

Beel fisheries
There are 430 registered beels and 766 unregistered beels accounting for approximately 60 and 40 percent of the water area of beels, respectively. Beels hold major fishery resources contributing to around one-fourth of the fish production in the state. Major portions of beels, however, have been rendered unproductive due to excessive siltation and growth of weeds, and presently only around 30 percent of the total beel
area (33,400 ha) is being utilized for fishery purposes. Development of beels could be achieved by dredging and deepening connecting canals, removing weeds and making suitable changes in leasing policies. The production potential of beels could be increased to 1,000–1,500 kg/ha through scientific management.

Beels and the wetlands surrounding them are treasure houses of biodiversity and natural buffer areas to contain flood waters. Hence, a strategy of responsible development through ecologically friendly aquaculture is to be adopted. Out of the total beel area, about 30 percent could be brought under extensive fish culture over a period of five years through the following strategy:

- identification of suitable beels with high biomass potential, unaffected by regular flooding, free from pollutants, and having conducive ownership arrangements;
- survey of beels and estimation of cost of development involving the construction of embankments for flood control, removal of weeds, dredging and other costs;
- preparation of a master plan for beel development based on carrying capacity of beels, seed rearing in pens/cages, stocking of beels and their sustainable exploitation;
- leasing of beels on a long-term basis to cooperatives, SHGs, farm management committees or individuals, and authorizing leaseholders through clauses in lease deeds to mortgage the water body for the lease period to a financing bank for the specific purpose of securing a bank loan;
- provision of extension services and training to leaseholders against payment of fees for scientific development, management and exploitation of a leased water body;
- development of linkages for input supply, monitoring and marketing.

**Utilization of rice fields and low-lying areas for fish culture**

Assam’s rice growing area covers 2.5 million ha of land, of which about one million ha are rainfed lowlands that are suitable for rice-cum-fish farming. The Brahmaputra valley in particular offers great scope for rice-cum-fish farming due to its high rainfall, which causes the low-lying rice fields to be covered with water for prolonged periods from 3 to 8 months. It is estimated that about 20,000 ha of rice fields could be brought under rice-cum-fish culture with an average production of 700 kg/ha.

In addition to these lands, low-lying, water-logged lands under private ownership can be developed into fish ponds at moderate expenses. Semi-intensive as well as intensive culture systems can be practised in these newly created water bodies and managed by private entrepreneurs.

The following strategy can be adopted for the utilization of rice fields and low-lying areas for fish culture:

- conducting resource potential surveys at the district and block level to identify water areas that can be developed for scientific poly-culture of fish and rice-cum-fish culture;
- preparing district and block master plans covering the prospective activities in each area with detailed cost estimates and identification of entrepreneurs desirous of undertaking intensive fish culture in newly created water bodies;
- establishing an extension and training system for forward and backward linkages and training of farmers.

**Ornamental fish trade**

There are about 128 native species of ornamental fishes in Assam and other northeast Indian states, which account for 85 percent of all exports of ornamental fish from India. In addition, there is a domestic market for exotic ornamental fishes. The present domestic demand for ornamental fish is about INR500 million per year and the demand is increasing at the rate of 20 percent annually. The total value of exports of ornamental fish is US$427 million. The major markets are the United States, Europe and Japan. Singapore is the hub centre for the ornamental fish export trade.
The State of Assam has favourable climatic conditions for the growth of ornamental fishes. Presently, the production comes mainly from the collection of ornamental fish from beels, swamps, low-lying areas, hill stream, lakes and other natural resources that are home to endemic ornamental fishes. It is estimated that about 20 percent of fish caught for consumption is considered ornamental fish in other countries.

The development of the sector requires strategies involving the sustainable exploitation of the existing natural resources as well as the breeding and rearing of native and exotic varieties under controlled conditions. Stocking of large varieties of ornamental fish in adequate quantities throughout the year is a pre-requisite for their export. It is estimated that at least 50 varieties of fish should be available in order to start an effective export business and to realize competitive prices. In order to take advantage of the availability of a large number of varieties, a strong supply chain needs to be established starting from fish collectors and involving agents, dealers and exporters.

Suitable breeding facilities for exotic and indigenous ornamental fish can be created in areas that have favourable climatic conditions and adequate unpolluted water available. A moderate-size breeding centre would consist of a cemented cistern, a filtration unit, aquarium tanks, a pumping system and a small laboratory. The unit may also need appropriately-sized holding tanks for keeping fish prior to transport and earthen stocking ponds. Such breeding centres can also serve as receiving points for ornamental fishes collected from the wild and as marketing centres. A viable model for ornamental fish export trade consists of a medium or large-scale breeder/grower-cum-exporter supplemented by a number of small local ornamental fish breeders and collectors.

India exports ornamental fish worth INR15.823 million, of which INR14.256 million is contributed by West Bengal. It is estimated that ornamental fish worth more than INR11.000 million is exported through Kolkata Airport alone. With the upgrading of Guwahati Airport to an international airport, the ornamental fish export could get a boost since exporters can send fish directly to foreign countries instead of sending it first to Kolkata.

Rehabilitation and conservation of fishery resources and aquatic environment

Conservation programmes require the participation of government agencies, the general public, scientists, planners and administrations. Conservation planning largely depends on reliable scientific data, which is widely lacking in Assam. One of the main constraints to the conservation of fish biodiversity, i.e. overfishing, is difficult to address because of the present socio-economic conditions prevailing in the state, which are characterized by poverty and a lack of alternative employment opportunities. Conservation of genetic diversity is nevertheless essential, both for aquatic organisms and the people who ultimately benefit from them.

The simplest approach of preservation is to proclaim certain stretches of rivers, tributaries, beels, hills streams and reservoirs as sanctuaries; public awareness, participation and cooperation are of vital importance for their management. Regulatory measures and their enforcement, such as prevention of fishing in sanctuaries and during breeding seasons, regulation of mesh sizes, and similar measures would serve the purpose of biodiversity conservation to a certain extent. The conservation of genes in gene libraries also needs to be initiated. While raising public awareness of the need for conservation is important, equally so is the funding and encouragement of biodiversity assessment endeavours, which hold the key to the whole exercise of fish conservation.

3.8 Action to be taken at various levels

State Government – Department of Fisheries

The extension services of the Department of Fisheries of Assam need to be strengthened to ensure dissemination of scientific technology and information at the field level, and
to popularize the concept of beel fisheries development and the adoption of pen culture methods. In the absence of adequate extension services from the government, NGOs can play an active role as disseminators of technical knowledge at the village level. Technical personnel of the Department of Fisheries may be utilized to train NGOs on the management of fish farms, breeding technology and various aspects of project formulation and implementation.

The lack of good quality seed of proper size for stocking is a major constraint to fisheries enhancement and aquaculture in Assam. Hatcheries established in the government sector need to be renovated and made operational. The state government should conduct a survey of the present state of government-owned hatcheries and implement an action plan for their revival. In order to encourage private investment in the field of hatchery production of fish seed, the Department of Fisheries should formulate a standard package of practices to be adopted by hatchery operators and arrange for training programmes for farmers at the district level on appropriate technologies for selective breeding, brood stock management, hatchery operation and nursery management.

Concentrated efforts should be made by the Department of Fisheries to popularize new and innovative activities such as pen culture and ornamental fish and freshwater prawn stocking in beels. Essential infrastructure and training of production and extension personnel must be set up on a priority basis.

The Government of Assam may insert a clause in their lease deeds stating that beels leased to fish farmers could be mortgaged to banks for the period of the lease to facilitate obtaining a bank loan.

**Banks**

Banks should play an active role in extending credit facilities for all techno-economically viable fisheries projects. They may function in close coordination with the Department of Fisheries to ensure effective implementation of the schemes financed by them. Banks may re-examine the collateral requirements for financing the development of beels held by individuals or group of farmers on a long-term lease. They may consider accepting mortgage of lease title deeds issued by the state government as primary collateral for receiving a bank loan.

**Microfinance**

There is scope for greater participation in microfinance programmes by commercial banks in Assam. Progress and problems of the SHG-Bank linkage programme need to be discussed regularly in the Block Level Bankers’ Committee (BLBC) and in District Level Coordination Committee (DLCC) meetings. Microfinance programmes need to be incorporated in the service area plans of banks. Banks may consider lending to SHGs as part of their mainstream credit operations, both at the policy and implementation level.

According to the Government of India’s directives, one third of the rural poor, including fishers, should be covered under the SHG-Bank linkage programme by 2008. This will be possible only with the increased support from the state government in promoting, guiding and nurturing SHGs of fishers.

The state government should also consider the waiving of stamp duty in the case of loans taken by SHGs in order to reduce the cost of lending. An amendment to the Cooperative Societies Act and Regulations and an amendment to by-laws of cooperatives are required to enable cooperative credit institutions to provide credit to SHGs.

Since the group approach of SHGs is given importance under the SGSY programme for generating self-employment among the rural poor, there is a need to sensitize officials of District Rural Development Agencies (DRDA) and block level functionaries, and to encourage coordination among government functionaries, banks and NGOs in the
implementation of the programme. Similarly, there is a need for better coordination between NGOs working in the field of microfinance and DRDAs to improve the SHG movement in the state. Coordination is also needed for collecting data on the implementation of programmes, setting up databases and sharing information. Social work volunteers such as the Vikas Volunteer Vahini Clubs (VVV Clubs) as well as Anganwadi workers should also become involved in the promotion of SHGs among inland fishers. Organizations and institutions promoting SHGs may design innovative and fully participatory models for entrepreneurship and skills development, encourage rural people to start micro-enterprises, and provide guidance and technical support.

4. WEST BENGAL
4.1 Overview
West Bengal has always been at the top at the national level in terms of inland fish and seed production. There are 1,288,027 persons involved in inland fisheries and freshwater aquaculture and 199,122 in marine fisheries. The State of West Bengal has also the highest consumption of fish in India. The per capita fish demand is estimated as 15.6 kg, which is above the world average of 13 kg and the national average of 9 kg. Presently, the state has a supply-demand deficit of 48,000 tonnes of fish, which has been decreasing over the last five years, as shown in Table 5. The production figures include the marine fisheries production. The inland fishery resources of West Bengal are shown in Table 6.

West Bengal also has the most important inland fish market of India and is strategically located at the junction of trade routes where inland fish is moved from the southern, northern and western markets to the eastern and northeastern regions and fish consumer centres.

Although the development of the inland fisheries sector of West Bengal is impressive, the average annual productivity is presently only 2,350 kg/ha, which is still lower than the productivity levels attained in other Indian states such as Punjab and Andhra Pradesh.

4.2 Status of inland capture fisheries
4.2.1 Development of beels, bundhs and reservoirs
Beels, bundhs and reservoirs are potential resources for augmenting fish production and generating additional employment. These larger water bodies are presently being utilized for fish production by fishermen cooperative societies with financial and technical assistance from the Fisheries Department of West Bengal, and financial assistance from the National Cooperative Development Corporation (NCDC). Due to the sustained efforts of these organizations, the annual productivity of the beels has been raised from 150-200 kg to 1,000-1,200 kg/ha. Similarly, the annual productivity of reservoirs has been increased from 60-50 kg/ha to as much as 600-800 kg/ha.

Over the years, however, heavy siltation has taken place in many beels and their reclamation and development have become an urgent necessity. During the first phase of the beel fisheries development project – under the leadership of the West Bengal State Fishermen Cooperative Federation (WENFISH), the apex cooperative body of the state fishermen cooperatives, with the financial assistance of NCDC – 87 beels comprising an area of 5,387 ha are being developed in the district of North 24 Parganas as well as additional areas in Nadia, Murshidabad, Hooghly, Uttar Dinajpur and Dakshin Dinajpur Districts.

Since the amount of funds required for the reclamation of all beels in the state exceeds the budget allocations of the concerned government agencies, the Government of West Bengal should explore the possibility to use the facilities available under NABARD’s Rural Infrastructure Development Fund (RIDF) for this purpose.
4.2.2 Freshwater prawn farming
The culture of freshwater prawns in paddy fields, locally known as Bhasabada, has become increasingly popular and provides income for thousands of fish farmers in West Bengal in nine districts of the state. Table 7 shows the area under this traditional type of fish farming and production.

4.2.3 Sewage fed fisheries
The sewage-fed fishery east of Kolkata is a unique example of the natural recycling of organic waste and its use for fish farming. The wetlands east of Kolkata, popularly known as bheries, host the world’s largest sewage-fed fishery, which once produced annually as much as 300 000 tonnes of table fish. The fishery is now under constant threat of closure because of increasing land reclamation due to urbanization. The area under fish culture was reduced from 10 000 ha to 4 000 ha. To give due emphasis to this fishery, and in consideration of its role in organic waste recycling, the Fisheries Department of West Bengal has made serious efforts to preserve the remaining East Kolkata wetlands. At the same time, two new sewage-fed fisheries have been established at Nabadvib in Nadia District and Srirampore in Hooghly District.

4.2.4 Ornamental fisheries
There is a growing global demand for ornamental fish. Table 8 shows the recent increase in their export from India and West Bengal, which accounted for as much as 80 percent of India’s ornamental fish export in 2002-2003.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 5</th>
<th>Demand and production of fish in West Bengal, 1998-2003</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Demand (tonnes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998-1999</td>
<td>1 093 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>1 115 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2001</td>
<td>1 135 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td>1 158 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-2003</td>
<td>1 168 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Fisheries statistics 2002-2003, Directorate of Fisheries of West Bengal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 6</th>
<th>Inland fishery resources of West Bengal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total tank area (ha)</td>
<td>276 201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area suitable for freshwater fish culture (ha)</td>
<td>194 113 088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers (km)</td>
<td>172 586 036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beels and baors (ha)</td>
<td>41 781.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reservoirs (ha)</td>
<td>1 673 880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canals (km)</td>
<td>80 085.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brackishwater area (ha)</td>
<td>210 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine coastline (km.)</td>
<td>158 km</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inshore area up to 10 fathoms</td>
<td>70 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offshore area 10-40 fathoms</td>
<td>181.3 km²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continental shelf up to 100 fathoms</td>
<td>17 049 km²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 7</th>
<th>Traditional freshwater prawn farming in West Bengal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>District</td>
<td>Area under prawn culture (ha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North 24 Parganas</td>
<td>1 220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South 24 Parganas</td>
<td>720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midnapur</td>
<td>580</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hooghly</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howrah</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bardhaman</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nadia</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murshidabad</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bankura</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3 680</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NABARD West Bengal State Credit Seminar paper.
4.3 Institutional credit and microfinance

4.3.1 Fisheries credit
Table 9 shows the comparative position of the ground level credit (GLC) for all sectors of the economy of West Bengal from 1998 to 2003 regarding GLC and NABARD refinance for the fisheries sector, both inland and marine.

While the total GLC to all sectors steadily increases from year to year, GLC for fisheries shows a different picture. The trend in total GLC disbursement to the fisheries sector of West Bengal, extended by various agencies, fluctuated from year to year and actually declined, from INR194.936 million disbursed during 1998-1999 to INR161.475 million disbursed during 2002-2003.

The share of NABARD refinance used by the financial agencies and institutions that provided credit for fisheries considerably increased while they used less and less of their own funds. The share of refinance in the total GLC for fisheries thus increased from as little as 11.41 percent during 1998-1999 to as much as 41.34 percent during 2002-2003.

Even though the fisheries sector is doing well in terms of repayment of loans compared to other sectors, financial institutions are still reluctant to use more of their own funds and to extend full support to the sector. Credit support from financial institutions in West Bengal for inland fisheries has even been more modest than for marine fisheries. However, the National Cooperative Development Corporation (NCDC) has been financing fisheries development in beels. Five projects worth INR339.215 million for the development of beels through fishermen cooperative societies were financed, as shown in Table 10. New methods for crab fattening were introduced as part of these projects.

For the purpose of sewage-fed fishery development, Syndicate Bank provided credit to three companies: Agro Fisheries Limited, Bidhan Nagar, started a sewage fed fishery in a 65 ha water area with the help of a capital investment loan of INR2.4 million and a working capital loan of INR1.3 million; Aquatic Agro received an INR1.8 million capital investment loan and an INR1 million working capital loan for a 21 ha water area; and Aquatic Agro–II received an INR2.8 million working capital loan for sewage-fed fishery development in a 21 ha water area.

4.3.2 Microfinance
The programme of linking SHGs to bank finance was launched by NABARD in February 1992 at the national level. In the state of West Bengal, the first three SHGs
were linked with Sagar Grameen Bank in 24 Parganas (N) District. Thereafter, the growth rate of the formation and linkage of SHGs was slow until it gained momentum from 1998-1999 onwards, when 1,198 SHGs were linked with various commercial, cooperative and regional rural banks (RRBs). By 1999-2000, as many as 3,249 SHGs had been linked to financial institutions.

As of 31 March 2004, 907 branches of 9 RRBs, 207 branches of district central cooperative banks (DCCBs), 2,142 Primary Agricultural Cooperative Societies (PACS) affiliated to District Central Cooperative Banks and 307 branches of commercial banks have been participating in the SHG-Bank Linkage Programme. More than 200 NGOs and some government departments have started promoting SHGs and linking them to banks.

Since members of SHGs carry out a variety of economic activities, it is difficult to indicate the exact number of SHGs engaged in inland fisheries activities. It is estimated, however, that about 20 percent of SHGs are engaged in inland fisheries activities. The annual household income of members of these SHGs ranges from INR2,000 to 6,000. The average size of microcredit taken by the SHGs ranges from INR5,000 to 8,000. Most loans are being used for fish marketing, fishing, net making, the purchase of fishing boats, ornamental fish breeding and rearing, preparation of ready-to-eat fish products such as fish cutlets, wafers and pickles, as well as for crab fanning.

### 4.4 Constraints to inland fisheries development and its financing in West Bengal

#### Floodplain and wetland fisheries

Floodplains and wetlands are considered ecologically-sensitive areas of high biodiversity that support many unique aquatic plants and play a vital role in the recruitment and growth of many economically important riverine fish populations. They often provide essential wintering grounds for many migratory birds in addition to being closely linked with a variety of vital economic activities in rural areas. They further provide water for drinking and irrigation, transport and communication routes, protein and other nutrients, building materials, and fertile land for agriculture. They also play a very significant role for the fisheries in this region, providing habitat for the prime fishery resource. Floodplains and wetlands offer a vast potential for capture fishery as they are naturally stocked with fish seed from rivers. Since floodplains and wetlands are rich in nutrients, they offer a suitable environment for the growth of fish.

Unfortunately, scientific data on floodplains and wetlands in West Bengal are lacking. Socio-economic data on wetland values and usage are also not available. Even names and areas of wetlands are not readily available. There is a lack of adequately trained manpower for wetland development and management as well as a lack of coordination between agencies responsible for wetlands. There are also conflicts of interest. While

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the project</th>
<th>Financial assistance (INR million)</th>
<th>Area (ha)</th>
<th>No. of groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development of beel fisheries in 6 districts of West Bengal, Phase I</td>
<td>43.9330</td>
<td>4,412.39</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of beels in 2 districts of West Bengal</td>
<td>23.8628</td>
<td>614.21</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reservoir development project in Bankura and Purulia Districts</td>
<td>55.5370</td>
<td>4,716</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated project in Nayachar Island in Midnapore District, involving 13 primary</td>
<td>169.5000</td>
<td>8,250</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ornamental fish farming by fisherwomen cooperative societies – 24 Parganas</td>
<td>4.1178</td>
<td>460 units (35 members per unit)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mud crab farming by cooperative societies in the Sunderban Delta</td>
<td>5.2043</td>
<td>95 units (45 units for crab culture and 50 units for crab catchers)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Cooperative Development Corporation Annual Reports.
Credit and microfinance needs in inland capture fisheries development and conservation in Asia

Fishers and fisheries managers are in favour of the removal of weeds, environmentalists suggest maintaining them as a part of biodiversity.

Floodplains and wetlands are under the control of the state government and its various agencies, and are leased out to individuals or cooperative societies for a fixed period of time. The lease agreement generally provides a clause to properly maintain the wetland fishery without any damage to the ecosystem. Lack of proper monitoring and supervision make this clause less effective and many developed wetlands revert to a pre-developed stage when leased.

Development of wetlands is a massive task. It is obvious that work of this magnitude needs large amounts of funds. As West Bengal is facing serious financial problems, many development projects of wetlands are being discontinued.

Reservoirs and beels

There is a lack of funds to conduct applied research into appropriate technologies for enhancing fish production in reservoirs and beels, as well as a lack of financial and government support.

Credit and microfinance

Inland fishers and fish farmers in West Bengal do not have proper access to, and absorption capacity for, credit and microfinance services due to the following constraints:

- lack of collateral and insurance cover, which discourages lending by banks;
- lack of entrepreneurship and business management skills of fishers and fish farmers, which are required for making proper use of credit and microfinance;
- lack of facilities for testing soil, water and feed quality, and other relevant parameters that are a pre-requisite for obtaining credit from financial institutions for fish farming;
- reluctance of financial institutions to finance fisheries even though the sector has a better repayment record than other sectors;
- lack of freshwater prawn seed, which hampers freshwater prawn farming development and hampers the use of supporting credit facilities;
- the practice of long-term leasing of multi-ownership ponds for fish farming without written lease deeds, which does not allow financial institutions to provide credit;
- lack of awareness about microfinance programmes in inland fisheries.

4.5 Opportunities for inland fisheries development in West Bengal

The following opportunities are identified for developing inland fisheries in West Bengal:

- rehabilitation of beels and development of beel fisheries;
- development of reservoir fisheries;
- infrastructure development of fish marketing facilities, access roads to inland water bodies, landing sites, fishing villages and hatcheries;
- expansion of crab fattening in the Sunderban area;
- formation of more SHGs of inland fishers and fishery-related micro-enterprise development;
- establishment of a regulatory framework for the import of fish germplasm as well as quarantine regulations for ornamental fish production and trade.

Regarding the provision of microfinance services for inland fishers and fish farmers, there is an urgent need to expedite the implementation of the policies of the Reserve Bank of India in West Bengal. Lending to SHGs should be considered a normal lending activity and part of the banks’ mainstream lending operations, both at the policy and implementation level. Financing SHGs has been accepted as a separate segment under
priority sector lending; hence, priority may be given to its financing. Similarly, lending to SHGs should be a part of the area service plan of any bank branch.

In order to increase the number of partner banks, NABARD may conduct extensive awareness-generation programmes for bank officers with special emphasis on Regional Rural banks. NGOs and VVV Clubs should also be encouraged to participate in such programmes.

4.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INLAND FISHERIES DEVELOPMENT IN ASSAM AND WEST BENGAL

The following recommendations are made for developing inland fisheries in India in general, and in the States of Assam and West Bengal, in particular:

- Specific development programmes for the optimization of fish yields in inland waters should be formulated and implemented. The objective would be the optimization of fish yields for different categories of reservoirs, to be achieved by stocking of these reservoirs with fish seed; supply of appropriate fishing craft and gear, where needed; the construction and supply of ponds, cages and pens for raising of fish; the construction and equipment of fish landing centres with platforms, sheds and cold rooms for storing and packing of fish and ice; the construction of sanitary facilities, the supply of water and electricity and other facilities and services. As far as the creation of infrastructure is concerned, the Rural Infrastructure Development Fund (RIDF) of NABARD should be used. A cluster approach should be adopted for value addition through freezing, smoking, drying or other types of fish processing.

- The organisation of cooperatives and SHGs among inland fishers should be actively promoted and their involvement in fishing, fish farming, processing and marketing activities facilitated.

- Capacity building and training programmes are needed for fisheries departments and other concerned government officers, members of cooperative societies, fisher and fish farmer SHGs on all topics, which are relevant to the development and rehabilitation of inland capture fisheries and fish farming.

- The rehabilitation and conservation of commercially important fish species in riverine systems and floodplains through ranching and habitat restoration should be actively pursued.

- A uniform legislation for riverine fisheries is urgently needed. Rivers in India cut across geographical boundaries of different states. Conservation and sustainable exploitation measures taken in one particular state need to be complemented by neighbouring states located up- and downstream according to mutually agreed principles of responsible fisheries. To guide and facilitate a compatible legislation in neighbouring States, the Central Government may consider formulation of a model bill and its circulation to States and Union Territories to help them in formulating and enacting their own fisheries Acts.

- There is an urgent need to strengthen applied research on inland capture fisheries by the Indian Council of Agriculture Research (ICAR). The major areas of this research relate to technologies for enhancing fish production and productivity of inland waters; better resource management including participatory management practices; economically efficient use of craft and gear and the efficient use of financial resources.

- The restoration of habitat and upland aquatic resources entails a broad integrated approach taking into account the requirements of fisheries and of other users. Regulation of fishing effort should include the strict enforcement of fisheries rules, rejuvenation of endangered species through stocking programmes, protection of natural breeding grounds and the establishment of sanctuaries for the restoration of depleted gene pools.
• Fish sanctuaries should be further developed into “ecological parks” and become a destination for eco-tourism. This will increase public awareness and support for the conservation and rehabilitation of the aquatic environment and also generate economic benefits for rural communities. At present, there are about 200 fish sanctuaries located in different parts of India, which are already instrumental in preserving the original germplasm pool, boosting tourism and imparting awareness to the new generation about the precious fish wealth of the country.

• The Government should actively promote the strengthening of databases on inland water and fishery resources and their exploitation as well as the sharing of information and networking by the various agencies, which are involved in the management and development of inland fisheries. The availability of basic data on various aspects of inland fisheries such as the size of surface waters, ecological conditions, abundance and status of fish stocks, the number of fishers and their vocational and socio-economic status, production, processing and marketing and other data are a prerequisite for formulating sound development plans.

• More emphasis needs to be given to the rehabilitation and proper management of fisheries in hilly and mountainous areas. Cold water fishes like Mahseer, trout and other fishes are of great national significance and highly acclaimed sport and food fishes of hilly regions in India. Despite their abundance at one time, their stocks are declining rapidly. Keeping in view the importance of these fisheries, there is an urgent need for more concerted efforts in research and development by all organizations involved.

• As the required credit is not flowing for inland fisheries due to various constraints, it may be advisable to formulate special banking plans for the development of beel, upland and hilly fisheries so that the required credit support can be provided.

• The lending to SHGs through microfinance is the most suitable credit system for small-scale inland fisheries development and needs to be encouraged by implementing awareness programmes as well as capacity building measures for all stakeholders.

• To strengthen the focus on inland fisheries development in national planning, it is necessary to avail assistance from international organizations, i.e. FAO, UNDP, Asian Development Bank, World Bank and others for the preparation and execution of pilot projects involving technological and financial support.
V. Institutional credit and microfinance in Myanmar, with special reference to livelihoods at Lake Inlay, Southern Shan State

By Nu Nu Aye and Khin Maung Win

1. INTRODUCTION

In order to provide food for a rapidly increasing population, FAO’s Strategic Framework for 2000-2015 and its corporate strategies aim at reducing food insecurity and rural poverty, providing sustainable rural livelihoods and more equitable access to resources and thereby contributing to an important millennium goal. The 26th Session of the FAO Committee on Fisheries highlighted that small-scale fisheries are critical in many poor countries for the provision of income, employment and food security. Microfinance programmes have proven to be very effective and powerful tools for reducing poverty as acknowledged by the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) Resolution 52/194 of 18 December 1997. The 26th Session of the FAO Committee on Fisheries also highlighted the need for capacity building for fishing communities to enable these communities to fully participate in efforts to rehabilitate and conserve aquatic resources.

Myanmar is one of the poor developing countries in Asia with a population of about 53 million. It is endowed with abundant natural resources including 1,500 km of coastline stretching from the Nerve River in the north to Victoria Point in the south. There are three main river systems, which flow from the highlands in the north to the lowlands in the south, and from there into the Gulf of Mottama (Mattaban). Several species of fish are abundant in these areas and are exploited by various types of fisheries.

The formal credit sector also supports fisheries, but only on a limited scale. The credit sources are the state-owned Myanmar Economic Bank (MEB) and the Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank (MADB). Traditionally, MEB supports trade and marketing activities, while MADB disburses loans for capital investments in the agricultural sector, which also includes livestock and fisheries.

Following the financial sector reform of 1990, three types of financial institutions can be distinguished: the Central Bank of Myanmar, commercial banks including private banks, and the Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank (MADB). Traditionally, MEB supports trade and marketing activities, while MADB disburses loans for capital investments in the agricultural sector, which also includes livestock and fisheries.

Following the financial sector reform of 1990, three types of financial institutions can be distinguished: the Central Bank of Myanmar, commercial banks including private banks, and the Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank (MADB). Traditionally, MEB supports trade and marketing activities, while MADB disburses loans for capital investments in the agricultural sector, which also includes livestock and fisheries.

As the fisheries sector is considered one of the most important sectors for the development of Myanmar’s economy, the Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries has prepared plans to promote and expand aquaculture, fisheries and fisheries-related
industries. Rural development and poverty reduction are also considered a priority concern in the country. In spite of this policy and planning scenario, bank loans rarely reach the fundamental stakeholders in the process of poverty reduction and rural development, i.e. small-scale fishers and farmers for whom access to microfinance is essential for the improvement of their livelihoods.

This report focuses on the livelihoods of small-scale fishers in Myanmar with a special emphasis on the need and scope for microcredit support and on the potential for a sustainable use of the aquatic resources in the Lake Inlay environment. The report was prepared by the Myanmar participants in the Kuala Lumpur Workshop. The authors sincerely hope that this report and its conclusions may benefit those who are involved in efforts to reduce poverty in the country.

2. THE LAKE
2.1 Location and general characteristics
Lake Inlay is located on the Shan Plateau of Myanmar between latitude N19°58’11” to 20°45’45” and longitude E97°46’30” to 97°55’30”. It is the second largest lake in Myanmar, after Indawgyi Lake in Myitkyina, Kachin State in the northern part of Myanmar.

Lake Inlay is a natural lake situated approximately 2,900 feet (883.92 m) above sea level in a broad valley between two limestone ranges to the east and the west. The eastern ranges of the lake include Sin Taung, Myin Ma Hti Taung, and the western ranges include Odaung Taung, Letmaung Kwae Taung and Than Taung. To the north, Lake Inlay is connected with Sagar Lake.

According to a 1995 survey report, the water surface of the lake is about 23 square miles (59.6 km²) and has a distance of seven miles from Inle Village in the south to Nant Pan village in the north. The width of the lake is almost three miles from east to west. The reed and marshy areas along the perimeters of the lake are generally covered with water during the rainy season. The maximum depth of the lake is about 12.5 feet (.381 m) and the water volume is estimated as 171,400 acre feet¹ in the rainy season.

Geologically, it is assumed that the lake was formed during the Tertiary Period, 350 to 400 million years ago. It is also believed that the whole Nyaungshwe plain or basin was once under water and formed a much larger lake with water levels more than 300 feet (91.44 m) deeper than at present. The present Lake Inlay was formed when the water retreated; it is further assumed that the dissolving of limestone at the bottom of the lake also contributed to its formation.

2.2 Water flow and quality
As seen in Table 1, the main rivers flowing into Lake Inlay are Balue Chaung and Than Taung Chaung. There are also many smaller streams and creeks that flow into the lake, i.e. Yae Pae Chaung, Inn Tain Chaung, Nant Lat Chaung, Shwe Lin Pan Chaung, Nant Maecin Chaung, Tha Lae Oo Chaung, Ma Kyi Seik Chaung, and Ma Kyi Pin Chaung.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inflow system</th>
<th>Catchments areas (square miles)</th>
<th>Average annual inflow (Acre feet)</th>
<th>Rainfall (inches)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balue Chaung</td>
<td>312.00</td>
<td>759.00</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Than Taung Chaung</td>
<td>256.00</td>
<td>334.00</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small creeks in the west</td>
<td>18.80</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Kalawt Chaung &amp; others)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small creeks in the east</td>
<td>65.00</td>
<td>39.00</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nant Latt creek in the north</td>
<td>No figure available</td>
<td>No figure available</td>
<td>No figure available</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


¹ An acre foot is equivalent to 1233.489238 cubic metres.
While the water is generally clear, a large portion of the lake is covered with growth of submerged and floating leaved macrophytes. There are also colonies of blue and green algae growth in the open water. The water quality has been recorded as follows: pH: 7.6-8.3; conductivity: 260-410 μS/cm and dissolved oxygen: 1.7-10.3 mg/litre. Dissolved oxygen levels of 10.3 ppm are found in the surface waters, while 1.7 ppm dissolved oxygen is found near the bottom of the lake. Some degree of domestic pollution has been found in the channel just downstream of Nyaung Shwe.

3. HABITAT, FAUNA AND FLORA
As many as 43 fish species, three species of freshwater turtle and tortoise, and 29 species of butterflies live in and on the lake. According to a survey team of biologists from Myanmar and the California Academy of Science, San Francisco, California, United States of America, examining Lake Inlay in August 2002, there are 25 species of amphibians and reptiliants to be found in and around the lake.

Lake Inlay is one of the most important in southeast Asia because of its diverse fish genera and endemism. Among the indigenous fish species, about 50 percent of the total fish fauna in the lake is endemic. With the aim to control submerged weed and macrophytes in the lake, the Department of Fisheries introduced non-indigenous fish species such as grass carps and Indian carps (*Ctenopharyngodon idella* and *Rohu Labeo rohita*), *Trichogaster pectoralis*, *Tilapia* spp., *Clarias gariepinus*, *Parambassis* spp. and *Glossogobius* spp.

The indigenous fish species found in Lake Inlay are *Notopterus notopterus*, *Clarias batrachus*, *Monopterus cuchia*, *Monopterus albus*, *Channa striata*, *Chaudhuria caudata*, *Lepidocephalichthys berdmorei*, *Acantbocobitis botia*, *Physoschistura rivulicola*, *Puntius stoliczkanus*, *Colisa labius*, *Parambassis* spp., *Labeo rohita* and *Ctenopharyngodon idella*. The endemic species include *Cyprinus imba*, *Neolissochilus nigrovittatus*, *Cirrhinus* spp., *Physoschistura shanensis*, *Yunnanilus brevis*, *Sawbwa resplendens*, *Microrusbora rubescens*, *Danyo erythromicron*, *Inlecypris auripurpure*, *Poropuntius schanicus*, *Poropuntius* spp., *Garra gravelyi*, *Channa harcourtbutleri*, *Macrognathus candicellatus* and *Mastacembelus oatesii*.

The complexity of the natural environment of Lake Inlay, which consists of wetland habitat, mixed deciduous forests and conifer forests, is responsible for a great diversity of birds. The lake itself provides habitat for 29 species of water birds and 28 species of other birds. Altogether, 240 species of birds have been recorded on the lake and in the surrounding forests. These include vulnerable and endangered species such as Jerdon’s Bush chat, sturnid, eastern sarus crane, greater spotted owl, bear’s pochard, Indian skimmer duck, ferruginous duck, mandarin duck, bar headed goose and lesser kestrel.

The lake also provides habitat for a large variety of mammals including civet cats, muntjac (or barking) and sambar deer, golden jackal, hare, mongoose, otter, serow, black bear, porcupine and other animals.

Much of the lake is covered with growth of submerged and floating leaved saprophytes. Grass (*Eichhornia* and *Polygonum*) and macrophytes form floating mats. There are extensive areas of grass mats and herbaceous marsh, especially at the northern end of the lake. Grass mats and herbaceous marsh are anchored by farmers and used as paddy fields and floating gardens. There are records of some underground water flows in Lake Inlay that provide peculiar habitats.

The lake has diverse flora with its 1 688 species of plants, 527 herb species and 217 native species of orchid recorded in and around the lake. Most of the bottom of the lake is normally covered with submerged plants. The aquatic flora can be subdivided into amphibious, creeping, emergent, free-floating, submerged rooted and submerged non-rooted flora and floating leaves. *Eichhornia crassipes*, *Salvinia* sp, and *Pistia stratiotes* are the most common examples of the free floating flora that grows in hard water. Floating leaves are represented by species of *Potamogeton*, *Nymphaea* and *Nymphoides*. They
provide habitat and feed for small fish. Common submerged rooted flora in Lake Inlay are *Chara*, *Nitella* and *Najas* species. The submerged non-rooted flora consists of *Elodea* spp., *Hydrilla verticillata* and two species of *Utricularia* and *Cerratophyllum*. These submerged plants are the main oxygen producers in the lake and also provide shelter for small fish. *Utricularia* grows well in water or in swamps. The amphibious flora is represented by species of *Marsilea*, *Colocasia*, *Polygonum* and *Alternanthera*. Common creeping flora in the lake is represented by *Ludwigia adscendens*, *Ipomea aquatica* and the grass species of *Echinodorus*.* Emergent flora consists of *Phragmites* spp, *Typha* spp, *Nelumbo nucifera*, *Sagittaria* spp and *Saccharum* spp.

4. ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE AND LIVELIHOODS AT LAKE INLAY

In the vicinity of Lake Inlay and its surrounding hills and valleys in Taunggyi District of Southern Shan State, there are 456 villages and the township of Nyaungshwe with altogether about 120 000 inhabitants. The local people living in and around the lake are called Intha. They live in houses constructed on stilts in the waters on the lakeshore. Their principal means of transport are canoes with and without outboard engines. The traditional way of rowing canoes by using feet rather than hands can only be seen at Lake Inlay. The livelihoods of local people are based on fishing, weaving and on working as blacksmith and silversmith. Throughout Myanmar, Intha are known for their skills of weaving silver yarn used for robes with lotus flowers for donations to Buddha and for their skills as silversmiths.

The lake provides income and employment for about 350 fisher families with 768 active fishers, and an estimated 100 weed collectors for grass carp and pig farms in the surrounding and adjacent valleys.

The most common fishing gear used by 350 fishers is gillnet, followed by forks and spears (135 units), hook and lines (110 units), basket traps (100 units), and other types of traps and gear (73 units). The replacement cost of fishing gear ranges from as little as Kyat2 000 for a spear to as much as Kyat8 000 for a gillnet.

The lake is also important as one of the main tourist attractions in southern Shan State. Between 1 000 to 1 500 tourists visit Lake Inlay daily from October to January each year. A newly established bird sanctuary will attract even more tourists. The amount of fish harvested from the lake is estimated at between 550 and 600 metric tonnes/year by using traditional fishing methods. In addition to capture fisheries, there are 500 acres of fish ponds on the lakeshore, which produce 750 tonnes of fish per year. Fish is the main source of animal protein for eight months in a year for the village communities in the vicinity of the lake. The lake also provides livelihoods for families practising traditional vegetable growing in floating gardens. Their small plots cover almost 2 400 ha and 14 percent of the lake’s area.

5. ENVIRONMENTAL AND FISHERIES MANAGEMENT AND CONSERVATION

Lake Inlay is a well-known tourist attraction and a destination for ecotourism because of its floating gardens, picturesque villages and diverse fauna and flora. As a result of the Moebye Dam, the lake also supplies the Lawpeta hydropower plant. The water surface of the lake was formerly 100 square miles, but then gradually declined.

The main reasons for the reduction of the water surface and the growing shallowness of the lake are erosion and siltation due to cutting of forests in the watershed, slash-and-burn cultivation methods traditionally practised in the area, vertical cultivation, steep-slope cultivation, grazing of cattle, and burning of grass on pastures.

5.1 The project Greening and Long-Term Existence of Lake Inlay

In order to address these problems and to preserve the lake’s diverse fauna and flora, the Myanmar Government implemented the project Greening and Long-term Existence of Lake Inlay from 2000 to 2005 for the conservation of forests and the environment.
within 20 miles from the borders of the lake. The following are the regulations being implemented and activities carried out:

- prohibition of the establishment of new villages on the lakeshore and construction of new floating gardens and villages in the lake;
- removal of unused floating islands and rubbish from the lake;
- ensuring of proper drainage of nine canals and dredging of silt and sand carried by the creeks into the lake; removal of water hyacinths, duck weeds and unused floating islands from the lake;
- conservation of the natural beauty and value of the lake;
- a ban on cutting trees and reclaiming of lands for cultivation within 20 miles circumference of the lake to preserve trees in the watershed area;
- promotion of sustainable forestry and cultivation through the establishment of a conservation committee by the Ministry of Forestry;
- promotion of cooperation between various government agencies and stakeholders; taking measures for the conservation of water resources, which are essential for the Lawpeta hydro-power station;
- establishment of an office for monitoring and controlling the project.

The project covered ten townships, nine of which are located in Taungyi District – Taungyi, Kalaw, Hopone, Phaekhon, Nyaungshwe, Pindaya, Yatsout and Sisaing – and one in Loikaw District – Loikaw. A supervisory committee oversaw project implementation. The Shan State Peace and Development Council was chaired by the Chairman of the Central Supervisory Committee, while the Township Supervisory Committee was chaired by the Chairman of Nyaungshwe Township Peace and Development Council. Three government agencies cooperated in the implementation of the project, i.e. the Department of Forestry, the Department of Irrigation and the Myanmar Agriculture Service. Their tasks were as follows:

- **Department of Forestry**: establishing forest reserves, community forest areas and watershed plantations; planting trees for fuelwood, encouraging mixed plantation of crops and trees, including wind-breaking trees; taking preventive measures against bank erosion; taking measures for conservation of biological diversity; and implementing all activities in close cooperation with the local community.
- **Department of Irrigation**: dredging sand and silt and remove unused floating islands and duckweeds.
- **Myanmar Agriculture Service**: constructing embankments in order to prevent siltation and erosion, cultivation of crops and distribution of crop seeds.

### 5.2 Present and future challenges to the environment, livelihoods, food safety and security

Notwithstanding the implementation of the project, many environmental challenges and problems remain to be addressed. Major changes of the lake are still caused by the expansion of large-scale floating gardens as large as 100-300 ha. The massive use of fertilizers and pesticides on these plots is transforming the mesotrophic and eutrophic status of the lake and the characteristics of the rooted aquatic plants and fish fauna. Currently, the common fish fauna in the lake is dominated by featherbacks, snakeheads, spiny eels, catfishes, small cyprinids, and some species indigenous to the lake. As the productivity of the lake is likely to decline due to the reduction of sunlight penetration caused by excessive blooming of phytoplankton, exotic species such as common carp and hybrid catfish may come to dominate the fish fauna. These changes may adversely affect the livelihoods of fishers, weed collectors and those servicing these groups such as net makers, fish vendors (exclusively women), boat builders and carpenters. Also, the decline of traditional fish species may have negative effects on the supply of animal protein for local communities in the vicinity of the lake. The heavy use of pesticides may pose health risks for consumers. Further, the use of massive amounts of pesticides
might adversely affect birds’ eggs in the long term and the recently established bird sanctuary might lose its ecosystem. This again will have a negative impact on the evolving ecotourism.

5.3 Fisheries management
Lake Inlay has been included in the list of leaseable fisheries in Myanmar. The Shan State branch of the Department of Fisheries located in the Nyaungshwe Township, Taunggyi District, manages the Lake Inlay fishery. The Department of Fisheries issues its fishing rights and licences to the Shan State branch of the Myanmar Fisheries Federation, which in turn allocates annual fishing licences to local fishers. Fishing is practised with traditional fishing gear such as gillnets, castnets, scoopnets, long lines, traps and spears. The Myanmar Fisheries Federation currently provides fishing permits to 1,400 local fishers including those fishing in Sagar Lake, which is connected to Lake Inlay.

With a view to ensure the conservation of the fish fauna in Lake Inlay, the Shan State Department of Fisheries issues fisheries regulations that prohibit the discard of chemicals and toxicants into the lake and activities that may adversely affect water quality and the environment, and the diversity of fauna and flora in the lake and its vicinity, such as use of poison, explosives and electricity for fishing. In order to sustain the local and endemic fish species, it is prohibited to grow and introduce the pure strain of the African giant catfish. Fisheries regulations are enforced with a punishment of one-to-three month jail sentences and fines of Kyat 500 to 50,000.

6. SOURCES OF MICROFINANCE FOR FISHERIES IN MYANMAR
Currently, Myanmar Economic Bank (MEB), Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank (MADB) and Myanmar Livestock and Fisheries Development Bank are the main providers of institutional credit to the agriculture sector, including the fisheries subsector. However, microfinance services are not yet extensively established. Most of the small-scale entrepreneurs including farmers and fishers do not have access to credit other than from moneylenders.

6.1 Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank (MADB)
The Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank (MADB) is a successor of the State Agriculture Bank of the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation. It was established over 50 years ago and now has more than 200 branches. While at present all clients are small-scale farmers borrowing funds for crop cultivation, the bank’s mandate also covers the provision of financial support for production, marketing and trading, fisheries, aquaculture, sericulture, horticulture and livestock. Previously, the Central Bank of Myanmar funded MADB; now the Myanmar Economic Bank has become the source of its funds. MADB carries out the following tasks:

- advancing annual, short- and long-term loans to state-owned enterprises and organizations dealing with agriculture, livestock and fisheries, cooperative societies, private entrepreneurs, community (village) banks, farmers and labourers;
- receiving deposits for rural development, making loans and advances, and extending overdrafts with and without security;
- organizing, registering and supervising village banks, and regulating their functions and duties;
- selling bank drafts and executing telegraphic transfers, payment orders and other kinds of remittances;
- borrowing money from domestic and foreign sources to carry out the bank’s functions;
- undertaking matters relating to the smooth functioning of the bank, providing and acquiring management and technical expertise, and providing consultation in support of such matters;
• performing any such business as may be approved by the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation.

The types of loans extended by the bank are divided into three categories – crop production loans, term loans and development loans. Seasonal crop production loans cover major crops such as paddy, groundnut, sesame, mustard, long staple cotton, jute, maize, sugar cane, and four types of beans and pulses. The loans for the livestock and fisheries sector are also included in this loan category. Term loans are extended to tea and coffee plantations, and development loans are disbursed for the purchase of water pump sets, power tillers and tractors.

Crop production loans do not require collateral other than the collective liability of borrowers. In 2003, crop production loans worth Kyat 17,865.15 million were disbursed to borrowers in 224 townships. Loan repayment was sufficient for financial sustainability.

Loans disbursed to the livestock sector from 1991/1992 to 1996/1997 was worth Kyat 1,967.57 million (Table 2). Loans to the livestock and fisheries sector depend on the type of operations, as follows:

- a ten-acre carp farm over a period of two years is designated as one unit and eligible for a loan amounting to Kyat 30,000;
- ten cages of carps over one year are designated as one unit and eligible for a loan amounting to Kyat 20,000;
- farming of marine shrimp and freshwater prawns in newly constructed one-acre (.4 ha) earthen ponds over one year is designated as one unit and eligible for a loan of Kyat 50,000;
- farming of marine shrimp and freshwater prawn in traditional ponds or in salt pans in one acre of water surface over one year is designated as one unit and eligible for a loan of Kyat 10,000.

Loans are also available for integrated paddy and fish farming in inundated areas in Ayeyarwaddy and Yangon Divisions. A total of Kyat 50.48 million was disbursed for this purpose from 1991 to 1998. In this case, one unit is designated as integrated paddy and fish farming on five acres for five years, and eligible for a loan of Kyat 50,000 per unit.

Loans disbursed by MADB for integrated paddy and fish farming from 1991/1992 to 1997/1998 are shown in Table 3.

From 1991 to 1996, MADB provided loans for working capital expenditure of fish farmers and paddy-cum-fish farmers in the delta region, especially in the Yangon and Ayeyarwaddy Divisions. In the case of Lake Inlay, loans were disbursed for livestock and poultry breeding and farming only, and not for fisheries and fish farming. All lending to the fisheries sector was stopped after 1996 as a result of the reorganization of MADB, which became necessary when the Myanmar Livestock and Fisheries Bank was established.

MADB also mobilized savings through compulsory and voluntary savings programmes. As of June 2004, more than 1,250,000 farmers, fishers and workers had saved about Kyat 592.09 million with MADB.

### 6.2 Myanmar Livestock and Fisheries Development Bank (MLFDB)

The Myanmar Livestock and Fisheries Development Bank (MLFDB) is a private bank, which was formed and functions within the framework of the Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries. It disburses loans to fish breeders, fish farmers, aquaculture entrepreneurs.
and fishers, both inland and marine. Borrowers can be individuals as well as collective liability groups. In the case of carp farmers, the bank disburses loans of Kyat50,000 per acre for the first year of operation and increases lending up to Kyat100,000 per acre for the second year of operation. From 2001 to 2004, the bank disbursed Kyat3.16837 million to 520 borrowers, who are raising fish and shrimp in about 21,734 acres of ponds. This includes Kyat19.80 million, which were disbursed to ten fish and shrimp farmers in the vicinity of Lake Inlay.

6.3 Loan disbursements in support of livelihoods at Lake Inlay

In addition to MLFDB and MADB, loans for fishing and fish farming were also disbursed by a private non-profit association, Groupe de Recherche et d’Échanges Technologiques (GRET), which is based in France and whose mission is to promote knowledge and understanding of methods and technologies that can support rural development, environmental conservation and urban planning.

The livelihoods of the people living at Lake Inlay are based on agriculture, fishing, traditional handicraft and provision of services such as operating and repair of fishing boats. Table 4 shows how these livelihoods were supported through the disbursement of loans from institutional sources such as MADB, MLFDB and GRET.

As seen from Table 4, the share of the fisheries sector in the total institutional lending is less than two percent. It can be assumed that presently, most credit needs of fishers and fish farmers are not met by financial institutions and NGOs, but by informal sources such as moneylenders, traders, relatives and others.

6.4 The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) microfinance project

From 1997 to 1999, UNDP introduced microfinance projects under the second phase of its Human Development Initiatives (HDI-E) programme. Project activities were initiated in the delta region, the dry zone in Central Myanmar and in Shan State. The microfinance projects were continued during the third phase of the Human Development Initiatives programme from 1999 to 2002 in the same areas. These projects were funded by UNDP and executed by the United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS). The project activities were implemented by three international NGOs – the Grameen Trust from Bangladesh, in the delta region, GRET from France, in southern Shan State, and Pact from the United States, in the dry zone. The Cottage Industries Department of the Ministry of Cooperatives was the counterpart government department for the project.

Currently, microfinance is provided in Myanmar under Sustainable Microfinance to Improve the Livelihoods of the Poor, which is one of the six projects under HDI-IV (2002-2005). The project started in 2003 and is implemented in the same manner as previous microfinance projects. The strategy of this UNDP/UNOPS project is to provide technical assistance and capital support for the three microfinance operations established under the two predecessor projects and to help them attain sustainability.

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1. Pact is an NGO that builds the capacity of local leaders and organizations to meet pressing social needs.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Purpose of loan</th>
<th>No. of borrowers</th>
<th>Amount (Kyat million)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MADB</td>
<td>Paddy growing</td>
<td>2715</td>
<td>52.80</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLFDB</td>
<td>Fishing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19.90</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRET</td>
<td>Fishing</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>9.80</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRET</td>
<td>Agriculture and services</td>
<td>8763</td>
<td>955.48</td>
<td>92.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>11743</td>
<td>1037.98</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In view of providing assistance to improve the necessary infrastructure and capacity for the development of microfinance institutions in Myanmar, the following strategy has been laid out.

The international technical inputs from the respective implementing foreign partners focus on institutional strengthening of microfinance operations. The day-to-day management and decision-making related to microfinance operations is under the responsibility of locally recruited staff of the subcontracted implementing partners. A newly established management board provides strategic direction and overall supervision for the respective microfinance operations.

The results of the three area-specific microfinance operations have proven that the projects have succeeded in supporting the livelihoods of poor families and have thus achieved their objectives. At the end of 2003, 138,138 poor households in 1,775 villages had benefited from the projects. A total amount of Kyat 11,787 million had been disbursed as loans and Kyat 590 million worth of savings had been mobilized (Table 5). The cumulative average loan repayment rate was as high as 99.5 percent.

Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation conducted in 318 villages in the project vicinity found that the project had benefited the poor by increasing their income, empowered all beneficiaries in general, and women in particular, through many types of training programmes, and contributed towards the emergence of sustainable local microfinance institutions in the area.

As far as the use of the loan funds is concerned, this was left to the borrowers and no specific statistics are available on the actual economic activities and loan purposes. Generally, it is assumed that loans were used for backyard and homestead micro-enterprises including fisheries-related activities such as fishing and fish processing.

As in other parts of Myanmar, microfinance operations at Lake Inlay commenced during the second phase of the UNDP’s Human Development Initiatives (HDI-E) programme, when microfinance was introduced in Southern Shan State implemented by the GRET with UNOPS support and UNDP funding. The microfinance activities were initiated in August 1997 in collaboration with local partners, i.e. the Cottage Industries Department of the Ministry of Cooperatives, the Myanmar Agricultural and Development Bank and the Vocational Department of Technical Agriculture and Education. The project areas included five townships in southern Shan State, i.e. Kalaw, Pinlaung, Ywangan and Nyaungshwe Townships.

The third phase activities in the same area commenced in March 2000 as part of the HDI-III project, which operated from 1999 to 2002. The strategies adopted during this phase aimed to establish a locally managed microfinance institution system (MFIS) that was able to expand and sustain financial services catering to the needs of poor local households. The project aimed to reach the poor, empower women, adopt cluster approaches, promote savings habits and offer savings products, focus on small loans and to allow free loan utilization by borrowers with knowledge of other cluster or group members and agreed loan repayment schedules.

During the project period, GRET provided Kyat 965.28 million to 9,018 borrowers from Nyaungshwe Township, which includes loan disbursements of Kyat 9.8 million to
Credit and microfinance needs in inland capture fisheries development and conservation in Asia

243 fishers and 12 fishery service providers on Lake Inlay. The total loan disbursement in Nyaungshwe Township alone by GRET was Kyat965.28 million.

There were 11,920 persons from 206 villages who received microfinance from GRET in Nyaungshwe Township. Table 6 gives an overview of the microfinance operations in 5 townships in southern Shan State. As of July 2004, Kyat3156.67 million had been disbursed to 23,671 borrowers in 605 villages.

Of the total loan disbursement, 79 percent was used for agriculture, 19.98 percent for handicrafts and trading, and 1.02 percent for fishery purposes.

6.5 Participation of social welfare organizations and NGOs in microfinance programmes

NGOs such as Save the Children and World Vision, and social welfare organizations such as the Myanmar Women Affairs Federation (MWAF), the Myanmar Women Entrepreneurial Association (MWEA) and the Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association (MMCWA), also participate in microfinance schemes for the rural poor.

The Myanmar Women Affairs Federation (MWAF)
The object of the MWAF is to promote the advancement of women and to ensure their full participation in national development programmes. More specifically, MWAF promotes technology transfer to women and provides access to employment for women in order to enhance income generation in poor families. The Federation also disburses loans to families with low income.

In 2004, MWAF in Nyaungshwe Township on Lake Inlay provided Kyat8.5 million in microcredit without collateral to poor rural women for agricultural activities, starting grocery shops, and making and selling handicraft. Individual loan amounts were around Kyat20,000 per woman.

The Myanmar Women Entrepreneurial Association (MWEA)
The overall aim of the Association is to strengthen the economic and social role of women in Myanmar as well as in the regional and global economy and society. This is to be achieved through improved communication and coordination among women in the country through the dissemination of information on modern economic management practices. Further, networking among intellectuals in Myanmar and abroad will be promoted – among professional, academic and economic organizations and associations – by organizing and participating in conferences, seminars, workshops, information exchange via internet and other means. MWEA also promotes the participation of women in Myanmar in poverty alleviation efforts.

A special emphasis is placed on improving the livelihoods of poor women by generating income and employment. MWEA disburses loans without collateral to female vendors as well as to women whose livelihoods depend on sewing, weaving, breeding and raising livestock. The interest charged on the loans is used to build capital for the newly formed women’s associations. These associations are encouraged to promote savings among their members, which can be used for further lending and capital build-up.
The Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association (MMCWA)
The Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association (MMCWA) is a voluntary humanitarian organization that aims to provide health care for mothers and children throughout the country and raise their quality of life as well as to provide support to other social welfare organizations. MMCWA also supports the generation of additional family income through the provision of small loans to invest in micro-enterprises such as pig and poultry farming, gardening and growing vegetables. In 2004, MMCWA disbursed Kyat8.5 million in various states of Myanmar including Southern Shan State.

7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
As shown above, many promising initiatives are under way in Myanmar to conserve and sustainably manage the environment and aquatic and other natural resources in the vicinity of Lake Inlay. Similarly, efforts have increased in Myanmar to alleviate poverty and to improve the livelihoods of the poor and other rural dwellers living in the vicinity of the lake. Microfinance programmes have played an important role in these efforts.

In spite of these efforts and the progress made, only a minority of fishers and their families living in the vicinity of the lake have gained access to institutional sources of credit, and the majority still depend on informal sources of credit. The issue of credit and microfinance support to the conservation and rehabilitation of the natural environment of Lake Inlay and its ecosystem has not yet received the attention it deserves.

In order to expand rural microfinance in Myanmar in general, and for the fisheries sector and other relevant stakeholders at Lake Inlay in particular, it is recommended that:

- Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank (MADB) and Myanmar Livestock and Fisheries Development Bank (MLFDB) set up a microfinance services programme in rural areas to support livelihoods of people managing backyard, household and other micro-enterprises and small-scale services, including those in the inland fisheries sector.
- MADB and MLFDB provide three-to-five year term loans to be independently managed by a committee for income generation, services provision, agricultural crop production, livestock breeding and fisheries-related activities, with a view to support capital investment in rural development.

Existing microcredit projects such as the one implemented by GRET have demonstrated the success of small-scale financial services. The experiences acquired and lessons learned should be disseminated through MADB and MLFDB, which should continue the provision of microfinance and rural credit after the projects have ended.

Finally, all microfinance activities and initiatives, including those in inland fisheries, should emphasize long-term sustainability as a goal. This requires the careful consideration of the financial and credit needs related to the rehabilitation and conservation of ecosystems and the natural environment through measures such as habitat and other improvements. This is particularly relevant for inland fisheries, where the various uses of a lake such as Lake Inlay for fisheries, ecotourism, supply of water for drinking and irrigation and many other uses crucially depend on the health and conservation of its natural environment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
The authors wish to express their sincere thanks to U Than Tun, Director-General of the Department of Fisheries, Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries; U Tin Lwan, Managing Director of the Myanmar Agricultural Development Bank, Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation; U Kyaw Zaw from Nyaungshwe Township in Southern Shan State; and Khin Maung Soe, Deputy Director (Aquaculture Division) of the Department of Fisheries for their encouragement, support and assistance in the preparation of this case study.
VI. Increasing inland fisheries production and livelihood security in Cambodia through fishery policy reform and aquaculture development – prospects and constraints

By Heng Sotharith

1. INTRODUCTION
Cambodia’s inland capture fisheries, based on the Mekong River and its tributaries and floodplains, are among the most productive and species-rich freshwater fisheries in the world. The freshwater fishery resources of the country have been exploited for many centuries. The Mekong River system continues to provide its natural bounty of fish and other aquatic animals because it still contains large areas of natural habitat and is relatively undisturbed by dams and industrial activities that would alter hydrology and water quality. The system’s high productivity is based on a complex floodplain system, which is nurtured by the annual monsoon that causes a single large flood lasting for several months between May and November. About 85 to 90 percent of the discharge is generated during the rainy season. At Krati, the Mekong’s maximum discharge is about 50 times its minimum.

In Cambodia, about 20 000 to 25 000 km² of land is flooded every year. The extent of flooding depends on the strength of the monsoon. The Tonle Sap Great Lake floodplains in the heart of the country contain the largest continuous areas of natural wetland habitats remaining in the Mekong system. The Tonle Sap Great Lake is the largest permanent freshwater body in Southeast Asia. The lake is connected to the Mekong River by the Tonle Sap River. Due to higher water levels in the Mekong River during most of the rainy season, the Tonle Sap River flows towards the lake, thereby enlarging it three- to six-fold, from 2 700 km² to between 9 000 and 16 000 km². During the dry season, the Mekong River’s water level falls so that the flow of the Tonle Sap River reverses and the water flows back towards the Mekong River.

The basic diet of Cambodians consists of rice and fish. Fish accounts for 70 percent of the animal protein intake of Cambodians, especially of the rural poor. Fish consumption of rural dwellers living in the floodplain around the Tonle Sap Great Lake is estimated at 75.6 kg per person per year, while those living in fish-deficit areas such as Prey Veng and Svay Rieng Province consume from 22 to 40 kg/person/year (Gregory, 1997). The national average fish consumption is in the range of 30 to 40 kg/person/year.

While fish plays a major role, not only in the diet, but also in the economy of the Cambodian people, the lack of reliable statistics, particularly for small-scale fisheries and aquaculture, has resulted in ignoring the important contribution of capture fisheries to the livelihoods of the poor. On the other hand, aquaculture is widely seen as the principal opportunity to fill the demand-supply gap, especially in those areas that...
are remote from the main water bodies exploited by capture fisheries. It also serves as an opportunity to reduce the pressure on fishery resources from capture fisheries.

2. STATUS AND TRENDS OF INLAND FISHERIES
About 80 percent of Cambodia’s land area is located within the Mekong River catchment area, which accounts for about 20 percent of the total catchment area. Several small rivers, which flow to the sea in southwest Cambodia, do not have extensive floodplains and are relatively unproductive as far as fisheries are concerned.

Cambodia is rich in water resources and varieties of fish habitats. The Mekong, Tonle Sap and Basac Rivers and many of their tributaries, numerous lakes, and the Tonle Sap Great Lake and its floodplains comprise a wide range of different habitat types from marshes, swamps, shrublands, grasslands and flooded forests to rice fields. After rice fields, flooded forests account for the second largest land use area of Cambodia and have a huge potential for fish production. The availability of habitat is influenced by the flood regime of the Mekong River, which expand and contract the floodplains of Tonle Sap Great Lake. The centre of the Tonle Sap Great Lake consists largely of open water that serves as an important refuge for fish in the dry season when the lateral zone dries up. Fish production in the Tonle Sap Great Lake is about 139 to 190 kg/ha/year (Lieng and Van Zalinge, 2001).

The large floodplains and extensive wetland areas surrounding the Tonle Sap Great Lake are both highly valuable and vulnerable. High biodiversity and biological productivity allow these areas to offer habitat to a broad variety of aquatic life. More than 500 fish species have been identified in the Mekong River area (Rainboth, 1996). In the past, Cambodia was covered with thick forests, which protected the catchment areas of rivers, thus regulating their hydrology and providing fish with its habitat, including floodplains. During the 1950s and 1960s, forests still covered about 70 percent of Cambodia’s land mass. By 1997, this figure had officially declined to about 60 percent. Much of this allegedly remaining forest cover, however, had actually been converted to agriculture, or consisted of secondary and tertiary growth, since many of the old trees had been cut.

Clearing of forests has accelerated in recent years, and with the disappearance of flooded forest lands, particularly near heavily populated areas, an important fish habitat has been lost. While the loss of forest cover in Cambodia as well as in upstream countries caused a wide range of negative impacts on hydrological and aquatic ecological systems, the actual extent of these losses and their impacts have not been accurately documented.

The annual landing site value of Cambodia’s inland fish production in 1998 has been estimated between US$150 to 250 million (Van Zalinge, Nao and Deap, 1999). According to estimations of the market value of fish production in the lower Mekong River Basin, the freshwater capture fishery of Cambodia has a market value of more than US$300 million. The Department of Fisheries generated revenues worth US$1.9 million in 1998 (DoF, 1999).

As shown in Table 1, from 2000 to 2005, the annual fish production fluctuated considerably from year to year; it was highest in 2001. In 2005, 410 000 tonnes of fish were harvested, of which 79 percent was contributed by inland capture fisheries and only 6 percent by aquaculture. Some observers consider recent catch statistics as too low and underestimated due to weaknesses in the system of collecting catch statistics at fish landing sites.

3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE OF INLAND FISHERIES
According to the Cambodian fisheries law, small-scale fisheries and family-based fisheries are classified as subsistence fisheries, which can be carried out during the entire year in open-access water areas but not in fishing lots. Fishing lots are units of
water bodies that can be leased. Small-scale fishers use all kinds of small-size fishing gears, which can be operated by one or two persons, such as gillnets, castnets, scoop nets, shrimp scoop nets, hand pushnets, small bamboo traps, hook and lines, spears and other fishing gear (Tana, 2002).

Rural farmers and rural poor are involved in subsistence fisheries in rice fields. Fisheries-related employment is very important for rural livelihoods. A study on rice field fisheries found these fisheries to be of socio-economic importance for the rural poor in the rural Svay Rieng Province. A household survey of fishing dependent communes in 1995 conducted in eight provinces around Tonle Sap Great Lake and the southern floodplains with the total population of 2.4 million people and 453,000 households indicated that for 10.5 percent of these households, fishing or fisheries-related activities such as fish marketing was their primary occupation and source of income, while another 34.1 percent of households were engaged part-time in fishing or fisheries-related activities (Ahmed et al., 1998).

Of the households engaged in fishing or fisheries-related activities, 87 percent were involved in small-scale, family-based fishing or fisheries-related activities, 9 percent in medium-scale fishing or fisheries-related activities, and only 4 percent in large-scale activities (Ahmed et al., 1998). The study also found that small-scale, family-based fisheries are often carried out in rice fields or nearby water bodies such as canals, swamps or small lakes. The average annual catch per household involved in small- and medium-scale fishing was 647 kg and 3,319 kg, respectively. Nearly 40 percent of the catch was consumed by the fishers and their families, and 60 percent was sold for cash. Through fishing and other income-generating activities, the households surveyed had a cash income of around US$380 per year (Ahmed et al., 1998).

From 1994 to 1998, the project Management of Freshwater Captures Fisheries of Cambodia, implemented by the Mekong River Commission (MRC), Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) and the Department of Fisheries of Cambodia (DoF) established a system of fishery data collection based on stratified sampling by species, fishing gear and district and on a survey of fishing gear (Diep, Ly and Van Zalinge, 1998). Table 2 shows the ranges of annual catches from 1994 to 1997, separately for large-scale, medium-scale, small-scale and rice field fisheries. As in the case of the total fish production from 2000 to 2005, shown in Table 1, the catch ranges shown in Table 2 indicate considerable catch fluctuations, which are particularly pronounced in the case of large-scale and rice field fisheries, while the catch ranges of small-scale and medium-scale fisheries show smaller annual fluctuations.

In the case of large-scale fishing operations in fishing lots, the wide range of the annual catch from 25,000 to 75,000 tonnes reflects the uncertainty of catch levels. In the case of rice field fisheries, the yield ranges from 25 to 62 kg/ha.

---

**TABLE 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Inland</th>
<th>Marine</th>
<th>Aquaculture</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>245 600</td>
<td>36 000</td>
<td>14 430</td>
<td>296 030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>385 000</td>
<td>42 000</td>
<td>17 500</td>
<td>441 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>360 300</td>
<td>45 850</td>
<td>18 200</td>
<td>420 750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>308 750</td>
<td>54 750</td>
<td>18 500</td>
<td>382 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>250 000</td>
<td>55 800</td>
<td>18 650</td>
<td>324 460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>324 000</td>
<td>60 000</td>
<td>25 900</td>
<td>410 000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Department of Fisheries of Cambodia, 2005.

**TABLE 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of fisheries</th>
<th>Annual catch ranges (tonnes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Large-scale fisheries:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Fishing lots: 25 000 – 75 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- dais (bag nets): 10 000 – 20 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium-scale fisheries: 85 000 – 100 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-scale family-based fisheries: 115 000 – 140 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice field fisheries: 45 000 – 110 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total: 280 000 – 445 000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Ahmed et al., 1998; Diep, Ly and Van Zalinge, 1998.
Large-scale inland fisheries, i.e. the fishing lots and *dai* (or bag net) fisheries are confined to limited areas and managed as government concessions. The system originated during the French Colonial period. Because of conflicts between managers of fishing lots and local fishing communities, the area of fishing lots that can be leased for large-scale fishing operations was gradually reduced. The largest reduction took place in 2001.

As far as the economic role of fisheries is concerned, many other industries depend on Cambodia’s fisheries sector: manufacturers of fishing gear, fishing boats, suppliers of fuel, ice and preservatives, workers in transportation and marketing, as well as other downstream industries. Better information on the economic contribution of these industries and the employment they provide is urgently needed. Current conservative estimates assess the contribution of the fishery industry to Cambodia’s GDP as 12 percent, ahead of rice production, which accounts for ten percent of the country’s GDP. Considering the weakness of fishery statistics in Cambodia, the actual contribution of fisheries to the GDP of the country might even be higher than 12 percent.

4. FISHERIES POLICY REFORM

Fishery resources management and development in Cambodia aims to improve rural livelihoods and food security through enhancing the sustainable use of fishery resources and the access of the rural poor to these resources. In 2002, the government declared 1 July as National Fish Day to encourage people to participate in fisheries conservation and development and to ensure the long-term, sustainable use of fishery resources – social, economic and environmental.

To achieve this goal, the Government of Cambodia changed its fisheries policy and delegated the authority for fishery resources management to local communities. In June 2005, the government passed a new subdecree on community fisheries to facilitate the establishment and organization of community fisheries. The reform also abolished the taxation of medium-scale fishing operations. About 56 percent of all previously leased and commercially fished fishing lots were abolished and placed under a community fisheries management regime. Table 3 shows the number of fishing lots that existed before and after the fishery policy reform. The lots to which small-scale fishing communities were granted access were mainly situated in rivers, lakes and streams.

To date, 404 community fisheries have been established by the Department of Fisheries in collaboration with local governments and NGOs. Most of the members and leaders of the newly established community fisheries still lack the necessary skills and knowledge to manage their community fisheries. The situation is further aggravated by the fact that apart from the subdecree on community fisheries, no appropriate laws and regulatory frameworks have yet been adopted that could govern and guide the functioning of the newly established community fisheries.

The new political platform of the Royal Government of Cambodia of the third legislature pertaining to natural resource management clearly states that the fisheries sector reform will be accompanied by scientific research and the conversion of some

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fishing lots</th>
<th>Prior to reform</th>
<th>Abolished</th>
<th>Remaining after reform</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lake and stream lots</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bag net lots (dai fishing)</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Lady bag net lots</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prawn bag net</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riverine lots</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>239</strong></td>
<td><strong>77</strong></td>
<td><strong>162</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

of the fishing lots to fish sanctuaries to enhance fish stocks and conserve endangered species. As part of the new fisheries policy, the number of community managed fishing lots will be increased and the development of aquaculture will be promoted to respond to an increasing demand for fish and to reduce the pressure on fishery resources exerted by capture fisheries.

The Fisheries Management and Development Plan of Cambodia aims to:

- ensure the sustainable management and utilization of the fishery resources to secure food for the people and to alleviate poverty;
- promote and encourage aquaculture development in every way, particularly small-scale aquaculture in rural areas in order to supply protein and to supplement existing levels and forms of fish production;
- promote community fisheries and local participation in fisheries management and to secure sustainable livelihoods for farmers in terms of social, economic and nutritional benefits;
- protect and conserve critical habitats and restore endangered species;
- provide quality services to all clients and training for fisheries staff to better understand the concerns of the fishery industry;
- promote fisheries extension work at all levels;
- encourage investments in the fisheries sector and improve the basic infrastructure for fisheries development, particularly for post-harvest handling and processing.

5. CONSTRAINTS TO SUSTAINABLE FISHERIES DEVELOPMENT AND TO THE REHABILITATION OF THE ENVIRONMENT

Fishing villages are often affected by both flooding and receding waters. This is particularly true for the floating villages in Tonle Sap Great Lake, which have to shift their position on the lake seasonally according to the movement of the water level. There is a lack of social organizations in fishing communities such as fisher associations, clubs or cooperatives, which makes it difficult to manage fishery resources at the community level. Work crews in small-scale fisheries in Cambodia usually consist of family members and relatives. Kin group-based work crews also play an important role in the exploitation of fishing lots, either through contractual agreements with lot owners, as subleases or sometimes as poachers.

Small-scale fisheries also suffer from the degradation of fish habitat. The increasing use of water for irrigation and deterioration of water quality through pollution caused by industrialization and urbanization have negative affects on biodiversity and on the abundance of aquatic resources. Flood controls reduce the expansion of floodplains and the breeding and reproduction of fish, particularly of migratory species (Van Zalinge et al., 2000).

The construction of dams and barriers causes disturbance, changing the physical shape of water bodies and obstructing fish migration. The negative consequences of deforestation, the inflow of nutrients from agricultural activities close to water bodies, road construction, hydropower plants and other forms of development for water quality, fishery resources and habitat are already evident. The major concern is the loss of riparian vegetation cover and the rapid loss of flooded forests, which provide crucial aquatic habitat for fishes.

The catch rate per fisher has declined because the increase in population and in the number of fishers has outstripped the increase in catch (Van Zalinge et al., 2000). If fishing pressure were to increase further, it would probably not lead to a further increase in the total catch but to a further decline of the catch rate per fisher. Table 4 shows changes in population and catch between 1940 and 1995/1996 in the Tonle Sap Great Lake region.

The decline of the catch rate of small-scale fishers leads to conflicts between small and large-scale fishers. Large-scale fishers usually exploit fishing lots located in the
productive and rich fishing grounds in flooded forests. Because of the rapid increase in number of fishers and limited fishing grounds, small-scale fishers started to poach fish in the productive fishing grounds of fishing lots that had been leased by large-scale operators. The fishing lot operators used armed guards to protect their lots. Small-scale fishers often complained that the large-scale operators themselves did not observe their lot boundaries and also fished in the open access areas exploited by small-scale fishers. After the fishery sector policy reform, conflicts are still occurring in some areas, but the scale and number of conflicts have been greatly reduced.

The practice of illegal fishing leads to conflicts as some people gain an advantage over others by breaking the law and causing a serious decline of spawning fish. The use of explosives, especially in the deep channels of the upper Mekong in Kratie and Stung Treng Provinces, is particularly destructive as it targets spawning populations seeking shelter in these channels during the dry season (Van Zalinge et al., 2000). This type of illegal fishing is done mainly by fishers under armed protection, but also by villagers on their own initiative. The decline in the number of spawning fish resulted in a decline in fish productivity, particularly of large species that require several years to reach maturity.

Environmental risks and degradation of the natural resource base are an important threat to aquaculture development and fisheries. Aquaculture is affected by natural disasters, aquatic animal diseases, introduction of exotic species, loss of genetic diversity through poor genetic resource management strategies, and by water pollution.

### 6. POTENTIAL AND RISKS OF AQUACULTURE DEVELOPMENT

Aquaculture in Cambodia is practised in the form of pond, cage or pen culture and is distinguished according to the scale of operation as small-, medium- and large-scale aquaculture. Small-scale pond culture is defined by a pond size not exceeding 100 m² and an annual production of 30 to 50 kg, which is mainly used for household consumption. Medium-scale aquaculture is carried out in ponds from 100 m² to 1 ha; the fish produced is sold for cash; and the annual sales revenue is about US$5 000. Large-scale pond culture uses a pond area of more than one hectare.

There are currently 4 942 cages used for fish culture. Cage culture has been practised in Cambodia for more than a century and is still the major form of inland aquaculture (Nandeesha, 2002). Pens were first used to stock fish of non-marketable size caught in fishing lots for fattening throughout the dry season. The fish was then transferred to floating cages, when floodwater rose high enough during the rainy season to float the cages downstream to markets (Tana, 2002).

There are also about 160 pens in Cambodia used for growing fish. Fishers in the Tonle Sap Great Lake first stored the surplus of their catch in bamboo pens or floating cages and kept them alive by feeding. Later, they stocked smaller fish in cages to fatten and sell them during the off-season. The preferred species for cage culture are giant snakehead (Channa micropeltes) and river catfish (Pangasianodon hypophthalmus), although the latter species is no longer profitable. The production of cultured Pangasianodon hypophthalmus and Channa micropeltes in both ponds and cages has been steadily declining, due to a shortage of wild seed supply and of trash fish for feeding, and the deterioration of water quality, which caused the outbreak of fish diseases and killed large quantities of cultured fish.

---

**TABLE 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Population (million)</th>
<th>No. of fishers (million)</th>
<th>Increase in population</th>
<th>Tonle Sap Great Lake fish production (tonnes)</th>
<th>Increase in fish catch</th>
<th>Annual fish catch per fisher (kg)</th>
<th>Decline in catch per fisher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>125 000</td>
<td>347</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>3.3 x</td>
<td>235 000</td>
<td>1.9 x</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>-44%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Chevey and Le Poulain, 1940; MRC and DoF.
Pond culture in Cambodia is of recent origin and started in the 1960s. There are presently 44,581 fish ponds in Cambodia. Pond culture of Chinese carps and tilapia was attempted around Phnom Penh and in some plantations and garden ponds. Aquaculture development in Cambodia is very slow both in terms of technology advances and production increases, probably because of the reliable and relatively inexpensive fish supply from capture fisheries.

Today, aquaculture in Cambodia contributes 6 percent to the total fish production. From 1993 to 1998, aquaculture production in Cambodia increased annually by 15 to 20 percent. Table 5 shows the production increases from 2000 to 2005. It is estimated that the share of aquaculture in the total fish production will continue to increase in the coming years.

Coastal aquaculture is a relatively new development in Cambodia. It started in 1989 with the setting up of several shrimp and fish farms. It has significantly expanded since 1991, but has not yet reached the same production levels as inland aquaculture. A future expansion is expected, however, because of the high value of shrimp and fish that can be farmed and their potential to generate foreign exchange earnings through exports. A major setback occurred because of problems associated with disease, which forced many farms to close. The present production of coastal aquaculture is only 60 tonnes per year.

As capture fishery production is stagnating or even declining and the population and the demand for fish is increasing, the Government of Cambodia, in collaboration with a number of NGOs, international organizations and donors, promotes small-scale aquaculture development in different parts of the country. This activity is helping farmers in rural areas to grow fish both for family consumption and cash income generation.

In order to maintain a balance between fish demand and supply in 2010, when the Cambodian population is expected to have increased to 16 million people, the total fish supply, both from the wild and aquaculture, should be 586,000 tonnes, for a 35 to 40 kg/year/capita consumption. In order to achieve this target, the government expects the aquaculture sector to supply about 222,000 tonnes of fish annually.

Aquaculture development, particularly in rural areas, is expected to increase the availability of fish and thus contribute to food security and safety, improve household income through the sale of fish, enhance social status, make better use of natural resources, and provide employment for women.

Lessons learned from aquaculture development pilot projects in Cambodia, however, also indicate many possible negative effects and constraints. The main constraints faced by NGOs, international organizations and projects are the lack of financial resources, facilities and manpower. Constraints faced by farmers willing to take up fish farming are the lack of capital for pond and cage construction, of access to credit with reasonable interest rates, and of availability of seed of good quality, as

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well as seasonal scarcity of water for pond culture, natural hazards such as flooding or drought, a lack of extension services support and the limited amount of land suitable for pond culture.

Aquaculture of highly carnivorous species such as snakehead fish (Channa micropeltes and Channa Striata) also causes problems for fishery resources. Farmers of these species usually catch juvenile fish to feed snakehead, even during the closed season from June to October when fish is spawning, a practice that contributes to an unsustainable utilization of fishery resources and eventually leads to a decline of wild fish stocks and their productivity.

7. ACCESS TO CREDIT AND MICROFINANCE SERVICES
With few exceptions, small-scale fishers and fish farmers in Cambodia do not have access to rural credit and microfinance services. This was one of the findings of a national conference organized with the support of APRACA and FAO in 2004 in Phnom Penh. The conference was a first step in initiating a dialogue between representatives of community fisheries, microfinance institutions and government agencies to explore how microfinance institutions, many of them recently established, can cater to the needs of community fisheries and other stakeholders in the fisheries sector.

As a result of the workshop discussions, it was found that because of their poverty, small-scale fishers and fish farmers cannot afford to invest in responsible fishing gear to make full and sustainable use and to fully benefit from the fishing lots made available to them by fishery policy reform.

Similarly, community fisheries do not have the financial resources to invest in the rehabilitation of the aquatic environment, which is under their management authority, or to take up aquaculture or fisheries related-activities such as fish processing and marketing that might increase their income and improve their livelihoods. Small-scale fishers and fish farmers in Cambodia still depend on moneylenders and traders for their credit needs. The unfavourable terms and conditions attached to credit provided by the informal sector prevent fishers from getting out of poverty.

Without access to microfinance and rural credit for small-scale fishers and fish farmers, the fishery policy reform in Cambodia and the plans for introduction of sustainable fishing and fish farming practices and the rehabilitation and conservation of the aquatic environment will have great difficulties in achieving their objectives.

8. RECOMMENDATIONS
To resolve the problems facing the future of the inland fisheries sector in Cambodia, there is a need for strengthening capacities of fisheries officers, members of community fisheries and the microfinance sector. Capacity building should include education and training as well as research and extension services to support the implementation of fisheries laws, policies and regulations.

There is a need to mobilize funds for community fisheries development from microfinance, rural financial institutions and the government. There is also a need for economic and other incentives to foster aquaculture development.

Existing rules and regulations for providing credit and microfinance and lending policies should be reviewed and, if necessary, changed so that they support the creation of employment at the community level in fishing, fish farming, fish processing and marketing, manufacture of fishing gears and similar activities.

There is a need for better understanding and promotion of the financial needs of fisheries and aquaculture among financial institutions and bi- and multilateral assistance agencies, and for credit schemes supporting sustainable aquaculture development, including microfinance programmes for small-scale aquaculture development. Further, there is need to establish an aquaculture extension network as well as collaboration between research institutions dealing with inland aquaculture development and
education, including feed and feeding technology, at the provincial, national and regional level.

REFERENCES


VII. Successful involvement of local communities in conservation programmes for Malayan mahseer in River Kinabatangan of Sabah

By Mahyam Mohd. Isa and Jephrin Wong

1. INTRODUCTION
Sabah is popularly known as the “land below the wind”. It is the second largest state in Malaysia, with an estimated land area of 73,711 km² and a coastline of 1,600 km, with a population of approximately 2.6 million. It is an agricultural state: over 70 percent of the population live in rural areas and most are directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture, livestock and fisheries for their livelihoods. These sectors contribute significantly to the export earnings of the state, which is becoming a net exporter of fish products. While the economy of Sabah consists mainly of export-oriented sectors, the state has recently embarked on more resource-based diversification and value-addition.

Development programmes have been tailored to offer opportunities and assistance to further develop the fisheries sector. The prospects for the fisheries sector in Sabah have been widely recognized due to its vast resources of rich and diverse aquatic and marine life. The fisheries sector is a significant industry and an essential element of ensuring continuity in the development and growth of the food-producing sector of the economy.

Freshwater fish is an important source of protein for the rural communities in the interior regions of Sabah. Before the 1960s, fish could be easily obtained from inland rivers throughout the state. But the development of the timber industry and extensive agricultural development have resulted in soil erosion, pollution and consequent destruction of fish breeding grounds and habitats, especially in the east coast region where most of the oil palm plantations are located. Caused by overfishing of rivers, the population of freshwater fishes in the state has dwindled rapidly over the years. The state government and the Fisheries Department have recognized the urgency to address the problems concerning the decline of freshwater fishes and have taken steps to assist the affected rural communities by introducing freshwater fish farming and encouraging rural communities to restore riverine fishery resources through community-based fishery resources management.

The paper highlights some of the work carried out by local communities in conserving and restoring one of the endangered freshwater species at River Kinabatangan, Sabah through a community-based fishery resources management system, locally called Tagal. The paper describes how the Tagal system works, its present status in Sabah, strategies to make it sustainable, as well as the roles played by the Sabah Fisheries Department and its future plan to promote ecotourism and sport fishing to generate new income for rural communities with the help of micro-credit support.

2. DESCRIPTION OF SABAH
2.1 Geographic location
The Malaysian State of Sabah is situated in the northeastern part of Borneo Island bordered by Brunei and the Malaysian State of Sarawak in the southwest and
Indonesian Kalimantan in the south. It has a large coastal area and is surrounded by the South China Sea and the Palawan Thrust in the northwest, the Celebes Sea in the southeast, and the Sulu Sea in the east.

Sabah covers a wide and diverse physiographical range and a wide range of aquatic and terrestrial habitats. Aquatic habitats range from fast-flowing mountain streams to the extensive tracts of floodplains in the northeast of the state. Coastal habitats are diverse, including nipah and mangrove swamps, estuarine areas, rocky shores, sandy beaches, coastal islands and the open sea. The west coast is generally more rocky and sandy, while mangrove swamps dominate the east coast.

2.2 Climate
Sabah experiences a typical equatorial climate with temperatures between 27 to 34 °C, a considerable amount of rain (1 800 to 4 000 mm/year) and high humidity. The two prevailing monsoons in Sabah that characterize the climate in this region are the northeast monsoon and the southwest monsoon. The northeast monsoon prevails from November to March, while the southwest monsoon prevails from May to September. There are also two successive inter-monsoon seasons: April to May, and September to October. While the coastal areas experience occasionally severe storms, the entire state is situated below the typhoon belt.

2.3 Water resources
Water resources in the state are grouped into three main categories to include surface water, groundwater, and marine and estuarine water. Surface water is one of the major sources of freshwater supply in Sabah. Surface water sources are streams and rivers that flow into lakes, wetlands, watersheds and man-made reservoirs. The supply of surface water is renewable as long as there is enough precipitation. In Sabah, much of the surface water supply comes from major rivers. There are 19 river basins in Sabah, with the largest being the Kinabatangan River basin on the east coast, covering an area of 15 385 km². The Padas River on the west coast covers an area of 8 726 km². Most of the other basins cover smaller areas.

The groundwater supply is largely dependent on rainfall for recharge. It has been estimated that about 22 percent of the annual rainfall percolates into the bedrock and is utilized as groundwater recharge. The percolation rates may vary depending on the porosity of the soil. Groundwater can easily be depleted during dry periods or in areas where soil is impervious to water. Presently, the groundwater supply in Sabah is largely used as a supplementary supply.

The marine ecosystem is divided into the estuarine zone and the oceanic zone. The estuarine zone represents less than ten percent of the total ocean area, but contains 90 percent of all marine life. The oceanic zone represents 90 percent of the total ocean area, but supports only a little marine life. The water in the estuarine zone is shallow and therefore allows sunlight penetration for photosynthesis to occur in the vast population of phytoplankton, which supports the marine life.

3. THE FISHERIES SECTOR
The fisheries sector of Sabah is divided into four subsectors – marine capture fisheries, marine aquaculture, inland capture fisheries, and freshwater aquaculture.

The economic contribution of these subsectors to the state is shown in Table 1. Of the four subsectors, the marine capture fisheries show the highest economic contribution, while inland capture fisheries show the lowest.

In 2003, inland capture fisheries contributed less than one percent to Sabah’s gross fishery production. However, inland fisheries play an important role in the socio-economic conditions of the rural people through employment generation, income and as a source of protein. The demand for freshwater fish – an important source of animal
Part 3 – Case studies and success stories

protein for rural communities – has always been high in the rural interior regions of Sabah, because marine fish is not easily available in these regions due to poor accessibility.

3.1 Inland water resources
The inland water resources of Sabah can be divided into two categories: open inland waters (rivers and streams) and closed water bodies, i.e. oxbow and man-made lakes.

Open inland waters
The total area of open inland waters is estimated at 34,321 ha, which account for 97.5 percent of the total area of freshwater in Sabah. The open water resources contribute significantly to fish production by providing waters for aquaculture farms and capture fisheries. There are 16 major rivers, as shown in Table 2.

Closed water bodies
This category of inland water refers to bodies of water with minimal or no connection to rivers or open water systems under normal conditions; it consists of man-made lakes and oxbow lakes. Young meandering rivers tend to straighten their course over long time periods separating previously bent portions from the main river’s course and flow of water. Generally, these bends are horseshoe- or ox yoke-shaped, and such water bodies separating themselves from the rivers are called oxbow lakes. There are several oxbow lakes in Sabah, namely Kota Marudu, Kinabatangan, Beaufort, Kota Belud and Tenom. The total area of oxbow and man-made lakes in Sabah is estimated at about 891 ha and accounts for 2.5 percent of the total area of freshwater bodies in the state. These lakes have vast potential for the development of aquaculture with floating cages, pen culture and freshwater ranching.

3.2 Inland capture fisheries
Inland capture fisheries in Sabah are mainly carried out in rivers and rarely in lakes, reservoirs and floodplains. The major inland water bodies in Sabah are shown in Table 3. Kinabatangan River is the largest and the longest river in Sabah with a total length of more than 560 km.

As mentioned above, although the production of fish from inland fisheries contributes only one percent of the total fish production, it still plays an important socio-economic role for rural people through the generation of employment and income and as a source of protein. The demand for freshwater fish has always been high in rural areas. In many of the villages along the Kinabatangan River and Segama River, the livelihoods of the villagers greatly depend on their income from the catches

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### TABLE 1
Economic contribution of Sabah fisheries sector, 2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fisheries sector</th>
<th>Production (tonnes)</th>
<th>Production (%)</th>
<th>Wholesale value (RM million)</th>
<th>Value (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marine capture fisheries</td>
<td>160,269.28</td>
<td>93.15</td>
<td>495.402</td>
<td>74.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine aquaculture</td>
<td>3,372.66</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>93.446</td>
<td>14.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seaweed culture</td>
<td>2,760.80</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>5.385</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freshwater aquaculture</td>
<td>5,572.57</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>72.443</td>
<td>10.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inland capture fisheries</td>
<td>78.08</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>172,053.39</td>
<td></td>
<td>667.534</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Sabah Annual Fisheries Statistics.

### TABLE 2
Major rivers of Sabah State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of rivers</th>
<th>Districts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Bengkoka</td>
<td>Kudat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Kadamaian</td>
<td>Kota Belud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Wario</td>
<td>Kota Belud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Segama</td>
<td>Lahad Datu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Sugut</td>
<td>Beluran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Kinabatangan</td>
<td>Kinabatangan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Papar</td>
<td>Papar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Padas</td>
<td>Beaufort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Membakut / Mawao</td>
<td>Membakut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Mesapol</td>
<td>Sipitang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Nabawan</td>
<td>Nabawan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Kalumpang</td>
<td>Kunak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Babagon</td>
<td>Penampang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Pensiangan</td>
<td>Pensiangan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Kiulu</td>
<td>Tamarul/Tuaran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. Tamaruli</td>
<td>Tamarul/Tuaran</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of giant freshwater prawns (Macrobrachium rosenbergii). Most of the catch is sold to middlemen from Sandakan and a large percentage is exported. It has been estimated that the average annual catch of giant freshwater prawn from each of these two rivers is around 50 metric tonnes.

In addition to Kinabatangan and Segama Rivers, the Labuk River and the Padas River also contribute significantly to the total landing of freshwater capture fisheries in Sabah, in particular to the landings of giant freshwater prawns.

The trends of fish landings by weight, value and major species from 1990 to 2004 are shown in Tables 4 and 5. The figures show a significant decline in total fish landings from 1999 onwards. The modest recovery of catches reported for 2004 might be due to improvements in information-gathering rather than to actual catch increases. Over the years, the habitats in which inland capture fisheries takes place have rapidly deteriorated due to logging activities, pollution from extensive agricultural plantations, overfishing and illegal fishing such as using poison and electro-fishing. Fish catches vary throughout the year.

Sabah has 168 species of freshwater fish species. Major freshwater fish species of commercial value caught and sold in the markets are giant freshwater prawn (Macrobrachium rosenbergii), ikan patin (Pangasius spp.), lampam sungai (Puntius spp.), ikan tapah (Wallago maculatus), ikan baung (Mystus spp.), ikan lais (Kryptopterus sp.), ikan kokok (Leiocassis spp.), marble gobby (Oxyeleotris marmorata), snakehead (Ophicephalus spp.), tilapia (Tilapia spp.), catfish (Clarias spp.) and ikan pelian (Tor duoronensis).

During the rainy season, the major species caught are udang galah (Macrobrachium rosenbergii), patin (Pangasius spp.), tapah (Wallago spp.) and baung (Mystus spp.). During the dry season, the major species caught are lampam sungai (Puntius spp.), lais (Kryptopterus parvanalis), catfish (Clarias spp.) and pelian (Tor spp.).

**Types of fishing craft and gear**

Exact figures on the number of fishing boats used in inland fisheries in Sabah are not available because fishers fishing in inland waters are not licensed. In May 2003, the state enacted the Sabah Inland Fisheries and Aquaculture Enactment 2003, which provides for sustainable development and management of inland fisheries and aquaculture in the state. As of July 2005, however, the Sabah Inland Fisheries and Aquaculture Enactment 2003 has still not been enforced.

It is estimated, however, that there are more than 100 units of fishing boats in the inland waters of Sabah, mostly small wooden boats with and without outboard engines. The most commonly used fishing gears are Gill and trammel nets, portable traps, castnets, and hook and lines (Table 5).

As far as the quality of inland fisheries statistics in Sabah is concerned, no proper statistical data collection has been carried out in the past, and fisheries statistics may have been under- or over-reported. The main reason is a lack of training of inland fisheries staff in the collection of fisheries statistics. It was only in 2005 that inland fisheries staff of the State of Sabah received proper training in the collection of fisheries statistics with the help of the Department of Fisheries of Malaysia.

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**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major inland water bodies of Sabah contributing to the landings of inland capture fisheries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of inland water bodies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinabatangan River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Padas River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labuk River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Segama River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalabakan River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paitan River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugut River</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxbow Lake, Kinabatangan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Landings (tonnes)</th>
<th>Value (RM million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>1 200</td>
<td>7.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>1 400</td>
<td>8.400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>1 500</td>
<td>9.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>1 600</td>
<td>9.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>1 700</td>
<td>10.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>1 700</td>
<td>10.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>1 700</td>
<td>10.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>1 700</td>
<td>10.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>1 700</td>
<td>10.200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>89.58</td>
<td>0.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>51.00</td>
<td>0.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>77.09</td>
<td>0.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>74.45</td>
<td>0.818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>78.08</td>
<td>0.859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>374.51</td>
<td>4.117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. INSTITUTIONAL PROFILE OF FISHERIES SECTOR

The responsibility to develop the fisheries sector in Sabah falls under the purview of the Ministry of Agriculture Development and Food Industry, Sabah. Development plans are mapped out in every Malaysia Plan with specific approaches and strategies to enhance potential through government programmes. Government agencies under this ministry are entrusted to develop and regulate fisheries-related activities. Each agency has specific functions, ranging from development, marketing and services to enforcement.

4.1 Department of Fisheries of Sabah

The Department of Fisheries (DoF) of Sabah is a state department under the Ministry of Agriculture Development and Food Industry, Sabah. The objectives and tasks of the DoF Sabah include increasing fish production, improving the socio-economic status of fishers, managing and conserving fishery resources, research and development, and regulating and enforcing fisheries laws.

4.2 Ko-Nelayan (Sabah Fisheries and Fisherman’s Development Corporation)

Ko-Nelayan was established as a statutory authority for fishermen cooperatives in 1978. Its objectives are to:

- improve the economic and social well-being of the fishing community in Sabah;
- promote and assist in the establishment of fishermen cooperatives;
- increase production of the fishing industry and accelerate the development of aquaculture;
- promote and develop a pool of skilled local entrepreneurs providing ancillary services, including fish processing, marketing and distribution.

4.3 Sabah Fish Marketing Sdn. Bhd (SAFMA)

Sabah Fish Marketing Sdn. Bhd (SAFMA) was established in 1982 to meet the infrastructure requirements for the development of the fishery industry in Sabah. The objectives of SAFMA are to:

- promote commercial operations of the fishery industry from catching and processing to marketing, including the application of modern technologies in fishing operations, and commercial processing and marketing of fish products in both domestic and international markets;
- improve the socio-economic well-being of the fishing community by providing necessary infrastructure, marketing and other services.

SAFMA has a number of facilities, including processing and cold storage plants at Kota Kinabalu, Tawau and Semporna, a slipway and a fishmeal plant at Sepangar Bay, as well as commercial fishing vessels. The main activities of SAFMA are capture fishing operations, and import, export and marketing of marine products, including exporting aquaculture products from Sabah.
4.4 Fisheries associations
There are three main categories of fisheries associations. The first category contains groups from the private fisheries sector that have a common interest to represent themselves in various forums. The main fisheries associations in Sabah are the KK Fishing Boat Owners Association, the Sandakan Fishing (Tong Kang) Association and the Tawau Fishing Association. Associations falling under the second category are formed under the Lembaga Kemajuan Ikan Malaysia Act of 1988, which is called Persatuan Nelayan in various marine fisheries districts. All of these are affiliated to the main body called Persatuan Nelayan Negeri Sabah (PENGASAH) situated at Lembaga Kemajuan Ikan Malaysia (LKIM) State Office in Kota Kinabalu. The third category of fisheries-related associations includes those formed for a specific purpose such as the Sabah Angler’s Association.

5. THE SABAH INLAND FISHERIES MANAGEMENT SYSTEM
The State Government of Sabah has recently passed a new fisheries law, the Sabah Inland Fisheries and Aquaculture Enactment of 2003. The Enactment gives the State Fisheries Department wider powers to manage and regulate all fisheries activities in the inland waters of the state. With this new law it is hoped that a sustainable management of the inland fishery resources in the state will be more successfully implemented in the near future than in the past.

5.1 The Community-Based Resource Management (CBRM) programme
Even though the state had no adequate fisheries law for regulating inland fisheries in the first year of the Tagal system, the State Fisheries Department managed to successfully implement the Community-Based Resource Management (CBRM) programme, locally called “the Tagal system”, for many of the riverine fishery resources in Sabah. The Tagal system is a smart partnership between communities and the government, with DoF Sabah as the lead agency for protecting, rehabilitating, conserving and managing riverine fishery resources in the state. To participate in this partnership, each community must have traditional use rights, preferably to several deep pools in a river, and manage and use its fishery resources under the leadership of the headman of the community. The state fisheries officers and district officers act as consultants to the Tagal committees.

The responsibilities of the communities are to protect their riverine fishery resources from poaching, overfishing, illegal fishing and from any other activity that may pollute their rivers and water bodies and destroy fish habitats. The communities also have the privilege to harvest the fish once or twice a year in a sustainable manner. The harvest is shared equally among the members of the community.

DoF Sabah plays a number of different roles in the Tagal system. When the system started in 2002, DoF Sabah helped in establishing model Tagals to serve as examples. DoF is currently promoting the expansion of the system to new areas that do not yet have this system. It also acts as technical advisor to Tagal committees, monitors the progress of all existing Tagal systems, carries out research to further improve the system, and implements capacity-building measures. The DoF further promotes ecotourism activities such as catch and release sport fishing, and fish feeding in waters under the Tagal management system. These activities attract both local and foreign tourists and generate additional income for local communities.

5.2 Zoning in the Tagal system
Tagal-managed riverine fishery resources are divided into three zones – red, orange and green. When a community has five deep pools, the system works as follows. Deep pool number one is classified as a red zone where no fishing is allowed. The water area of this pool is exclusively meant for the conservation of aquatic resources. Harvesting
fish once a year is allowed in deep pools number two, three and four, which constitute the orange zone. Fish caught from deep pool number two and three are equally shared among the members of the local Tagal system. The fish caught from deep pool number four is sold to the public for generating income for the Tagal system. Deep pool number five is classified as a green zone, where fishing is allowed all year round for all Tagal members under strict regulations. Only mesh sizes above 75 mm, hook and lines, and castnets are allowed as fishing gear.

5.3 Financial support of the Tagal system
The operation of the Tagal system is financed through annual contributions of Tagal system and committee members, annual sale of catch, sale of catch from fishing competitions, and ecotourism such as boat rentals, sale of food and accommodation, fees charged for sport fishing, fish feeding ventures and similar activities. The income is used to cover administrative expenditure and to support community members in financial difficulties and community festivities.

The Tagal system has shown first successes in the rehabilitation of many of the depleted riverine fishery resources of the upstream rivers of Sabah with indigenous fish species such as the Ikan Pelian Kelah or Mahseer (Tor spp.). As of August 2005, 212 villages in Sabah have been practising the Tagal system along 107 rivers. The Tagal system is now well known and many other states in Malaysia are keen to introduce and follow it. In 2005, the Tagal system was awarded the “Outstanding Sabah Environmental Friendly Project Award 2005” by the Sabah Environmental Action Committee.

6. CREDIT AND MICROFINANCE SUPPORT TO INLAND FISHERIES IN SABAH
Most local inland communities in Sabah, including inland fishers, do not maintain financial records and do not carry out financial management. Hence, it is difficult to monitor the financial performance of inland fisheries activities. For this reason, financiers face the challenge of creating efficient financial instruments that can help to reduce their exposure.

6.1 Financial institutions
The main providers of agricultural and fisheries finance in Malaysia and Sabah are commercial banks, finance companies, merchant banks, Federal Land Development Authority (FELDA), Sabah Development Bank, Bank Pertanian Malaysia (BPM) and Bank Rakyat as well as farmers, fishers and other agro-based organizations. The total loans extended by these institutions by the end of 1998 to the agricultural sector in Malaysia, including fisheries, amounted to RM12.7 billion.

BPM, which was established by the Government of Malaysia in 1969 with the primary objective of promoting sound agricultural development in Malaysia, contributed RM1.9 billion, or 15 percent of the total loan amount. The loans extended by BPM are mainly for financing small and medium-scale enterprises and projects. As of December 1999, a total of RM594.6 million was extended by BPM for financing projects involved in food production. This amount accounted for 23 percent of the total loan amount extended by the banking sector (RM2.6 billion) for food production (Table 6). The credit facilities include loans, revolving credits, trade financing, agricultural equipment financing, interest-free loans and other credit facilities. Malaysian companies, cooperative bodies and individuals are eligible to receive loans from BPM. Financing ranges from production activities to processing and marketing of agricultural products.

The facilities available for financing agriculture, including fisheries, can be broadly classified into two categories: special funds made available by the government through special schemes and for specific purposes, and commercial funds from commercial financial institutions.
6.2 Special funds

The Government of Malaysia occasionally establishes schemes and provides funds for lending to the agricultural sector. Loans from these funds can be considered incentives to promote investments in priority agricultural sectors. The incentives usually take the form of low interest rates, longer duration of financing and higher margin of financing. These schemes are open to all institutions and companies incorporated in Malaysia as long as the ownership by Malaysians is more than 50 percent.

Currently, there are three such funds provided through both commercial banks and development financial institutions: the Fund for Food, the Fund for Small and Medium-scale Industries, and the Fund for Rehabilitation of Small and Medium-scale Industries. These funds are disbursed through financial institutions but regulated by the Central Bank of Malaysia.

The Fund for Food Scheme was introduced in 1993 for financing food production, processing, distribution and marketing. To date, three funds have been launched under this scheme and the total amount allocated is RM1 billion. The objectives of this scheme are to promote food production, reduce the import of food and stabilize food prices. The interest rate charged under the scheme is four percent per annum. The maximum financing is 90 percent of the total project cost, subject to a maximum of RM3 million per customer. The maximum loan duration is eight years.

The Fund For Small and Medium-scale Industries was introduced in late 1997 to promote and revitalize investment in small and medium-scale industries – both in the agricultural and non-agricultural sector – recovering from economic crisis. Under this scheme, loans are provided for financing of manufacturing, services and agro-based industries. A total fund of RM1.5 billion was allocated for the scheme. The interest rate charged under the scheme was 6.5 percent per annum. The maximum financing was 75 percent of the total project cost subject to a maximum of RM5 million per customer. The loan duration was up to a maximum of seven years but not exceeding 31 December 2005. The total amount of loans approved under the scheme for financing agro-based industries in the agricultural sector as of the end of 1999 was RM352 million, with the rest allocated the non-agricultural sector.

The Fund for Rehabilitation of Small and Medium-scale Industries was introduced in 1998 to rehabilitate companies that encountered financial problems during the economic crisis. A fund of RM500 million was allocated for the scheme. The terms and conditions of this scheme are generally similar to the Fund for Small and Medium-Scale Industries.

In addition to the above, there are several other special credit schemes provided by Bank Pertanian Malaysia, namely for rice, tobacco, fruits, vegetables, fisheries, other short-term crops and farm machineries. Funding for these schemes comes from the government. The schemes are especially designed to promote growth in these areas, promote mechanization and automation, and increase participation of the Bumiputra community in agro-based industries.

Unlike loans made from special funds, commercial lending to the agricultural sector is basically market- and profit-driven; hence the terms and conditions are based on commercial considerations. The interest rates charged are normally higher, based on a certain margin above the base-lending rate. A proportionally higher amount of funds

### Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Commercial financial institutions</th>
<th>Bank Pertanian Malaysia</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food crops</td>
<td>1 024.0</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>276.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td>789.7</td>
<td>82.2</td>
<td>171.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries</td>
<td>177.8</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>147.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1 991.5</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>594.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
for lending to agricultural projects including fisheries projects will have to come from the commercial financial institutions if the credit needs of the sector are to be met.

7. DEVELOPMENT PROSPECTS AND INVESTMENT AND CREDIT NEEDS OF INLAND FISHERIES

In Malaysia, there are suitable lands and water bodies available for further development of inland fisheries. It is anticipated that the contribution of aquaculture to the total national fish supply will increase from 11 percent in 1995 to more than 30 percent by 2010. This will provide opportunities to develop supporting and downstream industries, including the production of fish feed and fry, fish processing, value-added products and ice factories, etc. There is also tremendous opportunity for ornamental fish culture and its expansion by supporting infrastructure facilities and services to facilitate exports.

The need to increase food supply in the inland ecosystem must take into account the increasing scarcity of water and farmland. There is significant scope for a better integration of agriculture, aquaculture and inland fisheries through an integrated approach. Co-management and community-based management of common property resources must be given increasing attention. At the micro-production level, integration will need to focus on production technologies, such as by-product recycling and improved space utilization. At the macro-level, an integrated economy needs to be organized and structured so that constituent units function cooperatively. Integration needs to be pursued at all levels and should be interdisciplinary; the socio-cultural context of the locality and region must be taken into account. In this regard, human resources development and institutional strengthening will be the primary requirements for achieving better integration at the level of individual farms and communities, in river basins and in coastal area management.

As in the Tagal system, successful experiences acquired in protecting and reviving depleted riverine fishery resources in an integrated manner should be further strengthened by encouraging Tagal team members to engage in income-generating activities. With adequate credit and microfinance support from financial institutions in Malaysia, team members should look into the possibility of sustainable livelihood diversification and increasing their income by engaging in the following activities:

- pond culture;
- production of fish fry for stocking programme;
- strengthening of ecotourism activities by purchasing more sophisticated and larger boats for boat cruises on rivers with overnight accommodation, and building more resorts and other facilities;
- strengthening of marketing strategies through establishing proper marketing channels;
- downstream activities such as food processing, developing value-added products, operating boat repair facilities, etc;
- better utilization and processing of domestic natural resources.

Greater participation of the private sector and financial institutions in critical areas of food production, post-harvest handling, processing, distribution and marketing is needed to further enhance efficiency and productivity as well as to diversify the structure of production with the view to deepen and widen the country’s agro-industrial base. This would entail an increase in the utilization of the country’s resource potential to cater to export markets, given that domestic demand alone is insufficient to support this objective. In addition, post-harvest handling, agro-processing and skills that address the environment, consumer health, and worker safety will also be required.

Advanced farm management, agribusiness management, marketing, and enterprise planning become essential skills for dealing with inherent risks and responding to
new consumers, competing prices, changing quality and health standards, contractual specifications and deadlines. Within a more market-driven economic policy framework and guided by the National Agriculture Policy 3 (NAP3), agriculture is capable of facilitating trade expansion and GDP growth, while also generating income and jobs for the poorest part of the population, facilitating more appropriate land and natural resources practices, and providing broader social benefits within an increasingly decentralized political framework.
This publication provides orientation, basic considerations and general principles for those institutions and organizations that provide credit and microfinance services to the fisheries sector, particularly the small-scale fisheries sector, and for those who want to include inland fishers and inland capture fisheries as part of their client base and lending operations. The document has three parts. Part 1 contains guidelines for meeting the credit and microfinance needs in inland capture fisheries development and conservation in Asia. Part 2 contains reports of the proceedings and recommendations of two regional workshops held in 2004 and 2006, from which the guidelines evolved. Part 3 of the document consists of case studies and success stories on: the rehabilitation of inland fisheries and on the access to and utilization of credit and microfinance services with reference to the rehabilitation and development of inland fisheries at Lake Taihu and Lake Luoma in China; management challenges in riverine fisheries along River Ganga and prospects of inland fisheries development in West Bengal and Assam in India; livelihoods at Lake Inlay in Southern Shan State in Myanmar; fishery policy reform and aquaculture development in Cambodia; and community-based rehabilitation and management of fishery resources at river Kinabatangan in Sabah, Malaysia.