

ANNEX 12D: PROFILE OF SAKTHA CLIMATE SMART VILLAGE

International Institute of Rural Reconstruction;
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RESEARCH PROGRAM ON
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CLIMATE SMART VILLAGE PROFILE

Saktha Village Hakha Township, Chin State



Introduction

Myanmar is the second largest country in Southeast Asia bordering Bangladesh, Thailand, China, India, and Laos. It has rich natural resources – arable land, forestry, minerals, natural gas, freshwater and marine resources, and is a leading source of gems and jade. A third of the country's total perimeter of 1,930 km (1,200 mi) is coastline that faces the Bay of Bengal and the Andaman Sea. The country's population is estimated to be at 60 million.

Agriculture is important to the economy of Myanmar, accounting for 36% of its economic output (UNDP 2011a), a majority of the country's employment (ADB 2011b), and 25%–30% of exports by value (WB–WDI 2012). With abundant land, water, and cheap labor, agriculture is a major driver of the Myanmar economy. However, only about 18% of the country's total land area of 68 million hectares is used for crop production and only 18.5% of this is irrigated. This leaves significant room for expansion in this sector.

Climate change is an established phenomenon in Myanmar, evidence shows an increasing temperature over time. Based on the country's experience, adverse impacts of climate change are increasing incidence of drought, flooding due to heavy rains, stronger cyclones, and salinization of farms in the delta region. As an agricultural country with a large percentage of smallholder farmers, Myanmar's food security, nutrition, and livelihoods are bound to be greatly affected by the threat of climate change. In 2016, the Myanmar government launched the Myanmar Climate Smart Agriculture Strategy to serve as the country's directions towards building resilience in agriculture. A key component of the strategy

is the promotion and practice of community-based approaches achieving climate resilience in agriculture.

With support from IDRC and CGIAR global research program climate change, agriculture and food security (CCAFS), IIRR and its local NGO partners is implementing climate smart villages (CSV) to demonstrate community-based adaptation in agriculture in different agro-ecological zones in Myanmar. This document is the result of a desk research that IIRR commissioned to develop profiles of each CSV in the project. The purpose of this document is to provide the reader background information as to the agriculture, livelihoods, nutrition, gender and climate change context of each CSV.

Poverty

Poverty Incidence of Chin State is estimated at 73.3 % with 80% rural poverty incidence and 52.1% urban poverty incidence (ADB, 2012). It is the part of Myanmar that has highest rates of poverty. The rate of landless was higher among poor than non-poor households at 8.4 % and 7 % respectively (IFC, 2017). In Chin State, 31.9 % of the households have bamboo walls, 22.5 % have Dhani/ Theke/ Leaf roof and 0.4% have Earth floor (IFC, 2017).

The lack of roads and condition of the roads results in difficulties and high expense to transport goods to markets. Road transportation is the main transportation system in Chin State. The development of a sustainable transportation system in Chin State requires an integrated transportation system ensuring mobility, accessibility and safety for all road users. There

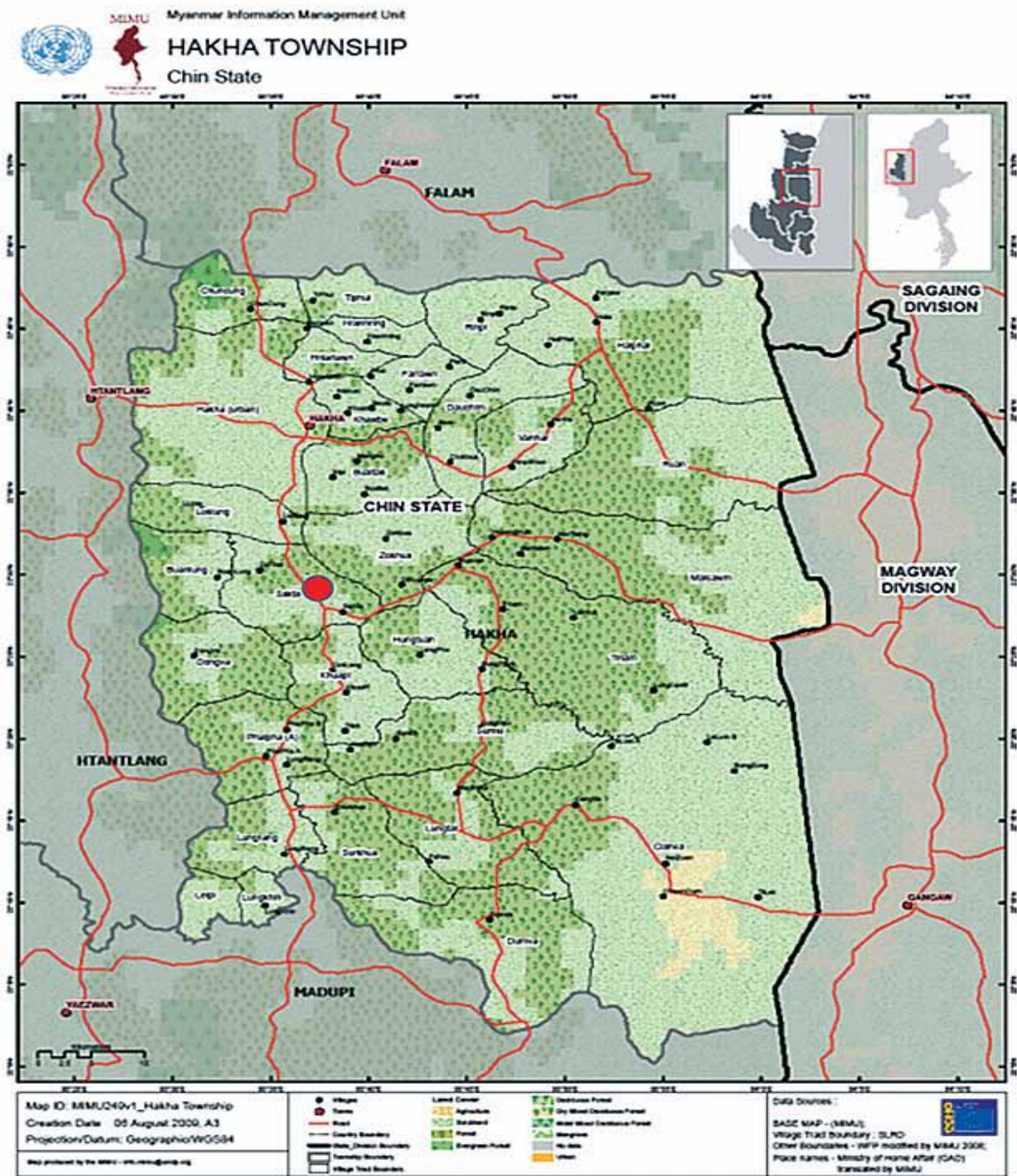
Basic Village Profile of Saktha Village

Name of Village	Saktha
Name of Township	Hakha
Households in Saktha village	200
Total Population in Saktha village	865
Female in Saktha village	445
Male in Saktha village	420
Distance from Hakha town to Saktha village	32km
Ethnic Group	Chin ethnic group (100%)

Source: Karuna Mission Social Solidarity (KMSS), Myanmar

are three categories of roads in Chin State: Union Road, State Road and Village Road. The total length of strategic road, Union and State road is about 1,225 miles including black topped, graveled and earthen. The Chin people suffer from road blockade because of landslides every monsoon season. There are multiple constraints to cope with the situation, in particular resource and technical knowhow (MIID, 2014).

All SMEs and cottage industries mentioned difficulties to access affordable credit to expand their businesses. This is a major impediment to the growth of SMEs and cottage industries in the Chin State. Business owners have high costs related to cost for generators, high transport costs and fee / tax payments which are based on unclear assessments. There are no facilities at present which provide courses (MIID, 2014)



Farmers lack support from extension services on soil improvements, pest control, diseases and good agricultural practices in particular when moving to permanent cultivation to improve yields and therefore supplies for processors. Water supply is insufficient in almost all the villages. There is a lack of information on appropriate and suitable processing technology and no training available on processing techniques and related post-harvest techniques, preservation techniques and food safety issues.(MIID, 2014)

Livelihood at Saktha Village

The main livelihood of Saktha village is agriculture. More than 90 percent of the households rely on agriculture—growing crops and rearing livestock. The rest of the households (5%) joined in government and non-government works for their livelihood. (Source: Karuna Mission Social Solidarity (KMSS), Myanmar)

In Northern Chin State, the economic activities are mostly agriculture activities (vegetable and fruit production), livestock, weaving, small trade and seasonal labor work. Regarding food security, the Northern Chin State is representative of upland agriculture systems and the farming systems are based on rotational fallow method to allow time for the regeneration of soil fertility. Over the last twenty years, most of the villages have faced a marked reduction of the fallow period (from 15 years to 6-9 years) in their shifting cultivation systems, due to the increased pressure on agricultural lands. Consequently both natural resource management and agricultural production have been significantly affected(FSWG, 2011).

Agriculture of Chin State

80% of farming in Chin State is based on shifting cultivation methods. Most of the State's rural households depend on shifting cultivation for their food production and income. Production levels on shifting cultivation are now declining in many areas due to the increase in population density and reduced cropping intensity. The State now produces only 70% of the food it needs and its children suffer the highest level of stunting of any state in the Union. This situation appears to be getting worse and as yet it does not appear that economically viable and socially acceptable

alternatives have been identified to replace shifting cultivation (MIID, 2014).

Chin State has the a very low population density <36/square mile (< 14 persons per km²) but a very rugged mountainous terrain that renders much of it unsuitable for normal forms of permanent cultivation. Much of the land is only suitable for forestry. Only 3% of the land is currently cultivated in any one year, but shifting cultivators traditionally occupy or need 4 to 15 times the area they crop each year in order to accommodate the traditional rotation system. In converting from short-term shifting cultivation to a permanent form of agriculture there is a need for solutions that provide individual households with sufficient production/income to reduce poverty and provide food security for the whole family. While the change from shifting cultivation to permanent agriculture is inevitable in many areas of Chin State, the current practice of terracing the land for cultivation is very expensive and may be well beyond the States' capacity to finance (MIID, 2014).

Maize is an important food crop in the state. Most villagers in the Chin State do not produce enough of their own maize to provide stable food. Villagers compensate for the lack of stable food by buying maize from adjacent lowlands from the sale of forest products, livestock, and cash crops such as fresh vegetables, Elephant Foot Yam, fruits, tuber crops, etc., and through wage labor. Villagers cope by consuming home-grown maize. Maize is also widely used for livestock feeding, especially for pigs for which there is a good market. Excess maize can be readily sold. Hence maize is the second most important grain crop grown in the Chin State (MIID, 2014).

Both new open-pollinated and hybrid maize varieties are successful in Chin State. However, although hybrid seed is readily available commercially, villagers are reluctant to purchase new seed every year. They prefer to keep their own seed for replanting and thus prefer open-pollinated varieties. There is also a limited supply of the improved open-pollinated varieties obtained from Government Stations (MIID, 2014).

Villagers in the Chin State are mostly subsistence farmers. Their main food source is rice. Most rice is grown in shifting cultivation (upland rice) fields under about 8 year fallow rotations.

However, most villages are not self-sufficient in rice production. The reasons for food insecurity include:

- Shortened fallow rotations compared to previous generations due to increasing population growth;
- The comparatively infertile soils in most areas of Chin State;
- The proportionally large labour demand required for clearing vegetation for shifting cultivation coupled with the declining labour force due to outmigration of young persons from villages; and
- As believed by most villagers, adverse climate change.

Villagers obtain extra staple food from:

- Consuming maize if sufficient can be produced but this is not a preferred food; and
- Buying rice from adjacent lowlands from the sale of cash crops (vegetables, elephant foot yam, fruits, livestock) and labouring, mostly in neighbouring lowland areas (MIID, 2014).

There are a large number of very small irrigation schemes throughout Chin State. Most of these schemes are in a poor state of repair and as a result are not operating effectively and production is reduced as a result. The effects of Climate Change on agriculture are likely to be very damaging because the farming system is predominantly rainfed or dry-land farming that is particularly vulnerable to the increase in frequency of droughts that is likely to result from climate change (MIID, 2014)

Among the crops grown in Saktha village, Potato has the shortest growing season with 4 months. Maize has the longest growing season which takes

for 8 months. Taung Ya Paddy is grown in rainy season (Figure.1)

More than half of the households practice shifting cultivation in the uplands while others are engaged in sedentary farming such as paddy rice. Over 90% of the households only cultivated less than 3 acres of land. Most of the households also maintain kitchen gardens in their homesteads. (KMSS)

Land Tenure and Taung-ya Practice in Chin State

Evolution of the farming systems and livelihoods dynamics in Northern Chin State states that in taun-ya cultivation (shifting cultivation), there are two types of land tenure: communal and private owned. The village chief with the assistance of the village committee allocates land to all households. About three family members (Village chief and his committee members) and those who have no terrace fields are considered to have priority in selecting fields to their preference in the lopil and the remaining fields are then equally assigned to all remaining households. A lopil in Chin Language refers to the sides of the mountain surrounded by ridges. Each lopil has a name and usually covers 3 acres. One or two lopil are opened up in a given year for the whole village to use. A family could not rent his land if they could not cultivate. If they could not cultivate they surrender it to the village chief and the village authorities would assign back to other applicants. There are individual ownership rights in paddy land. One can develop it or could buy from another landowner. If one wishes to develop a terrace field in village communal pasture lands, he could apply for it to the village chief with the term of condition that he will make a fence around his field. It is his own responsibility to keep the animals away from his plot (Thein, 2012).

Figure 1: Cropping Calendar in Saktha.

Crops	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
Taung Ya Paddy (upland paddy)						■	■	■	■	■		
Maize		■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■			
Potato		■	■	■	■							

Source: Land Record and Settlement Department, Hakha Township

As a matter of practice non-permanent taun-yar lands could not be surveyed nor registered. The concerned government staff may visit the taun-yar fields, take record of land position temporarily in his field trip note book for the purpose of revenue collection or to make report to his superiors. But the fields are not officially surveyed or mapped. The land revenue is assessed at the rate of Ks. 1.50 and ks. 1.00 per year per acre for paddy and orchard crops respectively. These rates are not yet revised since the time of colonial days. After continuous payment of land revenue for 5 years, the terraced farm is listed as permanent Holding (Oo Paing). Farmer could hold the land as legal title of the right to cultivate it (Thein, 2012).

The vacant, fallow and virgin Lands Management Law was passed in March, 2012. Under this new legal frame work, it implies that shifting cultivation (taun-yar plots) should be swiftly transformed into the permanent fields without leaving land as a long fallow period to avoid land confiscation. But taun-yar farmers are mostly poor farmers lacking capital. Taun-yar cultivation is the livelihood of majority of farmers who are also poor (falling in wealth class C (and below) within the community). Taun-yar land use rights offer equity to poor people (by having access to lands). Changing taun-yar culture to permanent farming had been a prolonged process for them (Thein, 2012).

But once the shifting cultivation systems change to permanent culture, communal land tenure will decay and property right issues will arise. If land market again emerge, sale, mortgages, and transfer of lands will often occur among the poor farmers. With the changing land tenure system in the country proper, it will become difficult to continue practicing the pro-poor communal land tenure system. Therefore the technical and financial assistance to poor people should be supplemented with capacity building assistance for improving the economic viability of their farm enterprises, wise use of inputs, and ability to supervise their cash flow in their farms (Thein, 2012).

In parts of Chin State, especially in areas with lower population density, taungya land is managed collectively. In each village taungya area is divided into plots, through which cultivation is rotated. One lopil is cultivated each year. One village may have between 4 and 6 lopil, or even up to 16. The size and number of lopil varies

between villages, dependent on the amount of available land, village household population and most importantly, and the choice of main grain crop cultivated (which is often determined by environmental factors) (FSWG, 2011).

The choice of crop (rice or maize) influences the cultivation period, which, in turn has a bearing on the number of lopils in the village. Rice is usually cultivated for only one year before rotating, and thus the number of lopil per village will be higher; while maize may be cultivated 3 to 5 years before following, and the number of lopil per village will be fewer. For example, in Hakha Township a village may cultivate corn in 4 or 6 lopil, each of which is cultivated for three to five years continuously before following and rotating to the next. A village in Thantlang Township might grow paddy, rotating annually through one of 12 or 16 lopil in the village (FSWG, 2011).

Once the lopil has been prepared collectively through practices such as felling and burning, individual households can cultivate individual sub-plots within the lopil. Villages may re-divide and distribute these sub-plots each time a new lopil is opened, using a lottery system. The household sub-plot boundaries may already have been determined through inheritable ownership. The lopil sub-plots may also be allocated on the basis of a combination of "previously used/inherited" fixed land and "open access" lottery allocated land. On average, a household in Hakha will have access to a 2-acre household plot for each cultivation period, while in Thantlang household sub-plots average 3 acres. Each lopil has a name. Some villages keep records of the lopil cultivated annually, with the year cultivated and the lopil name, which for some villages can date back continuously for over a hundred years (FSWG, 2011).

Nevertheless, the lopil system is not static, but dynamic over time. As populations grow, or as some of the lopil land is dedicated to permanent cultivation or community forest, lopil may be reorganized. A lopil may be taken out of rotation altogether, or the area per lopil reduced. A village may redivide the total area of lopil, for example making an area that was once six lopil into four lopil, to maximize the area per lopil and the number of households that can cultivate it each year. As for forest tenure, again the arrangements are diverse. In most villages of Hakha Township,

for example, the (non-taungya) forest areas is owned by individuals under customary tenure. In response partly to the changing statutory laws and the socialist government orientation, in the 1960s the forest management became collective. In Falam and Tedim Townships management regimes can range from individual ownership and individual decision on fuel wood collection, to individual ownership and collective decision on fuel wood collection, to collective ownership and collective decision. These arrangements are for forest outside the taungya/lopil land, which is protected forest near the village and water source. Fuel wood collection in the fallow taungya forest is subject to another set of regulations, or to no regulations at all (FSWG, 2011).

Food Security and Nutrition in Chin State

Chin State has been often characterized (among all States and Regions) by the highest poverty gap ratio, highest occurrence of food deficits, poor road connectivity, low population density but lowest percent availability of cultivable lands and high percentage of waste and scrub lands, adherence to the shifting cultivation system, lack of rural based industries, and higher rate of out-migration (Thein, 2012).

Of all Myanmar states/regions, Chin is the worst off in terms of both food and overall poverty (LIFT Upland program Scoping report). The national food poverty incidence was 4.81 in 2009/10, meaning just under 5% of the population of Chin were food poor/food insecure. Nevertheless, food poverty incidence was close to 10% in five regions/states including Thaninthari, Rakhine, and Shan (north, south and east), and in Chin, where 25% of the population experienced food poverty (UNOPS, 2015).

Shallow and poor soils limited farm sizes and poor agricultural productivity are all factors that impact on food security. Low yields of major crops – such as maize, millet and bean – are typical of smallholder farms in the east and west along Manipur River in Chin State (sub-tropical zone). Within the temperate zone, along the border of India, crops consist mainly of upland rice, chilli and ginger crops. Hailstorms at harvest time, long cloudy and rainy days with cold temperatures during blooming times and droughts during

germination and young plant stages help determine yields – factors that are reported to be increasingly unpredictable. People suffer severe food shortage at times of crop damage and/or given yield loss for these reasons (UNOPS, 2015).

The main cause of household food security in Chin is the decline in agricultural yields leading to a decline in available food and income at the household level. The lack of employment opportunities add to the problem. Nearly half the sample reported relying on purchase in order to source their staple food attesting to the lack of reliance by households (HH) on agriculture to source even staple foods. Approximately 26% of the sample reported sourcing staple foods on credit, by borrowing, by exchanging items for food and / or working for food. It should be noted that these activities are to a greater or lesser degree – coping strategies (UNOPS, 2015).

A continuing decline in agricultural yields (be it due to crop losses on field or postharvest) will result in reduced availability of staple foods resulting in rising prices. Given the weak road / transport infrastructure in Chin, the importing of food from nearby states will not be a viable solution as transport rates will be high which in turn will increase the price of imports. Households are unable to meet basic needs and rely on loans. A household's access to land is not to be equated with household food security or even a corresponding increase in food availability in Chin. While a household may enjoy relatively good access to land, the amount of yield obtained is low due to one or more of the following factors: (FSWG, 2011)

- Loss of standing crop and storage losses due to rodents, pests & pathogens
- Crop loss due to adverse weather conditions (recent droughts / floods)
- Household cannot afford rental fees
- Crop loss due to plant diseases

Three of the most commonly reported constraints to agriculture directly impact agricultural productivity. This results in households deriving less food and incomes from their main occupation. The net outcome being (a) Reduced household food security (b) households unable to source income to meet essential non-food expenses (c) households unable to expand

agricultural activities (cannot afford rental fees) (d) households are unable to afford key agricultural inputs especially rodenticides and pesticides (FSWG, 2011).

The most commonly reported shocks affecting HH food security across the 7 townships of Chin state were:

1. Reimbursement of debt
2. Crop loss due to rodents
3. Reduced salary / wages ,
4. Under & Unemployment
5. Health problems

(FSWG, 2011).

The main cause of household food security in Chin is the decline in agricultural yields leading to a decline in available food and income at the household level. The lack of employment opportunities and low salaries add to the problem making a bad situation worse. Other factors such as soil fertility, access to land, irrigation or labour do not have a similar adverse impact. This is not to say that these factors are immaterial; rather their role in a household being forced to depend on reduced food or incomes is relatively lower (FSWG, 2011).

A continuing decline in agricultural yields (be it due to crop losses on field or postharvest) will result in reduced availability of staple food resulting in rising prices. Given the weak road / transport infrastructure in Chin importing of food from nearby states will not be a viable solution as transport rates will increase prices (FSWG, 2011).

Households are mainly concerned with food, health and education. Very few HHs in the sample report any other expense; yet, majority of HHs are unable to afford these 3 basic necessities and are forced to rely on loans. The reliance on debt to source food is extremely high and needs to be addressed immediately (FSWG, 2011).

In the present scenario the reimbursement of debt is the main problem or shock that HHs cope with. Any gains made in sourcing income in the near future will almost certainly be spent or repaying debt. Thus even assuming a better than average harvest in the near future, HH will still be unable to spend substantially on better quality food, health or education as any such monies would need to go towards repaying debt (as these are obtained from informal source, delays in repayment would

lead to substantial increases in amount to be repaid in most cases (FSWG, 2011).

Low birth-weights and underweight children in early life indicate that pregnant women and breast feeding mothers are not getting enough food/ nutrition and/or better weaning practices need to be introduced. Chin State produces less than 70% of the grain necessary to feed its population, the traditional system of shifting cultivation is in a state of decline and systems of permanent agriculture are not being developed at a rate that is sufficient to fill the gap in food supply. In spite of large amounts of food-aid and cash-for-work programs, children's nutritional outcomes remain unsatisfactory highlighting the need for better nutritional support (MIID, 2014).

Very many children suffered from severe acute and chronic malnutrition that may result in substantial morbidity, loss of quality of life and even imply long-term developmental problems and educational underachievement. This may diminish their ability to work and thereby reduces the potential for national development. The prevalence of stunting (height-for-age $\leq -2SD$) was found as among girls (52%) and boys (68%) in the selected group of Chin children. High levels of wasting (weight-for-age $\leq -2SD$) were found for both girls (29%) and boys (36%) aged 5–10 years. Thinness (BMI-for-age $\leq -2SD$) was also most severe in Chin State, among the studied girls, 31% and boys, 44% (Prenekert and Ehnfors, 2016). In Chin State, 30.7 % of the children being underweight, 58 % of the children being stunted, and 8.9 % of the children being wasted (UNICEF). 25.4 % of the children aged 0-5 months are exclusively breastfed. 13.1 % of children 5- 59 months never receive vitamin A (UNICEF).

Climate Change Risk, Impact and Vulnerabilities

In Chin State, only less than 3 % of the land is irrigated leading farming communities to rely on high-risk rain-fed agriculture. Natural disaster such as the recent flood, droughts, and rain infestations resulting in severe food shortages in the past make Chin communities highly vulnerable to food insecurity (CCERR, 2015). The inadequate housing and basic infrastructure of Hakha township exposes to risks of changing climatic

Table 6: Affected and Displaced Population in Hakha Township by Cyclone Komen.

Township	Affected Household		Affected Population		Displaced	
	Town	Village	Family	Population	Households	Population
Hakha	984	323	1307	6535	884	4254

Source: CCERR 20th November, 2015

profile (stronger winds, heavier rains, prolonged dry-seasons) (MCCA, 2017).

Livelihood recovery is challenged by several factors including continuing landslides; lost seeds; lost of farming tools such as ploughs, hoes, water tanks and rise in food prices which have gone up to 35 %; food stocks are half in local market (CCERR, 2015).

Compounding social, economic and environment issues, climate change poses additional hardships on the livelihoods of Upland communities, and may further hamper household development activities in areas ranging from agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, public health, and water resources, to biodiversity, industry, transport, and the energy sector. Upland Area poor are often highly or solely dependent on climate-sensitive agriculture for their livelihoods, have little to no savings with which to absorb economic shocks, are excluded from key decision-making processes, and lack access to critical social services, infrastructure, and information

Table 7: Number of Affected House in Hakha Township by Cyclone Komen.

Township	House destroyed or damaged		Total
	Town	Urban	
Hakha	984	323	1307

Source: CCERR 20th November, 2015

Table 8. Destroyed agricultural lands.

Township	Upland Cultivation		Lowland Cultivation		Other/Garden		Total Acres Destroyed	
	Acre	Est Value	Acre	Est Value	Acre	Est Value	Acre	Est Value
Hakha	405	6685,000	467	35067500	188	6439680	1060	48192180

Source: CCERR 20th November, 2015

with which they might be able to adapt to climate change, either by avoiding or building their resilience to its impacts (CCERR, 2015).

Over 12% of population of Chin State has been directly affected by the floods and Landslides (CCERR, 2015). Destroyed Houses were in unsafe location and are obliged to find temporary accommodation until new locations are identified and support for rebuilding is available. That may take about 6 months. Shelter Cluster report dated 15 September, 2015 (CCERR, 2015).

The blockage of primary and secondary irrigation channels, significant damage to livestock shelter, serious impact of the floods on road infrastructure, about 95 % of total agricultural lands affected by landslides, problem in accessing to clean drinking water, decrease in market access, the rise of the food prices in Chin State after flood (ALFIA, 2015).

Heavier rain, erratic rainfall patterns, increased temperatures, stronger winds are already causing a peak in landslides, destruction of houses, failing of crops and reduced productivity (MCCA, 2017).

Table 9. Affected dead livestock by flood.

Township	Quantity Livestock
Hakha	154

Source: CCERR 20th November, 2015

It was stated that no specific adaptation measure were recorded, in agriculture, infrastructure and livelihoods other than projects initiated by a number of NGOs and the UN, with the notable exceptions of the field visits by GAD in Hakha which showed effort of upstream reforestation, drainage canals and effort to enforce building regulations (MCCA, 2017).

Paddy planted area and yields were both reduced by floods. Increasing population pressure on the slash-and-burn cropping system that is widespread in Chin State, the average intervals between cultivations in the same field have decreased in recent decades from 15 to 7 years, with consequent declines in soil fertility and crop yield (IFC, 2017).

Gender disparity in Hakha Township

- In Haka Township, there are more females than males with 91 males per 100 females.
- School attendance in Haka Township drops after age 13 for both males and females.
- Compared to the Union, the school attendance of males and females is high starting from the school going age (at age 5).
- The literacy rate of those aged 15 and over in Haka Township is 87.9 per cent. It is higher than the literacy rate of Chin State (79.4%) and it is lower than the Union (89.5%). Female literacy rate is 85.2 per cent and for the males it is 91.3 per cent.
- The literacy rate for youth aged 15-24 is 97.0 per cent with 97.6 per cent for females and 96.3 per cent for males.
- The labour force participation rate of females is 36.0 per cent and is much lower than that of their male counterparts which is 73.6 per cent.
- In Haka Township, labour force participation rate for the population aged 10-14 is 3.1 per cent.
- The unemployment rate for those aged 15-64 in Haka Township is 6.0 per cent. There is difference between the unemployment rate for males (5.3%) and for females (7.3%). • The unemployment rate for young females aged 15-24 is 21.0 per cent. Among those aged 10 and over who are not in the labour force, 58.1 per cent of males are full time students while 54.3 per cent of females are household workers.
- 51.0 per cent of males and 43.9 per cent of females are skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers.
- There are 55.6 per cent of males and 44.5 per cent of females working in "Agriculture, forestry and fishing" industry.
- In Haka Township, 78.6 per cent of the population aged 10 and over have Citizenship Scrutiny Card while 20.7 per cent have none.
- 21.7 per cent of males and 19.8 per cent of females do not have any type of card.
- Seven in every 100 persons in Haka Township have, at least, one form of disability.
- Slightly more females than males have disability (UNFPA, 2014).
- Female-headed households are considered more vulnerable to shocks than male-headed households. For example, female-headed households are amongst those most affected by food insecurity. In Chin State, 23 % of the households are female headed (IFC, 2017).

Support Programs in Saktha Village

These are some of the NGOs and their programs implemented and currently implementing in Saktha Village.

Table 2 : Land Utilization in Htee Phu Village Tract.

Name of NGO/ INGO	Implementation Activity	Implementation Period
FAO/KMSS Hakha	Pigs and Chicken Distribution for livelihood	2016
FAO/KMSS Hakha	Irrigation Canal Renovation	2016
KMSS Hakha	Grant For ECCD	2016-2019
CORAT (GRET)	Technical Traing on Agriculture	2017-18
CARD	Home gardening Pilot	2017-18
CAD	Terraced Land Development (Food For Work)	2009

Source: Karuna Mission Social Solidarity (KMSS), Myanmar

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