ABSTRACT

Drylands in southern Pakistan are home to communities living in poverty and depending on livestock rearing for their livelihood. The subsistence agriculture is losing its importance under the effects of climate change i.e. uncertain rainfall and very low productivity. Due to increasing population of livestock, the pressure on silvo-pastures is increasing resulting in degradation of natural resources and loss of soil fertility, a fact that adversely affects the livelihood of communities. The Farm Forestry Support Project (FFSP) of the Intercooperation (IC) and Swiss Agency for Development & Cooperation (SDC), initiated rehabilitation work in 2010 in extreme dry region of Karak using the silvo-pastoral system with hillside ditches and sand dune stabilization techniques. The objective was harvest, conserve and use rain water for recovering vegetation and increase productivity of the area with minimum cost and hence support livelihoods. The activity was carried out with participation of civil society organizations and farmers’ associations.

The results recorded in 2016 showed a profuse plant growth in terms of trees, shrubs and grasses with a potential to provide timber, fuel wood and fodder for livestock. Maximum harvesting of rainwater and conservation of moisture also resulted in growth of natural
grasses and shrubs. Within a short period of 5 years, plant growth in height and diameter of 6 meters and 20 centimeters respectively was recorded. The average vegetation cover of 45% and increase in soil organic mater and nitrogen content was also recorded. All this happened with a minimum cost of US$ 82 per hectare. The rejuvenation of wells in few cases was an additional positive affect of the activity. On the other hand, an annual income of US$ 735 per hectare from Saccharum spontaneum planted in sand dunes was a real benefit to farmers against the other land-uses in dry sand dunes.

**Key words:** Degraded rangelands, Semi-arid, Water Harvesting

1 INTRODUCTION

Drylands are generally defined as arid, semi-arid or dry sub-humid lands receiving less than 500 mm annual rainfall with an aridity index between 0.05 and 0.65 (the aridity index is the ratio Precipitation / Precipitation Evapotranspiration) (UNCCD/UNEP, 1999/7). There are more than 3 billion people globally living in drylands that cover 40% of earth’s surface (ROBIN, 2002). Drylands are generally defined in climatic terms as lands receiving less than 500 mm of annual rainfall. In Pakistan, the situation is severe with 75% of the country’s area receiving less than 250 mm of annual rainfall (PMD 1998). Most parts of Sindh and Balochistan, and Southern parts of Punjab and NWFP are falling within this dry zone; (GoP 2006).

Over 30 million people in Pakistan live in dryland areas. Their livelihoods depend heavily on the natural resource base in form of provision of food for human beings, fodder for livestock, fuel for cooking and heating, and water for drinking. Some scanty
income from the sale of medicinal plants and herbs, livestock and dairy products and wildlife also add to the meager earnings (FISCHLER, 2006).

The poor in these ecologically fragile marginal lands are increasingly locked into patterns of natural resource degradation (FATA, GoP 2007). There are many factors responsible for degradation of natural resources, the climate change promotes the process by limiting the water availability and increasing temperature. Due to the low production and regeneration potential, drylands are not able to support an ever-increasing population of human beings and livestock. Most of the silvo-pastoral ecosystems in drylands are degraded due to overstocking beyond their carrying capacity, whereas rainfed croplands are increasingly being abandoned due to prolonged drought periods. These adverse factors are continuously undermining the livelihoods of poor pastoral and farming families.

2 THE STUDY AREA

The study relates to joint activities of the Farm Forestry Support Project (SDC, IC), local NGOs and rural community organizations in Karak, one of 22 districts in the Southern part of the Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa Province (NWFP) of Pakistan (Figure 1). District Karak is situated in southern region of NWFP (Figure 1), covering an area of 3372 square kilometers; (GoP, 1996). Total population of Karak is 430,000 heads; (GoP, 1998).
The area comes under tropical and sub-tropical climatic zone, characterized by arid and semi-arid conditions. It can be divided into three distinct geographical divisions: the dry hilly zone in north, sandy desert in south-west and sandy-loam plains in the eastern part. The northern hilly zone is famous for mining of various minerals like salt and gypsum. The south-western desert is characterized by shifting sand dunes, very dry and hot winds, and subsistence cultivation of gram, mustard, groundnut and wheat. The eastern region is famous for a number of agricultural crops (millets, wheat, maize) and vegetables (chilies, okra, egg-plant, tomato) mainly because of availability of some irrigation water. As a whole, 19% area is under cultivation out of which water is available for 2% area only; (GoP, 2000).

People in this area live on subsistence agriculture, livestock rearing and minor trade of daily use commodities. Literacy rate is surprisingly high (above 50%) as compared to the rate for Pakistan (44%); (GoP, 1998). Due to harsh living conditions and limited
opportunities on land, people prefer to join civil and armed services that are mostly out of the area. The remittances they send back to their families are thus an important source of living.

3 THE DRYLAND ECOSYSTEMS

The interplay between human beings, land resources, climatic conditions, natural vegetation and livestock constitute the ecosystem in most of the drylands in Pakistan. In all these, the climatic factors and availability of water for productive practices are limiting factors. Again, in most of the cases vast tracts of land are available but production systems are limited to only a few patches because of climatic conditions that limit the availability of water.

In the study area, mean maximum temperature can reach to 46°C in summer (May to September). The mean minimum temperature in winter months (November to February) goes down to 3° C. The extreme arid conditions prevailing in major part of Karak limit agriculture to a profit-less rather under-paying activity. Subsistence agriculture is totally dependant on rainfall that is sporadic, uncertain and does not exceed 350 millimeters per annum; (GoKP, 1998). Livestock rearing (mainly goats and sheep) is thus adopted as major source of livelihood that supports the family in terms of nutrition and income from sale of animals, wool and milk (Figure 2).
These limitations lead towards a silvo-pastoral way of living where natural vegetation plays deciding role in the sustenance of the system. Sporadic grasses, shrubs and stunted trees are all what is required for grazing herds (Figure 2). The local tree vegetation in this area include *Acacia modesta*, *Prosopis cineraria*, *Capparis aphylla*, *Prosopis glandulosa*, *Tamarix aphylla*, *Zizyphus mauritiana*, *Olea ferruginea* and *Tecoma undulate*. Some of the important shrub species include *Zizyphus numularia*, *Vitex negandu*, *Saccharum munja*, *Callygonum polygonoides*, *Callotropis procera*, and *Nannorrhops ritchiana*. Among grasses, *Chrysopogon spp.*, *Cenchrus spp.*, and *Cynodon dactylon* are important. Whereas *Salsola foetida*, *Withania spp.*, and *Erva javanica* are common herbs. The natural forest is limited to only 2% of the total area on distant hills; (GoP, 1998), comprising mainly *Acacia modesta* and *Olea ferruginea*.

Availability of water for drinking purpose is also not certain. The water table is as low as 500 feet and it costs high to drill and pump the water out. There were some natural springs in the hills that were providing drinking water to communities but dried out in recent droughts (1992, 1998, 2002).
4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Most of the people in Karak live below poverty line. Their livelihood is dependant on rainfed subsistence agriculture and livestock. The livestock is then dependant on natural range vegetation in the form of low trees, shrubs and grasses. However, due to increasing drought conditions and scarcity of rainfall, the agriculture is not more a productive activity and croplands are increasingly abandoned. To fill this gap in livelihood, the number of livestock per household is increasing with time. This exerts great pressure on natural vegetation of the rangeland area that gets grazed more intensively and more frequently. This leads to the degradation of ecosystem and depletion of natural vegetation. The scanty rainfall condition, hot weather and sustained grazing pressure restricts recovery potential of natural vegetation. The phenomenon thus adds to desertification that compounds the problem of poverty and makes communities utterly vulnerable to the situation.

The net effect of the problems stated above is observed in the form of increase in poverty and vulnerability of the poor. The droughts leave negative effects on their capacity to survive. In the efforts to survive, they become heavily indebted, their health is badly affected and most of them migrate to urban areas.

5 METHODOLOGY

Keeping in view the importance of natural vegetation and the support it does provide to local livelihoods, the Farm Forestry Support Project (FFSP) funded by Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) and executed by the Intercooperation-Pakistan,
started the dryland management and rehabilitation program in District Karak. The purpose was to rejuvenate the productive capacity of degraded lands so that the support these lands were providing to livelihoods previously could be restored; (B.H. Shah 2011)

Based on the detailed area surveys and consultation sessions conducted in the region by experts from FFSP through the local NGOs and farmers’ communities, rehabilitation measures were designed to address the problem. In order to regain the depleted vegetation cover and thereby restore the soil fertility for increased production in silvopastoral lands, the “Hillside Ditch” technique was specifically designed and applied on 5 sites within the district. The technique aimed at taking maximum advantage of atmospheric water (rainfall) for increased biomass production for human and livestock needs (FFSP, 2015).

5.1 Design parameters

The Hillside Ditches were designed for these silvo-pastoral lands with gentle sloping topography (below 30 degrees) to enable the use of machinery (tractors) for reducing labor cost (Figure 3).
Continuous ditches along the contour line having plant pits at regular interval were excavated (Figure 3). The ditches were 66 centimeters wide and 30 centimeters deep, with excavated soil from ditch placed on downhill side making continuous ridge of 30 centimeters. The soil excavated from plant pits was placed within the ditch on one side of plant pit to impound water. Spacing of ditches and plant pits was kept as 7 meters and 5 meters respectively (Figure 4). The size of the ditches and spacing of plants and ditches was fixed keeping in view the rainfall of the area.

The plant pits were planted with tree species that were fast growing and having fodder value. The inter-spaces between plants were sown with seeds of grasses and fodder shrubs to have maximum utilization of space. The species used on different sites included *Acacia albida, Dalbergia sissoo, Acacia nilotica, Melia azadarich,* and *Acacia Victoria* in trees, *Dodoneae viscoe* and *Acacia modesta* in shrubs, and *Sorgham almum* and *Cenchrus ciliaris* in grasses.
On sites with sand dunes that kept shifting with winds, a sand dune stabilization technique with a local species called “Khana” (*Saccharum spontaneum*) was applied. *Khana* suckers were obtained from an adjacent district at the cost of Rs. 7 per sucker and planted at a spacing of 5 meter x 3 meter in straight lines (Figure 10).

### 5.2 Instruments

The hillside ditches were excavated with the help of a tractor driven “Ditcher” specially designed for the purpose to reduce cost. The ditcher that was fabricated in a local workshop, consisted a modified form of mould plough commonly used by farmers in hilly areas for cultivating hard gravelly soils. The front two blades were replaced with strong chisels and the rear blades by enlarging its length to 1 meter and depth to 0.6 meter (Figure 5).

![Ditcher, specialized instrument for ditch making](image)

For reducing the cost of manually excavated plant pits within the ditches, a pit excavator was designed and used (Figure 6). The front blade commonly used with tractor was modified to have a top-width of 1 meter and bottom width of 0.6 meter.
The pit excavator was fitted with the tractor in front to excavate pits in hillside ditches. The pit excavator was so used that it produced a gently increasing slope towards the planting point from the middle of the space between two plant pits.

5.3 Operational details

Function of the whole arrangement of ditches and pitting was to take maximum benefits of rain water in arid zones by making maximum rain water available for plant growth for prolonged period. This was with the purpose to eliminate high establishment costs in arid zones involving labor in plantation and manual watering at frequent intervals. By keeping the depths of ditch and pits within the ditch as 30 centimeters both plus the 30 centimeter high ridge, a 90 centimeter deep and 66 centimeter wide space at each planting site was available for storing run-off water coming from up-slope side. By keeping the space between ditches and plant pits as 7 meters and 5 meters respectively, rain water falling on 35 square meters land surface on uphill space was collected at each planting point.
The maximum on-site conservation of rainwater and its utilization for plant growth was the major effect visible on these sites. In an area arid to a limit that could not support the slow-growing vegetation, produced fast growing trees and obtained profuse growth of shrubs and grasses within a few years of time Figure 7).

According to the data collected from different sites, the average survival rate of trees planted was 40%, the average number of trees growing per hectare becoming 218. This number was manifold more than the number of trees growing on these type of lands without treatment (i.e. 14 trees per hectare; PFI (2005). The height and diameter growth rate on these sites recorded was also considerably higher. Maximum diameter and height growths were recorded in case of *Acacia albida* as 20 centimeters and 6 meters respectively, followed by *Acacia nilotica* as 15 centimeters and 5 meters respectively (Figures 8 and 9, Table 1).
Table 1: Growth data for trees, shrubs and grasses in Hillside Ditches: SAHIBZADA (2015)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Data recorded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Average diameter</td>
<td>Acacia albida</td>
<td>20 centimeters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Acacia nilotica</td>
<td>15 centimeters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Average height</td>
<td>Acacia albida</td>
<td>6 meters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Acacia nilotica</td>
<td>5 meters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Av. no. of trees surviving / hectare</td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>218 numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Average vegetation soil cover</td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>45 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Due to retention of run-off and percolation of run-off water into soil on the site, a profuse growth of local annual and perennial grasses was recorded, in addition to the *Sorghum alnum* and *Cenchrus ciliaris* that was sown during plantation activity. The average soil cover on these soils recorded was 45%, considerably high over normal cover on these degraded lands (10-15% on the average). These grasses and shrubs were of high value as a feed for local goats and sheep. The farmers were advised not to allow animals for grazing in initial 2 years. They could, however cut grasses and stall-feed their animals during these 2 years.
The activity also contributed to the overall fertility status of soil. The laboratory analysis of soil samples taken at three sites each from treated and controlled plots showed a higher organic matter content and total nitrogen concentration in treated plots. A slight increase in phosphorus content and decrease in lime content could also be attributed to the treatment of site. No significant change in the electrical conductivity, pH and potassium content was however recorded. The treatment period of 5-6 years was too less to demonstrate any significant change in soil properties, except the content of organic matter that was recorded higher in treated plots (see Table 2 below).
In addition to increase in on-site productivity and soil fertility, the activity also contributed to the re-charge of ground water in down the slope areas. According to information provided by local community, 2 wells that dried out due to prolonged drought were rejuvenated near to the activity sites.

Table 2: Soil properties in treated and controlled plots:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Control plot</th>
<th>Treated plot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Organic mater (%)</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Total nitrogen (%)</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Phosphorus (mg / kg)</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Potassium (mg / kg)</td>
<td>155.13</td>
<td>114.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Electrical conductivity (d S / m)</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Lime content (%)</td>
<td>6.96</td>
<td>6.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>pH (1:5)</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>8.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: KHATTAK (2015)

On the other hand, the Khana belts served the purpose of wind-breaks for sandy crop lands, and contributing to household income in the form of proceeds from sale of its stalks and leaves. The *Saccharum* plant was found most suitable for sandy land as it did withstand against prolonged droughts, lesser cost involved in its establishment and high return for its marketable products.

![Figure 9: S. spontaneum in sand dunes](image)
7 COST ANALYSIS

Due to use of specialized instruments and machinery, the cost was very low for applying hillside ditch technique to the development of silvo-pastures. The total cost including use of machinery, planting stock, seeds, and labor was calculated as US$ 82 per hectare (see Table 3).

Table 3: Cost analysis of silvopastures development per 1 hectare of land: SAHIBZADA (2015)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Cost Description</th>
<th>Rate (Rs)</th>
<th>Amount (Rs)</th>
<th>Amount (US$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparation of hillside ditches with tractor and ditcher</td>
<td>3 Hours</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>900</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation of pits with tractor and pit blade</td>
<td>2.5 Hour</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>750</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planting stock</td>
<td>540 Plants</td>
<td>2/plnt</td>
<td>1,080</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planting with first watering</td>
<td>540 Plants</td>
<td>2/plnt</td>
<td>1,080</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restocking (30%), including cost of plants and planting</td>
<td>160 Plants</td>
<td>4/plnt</td>
<td>640</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grass seed</td>
<td>3 Kg</td>
<td>50/kg</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed of shrubs</td>
<td>2 Kg</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sowing of shrubs’ and grasses’ seeds</td>
<td>1 Labor day</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Cost (Rs.)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>4,900</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is important to mention that the extra cost involved in this activity was that of using specialized techniques. This, however, drastically reduced the cost of manual watering as implied in ordinary plantation activities by the Forest Department or other agencies. The usual cost per hectare plantation activity by the Forest Department was Rs. 19,800 or US$ 330 that was considerably higher than the cost on using hillside ditches; (FATA, 2015), (GoKP 2003). The additional benefit of this silvo-pasture development was that it re-established the whole vegetation cover as compared to ordinary plantation work that considered only trees.

In case of sand dunes, total cost per hectare of Kana establishment including the cost of suckers and labour was Rs. 5,000 (US$ 83). The average annual return from Kana site was Rs. 44,100 (US$ 735) that was profitably comparable with other land uses available for sand dunes, except wheat (see Table 4 below).

**Table 4: Annual cost/benefit per hectare for various crops of sand dunes in Karak; (ARS Karak, 2015)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cost/Benefit</th>
<th>Kanola (Rs.)</th>
<th>Gram (Rs.)</th>
<th>Mustard (Rs.)</th>
<th>Kana (Rs.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annual Cost</td>
<td>6,052</td>
<td>9,139</td>
<td>10,003</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Income</td>
<td>14,795</td>
<td>53,097</td>
<td>74,055</td>
<td>44,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net profit (Rs.)</td>
<td>8,743</td>
<td>43,958</td>
<td>64,052</td>
<td>44,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Net profit (US$)</strong></td>
<td><strong>146</strong></td>
<td><strong>732</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,067</strong></td>
<td><strong>735</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The investment cost for Kana was only one time as this was a perennial plant. It was cut each year and sprouted again (Figure 11). Both the long stalks and leaves were sold in
market (these were used for furniture making, as roofing material, sunscreens and making of decoration items). The outstanding characteristic of *Kana* was that its production did not depend on rainfall and even did well in prolonged droughts when all other crops failed.

![Harvesting of S. spontaneum](image)

**Fig 10: Harvesting of *S. spontaneum***

8 **LIMITATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS**

The study faced all those constraints common in dealing with a common resource in social environment. It could have produced better results if the land resource use patterns were in control of the study team. However it is a fact that more than 60 percent land in Karak is treated as wasteland where free and unrestricted herding and grazing of animals is practiced. Due to no or lesser productivity of economic goods, the use rights for livestock grazing are not reserved. Free, unrestricted and extensive grazing of animals is thus practiced by local communities, even by those who don’t own any land and totally depend on their livestock.

The rehabilitation measures however demand care of the land and protection from grazing for initial two years to provide relief to the recovering vegetation. Due to silvo-pastoral practices that have become a way of life, it is difficult for land owners to
abandon grazing on their land. It is due to this reason that communities usually demand for fencing the area or keeping watchmen to protect the site which enormously increase the establishment cost of the activity.

Without attending to the protection parameters, activity in some places have resulted in no conspicuous results after the planted seedlings and shrubs were completely clean washed by roaming herds of goats and sheep.

On the other hand, it is a common concept among local people that investing on silvo-pastures is a profit-less venture. Failures due to water shortage in past and the lack of protection from free grazing animals have further strengthened this perception. The already marginalized communities therefore find it very difficult to invest on pasture development.

To overcome these constraints, the project used a vigorous campaign to convince the local resource users (herders and farmers) for restricting their herding practices to untreated lands. The project team ensured in return to limit the treatments to a small portion (1/4th) of the grazing lands to provide sufficient grazing fields for the herds. At the same time, a concept of social fencing was used where farmers’ associations in the target communities and adjacent villages were taken into confidence for the activity and they were than able to control the un-attended grazing practices.

Whereas this paper addresses the problem faced by a wider population of herdsman and farmers dependent upon farming and livestock resources in a pattern that is common to the dry southern landscapes of Pakistan, India and many other adjacent countries, the
land use pattern in dry parts of many other countries may vary and the copy strategies for all those lands will vary accordingly for producing similar results. This study is therefore limited in scope keeping in view the resource use patterns.

The study produced visible effects in terms of revamping the biomass reserves of the area. However the more desired effect on soil fertility and its organic content was not visible or verifiable in the limited span of this study. For measurable effects in these parameters, a longer period monitoring is required.

9 CONCLUSIONS

The interventions in silvo-pasture development and sand dune stabilization have proved significant in overcoming the water shortage and rejuvenating the vegetation for the benefit of human beings and livestock. The cost of these activities is also very low and within the bearing capacity of farmers. Every effort has been made to make use of local instruments and material like the improvised “ditcher” and “pitter” which were the modified forms of already in-use agricultural implements. The study in the given socio-economic and geophysical environment produced results that could be of use and interest to many scientists and practitioners working in similar environment and dealing with similar problems. Particularly the sub-tropical drylands in many neighbouring countries can be a suitable ground for tackling these problems with these or adjusted techniques.

However, a strategy need to be worked out beforehand to control the constraints elaborated in the previous section to eliminate or minimize the effects of free grazing. These facts and results need to be spread wide through extension and mobilization of
communities at regional level. The matter of free livestock grazing should be dealt with at regional and not at local level. Communities should be facilitated to reach a mutual consensus for protecting sites under treatment and keeping their animals grazing in other areas. A controlled grazing system in which area is divided into blocks, keeping one block under protection on rotational basis may also be one of the options.

Acknowledgements

The cooperation extended by local farmers, especially those who offered their land for interventions and invested in planting cost and labor, and those other community members who cooperated in the execution of the activities, are highly adorable. It is considered that without their contribution, the activity would not have been possible.

The commitment and efforts of local NGOs (Khwendo Kor and Yaraan in Karak) who were involved in contacting the communities, selection of sites and discussing all the matters with community organizations at grassroots level are highly appreciable. These organizations and their role are crucially important in the sustainability of the activity on long-term basis.

Technical expertise and support provided by Dr. Bashir Hussain Shah (the FFSP Consultant) in the initial phases of the activity was very much helpful in designing tailor-made interventions for sites in the field. Dr. Shah’s knowledge and experience is enlightening many minds in many organizations in many parts of the country because of his dedication to development.
The author is highly thankful to management of Farm Forestry Support Project, the Intercooperation-Pakistan Delegation Office and the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation in providing funding resources, logistic support and facilitation in the execution of the activities in Karak District.

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