Pertanika J. Trop. Agric. Sci. 36 (S): 231 - 246 (2013)



TROPICAL AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE

Journal homepage: http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/

## Protecting Biodiversity outside Natural Forests: Environmentalfriendly Oil Palm Plantations as an Off-reserve Strategy in Peninsular Malaysia

Azhar, B.1\*, Sapari, M.<sup>2</sup>, Zulkifly, S.<sup>3</sup>, Suhailan, W. M.<sup>4</sup> and Sajap, A. S.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Forest Management, Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
 <sup>2</sup>Department of Forest Production, Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
 <sup>3</sup>Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia
 <sup>4</sup>R & D Centre – Upstream, Sime Darby Research Sdn. Bhd., 42960 Pulau Carey, Selangor, Malaysia

### ABSTRACT

Malaysian palm oil industry has been associated with tropical deforestation and faunal biodiversity loss. Despite the numerous forest reserves and protected areas, biodiversity conservation should be extended into agricultural areas including commercial oil palm. Scientific studies have clearly demonstrated that oil palm monocultures are poor substitute to natural forests. However, those studies have also indicated that oil palm-dominated landscapes support substantial biodiversity including forest species. With respect to ecological services, some species are known to be important in controlling pest outbreaks in oil palm plantations. Previous studies have shown that oil palm cultivations are effective carbon sinks. The central remaining knowledge gap of how palm oil-producing countries should conserve biodiversity within the existing oil palm plantations and smallholdings is addressed in this study. Thus, thematic review process that was organized around a topic of interest was used. In more specific, 53 journal articles investigating or highlighting the impacts of commodity crops cultivation on biodiversity were reviewed. It was proposed that oil palm-dominated landscapes be managed for conservation outcomes similar to that have been implemented in forest reserves and protected areas.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received: 27 August 2012 Accepted: 20 September 2012

*E-mail address:* b\_azhar@upm.edu.my (Azhar, B.) \* Corresponding author *Keywords:* Biodiversity, oil palm, conservation, plantations, smallholdings, ecological services, carbon sinks, off-reserve strategy

## INTRODUCTION

In some developing countries, commercial agricultural areas, including those in exotic oil palm (Elaies guineensis) plantations, are established at the expense of natural forests (Donald, 2004; Koh & Wilcove, 2008; Koh et al., 2011). In return, massive forest conversion and fragmentation through clear-cutting has caused unprecedented biodiversity loss (Fitzherbert et al., 2008; Wilcove & Koh, 2010). Most of the affected natural forests include those areas that are already designated as forest reserves or protected areas. However, in some producer countries such as Malaysia, oil palm plantations were converted from other commodity crop plantations (e.g. coconut and rubber) (Basiron, 2007; Koh & Wilcove, 2008).

Oil palm crop has contributed significantly to the economic revenues of Malaysia (Basiron, 2007; Hardter et al., 1997). Similarly, Malaysian palm oil industry has also created job opportunities for poor people in the rural areas and improved their standard of living (Basiron, 2007). Their substantial contributions in the socio-economic development may prolong upstream plantation business in this country. Unfortunately, this may create conflict between palm oil-producing countries and environmental activists in developed countries. Due to some controversial issues, palm oil-based products are currently boycotted by environmental NGOs in those countries (Nantha & Tisdell, 2009; Tan et al., 2009). Some issues of concern with oil

palm plantations are deforestation, species extinction, and environmental pollutions.

As consumer countries (e.g. the United States and European Union countries) are becoming increasingly concerned with environmental issues, palm oil stakeholders (e.g. government agencies, smallholders, and plantation companies) should implement conservation measures within oil palmdominated landscapes. Environmentalfriendly crops have become a trend and are currently in great demand. For example, some coffee and cacao plantations in developing countries are currently being certified as bird-friendly. This has opened a new and greater market for such coffee and cacao products in developed countries with environmental concerns. Furthermore, there have been many ecological studies to support conservation schemes or practices on fauna implemented in those commodity crop plantations (Clough et al., 2009; Greenberg et al., 1997a, 1997b; Philpott et al., 2008).

## JUSTIFICATIONS FOR ENVIRONMENTAL-FRIENDLY OIL PALM AGRICULTURE

To date, environmental management practices have been implemented to transform agricultural areas into environmentalfriendly plantations (e.g. zero burning technique prior to replanting and bio-control programs to suppress pest organisms). However, those practices may be insufficient to protect biodiversity effectively. Palm oil stakeholders should be praised to carry out such conservation measures but they also need to be motivated to do more to conserve farmland biodiversity.

Neglecting biodiversity conservation within oil palm plantations is a counterproductive because of several reasons: (1) biodiversity resources can be found in oil palm-dominated landscapes. Planted oil palm areas cover more than 4,000,000 ha of oil palm plantation estates and more than 700,000 ha of semitraditional smallholdings in Malaysia (MPOB, 2011), (2) most protected areas and forest reserves are surrounded by oil palm plantations and smallholdings (e.g. Taman Negara, Krau Wildlife Reserve, and Endau Rompin National Park), (3) the application of agrochemicals such as pesticides and herbicides in oil palmdominated landscapes, if uncontrolled, may harm wildlife or kill non-target fauna, (4) high conservation value species (e.g. elephants, tigers, and pangolins) may be persecuted or illegally hunted within oil palm-dominated landscapes, (5) the palm oil industry, through its downstream operations (processing factories), has caused environmental pollution (e.g. water quality) which may further degrade wildlife habitat, and (6) limited data on the number of ecological studies conducted in oil palm-dominated landscapes worldwide for supporting biodiversity conservation in industrial plantations.

This review paper discusses the possibility of transforming conventional oil palm agriculture into environmentalfriendly cultivation areas. We reviewed 53 relevant research papers written in the past three decades that thematically investigated the ecological impacts of various commodity crops (e.g. oil palm, rubber, and coffee) on biodiversity. Those papers provide evidence to justify the move to incorporate agricultural areas such as oil palm into an off-reserve protection strategy. We argue that the existing oil palm-dominated landscapes can be equally important as protected areas in terms of biodiversity conservation. This can be justified by the amount of biodiversity that the oil palmdominated landscapes can sustain.

## INDUSTRIAL OIL PALM EXPANSION

Introduced from tropical Africa, oil palm (*E. guineensis*) has been successfully established in industrial plantation estates and semi-traditional smallholdings in many Southeast Asia countries (Williams & Hsu, 1970; Turner & Gillbanks, 1974; Hardter *et al.*, 1997; Basiron, 2007; Tan *et al.*, 2009). The growing demand from the domestic and international market has turned oil palm cultivation into a profitable business for palm oil-producing countries. Palm oil has become one of the major exports in Malaysia, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, and Thailand, surpassing other commodity crops.

Thus, the palm oil industry is an important economic tool for developing countries to combat hardcore poverty, as demonstrated by successful palm oil producers like Malaysia and Indonesia (Koh & Wilcove, 2007; Lam *et al.*, 2009; Tan *et al.*, 2009). These countries, however, also support a high concentration of tropical biodiversity in the region. Industrial oil palm expansion has been associated with the decline of charismatic fauna such as the Orang utans (*Pongo spp.*) and their habitat in Borneo and Sumatra (Gaveau *et al.*, 2009; Nantha & Tisdell, 2009). To date, scientific evidence has indicated that oil palm plantations support lower biodiversity than natural forests (Koh, 2007; Fitzherbert *et al.*, 2008; Danielsen *et al.*, 2009; Wilcove & Koh, 2010).

Oil palm monocultures have replaced lowland tropical rainforest directly and indirectly (Lambert & Collar, 2002; Danielsen et al., 2009; Yule, 2010). Direct conversion of lowland tropical rainforest to oil palm cultivation areas occurred when forested lands were clear felled primarily for the purpose of oil palm planting. Indirect conversion occurred when forested lands were clear felled for the planting of other commodity crops but later converted into oil palm cultivation areas. However, by either direct or indirect conversion, commercial logging usually precedes agricultural expansion in many cases. This particular scenario is very common in the present-day Malaysia, and has been the case since the British-colonial days (Kumar, 1986; Berger, 1990). A high profile Malaysian government sponsored, large-scale oil palm cultivation scheme, the Federal Land Development Authority (FELDA) has received financial support from the World Bank to open up vast tracts of primary rainforest in the interior of Peninsular Malaysia since the 1950s (Berger, 1990; Basiron, 2007). As a consequence, much of the remaining

pristine or undisturbed tropical rainforest of the peninsula is located in the highlands, far from the coastal areas, where oil palm plantations have been established.

## CURRENT OIL PALM MANAGEMENT

Commercial oil palm monocultures are established in industrial plantations, but some are planted in smallholdings. These plantations cover more than 50 ha of planted oil palm areas. Workers, mostly foreign labourers, are employed to harvest oil palm fruit bunches manually. In order to ensure maximum harvest, the application of agrochemicals such as fertilizers and pesticides is common in oil palm plantations. To date, their effects on human, ecosystem, or wildlife are almost unknown. However, Integrated Pest Management (IPM) has been implemented to reduce the dependency on pesticides in oil palm plantations. For example, barn owls (Tyto alba) have been used to control rat populations (Wood & Chung, 2003). In addition, tree planting has been used as a tool for reforestation and wildlife corridor within oil palm plantations. Plantations are protected from harvest theft and wildlife poachers by security guards, trenches, and boundary fences.

Environmental-friendly plantations are defined as those managed by companies which have been recognized by the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil Organization (www.rspo.org) as being sustainable palm oil producers. This is in contrast to conventional plantations that were not operated according to biodiversityfriendly guidelines and did not necessarily comply with the minimum environmental standards (e.g. zero burning of oil palm biomass). Semi-traditional smallholdings can be defined as oil palm cultivation areas that were less than four ha and owned by independent farmers or governmentfunded land-scheme settlers (e.g. FELDA settlements). These smallholdings usually comprised more than one age class of oil palms intercropped with commercial crops (e.g. bananas, coconuts, cassavas, coffee, pineapples) or indigenous fruit trees (e.g. durians and rambutans).

## PALM OIL CERTIFICATIONS AND BIODIVERSITY STUDIES

Palm oil certification standards, such the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil (RSPO) aimed for sustainability indicators for palm oil production, have been judged to be inadequate by environmental NGOs and conservation scientists (Bhagwat & Willis, 2008; Fitzherbert *et al.*, 2008; Groom *et al.*, 2008; Laurance *et al.*, 2010). The Principles and Criteria of RSPO have been promoted by palm oil industry stakeholders and the World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF). Unfortunately, the standards were not supported by any scientific evidence.

Under Criterion 5.2 of the Principles and Criteria of RSPO; "the status of rare, threatened or endangered species and high conservation value habitats, if any, that exist in the plantation or that could be affected by plantation or mill management, shall be identified and their conservation taken into account in management plans and operation". We argue that this criterion gives greater priority to protected species but it does not seriously consider the conservation of the majority of non-protected species. In addition, there are very few protected species that can be found in oil palm plantations (Donald, 2004; Koh, 2008; Azhar *et al.*, 2011). Large-sized mammals rarely inhabit oil palm plantations. However, these wild animals may pass through plantations to move between protected areas (Ickes, 2001; Kawanishi & Sunquist, 2004; Linkie *et al.*, 2007).

Hence, participation by palm oil stakeholders is needed in order to increase more scientific work that can enhance biodiversity conservation. Their involvement is critical, and very costly to ignore, because without ecological considerations in their management policies, more species (especially endemic ones) and their natural habitats are likely to be lost. Therefore, oil palm dominated landscapes should be managed not only for profits but also to conserve farmland biodiversity. This suggestion needs to be supported by scientific work, which will provide detailed information across management regimes (Donald, 2004; Groom et al., 2008). We believe that previous studies are inadequate because most researchers have surveyed only plantations but not smallholdings (Aratrakorn et al., 2006; Peh et al., 2006; Koh, 2008; Edwards et al., 2010; Sheldon et al., 2010). In addition, those studies, particularly on birds, also did not take into account of wetlands or migratory species in the assessment of the biota in oil palm plantations.

To the best of our collective knowledge, only a handful of studies have been undertaken to investigate faunal diversity in oil palm-dominated landscapes, particularly in vertebrate animals. The ecological impacts of the palm oil industry on biodiversity are perceived as being highly predictable, causing ecologists to lack the motivation to research on this issue (Danielsen et al., 2009). Meanwhile, negative campaigns by environmental NGOs portray oil palmdominated landscapes as 'green dessert' devoid of wild flora and fauna. This perception is as bad as the one espoused by some stakeholders of the palm oil industry that oil palm-dominated landscapes are solely established for crop production, and not for conservation.

### BIODIVERSITY LOSS IN ESTABLISHED PLANTATIONS AND SMALLHOLDINGS

Conservation scientists have used forest birds in their snap-shot survey in oil palmdominated landscapes. They have analyzed species occurrence and/or population abundance. Their findings suggested that the values for bird species richness was lower in oil palm plantations than in natural forests (Aratrakorn et al., 2006; Peh et al., 2006; Koh et al., 2008; Edwards et al., 2010; Azhar et al., 2011). In particular, Azhar et al. (2011) reported that oil palm-dominated landscapes supported 42% of total bird species found in logged peat swamp forest (Table 1). In contrast, some studies have suggested certain individual species, for example, Red Junglefowl (Gallus gallus)

was abundant in oil palm plantations than in natural forests (Azhar *et al.*, 2008). With respect to oil palm management regimes, smallholdings supported higher bird species richness than plantations (Azhar *et al.*, 2011).

A few studies have investigated forest mammals in oil palm-dominated landscapes. These studies showed similar poorer values for mammal species diversity in commercial plantations than in natural forests (Bernard et al., 2009; Maddox et al., 2007; Normua et al., 2004). Likewise, studies on forest arthropods in oil palm plantations have indicated similar results (Turner et al., 2009; Fayle et al., 2010). Overall, those published research papers have shown that oil palm-dominated landscapes, irrespective of the management regimes, are not totally inhospitable to some faunal groups. This finding supports the implementation of conservation measures within oil palmdominated landscapes.

Biodiversity resources found in commercial plantations may not be similar to natural forests with respect to species richness and composition. Rare species may be completely absent in agricultural areas, but these areas may support hundreds of common species including forest fauna. Some forest species may come to commercial plantations from time to time. These may include migratory and wetland species (Azhar *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, some species may even inhabit plantations for good. Oil palm-dominated landscapes may offer habitat heterogeneity to wildlife. Eco-tones (i.e. two or more intersectional Protecting Biodiversity outside Natural Forests: Environmental-friendly Oil Palm Plantations as an Off-reserve Strategy

#### TABLE 1

Birds (82 species) recorded in oil palm-dominated landscapes (plantations and/or smallholdings) as well as in logged peat swamp forest in Peninsular Malaysia

Species	Detection site
Oriental Pied Hornbill, Anthracoceros albirostris	Plantations and smallholdings
Rhinoceros Hornbill, Buceros rhinoceros	Plantations and smallholdings
Blue-crowned Hanging Parrot, Loriculus galgulus	Plantations and smallholdings
Long-tailed Parakeet, Psittacula longicauda	Plantations and smallholdings
Blue-eared Barbet, Megalaima australis	Plantations and smallholdings
Coppersmith Barbet, Megalaima haemacephala	Plantations and smallholdings
Lineated Barbet, Megalaima lineata	Plantations
Scarlet-backed Flowerpecker, Dicaeum cruentatum	Plantations
Common Iora, Aegithina tiphia	Plantations and smallholdings
Green Imperial Pigeon, Ducula aenea	Plantations
Peaceful Dove, Geopelia striata	Plantations and smallholdings
Spotted Dove, Streptopelia chinensis	Plantations and smallholdings
Thick-billed Pigeon, Treron curvirostra	Plantations
Pink-necked Pigeon, Treron vernans	Plantations and smallholdings
Striped Tit-babbler, Macronous gularis	Plantations
Dark-necked Tailorbird, Orthotomus atrogularis	Plantations and smallholdings
Ashy Tailorbird, Orthotomus sepium	Plantations and smallholdings
Rufous-tailed Tailorbird, Orthotomus sericeus	Plantations and smallholdings
Common Tailorbird, Orthotomus sutorius	Plantations and smallholdings
Yellow-bellied Prinia, Prinia flaviventris	Plantations and smallholdings
Rufescent Prinia, Prinia rufescens	Plantations
Rufous Woodpecker, Celeus brachyurus	Plantations
Common Flameback, Dinopium javanense	Plantations and smallholdings
Red-eyed Bulbul, Pycnonotus brunneus	Plantations
Yellow-vented Bulbul, Pycnonotus goaivier	Plantations and smallholdings
Olive-winged Bulbul, Pycnonotus plumosus	Plantations and smallholdings
Cream-vented Bulbul, Pycnonotus simplex	Plantations
Little Spiderhunter, Arachnothera longirostra	Plantations and smallholdings
Crested Goshwak, Accipiter trivirgatus	Plantations
Black Baza, Aviceda leuphotes	Plantations
Black-shouldered Kite, Elanus caeruleus	Plantations and smallholdings
White-bellied Sea-Eagle, Haliaeetus leucogaster	Plantations
Brahminy Kite, Haliastur indus	Plantations
Black-thighed Falconet, Microhierax fringillarius	Plantations
Crested Serpent Eagle, Spilornis cheela	Plantations and smallholdings
Changeable Hawk Eagle, Spizaetus cirrhatus	Plantations and smallholdings

#### cont'd Table 1

Species	Detection site
Dusky Eagle Owl, Bubo coromandus	Smallholdings
Buffy Fish-owl, Ketupa ketupu	Plantations
Spotted Wood-owl, Strix seloputo	Plantations
Large-tailed Nightjar, Caprimulgus macrurus	Plantations and smallholdings
Red Junglefowl, Gallus gallus	Plantations and smallholdings
Barred Buttonquail, Turnix suscitator	Plantations
Plaintive Cuckoo, Cacomantis merulinus	Plantations
Lesser Coucal, Centropus bengalensis	Plantations and smallholdings
Greater Coucal, Centropus sinensis	Plantations and smallholdings
Common Koel, Eudynamys scolopacea	Plantations and smallholdings
Stork-billed Kingfisher, Halcyon capensis	Plantations
White-throated Kingfisher, Halcyon smyrnensis	Plantations and smallholdings
Red-throated Flycatcher, Ficedula parva	Plantations
Asian Brown Flycatcher, Muscicapa dauurica	Plantations
Asian Paradise Flycatcher, Terpsiphone paradisi	Smallholdings
Pied Faintail, Rhipidura javanica	Plantations and smallholdings
Forest Wagtail, Dendronanthus indicus	Plantations
Richard's Pipit, Anthus novaeseelandiae	Plantations and smallholdings
Blue-tailed Bee-eater, Merops philippinus	Plantations and smallholdings
Blue-throated Bee-eater, Merops viridis	Plantations
Dollarbird, Eurystomus orientalis	Plantations and smallholdings
Ashy Drongo, Dicrurus leucophaeus	Plantations
Slender-billed Crow, Corvus enca	Plantations and smallholdings
Large-billed Crow, Corvus macrorhynchos	Plantations
Black-naped Oriole, Oriolus chinensis	Plantations and smallholdings
Oriental Magpie Robin, Copsychus saularis	Plantations and smallholdings
Flyeater, Gerygone sulphurea	Plantations
Brown Shrike, Lanius cristatus	Plantations and smallholdings
Tiger Shrike, Lanius tigrinus	Plantations
Baya Weaver, Ploceus philippinus	Plantations and smallholdings
White-headed Munia, Lonchura maja	Plantations and smallholdings
Black-headed Munia, Lonchura malacca	Plantations
Scaly-breasted Munia, Lonchura punctulata	Plantations and smallholdings
Asian Glossy Starling, Aplonis panayensis	Plantations and smallholdings
Jungle Myna, Acridotheres fuscus	Plantations and smallholdings
White-vented Myna, Acridotheres javanicus	Plantations and smallholdings
Hill Myna, Gracula religiosa	Plantations and smallholdings
Edible-nest Swiftlet, Aerodramus fuciphaga	Plantations and smallholdings

Protecting Biodiversity outside Natural Forests: Environmental-friendly Oil Palm Plantations as an Off-reserve Strategy

cont	'd	Tab	le	1
				-

Species	Detection site
Pacific Swallow, Hirundo tahitica	Plantations and smallholdings
Purple Heron, Ardea purpurea	Plantations and smallholdings
Chinese Pond Heron, Ardeola bacchus	Plantations
Little Egret, Egretta garzetta	Plantations
Cinnamon Bittern, Dupetor flavicollis	Plantations
Yellow-bittern, Ixobrychus sinensis	Plantations
White-breasted Waterhen, Amaurornis phoenicurus	Plantations and smallholdings
Red Wattled-lapwing, Vanellus indicus	Plantations and smallholdings

Source: Azhar et al. (2011)

habitat edges) may provide different microhabitats to various species. Hence, we propose oil palm plantations, together with smallholdings, be considered as an offreserve strategy that can complement forest reserves and protected areas.

# ECOLOGICAL SERVICES IN OIL PALM AGRICULTURE

Studies have also shown insect defoliators of oil palm such as bagworms and nettle caterpillars, beetles are being regulated by natural enemies that include pathogens, parasitoids and predators (Sankaran & Syed, 1972; Cheong et al., 2010). These natural enemies collectively maintain the pest population in a relatively stable equilibrium below the economic threshold. However, anything destabilizing the regulatory mechanisms provided by those natural enemies would likely to cause serious pest outbreaks (Dutcher, 2007). The effectiveness of natural enemies in maintaining the pest population can be enhanced through conservation and habitat manipulation.

Natural enemies can be conserved through reducing the effects of pesticides on them. Their numbers and activity can be improved through the provision of food, often nectar and pollen sources, permanent habitats or refuges, and alternate prey or hosts. One of the practices in providing these resources is through manipulating vegetation diversity of the ecosystem. This practice has been adopted in oil palm plantations where nectariferous plants, like Euphorbia heterophylla, Cassia cobanensis, Antigonon leptopus and Turnera subulata, are planted to attract beneficial insects, particularly parasitoids (Basri et al., 1995). These parasitoids feed on nectar and extra-floral secretions and parasitize phytophagous insect pests. Thus, a conservation effort towards maintaining these natural enemies should be part of the management practices for all oil palm plantations and smallholdings.

## MITIGATING CLIMATE CHANGE

Commodity crop plantations such as oil palm are the most effective carbon sink for

absorbing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in terrestrial ecosystems. Hence, such plantations can mitigate man-made global warming (Anderson, 2008). Surprisingly, oil palm, E. guineensis, has proven to be effective in reducing CO<sub>2</sub> concentration due to its photosynthetic efficiency compared to other tropical vascular plant species. Durrene and Saugier (1993) noted that light saturated rate of net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation in oil palm was 20 µmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at PAR (Photosynthetic Active Radiation) compared to some other fast growing plant species such as Acacia mangium (10-14  $\mu$ mol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), Acacia aulacocarpa (7-8 µmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), Tectona grandis (14.5 µmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), and Macaranga gigantea (8-11 µmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), Dyera costulata (10-12 µmol  $CO_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) and Shorea leprosula (6 µmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) (Sapari, 2008; Shida et al., 1999; Rajendrudu & Naidu, 1997; Ishida et al., 1996; Zipperlen & Press, 1996). As a C3 type plant, E. guineensis is able to tolerate high levels of CO<sub>2</sub>. In a nutshell, the species is able to tolerate twice the amount  $CO_2$  in comparison to other plant species (Ibrahim et al., 2010). Even though oil palm-dominated landscapes may promise a high carbon sink value, this does not warrant future oil palm expansion into natural forests, for the amount of biodiversity loss may be greater.

## **FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

Tropical deforestation should never be allowed to make way for new commercial plantations in the future because of dramatic biodiversity loss. For example, 48 - 60% of bird species will be lost due to forest conversion to oil palm cultivation (Azhar *et al.*, 2011). The expansion of oil palm monocultures should only be implemented in replace of other croplands. Biodiversity found within oil palm plantations outside natural forests should also be protected.

We suggest that the palm oil industry in Malaysia embrace the transformation of the conventional plantations into environmental-friendly ones. Then, these environmental-friendly plantations could be implemented as an off-reserve protection strategy in addition to crop production. Another proximate solution would be palm oil stakeholders maximize harvest yield per ha from the established plantations. This solution will remove the pressure to open new sites for plantations from the remaining primary and secondary forests.

In addition, palm oil companies should be encouraged to maintain forest patches within their oil palm plantations. Wildlife in those forest patches will not be susceptible to poaching if hunters are not allowed to access those oil palm plantations. Meanwhile, the surrounding forest reserves or protected areas may as well be better protected from hunters if these areas are buffered by such plantations. In contrast, Edwards *et al.* (2010) suggested that conservation investment be diverted from the retention of forests patches within oil palm-dominated landscapes to the protection of contiguous forests.

# RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The existing oil palm plantations and smallholdings should be managed for conservation outcomes as well as for economic purpose. Scientifically, oil palm plantations are poorer in terms of biodiversity than natural forests (Donald, 2004). For example, bird diversity in established plantations is only a fraction of the ones that were found in natural forests. However, this should not discourage palm oil stakeholders from implementing conservation measures in oil palm-dominated landscapes. Some conservation scientists have supported the implementation of conservation measures in the existing plantations and smallholdings (Koh, 2008; Najera & Simonetti, 2010; Azhar et al., 2011; Foster et al., 2011; Jambari et al., 2012).

Farmland biodiversity, including forest species, may stand better chances if stakeholders can transform conventional oil palm agriculture into environmentalfriendly plantations. Palm oil stakeholders may have to be open to implementing new conservation practices that have been successfully applied elsewhere or in other commodity production areas. These practices may need to be supported by scientific evidence-based studies (Foster et al., 2011). Hence, long-term studies will be important to assess some of the recommended practices. We recommend that palm oil stakeholders implement the following practices in environmentalfriendly plantations:

- Set-a-side areas or patches of native vegetation for biodiversity conservation (Fischer *et al.*, 2006; Wilson *et al.*, 2009). These areas may include fragmented forests and/or rehabilitated forest corridors (achieved by tree planting) within oil palm plantations. This measure may increase landscape connectivity between sub-populations. Additional tree planting will enhance the capability of commercial plantations to absorb atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Unpolluted aquatic habitats may include man-made ponds, irrigation canals, and flood-control drains (Czech & Parsons, 2002). Water-birds would benefit greatly from the creation of such aquatic habitats.
- Bio-control applications including barn owl and predatory insects (Wood & Chung, 2003). This measure may reduce the use of hazardous pesticides and adverse effects of agro-chemicals on non-target fauna.
- Prescriptive grazing to control unwanted vegetations (Dennis *et al.*, 2001). This measure may reduce the use of hazardous herbicides and provide organic fertilizers into soils.
- Prevent illegal hunting by providing security guards (e.g. auxiliary police force and CCTVs) and physical barriers (e.g. perimeter fencing and trenches) (Hayward & Kerley, 2009).
- 6. Removal of introduced predators (e.g. feral dogs and cats) from plantations

and smallholdings (Nogales *et al.*, 2004). These predators may gradually exterminate local birds and small mammals.

Commercial oil palm agriculture in Peninsular Malaysia should not increase at the expense of natural forests, but conversion from other agricultural land uses should continue. In the existing oil palm plantations and smallholdings, biodiversity loss should be mitigated through the implementation of conservation measures. In order to conserve biodiversity, stakeholders in the palm oil industry should work together with conservation scientists to manage commercial plantations. Natural forests will be better protected from poaching and illegal logging if they are surrounded by neighbouring environmental-friendly oil palm plantations.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The assistance from the staff of the Faculty of Forestry and Sime Darby Plantation is greatly appreciated. We are grateful to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mohamed Zakaria, Adlin Sabrina Roseley, Sheena Bidin, and Ruzana Adibah for their respective contributions. We also thank the journal referees who have provided constructive comments.

#### REFERENCES

Anderson, J. M. (2008). Eco-friendly approaches to sustainable palm oil production. *Journal of Oil Palm Research, Special Issues: Oct,* 127-142.

- Aratrakorn, S., Thunhikorn, S., & Donald, P.F. (2006). Changes in bird communities following conversion of lowland forest to oil palm and rubber plantations in southern Thailand. *Bird Conservation International*, 16, 71-82.
- Azhar, B., Lindermayer, D. B., Wood, J., Fischer, J., Manning, A., Mchelhinny, C., & Zakaria, M. (2011). The conservation value of oil palm plantation estates, smallholdings and logged peat swamp forest for birds. *Forest Ecology and Management, 262*, 2306-2315.
- Azhar, B., Zakaria, M., Yusof, E., & Leong, P. C. (2009). Efficiency of fixed-width transect and line-transect-based distance sampling to survey Red Junglefowl (*Gallus gallus spadiceus*) in Peninsular Malaysia. *Journal of Sustainable Development*, 1, p. 63.
- Basiron, Y. (2007). Palm oil production through sustainable plantations. *European Journal of Lipid Science and Technology*, 109, 289-295.
- Basri, M. W., Norman, K., & Hamdan, A. B. (1995). Natural enemies of the bagworm, *Metisa plana* Walker (Lepidoptera: Psychidae) and their impact on host population regulation. *Crop Protection*, 14, 637–645.
- Berger, R. (1990). *Malaysia's Forest: A Resource without a Future?* United Kingdom: Packard Publishing.
- Beukema, H., Danielsen, F., Vincent, G., Hardiwinoto, S., & Van Andel, J. (2007). Plant and bird diversity in rubber agroforests in the lowlands of Sumatra, Indonesia. *Agroforestry Systems*, 70, 217-242.
- Bhagwat, S. A., & Willis, K. J. (2008). RSPO principles and criteria for sustainable palm oil production. *Conservation Biology*, 22, 1368-1370.

- Cheong, Y. L., Sajap, S. A., Hafidzi, M. N., Omar, D., & Abood, F. (2010). Outbreaks of Bagworms and their natural enemies in an Oil Palm, *Elaeis* guineensis, plantation at Hutan Melintang, Perak, Malaysia. Journal of Entomology, 7, 141-151.
- Czech, H. A., & Parsons, K. C. (2002). Agricultural wetlands and waterbirds: A review. Waterbirds: *The International Journal of Waterbird Biology*, 25, 56-65.
- Danielsen, F., Beukema, H., Burgess, N. D., Parish, F., Bruhl, C. A., Donald, P. F., Murdiyarso, D., Phalan, B., Reijnders, L., Struebig, M., & Fitzherbert, E. B. (2009). Biofuel plantations on forested lands: Double jeopardy for biodiversity and climate. *Conservation Biology*, 23, 348-358.
- Dennis, P., Young, M. R., & Bentley, C. (2001). The effects of varied grazing management on epigeal spiders, harvestmen and pseudoscorpions of Nardus Stricta grassland in upland Scotland. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment, 86*, 39-57.
- Donald, P. F. (2004). Biodiversity impacts of some agricultural commodity production systems. *Conservation Biology*, 18, 17-37.
- Dufrene, E., & Saugier, B. (1993). Gas exchange of oil palm in relation to light, vapour pressure deficit, temperature and leaf age. *Functional Ecology*, 7, 97-104.
- Dutcher, J. D. (2007). A review of resurgence and replacement causing pest outbreaks in IPM. *General Concepts in Integrated Pest and Disease Management*, 27-43.
- Edwards, D. P., Hodgson, J. A., Hamer, K. C., Mitchell, S. L., Ahmad, A. H., Cornell, S. J., & Wilcove, D. S. (2010). Wildlife-friendly oil palm plantations fail to protect biodiversity effectively. *Conservation Letters*, *3*, 236-242.
- Fischer, J., Lindenmayer, D. B., & Manning, A. D. (2006). Biodiversity, ecosystem function, and

resilience: ten guiding principles for commodity production landscapes. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, *4*, 80–86.

- Fitzherbert, E. B., Struebig, M. J., Morel, A., Danielsen, F., Brulh, C. A., Donald, P. F., & Phalan, B. (2008). How will oil palm expansion affect biodiversity? *Trends in Ecology & Evolution, 23*, 538-545.
- Foster, W. A., Snaddon, J. L., Turner, E. C., Fayle, T. M., Cockerill, T. D., Elwood, M. D. F., Broad, G. R., Chung, A. Y. C., Eggleton, P., Khen, C. V., & Yusah, K. M. (2011). Establishing the evidence base for maintaining biodiversity and ecosystem function in the oil palm landscapes of South East Asia. *Phil Trans R Soc. B., 366*, 3277-3291.
- Gaveau, D. L. A., Wich, S., Epting, J., Juhn, D., Kanninen, M., & Leader-Williams, N., (2009).
  The future of forests and Orangutans (*Pongo abelii*) in Sumatra: Predicting impacts of oil palm plantations, road construction, and mechanisms for reducing carbon emissions from deforestation. *Environmental Research Letters*, 4, 1-11.
- Greenberg, R., Bichier, P., Angon, A. C., & Reitsma, R. (1997a). Bird populations in shade and sun coffee plantations in central Guatemala. *Conservation Biology*, 11, 448-459.
- Greenberg, R., Bichier, P., & Sterling, J. (1997b). Bird populations in rustic and planted shade coffee plantations of Eastern Chiapas, Mexico. *Biotropica*, 29, 501-514.
- Groom, M. J., Gray, E. M., & Townsend, P. A. (2008). Biofuels and biodiversity: Principles for creating better policies for biofuel production. *Conservation Biology*, 22, 602-609.
- Hardter, R., Chow, W. Y., & Hock, O. S. (1997). Intensive plantation cropping, a source of sustainable food and energy production in the tropical rain forest areas in southeast Asia. *Forest Ecology and Management*, 91, 93-102.

- Hayward, M. W., & Kerley, G. I. H. (2009). Fencing for conservation: Restriction of evolutionary potential or a riposte to threatening processes? *Biological Conservation*, 142, 1-13.
- Ibrahim, M. H., Jaafar, H. Z. E., Harun, M. H., & Yusop, M. R. (2010). Changes in growth and photosynthetic patterns of oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.) seedlings exposed to short-term CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment in a closed top chamber. *Acta Physiologiae Plantarum*, 32, 305-313.
- Ishida, A., Toma, T., Matsumoto, Y., Yap, S. K., & Maruyama, Y. (1996). Diurnal changes in leaf gas exchange characteristics in the uppermost canopy of a rain forest tree, *Dryobalanops* aromatica Gaertn. f. *Tree physiology*, 16, 779-785.
- Jambari, A., Azhar, B., Nor Laili, I., Jamian, S., Hussin, A., Puan, C. L., Hafidzi, M. N., Ebil, Y., & Zakaria, M. (2010). Avian biodiversity and conservation in Malaysian oil palm production areas. *Journal of Oil Palm Research*, 2, 1277-1286.
- Kawanishi, K., & Sunquist, M. E. (2004). Conservation status of tigers in a primary rainforest of Peninsular Malaysia. *Biological Conservation*, 120, 329-344.
- Koh, L. P., & Wilcove, D. S. (2007). Cashing in palm oil for conservation. *Nature*, 448, 993-994.
- Kumar, R. (1986). The Forest Resources of Malaysia: Their Economic and Development. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Koh, L. P. (2008). Can oil palm plantations be made more hospitable for forest butterflies and birds? *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 45, 1002-1009.
- Lam, M. K., Tan, K. T., Lee, K. T., & Mohamed, A. R. (2009). Malaysian palm oil: Surviving the food versus fuel dispute for a sustainable future. *Renewable & Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 13, 1456-1464.

- Lambert, F. R., & Collar, N. J. (2002). The future for Sundaic lowland forest birds: Long-term effects of commercial logging and fragmentation. *Forktail*, 18, 127-146.
- Laurance, W. F., Koh, L. P., Butler, R., Sodhi, N. S., Bradshaw, C. J. A., Neidel, J. D., Consunji, H., & Vega, J. M. (2010). Improving the Performance of the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil for Nature Conservation. *Conservation Biology*, 24, 377-381.
- Linkie, M., Dinata, Y., Nugroho, A., & Haidir, I. A. (2007). Estimating occupancy of a data deficient mammalian species living in tropical rainforests: Sun bears in the Kerinci Seblat region, Sumatra. *Biological Conservation*, 137, 20-27.
- Maddox, T., Priatna D., Gemita E., & Salampessy A. (2007). The Conservation of Tigers and other Wildlife in Oil Palm Plantations, Jambi Province, Sumatra, Indonesia. ZSL Conservation Report No. 7. The Zoological Society of London, UK.
- Malaysian Palm Oil Board. (2011). *Oil Palm Planted Area by Category as at September 2011.* Available at http://econ.mpob.gov.my/economy/ area/Area\_category.pdf
- Najera, A., & Simonetti, J. A. (2010). Enhancing avifauna in commercial plantations. *Conservation Biology*, 24, 319-324.
- Nantha, H. S., & Tisdell, C. (2009). The Orangutanoil palm conflict: Economic constraints and opportunities for conservation. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 18, 487-502.
- Nogales, M., Martin, A., Tershy, B. R., Donlan, C. J., Veitch, D., Puerta, N., Wood, B., & Alonso, J. (2004). A review of feral cat eradication on islands. *Conservation Biology*, *18*, 310-319.
- Peh, K. S. H., Sodhi, N. S., de Jong, J., Sekercioglu, C. H., Yap, C. A. M., & Lim, S. L. H. (2006). Conservation value of degraded habitats for forest birds in southern Peninsular Malaysia. *Diversity and Distributions*, 12, 572-581.

- Rajendrudu, G., & Naidu, C. (1997). Leaf gas exchange capacity in relation to leaf position on the stem in field grown teak (*Tectona grandis* Lf). *Photosynthetica*, 34, 45-55.
- Rudel, T. K., Defries, R., Asner, G. P., & Laurance, W. F. (2009). Changing drivers of deforestation and new opportunities for conservation. *Conservation Biology*, 23, 1396-1405.
- Sandker, M., Suwarno, A., & Campbell, B. M. (2007). Will forests remain in the face of oil palm expansion? Simulating change in Malinau, Indonesia. *Ecology and Society*, 12(2), 37.
- Sankaran T., & Syed, R. A. (1972). The natural enemies of bagworms on oil palms in Sabah, East Malaysia. *Pacific Insects*, 14(1), 57-71.
- Sapari, M. (2008). Growth and photosynthetic efficiency of Acacia mangium Willd and Acacia aulacocarpa A. Cunn. Ex. Benth multipleleadered trees. (Unpublished MSc. Thesis dissertation). Faculty of Forestry, Universiti Putra Malaysia.
- Shida, A., Nakano, T., Matsumoto, Y., Sakoda, M., & Ang, L. H. (1999). Diurnal changes in leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence in tropical tree species with contrasting light requirements. *Ecological Research*, 14, 77-88.
- Sodhi, N. S., Brooks, T. M., Koh, L. P., Acciaioli, G., Erb, M., Tan, A. K. J., Curran, L. M., Brosius, P., Lee, T. M., Patlis, J. M., Gumal, M., & Lee, R. J. (2006). Biodiversity and human livelihood crises in the Malay archipelago. *Conservation Biology*, 20, 1811-1813.

- Sodhi, N. S., Koh, L. P., Brook, B. W., & Ng, P. K. L. (2004). Southeast Asian biodiversity: An impending disaster. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 19, 654-660.
- Sodhi, N. S., Lee, T. M., Koh, L. P., & Brook, B.
  W. (2009). A meta-analysis of the impact of anthropogenic forest disturbance on Southeast Asia's Biotas. *Biotropica*, 41, 103-109.
- Tan, K. T., Lee, K. T., Mohamed, A. R., & Bhatia, S. (2009). Palm oil: Addressing issues and towards sustainable development. *Renewable & Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 13, 420-427.
- Turner, P. D., & Gillbanks, R. A. (1974). Oil Palm Cultivation and Management. The Incorporated Society of Planters, Kuala Lumpur.
- Wilcove, D. S., & Koh, L. P. (2010). Addressing the threats to biodiversity from oil-palm agriculture. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, 19, 999-1007.
- Williams, C. N., & Hsu, Y. C. (1970). Oil Palm Cultivation in Malaya. Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya Press.
- Wilson, J. D., Evans, A. D., & Grice, P. V. (2009). Bird Conservation and Agriculture. Cambridge, UK.
- Wood, B. J., & Chung, G. F. (2003). A critical review of the development of rat control in Malaysian agriculture since the 1960s. *Crop Protection*, 22, 445-461.
- Yule, C. M., & Gomez, L. N. (2009). Leaf litter decomposition in a tropical peat swamp forest in Peninsular Malaysia. *Wetlands Ecology and Management*, 17, 231-241.