# MANAGEMENT PLANNING FOR TEAK FORESTS 

IN BURMA

## AUNG KYAW MYINT

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## ORIGINALITY OF THESIS

Except where specific acknowledgement is made this thesis is my original work.


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Burma, with a population of 31.3 million in 1978 (Anon 1979), is endowed with rich natural forest resources which are significant in the national economy. Although more than half of the land area of the country is forested, further plantation establishment is necessary for local consumption as well as for export. The need for plantations is due to the uneven distribution of the population relative to the forests, the transportation difficulties and costs of extraction, and the efficiency of plantations in increasing the yield in the shortest time.

Teak forests in Burma have been managed successfully on a sustained yield basis for more than a century using traditional planning systems. Management planning can now be improved by the use of electronic computers for maintaining data and by developing growth and yield models for productive purposes.

Growth and yield models of plantation teak are developed using the data published by Laurieland Ram (1940), after conversion into metric units. The models relate top height to site index and age and basal area increment to age, site index and thinning index. A timber form factor function for estimating the stand volume was also developed. A simple simulation model was constructed utilizing the growth and yield models and the form factor function. Recommendations are advanced regarding the future development and applications of this model in management planning.

GENERAL BACKGROUND

### 1.1 LOCATION

Burma is situated between latitudes $10^{\circ}$ and $28^{\circ}$ north and extends longitudes $93^{\circ}$ and $103^{\circ}$ east. The country about 2000 km in a north south direction and at its widest point 800 km east west. It has a coast-1ine over 1900 km long along the Bay of Bengal. The total area of the country is approximately 67.7 M ha of which 38.7 M ha ( $57.2 \%$ ) is under forests. Burma shares borders with Bangladesh and India in the west, China in the north, and Laos and Thailand in the east (see Figure 1.1).

### 1.2 GEOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE

There are a number of rivers in Burma all flowing north to south. The major rivers are the Irrawaddy, Sittang and Salween, and they are important for wood transportation in Burma (Ohn 1980). The Ir rawaddy and the Sittang rivers originate in Burma, the Salween in Tibet. The Rangoon River which is much shorter than the major ones, has two tributaries namely the Myitmakha and the Pegu. The Myitmakha River starts from the western drainage of the Pegu Yoma, the Pegu River from the eastern drainage. They join at Rangoon before flowing into the sea as the Rangoon River (see Figure 1.1).

The Shan plateau in the eastern part of the country ranges from 1200 m . to 2500 m in altitude and is connected with the Kachin hills of

northern Burma and with the hills of China. Kakhaborazi Mountain, the highest point of Burma, is approximately 6000 m above sea level and located in the far north. The Arakan Yoma Range is situated in the western part of the country lying north south and rises up to 3000 m . The Pegu Yoma, famous as the home of teak, lies in the centre with elevations generally below 610 m .

Rangoon is the capital of Burma. Mandalay and Moulmein, the second and third largest cities respectively, are located in the central and southern part of the country. The general map of Burma showing some cities, rivers and mountain ranges is given in Figure 1.1. There are three seasons in Burma - summer, monsoon and winter. The summer, the hot season, is from mid February to mid May; the monsoon; the rainy season, is from mid May to mid October; and the winter, the cold season, is from mid October to mid February. Usually the winter and the summer are dry, though there are occasional winter and summer rains. The areas in the east and west mountain ranges have the colder climates due to higher altitude. In general, over two thirds of the country can be categorized as having a tropical climate and one third a warm temperate climate. The country has a wide range of average annual rainfall zones, lhundred
ranging from a few/mm to 6350 mm . Central Burma is known as the Dry Zone and has less than 760 mm of annual rainfall. The lower part of the country and the coastal strips have rainfall above 2540 mm , and the areas surrounding the Dry Zone together with the Shan Plateau range between 760 mm to 2540 mm . (see Figure 1.2). Temperature generally ranges from $32^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $38^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ during the summer, $21^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ during the monsoon, and $10^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $21^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ during the winter. The Dry Zone may have temperatures as high as $42^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ during summer.


### 1.3 THE FORESTS OF BURMA

The total land area of approximately 67:7 M ha comprises forested land 57 per cent, agricultural land 28 per cent and other lands about 15 per cent. Government policy for forests calls for the reservation of at least 25 per cent of the country (Anon 1978 a), but only 14 per cent has been achieved to date. Almost half of the agricultural land area is not in production but can be cultivated (see Table 1.1)

TABLE 1.1 LAND CLASSIFICATION

| Classification | Area <br> (ha) | Percentage of <br> total land |
| :--- | ---: | :--- |
| (\%) |  |  |

Source : Anon. (1978b).

The forest types of Burma vary from tropical evergreen to dry thorny shrub forest (Kermode 1964). They include various tropical
deciduous forests and temperate hill forests. There are six main forest types :-

1. Mixed deciduous forests.
2. Sub-tropical hill forests and alpine forests.
3. Evergreen forests.
4. Dry forests.
5. Deciduous dipterocarp forests or Indaing forests.
6. Tidal forests, beach and dune forests, and swamp forests.

The distribution of these forests is shown in Figure 1.3, and the proportion of each type given in Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2 FOREST TYPES

| Forest type | $\begin{gathered} \text { Area } \\ \left(\begin{array}{l} \text { M ha) } \end{array}\right. \end{gathered}$ | Percentage of total forested land (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Mixed deciduous forests. | 15.1 | 39 |
| 2. Sub-tropical hill forests and alpine forests. | 10.1 | 26 |
| 3. Evergreen forests | 6.2 | 16 |
| 4. Dry forests. | 3.9 | 10 |
| 5. Deciduous dipterocarp or Indaing forests. | 1.9 | 5 |
| 6. Tidal, beach and dune, and swamp forests. | 1.5 | 4 |
| Total Forest Area | 38.7 | 100 |

Source : Kermode et al. (1957).

## Legend to Figure 1.3

(1) Mixed Deciduous forests


- Moist Upper Mixed Deciduous forests

- Dry and Lower Mixed Deciduous forests
(2) Sub-tropical Hill and Alpine forests
- Sub-tropical Wet Hill and Hill Savannah forests

- Alpine forests
(3) Evergreen forests
- Tropical Wet Evergreen forests

- Tropical Semi-evergreen forests

(6) Tidal, Beach and Dune, and Swamp forests


The mixed deciduous forests are about 39 per cent of the total forested land (see Table 1.2 ) and are the most important as teak trees grow naturally in them and comprise up to 10 per cent by number. The following section will give a brief description of the forests.

### 1.3.1 The Mixed Deciduous forests

These are economically the most important as teak and other commercial hardwoods are present. There are three sub-groups of the mixed deciduous forests :-
(1) Moist upper mixed deciduous (MUMD);
(2) Dry upper mixed deciduous (DUMD);
(3) Lower mixed deciduous (LMD).

Both moist and dry upper mixed deciduous forest types are found on well drained hill slopes and on the top of the ridges. The lower mixed deciduous forest occurs on low-lying flat areas, usually with alluvial soils and near streams. Usually mixed deciduous forests are found in the regions with an annual precipitation of 1500 mm to 2030 mm .

The typical tree species of the moist upper mixed deciduous forests associated with teak, are pyinkado (Xylia dolabriformis, D.C.), binga (Mitragyna rotundifolia, 0.Ktze.), didu (Samalia insignis, Schott. and Endl.), letpan (Salmalia malabarica, Schott. and Endl.), padauk (Pterocarpus macrocarpus Kurz.), and yemane (Gmelina arborea, Roxb.): Generally teak grows vigorously and is more or less the dominant species. Typical bamboo species are kyathaungwa (Bambusa polymorpha, Munro.) and tinwa (Cephalostachyum pergracile, Munro.) and are useful for identification.

Dry upper mixed deciduous forests can be found on the hills with a drier and stiff soil where the quality of teak is poor. Typical
 forest are hnaw (Adina cordifolia, Hook. f.), in (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus, Roxb.), ingyin (Pentacme siamensis, Kurz.), padauk (Pterocarpus macrocarpus, Kurz.), pyinkado (Xylia dolabriformis, Benth.), taukkyan (Terminalia tomentosa, W. and A.), and thitya (Shorea oblongifolia, Thw.). It is common to identify this type of forest by the presence of the bamboo species myinwa (Dendrocalamus strictus, Nees.) which grows and survives on the hard, stiff and dry soils.

Teak in the lower mixed deciduous forests is usually associated with tree species like leza (Lagerstroemia tomentosa, Presl.), and yon (Anogeissus acuminata, Wa11.). A1though teak grows faster in this forest type than in other mixed deciduous types it is usually defective due to the |occurrence of flutes and hollows. Climbers are found more abundantly in this forest type although the absence of any bamboo is also a characteristic.

### 1.3.2 Sub-tropical Hill forests and Alpine forests

These forests constitute about 26 per cent of the total forested area (see Table 1.2) and are located above 900 m in altitude (see Figures 1.1 and 1.3). These forests may be sub-divided into three groups as follows :-
(1) Sub-tropical wet hill forests;
(2) Sub-tropical hill savannah forests;
(3) A1pine forests.
$m$ altitude with heavy annual rainfall (see Figure 1.2) and while found pure on the Arakan Yoma and the Chin hills are mixed with the sub-tropical hill savannah forests on the Shan plateau where the rainfall is lower. The most common tree species of the sub-tropical wet hill forest type are htinshu (Pinus merkusii, Jungh.), htinshu (Pinus kesiya, Royle. ex Gordon.), laukya (Schima wallichii, Choisy.), maibau (Alnus nepalensis, Don.), thitcha (Castanopsis spp.), and thite (Quercus spp.).

The sub-tropical hill savannah forests are dry hill forests and typical tree species present are thitsi (Melanorrhoea usitata, Wall.), in (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus, Roxb.), thitya (Shorea oblongifolia, Thw.), and ingyin (Pentacme siamensis, Kurz.).

The alpine forests are mostly pine forests and usually at very high altitude (see maps in Figures 1.1 and 1.3 ), with very high rainfall (see map in Figure 1.2). The forests have little commercial importance because of severe weather conditions and difficult extraction. Resin tapping from the pine forests on the Shan plateau and from the Chin hills is the only economic activity, apart from fuel wood extraction and clear felling for shifting cultivation. However these forests are important for soil conservation and protection of watersheds.

### 1.3.3 Evergreen forests

These forests occur in the areas where the annual rainfall is above 2000 mm . They fall mainly into two sub-groups, i.e. :-
(1) Tropical wet evergreen;
(2) Tropical semi-evergreen.

The tree species common in the tropical wet evergreen forests are
kanyin (Dipterocarpus spp.), kaunghmu (Anisoptera scaphula, Roxb., Pierre.), kokko (Albizzia lebbek, Benth.), pyinkado (Xylia dolabriformis Benth.), taungthayet (Swintonia floribunda, Griff.), thingadu (Parashorea stellata, Kurz.), thingan (Hopea odorata, Roxb.), thikado (Cedrela toona, Roxb.), thitpok (Tetrameles nudiflora, R.Br.), and sagawa (Michelia champaca, Linn.). Generally these forests are characterised by the dense mass of undergrowth of various canes and climbers.

The tropical semi-evergreen forests are found further inland than the wet evergreen, where the rainfall is less, and they are characterised by evergreen tree species mixed with the deciduous tree species (see Figure 1.3). Sometimes, even in the deciduous forest type zone, these tropical semi-evergreen forests can be identified in patches along the river sides and in very moist areas, and they are usually termed riverine evergreen forests. In addition to the evergreen tree species, other species found are yemane (Gmelina arborea, Roxb.), didu (Salmalia insignis, Schott. and Endl.), letpan (Salmalia malabarica, Schott. and Endl.). The typical bamboo species found in both types of evergreen forest are wabo (Dendrocalamus brandisii, Kurz.), wabomyetsangye (Dendrocalamus hamiltonii, Nees. ex Arn.), waphyu (Dendrocalamus membranaceus, Munro.), and waphugyi (Gigantochloa macrostachaya, Kurz.).

### 1.3.4 Dry forests

This type of forest occurs in the Dry Zone where annual rainfall is typically below 760 mm and is not always a forest as expected. Thorny bushes and stunted vegetation are commonly found on the ground due to repeated and heavy cuttings. These forests may be sub-divided into the following groups :-
(1) Than - dahat forests;
(2) Thorn forests.

The characteristic tree species in all of the dry forests are than (Terminalia oliveri, Brandis.), dahat (Tectona hamiltoniana, Wall.), and sha (Acacia catechu, Willd.). Most of the species are of no commercial value other than for fuel wood but sha (Acacia catechu, Willd.) is widely used for manufacturing cutch. Starting in the early 1960!s plantations of the red gum eucalypt (Eucalyptus camaldulensis) have been established in these areas. The adaptability of the species to the Dry Zone soil and climate has been previously established in young test plot's, and fairly rapid rates of growth have been obtained.

### 1.3.5 Indaing forests

This type of forest is edaphic occurring typically on poor gravelly or lateritic soils. Although the type is only 5 per cent of the total forested land (see Table 1.2), it has some important features because the occurrence of in (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus, Roxb.) may be as high as 80 per cent by number. Natural regeneration of in (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus, Roxb.) can be achieved uniformly and abundantly. Most importantly, the timber of this species has a high demand for local consumption as well as plywood.

### 1.3.6 Tidal, Beach and Dune, and Swamp forests

These forests constitute about 4 per cent of the total forest area and occur mostly in the tidal limits of the Irrawaddy delta (see Figure 1.3). The characteristic species are mainly mangroves including kanazo (Heritiera fomes, Buch.) and kyana (Xylocarpus moluccensis., Lam.)
and used for fire wood, although they can also produce pulping material for paper and paperboards.

### 1.4 POPULATION

The population of Burma is approximately 31.4 million (1978) with an annual growth rate of 2.24 per cent (see Table 1.3). The urban and rural population are 7.61 M and 23.76 M respectively.

TABLE 1.3 POPULATION IN BURMA (1978)

| Region | Population |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Urban | Rural | Total |
| 1. Kachin State | 162,042 | 605,671 | 767,713 |
| 2. Kayah State | 28,538 | 91,377 | 119,915 |
| 3. Karen State | 86,018 | 651,561 | 737,579 |
| 4. Chin State | 40,856 | 314,517 | 355,373 |
| 5. Sagaing Division | 427,081 | 3,057,313 | 3,484,394 |
| 6. Tenasserim Division | 186, 144 | 614,215 | 800,359 |
| 7. Pegu Division | 682,928. | 2,866,717 | 3,549,645 |
| 8. Magwe Division | 456,534 | 2,486,837 | 2,943,371 |
| 9. Mandalay Division | 1,078,546 | 3,019,644 | 4,098,190 |
| 10. Mon State | 416,273 | 1,044,577 | 1,460,850 |
| 11. Arakan State | 275,990 | 1,623,700 | 1,899,690 |
| 12. Rangoon Division | 2,478,580 | 1,083,710 | 3,562,290 |
| 13. Shan State | -531,539 | 2,417,879 | 2,949,418 |
| 14. Irrawaddy Division | 764,536 | 3,880,776 | 4,645,312 |

Source : Anon. (1979).

In Table 1.3 Saggaing, Pegu, Magwe, Mandalay, Rangoon and Irrawaddy Divisions are the most thickly populated and highly accessible. Most of the forests in these Divisions were cleared under population pressure.

As the forested area of the country is approximately 38.7 M ha, the overall forest area per capita is 1.23 ha , but the regional forest area per capita varies from 0.06 ha to 9.30 ha (Table 1.4 ) due to uneven distribution of population. More forests may be needed in the densely populated regions.

TABLE 1.4 FOREST AREA PER CAPITA

| Region | Total 1 and area M ha | Forested <br> 1 and <br> area <br> M ha | Forest area per capita ha |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Kachin State | 8.9 | 2.0 | $\therefore 2.59$ |
| 2. Kayah State | 1.2 | 1.0 | 8.84 |
| 3. Karen State | 3.0 | 2.2 | 2.99 |
| 4. Chin State | 3.6 | 3.3 | 9.30 |
| 5. Sagaing Division | 9.5 | 5.6 | 1.62 |
| 6. Tenasserim Division | 4.3 | 3.7 | 4.65 |
| 7. Pegu Division | 3.9 | 2.0 | 0.56 |
| 8. Magwe Division | 4.5 | 2.0 | 0.68 |
| 9. Mandalay Division | 3.7 | 1.3 | 0.32 |
| 10. Mon State | 1.2 | 0.6 | 0.39 |
| 11. Arakan State | 3.7 | 1.9 | 0.98 |
| 12. Rangoon Division | 1.0 | 0.2 | 0.06 |
| 13. Shan State | 15.6 | 11.8 | 4.01 |
| 14. Irrawaddy Division | 3.5 | 1.1 | 0.23 |
| Total Burma | 67.6 | 38.7 | 1.23 |

Source : Anon. (1979).

It is clear that the most thickly populated Divisions, mentioned earlier, have very low forest area per capita. Development of plantations in these areas is most appropriate due to the accessibility, internal demands and transportation of timber.

### 1.5 NATIONAL ECONOMY

Burma is primarily an agricultural country and the economy is largely dependent upon agricultural production, particularly rice. Values of the net output for the nation from 1969 to 1975 are shown in Table 1.5 below.

TABLE 1.5 NATIONAL INCOME (1969-1975)
(Mi11ion Kyats at 1969-70 prices)


Source : Anon. (1977).

Export of rice has been the major source of foreign exchange earnings since pre-war. However, forestry has become more and more important as the export earnings from timber, especially teak, increased. The changing trends are shown in Table 1.6. The export of
forest products contributed only 6 per cent in 1940, 9 per cent in 1960, but rising to more than 25 per cent in 1967 and 1974. This suggests that forestry will become even more important in the national economy in the future.

TABLE 1.6 EXPORT EARNINGS BY COMMODITY (1940-1975)
(Million Kyats)

| Commodity | Years |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1940-41 1960-61 1967-68 1974-75 |  |  |  |
| Agricultural products | 281 | 769 | 307 | 524 |
| Forest products | 32 | 94 | 156 | 232 |
| Mineral and gems | 62. | 36 | 20 | 103 |
| Other exports | 180 | 116 | 39 | 54 |
| Total Exports | 555 | 1015 | 522 | 913 |

Source : Anon. (1969, 1977).

While hardwood species are most important for domestic consumption, particularly for firewood and sawn timber, the teak forests are still very important for domestic purposes as well as exports. This study is directed toward the management of the teak forests. There are insufficient data readily available to enable a detailed analysis of the natural teak forests from a management point of view but the results of the analysis of the available data of Burmese teak plantations are presented.

### 2.1 DEVELOPMENT OF THE FOREST DEPARTMENT

The historical development of scientific forest management and the development of the Forest Department in Burma have been described by Blanford (1925, 1956) and Kyi (1959). Teak extraction was allowed on a contract system in the Tenasserim Province soon after the British occupation in 1826 (B1anford 1925). At that time, there was neither a forest organization nor any regulation on cutting. As a result the teak forests in Tenasserim were overcut and the stocking of teak reduced gradually. In 1841, attempts to control the cuttings and to conserve the teak were made by prescribing a girth limit for extraction. Due to the lack of a proper forestry organization it was not very effective.

The Province of Pegu was annexed by the British in 1852. Dr. McClelland was appointed as Superintendent of Forests for the Pegu Province soon after annexation. In 1856, Dr. Brandis, a scientifically trained forester, founded the Forest Department following his appointment as Superintendent of Forests for the Pegu Province. He divided the Pegu Province into six Forest Divisions (Blanford 1925). The Forest Department consisted of one Conservator and six Deputy and Assistant Conservators in 1868. The forests of the Lower Burma were later managed under two Conservatorships. By 1880 the Department consisted of two Conservators, seven Deputy Conservators, seven Assistant Conservators and four Sub-Assistant Conservators. Upper Burma was annexed in 1885, and Lower and Upper Burma were amalgamated in 1895. The Forest Department was expanded for the management of the forests of

Upper Burma. At first the forests of Upper Burma were organized under one Conservatorship, and later another additional Conservatorship was created. By that time all the Conservatorships were independent of each other. In 1900, the country was divided into four forest circles each administered by a Conservator namely Pegu, Tenasserim, Northern and Southern (B1anford 1956). In the year 1904-05 the post of Chief Conservator of Forests was created on the recommendation of the Conservators, and Beadon Bryant was appointed as the first Chief Conservator (Kyi 1959).

The Forest Department grew gradually. Barrington (1925) reported the strength of the Forest Department in 1925 to be one Chief Conservator, seven territorial Conservators; two Conservators for the Working Plans and Utilization Circles respectively, thirty-eight territorial Divisional Forest Officers and seven specialist Divisional Forest Officers for research and planning. Blanford (1956) noted that during the period 1920 to 1930 the Burma Forest Department reached its zenith.

The organization strength of the Forest Department in the $1920^{\prime}$ s and at present (1979) are shown in Table 2.1. The Forest Department is an organization under the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests. The Director-General, formerly the Chief Conservator of Forests, as the head of department is responsible to the Minister. The organization chart of the Department is shown in Figure 2.1.

Compared to the strength of 1927, the Forest Department is understrength (Table 2.1 ), and a reorganization of the department is in progress to strengthen it.
Director-General
Deputy Director (Administration)

Forest
Forest Range Officers
Deputy Forest Rangers

TABLE 2.1 FOREST DEPARTMENT IN BURMA

| Post | Sanctioned strength |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1927 | 1979 |
| Director-General <br> (Chief Conservator of Forests) | 1 | 1 |
| Director <br> (Conservator of Forests) | 9 | 8 |
| Deputy Director <br> (Deputy Conservator of Forests) <br> (Divisional Forest Officer) | $75^{\circ}$ | 44 |
| Assistant Director <br> (Assistant Conservator of Forests) <br> (Extra Assistant Conservator of Forests) | $78^{\circ}$ | 94 |
| Township Forest Officer (Forest Ranger) | 225 | 218 |
| Deputy Township Forest Officer (Deputy Ranger) | 432 | 414 |
| Forest Beat Officer/Forester | 1988 | 1624 |
| Total | 2808 | 2403 |
| Source : Watson (1927), Anon. (1979). |  |  |
| Note : Exclude $26^{\circ}$ and $30^{\circ}$ reserve posts | Watson |  |

2.2 WORKING PLANS

### 2.2.1 Background of Working Plans

A11 the forests in Burma were orginally the property of the king, and teak had been prescribed as a royal tree (Hoe 1969). King Mindon permitted extraction from some of the forests in Tenasserim by British private companies but there were numerous disagreements between the Burmese authorities and the British companies about the extraction of teak.

When the Tenasserim Province was annexed by the British the private companies were allowed to continue timber extraction under a revenue system. At that time there were no management plans for the forests. Teak was cut down freely all over the forests of Tenasserim. Brandis wrote the first working plan for the Pegu forests in 1857. He adopted a sustained yield approach to the harvesting of teak which was based on growth projections of the growing stock.

The British government declared all forested land to be at the disposal of the Crown. The Forest Act empowered the government to reserve $a$ forest. The reservation of the forests became the major work of the Department followed by ground survey for mapping. It was also necessary to measure the growing stock of a forest before a working plan was prepared. The working plans were prepared for the individual forests. In 1920 the Working Plans Circle was formed, after which working plans were prepared for the whole Forest Division combining the separate individual forest working plans. A manual on the preparation of working plans was also published (Anon 1961).

The forests are managed under various working circles some of
which may overlap. The working circles are formed on the basis of their accessibility classifications and the nature and availability of the forest products. The following is a list of working circles common in the working plans (Anon 1961) :

```
i Teak Selection Working Circle (T.S.W.C.);
ii Teak Eradication Working Circle (T.E.W.C.);
iii Hardwood Supply Working Circle (H.S.W.C.);
iv Local Supply Working Circle (L.S.W.C.);
v Fuelwood Working Circle;
vi Cutch Working Circle;
vii Plantation Working Circle.
```

Teak is accessible throughout the forest as the logs can be floated easily two years after girdling. All the teak bearing forests are grouped under the Teak Selection Working Circle. Teak is a reserved tree species all over Burma, and it cannot be removed without authority. Teak Eradication Working Circles were formed covering cultivated and private lands, whereasForest Department eriadicates teak. For the extraction of non-teak hardwood and other forestry products, the accessibility classification is important. The accessibility classifications are listed below :

Class
A : Areas that are currently accessible.
$B$ : Areas that are likely to be accessible in the near future.
$C$ : Areas that are likely to be accessible in the distant future.

The class $A$ and $B$ forests can be grouped under the Hardwood Supply Working Circle. The Local Supply Working Circle is always constituted of class $A$ forests. The plantations also need to be high1y accessible for efficient management, and usually the class $A$ and $B$ forests can be grouped. The accessibility of the non-teak hardwood forests in Burma is shown in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2 ACCESSIBILITY CLASSIFICATION OF NON-TEAK HARDWOOD FORESTS IN BURMA
(Sq km)

| State / | Reserve forests |  |  |  | Unclassed forests |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Division | A | B | C | Total | A | B | C | Total |
| Kachin | 2003 | 647 | 1283 | 3933 | 4229 | 3521 | 6961 . | 14711 |
| Kayah | - | - | - | - | 1756 | 1963 | 6880 | 10599 |
| Karen | 1817 | 611 | 1222 | 3650 | 9801 | 2683 | 5394. | 17878 |
| Chin | 834 | 77 | 397 | 1308 | 1165 | 1222 | 3306 | 5693 |
| Sagaing | 5038 | 2359 | 9915 | 17312 | 19049 | 8005 | 11489 | 38523 |
| Tenasserim | 4698 | 3557 | - | 8255 | 13177 | 7187 | 7944 | 28308 |
| Pegu | 3104 | 1526 | 4706 | 9336 | 2602 | 927 | 2983 | 6512 |
| Magwe | 2315 | 1335 | 2707 | 6357 | 7086 | 1404 | 1590 | 10080 |
| Mandalay | 3391 | 1408 | 1942 | 6741 | 2505 | 413 | 753 | 3671 |
| Mon | 915 | 530 | - | 1445 | 3845 | - | - | 3845 |
| Arakan | 712 | 178 | - | 890 | 12578 | 2485 | 2193 | 17256 |
| Rangoon | 413 | 73 | 154 | 640 | - - | - - | - | - |
| Shan | 2485 | 4617. | - | 7102 | 39683 | 46656 | 50497 | 136836 |
| Irrawaddy | 1655 | 765 | 712 | 3132 | 2874 | - | 761 | 3635. |
| Total | 29380 | $` 17683$ | 23038 | 70101 | 120350 | 76466 | 100751 | 297567 |

Source : Working Plans Department, Forest Department, Burma.

### 2.2.2 Teak Yield Regulation in Burma

Calculation and prescription of the yield is the most important part of a working plan. The original Brandis' method of yield
calculation was based on the number of trees of certain exploitable size (Brasnett 1953). The main features of the Brandis' method were summarized by Kyi (1962) as :
i Estimation of the stock by survey;
ii Adoption of a girth limit of approx. $2.1 \mathrm{~m}\left(7^{\prime}\right)$;
iii Estimation of the rate of growth of teak;
iv Adoption of a thirty years felling cycle;
v Estimation of the survival percentages by size classes.

Kyi (1962, p23) also noted that "Brandis' method is not one of high precision. It never was claimed to be one. But it is sound, simple and flexible". Carron (1968): showed certain underlying assumptions in the method of yield regulation are not fufilled, such as the uniformity in the distribution and rate of growth of trees in a specific girth class. However, apart from these weaknesses the Brandis' method of yield regulation has been practised successfully in managing for a sustained yield in Burma. The following are the main achievements of the Brandis' method (Kyi 1961):
i Matching the harvest with the average annual rate of promotion of trees into the group of exploitable girth limit and over;
ii Staggered liquidation of the surplus stock in the exploitable girth limit and over, as in the case of the virgin natural forest;
i.ii Prompt and successful institution of organized forestry;
iv Reservation and division of reserves into compartments;
v Establishment of sequence of compartments to be tackled;
vi Collection and building up of data on the growing stock and growth rate of teak;
vii Development of silvicultural techniques;
viii Development of working plans progressively;
ix Growth and building up of a forest service and its tradition.

The various developmental stages of teak yield regulation have been summarized by Kyi (1961). Teak growing stock was estimated by subjective linear valuation surveys covering about $10 \%$ of the selected compartments during the period 1856 to 1880 . From 1880 onwards, starting with Thonze reserve forest working plan, the intensity of these surveys was raised from $10 \%$ to $25 \%$. Some application of the yield calculation method based on basal area was made during the period 1920 to 1930. During the period 1930 to 1940 a definite decision was made concerning the method of yield calculation. The linear valuation surveys were no longer carried out and yield was calculated directly from the enumeration record of trees left standing at the time of girdling operations. The Brandis' method was no longer practised.

Starting from 1962 random sampling methods were applied in measuring the growing stock of the forest (Tin et.al. 1973). These surveys provided reliable estimates for efficient management planning (Kyaw 1978).

The silvicultural system practised in the teak forests is the polycyclic selection system better known as the Burma Selection System. The possibility of changing from the selection system to the uniform
system had been tested in 1910 (Gale 1978). Due to difficulties in getting uniform natural regeneration and the high rate of expenditure incurred for tending operations, the attempts were given up. The Burma Selection System with the number of trees as the yield control is still practised. The yield of teak in Burma is 246,800 trees of exploitable girth and over as in 1979 (see Table 2.3).

TABLE 2.3 ANNUAL ALLOWABLE CUT OF TEAK IN BURMA

| State / Division | Annual allowable cut of teak (.yield trees ) |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1. Kachin State | 20,500 |
| 2. Kayah State | 5,340 |
| 3. Karen State | 7,000 |
| 4. Chin State | 3,900 |
| 5. Sagaing Division | 61,530 |
| 6. Pegu Division | 52,070 |
| 7. Magwe Division | 40,770 |
| 8. Mandalay Division | 23,960 |
| 9. Mon State | 220 |
| 10. Rangoon division | 3,670 |
| 11. Shan State | 26,190 |
| 12. Irrawaddy Division | 1,650 |
| Total Burma | 246,800 |

Source : Anon. (1979).

### 2.2.3 Working Plan for Prome Forest Division

Prome Forest Division is one of the eight Forest Divisions in the Pegu Forest Circle. It has the Allanmyo Forest Division in the north, the South Taungoo Forest Division in the east, the Zigon Forest Division in the south and the Thayetmyo Forest Division in the west (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Map of Prome Forest Division showing Reserved and Unclassed forests.


LEGEND

| $R F-$ Reserved Forests |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Unclassed Forests |  |
| Forest Division Boundary |  |

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { PP }=\text { Prome Plantation R F } \\
& S K=\text { Shwe Kyundaw RF }
\end{aligned}
$$

The physical location of towns, the unclassed forests and the reserved forests are shown in Figure 2.2. A list of working plans, formerly the individual forest plans and later the divisional plans, are shown in Table 2.4. The constitution of the area of Prome Forest Division can be given as follows (Kyi 1969) :

1) Reserved Forests $132,439 \mathrm{ha}$
2) Unclassed Forests 129,737 ha
3) Other areas $250,364 \mathrm{ha}$

Total 512,540 ha

Note : Excluded is 139,451 ha of Thayetmyo Forest Division on the west bank of the Irrawaddy River, amalgamated to Prome Forest Division in 1974.

The reserve forests ( $132,439 \mathrm{ha}$ ) can be identified as the Hills and Plains reserves. The working circles were formed according to the accessibility of the reserves as summarized below (see Table 2.5 for detail) :
Working Circle
Teak Selection W.C. ..... 7
Commercial Supply W.C. ..... 8
Local Supply W.C. ..... 6
Cutch W.C. ..... 5
Plantation W.C. ..... 2Number of reserves

TABLE 2.4 WORKING PLANS OF PROME FOREST DIVISION


[^0]TABLE 2.5 ALLOTMENT OF AREAS TO WORKING CIRCLES (PROME FOREST DIVISION)
(Area in ha)
Reserves / Unclassed
forests

| Kyatkon |  | 1819 |  | 1819 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Chaungzauk | 18192 | (18192) | (10087) | 18192 |
| 0lezwe | 1559 | (1559) | (1559) | 1559 |
| North Nawin | 15404 | (1831) |  | 15404 |
| Middle Nawin | 15990 | (15577) | (3082) | 15990 |
| South Nawin | 14181 | (13089) |  | 14181 |
| Shwele Yoma | 21972 | (21673) | (7619) | 21972 |
| Bwet | 6997 | (6997) | (3722) | 6997 |
| Shabyin |  |  |  | 18737 |
| Dawle |  |  |  | 1015 |


| Plains reserves |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: |
| Zibinhla | 500 |  | 500 |  |
| Pandinbin | 352 |  | 352 |  |
| Tayokhmaw | 9519 |  | 9519 |  |
| Shwekyundaw |  |  | 103 | 103 |
| Prome Plantation |  |  | 32 | 32 |
| Tonye |  |  |  | 6067 |


| Unreserved |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Unclassed forests | 129737 |  |  |  |  | 129737 |
| Other areas |  |  |  |  | 250364250364 |  |
| Total Prome Forest | 224032 | 7886 | 30123 | 135 | 250364 | 512540 |
| Division |  | (78918) |  |  |  |  |

```
TSWC \(=\) Teak Selection Working Circle; HSWC = Hardwood Supply
            Working Circle; LSWC = Local Supply Working Circle;
            CuWC = Cutch Working Circle; P1WC = Plantation Working Circle;
            TEWC = Teak Eradication Working Circle.
```

            Figures in bracket are overlapped areas.
            Source : Working Plans Department, Burma Forest Department.
    All the Hills reserves except three are under the Teak Selection Working Circle. Most of these reserves are easily accessible and included in the Commercial Supply Working Circle overlapping with the Teak Selection Working Circle.

However, the Middle Nawin, the North Nawin, and the South Nawin reserves are only partly accessible for hardwood extraction, especially the North Nawin. Some portionsof the Hill reserves are also under the Cutch Working Circle (cutch is extracted from sha, Acacia catechu Willd.). The Plains reserves are very accessible and are located close to the villages. Four out of the six Plains reserves are managed for the Local Supply Working Circle. The remaining two Plains reserves were planted with teak under the Plantation Working Circle (see Table 2.5). Prome Plantation reserve is a small area located very close to Prome, where a second rotation teak plantation had been established after the first rotation crop had been cut at the age of 80 years.

There are also some old plantations in the Hills reserves which occur in small patches. They are no longer treated as the plantations due to difficulties in management. These small patches of plantation were formed for the purpose of supplementing the scarce natural regeneration and they were by no means intended to be managed under a clear felling system.

### 2.3 TEAK PLANTATIONS IN BURMA

The first teak plantation was established as early as 1856 by a Karen called U Panhee, who was a taungya cutter, as a personal present to Br andis. Brandis foresightedly remarked, after (Blanford 1956):

> "This, if the people can ever be bought to do it,
> is likely to become the most efficient mode of
> planting teak in this country;"

Currently this method of artificial regeneration, "taungya" is well accepted in the world. In Burma changing concepts in the development of teak plantations have occured. During the period 1856 to 1910 teak plantations were formed only on a small scale. From 1918 an area of 3000 acres (approx. 1200 ha ) was planted annually (Gale 1961). By 1936 the plantation programs were almost stopped when it was believed that soil erosion in teak plantations was serious. As a matter of fact, the teak plantations had never been formed in large contiguous blocks.

TABLE 2.6 TEAK PLANTATIONS IN BURMA

| Period $\quad$Area <br> (ha) |
| :--- |

Actual planting

| 1895 to 1941 | 36,929 |
| :--- | ---: |
| 1947 to 1962 | 1,230 |
| 1962 to 1971 | 9,255 |
| 1972 to 1980 | 16,006 |

Plan for planting
1981 to 1990 109,265
1991 onwards 12,100 ha annually

Source : Forest Department, Burma.

Table 2.6. As the productivity of the teak plantations is very high compared to the yield from natural forest and the rotation is shorter; it is very desirable to replace the natural teak forests with plantations. With the approval of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests, the Forest Department is undertaking a substantial program to establish teak plantations up to 12,100 ha per annum by 1990 (see Table 2.6). It is also to be noted that the teak plantations will be managed by a clear felling system with artificial regeneration.

### 2.4 THE NEED FOR GROWTH AND YIELD MODELS

The use of electronic data processing in forestry science has progressed with developments in the electronic digital computers and the application of management information systems (Leech 1977).

Computer applications in Burmese forestry were reported by Ohn and Myint (1977). Although computers are not used for all management planning systems, they are effectively utilized for the processing of resource surveys or forest inventories. The results obtained are very important for management planning in the natural teak forests.

The development of teak plantations involves relatively high capital investment. Therefore it is important to manage these plantations, especially for large scale plantations, under optimum strategies to achieve the maximum benefits (Buongiorno and $\begin{gathered}\text { Teeguarden } \\ \text { 1978). }\end{gathered}$

Traditional approaches of applying yield. tables in managing plantations have been superceded by growth and yield models developed by appropriate: computer based simulation models (Australian Forestry Council 1978). Examples are the development of growth and yield models by Leech (1973, 1978) and the development of a computer data processing
aid for management planning of radiata pine plantations in South Australia by Lewis et al. (1976). Furthermore, once the flexible computer based simulation models have been constructed; estimates of growth can be predicted and management strategies optimised with the help of computers. However, the final decision lies with the decision-maker who is supplied with the optimum results for his formulated costs and constraints for various possible strategies.

At present, models for natural teak forests are not applied in Burma. The only available yield table for plantations is that published by Laurie and Ram (1940) which is for both India and in Burma, as there was a lack of sufficient sample plot measurement data for Indian teak. It is not proved that the growth characteristics of teak plantations in India and Burma are the same, therefore the Laurie and Ram (1940) yield tables may not be directly applicable to Burmese plantations. The development of growth and yield models for both natural teak forests and for plantation teak in Burma is therefore necessary. In this study models are developed for plantation teak.

## CHAPTER 3

## TOP HEIGHT FUNCTIONS FOR BURMESE PLANTATION TEAK

### 3.1 GENERAL

### 3.1.1 Definition of Top Height

Top height in Burmese teak plantations is defined as the height of the tree with a diameter equal to the mean of the diameters of the hundred largest trees (by diameter) per acre (approximately 247 trees per ha). One of the alternative definitions for top height is the average height of the one hundred tallest trees per acre but measurements would be much more difficult. The one hundred largest diameter trees are usually the tallest trees in the plantations.

### 3.1.2 Review of Previous Research

Laurie land Ram (1940) developed a yield and stand table for teak plantations in India and Burma. These tables are the only published yield tables available in Burma. Graphical methods were applied in constructing the tables. Because sufficient data were not available for the highest and lowest site quality classes, neither Baur's method (Spurr 1952) nor the single mean tree method described by Griffith|and Prasad(1949) could be applied in constructing these tables. Site quality classifications were therefore based on the top height trends of four arbitrarily divided groups of all sample plot data, so bias is unavoidable (Laurie and Ram 1940). Neither the least squares method nor any other regression method was applied in constructing the yield tables.

Ohn (1967) pointed out that the number $\mid g_{\text {per aces }}^{\text {trees }}$ (stocking density) and average diameter relationships in Burmese teak plantations provide sufficient control of thinning operations irrespective of site quality classification or thinning strategy. He also pointed out that Laurie and Ram's (1940) tables underestimated the growth of Burmese teak plantations, and demonstrated the application of the number per acre and the average diameter table for the control of thinning instead of the yield tables as directed (Anon 1944) in the Departmental Instructions.

Myint (1967) and Ohn and Myint(1968) reported the results of investigation of the average diameter growth of teak plantations in Burma. These attempts resulted in regression relationships relating the average diameter to the number of stems per acre, average height and age.

Tint and $\frac{\text { Schneider }}{(1980)}$ developed growth and yield models for plantation teak based mainly on the average diameter growth. They constructed a computer-orientated simulation model for predicting the growth and yield of plantation teak.

This study is based on data from Laurie and |Ram (1940) as very little other data are available. Keogh (1979) reported the growth and yield models developed for plantation teak in Trinidad, El Salvador, and Jamaica. His models only predict the growth of teak plantations up to an age of thirty years. Other studies on the growth and yield of teak are based on young plantations subject to first thinnings at various intensities (Prombubpa 1974, Lowe 1976). Thaiutsa landKaitpranect (1976) reported the thinning guides based on relationships involving age, average diameter at breast height, and the density of plantation teak. However, his study was based on only 13 sample plots.

### 3.1.3 Objectives of the Present Study

The objectives of the present study are as follows :-

1) To estimate and select the best model for predicting the growth and yield of Burmese teak plantations;
2) To develop models for simulating the growth of teak plantations under various management strategies as a possible basis for optimising the yield.

### 3.2 BASIC DATA

The data used in the present analysis consist of the sample plot measurement records reported by Laurie and Ram(1940). There are 326 sample plots of which 221 are in Burma and the rest in India. These sample plots were established in teak plantations of various ages with varying past treatments and initial spacings. The majority of the plots were measured at five year intervals except for a few measured at four to ten years. Most plots were measured two or three times, the maximum number of measurements being four. The data covered thirteen Forest Divisions. The distribution of sample plots by Forest Divisions in Burma is shown in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1 NUMBER OF SAMPLE PLOTS BY FOREST DIVISIONS

| Forest Division | No of sample plots | No of sample plots |  |  |  | No of total measurements |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | No of measurement(s) per plot $\begin{array}{llll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ataran | 10 | 3 | 7 | - | - | 17 |
| Insein | 28 | 4 | - 22 | 2 | - | 54 |
| Katha | 13 | 4 | 6 | 3 | - | 25 |
| Magwe | 13 | - | 6 | 7 | - | 33 |
| Myitkyina | 4 | - | 2 | 2 | - | 10 |
| Prome | 23 | 6 | 6 | 11 | - | 51 |
| Pyinmana | 25 | 2 | 3 | 6 | 14 | 82 |
| Tharrawaddy | 27 | 5 | 13 | 9 | - | 58 |
| Thaton | 19 | 1 | 5 | 13 | - | 50 |
| Thaungyin | 5 | 2 | 2 | 1 | - | 9 |
| Taungoo | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 | - | 8 |
| Yamethin | 4 | - | 1 | 2 | 1 | 12 |
| Zigon | 46 | 14 | 22 | 10 | - | 88 |
| Total | 221 | 42 | 97 | 67 | 15 | 497 |

Source : Laurie and Ram (1940).

The original data were recorded in Imperial units. Metric conversion has been made and the resulting data in metric units are listed in Appendix $I$.

The distribution of sample plots and frequency of measurement by site quality classification are shown in Table 3.2: It will be noted that the majority of Burmese sample plots were site quality II and III.

TABLE 3.2 DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE PLOTS BY SITE QUALITY

| Forest <br> Division | Number of sample plots by |  |  |  |  |  | No of total measurements |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{SQ} \\ \mathrm{I} \end{gathered}$ |  |  |  |  | Total |  |
|  |  | SQ | SQ | SQ | SQ |  |  |
|  |  | II | III | IV | V |  |  |
| Ataran | 4 | 4 | 2 | - | - | 10 | 17 |
| Insein | - | 4 | 23 | 1. | - | 28 | 54 |
| Katha | 1 | 5 | 5 | 2. | - | 13 | 25 |
| Magwe | - | - | 2 | 9 | 2 | 13 | 33 |
| Myitkyina | 1 | 3 | - | - | - | 4 | 10 |
| Prome | 2 | 9 | 12 | - | - | 23 | 51 |
| Pyinmana | 2 | 17 | 6 | - | - | 25 | 82 |
| Tharrawaddy | - | 14 | 11 | 2 | - | 27 | 58 |
| Thaton . | - | 6 | 13 | - | - | 19 | 50 |
| Thaungyin | 1 | 1 | 3 | - | - | 5 | 9 |
| Taungoo | - | 4 | - | - | - | 4 | 8 |
| Yamethin. | - | 4 | - | - | - | 4 | 12 |
| Zigon | - | 25 | 11 | 9 | 1 | 46 | 88 |
| Total Plots | 11 | 96 | 88 | 23 | 3 | 221 | - |
| Measurements | 19 | 233 | 194 | 46 | 5 | - | 497 |

Source: Laurie and Ram(1940).

The distribution of sample plot measurements by age groups is summarized in Table 3.3. Most of the sample plot measurements were made in stands aged less than 50 years.

TABLE 3.3 FREQUENCY OF MEASUREMENT BY AGE GROUPS

| Age group | Frequency of <br> measurements |
| :---: | :---: |
| $1-10$ | 71 |
| $11-20$ | 118 |
| $21-30$ | 88 |
| $31-40$ | 116 |
| $41-50$ | 29 |
| $51-60$ | 5 |
| $61-70$ | 2 |
| $71-80$ |  |
| Total |  |

Source : Laurie et al. (1940).

### 3.3 MODELS SELECTED

Leech (1978) discussed a number of growth and yield models including models developed by von Bertalanffy and Mitscherlich. The general form of the growth model developed by von Bertalanffy (1941, 1942) is sigmoidal or S-shape. On the other hand Mitscherlich's (1910) model is an exponential growth model without inflexion points.

1) von Bertalanffy's model :

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=-\frac{n}{p}\left[1-e^{-p(1-m)(A-A o)}\right] \frac{1}{(----)} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

2) Mitscherlich's (1910) model :

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=\frac{n}{p}\left[1-e^{-p(A-A o)}\right] \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H$ denotes top height in metres;
A denotes age in years;
Ao is the intercept, that is the age at which top height is indicated as zero;
$n, p, m$ denote the coefficients.

The intercept Ao of these models is practically zero for the top height of teak, thus equation (2) can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
h=-\frac{n}{-}\left[1-e^{-p A}\right] \tag{2A}
\end{equation*}
$$

p

These models are simple, flexible and also possess the desired form and a minimum of parameters to estimate. Ferguson (1979) used von Bertalanffy's (1941, 1942) model for estimation of the top height function, and Mitcherlich's (1910) model for gross basal area function, for A.C.T. pine plantations. As data from plantation teak are scanty (Table 3.1) it was considered important to select models with as few parameters as possible to be estimated.

Equation (2 A) can be written as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{H}=\frac{\mathrm{n}}{\mathrm{p}}-\frac{\mathrm{n}}{\mathrm{p}} \mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{pA}} \\
& \text { and }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
n e^{-p A}=n-p H
$$

By differentiating (2 A) with respect to $A$, we get

$$
H^{\prime}=n e^{-p A}
$$

where $H^{\prime}$ is the differential of top height, and by equating (3) and (4) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\prime}=n-p H \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

By similar differentiation of equation (1), we can show

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\prime}=\mathrm{n}^{\mathrm{m}}-\mathrm{pH} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

The parameters $n, p$, and $m$ of the equations (1), (2) and. (2 A) can be estimated by fitting the differentials as shown in equations (5) and (6).

### 3.4 TOP HEIGHT FUNCTIONS

### 3.4.1 Top Height Functions by Forest Divisions

Top height measurements for all 221 Burmese sample plots were plotted against age within the old site quality classifications (Figure 3.1).

FIGURE 3.1

## TOP HEIGHT OVER AGE OF PLANTATION TEA



The sample plot measurements for each individual Forest Division varied from 8 to 88 (Table 3.1). There were insufficient measurements to utilize the two stage GLS approach (Miles et al. 1978, Ferguson 1979).

Top height functions were therefore fitted to the pooled data from all plots and the parameters of models (1) and (2 A) estimated using program NLPE (Bard 1967) for each Division separately. The results are summarized in Appendix II and indicate that the parameter m of model (1) which represents the point of inflexion was not significantly different from zero at the $95 \%$ probability level. The results also confirm that the data for individual Divisions could not be fitted separately because there were too few observations and the resulting regressions are clearly not significantly different from one another. Thus all the data for all Divisions were pooled within each site quality class and model (2 A) fitted. The results were again unsatisfactory (see Appendix II for parameters) partly because the old site quality classification seems to be inappropriate and partly because the available data are not evenly distributed over site qualities.

It was therefore decided to re-estimate model (2 A), with the pooled data and also including the site index variable.

### 3.4.2 Top Height Functions by Rainfall Regions

Gyi (1972) pointed out that the intensity and distribution of rainfall of a region were important for the growth of teak plantations. A climogram of each Division was prepared by plotting the mean monthly temperature against the monthly rainfall. Forest Divisions were then classified into groups with similar climograms, based on the 1979 meteorological data, and shown in Figures 3.2 to 3.4.


Figure 3.2 Climograms (1979) for heavy rainfall regions.


Figure 3.3 Climograms (1979) for medium rainfall regions.


Figure 3.4 Climograms (1979) for light rainfall regions.

```
Forest Divisions were grouped into three rainfall regions as
```

follows :-

I Heavy rainfall region

1. Thaungyin Forest Division
2. Thaton F.D.
3. Moulmein F.D.

II Medium rainfall region

1. Myitkyina Forest Division
2. Taungoo F.D.
3. Tharrawaddy F.D.
4. Insein F.D.

III Light rainfall region

1. Katha Forest Division
2. Yamethin F.D.
3. Pyinmana F.D.
4. Magwe - F.D.
5. Prome F.D.

Topheight at specific age was adopted as the site index for teak. Tint and $\begin{gathered}\text { Schneider } \\ (1980)\end{gathered}$ adopted the age of 80 years as the specified age. Carron (1968) suggested using an age of two thirds the rotation age. Teak plantations are expected to have a rotation of 80 to 100 years and an age between 40 to 60 years could thus be adopted.

The majority of the sample plots span ages of 20 to 50 years (Table 3.3). Two possible ages, 20 or 40 years, were selected as standard age for site index. Graphs of top height against age were prepared for each Forest Division and values of top height at age 20 or 40 interpolated for the sample plot covering ages 20 or 40 years. These values providing starting estimates of site index for each plot for each of two definitionsof site index.

Earlier regressions indicated that model (2 A) was more appropriate to the data :-

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=-\frac{n}{p}\left[1-e^{-p A}\right] \tag{2A}
\end{equation*}
$$

It can also be expressed in the differential form :

$$
H^{\prime}=n e^{-p A}
$$

According to the definition, site index ( S ) is the top height at a specified age. If the age is 20 years, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
S=-\frac{n}{D}\left[1-e^{-p 20}\right] \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

and by transposing (7), we get


By substituting $n$ in (2 A) and (4) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=\frac{S\left(1-e^{-p A}\right)}{\left(1-e^{-p 20}\right)} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
H^{\prime}=\frac{p S\left(e^{-p A}\right)}{\left(1-e^{-p^{20}}\right)} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

By transposing (8) we can get a relationship for estimating site index :

$$
\begin{equation*}
S=\frac{H\left(1-e^{-p 20}\right)}{\left(1-e^{-p A}\right)} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, the relationships for an age of 40 years can be obtained as follows.

$$
\begin{align*}
H= & S\left(1-e^{-p A}\right)  \tag{11}\\
& \left(1-e^{-p 40}\right)  \tag{12}\\
H^{\prime}= & p S\left(e^{-p A}\right) \\
& \left(1-e^{-p 40}\right)  \tag{13}\\
S= & H\left(1-e^{-p 40}\right) \\
& \left(1-e^{-p A}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

These models involve only one parameter to estimate. The values of the differentials of top height ( $H^{\prime}$ ) were approximated by the values of the periodic mean annual increment.

The mean annual increments in top height for the sample plots were plotted against age for each rainfall region to see the relationships (Figures 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7). Annual increment was negatively related to age.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { FIGURE } 3.7
\end{aligned}
$$

Models (9) and (12) were fitted using NLPE (Bard 1967) for each rainfall region. . In the initial run, only the measurements where the site index values could be interpolated from the graph (Figure 3.1) were included. The resulting estimate of the parameter pas then used to estimate the site index values of all sample plots. Using the resulting site index values, a new estimate of the parameter $p$ was made. This process was repeated until the value of the parameter $p$ converged.

The results for the parameter p after convergence are summarized in Appendix III. The resulting top height functions for a base age of 20 years implied that asymptotic values of top height were reached by about age 40 years. This behaviour is not consistent with the annual height growth as plotted in Figures 3.5 to 3.7 for there is still significant height growth at older ages. Equation (12) with a base age of 40 years was more appropriate in that there is a gradual height increment even at older ages. Nevertheless, at this stage both models were retained pending tests on the differences between rainfall regions.

Significance tests were made for differences between the top height functions for the three rainfall regions for both Models (8) and (11) as shown in Appendix III. The difference between the regional top height functions with the base age 2.0 years was not significant. Therefore a general function for all regions should be developed. On the other hand the difference between the regional top height functions with a base age of 40 years was found highly significant (Appendix III). However as the available data were not evenly distributed between the rainfall regions, it is suggested that the regional top height functions should be developed only when sufficient data becomes available in the future. In both cases it is to be noted that teak appears to grow best in the medium rainfall region, because the parameter $p$, which represents
FIGURE 3.8


decay rate, is the lowest for that region. (Appendix III). Finally, because of the lack of data for each rainfall region, it was decided to develop a general top height function for all the regions.

### 3.4.3 A General Top Height Function

The functions for the base age 20 for the three rainfall regions were not significantly different and a general function for base age 20 for all the plantations in Burma was therefore computed. The same procedure as discussed in Section 3.4 .2 was adopted. Annual top height growth is plotted against age for all rainfall regions in Figure 3.8. Model (9) was fitted to the data for a base age of 20 years as before :-

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=\frac{S\left(1-e^{-0.0985}{ }_{\left(1-e^{-0.0985 \times 20}\right)}^{(1)}\right)}{\left(\frac{A}{-20}\right)} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

the parameter $\mathrm{p}=\begin{aligned} & 0.0985 \\ & (0.0041)\end{aligned}$
S.E. of regression $=0.1813$

Top height curves for various levels of site index were plotted in Figure 3.9 based on the above relationship. Asymptotic values were approached by 40 years of age. Thus the model was rejected.

## FIGURE 3.9

SITE INDEX CURVES FOR BURMA PLANTATION TEAK Site index age 20 years


Although the functions for base age 40 years for the three rainfall regions were significantly different (Appendix III), the available data were not evenly distributed between the rainfall regions and, as suggested previously, it seems advisable to develop regional top height functions only when sufficient data become available. In this study a general function for base age 40 years for all the plantations was therefore computed.

The results for the top height function using a base age of 40 years is given below :-

$$
\begin{equation*}
H: \frac{S\left(1-e^{-0.0338 . A}\right)}{\left(1-e^{-0.0338 \times 40}\right)} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { the parameter } p= 0.0338 \\
&(0.0029)
\end{aligned}
$$

Top height curves for various levels of site index based on an age of 40 years are plotted in Figure 3.10. The annual height growth at older ages correspondswith the trends plotted in Figure 3.8. The equation (15) shown above was therefore accepted as the top height function for Burma plantation teak.

FIGURE 3.10
SITE INDEX CURVES FOR BURMA PLANTATION TEAK SITE INDEX AGE 40 YEARS


CHAPTER 4
basal area and volume functions of burmese plantation teak

### 4.1 BASAL AREA FUNCTIONS

Ferguson (1979) reported research on basal area growth in radiata |the research of
pine plantations. After Ferguson (op cit.) Mitscherlich's (1910) growth model was chosen for fitting the basal area growth of plantation teak. The model is simple, flexible and involves only two parameters to be estimated. The model is as shown below.

$$
\begin{equation*}
B=-\frac{n}{n}\left[1-e^{-p(A-A 0)}\right] \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B$ denotes gross basal area in sq m. per ha;
A denotes age in years;
Ao is the intercept, or the age at which the gross basal area is indicated as zero;
n and p denote parameter and constant.

The gross basal area of the plot was not available because past records of thinning were not available. Therefore the parameters were estimated by fitting the differential of the gross basal area as follows.

By differentiating equation (16) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
B^{\prime}=n \quad\left[e^{-p\left(A-A_{0}\right)}\right] \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $B^{\prime}$ denotes annual gross basal increment in sq m per ha

By assuming that the asymptotic value ( $n / p$ ) of a crop varies directly with its site index, and also that the parameter $p$ is constant for various site indices, we get

$$
\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{b} \mathrm{~S}
$$

```
where b is a constant and S denotes the site index.
By substituting the value of n in (17) we get
```

$$
\begin{equation*}
B^{\prime}=b S \quad\left[e^{-p(A-A o)}\right] \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (18) can be further simplified as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& B^{\prime}=b^{*} S \quad\left[e^{-p A}\right] \\
& \text { where } b^{*}=b e^{-p A o}
\end{aligned}
$$

By studying the basal area data it was found that the intercept Ao was constant with a value of 2 (approx.).

The mean annual basal area increment was computed from the sample plot data. Most data were from measurements at 5 year intervals and the mean basal area increment therefore applies to the mid period of the intervals of 5 years. The resulting mean annual basal area increments were plotted against mid-age as shown in. Figure 4.1 .



Figure 4.1 shows a clear relationship between the annual basal area increment and age.

Equation (19) was fitted by using NLPE (Bard 1967) resulting in the following function :-

$$
B^{\prime}=0.0604 \quad \mathrm{~S} \quad \mathrm{e}^{-0.0273} \mathrm{~A}
$$

| where $^{b^{*}}$ | $=0.0604$ |
| ---: | :--- |
|  | $(0.0026)$ |
| p | $=0.0273$ |
|  | $(0.0022)$ |

S.E. of regression $=0.3933$

The function (20) above is acceptable having coefficients which are significantly different from zero at the $95 \%$ probability level. However, function (20) does not include an allowance for a response to thinning operations. Teak is a light demanding species, and is very sensitive to competition. Ohn (1967) suggested heavier thinnings than C grade were needed such that about $60 \%$ of the basal area was left after thinning. He also pointed out that crops on lower site qualities can have higher growth rates than the higher site quality crops due to heavier thinnings. The underlying assumption that the same rate of growth occurs in both the thinned and unthinned crops in the above function is therefore weak. The inclusion of a thinning index in the basal area growth model was therefore investigated further.

If thinning index is defined as the ratio of the basal area left after thinning to the basal area before thinning, and if $T$ denotes that thinning index such as $T=1.0$ when there is no thinning, then it can be incorporated in the model (19) as shown below.

$$
\begin{equation*}
B^{\prime}=b^{*} \mathrm{~S}\left[e^{-p\left(-\frac{A}{T}\right)}\right] \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $T$ is the thinning index and all other symbols are as defined in (19).
or $B^{\prime}=b^{*} S\left[e^{-p(A T)}\right]$
where all the symbols are as in (21) above.

Model (21) was used by Ferguson (1979) for growth models for radiata pine plantations. As the thinning index $T$ is a reverse factor determining the rate of decay, it implies that the growth rate of pine plantations is slower when more severe thinnings are applied. It also corresponds to the characteristics of pine when there is a definite shock period after thinning. Unlike pine, teak plantations are very responsive to thinnings. Older crops respond very quickly to thinning, the heavier the thinning the faster the rate of growth obtained. No shock period following thinning has appeared. Hence model (22) seems more appropriate than the model (21) for teak plantations. To confirm this hypothesis, both models (21) and (22) were fitted using NLPE (Bard 1967).

The results for model (21) gave a standard error of regression 0.461 which is approximately 18 percent higher than (20). Model (22) on the other hand resulted in a standard error of 0.348 which is about 11 percent lower than (20). Therefore the model equation (22) was accepted, the results obtained are shown below.

$$
B^{\prime}=0.0611 \mathrm{Se} \mathrm{e}^{-0.037 \mathrm{~A} \mathrm{~T}}
$$

where $p=0.037$ ( 0.0024 )
*
$b=0.0611$
( 0.0021 )
S.E. of the regression $=0.348$

Annual basal area increments for various levels of site index and no thinning were plotted in Figure 4.2 based on function (23). Annual gross basal area increment declines with age in Figure 4.2.

The effect of various intensities of thinning on the annual basal area increment for a plantation with a site index of 20 metres is shown in Figure 4.3.
annual basal area increment by age of plantation teak in burma

FIGURE 4.3
annual basal area increment by age of plantation teak in burma


In Figure 4.3 the basal area increment at age 50 is 0.25 sq m per ha for a thinning index 0.8 and 0.45 sq m per ha for a heavier thinning index of 0.6 . Basal area increment of a site index 30 m crop at the age of 50 years with no thinning (Figure 4.2) is about the same as the basal area increment for a site index 20 m crop when thinned to the thinning index of 0.8 at the same age. At age 50 years, a site index 20 m crop thinned to 0.6 thinning index (Figure 4.3 ) has a much higher basal area increment than a site index 30 m crop with no thinning. These findings seem sensible because heavier thinning intensities of $60 \%$ have been advocated in order to achieve faster rates of growth in Burma teak plantations (Ohn 1967).

Because of the nature of data used in this study, the basal area increment obtained by the relationship (23) is to be applied for predictions over a 5 year interval. If there are no thinnings in the next 5 years then the annual basal area increment is to be reduced to the rate of growth without thinning. To prevent the sharp drop in increment rates, the averages have been taken after the period of 5 years if there is no thinning.

### 4.2 STAND VOLUME FUNCTIONS

Laurie and Ram (1940) developed a crop form factor to calculate the volume of the main crop. Although they were satisfied with the form factors of the main crop, they were not able to develop the appropriate form factors for the thinnings due to high variation in the data. They had to make rough estimates of the form factors for estimating the volume of thinnings. The same approach was taken in the present study as no other data were available.

The form factor of the main crop volume to a diameter limit of $8^{\prime \prime}$ over bark (approx. 20 cm ) was plotted against site quality and age in Figure 4.4. Site qualities SQ I, SQ II, SQ III, and SQ IV correspond to roughly site indices of $35 \mathrm{~m}, ~ 30 \mathrm{~m}, ~ 26 \mathrm{~m}$ and 20 m respectively. Thus form factor seems to be a function of site index and age, and the following functions were fitted using GLIM (Baker Nglder 1978).

$$
\begin{align*}
& F=a+b S+c A  \tag{24}\\
& F=a+b S+c A+d A^{2} \\
& F=a+b S+c A+d A^{2}+e A^{3} \tag{25}
\end{align*}
$$

$F=a+b S+c A+\quad+f S^{2}$
$F=a+b S+c A+d A^{2}+f^{2}$
$F=a+b S+c A+g S A$

2
$\mathrm{F}=\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{bS}+\mathrm{cA}+\mathrm{dA} \quad+\mathrm{gSA}$

For equations (24) to (30), the symbols represent :
$F=$ form factor;
$S=$ site index in metres with base age 40 years;
$A=$ age of plantation;
$a, b, c, d, e, f, \& g$ are constant and coefficients.

The function (30) gave the best fit based on the residual sum of squares (see Appendix IV). The parameters for other regressions from (24) to (30) are also 1isted in Appendix IV.


The function (30) is accepted for estimating the volume of the crops. The estimates for the accepted function (30) can also be shown below.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{F}= & -0.466+.013 \mathrm{~S}-.000068 \mathrm{~S} \mathrm{~A}+. .0143 \mathrm{~A}-.0000897 \mathrm{~A} \\
& (0.021)(.0006)(.0000136) \\
& \text { S.E. of the regression }=.00158
\end{aligned}
$$

The relationship of form factor to age and site index is plotted in Figure 4.4 based on equation (31).

### 4.3 MORTALITY

There is no literature reporting on mortality in teak plantations. Laurie and Ram (1940) did not mention mortality, and it is assumed that there was no mortality when thinnings were carried out at short intervals. Unsound teak trees, including the diseased and suppressed trees, are felled during thinning and included in thinning yields rather than mortality. Tint and Schneider rates of natural forests in their study of plantation teak but these seem inappropriate. For example a teak plantation with an initial spacing of $6^{\prime} \times 6^{\prime}$ (approx. $2 \mathrm{~m} \times 2 \mathrm{~m}$ ) was found in Zigon Forest Division. The plantation had been left untreated due to the out-break of World War II and when found it was 60 years old but the planted trees had all survived although they were very small. Thus in this study, mortality was assumed to be zero. Future studies of mortality, especially in younger stands, would be desirable to confirm this assumption and to provide data from which a mortality function might be developed.

## CHAPTER 5

## MANAGEMENT PLANNING BASED ON COMPUTER SIMULATION MODELS

### 5.1 COMPUTER SIMULATION MODELS FOR TEAK PLANTATIONS

Computer simulation models are now widely used for management planning of plantations in Australia (Australian Forestry Council 1978, Myint 1979). A simulation model for management planning of pine plantations in New South Wales has been reported by McMullan (1978) and Wilson. (1978). The APM Forests Pty. Ltd. also developed computer simulation models (Hall 1974, Dargavel et al. 1975, and Turner et al. 1977). Management planning of the softwood plantations of the Victorian Forests Commission with the aid of computer simulation models is also reported (Gibson et al. 1971, Opie 1972, Wild. 1979 and Tregonning and Aeperlif 1979 . Simulation models were also developed by Leech (1973, 1978) for management planning in South Australia as reported by Lewis et al. (1976).

The growth and yield models developed in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 can be used to construct, a stand simulation model. The top height function, equation 15 (Chapter 3), can be used for estimating site index as well as for predicting the top height at any age. A simple computer program has been prepared which tabulates the top height for various ages and given site index as shown in Table 5.1. A copy of the program is attached in Appendix V. Annual basal area increment of a plantation can be estimated by means of equation 23 (Chapter 4) given the values of thinning intensity to be used and site index. Basal area at any age. can thus be derived by summing annual increments and adding
TAELE 5-1
tof height by site ingex of flantation teak

- IT NURMA

the value to the initial basal area. The volume of timber can be predicted by the form factor relationship, equation (31), (Chapter 4). Because insufficient data were available, the volume of thinnings could not be estimated accurately. Based on the natural teak volume tables for sound and unsound trees (Silviculturist 1917), the form factor for the volume of thinnings was assumed to be $80 \%$ of that for the main crop. However, the volume function of the thinnings requires further research.

A simple computer simulation model for teak plantations in Burma has been prepared, based on the functions estimated and presented in earlier Chapters and as shown in Appendix.VI. The computer program requires the following information to be provided to initiate a simulation run :-
(1) Age in years.
(2) Thinning index.
(3) Initial basal area in sq $m$ per ha.
(4) Top height in m.
(5) Site index.

The first three data fields must be supplied, and either top height in field 4 or site index in field 5 must be given. Following the first record, successive records describing the age and thinning index of the next thinning must be supplied. Stands comparable in initial specification with site qualities I and III of the yield tables by Laurie and Ram (1940) have been simulated by the program and the results are reproduced in Tables 5.2 and 5.3 respectively. Total basal area at age 80 years by the yield tables of Laurie and Ram, (1940) for site qualities $I$ and III are equivalent to 65.8 and 43.6 sq m per ha, so the agreement between the yield tables and the simulation model is fairly close (Tables 5.2 and 5.3).

|  |  | FInAL | CROF | MAIN | CROF |  | THIț | IINGS | $\begin{array}{r} \text { CUPUL } \\ \text { THI } \\ \text { Yi } \end{array}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { GFA } \\ & \text { TOT } \end{aligned}$ YIEL | $A \mathrm{AL}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | TOF' <br> HEIGHT | E.A. | VOL | E, A. | VOL. |  | E.A. | VOL. | E.A. | VOL. | E.A. |  |
| YR | M | $50 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{HA}$ | cU M/HA | 50 M/HA | CU M/HA | S日 | M/HA | CU M/HA SQ | M/HA | CU M/HA | S0 H/HA | CU M/HA |
| 10 | 14 | 20.6 | 27.0 | 13.6 | 19.1 |  | 7.0 | $7+9$ | 7.0 | 7.7 | 20.6 | 27.0 |
| 15 | 20 | 21.4 | 58.3 | 15.8 | 45.5 |  | 5.6 | 12.8 | 12.6 | 20.7 | 28.4 | 66.2 |
| 20 | 24 | 22.4 | 78.2 | 17.9 | 81.9 |  | 4.5 | 16.4 | 17.0 | 37.0 | 34.9 | 118.9 |
| 25 | 28 | 23.3 | 144.0 | 20.0 | 127.4 |  | $3 \cdot 3$ | 16.6 | 20.3 | $53 \cdot 6$ | 40.3 | 181.1 |
| 30 | 30 | 24.4 | 174.4 | 22.0 | 173.5 |  | 2.4 | 15.9 | 22.7 | 69.5 | 44.7 | 248.0 |
| 35 | 33 | 25.6 | 245.5 | 23.3 | 227.5 |  | 2.3 | 18.0 | 25.0 | 87.5 | 48.3 | 315.0 |
| 40 | 35 | 26.2 | 271.7 | 24.1 | 272.8 |  | 2.1 | 19.0 | 27.1 | 10.6.5 | 51.3 | 379.2 |
| 45 | 37 | 26.6 | 331.6 | 24.7 | 312.8 |  | 1.9 | 13.8 | 29.0 | 125.3 | 53.7 | 438.1 |
| 50 | 38 | 26.3 | 363.8 | 24.9 | $34.3+2$ |  | 1.9 | 20.7 | 30.9 | 146.0 | 55.8 | 489.1 |
| 55 | 39 | 26.6 | 385.7 | 24.8 | 363.8 |  | 1.9 | 21.9 | 32.7 | 167.9 | 57.5 | 531.7 |
| 60 | 40 | 26.2 | 397.4 | 24.4 | 374.9 |  | 1.3 | 22.6 | 34.6 | 190.5 | 59.0 | 5.65 .3 |
| 65 | 41 | 25.6 | 399.5 | 23.8 | 376.8 |  | 1.8 | 22.7 | 36.4 | 213.1 | 60.2 | 590.0 |
| 70 | 42 | 24.9 | 372.9 | 23.1 | 370.6 |  | 1.7 | 22.3 | 33.1 | 235.5 | 61.2 | 606.0 |
| 75 | 42 | 24.0 | 377.9 | 22.1 | 353.3 |  | 1.9 | 24.6 | 40.0 | 260.0 | 62.1 | 613.4 |
| 80 | 43 | 22.8 | 359.7 | 22, 3 | 359.7 |  | . 0 | + 0 | 40.0 | 260.0 | 62.3 | 619.7 |


|  |  | FITAL CROF |  | MATin | CROF |  | THIN: | U14GS | $\begin{gathered} \text { CURULATIUE } \\ \text { THITNTNG } \\ \text { YIEIM } \end{gathered}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { GFAMI } \\ & \text { TOTAA } \\ & \text { YIELI } \end{aligned}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AGE | HEIGHT | E. A. | VOL. | E.A. | VOL. |  | E.A. | VOL. | E.A. | val. | F.A. | VOL. |
| YF | M | S0 M/HA | DU M/HA | SQ M/HA | CU M/HA | 50 | W/HA | CJ M/HA 50 | M/HA | CU M/HA | SQ M/HA | CU M/HA |
| 10 | 11 | 14.2 | . 0 | $9+2$ | . 0 |  | 5.0 | . 0 | 5.0 | . 0 | 14.2 | . 0 |
| 15 | 14 | 15.0 | 8,3 | 11.7 | 6.7 |  | 3.3 | 1.5 | 3.3 | 1.5 | 20.0 | 8.3 |
| 20 | 13 | 16.5 | 24.5 | 13.7 | 21.0 |  | 2.8 | 3.4 | 11.1 | 5.0 | 24.7 | 26.0 |
| 25 | 20 | 17.6 | 45.2 | 15.1 | 40.0 |  | 2.5 | 5.2 | 13.5 | 10.2 | 28.7 | 50.2 |
| 30 | 23 | 18.4 | 68.3 | 16.4 | 62.1 |  | 2.0 | 6.1 | 15.6 | 16.3 | 31.9 | 78.4 |
| 35 | 24 | 19.0 | 92.2 | 17.3 | 85.4 |  | 1.7 | 6.8 | 17.3 | 23.1 | 34.6 | 108.5 |
| 40 | 26 | 19.5 | 115.4 | 18.2 | 105.9 |  | 1.4 | 6.6 | 18.6 | 29.6 | 36.8 | 138.5 |
| 45 | 27 | 20.0 | 137.0 | 18.6 | 129.2 |  | 1.4 | 7.8 | 20.0 | 37.4 | 38.6 | 166.6 |
| 50 | 28 | 20.1 | 154.7 | 18.9 | 147.2 |  | 1.2 | 7.5 | 21.3 | 44.9 | 40.1 | 192.1 |
| 55 | 29 | 20.2 | 168.9 | 18.9 | 160.7 |  | 1.2 | 8.2 | 22.5 | 53.1 | 41.4 | 213.8 |
| 60 | 30 | 20.0 | 177.9 | 18.6 | 167.8 |  | 1.4 | 10.1 | 23.9 | 63.2 | 42.5 | 231.0 |
| 65 | 30 | 19.5 | 181.2 | 18.3 | 172.4 |  | 1.2 | 8.8 | 25.0 | 72.0 | 43.4 | 244.5 |
| 70 | 31 | 19.1 | 131.0 | 17.7 | 170.7 |  | 1.3 | 10.3 | 26.4 | 82.3 | 44.1 | 253.1 |
| 75 | 31 | 18.4 | 175.4 | 17.1 | 165.5 |  | 1.3 | 10.0 | 27.7 | 92.3 | 44.8 | 257.8 |
| 80 | 32 | 17.6 | 168.8 | 17.6 | 168.8 |  | . 0 | . 0 | 27.7 | 92.3 | 45.3 | 261.0 |

In practice 10 year thinning intervals are adopted for younger plantations and a 20 year interval for older plantations, together with heavier thinning intensities than those used in the yield tables. A less frequent thinning and heavier thinning intensity with a thinning index of 0.85 was also simulated for a site quality $I$ plantation and the results are summarized in Table 5.4. At age 80 years, the main crop has a. basal area of 36.1 sq m per ha (Table 5.4 ) compared to 22.8 sq m per ha (Table 5.2) for the yield table regime. The volume of the main crop and total yield also increased. Although not shown in the tables, the number of trees per hectare retained in a heavier thinning regime is of course less than that in the lighter thinnings and thus the individual size of the trees in the main crop is larger than in the case of the heavier thinning regime, as would be expected.

This simulation model may be useful in estimating the yields likely to result from different regimes. Development of a similar but improved model is a pre-requisite to any development of optimisation models for planning.

### 5.2 SIMULATION MODELS FOR NATURAL TEAK FORESTS

Building simulation models for natural teak forests is more complex than for plantation teak. Natural teak forests are usually managed on a polycyclic basis and the teak trees are mixed with many other tropical species. The variation in site productivity and species composition is also very high. Most importantly, little is known about the growth characteristics in relation to the site productivity, the Schneider natural environment, or to the treatment. Nevertheless, Tint and/" (1980) developed a simulation model for natural teak forests in Burma.
TABLE 5-4 Simulation of a S.Q.I plantation with more heavier thinning strategy.
GROWTH ANE YIELE OF FLAFTATION TEAK IN EURMA
SITE INIEX = 35.0 (METEES)


Their simulation model is applicable to the inventory data from natural teak forests and is used to determine the yield or annual allowable cut.

At present the inventory data for natural teak forests is derived from two sources :-
(1) Random sampling surveys; and
(2) Complete enumeration during girdling operations.

Random sampling surveys are well developed in Burma (Tin et al. 1973), and the growing stock and species composition of a forest at a certain year can be estimated with reasonable precision for the large areas involved in regional planning. However, these inventories are not precise for small areas of forest; for example, a compartment, a group of compartments or even a felling series. On the other hand, the complete enumeration of teak trees left at the time of girdling provides excellent data for teak in a compartment or part thereof. However, these enumeration data are recorded only at the time of girdling operation, which usually is only once in a thirty year felling cycle. Furthermore, the entire growing stock is not enumerated, smaller teak and all other species being unrecorded. At present these enumeration data are used as the basis for management planning within a Forest Division.

Simulation models for natural teak forests will play an important part in planning once a fully computer-based planning system has been developed. A computer system for processing random sampling survey data of natural teak forests has been already developed (Myint 1976) but
management strategies cannot be simulated on inventory data for natural teak forests ${ }^{\text {u }}$ until simulation models are formulated and developed. The enumeration data could also be automated by designing a computer data file and storing the records, so that they will be applicable for control of management operations at the Divisional or even the forest reserve level.

Moserland Hall(1969) and Moser (1972) showed how to develop growth and yield models for uneven-aged stands. Leary (1970) also identified various systems of stand dynamics and illustrated some models based on systems of differential equations. These methods should be considered in developing the growth and yield models for natural teak forests in Burma.

Consideration should be given to the interim enumeration of teak trees five or ten years after girdling in conjunction with other silvicultural operations at those times. At those times, data should be collected for site classification and species composition. Such data would be very useful for analysis of the growth characteristics of natural teak forest as well as for general management purposes.

### 5.3 POSSIBLE OPTIMISATION MODELS

In the management of plantations which are far more capital intensive than natural forests, it is important to select the best set of silvicultural regimes while satisfying the various constraints on demand and resources. Optimisation models for the purpose have been illustrated by Ware and Clutter (1971) and Curtis (1962). Dargavel (1978) reported on an optimisation model developed for the pine
plantations of APM Forests Pty. Ltd. in Victoria. An optimisation model for yield scheduling in the pine plantations of New South Wales has also been developed by Wilson (1976, 1979). Optimisation models for management of natural forest stands were also reported by Loucks (1964), Pearse Paine (1966), Nautiyal| and (1967), and Campbell et al. (1979).

Optimisation models can be developed for both even aged and uneven aged forests. Once the basic growth and yield simulation models are developed, optimisation models can readily be formulated. These models can be very helpful for national level planning. Furthermore, even if the forests are managed under multiple goals and for multiple products, optimisation models can still be developed using the goal programming approach as reported by Navon (1971), Bel1 (1975), Field (1973, 1978), Rustagi (1976, 1978), and USDA (1977).

Optimisation models involve substantial data processing and may be quite costly. The optimal solutions, however, may lead to much greater efficiencies in terms of economics or production.

The following recommendations are advanced for future research and development of optimisation models directed toward improving the planning of the management of teak forests of Burma :-
(1) Further research is needed to refine growth and yield models for both artificial as well as natural teak forests.
(2) The inventory and enumeration data should be processed by computer and the necessary programs for these developed.
(3) The enumeration system should be restructured to incorporate
further data collection at periodic intervals after a girdling operation.
(4) Simulation models should be applied for regional level planning as they are less costly and simplerthan optimisation models.
(5) Optimisation models should be developed for national level forest management planning for the data for national models are available and many practices, for example exploitable girth limits, are standardized nationally. Computers are only accessible at head offices, and this is the main factor which hinders the development of regional optimisation models.

### 5.4 REVIEW

The computer simulation model (Appendix VI) developed for teak plantations in Burma shows promising results for the future management of the plantations. The model, presented in Chapters 3 and 4, i.e. functions (15), (23) and (31), incorporates site variations and allows for the intensity of thinning. It predicts top height and basal area growth and estimates stand timber volume at any age. The variables required for the control of simulation are very simple and readily obtained by field measurements.

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Plot Id.





Average
diameter
Number
per
Topight
Age Basal area Volume
Plot Id.
Cm
m
yr sq m cu m






# APPENDIX I (concld.) <br> BURMA PLANTATION TEAK SAMPLE PLOT DATA 




## APPENDIX II

## PARAMETERS ESTIMATED FOR.TOP HEIGHT FUNCTIONS

A. Top height functions by Forest Divisions
(i) MODEL : $H=n / p[1-\operatorname{EXP}(-p(1-m) A)] * *(1 /(1-m))$


Note : LT $=$ Less Than.
A. Top height functions by Forest Divisions (contd.)
(ii) MODEL : H = n/p [1-EXP( -pA )]

| Forest Division | n | p | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S.E. of } \\ & \text { regression } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ataran | $\begin{array}{r} 0.831133 \\ (0.25828) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0191585 \\ (0.010915) \end{array}$ | 0.13512 |
| Insein | $\begin{array}{r} 0.340866 \\ (0.19588) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0021987 \\ (0.007327) \end{array}$ | 0.08573 |
| Katha | $\begin{array}{r} 0.944636 \\ (0.04155) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0308207 \\ (0.020163) \end{array}$ | 0.24050 |
| Magwe | $\begin{gathered} 0.862077 \\ (0.19184) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0601972 \\ (0.012517) \end{array}$ | 0.14533 |
| Myitkyina | $\begin{array}{r} 1.404012 \\ (0.50689) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0327663 \\ (0.0229 .98) \\ -6 \end{array}$ | 0.18942 |
| Prome | $\begin{array}{r} 0.213021 \\ (0.15058) \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LT } 0.1 \times 10 \\ & (0.005401) \end{aligned}$ | 0.08439 |
| Pyinmana | $\begin{array}{r} 1.835401 \\ (0.21999) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0603047 \\ (0.010588) \end{array}$ | 0.25413 |
| Tharrawaddy | $\begin{array}{r} 1.398785 \\ (0.11119) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0425035 \\ (0.005111) \end{array}$ | 0.20387 |
| Thaton | $\begin{array}{r} 1.437867 \\ (0.18446) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0487390 \\ (0.007361) \end{array}$ | 0.11970 |
| Thaungyin | $\begin{gathered} 0.653684 \\ (0.73612) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LT } 0.009 \\ & (0.028445) \end{aligned}$ | 0.28286 |
| Taungoo | $\begin{gathered} 0.473462 \\ (4.16161) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { LT } 0.009 \\ & (0.130955) \end{aligned}$ | 0.03473 |
| Yamethin | $\begin{array}{r} 2.254224 \\ (1.07290) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0772864 \\ (0.044268) \end{array}$ | 0.17955 |
| Zigon | $\begin{gathered} 1.034694 \\ (0.07543) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.0273807 \\ (0.003293) \end{array}$ | 0.17566 |

Note : LT $=$ Less Than.
B. Top height functions by 01d Si.te Qualities

MODEL : $\mathrm{H}=\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{p}[1-\operatorname{EXP}(-\mathrm{p}(1-\mathrm{m}) \mathrm{A})] * *(1 /(1-\mathrm{m}))$

| Forest Division | n | p | m | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S.E. of } \\ & \text { regression } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Site Quality I |  |  | -6 |  |
|  | 8.420590 | 0.0735609 | 0.27939x10 | 2.66414 |
|  | (7.40726) | (0.039819) | (0.294226) |  |
|  |  |  | -11 |  |
| Site Quality II | 7.313680 | 0.0719574 | LT $0.1 \times 10$ | 5.40191 |
|  | (1.59862) | (0.011022) | (0.078066) |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Site Quality III | 6.530480 | 0.0744982 | LT $0.1 \times 1.0$ | 5.25126 |
|  | (1.20774) | (0.011789) | (0.073558) |  |
|  |  |  | -11 |  |
| Site Quality IV | 5.270765 | 0.0784982 | LT $0.1 \times 10$ | 5.01245 |
|  | (2.92306) | (0.040844) | (0.070008) |  |
| Site Quality V | 2.278185 | 0.5296502 | 0.6078029 | 2.41915 |
|  | (0.51612) | (2.863150) | (1.379810) |  |

Note: LT = Less Than.

APPENDIX III
ESTIMATED PARAMETERS FOR REGIONAL TOP HEIGHT FUNCTIONS

| Region | p | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S.E. of } \\ & \text { regression } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Heavy rainfall regions | $\begin{gathered} 0.0877 \\ (0.0073) \end{gathered}$ | 0.1085 |
| Medium rainfall regions | $\begin{gathered} 0.1072 \\ (0.0056) \end{gathered}$ | 0.1650 |
| Light rainfall regions | $\begin{gathered} 0.0985 \\ (0.0049) \end{gathered}$ | 0.1902 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { All } \\ & \text { regions } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0.0980 \\ (0.0041) \end{gathered}$ | 0.1813 |

Analysis of variance to test the significance of the difference between functions for rainfall regions.

| Source | RSS | DF | VAR | F |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Heavy RF | 0.106 | 34 | 0.0031 |  | NOTE : As residual |
|  |  |  |  |  | sum of squares $\dagger$ is reduced $\dagger \dagger$ |
| Medium RF | 0.490 | 65 | 0.0075 |  | by combining regions, it |
| Light RF | 3.582 | 165 | 0.0217 |  | is to say that there is no difference between |
|  |  |  |  |  | functions. |
| Total | $4.178 \dagger$ | 255 |  |  |  |
| All Reg. | $4.210 \dagger$ | 257 | 0.0164 |  |  |
| Difference | $0.032 \dagger$ | 2 | 0.016 | 0.97 | ns (= not significant) |

B. Top height functions for base age 40

MODEL : H = S $[(1-\operatorname{EXP}(-\mathrm{pA})) /(1-\operatorname{EXP}(-\mathrm{p} 40))]$

| Region | p | $\begin{aligned} & \text { S.E. of } \\ & \text { regression } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Heavy rainfall regions | $\begin{gathered} 0.0713 \\ (0.0052) \end{gathered}$ | 0.1177 |
| Medium rainfall <br> regions | $\begin{gathered} 0.0139 \\ (0.0040) \end{gathered}$ | 0.3508 |
| Light rainfall regions | $\begin{gathered} 0.0587 \\ (0.0047) \end{gathered}$ | 0.2423 |
| A11 <br> regions | $\begin{gathered} 0.0338 \\ (0.0029) \end{gathered}$ | 0.3173 |

Analysis of variance to test the significance of the difference between functions for rainfall regions.

| Source | RSS | DF | VAR | F |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Heavy RF | 0.471 | 34 | 0.0139 |  | NOTE : $\dagger$ The difference |
| Medium RF | 9.632 | 65 | 0.148 |  | are highly significant** |
| Light RF | 9.165 | 156 | 0.058 |  |  |
| Total | 19.276 | 255 |  |  |  |
| A11 Reg. | 25.888 | 257 | 0.100 |  |  |
| Differenc | $6.612 \dagger$ | 2 | 3.306 |  |  |

## APPENDIX IV

## ESTIMATED PARAMETERS FOR STEM TIMBER FORM FACTOR FUNCTIONS

$$
\text { MODEL : } F=a+b S+c A+d A^{2}+e A^{3}+f S^{2}+g S A
$$



```
where
F = form factor;
S = site index;
A = age;
a,b,c,d,e,f and g= constant and coefficients.
```

Individual $F$-tests for each model reveal that all the models, i.e. 24 to 30 , are significant at a probability of $99 \%$. In terms of the error sum of squares (ESS) Model (30) is most desirable with Model (25) next to it. Model (30) involves one more coefficient than Model
(25), therefore the significance of including that extra variable is tested as follows :-
Source Sum of Squares DF Variance F

| Model (25) | 0.79331 | 3 | 0.26444 | $1236 \ldots * *$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ESS for (25) | 0.01219 | 57 | 0.00021 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Model (30) | 0.79705 | 4 | 0.19926 | 1321. ** |
| Extra coefficient | 0.00374 | 1 | 0.00374 | 24.9 ** |
| ESS for (30) | 0.00844 | 56 | 0.00015 |  |

Total
0.8055
60

NOTE : $* *=$ Significant at $99 \%$ probability.

```
C: THTS FFOGFAM WTLI TAEULATE TOF HEIGHT TARLE
```



```
                                    AKM
                                    4/4/81.
        FEAL H(16,15)
        FEALF/10.03363224/
        IU}=(1,0-EXF(-F*40.0)
        min 100 I = 1,16
            ACE=5 TO 80
        A = IO 100 5 % = 1, 15
SITE IUIIEX=7.5 TO 42,5
    100 CONTINUE
        H(I,5+O)+5*2*50-5*(1.0-EXF(-F*A))/IIU
            FFINT THE GENEFATETI TABLE
        WFITE(6,60)(T-3,I,T=10,40,5),I-3
    60 FOFMAT (1H1, 30X,
        +'TOF'HETGHT BY SITE INTIEX OF FLANTATION TE゙AK'//
        + 4\sigmaX, 'IN BUFiMA'//
        {10X,84(1H-)/
        + 25X, TOF,HEIGHT (METFES)'
        + 12X, 'AGE', 2X, %7(1HW)/
        +45x, STTE T&MEX,/
        +17x, 77(1H-),
        + 17和 7(I3,,5,, I3, ',0'), I3, , 5'/
        +10X,84(1H-)
        WFITE(b,GI) (I*S, (H(I,J), J=1,15), I=1,16)
    61 FOEMAT(10X, I5, 2X, 15F5,1%=1,
        WFITE (S,62)
    62 FOFMAT(/10X, 84(1H-)///////////////////)
        STOF
        ENII
```

AFFENTIXVT
(TEAKA (1) +STM IS A SIMULATIOM FFOGFAM TO SIMULATE


AFFENIIX UI (CONTI)

AFFENDIX UI (CONTII)

A COMMOM
FEAL N
MATA
GROSS
FETUFIV
END
FEAL FUI
FUACTION SITE
FUNCTION TO COM
cocrs
ycus
ver

uou
SUBFDUTINE STOFE

AFFEEIIIX UI (CONTII)


[^1]SITE ITHEX
26.0
SITE ITUEX
35,0

GROWTH AND YIELII OF FLAHTATION TEAK IH EURMA
AGE THINNING INAEX SIMULATION CORTROLS EASAL AREA HEIGHT
 oncomagronagagao

[^2]SITE THLEX
35.0
AFFENITX YI (CONELI)
GEOUTH ANL YIELIT OF FLANTATION TEAK IH EUFMA
NULATIOH
ABABABA
$20 \rightarrow 6$
-
-
G
E
E
Z

cow undo
$\frac{0}{2}$
$2-1$
2
2
$\square$
$\square$

*     +         *             *                 * 




[^0]:    Source : Kyi (1969).

[^1]:    EFF LIFLF

[^2]:    

