

1 Food Security and Forest Access in the Colombian 2 and Peruvian Amazon

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5 Abstract

6 Food security is vital for a decent life, particularly in early development and with
7 lasting adult health effects. Forests have historically played a key role by offering
8 essential ecosystem services and a direct source of diverse, nutrient-rich foods
9 and medicines. This study explores the link between forests and food security in
10 Colombian and Peruvian Amazon communities. We analyze the four dimensions
11 of food security-availability, stability, access, and utilization-within the context
12 of forest access. Panel data from households in each country was collected to
13 calculate a multidimensional household-level food security index. Our findings
14 reveal that households with forest access have higher food security. However,
15 the impact varies across countries and communities. In Colombia, Indigenous
16 households benefit more from forest access, while Peru showcases distinct
17 dynamics due to a higher share of mestizo communities. Forest cover,
18 biodiversity, ethnicity, and accessibility shape this relationship. Indigenous
19 communities rely on less degraded forests for food security, underscoring the
20 importance of forest preservation for ancestral practices and sustenance. These
21 findings suggest that the impact of forests on food security depends on the
22 quality of the forest, the ethnicity of those accessing the forest, and the proximity
23 and ease of accessing the forest.

24 **Keywords:** Food security, Forest access, Amazon, Ethnicity

25 **1 Introduction**

26 It is increasingly recognized that many rural households depend on forests for
27 their food security (Olesen, Hall, and Rasmussen 2022), income (Angelsen et al.
28 2014), poverty reduction (Mukul et al. 2016), and well-being (Kuhnlein et al.
29 2013). Forests contribute to rural food security by providing wild foods such as
30 edible plants, nuts, seeds, wild meat, or bushmeat (Rasmussen, Watkins, and
31 Agrawal 2017). There are roughly 1.6 billion people who are directly dependent
32 on forests (FAO 2010), all of whom rely upon wild foods from forests for their
33 dietary diversity, nutrition, and broader health (Ickowitz et al. 2014; Powell et al.
34 2015; T. Sunderland 2023).

35 This dependence on natural resources, particularly forests, is more substantial
36 in highly forested areas over long distances from urban populated centers and
37 markets (Sunderlin et al. 2005). Belcher, Achdiawan, and Dewi (2015) investigate
38 the influence of forest proximity on the livelihoods of rural households in a poor
39 region of India. The authors show how rural household income is more significant
40 among communities closer to forests. However, as Miller and Hajjar (2020) show,
41 forest proximity improves several components of well-being that cannot be easily
42 monetized. This approach focuses on several measures of household well-being
43 rather than a single-dimensional focus on income. It is more comprehensive to
44 think of access to natural resources as a mechanism that improves household
45 welfare in multiple dimensions, including food security.

46 Improving market access may be a mechanism that allows rural households to
47 improve their food security (Belcher, Achdiawan, and Dewi 2015; Grieg-Gran,
48 Porrás, and Wunder 2005; Kamanga, Vedeld, and Sjaastad 2009). The literature
49 emphasizes how markets enable rural households to improve their livelihoods by
50 commercializing forest products and other natural resources. However, other

51 studies on the Colombian Amazon have shown that changing diets from wild
52 meat to industrial chicken poses a food security dilemma, as the former provides
53 less nutritional balance (Van Vliet et al., 2015). Additionally, not all farmers have
54 the same socio-economic characteristics or geographical locations, factors that
55 affect the generation of income and economic activities of households.

56 However, focusing only on access to a forest obscures the importance of forest
57 quality to food security. Recent evidence suggests that more biodiverse
58 environments are linked with better nutrition outcomes (Dawson et al. 2019). For
59 households that do not have access to markets and are therefore heavily reliant
60 on forests, a healthy, biodiverse forest is crucial for the food security of these
61 households (T. C. Sunderland and Vasquez 2020). Evidence for more tree cover
62 leading to higher dietary diversity has been found in Malawi (Johnson, Jacob, and
63 Brown 2013) and Indonesia (Ickowitz et al. 2016).

64 Much of the literature regarding natural resources and food security also focuses
65 on empirical evidence based on qualitative data and case studies (Angelsen et
66 al. 2014). In a literature review, Cruz-Garcia et al., (2016) found that the link
67 between natural resources and food security was not rigorously proven, which
68 makes it difficult to draw general conclusions. Second, much of the previous
69 literature analyzes forest access statically. It supposes that it homogeneously
70 affects all households within a community, region, or country (Zenteno et al.
71 2013) disregarding household seasonality and differences.

72 This research proposes to close these gaps in the literature by: (1) providing an
73 empirical analysis that explores how forest access and tree cover affect the food
74 security of rural households in the Amazon, considering the ethnicity and social
75 characteristics of the households studied. Additionally, we (2) use panel data at
76 the household level across two seasons (rainy and dry) to measure four
77 dimensions of food security in Colombia and Peru. To study a multidimensional

78 concept such as food security, we use a statistical index that captures the
79 dimensions of availability, stability, access, and use. Subsequently, we utilize a
80 causal identification strategy through instrumental variables that allow us to
81 control endogeneity problems to estimate the causal effect of each of the forest
82 dimensions on food security.

83 The document's structure is as follows: Section II describes the study area, data
84 collection, and methodology; Section III sets out the empirical estimation strategy
85 and outlines the results; and Section IV presents the document's conclusions.

86 **2 Context and Methods**

87 **2.1 Study Site and Data Collection**

88 This research is part of the “Attaining Sustainable Services from Ecosystems
89 through Trade-Off Scenarios” project¹, which aims to comprehend the nexus
90 between ecosystem services, food security, and health in economically
91 challenged communities in diverse agricultural and forest contexts. Despite
92 sharing the Amazonian geography, Colombia and Peru exhibit contrasting social,
93 economic, and environmental attributes and varying relationships between their
94 inhabitants and the surrounding natural resources.

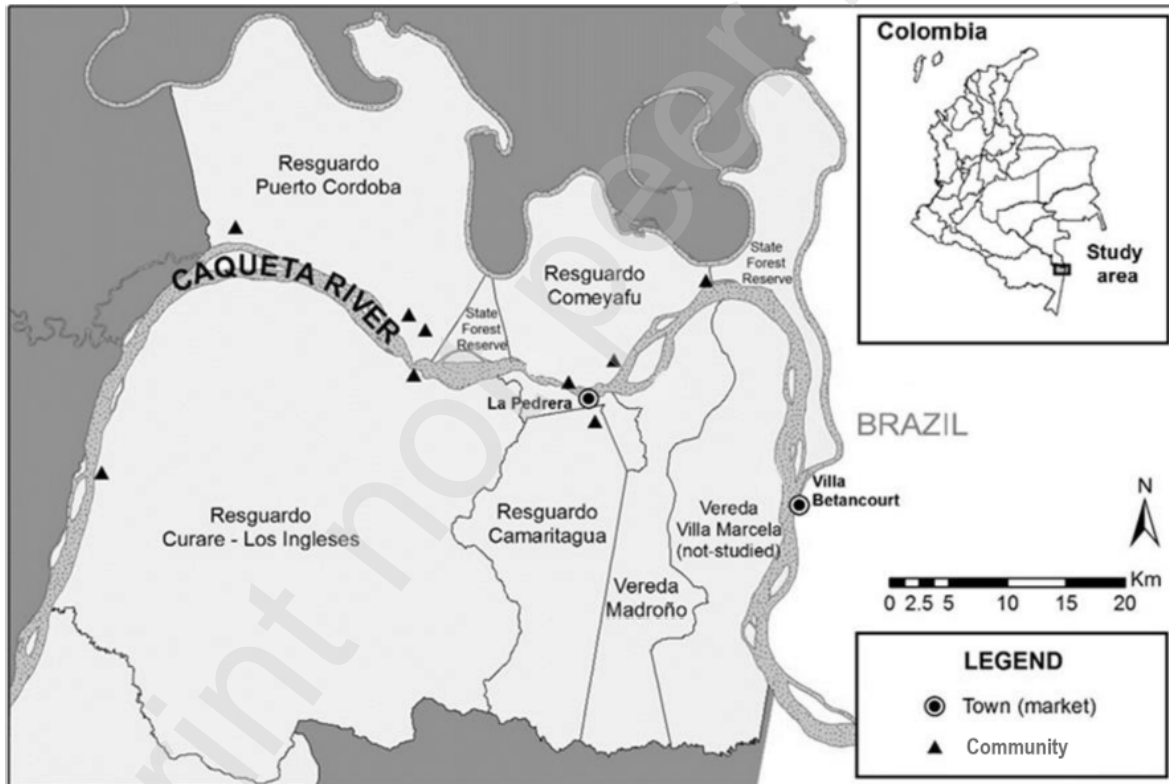
95 Panel data at the household level were gathered from rural households across
96 Colombia and Peru within the designated study areas. Data collection occurred
97 over two periods and rainy seasons, from 2014 to 2015. A total of 303 household
98 surveys were carried out in Peru, while 289 surveys were carried out in Colombia,
99 with an equal number done each season. The comprehensive information was

¹ More information: <http://espa-assets.org/>

100 acquired through household-level surveys, encompassing education, health, time
101 allocation, work dynamics, food consumption, food security, income sources,
102 loans, livestock, hunting, fishing, production activities, and agricultural sales. The
103 interviews were conducted face to face, directing the questions together to the
104 men and women of the household. Notably, all production-related inquiries
105 spanned six months for each data collection round.

106

107 2.1.1 Colombia



108

109 *Figure 1: Study Area in Colombia, Caquetá-La Pedrera*

110

111 In Colombia, our study site is La Pedrera district, located within the Amazonas
112 department (Figure 1). La Pedrera comprises four Indigenous reserves

113 containing ten communities and two *verandas*. This district has recently
 114 experienced continuous population growth, and most of the population belongs
 115 to an ethnic group. Spanning an area of 394,994 hectares (Ramirez-Gomez et al.,
 116 2015), from which, according to (Sánchez-Cuervo et al., 2012), 90% is covered by
 117 forest. Our study encompasses 11 out of the 13 Indigenous communities in the
 118 district (Table 1).

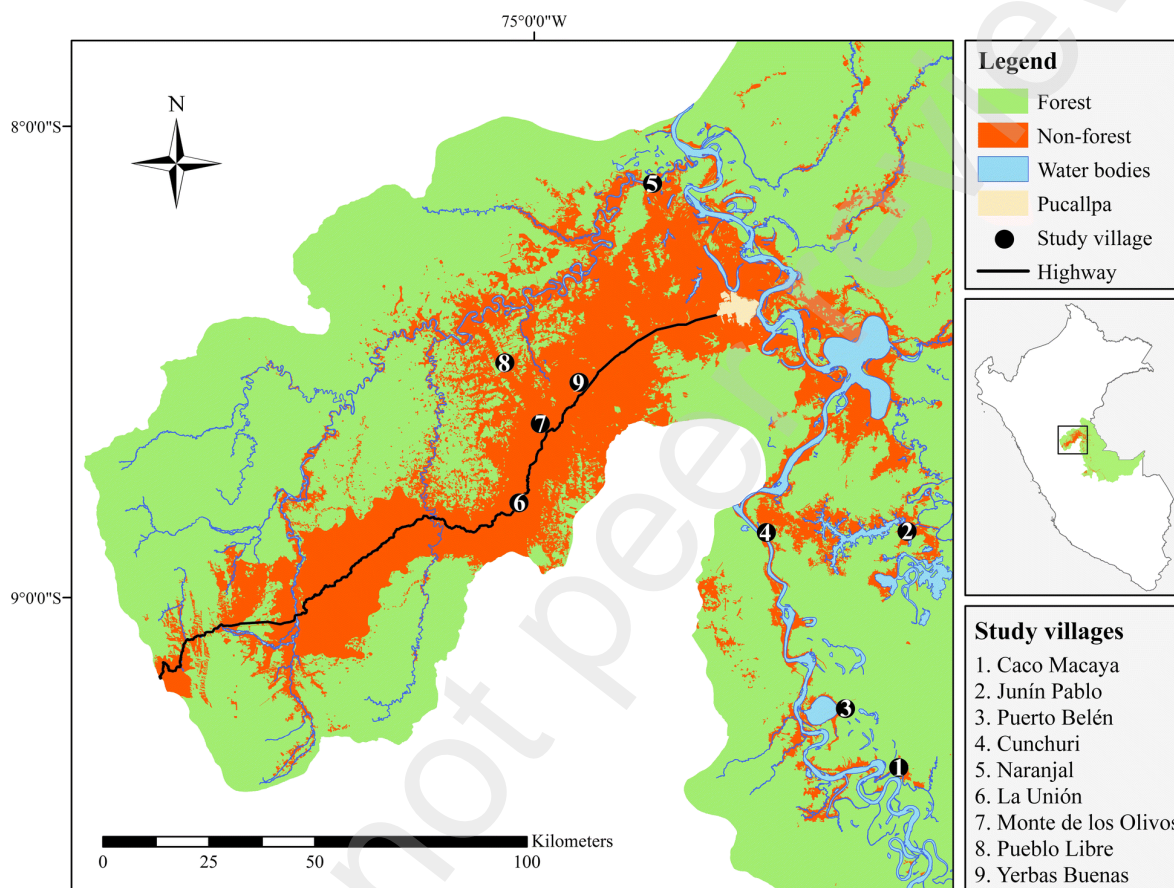
119

120 *Table 1: Communities and Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Study Area in Colombia.*

Indigenous Reservations	Communities	Population	Household Surveys Dry Season	Household Surveys Rain Season	Area (Ha)
Puerto Cordoba	Puerto Cordoba, Loma Linda, Bocas del Miriti	212	32	28	46,897
Curare	Curare, Borikada	263	30	28	237,643
Comeyafu	Tanimuca, Yacuna, Angosturas, Bacuri	520	79	71	19,023
Camaritagua	Camaritagua	64	10	6	8,456
Veredad Madrono	Veredad Madrono	56	8	6	20,351
Total		1,115	159	139	332,370

121

122 2.1.2 Peru



123

124 *Figure 2: Study Areas in Ucayali, Peru*

125

126 The study area in Peru is situated within the Amazon region, specifically in the
127 Ucayali department. Ucayali is home to an estimated population of 490,000
128 individuals, with 75% residing in urban areas, including the capital city of
129 Pucallpa, the second most populous city in the Peruvian Amazon (INEI 2011).
130 Indigenous territories encompass approximately 20% of the land in the region
131 (SICNA 2012), constituting a significant portion of the Ucayali population.

132 According to Bax et al. (2016), building a highway has increased deforestation in
 133 the region. Many mestizo settlers have established communities along the banks
 134 of the Ucayali River and its tributaries (Figure 2). Nine communities were
 135 surveyed to carry out the study: three Indigenous and six mestizo (Table 2).

136

137 *Table 2: Communities and Socioeconomic Characteristics of the Study Area in Peru*

Ethnic Group	Villages	Population	Household Surveys Dry Season	Household Surveys Rain Season	Area (Ha)
Indigenous	Caco Macaya	1,031	32	32	20
	Junin Pablo	922	21	21	8
	Puerto Belen	893	29	33	11
Mestizo	Chunchuri	604	21	21	35
	Naranjal	289	8	7	10
	La Union	959	27	28	55
	Monte de los Olivos	313	21	21	25
	Pueblo Libre	354	9	11	25
	Yerbas Buenas	337	31	30	20
Total		50,702	199	204	209

138

139 2.2 Food Security

140 Food security represents a state of complete physical and economic access to
141 sufficient, safe, and nutritious food that meets a person's dietary needs for a
142 healthy life and stability during periods of shortage and instability (Food and
143 Agriculture Organization, 2006, [Declaration 1996](#); [Webb et al. 2006](#)). Rural
144 communities' livelihoods greatly depend on their natural resources ([Ali and](#)
145 [others 2018](#); [Zavaleta et al. 2017](#)), which are affected by the climatic seasonality
146 of the regions in which they are located ([Wunder, Noack, and Angelsen 2018](#)).
147 For these reasons, we propose to create a Multidimensional household-level
148 food security index that captures the dimensions of access, availability,
149 utilization, and stability ([World Health Organization 2011](#)).

150 This index is based on detailed information at the household level of food
151 consumption, its sources, its use, and the strategies implemented to address
152 food shortages. This information allows us to capture the different dimensions
153 of household food security. Unlike previous research, we do not focus on a single
154 size of the concept or based on a single context. As several authors mention
155 ([Delvaux and Paloma 2018](#); [Headey and Ecker 2013](#); [Leroy et al. 2015](#)), food
156 safety indicators focused on a single dimension and in particular case studies,
157 tend to be criticized for having little external validity; mainly because food
158 security is a concept that involves more than one dimension, reality, and
159 evolution.

160 Within this index each dimension's approach is made through proxy variables at
161 the household level. Specifically, for the concept of access, the number of food

162 sources was used². Availability is measured with the economic valuation of the
163 total food consumed³. For the use dimension, several variables capture how food
164 can be prepared so it is consumed, and its nutrients used. First, we use the
165 energy source for cooking⁴, and second, we start the water used for food
166 consumption and processing⁵ and the source used for food consumption and
167 processing⁶. Finally, the concept of stability is analyzed, including the number of
168 times households have carried out an activity to alleviate food
169 shortages⁷(Appendix A).

² The categories of household food sources are hunting, market, farm, and gifts. This variable is continuous and takes values from 0 to 4.

³ This variable is created based on household food consumption in the last seven days and is added to the 6-month level. For both countries, the production used for self-consumption was assessed based on the information on the average price per community and per unit of measure to control community effects, scarcity, and market access in the imputation process. Once the total valuation of consumption in each country was carried out, the dollar rate was passed for the current year.

⁴ The sources for cooking food are Firewood, Paraffin, Gas, Coal, and Electricity.

⁵ Dummy variable that takes the value of 1 the water comes from a public water network or wells.

⁶ Dummy variable that takes the value of 1 the water comes from a public water network or wells.

⁷ Numerical variable from 0 to 5, where high values indicate a higher frequency with which the household has had to resort to a strategy against food shortages.

170 2.3 Forest Access

171 Recent studies establish a causal relationship between forest access and its
172 effect on determining livelihoods and income (Ali and others 2018; Larson et al.
173 2023). They analyze data taken in a single moment and define access to the
174 forest from proximity. In other words, they present the role of the forest from a
175 static perspective that affects all households in the same community equally.
176 However, these studies do not consider forest diversity, tree cover, or family
177 differences.

178 In this investigation, we propose to measure access to the forest through two
179 variables: i) household use of forest resources and ii) the distance per season
180 that each household takes to reach the forest. Punctually, we use a dummy
181 variable that takes one of the households accessing the forest to collect or hunt
182 any natural resource (food, animals, medicinal plants, construction elements,
183 etc.) and zero otherwise. To measure the concept of proximity, we take the
184 minimum distance in minutes for the household to reach the forest.

185 In Colombia, our findings reveal that more than 85% of households can access
186 the forest within an average of 12 minutes, both during dry and rainy seasons.
187 However, during the rainy season, households face greater challenges due to
188 issues with access roads, resulting in increased travel times⁸(Table 3).

189

190 *Table 3: Access to the Forest by Season in Colombia and Peru (Average time in minutes)*

Forest access	Rain Season	Dry Season	T-test (p-value) ^[*]
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⁸ For households that do not access the forest, we calculate the minimum travel time in minutes as if they were accessing and utilizing the forest during that season.

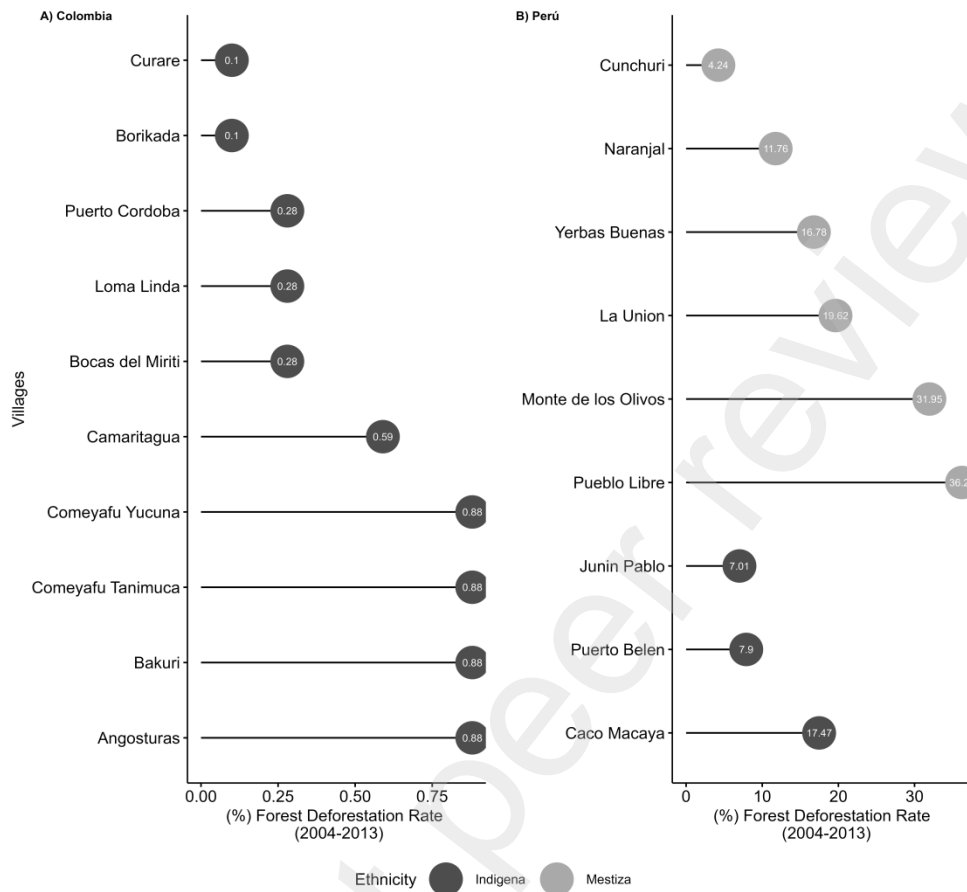
Colombia	Yes	16.3 (29.4)	7.4 (7.3)	0.001**
	No	94.4 (80.9)	23.6 (11.8)	0.033*
Perú (Indigenous)	Yes	35.4 (41.6)	39.3 (30.8)	0,6
	No	147.0 (76.6)	113.3 (45.5)	0,11
Perú (Mestizos)	Yes	30.0 (70.7)	23.0 (34.6)	0,7
	No	174.4 (116.3)	48.4 (41.3)	<0.001***

[*]Note: * p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001

191

192 Conversely, in the rural households of our study area in Peru, we observe
 193 significant variations in forest use and travel times driven by ethnicity and
 194 seasonal factors. For example, 72% of Indigenous households have access to the
 195 forest with an average travel time of 37 minutes, while only 32% of mestizo
 196 households do so, with an average travel time of 27 minutes (See Table 3).

197 Households that use forest products live close to a forest, which takes them less
 198 time to travel. However, it is essential to highlight that forest biodiversity and
 199 tree cover exhibit substantial variations across countries and communities. In the
 200 Colombian study area, forests are less deforested than the Peru study area,
 201 resulting in higher-quality forests (Blundo-Canto et al. 2020). Moreover, there
 202 are significant differences between the two ethnicities represented in the Peru
 203 study area regarding deforestation rates. Over the past nine years, Indigenous
 204 communities have experienced an average deforestation rate of 11%, whereas
 205 mestizo communities have seen a higher deforestation rate of 19% (see Figure
 206 3). These findings underscore the intricate relationship between forest access,
 207 socio-cultural factors, and environmental conditions, highlighting the need for a
 208 more comprehensive understanding of forest dynamics and their impact on
 209 livelihoods.



Note: Forest deforestation rate in Colombia is 0.58% and 16% in Peru; 11% in indigenous communities and 19% in mestizos.

211

212 *Figure 3: Forest Deforestation by Country and Ethnicity.*

213

214 **2.5 Relationship between Forest Access and Food**
 215 **Security**

216

217 To delve into the causal relationship between forest access and household-
 218 level food security, we adopt a robust estimation approach, employing ordinary
 219 least squares (OLS) specifications. Our model accounts for fixed effects related
 220 to households and seasonal variations while considering data from different
 221 countries. We formulate this analysis through the following equations:

222

$$223 \quad FoodIndex_{(i,t)} = \beta * (ForestAcess_{(i,t)}) + \varphi * X_{i,t} + U_{i,t} + v_i + \omega_t + \delta_e \quad (1)$$

224

225 Where $FoodIndex_{(i,t)}$ is the standardized principal component index that captures
226 the level of household food security i over time t ; likewise, $ForestAcess_{(i,t)}$ is a
227 dummy variable that takes the value of 1 if the household i at the time t makes
228 use of the forest and takes the value of 0 otherwise; $X_{i,t}$ is a vector of household-
229 level control variables that vary over time . v_i and ω_t are the fixed effects at the
230 household and time levels The variable δ_e is a fixed ethnic effect. Finally, $U_{i,t}$ is
231 the standard error term grouped at the household level that allows correlations
232 between unobservable variables that could affect food security levels within the
233 household i over time t .

234

235 However, equation (1) is potentially biased due to problems of simultaneity or
236 joint determination since the causal relationship can go in two directions. A
237 household's access to its forest could be determined by its level of food security
238 since accessing the forest requires a physical effort when it is in remote or hard-
239 to-reach areas.

240

241 We use a specification of instrumental variables to address the endogeneity in
242 $ForestAcess_{(i,t)}$. This methodology seeks to estimate the causal effect through a
243 variable that meets two statistical conditions i) relevance and ii) exogeneity; the
244 condition of relevance tells us that the instrumental variable must be strongly
245 correlated with the endogenous variable, while the condition of exogeneity
246 requires that the only way that the instrument affects the dependent variable is

247 through the endogenous one. The instrument proposed is the minimum average
248 distance in minutes to the forest $TimeToForest_{(i,t)}$; since this variable contains a
249 temporary variation and is also exogenous at the household level.

250

251 The instrument's relevance is based on two ideas. First, various investigations
252 have proven that the user's geographical distance to the place that provides a
253 service affects their access and use (Eckel et al. 2011; Pedrosa and Do 2011;
254 Popradit et al. 2015). Second, the climatic season of the year (rainy or dry) affects
255 the forms of access to the forest, so having the minimum time in minutes allows
256 for capturing this heterogeneity at the household level.

257 The exclusion condition indicates that conditional in the variables control the
258 minimum average distance in minutes to the forest $TimeToForest_{(i,t)}$ not correlate
259 with the error term in equation (1). From the economic perspective, the
260 instrument is exogenous but not necessarily from an econometric standpoint, so
261 it is necessary to control for possible factors that confuse the effect. It should be
262 considered that covariates potentially correlated with the instrument and could
263 impact the food security index. We control market access, positively affecting
264 food security and well-being (Stifel and Minten 2017). Therefore, we use a
265 specification of the instrumental variable with fixed effects of home and time,
266 which is given by the following equations:

267

$$268 \quad \widehat{FoodIndex}_{(i,t)} = \beta * \widehat{ForestAccess}_{(i,t)} + \varphi * X_{i,t} + U_{i,t} + v_i + \omega_t + \delta_e \quad (2)$$

$$269 \quad \widehat{ForestAccess}_{(i,t)} = \phi * TimeToForest_{(i,t)} + \varphi * X_{i,t} + U_{i,t} + v_i + \omega_t + \delta_e \quad (3)$$

270

271 In short, the coefficient β of equation (2) captures the causal effect of forest
 272 access to the food security index among households that access the forest
 273 according to their distance in minutes.

274 **3 Results**

275 **3.1 Estimating Food Security Index.**

276 Estimating the food security index allows us to capture the season's effect on
 277 household food security. The Colombian Amazon households are highly
 278 dependent on their surrounding natural resources, so it is expected that their
 279 food security will be affected during the rainy season since it is more difficult to
 280 carry out collection, hunting, and fishing activities during this time. Table 4 shows
 281 a statistically significant difference in the food security index of seven
 282 percentage points less in the rainy season compared to the dry season.

283

284 *Table 4: Estimation of Food Security Index (Colombia and Peru)*

Food Security Dimension	Colombia			Perú		
	Rain Season	Dry Season	T-test (p-value) ^[*]	Rain Season	Dry Season	T-test (p-value) ^[*]
Availability	2,469.00	4,801.00	0***	1,385.00	226	0.01**
Stability	1.34	2.56	0.37	2.26	2.53	0.22
Access	3.54	3.58	0.53	2.71	2.74	0.86
Utilization	5.46	1.6	0.09*	29.6	29.6	-
	69.53	65.62	0.51	87.5	86.18	0.73
Food Security Index ^[a]	62.36	69.88	0***	11.55	12.62	0.13

[*]Note: * p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001; ^[a]Food Security Index in Percentage (0-100); ^[b]Household percentage (%)

285

286 Among rural households in Peru, food security is lower during the rainy season
 287 than during the dry season, although this difference is not statistically significant.
 288 On average, the household food security index in the rainy season is 1.1
 289 percentage points less than in the dry season (Table 4).

290

291 Ethnicity has a preponderant role in livelihood dynamics and strategies
 292 implemented by rural households (Belcher, Achdiawan, and Dewi 2015). In Peru,
 293 Table 5 shows that, on average, the Indigenous population has a higher food
 294 security index than the mestizo population, primarily explained by a more
 295 significant number of food sources. Simultaneously, the Indigenous population's
 296 food consumption and number of food sources are more stable across seasons
 297 than the mestizo population.

298

299 *Table 5: Components Food Security Index-Peru by Ethnicity and Season.*

Variables	Indigenous				Mestizo				
	Rain Season [1]	Dry Season [2]	Annual [3]	T-test (1-2) (p-value) ^[*]	Rain Season [4]	Dry Season [5]	Annual [6]	T-test (4-5) (p-value) ^[*]	T-test (3-6) (p-value) ^[*]
Economic valuation									
Amount of food consumed in the household (\$ US)	1,218.00	1,711.00	1,464.00	0.15	1,585.00	3,903.00	2,113.00	0***	0.07*
Food scarcity intensity	2.78	2.94	2.86	0.62	1.93	2.24	2.03	0.23	0***

Variables	Indigenous				Mestizo				
	Rain Season [1]	Dry Season [2]	Annual [3]	T-test (1-2) (p-value) ^[*]	Rain Season [4]	Dry Season [5]	Annual [6]	T-test (4-5) (p-value) ^[*]	T-test (3-6) (p-value) ^[*]
Number of Food Sources	2.67	3.15	2.91	0.01**	2.75	2.50	2.58	0.01**	0***
Source Energy Kitchen (Gas) ^[b]	0.00	1.49	2.38	0.32	57.63	51.28	54.47	0.33	0***
Public Water Source ^[b]	77.61	95.52	86.57	0***	95.76	80.34	87.06	0***	0.9
Food Security Index ^[a]	13.66	13.39	13.52	0.68	9.53	13.62	10.95	0***	0***

[*]Note: * p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001; ^[a]Food Security Index in Percentage (0-100);

^[b]Household percentage (%)

300

301 3.2 Socioeconomic characteristics

302 In this section, we descriptively explore households' socioeconomic
 303 characteristics and their relationship with forest access and food security. In
 304 general, we observe that families with access to the forest and who live far from
 305 a forest have a higher food security index in both countries.

306 In Colombia, rural households that access the forest have a statistically
 307 significant average differential of 13.8 percentage points higher on the food
 308 security index than households that do not. Additionally, those who access the
 309 forest have larger families with larger *chacras* (Table 6). As the literature

310 mentions (Torres et al. 2018), many Indigenous communities rely heavily on
 311 bushmeat and forest products for food security. Households that do not access
 312 forests and are longer distances from the forest use their social capital as a
 313 source for food, through donations or food gifts.

314 *Table 6: Descriptive Socioeconomic variables by forest access in Colombia*

Variables	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]
Food Security			
Food Security Index (0-100)	67.36	53.57	0***
Percentage of Total Foods that come from the Farm	0.39	0.32	0.21
Percentage of Total Foods that come from Hunting or Collection	0.31	0	0***
Percentage of Total Foods that come from Gifts or Donations	0.12	0.38	0***
Household Socioeconomic Variables			
Households that own at least one canoe (Dummy Variable) ^[a]	0.56	0.39	0.13
Total Hectares of the Farm (Ha)	1.47	0.44	0***
Average Household Age	23.78	29.81	0.16
Number of persons in the Home	6.22	4.48	0***
Credit Access (Dummy Variable) ^[a]	0.29	0.26	0.79
Market Access Index (0-100)	13.29	18.4	0.35
Number of Subsidies	1.04	0.87	0.37
Average distance to the Forest (Minutes)	11.7	72.83	0***

Variables	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]
N			
Observations	233	33	

[*]Note: * p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001; ^[a]Household percentage

315 As in Colombia, rural households in Peru that access the forest and live a shorter
316 distance in terms of travel time from a forest have a higher food security index
317 on average. This differential is positive for Indigenous and mestizo households
318 but is only statistically significant for mestizo households. This positive
319 relationship is explained by the percentage of total household food from hunting
320 and gathering wild forest foods (Table 7). However, mestizo households, unlike
321 many Indigenous households, have greater market access, which explains why,
322 on average, they have a higher food security index⁹.

323 *Table 7: Descriptive Socioeconomic variables by forest access in Peru*

Variables	Indigenous			Mestizo		
	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]
Food Security						
Food Security Index (0-100)	13.84	12.726	0.19	14.698	9.209	0***

⁹ Previous literature has found that market access is positive with the well-being of households through agricultural production (Stifel and Minten 2017).

Variables	Indigenous			Mestizo		
	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]
Percentage of Total Foods that come from the Farm	0.218	0.144	0.04**	0.206	0.158	0.11
Percentage of Total Foods that come from Hunting or Collection	0.241	0	0***	0.148	0	0***
Percentage of Total Foods that come from Gifts or Donations	0.12	0.327	0***	0.105	0.086	0.52
Household Socioeconomic Variables						
Households that own at least one canoe (Dummy Variable) ^[a]	0.417	0.342	0.43	0.204	0.034	0***
Total Hectares of the Farm (Ha)	1.872	1.286	0.03**	8.657	11.695	0.2
Average Household Age	23.694	23.926	0.91	32.538	34.653	0.43
Number of persons in the Home	6.25	6.474	0.66	4.352	4.207	0.63
Credit Access (Dummy Variable) ^[a]	0.073	0.079	0.91	0.315	0.233	0.28
Market Access Index (0-100)	4.213	4.625	0.6	25.391	57.461	0***
Number of Subsidies	0.615	0.658	0.78	0.167	0.043	0.03**

Variables	Indigenous			Mestizo		
	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]	Forest Access	No Forest Access	T-test (p-value) ^[*]
Average distance to the Forest (Minutes)	37.385	131.053	0***	27	107.069	0***
N						
Observations	96	38		54	116	

[*]Note: * p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001; ^[a]Household percentage

3.3 Estimation results: Forest Access and Food Security

Tables 8 and 9 show the results of equation (2) for each country and ethnicity using two-stage least squares (OLS) and instrumental variables (IV). Column 1 in both tables shows the result of the OLS estimate, assuming that access to the forest is exogenous, while column 2 shows results from the regression with instrumental variables.

Table 8: Access to Forest Effect on Food Security in Colombia

Variables	Food Security Index	
	OLS (1) ^[*]	IV (2) ^[*]
Forest Access)	9.86**	11.56*

Food Security Index		
Variables	OLS (1) ^[*]	IV (2) ^[*]
	[4.73]	[6.03]
Observations	256	256
First-Stage (F-Statistic)		47.75
Season F.E	Yes	Yes
Household F.E	Yes	Yes
Set of Controls	Yes	Yes

[*]Note: * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$

333

334 In Colombia, access to the forest has a positive effect on household food security.
 335 The coefficient using the OLS model (column 1) is small and statistically
 336 significant ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, the instrumental variable methodology shows
 337 that the effect is more important and maintains the same significance level. The
 338 difference between the OLS and IV estimators confirms that the forest access
 339 variable has an attenuation bias in the OLS model due to double causality. On
 340 average, it is found that households that access the forest have a food security
 341 index of 11.56 percent points higher than households that do not access the
 342 forest (Table 8).

343

344 Consistent with what was shown in previous sections, households in Peru differ
 345 across cultures in how they access the forest and determine their food security.
 346 Among Indigenous communities, columns 1 and 2 show the OLS and IV
 347 estimators, respectively. As in Colombia, Indigenous communities that access

348 the forest have greater food security, although the effect is smaller than in
 349 Colombia. The IV estimator shows that accessing the forest has an average
 350 effect of 3.45 percentage points more among households that access the forest
 351 than households that don't (Table 9). On the other hand, for both OLS and IV
 352 estimates, among mestizo households, there is no positive effect from accessing
 353 the forest on the food security index¹⁰.

354 *Table 9: Access to Forest Effect on Food Security in Peru*

Variables	Food Security Index			
	Indigenous		Mestizo	
	OLS (1) ^[*]	IV (2) ^[*]	OLS (3)	IV (4)
Forest Access	1.65*	3.45**	0.89	-9.78
	[0.97]	[1.59]	[2.46]	[11.96]
Observations	134	134	170	170
First-Stage (F-Statistic)		31.42		2.97
Season F.E	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Household F.E	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Set of Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

[*]Note: * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$

355 Therefore, the hypothesis that access to forests positively affects household
 356 food security holds among Indigenous communities and for communities living in
 357 or near biodiverse, healthy forests. The results show that forests are a significant

¹⁰ The OLS estimator has an almost null and negative effect, the IV estimator is invalid since the relevance condition is violated by having an F statistic in the first stage of less than 10.

358 food source for rural households regardless of the year, season, market access,
359 or location.

360 **4 Conclusions**

361 In this paper, we have conducted an in-depth analysis of the relationship
362 between forest access and food security among households residing in the
363 Colombian and Peruvian Amazon regions. Our investigation is based on panel
364 data collected at the household level, spanning two seasons (rainy and dry),
365 allowing us to empirically explore the influence of forests on a multidimensional
366 food security index at the household level. This research holds particular
367 significance considering the growing body of literature emphasizing the crucial
368 role of forests in ensuring food security. To mitigate the challenge of selection
369 bias, we have employed a rigorous identification strategy that uses an
370 instrumental variable approach. Our estimates can be interpreted as causal
371 relationships by accounting for observable and unobservable heterogeneity.

372 Our findings reveal a nuanced relationship between forest access and household
373 food security. Notably, the impact of forest access is contingent upon factors
374 such as deforestation rates and the overall health of the forest. In Colombia,
375 where most households reside near forests with relatively low deforestation
376 rates, access to these forests during both rainy and dry seasons is associated
377 with higher levels of food security. In stark contrast, households in Peru exhibit
378 lower levels of forest access and correspondingly lower food security, a situation
379 attributed partly to the region's higher deforestation rates in recent years.
380 Importantly, we observed variations in the magnitude of these results across
381 different ethnic groups.

382 Moreover, our analysis challenges the conventional assumption that increased
383 market access leads to improved food security among these households.
384 Notably, Mestizo Peruvian households, despite having superior market access
385 when compared to Colombian and Indigenous Peruvian households,
386 paradoxically exhibit lower levels of food security. This observation underscores
387 the critical role natural products from forests play in the food security of these
388 communities.

389 In conclusion, our research strongly suggests that households with access to
390 forests characterized by low deforestation rates enjoy higher levels of food
391 security. From a policy perspective, it becomes evident that facilitating access to
392 forests and their resources is paramount for enhancing the livelihoods and
393 overall well-being of households in our study area. Additionally, urgent measures
394 are needed to strengthen institutional capacity in Colombia and Peru to prevent
395 escalating deforestation rates, given the profound repercussions on the food
396 security of forest-dependent communities.

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564 **Appendix**

565 **Appendix A. Estimation Food Security Index**

566 Based Utilizing the statistical methodology of main components for mixed data,
567 known as Factor Analysis for Mixed Data (FAMD), the Food Security Index for
568 Colombia and Peru is computed for both seasons (Rain and Dry). Descriptive and
569 econometric index analysis standardizes the values to a range of 0 to 100. The
570 following formula is applied for this purpose:

$$571 \quad \text{FoodSecurityIndex} = \frac{(x - x_{min})}{(x_{max} - x_{min})} \times 100 \quad (A.1)$$

572 For households in Colombia, the first component of estimating mixed principal
573 components is used to create the food security index. This component, exhibiting
574 the highest eigenvalue and capturing the most significant variation in the data
575 (Table A.2), primarily reflects the dimensions of availability and access positively,
576 while being negatively influenced by the dimension of utilization, particularly if
577 households do not utilize water from a public source and cook with gas as an
578 energy source (Table A.2).

579

580 *Table A.2: Estimation Food Security Index-Colombia.*

Food Security Dimension	Variables	Comp1	Comp2	Comp3	Comp4	Comp5
Availability	Economic valuation					
	Amount of food consumed in the household (\$ US)	0.713	0.185	0.001	0.154	0.658
Stability	Food scarcity intensity	-0.126	-0.783	0.303	0.512	0.133
Access	Number of Food Sources	0.634	0.230	0.405	0.321	-0.526
Utilization	Source Energy Kitchen (Firewood)	0.095	-0.096	0.040	-0.111	-0.009
	Source Energy Kitchen (Gas)	-3.038	3.069	-1.268	3.541	0.275
	Do not use Water Source (Public)	-0.642	0.469	1.091	-0.210	0.281
	Yes use Water Source (Public)	0.336	-0.245	-0.571	0.110	-0.147
FAMD	Eigenvalues	1.311	1.079	0.960	0.870	0.780
	Variance (%)	26.230	21.590	19.170	17.340	15.670

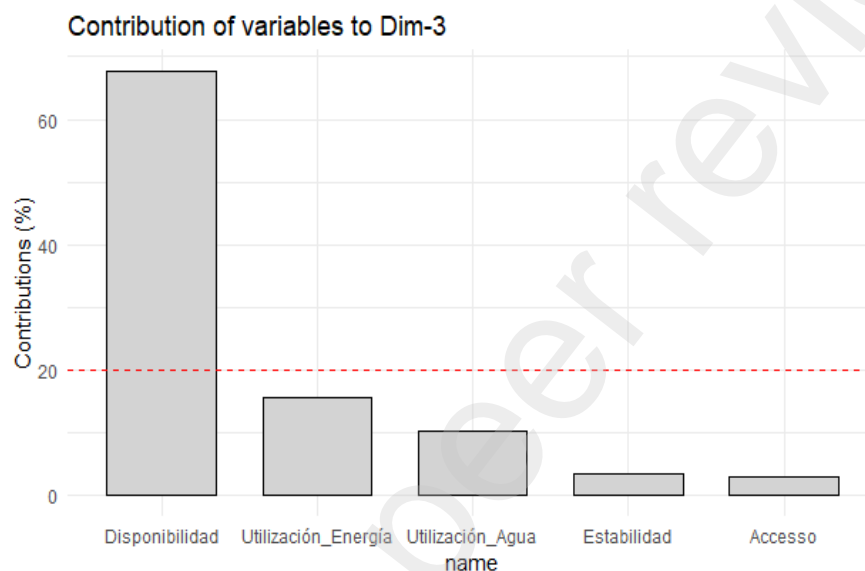
581

582 The negative impact of using gas as a source of energy for food preparation on
 583 the index is contextualized within households in the Colombian Amazon. Table
 584 A.3 illustrates that few families in this region use gas as a source of energy for
 585 food consumption, and these households tend to have the lowest economic
 586 valuation in food consumed.

587

588 The estimation of mixed principal components confirms that the
589 multidimensional concept of food security is specific to the study area. The
590 results explain each dimension of food security differently, attributable to ethnic,
591 environmental, and institutional effects specific to each study area.

592



593

594 *Figure A.3: Contribution of each Food Security Dimension in the First Component of the*
595 *FMAD-Perú Index*

596

597 In Peru, the first three components of the estimate capture the greatest data
598 variance (Table A.4). Although the first component exhibits a negative
599 relationship with the availability dimension and a positive one with the stability
600 dimension, the third dimension is utilized to create the food security index for
601 rural households in Peru, as it predominantly captures the concept of availability
602 (Figure A.3).

603

604 The food security index in Peru demonstrates a positive relationship with the
605 economic valuation of total food consumption and the number of food sources,

606 while exhibiting a negative relationship with the intensity of scarcity, the energy
 607 source, and water used for food preparation.

608

609 *Table A.4: Estimation Food Security Index-Colombia.*

Food Security Dimension	Variables	Comp1	Comp2	Comp3	Comp4	Comp5
Availability	Economic valuation					
	Amount of food consumed in the household (\$ US)	-0.466	0.078	0.797	0.373	0.053
Stability	Food scarcity intensity	0.570	0.286	-0.181	0.715	0.222
Access	Number of Food Sources	0.139	0.816	0.167	-0.420	0.333
	Source Energy Kitchen (Firewood)	0.613	0.085	0.256	-0.062	-0.285
Utilization	Source Energy Kitchen (Gas)	-1.289	-0.178	-0.537	0.131	0.599
	Do not use Water Source (Public)	1.572	-1.651	0.752	-0.456	0.907
	Yes use Water Source (Public)	-0.251	0.263	-0.120	0.073	-0.145
FAMD	Eigenvalues	1.405	1.146	0.938	0.874	0.637
	Variance (%)	28.092	22.921	18.766	17.479	12.742

610