

**Gulf of Mottama Project** 

## **Economic Valuation of Coastal Ecosystems in Mon State** of the Gulf of Mottama

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# **Economic Valuation of Coastal Ecosystems in** Mon State **of the Gulf of Mottama**

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## <span id="page-2-0"></span>**EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

- Coastal ecosystems in the Gulf of Mottama deliver services with substantial economic value to local communities. The average household in the six villages assessed in this study receives provisioning and regulating services worth approximately 19.98 million MMK (9,514 USD) per year.
- Provisioning services contribute the largest share of the total economic value of coastal ecosystems. In villages with large areas of neighbouring mangrove cover, the value of protection from floods, storms and erosion is also of economic importance.
- The results are highly village specific. The economic value of both provisioning and regulating services varies greatly across villages depending on the extent of coastal ecosystems in the vicinity of each village and the level of dependence on resource extraction. This variation in values across villages means that it is not straightforward to generalise the importance of ecosystem services or extrapolate results to other areas of the GoM.
- Similarly, the relative importance of different ecosystem types varies greatly across villages. In all cases, however, rivers and the sea are the most important source of harvestable resources.
- Harvested resources are primarily sold but a substantial proportion is also used for subsistence consumption. The value of subsistence income can be high; the average household directly consumes resources harvested from rivers and the sea with a value of 10.8 million MMK (1,200 USD) per year.
- A high proportion of households that coastal ecosystems have changed negatively (in extent, condition, and access) during the past 10 years and view the conversion of ecosystems to agriculture as detrimental to their livelihood.
- Making a comparison between the annual value of coastal ecosystems and agricultural land, we find that the value of ecosystem services from mangroves and mudflats generally exceeds the returns on land converted to agriculture.

## <span id="page-2-1"></span>**ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

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## <span id="page-5-0"></span>**1 INTRODUCTION**

#### <span id="page-5-1"></span>**1.1 Social Ecological System in the Gulf of Mottama**

The Gulf of Mottama (GoM), the funnel-shaped area sitting on the southwestern coast of Myanmar comprising administrative boundaries of Yangon Region in the west, Bago Region in the north, Mon State in the east, and the Andaman Sea in the south, is one of the most dynamic intertidal systems in the world (MIMU, 2019). The dynamic turbid area is due to annual transportation of about 350 million tonnes of sediments from Sittaung River, Thanlwin River, Irrawaddy River and Yangon River (Robinson *et al.*, 2007). The magnitude of water flowing from the rivers create a "tidal bore", a tide at a speedy flow of roughly 3 metres per second which can temporarily reverse the flow of the river. As a result, the waves flowing upstream with a tidal range of 7 metres erode the coastline and create a highly productive yet largest known area of perennial turbidity with up to 4,500,000 Ha (GoMP, 2018).



Figure 1.1. The satellite image of the Gulf of Mottama acquired on November 07, 2022 (Source: NASA Worldview)

This dynamic hydrological regime creates one of the largest intertidal mudflats in the world which expands over 130,000 Hectares (Kyaw Htet Aung, 2022). The mudflats are rich in nutrients supporting food for bottom dwelling benthic communities including commercially important mud crab (*Scylla serrata*), calms, molluscs and a variety of estuarine fish species (GoMP, 2018). Therefore, it attracts 150,000 residents and migratory shorebirds especially from East Asian Australian Flyway (EAAF) to winter in the GoM including critically endangered Spoon-billed sandpiper (*Calidris pygmaea*) and other IUCN red list migratory bird species (Zöckler, C., *et al.*, 2014). On the boundaries of the stabilised mudflats are coastal grassland which is dominated by *Oryza minuta* (locally known as Nat Sa Pa). Although there is about 35,000 Ha of coastal grassland (Kyaw Htet Aung, 2022), the species, distributions, ecological roles and functions of coastal grassland in the GoM are poorly understood but there is local ecological evidence of habitat use from shorebirds and mud crabs. The mangroves in the GoM are in the phase of active accretion and therefore, only sparse distribution of patches of mangroves occur in the mouth of the gulf. So, there are no mangroves in Bilin and Kyaik Hto townships of Mon State and Waw and Thanatpin townships of Bago Region. In total, there are about 12,810 Ha of mangroves in the GoM with about 13 true mangrove species distributed on the eastern bank of the gulf and mostly dominated by *Avicennia* species (WIF, 2021, Khin Aye Maw *et al.*, 2021) (See Figure 1.2).

Surrounded by these coastal wetland ecosystems, the waters of the gulf are important habitats as well. The waters of the upper GoM are largely brackish, with substantial freshwater discharge and turbidity, while the lower GoM is more marine (GoMP, 2018). They are important habitats for aquatic and marine species including commercially important fish stocks. There are about 39 fish species (Thazin Htet, 2017) and 3 marine mammal species (Yin Yin Htay *et al.*, 2019). One of the marine mammals in the GoM is Irrawaddy Dolphin (*Orcaella brevirostris*) which is critically endangered and the other two species are vulnerable in the IUCN red list.

Due to the unique ecosystems and enriching biodiversity of the gulf, about 70,000 people in about 86 villages are inhabiting within 2km - 5km from the coast and creating social ecological systems of the gulf (GoMP, 2018). Many of these coastal villages are relatively remote. Major livelihoods are fishing, farming, livestock rearing, as well as casual wage labour depending on work opportunities. 

The gulf support major source of income by supporting capture fisheries of economically important fish species such as Croaker (*Johnius belangerii*), Toli shad (*Tenualosa toli*), Hilsa shad (*Tenualosa ilisha*), Seabass (*Lates calcarifer*), Threadfin (*Polynemus indicus*), Sea catfish (*Arius thalassinus*), Mullet (*Liza parsia*), Whiting (*Sillago* sp), Bombay Duck (*Harpadon nehereus*), and mixed species of prawns. Fishing grounds include river channels, seasonal riverine lakes, estuaries, inundated paddy fields and low-lying areas, perennial lakes and tanks, irrigation canals and tributaries, and the sea. In Bago Region, fisheries are primarily freshwater, while coastal fisheries are much more important in Mon State (Salagrama, 2015). In addition, the mudflats and coastal grassland support mud crab harvesting as a valuable source of income for small-scale fishers, women, and landless households. Although the mangroves in the GoM are in the early successional stage and occur in low diversity, mangrove patches are still locally important as recognized by local community members. The local people recognize that mangroves are important habitat for fisheries species including mud crab, provide firewood for household use, protect from coastal erosion, and support some medicinal plants and edible plants (EDF, 2019). Therefore, the GoM is not only supporting important ecosystems for its biodiversity but also providing resources required for well-being of coastal communities and these social ecological systems are closely linked and interdependent to each other. The importance is recognized as the fourth Ramsar site of Myanmar expanding an area of 161,030 Ha of the GoM in 2017.



**Figure 1.2.** Land cover map of the Gulf of Mottama showing the extent of four major coastal ecosystems (Kyaw Htet Aung, 2022).

#### <span id="page-7-0"></span>**1.2 Threats to Ecosystems**

The coastal wetland such as GoM plays a significant role to improve socio-economic conditions by growing household income, provide food security, and support overall well-being of the community dependent on its ecosystems. However, the excessively dependence of social systems on the ecological system imposes greater conservation threats for the sustainability of these ecosystems. In the GoM, the major threats are identified as change in the geophysical system of the gulf, overexploitation of coastal natural resources, and alteration and degradation of coastal ecosystems (GoMP, 2018).

Naturally dynamic geophysical and hydrological system of the gulf is a major factor for substantial erosion cycles causing one side of the bank to erode and accrete sediments and form new land on the other side of the bank. This natural threat caused over 10 villages and thousands of hectares of agriculture to wipe out and resulted in displacement of local communities.

Unsustainable extraction of openly accessible resources in the gulf is regarded as one of the immediate threats to the biodiversity of the gulf. In the past decade, the increasing demand on fishery products led to overfishing and appliance of different types of illegal fishing gears which resulted in declining fish stocks. The widespread use of different gears also causes bycatch of marine megafauna such as sea turtles and marine mammals.

In addition, the conversion of coastal ecosystems into farmland for rice cultivation is a major cause for ecosystem change and degradation. From 2016 to 2022, about 17,645.19 Ha of coastal ecosystems are converted into cultivated land (Kyaw Htet Aung, 2022). However, these lands are mostly acquired by wealthy and influential people in or outside of the community and exposed to conflicts in land tenure among groups in the communities. The adverse impacts of alteration of ecosystems not only eliminate biodiversity but also endanger the livelihood opportunities of communities especially marginalised people whose income mainly depends on extraction of resources. Moreover, the other factors affecting the degradation of the ecosystem include construction of bridges, sand mining, pollutants from upstream sources, and deforestation within catchments of the waterways especially Sittaung River.

#### <span id="page-8-0"></span>**1.3 Critical Knowledge Gaps**

In order to conserve the unique biodiversity of the GoM from anthropogenic threats and sustainably develop the well-being of communities, Gulf of Mottama Project (GoMP) is advocating the wise use of natural resources by supporting sustainable natural resource management activities, alternative livelihood opportunities to strengthen the resilience of local communities and community-based conservation initiatives. Since 2018, the project is implementing several approaches such as establishment of community forests for mangroves (200 Acres of mangroves in Kar Te, Paung Township), plantation of mangroves (about 10,000 plants in Paung and Thaton Township), development of fishery co-management area, setting up conservation areas for mud crabs (50 Acres of mudflat off Aung Kan Thar, Thaton Township), and raising awareness to the communities in the area in order to sustain the wise use of coastal resources and ecosystems. With the advocacy from local communities, the state government declared a protected public forest which covers 1,000 Ha of mudflat, coastal grassland, and mangroves in Thaton Township.

Starting in 2021, the project initiated the Ecosystem Approach to Fishery Management (EAFM) for more integrated management of coastal resources from ecosystem approach. As EAFM is an integrated approach for coastal management through the lenses of ecosystems, more in-depth knowledge regarding the ecosystem services in the GoM need to be well documented and shared effectively through different stakeholders.

In addition, the dynamic nature of the tidal channels in the gulf resulted in severe coastline regression, at immense rates and over large distances. It creates erosion in one side of the bank while creating accretion on the other side due to sedimentation. These changes are as frequent as the cycles repeats each 10 to 15 years according to anecdotal reports. These issues raise on how to allocate villages in eroded regions and how the new land should be managed in accreted regions. Therefore, more intensive knowledge to support decision making for thousands of hectares of newly formed land for effective coastal land use planning.

The above information suggests a need to understand the economic values of coastal ecosystems in the GoM to support decision making for the coastal land use planning in the area.

#### <span id="page-9-0"></span>**1.4 Ecosystem Services**

The concept of ecosystem services provides a useful framework to identify the importance of the natural environment to humans. The term "ecosystem services" has been defined in several different ways (see summary of definitions in Box 1) but put most simply, they are the variety of benefits that humans obtain from the environment.

Ecosystems contribute to human well-being in a wide variety of ways and the processes by which ecosystems provide benefits to people has been described as an "ecosystem services cascade" in which bio-physical structures and processes ("ecosystem functions") can deliver inputs (ecosystem services) to the production of goods and services that are consumed by people (see Figure 1.3).



**Figure 1.3.** Ecosystem services "cascade". Adapted from Haines-Young and Potschin (2010).

Ecosystem services can also be viewed as the flow of benefits received from "ecosystem capital" – see Figure 1.3. Ecosystem capital is a component of natural capital, which can be defined as the stock of natural assets that provide society with renewable and non-renewable resources and a flow of ecosystem services. Natural capital includes abiotic assets (e.g., fossil fuels, minerals, metals) and biotic assets (ecosystems that provide a flow of ecosystem services). The biotic component of natural capital is termed ecosystem capital. Natural capital is analogous to build capital (e.g., transport infrastructure), human capital (e.g., a skilled and educated workforce) or social capital (e.g., rules, norms, and trust) as an input to the production of goods and services that humans consume. Natural capital may be both a complement to other forms of capital (i.e., used in combination with them to produce goods and services) or a substitute (used instead of other forms of capital).



**Figure 1.4.** Interactions between natural, abiotic, ecosystem, built, human and social capital to contribute to human well-being. Adapted from Costanza et al. (2014).

#### **Box 1. Defining ecosystem services**

The conceptualization and understanding of ecosystem services has gradually been refined over the past 20+ years and a number of different definitions have been provided by different initiatives. These include:

- Ecosystem services are the benefits that ecosystems provide for people (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment - MA 2005).
- Ecosystem services are the direct and indirect contributions of ecosystems to human well-being (The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity - TEEB; Kumar 2012)
- Ecosystem services refer to those contributions of the natural world that are used to produce goods which people value (UK National Ecosystem Assessment - UKNEA, 2011).
- Ecosystem services are the contributions that ecosystems make to human well-being (Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services - CICES; Haines-Young and Potschin 2012).
- The US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) uses the term "final ecosystem goods and services" (FEGS) to mean "components of nature, directly enjoyed, consumed or used to yield human well- being" (Landers and Nahlik, 2013).
- The EU Mapping and Assessment of Ecosystems and their Services (MAES) working group defines ecosystem services as "the contributions of ecosystem structure and function (in combination with other inputs) to human well-being" (Burkhard and Maes, 2017)
- The International Panel of Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) introduced an additional term for ecosystem services – "nature's contributions to people" (NCP) – to describe the contributions, both positive and negative, of living nature (diversity of organisms, ecosystems, and their associated ecological and evolutionary processes) to people's quality of life (Diaz et al., 2018).

The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MA, 2005) classified ecosystem services into four categories, as follows:

- Provisioning services are the "products obtained from ecosystems" (e.g., food and raw materials);
- Regulating services are the "benefits obtained from the regulation of ecosystem processes" (e.g., protection from flooding and storms, nutrient recycling);
- Cultural services are the "non-material benefits people obtain from ecosystems through spiritual enrichment, cognitive development, reflection, recreation and aesthetic experiences" (e.g., recreation, inspiration for art and design, and appreciation of the existence of diverse species); and
- Supporting services "are necessary for the production of all other ecosystem services" (e.g., soil formation and oxygen production).

The inclusion of supporting services in ecosystem service assessments can potentially lead to double counting of values (Fisher and Turner, 2008) this category has therefore been omitted from more recent classification systems (e.g., The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity – TEEB; Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services - CICES; and the System of Environmental Economic Accounts SEEA EA reference list).

#### <span id="page-11-0"></span>**1.5 Total Economic Value**

The concept of Total Economic Value (TEV) is used to describe the comprehensive set of utilitarian values derived from a natural resource. It is useful for identifying the different types of value that may be derived from an ecosystem. TEV comprises use values and non-use values. Use values are the benefits derived from physical use of the resource. Direct use values may derive from on-site extraction of resources  $(e.g., fish, crabs, molluscs, fuel wood)$  or non-consumptive activities (e.g., recreation). Indirect use values are derived from off-site services or other processes that are impacted by the resource (e.g., protection from coastal flooding). Option value is the value that people place on maintaining the option to use a resource in the future  $(e.g., the)$ option to develop ecotourism).



**Figure 1.5.** Components of Total Economic Value. Adapted from Pearce and Turner (1990).

Non-use values are derived from the knowledge that an ecosystem is maintained without regard for any current or future personal use. Non-use values may be related to altruism (maintaining an ecosystem for use by others), bequest (for future generations) and existence (preservation unrelated to any use) motivations. The constituent values of TEV are represented in Figure 1.5. It should be noted that the "total" in Total Economic Value refers to the inclusion of all components of utilitarian value rather than the sum of all values derived from a resource *i.e.*, the TEV framework can be used to assess marginal changes in value as well as total values.

#### <span id="page-12-0"></span>**1.6 Ecosystem Valuation**

Economic value is simply a means to describe how important the things we use are to us, including our use of the natural world or "natural capital". In the case of ecosystem services from the coastal and marine environment, there are often no prices that reflect their value, since the services that are provided are not traded in markets (e.g., subsistence use of harvestable resources, climate regulation, coastal protection, biodiversity). As a result, we tend not to take the value of ecosystem services into consideration when we make decisions that affect the marine and coastal environment. When we investigate the consequences of environmental change (e.g., climate change, development, marine accidents) we need to fully understand the effects on ecosystem services and human well-being. Economic valuation tries to measure the importance of environmental change, usually in monetary terms, in order to communicate the scale of impacts to human well-being. Such information can be used to raise awareness of the economic importance of marine ecosystems, set fees for the use of marine ecosystem services, or determine compensation payments for environmental damage.

Economic valuation of ecosystem services involves identifying and quantifying the contribution of environmental resources to human well-being; and incorporating this information into decision-making and the design of financing mechanisms and policy instruments.

Economic valuation methods do not stand alone but are often used in combination with other methods for assessing environmental change and the provision of ecosystem services. The added value of using economic valuation methods is that the importance of ecosystem services is expressed in terms of human welfare and measured in common units (i.e., money), allowing values to be aggregated across ecosystem services and directly compared with the values of other goods and services in the economy.

Economic valuation of ecosystems involves quantifying the contribution of ecosystems to human wellbeing. It builds on the conceptualisation of nature as a productive asset - natural capital which provides humanity with a flow of inputs into production and consumption - ecosystem services (Dasgupta, 2021). Economic values are generally measured and communicated in monetary units in order to enable comparison with the value of other resources, costs and investments in the economy.

Estimating the economic values of ecosystems can help to support better decision-making and resource management. Ecosystem services contribute substantially to human welfare and, in some cases, are fundamental to sustaining life (e.g., climate regulation and nutrient recycling). The underlying natural capital is, however, finite and cannot necessarily be regenerated or replaced. With growing human populations, and consumption per capita increasing over time, it is often the case that the human use of renewable resources outstrips their natural rate of regeneration (i.e., human use is ecologically unsustainable).

Such resource limitations mean that we must constantly choose between alternative uses of available resources. Every time a decision is made to do one thing, this is also a decision to avoid another – value is implicitly placed on each option. If the valuation of alternative resource uses is unavoidable in making decisions, it is arguably better to make these values explicit and ensure that decisions are transparent and well informed.

#### <span id="page-12-1"></span>**1.7 Goals and Objectives**

The Gulf of Mottama Project (GoMP) is working to facilitate integrated, ecosystem approach management of natural resources in the area. In order to develop more compelling, evidence-

based decision-making in land use and other natural resource management decisions, a stronger base of information and analysis about the value of various ecosystems in the GoM. Therefore, the study is conducted with the aim to identify the economic values of four major types of ecosystems in the GoM: mangroves, mudflats, coastal grasslands, and rivers and/or sea and compare how these values may be provided by rice fields. The key objectives of the study are as follow:

- To identify the total economic values of coastal ecosystems in the Gulf of Mottama with emphasis on direct use of the ecosystems (primarily includes "provisioning" services) and other services provided by the ecosystem (less directly tangible ES such as protection, regulation and supporting services),
- To assess the status and condition of the coastal ecosystem including local extent, trends over the past 10 years and the drivers of the trend, and
- To compare these economic values with the revenues provided by rice fields converted from the coastal ecosystems.

## <span id="page-14-0"></span>**2 METHODOLOGY**

#### <span id="page-14-1"></span>**2.1 Study Area**

In this action research, the study sites were identified based on where four major ecosystems: mangroves, mudflats, coastal grassland, and river/sea are located. In coordination with township clusters coordinators (TCCs) and community facilitators and monitors (CFMs) of the Gulf of Mottama Project (GoMP), the study conducted data collection from 8 villages of five townships as shown in Figure 2.1. The three villages in Chaung Zone: Ta Ka Mar, Taw Pon and Chaung Pauk shared the same ecosystems, and they were under the same village administration. Therefore, these three villages are combined as "Taw Ka Mar" in the study.



**Figure 2.1.** Map showing the villages where the study was conducted. The base map shows different types of ecosystems in the study area.

#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>**2.2 Methods**

The study applied quantitative methods to identify the economic values of ecosystem services from four major types of ecosystems and comparable values if these ecosystems are converted into farmland. It also equipped a qualitative approach to understand community values, experiences, and perceptions on these ecosystems as well as to explore community feelings on converting these ecosystems as farmland. The field survey applied two methods: key informant interview (KII) and household in-depth interviews (HH). The field visits were conducted from April 2021 to May 2022. In conducting field research, the field researchers from MCCL @ Point B Design  $+$  Training were trained in the economic valuation process of ecosystems, interviewing, and data enumerations. The field activities, data enumerations, data management and quality control were supervised and managed by the research officer of the GoMP.

#### <span id="page-15-1"></span>**2.2.1 Key Informant Interviews**

In order to gain general context of the community and ecosystems, 1-2 key informant interviews were conducted with village leaders and/or community leaders in each village. The interview is to gain an overview description on resource use patterns, problems and conflict resolution in resource use and extraction, economic importance of the habitats, service and benefits provided by the ecosystems. In addition, to get market prices of trading goods extracted from resources, market interviews were conducted to local traders, fish, and crab collectors in each village.

#### <span id="page-15-2"></span>**2.2.2 Focus Group Discussion**

In each village, one FGD was facilitated with participants pre-selected by the GoMP or VDC due to coordination issues with the community. In each group, a total of 5-6 participants (2-3 males and 2-3 females) participated. Each discussion took 45-60 minutes by applying the visual tools to discuss: the resources communities are extracting, types of activities and tools involved in extraction of resources, primary and secondary users for these activities, and the key problems facing in extraction of these resources.

#### <span id="page-15-3"></span>**2.2.3 Household Surveys**

The research team designed semi-structured questionnaires to collect personal information of respondents, household income, sources of income, and wealth, dependence on ecosystem services (mainly focused on provisioning services and regulating services), changes in ecosystems and feelings on converting of these ecosystems as farmland (See Appendix 1 for Household Survey instrument). In order to get information on revenues from farmland, separate interviewers for farmers who are currently working in converted farmland are also surveyed.

In each village 20-30 households were selected through convenient sampling. Representatives from different livelihoods, social status, gender, religion, and social groups were selected to gain diverse perspectives from the community. The sample size for each village is shown in Table 2.1. Each interview was conducted by 2-3 trained interviewers and took from  $30 - 45$  minutes to complete the questionnaire.

#### <span id="page-15-4"></span>**2.3 Data Analysis**

The field data were entered into Excel immediately following data collection. The quantitative data were analysed in SPSS and Excel using simple descriptive statistics. To analyse qualitative data, the team mainly applied thematic analysis by coding the data using Excel. For each piece of qualitative information, different codes were assigned from a standardised list of codes to identify the main theme covered by that piece of information. Then, they were quantified and evaluated the insights provided by the data.



**Table 2.1.** Sampling frame showing total number of households, sample size and percentage of total household for questionnaires conducted in the study.

\*Data updated by GoMP in 2020.

\*\*The village is a relatively large village with diverse livelihood activities. There are only about 76 households who directly use coastal ecosystems, which is fishing in Sittaung River.

\*\*\*The three villages have very similar ecosystem services and are closely situated. They are under the same village administration and the three villages are combined as "Taw Ka Mar" in the report.

#### <span id="page-16-0"></span>**2.3.1 • Household Income from Resource Harvesting**

The household survey data were used to quantify total household income from resource harvesting. Total household income comprises of components that are received in money (e.g., from paid employment, remittances, sale of harvested natural resources and other sources) and those that are received directly in the form of natural resources that are consumed by the household (i.e., subsistence use of harvested natural resources) – see Figure 2.1.



Figure 2.2. Components of total household income.

The analysis in this study focuses on income from natural resources (coastal ecosystems), including both money income and subsistence income. Money income is computed using data on the quantities of each resource harvested, the proportion that is sold, and the market price of the resource. Prices were obtained from a market survey and key informant interviews (See Table 6.1 in Appendix). Subsistence income is computed in a similar way using data on the quantities of each resource harvested, the proportion that is consumed or given away, and the market price of the resource. This approach to estimating subsistence value is based on the assumption that, in the absence of the harvestable resource, households would replace the harvested resources that they consume with a marketed equivalent.

#### <span id="page-17-0"></span>**2.3.2 Avoided Damage Costs**

Mangroves and other coastal ecosystems mitigate tidal inundation and storm surges. The level of provision of this service is dependent on a number of biophysical factors (e.g., bathymetry, tidal range, slope, storm profile etc.) and socio-economic factors (e.g., population exposed, assets at risk, adaptive capacity etc.). Koch et al. (2009) describe how variation in this ecosystem service is influenced by ecosystem type, extent, condition, and configuration to the assets that are protected.

The value of coastal protection provided by ecosystems is the savings from avoided damages attributable to the role of the ecosystem in mitigating flooding and other hazards. The avoided damage cost method looks at different types of avoided costs including property damage, loss of crops and livestock, missed days of work, and health impacts. The approach involves an assessment of the difference in the extent and value of damages under the current level of protection (with existing ecosystems) versus a baseline or counterfactual level of protection (without ecosystems). The avoided damage cost method requires information on (i) the population, property, and human infrastructure at risk from flood damage, and (ii) the reduction in probability or extent of damages given the presence of ecosystems.

In this study we obtain information on the value of damage costs from natural hazards incurred by households in the sampled villages from the household survey. This provides an estimate of damage costs under the current level of protection provided by coastal ecosystems. To quantify the reduction in the extent of damage attributable to coastal ecosystems, we use a non-linear function derived from Koch et al. (2009) that relates the extent of mangrove cover to the value of avoided damages. We generalise this function to relate the percentage of mangrove cover to the % reduction in damages. This non-linear function reflects a declining marginal effect of additional mangrove extent on avoided damage costs. Although all coastal ecosystems can have a functional (and complementary) role in the mitigation of flood damage, this analysis focuses on mangroves because the literature on the role of mangroves is more developed and provides the necessary quantitative information to measure the relationship between ecosystem extent and reduced damage costs. This approach is therefore conservative and avoids potential double counting of values of protection provided by combinations of coastal ecosystems.

## <span id="page-17-1"></span>**3 RESULTS**

#### <span id="page-17-2"></span>**3.1 Ecosystem Services from Coastal Ecosystems in GoM**

The ES from the coastal ecosystems of GoM identified in the FGDs of the study are summarised in Table 3.1. The mentioned ecosystem services are provisioning, regulating and some of cultural services. The provisioning services from mangroves, mudflats and coastal grassland are very similar but mangroves reportedly provide more regulating services.

**Table 3.1.** Identified ecosystem services from four major types of ecosystems in GoM from FGD with communities



There is no mangrove in Bilin and Kyaik Hto townships and dispersed and successional patches of mangroves were found in Paung township. In Chaung Zone, the mangroves patches are denser and so more prominent ES are gained in communities in Chaung Zone. Mud crabs and molluscs are common products directly extracted from mangrove and some communities also produce small fish (such as mullets and striped dwarf catfish). Taw Ka Mar and Zee Gone extract firewood for both household use and selling especially to use as fuel in boiling shrimps and household use. In the mangrove forest of Taw Ka Mar, *Catenella sp.* of seaweeds were extracted. Communities believe that the presence of mangrove protects from storm surges, erosion, and attenuate waves. Taw Ka Mar has some visitors who are interested in mangroves and communities in FGD stated the potential for tourism development.

The ES from mudflats and coastal grasslands are very similar as people produce mud crabs and fish for the whole year round and molluscs in some months. In some villages, people fish along the creeks in the mudflats or grassland or during high tide. The target fish includes mullets, Pama croaker and paradise threadfin. Except Sut Pa Nu, all the villages have access to ES from mudflats and grassland. However, the areas on the mouth of Sittaung River (upper part of the gulf) have extensive mudflats associated with coastal grassland in the landward boundaries of mudflats. Therefore, the resources extraction from mudflats and grassland are more prominent in such regions than the lower part of the gulf. The assumed regulating service is attenuation of storm waves. In addition to direct use, the community expresses that these ecosystems are important for shorebirds including critically endangered spoon-billed sandpipers (*Calidris pygmaea*).

The study villages are all in close proximity to the river or sea and therefore, they all access to ES from river and sea. Fish and shrimps are the main resources harvested by the communities. The

main target fish species include hilsa shad, Pama croaker, paradise threadfin, and Bombay duck. In addition, these water channels are very important for navigation purposes of the community as well.

#### <span id="page-19-0"></span>**3.2 Household Survey Demographic Overview**

The study conducted a total of 170 household interviews, 6 focus groups discussions, 12 key informant interviews and 17 farmer interviews in 6 villages of 5 townships in Mon State of the Gulf of Mottama. A total of 94 men (55.29%) and 76 women (44.71%) participated in household interviews as shown in Figure 3.1. The age group of most respondents were  $41 - 50$  years (n = 51) and the second was 31-40 years ( $n = 46$ ). Different age groups of respondents in each village are illustrated in Figure 3.2. More than half of the respondents  $(51.2%)$  are original residents and spent their whole lives in their respective communities.



**Figure 3.1.** Number of males and females participated in each village in the household survey

The farmers included in the survey are owners of farmland and currently working on farming or leasing their land. All the farmers were from Koe Tae Su ( $n = 8$ ) and Kar Te ( $n = 9$ ) as only these villages have farmlands extracted from mudflats and coastal grassland.



**Figure 3.2.** Percent of respondents from different age groups participated in the household survey

The mean annual household money income from all livelihood activities for the whole sample is 2,377,825 MMK  $(-1,700 \text{ USD})$ . The mean annual household money income from each village is shown in Figure 3.4. Sut Pa Nu has higher annual income  $(2,908,333$  MMK/ $\sim$ 2,154 USD) and Taw Ka Mar has the lowest with  $1,350,000$  MMK (~643 USD) annually.



**Figure 3.3.** Mean annual income per village. The red dotted line represents the mean annual income  $(2,377,825$  MMK/ $\sim$ 1,700 USD) for the whole sample.

#### <span id="page-21-0"></span>**3.3 Economic Values of Provisioning Services**

#### <span id="page-21-1"></span>**3.3.1 Resource harvesting**

The proportion of households that harvest resources (fish, crabs, mollusc, and shrimps) from each ecosystem type are presented in Figure 3.4. This shows that a high proportion of household harvest resources from coastal ecosystems and that some ecosystems are more widely used than others. In all villages, a high proportion of households (47-85%) harvest resources from rivers and the sea. Mudflats are also widely used, except in the case of Sut Pa Nu. A high proportion of households (83%) at Taw Ka Mar harvest resources from mangroves.



**Figure 3.4.** Proportion of households extracting resources from each ecosystem

The mean annual income from harvesting of resources is shown in Figure 3.5. Annually, the mean income per household from fishing is  $1,067,364$  MMK ( $\sim$ 508 USD), 456,325 MMK ( $\sim$ 217 USD) from mud crab, 142,841 MMK  $(~68$  USD) from shrimps and 56,457 MMK  $(~27$  USD) from mollusc.



**Figure 3.5.** Mean annual income from harvesting of resources.

#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**3.3.2 Mangroves**

There is considerable variation across the sampled villages in terms of the quantity of resources harvested from mangroves. Due to proximity with denser patches of mangrove forests, communities in Chaung Zone (Taw Ka Mar and Zee Gone) harvest a variety of mangrove resources including fish, crabs, molluscs, vegetables (seaweeds), and fuelwood. Kar Te harvest vegetables and Aung Kan Thar extract mud crabs in the mangroves (see Figure 3.6 (a)). Mud crabs were the most harvested resource with an annual average household harvest of 113.255 kg in Taw Ka Mar, 49.597 kg in Zee Gone, 34.608 kg in Aung Kan Thar and 1.149 kg in Kar Te. In Taw Ka Mar, Zee Gone and Kar Te, the annual average household harvest of seaweed is 84.78 kg, 47.413 kg, and 22.4 kg respectively. Taw Ka Mar and Zee Gone also glean molluscs with an annual average household harvest of 32.808 kg and 24.183 kg per year. A small quantity of fish (average harvest per household 17.597 kg) was produced in Taw Ka Mar annually.

In addition, there is variation across the sampled villages in terms of the use of resources, i.e., whether used for subsistence or commercial purposes. On average a higher proportion of the harvested resources were used for commercial purposes in Taw Ka Mar (87%) and Aung Kan Thar (67%). Whereas in Kar Te and Zee Gone, the majority of harvested resources is used for household consumption or sharing the resources to neighbours or relatives (see Figure 3.6 (b)).

The mean annual household revenues from commercial use for the sample is 139,355 MMK ( $\sim$ 66 USD). The resource with the highest commercial value in all villages is mud crabs (5,374 MMK -575,211 MMK  $\sim$  3 USD - 274 USD)). The mean annual subsistence use is 67,415 MMK ( $\sim$ 32 USD).

In total, the mean annual household revenue from resources extracted from mangroves is calculated as  $206,770$  MMK  $(-98 \text{ USD})$ . Extrapolating across all households, the annual revenue from mangrove is 8,524,994 MMK  $(-4,060$  USD). The mean mangrove cover area where the people are extracting resources is 108.06 Ha. Therefore, the economic value from provisioning services provided by mangrove in the study area is estimated as  $78,890$  MMK (~38 USD)/Ha.



(a) Total extracted resources from mangrove.





(b) Percentage of subsistence uses and commercial use of extracted resources from mangrove.

**Figure 3.6.** Annual extraction of resources per household from mangroves.



**Figure 3.7.** Mean annualised household revenues from total use of provisioning services from mangrove ecosystems in each village. The red dotted line represents the mean revenue for the whole sample  $(206,770$  MMK $(-98$  USD)).

#### <span id="page-23-0"></span>**3.3.3 Mudflats**

All the villages extracted resources from mudflats except Sut Pa Nu. The resources are fish, mud crabs and molluscs. The mean annual extraction per household for each resource from mudflats is shown in Figure 3.7 (a). Kar Te produced highest extraction of mud crabs (331.262 kg) followed by Taw Ka Mar (198.084 kg), Koe Tae Su (77.339 kg), Aung Kan Thar (73.16 kg) and Zee Gone  $(48.549 \text{ kg})$ . On average,  $96.011 \text{ kg}$  of fish were produced from mudflats from each household annually with highest extraction in Kar Te with 180.736 kg and Zee Gone with 13.616 kg. Taw Ka Mar and Kar Te collected molluscs from mudflats about 34.621 kg and 51.244 kg respectively.

The villages extracted resources from mudflats are mainly applying for commercial use. On average, about 73% are extracted to sell them as shown in Figure 3.7 (b). Kar Te has highest subsistence use of resources from mudflats among the sample with subsistence use for 23.933% and commercial use for 76.067%. The other villages used 5-10% of the resources for household consumption and sharing with neighbours or relatives.





(a) Total extracted resources from mudflats.





So, the mean annualised household revenues from commercial use of resources from mudflat is 863,264 MMK  $(-411 \text{ USD})$ . Kar Te and Taw Ka Mar contributed higher commercial values of mudflat from selling mud crabs with 1.386.357 MMK (~660 USD) and 809.055 MMK (~385 USD) respectively. The mean subsistence value per household is only 170,955 MMK ( $\sim$ 81 USD). Therefore, total value for provisioning services from mudflat for the whole sample is  $1,034,219$  MMK  $({\sim}492 \text{ USD})$  per household as shown in Figure 3.9. Then, the mean annual value from mudflat is extrapolated as 73,492,564 MMK  $(-34,996$  USD) per village. The mean mudflat area for each village where people extracted resources is estimated to be 345.32 Ha. Therefore, it is estimated that annual revenue from each hectare of mudflat is  $212,823$  MMK ( $\sim$ 101 USD).



**Figure 3.9.** Mean annualised household revenues from total use of provisioning services from mudflat ecosystems in each village. The orange line represents the mean revenue for the whole sample (1,034,219 MMK (~492 USD)).

#### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**3.3.4 Coastal grassland**

Only mud crabs and fish are extracted from grassland in 5 villages without Sut Pa Nu. The highest number of extractions were in Koe Tae Su with 35.926 kg of fish and 162.056 kg of mud crabs. Kar Te only produced mud crabs (2.861 kg annually) and most of them are used in the household  $(72.239\%)$ . Except for Kar Te, all other villages applied their resources for commercial purposes. Significantly, Zee Gone sold all the extracted products from grassland (See Table 3.10 (a) and (b)).



(a) Total extracted resources from coastal grassland.





(b) Percentage of subsistence uses and commercial use of extracted resources from coastal grassland.

**Figure 3.10.** Annual extraction of resources per household from coastal grassland.

Annually, the mean revenue from commercial uses of resources from coastal grassland is 212,252.45 MMK  $(101.07 \text{ USD})$  per household. The mean subsistence value is  $50.319$  ( $\sim$ 24 USD). The total economic value for provisioning services of grassland is  $(262,572$  MMK $(-125 \text{ USD})$  as shown in Figure 3.11 which ranged from  $923.854$  MMK ( $\sim$ 4403 USD) in Kar Te and 13,375 MMK  $(-6$  USD) in Kar Te. By extrapolating these figures, the average value per village is estimated as 12,381,967 MMK  $(-5,896$  USD). The mean cover of coastal grassland where people go fishing is about 191.42 Ha. Therefore, the value for direct use of resources from coastal grassland is 64,685 MMK $(-31$  USD) per hectare.



Figure 3.11. Mean annualised household revenues from total use of provisioning services from coastal grassland ecosystems in each village. The orange line represents the mean revenue for the whole sample  $(262,572$  MMK $(-125$  USD)).

#### <span id="page-27-0"></span>**3.3.5 River/sea**

All the study villages are extracting resources from rivers and/or sea based on the location. Only Sut Pa Nu depends only on Sittaung River for fishing while other 5 villages fish in nearby creeks, rivers (Bilin, Sittaung and Thanlwin), and sea (GoM). The most discriminating village is Zee Gone which catch highest number of fish  $(11,033.559 \text{ kg})$  and shrimps  $(7,293.135 \text{ kg})$  per year from each household. However, the target fish for Zee Gone is Bombay duck which has the lowest market price in the gulf. The rest villages mainly focus on estuarine fish with high economic values. The annual fish catch per household are 1,745.082 kg in Aung Kan Thar, 1,378.912 kg in Kar Te, 1,281.948 kg in Koe Tae Su, 810.51 kg in Sut Pa Nu and 341.51 kg in Taw Ka Mar. The extracted amount is shown in Figure 3.9 (a). Most of the catch are used for commercial uses by selling as in Figure 3.9 (b).





(a) Total extracted resources from river/sea.



For direct selling of resources, the mean annualised household income from river/ sea is 18,228,545 MMK  $(-8,680$  USD), which is the highest revenue out of four ecosystems in the study area. Among them, Zee Gone has the highest revenue with  $82,240,635$  MMK ( $\sim$ 39,162 USD) and the lowest in Taw Ka Mar with  $1,800,692$  MMK (~857 USD). The mean subsistence value for the whole sample is 252,687 MMK ( $\sim$ 120 USD). The total value for provisioning services from the river/sea is 1,582,567,102 MMK (~753.603 USD).



**Figure 3.13.** Mean annualised household revenues from total use of provisioning services from river/sea in each village. The dashed orange line represents the mean revenue for the whole sample (18,228,545 MMK (~8,680 USD)).

#### <span id="page-28-0"></span>**3.3.6 Summary of provisioning service values**

The values of provisioning services obtained from coastal ecosystems are summarised in Table 3.2 and Figure 3.14. For all villages, rivers/sea is the most important resource for provisioning services. The harvest of resources from mudflats is second in terms of value but only of comparable magnitude in the cases of Taw Ka Mar and Kar Te.



**Table 3.2.** Summary of provisioning service values from each village (MMK/year)





#### <span id="page-29-0"></span>**3.4 Economic Values for Regulating Services**

The value of flood damage mitigation by mangroves is estimated as the avoided damage costs attributable to the presence of mangroves surrounding each study site. For each village, Table 3.3 reports the area of mangrove within a 5 km radius (source) and the current total annual damage from natural hazards (extrapolated from the household survey). The counterfactual level of damage that would occur in the absence of mangroves is computed using an empirical function derived from Koch et al. (2009). The difference between the current and counterfactual levels of damage gives an estimate of the annual avoided damage costs attributable to mangroves (see Figure X). The results show that villages with zero or very small mangrove extent naturally receive no benefits from this service, whereas the benefits can be substantial for villages with extensive mangroves. This is particularly the case for Taw Ka Mar, which has 554.6 ha of mangrove and is estimated to avoid MMK 135 million in damages per year.



**Table 3.3.** Avoided damage costs attributable to flood mitigation by mangroves

The value of this service can also be expressed per hectare of mangrove extent to enable more direct comparison across sites and with estimates in the literature (see Figure 3.15). We find

considerable variation in the per hectare value across villages with neighbouring mangrove areas ranging from 0.1 MMK millions/ha/year  $\sim$  46 USD/ha/year) in the case of Zee Kone to 0.24 MMK millions/ha/year  $\sim$  116 USD/ha/year) for Taw Ka Mar. To make a comparison with values in the literature, these estimates are towards the lower end of the range recorded in the Ecosystem Service Valuation Database [\(ESVD.net\)](https://www.esvd.net/).



**Figure 3.15.** Annual avoided damage costs attributable to the presence of mangroves (MMK/year; millions)





#### <span id="page-30-0"></span>**3.5 Total Economic Value of Coastal Ecosystems in the Gulf of Mottama**

In this section we provide an overview of the value of ecosystem services provided coastal ecosystems in the Gulf of Mottama by aggregating the values estimated in this report. It is important to recognise that this is a partial estimate of the total economic value of ecosystem services since it includes only the values of provisioning services from coastal ecosystems and coastal protection by mangroves. Other potentially important ecosystem services, such as cultural services  $(e.g.,)$  recreation and tourism) and other regulating services  $(e.g.,)$  climate regulation), are not included.

The aggregated values of the assessed provisioning and regulating services are represented in Figure 3.17. There is substantial variation across the sampled villages in terms of the economic

importance of ecosystem services. In some cases (i.e., Sut Pa Nu) the value of provisioning services is low, and no regulating service is provided. Whereas at other locations (i.e., Zee Kone), the value of ecosystem services is very high. The total value is primarily due to provisioning services, with regulating service contributing a relatively small proportion (at most 32% at Taw Ka Mar). These results highlight the high spatial variability in the values of ecosystem services, driven by variation in the presence of different ecosystems and level of use/dependence by local populations of beneficiaries.

In per household terms, the total value of ecosystem services for the targeted villages is on average worth 19.98 MMK million per year  $(9.514 \text{ USD/household/year})$ . It is again important to highlight the variation across villages with households in Sut Pa Nu receiving services worth 0.62 MMK million/household/year (295 USD/household/year) and households in Zee Gone receiving 46.54 MMK million/household/year (22,161 USD/household/year).



**Figure 3.17.** Annual values for provisioning and regulating services

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**3.6 Comparison of Economic Values of Ecosystems and Converted Farmland**

In order to inform decisions regarding ecosystem conservation and land use planning, we attempt to make an explorative comparison between the economic values derived from farmland, mangroves, mudflats, and grasslands. Note that rivers and sea are not included in this part of the analysis since it is concerned with coastal ecosystems that can potentially be converted to farmland.

Data on the price of farmland in three of the sampled villages (Kar Te, Koe Tae Su, and Aung Kan Thar) were obtained from a survey of recent land sales through interviews with farmers. In principle, land prices represent the expected flow of future returns on the land (i.e., revenue from agricultural use). These land price data were then converted to annualised values using a time horizon of 20 years and a discount rate of 10%. In the absence of data on land prices for the remaining three villages, we assume that the annual value of agricultural land is equal to the average for the three villages for which data is available.

The annual economic values for coastal ecosystems are obtained from the study. For mangroves this is the sum of provisioning services and coastal protection, whereas for mudflats and grasslands this is only the value of provisioning services.

The annual value per hectare of each land use across the six villages is presented in Figure 3.18. It shows that, in general, coastal ecosystems have a higher value per hectare than converted farmland. This is particularly the case for mangroves, which deliver a higher value return than converted farmland at every village where mangroves are present. In other words, there is a strong economic case for protection, restoration and possibly expansion of mangroves, even at the expense of agricultural land. In some cases, the per hectare value of mudflats is also found to be higher than converted farmland (i.e., Aung Kan Thar and Koe Tae Su). Grassland is generally found to have similar per hectare values to farmland and only substantially lower in Zee Gone.



**Figure 3.18.** Annual economic values by land use (MMK/hectare/year)

Figure 3.18 again highlights the variability in the value of land uses across locations, including large variation in the value of farmland across the six villages. It is necessary to extend the survey of land sales in order to make a more robust analysis of this variation.

This preliminary comparative analysis of values across land uses also flags the need to assess the full set of relevant ecosystem services in order to make valid comparisons. The values of mangroves include both provisioning services and coastal protection, which provides a more complete picture of the value of this ecosystem relative to that of farmland. The inclusion of other ecosystem services (also for the other coastal ecosystem types) may change the picture further.

We caution that the results of this explorative analysis should not be used to inform land use decisions but can be improved on in further research to enable a robust comparison of values derived from coastal ecosystems and agricultural land.

#### <span id="page-32-0"></span>**3.7 Feelings and Perceptions of Communities on the Conversion of Coastal Ecosystems**

In order to understand the community perceptions on the trends in changes of natural resources, the impacts to the communities if negative changes occurred and their willingness for conversion of coastal ecosystems to other development activities especially farmland are discussed in the following sessions.

#### <span id="page-33-0"></span>**3.7.1 Changes in Ecosystems**

Majority of the respondents  $(69\% - 75\%)$  reported that the ecosystem has changed in the past 10 years. The arguments on the responses and the frequencies are shown in the Appendix (Table 7.2). 

A total of 75 people reported that the area of mangrove expanded. The driving force the respondents expressed are mostly natural but in some areas such as Kar Te, the expansion is as result of plantation activities (14 responses) and establishment of community forest (4 responses) which protected from all the extractions of resources. In contrast, people reported that mangroves were depleted from firewood production and grazing of cattle. Similarly, there were 59 reports on more expansion of mudflats and 43 responses on coastal grassland. The reason is mostly natural processes such as increasing alluvial formation and sedimentation (36 responses). Regardless of the expanding area of mangroves, mudflats and grassland, there were reports on conversion of these ecosystems into farmland (8 responded for mangroves, 9 for mudflats, and 17 for grassland). In addition, 16 people reported that coastal grasslands are shrinking due to expansion of the sea from rising sea level, plantation of mangrove (habitat alteration) and less tidal influence. However, 46 people expressed that the river systems degraded as it gets shallower due to sedimentation, alluvial formation, and less tidal influence from the sea. It is due to erosion and formation of new land along the tidal channel.



Figure 3.19. Frequency of responses per ecosystem to the question "How has ecosystems changed in the past 10 years in GoM?"

Linking with these changes, people also expressed changes in interactions with these ecosystems within the past 10 years. Due to the expansion of mangroves, people feel safer as they believe they are protected from flood, wind, and storm surges. It also supports a variety of provision services such as to extract more resources, and to do crab aquaculture in the mangroves. However, the growing mangrove forest exposed challenges for people (walking through dense forest, increasing dangers from snakes and insects) to access their designated habitats to extract resources. Some people also expressed that the services from mangroves are negligible as they are still very young and small. For mudflats, the larger the area, the better for the community for resource extraction as it supports more resources such as mud crabs and bivalves. However, people have to travel further and longer to pass through the larger area of mudflats. The presence of dense coastal grassland makes people safe from natural hazards as well. In areas where these ecosystems are converted, there is more competition to extract resources as the areas are

shrinking. The major change regarding the degraded river system is difficulties in navigation and fishing activities.

#### <span id="page-34-0"></span>**3.7.2** Perceptions on the Degradation of Ecosystems

The higher percentage (about 58%) of respondents  $(16.44\%$  strongly agreed and  $41.64\%$  agreed) expressed that degradation in each ecosystem will impact negatively on the livelihoods, incomes, and well-being of the household. People reported the highest impacts will be from river/sea  $(36.97%)$  followed by mudflats  $(31.33%)$  as these are major ecosystems where the communities are depending for their livelihoods. The community believe that mangroves are nursery habitats for resources they are extracting (fish, crab, and prawn), so 29 people worry that they will no longer access provisioning services for their incomes if mangroves are degraded and no longer support aquatic animals. In addition, the degradation of the mudflat and grassland ecosystem will result in limited access to extract resources and challenge the survival and well-being of the household (79 responses for mudflats and 48 responses for grassland). It will force them to seek refuge in other places for the collection of resources which may take more time and effort to travel and cost more. The degradation of rivers and canals might decrease in fish catch and result in lower income for people who depend mainly on fishing activities (100 responses). Eventually, the respondents argued that fishing grounds will disappear from fish extinction due to degraded river systems. It will lead fishers to travel further to extract resources. In general, degradation in coastal ecosystems will lose opportunities for households who depend on them to extract resources and degrade their well-being.



**Figure 3.20.** Frequency of responses per ecosystem to the question "For your household, do you think a degradation in the following ecosystems in the area is a problem?"

Furthermore, people described that the presence of coastal ecosystems is vital to protect communities from natural disasters. Therefore, 80 people reported a loss of these ecosystems would lead to more floods, stronger wind, waves, tides, saltwater intrusion, and erosion. Consequently, farmers will lose farmland or reduce yield due to saltwater intrusion and erosion from lack of protection mudflats, grassland, and river and sea. As a result of being directly prone to disasters, communities may displace and/or change livelihoods to adapt to the degradation of ecosystems. Some expressed loss in cultural services is declination of important species such as shorebirds and wildlife from destruction of natural ecosystems.

There are also some indications from 16.28% of respondents with households that will not be impacted by the degradation of ecosystems. Most of these households do not depend on the ecosystems for their livelihoods. Even for households who depend on these, they have alternatives to mitigate if the ecosystems are degraded such as migrating to other places, changing fishing grounds, etc., The other belief is that these ecosystems are natural and are not impossible to degrade. For example, some of the community believes that mangrove can regenerate naturally, the mudflats are extensively existing and even if one area is degraded, there will be a lot more places.

#### <span id="page-35-0"></span>**3.7.3 Feelings on the Conversion of Ecosystems**

The research collected the community perceptions on the conversion of the ecosystems into farmland and the results show that nearly 48% of the respondents do not prefer to convert them as they continuously want to gain ecosystem services for the well-being of individuals and community. However, there are some respondents (13.44%) in particular areas who are willing to convert with the hope to strengthen alternative livelihood opportunities. The ones who have no opinion on the conversion and stay neutral are due to recognition of both pros and cons of the conversion to the community.





Among six study villages, the ecosystems in every village except Sut Pa Nu are threatened to be converted into farmland. The higher percent of people from Kar Te and Koe Tae Su favour to convert. The respondents who prefer the conversion because they are willing to diversify livelihood options such as farming different crops as landowners or as wage labours. People motivate to become farmers because they believe it is more profitable, have more secure livelihood than extracting resources. Even some people acknowledge that farming in converted land take time to be profitable they are willing to own land as a figure of social status in the community. However, most people suggested that they will accept to convert if these lands are owned by villagers or preferrable original residents of the village, not businessmen or owners outside the village.

In contrast, most of the people against the conversion because they will be more prone to natural disasters and negatively impacted on their respective livelihood of extracting resources from these ecosystems. Without the protection from ecosystems, the people are in fear of severe wind

and storm, drought and riskier to climate change. If the ecosystems are converted, they will be privatized, and it shrink the areas to extract resource. In addition, farmers do not allow the people to pass their farms to get access to destinated ecosystems. So, people have to go further and take more time to get resources. As the ecosystem was completely altered, the fish and other aquatic resources will loss habitats and resulted in decline of fishery related resources. Such impacts restrained the communities to convert coastal ecosystems into agricultural land or other land use.

## <span id="page-37-0"></span>**4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

The research presented in this report provides information on the economic values of ecosystem services provided by coastal ecosystems in the Gulf of Mottama. In this section we summarise the key insights, identify the main limitations of the study, and make recommendations for policy and further research.

#### <span id="page-37-1"></span>**4.1 Key Insights**

- Coastal ecosystems in the Gulf of Mottama deliver services with substantial economic value to local communities. The average household in the six villages assessed in this study receives provisioning and regulating services worth approximately 19.98 million MMK (9,514 USD) per year.
- Provisioning services contribute the largest share of the total economic value of coastal ecosystems. In villages with large areas of neighbouring mangrove cover, the value of protection from floods, storms and erosion is also of economic importance.
- The results are highly village specific. The economic value of both provisioning and regulating services varies greatly across villages depending on the extent of coastal ecosystems in the vicinity of each village and the level of dependence on resource extraction. This variation in values across villages means that it is not straightforward to generalise the importance of ecosystem services or extrapolate results to other areas of the GoM.
- Similarly, the relative importance of different ecosystem types varies greatly across villages. In all cases, however, rivers and the sea are the most important source of harvestable resources.
- Harvested resources are primarily sold but a substantial proportion is also used for subsistence consumption. The value of subsistence income can be high; the average household directly consumes resources from rivers and the sea with a value of 10.8 million MMK (1,200 USD) per year.
- A high proportion of households that coastal ecosystems have changed negatively (in extent, condition and access) during the past  $10$  years and view the conversion of ecosystems to agriculture as detrimental to their livelihood.
- Making a comparison between the annual value of coastal ecosystems and agricultural land, we find that the value of ecosystem services from mangroves and mudflats generally exceeds the returns on land converted to agriculture.

#### <span id="page-37-2"></span>**4.2 Limitations**

The analysis and results described in this report are constrained by several limitations and uncertainties that are identified here to transparently frame the robustness of the results and identify avenues for future research.

- The valuation of provisioning services in this report provides a snapshot of the current harvest level but does not assess whether this level is sustainable (i.e., exceeds the capacity of the ecosystems to provide this service in the long term). An assessment of the sustainability of resource harvesting would require understanding and projection of harvests and ecosystem dynamics over time.
- Related to the previous point, the coastal ecosystems in the Gulf of Mottama are changing over time due to a combination of natural and human processes, which has consequences for the provision of ecosystem services. The perceptions of these changes by the local communities are captured through in the household survey. The valuation results presented in this report, however, provide a snapshot of the current level of provision. Further research could develop scenarios for the future extent, condition, and

accessibility of coastal ecosystems, and how the economic value of ecosystem services changes accordingly. 

- The study only estimates the value of a limited set of ecosystem services. Other regulating services and recreation could also be relevant to land use decisions.
- Only a small number of villages are included in the assessment. These show considerable variation in terms of the extent of coastal ecosystems and dependence on ecosystem services. This provides too narrow a basis to extrapolate the results to other villages in the Gulf of Mottama.

#### <span id="page-38-0"></span>**4.3 Key Recommendations**

- Mangroves provide high value coastal protection service, and it is advisable to protect, restore and possibly extend the area of this ecosystem.
- Given the observed variation in the value of coastal ecosystem services across locations, there is a need to target conservation efforts to areas that would deliver high ecosystem service values relative to the costs (i.e., deliver high net returns). Such a cost-benefit analysis (CBA) approach to ecosystem conservation would require, in addition to the valuation of benefits, measurement of the effectiveness of various conservation actions and their respective costs, including both implementation costs and the opportunity costs of restricted activities.
- Additional questions for future research projects include: What are the social impacts of conservation interventions, especially for communities that use coastal ecosystems for subsistence and/or cultural activities? How can local communities be engaged and involved to support ecosystem conservation?

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## <span id="page-40-0"></span>**6 APPENDIX**

## <span id="page-40-1"></span>**6.1 Household Survey Instrument**























#### <span id="page-48-0"></span>**6.2 Supplementary Data**



**Table 6.1.** Mean price per kilogram (in MMK) of each resource extracted from ecosystems in each village. The prices are direct selling prices to the local collectors and/or wholesalers.

 $*Unit = stack$ 

**Table 6.2.** Economic values (MMK) provided from farmland



<b>Village</b>	<b>Mangrove</b>	<b>Mudflat</b>	Grassland
Kar Te	106.99	1690.42	377.04
Sut Pa Nu	٠	615.03	80.47
Koe Tae Su	1.15	534.44	872.12
Aung Kan Thar	78.25	219.66	716.91
Taw Ka Mar	554.6	965.44	36.47
Zee Kone	251.45	873.68	39.59
<b>Mean Extent</b>	165.41	816.45	353.77

**Table 6.3.** The extent of coastal ecosystems (Ha) within 5 km radius of the villages

**Table 6.4.** The extent of coastal ecosystems (Ha) in each village where people are extracting resources

