

1 **The impacts of shrimp farming on land-use and carbon storage around**
2 **Puttalam Lagoon, Sri Lanka**

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31 **Abstract**

32 The expansion of shrimp aquaculture in Sri Lanka over the past three decades has
33 dramatically changed the coastal landscape, in particular by converting mangrove forests.
34 The current study quantified these impacts in the Puttalam lagoon, an area of the country that
35 has experienced some of the most destructive development. Land use change was analysed
36 using a multi-temporal set of aerial and satellite images taken in 1992/1994 (aerial
37 photographs), 2007 (SPOT 5) and 2012 (Pleiades). The area of shrimp farms increased by 2
38 777% over this 19-year period, with salt pans expanding by 60%. Mangroves declined in area
39 by 34% and coconut groves increased by 17%. Because of problems with disease many
40 intensive shrimp farms are abandoned after a few years, leaving denuded and unproductive
41 landscapes; here a large majority of farms (90% of the total area of shrimp aquaculture) were
42 found to be abandoned. The loss of carbon sequestration and storage services caused by this
43 unsustainable recent history of shrimp farming was calculated as one measure of
44 environmental impact. The documented land use changes in Puttalam lagoon resulted in an
45 estimated net carbon loss of 191 584 tC. This was mainly due to conversion of mangroves to
46 shrimp farms, making up 75.5% of the total carbon loss. These results demonstrate the scale
47 of environmental degradation caused by intensive shrimp farming in the study area, and
48 highlight the need for an entirely new aquaculture model in Sri Lanka.

49 **Keywords:** shrimp aquaculture; ecosystem carbon stock changes; land-cover changes;
50 mangrove; Sri-Lanka

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59 **1. Introduction**

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61 Although shrimp production in coastal pond systems is a traditional practice in Asia
62 (Dierberg and Kiattsimkul, 1996; Bergquist, 2007), recent decades have seen a huge increase
63 in the extent and intensity of shrimp aquaculture activities, driven by consumer demand from
64 Japan, North America and Europe (Primavera, 1997; Thornton *et al.*, 2003; Bergquist, 2007;
65 Bosma and Verdegem 2011). Sri Lankan shrimp farming became one of the fastest growing
66 industries in the 1980s, most likely inspired by the profits seen in established shrimp farming
67 practices in countries such as Thailand, Ecuador, Indonesia, China and Vietnam (Cattermoul
68 and Devendra, 2002; Munasinghe *et al.*, 2010).

69 Sri Lanka has 1700 km of coastline comprising lagoons and sheltered bays that are prime
70 sites for aquaculture development (Dayananda, 2004; Drengstig, 2013). Shrimp farming
71 started in the north western coast of the country, with pioneer farms established around
72 Chilaw Lake (Fig.1; Senerath and Visvanathan, 2001), which were followed by rapid
73 expansion particularly concentrated along the coast from Chilaw to Puttalam lagoon in the
74 northwestern province (NWP) (Dahdouh-Guebas *et al.*, 2001; Munasinghe *et al.*, 2010).

75 The major shrimp species cultured in Sri Lanka is *Panaeus monodon* (Fabricius), commonly
76 known as black tiger shrimp, which is naturally found along the Sri Lankan coast (Cattermoul
77 and Devendra, 2002). During its peak period, shrimp farming was an important source of
78 employment in Sri Lanka and shrimp exports represented one of the main sources of foreign
79 exchange for the country, accounting for 40-50% of total aquaculture exports (Senerath and
80 Visvanathan, 2001; Dayananda, 2004; Munasinghe *et al.*, 2010). Although there is significant
81 potential for the industry to contribute to national economic growth and to reduce poverty,
82 unsustainable shrimp culture causes environmental as well as socio-economic harm due to
83 the exploitation of coastal natural resources (Bergquist, 2007; Rajitha *et al.*, 2007). The major
84 environmental impacts of unsustainable shrimp farming have been well documented. The
85 main problems are caused by direct conversion of natural habitats to shrimp ponds, which
86 leads to drastic loss of mangrove forests, salt marshes, seagrass beds and mudflats, along with
87 many of their associated ecosystem services (Senerath and Visvanathan, 2001). Other
88 environmental impacts are caused by the disposal of untreated wastewater, rich in nutrients
89 and often laden with pesticides and antibiotics, directly into lagoon waters (EJF, 2004;
90 Primavera, 2006). Furthermore, excessive use of antibiotics encourages the emergence of

91 antibiotic-resistant strains whilst chemical discharges damage off-target populations and
92 pollute aquifers (Primavera, 2006; Bosma and Verdegem 2011). Other environmental
93 impacts may include declines in wild capture of fish and shrimp (Cattermoul and Devendra,
94 2002) and the spread of diseases such as the White Spot Syndrome Virus (WSSV), which is
95 considered the most serious pathogen of shrimp, causing 100% mortality within 7-10 days in
96 infected shrimp farms (Witteveldt *et al.*, 2004; Primavera, 2006). In the NWP of Sri Lanka,
97 which includes Puttalam lagoon, the Dutch Canal is the main source of water for shrimp
98 farms. This semi-enclosed coastal water system has a low flushing rate, which exacerbates
99 these problems, with hydrological changes, salinization of soil and water and siltation now
100 also recorded in the area (EJF, 2004; Weerakoon, 2007).

101 Because of disease and other problems, the productivity of intensive shrimp ponds often
102 declines after 4-10 years. Ponds may then be abandoned and new areas cleared during the
103 establishment of new ponds (Bosma and Verdegem, 2011). There are socio-economic as well
104 as environmental costs of intensive shrimp cultivation. The poorest people on the coast are
105 usually highly dependent on coastal ecosystems such as mangroves (Dayananda, 2004). In
106 Thailand, it has been estimated that intact mangrove forests have a total economic value 70%
107 higher than shrimp farms, largely because of the range of ecosystem services that are
108 destroyed by conversion of mangroves to ponds (Primavera, 2006). The expansion of
109 aquaculture despite these economic losses is testament to differences in power between those
110 who benefit and lose rather than any economic logic. A pattern of rapid expansion followed
111 by abandonment and local collapse of the industry, with resultant coastal unemployment, is a
112 sadly familiar story (Primavera, 2006).

113 Extensive mangrove destruction leads to loss of goods and services for local populations
114 including loss of coastal protection, decreased availability of timber and firewood and loss of
115 breeding and nursery grounds for fish (Alongi, 2002; Satyanarayana *et al.*, 2013). Mangroves
116 provide important habitat for a wide range of species hence their removal also reduces local
117 biodiversity (Pathirana *et al.*, 2008). One of the most important regulating ecosystem services
118 of mangroves is their ability to sequester carbon. In fact, they are amongst the most carbon
119 dense of all ecosystems and are thus globally important carbon sinks (Alongi, 2012). If
120 disturbed by land-use change, the carbon buried in mangroves has the potential to become a
121 significant source of greenhouse gas (Donato *et al.*, 2011). Carbon storage in mangroves is

122 also a factor for economic opportunities. A recent study valued carbon sequestration in
123 southern Kenya to be 251 USD/ha, measured from 2014 estimates, which makes this
124 ecosystem service the 2nd most valuable after protection against coastal erosion (Huxham *et*
125 *al.*, in press).

126 By providing a description of the actual shrimp farming situation and the coastal ecosystem
127 losses of services in Puttalam, this paper aimed to aid in the management and conservation of
128 mangroves as well as highlighted the need for more sustainable aquaculture practices around
129 the lagoon. There is indeed an important gap in Sri Lankan policies response to deforestation
130 as well as a need for stronger land use policies (Government of Sri Lanka, 2000;
131 Bandarathillake and Sarath Fernando, 2003). The current study had two objectives. First it
132 aimed to provide an up-to-date assessment of land-use changes driven by aquaculture in
133 Puttalam lagoon region during the period early 1990s to 2012. The second and final objective
134 of the current work was to assess the loss of carbon sequestration and storage ecosystem
135 services as one measure of environmental impacts of farm expansion in Puttalam.

136 Indeed, the latest available Sri Lankan national forest inventory dates from 1992-1996
137 (Mattsson *et al.*, 2012). Recording the presence of aquaculture ponds does not reveal their
138 economic viability; all authors recognise that many ponds are permanently or temporarily
139 abandoned (Di Nitto *et al.*, 2013). However, estimates of the degree of abandonment vary
140 widely. Hence this study also assessed the proportion of all ponds that are still productive,
141 which is essential information in considering the current state of the aquaculture industry in
142 Sri Lanka and how improvements can be made.

143 Finally, one of the key ecosystem services provided by mangroves is carbon sequestration
144 and storage. Removal of mangrove forests by shrimp farmers certainly causes the loss of
145 future sequestration potential and may lead to the partial or total loss of stored carbon.
146 However, there are no published reports on the impacts of shrimp ponds on carbon stores. A
147 final objective of the current work was therefore to assess the impacts of aquaculture in
148 Puttalam on the carbon balance of the landscape and to represent the spatial distribution of
149 carbon dynamics.

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151 **2. Methods**

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153 *2.1 Study site*

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155 This study was conducted in the Puttalam lagoon situated in the NWP of Sri Lanka (Fig. 1).

156 The lagoon has a surface area of 32 700ha and the surface temperature of the water ranges

157 from 28 °C to 32 °C (Pathirana *et al.*, 2008). The area is subject to a micro-tidal regime that

158 limits the tides to within 1m range. The Puttalam lagoon is connected to the open ocean

159 through the Dutch Bay located at the northern end of the lagoon. Seasonal precipitation levels

160 are driven by monsoon winds and show a bimodal pattern. The long rains fall between mid

161 May and early October and the short and weaker rains fall from December to early March (Di

162 Nitto *et al.*, 2013). The population density in Puttalam was 431/km² in 2010 (Ranasinghe,

163 2010) and most people in the area rely directly or indirectly on fisheries (Pathirana *et al.*,

164 2008). The west of the lagoon consists of sand dunes and long sandy beaches, while the east

165 and south are cultivated land and forest (Ranasinghe, 2010). Coconut plantations are the main

166 agricultural crop grown around the lagoon, as well as some banana, cashew, vegetables and

167 home garden areas. Shrimp ponds, salt pans and irrigation canals also commonly occur

168 (Ranasinghe, 2010). This coastal area presents ideal characteristics for the installation of

169 shrimp ponds such as protected coastal lagoons, easy access by road to and from the

170 international airport of Colombo as well as being located away from zones of political

171 conflict (Munasinghe *et al.*, 2010). The shrimp farms in Puttalam are mainly small-scale,

172 with 73% of them covering an area of less than 2 ha (Munasinghe *et al.*, 2010). A major

173 proportion of the total extent of mangroves in Sri Lanka is found in the Puttalam lagoon area,

174 especially in sheltered estuaries (Pernetta, 1993). These forests exhibit high floral diversity

175 and thus belong to the most valued mangrove forests in Sri Lanka (Amarasinghe, 1988;

176 Jayatissa *et al.*, 2002; Ranasinghe, 2010).

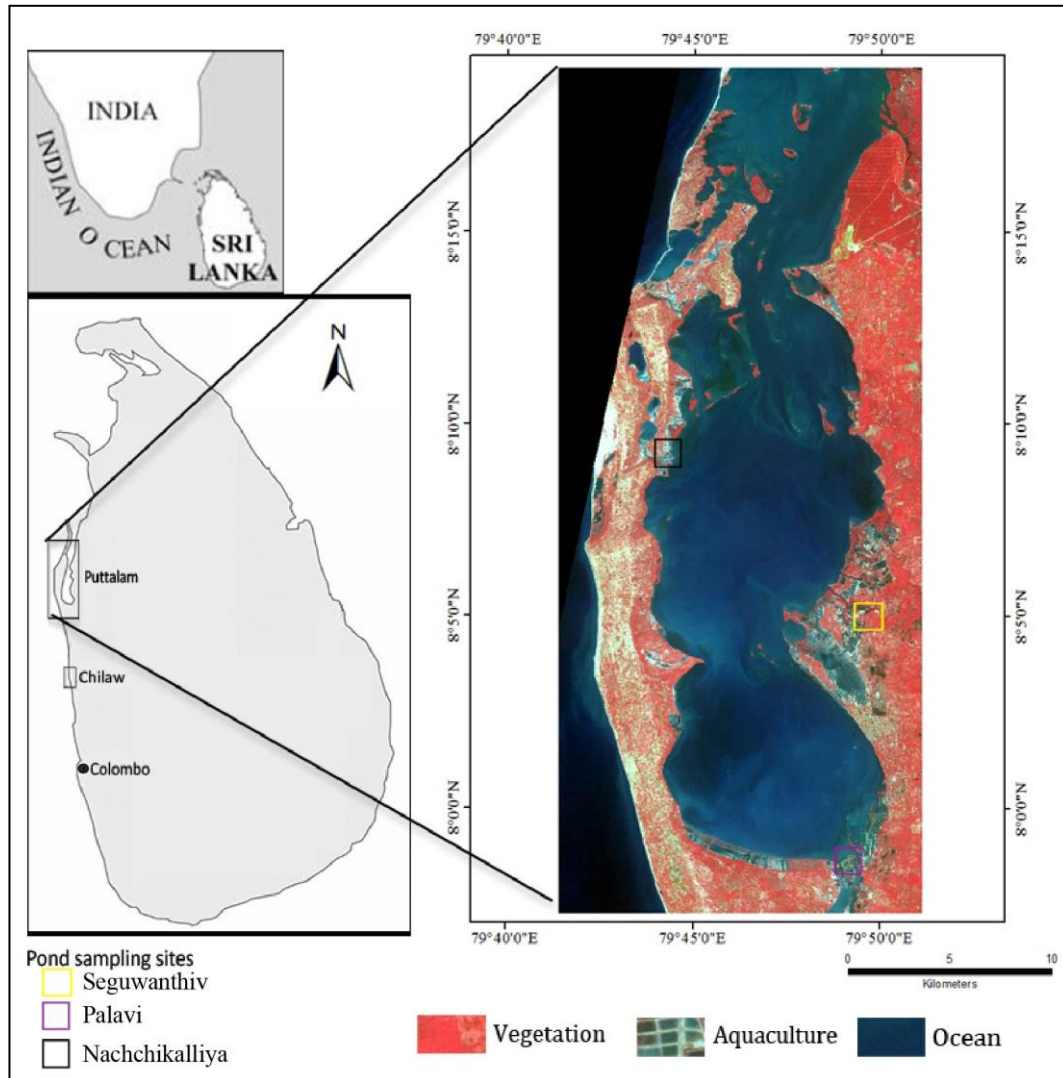
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181 **Figure 1** Overview of the study area: Puttalam lagoon in the north western province in Sri Lanka
 182 (SPOT5 data acquired in 2007, RGB=NIR-red-green).



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 210 **2.2 Land use change detection**

211 **2.2.1 Time series data**

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 214 The earliest remote sensing data available for this study consisted of thirty-six aerial
 215 photographs, acquired between 1992 and 1994, covering Puttalam lagoon (Survey
 216 Department of Sri Lanka).

217 The data set available for 2007 consisted of one SPOT 5 image covering the area of the
 218 lagoon. SPOT 5 images have a spatial resolution of 10 m in multispectral mode.

219 Finally, two overlapping Pleiades images were available from 2012, with a high spatial
 220 resolution of 50 cm and four bands (blue, green, red and NIR).

221 *2.2.2 Images processing*

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223 The aerial photographs were geo-referenced using ArcGIS 9.3 (The Environmental Systems
224 Research Institute, USA) (UTM map projection: WGS_1984datum, UTM_Zone_44N),
225 resulting in an average root mean square error of 8.95m. They were then compiled together
226 with the mosaic tool in ArcGIS.

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228 Then the photographs and the SPOT 5 image were classified using an Object-Based Image
229 Analysis (OBIA) within eCognition 8.7 (Definiens-Imaging, Germany). All scenes were
230 featured in a UTM map projection (WGS_1984 datum, UTM_Zone_44N). The OBIA creates
231 “objects” by segmenting an image into groups of pixels showing similar characteristics based
232 on spectral properties such as spectral band or index (e.g. NDVI) means, and on spatial
233 properties such as image texture.

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235 The segmented object properties were then used for image classification (Robin *et al.*, 2010;
236 Heumann, 2011). Two multi-resolution segmentations were applied within eCognition
237 software to the SPOT 5 image with the same weight for each of the three bands. The first
238 segmentation (scale parameter=30, shape=0.05, compactness=0.5) was used to extract
239 aquaculture ponds (shrimp farms and salt pans). As pond areas are clearly demarcated by
240 dykes, they exhibit a good structure for segmentation. A second segmentation was performed
241 in order to detect mangrove forest patches (scale parameter=10, shape=0.05,
242 compactness=0.5). A multi-resolution segmentation was also applied to the aerial
243 photographs (scale parameter=50, shape=0.5, compactness=0.5).

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245 *2.2.3 Image classifications*

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247 A visual classification of different land uses in Puttalam lagoon (four classes: shrimp farm,
248 salt pan, mangrove, coconut plantation) was performed at the object level resulting from
249 multi-resolution segmentation of the aerial photographs. The classification was based on
250 visual analysis of the aerial photographs using features such as tonality or texture. Some areas
251 of the lagoon could not be classified for 1992-1994 as photographs were not available,
252 resulting in 4% of the study area not covered by these data.

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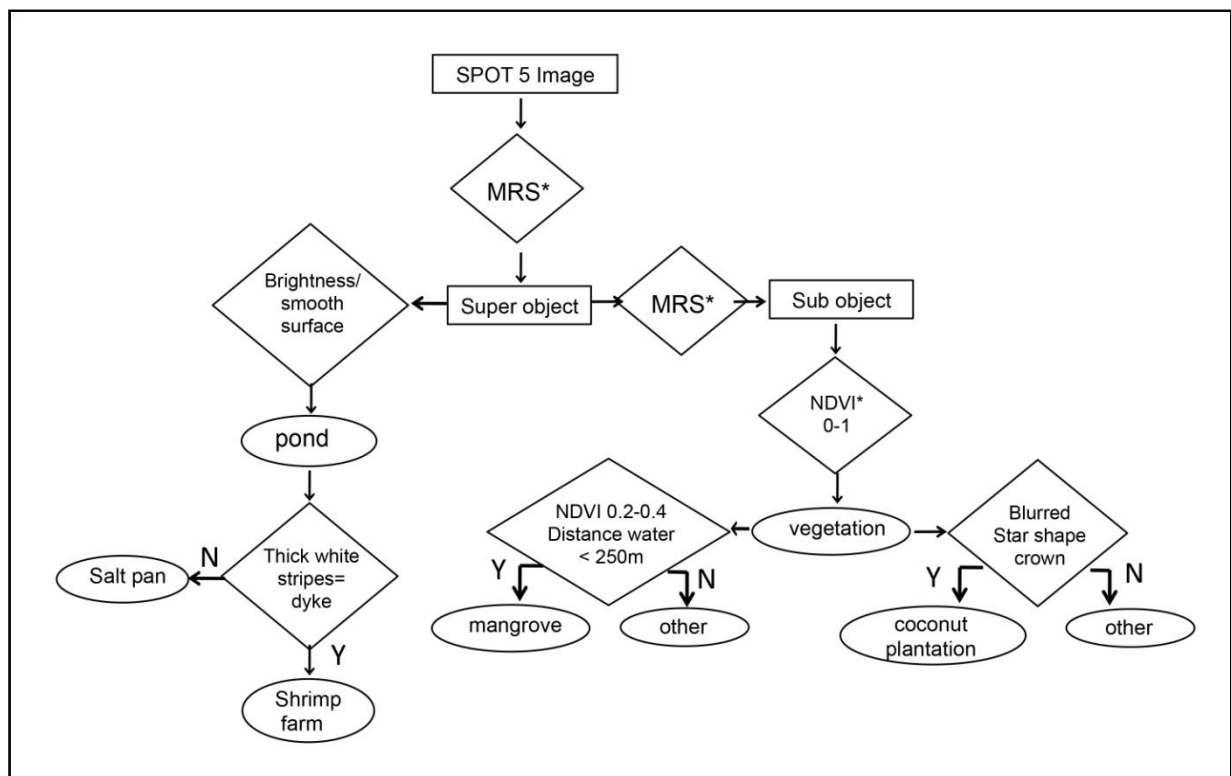
254 The classification of the SPOT 5 image was carried out following the multi-resolution
 255 segmentation using the same land use classes mentioned above. The classes were derived
 256 within eCognition software using a decision tree (Fig. 2). When confusion between objects
 257 occurred, they were manually edited using visual interpretation and existing maps of the area
 258 when available.

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Figure 2 OBLA decision tree (rectangle=image, diamond = rule, oval = class) used to classify the
 SPOT 5 image from 2007. * MRS = Multi-Resolution Segmentation, NDVI = Normalized Difference
 Vegetation Index, Y= Yes, N=No.

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278 Finally, the Pleiades images from 2012 were also classified with the same use classes using
 279 the Iso cluster tool within ArcGIS 10. The Maximum Likelihood Classification (MLC, in
 280 ArcGIS 10) was then applied to the image. MLC is an unsupervised classification based on
 281 an automated routine. The results were then refined manually to reduce error.

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283 2.2.4 Validation

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285 A total of 360 reference points were used within Google Earth images (Google Earth, 2011)
 286 to assess the accuracy of the land-use/cover classification produced for the 2012 data set. A
 287 confusion matrix with descriptive statistics (Table 1) was computed as per Carney *et al.*

288 (2014). An overall classification accuracy of 79% was achieved for the 2012 Puttalam lagoon
 289 land-use/cover classification using the MLC method. The largest classification error occurred
 290 for the class ‘Other’ (with 62% accuracy, Table 1), while Coconut plantations was the most
 291 accurate class (92% accuracy, Table 1). Accuracy of classifications from aerial photographs
 292 and SPOT5 image could not be assessed due to the lack of reference data at that time.
 293 However, as the aerial photography classification was based on visual assessment and only
 294 four classes were used, the chance of misclassification was minimised.

295

296 **Table 1** The accuracy confusion matrix of Pleiade classification image.

<i>Categories</i>	<i>Mangroves</i>	<i>Shrimp farms</i>	<i>Salt pans</i>	<i>Coconut plantations</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>User's accuracy</i>
Mangroves	56	0	0	0	13	69	81%
Shrimp farms	0	77	0	0	7	84	92%
Salt pans	1	0	31	8	3	43	72%
Coconut plantations	0	0	0	59	5	64	92%
Other	0	8	7	23	62	100	62%
Total	57	85	38	90	90	360	
Producers's accuracy	98%	91%	82%	66%	69%		

Overall Classification Accuracy = 79.17 %

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298 2.3 Carbon stocks

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300 2.3.1 Belowground carbon stocks in mangrove forests and coconut plantations

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302 For this study, three abandoned shrimp ponds (*Nachchikalliya*: abandoned for 5 years,
 303 *Palavi*: abandoned for 7 years and *Seguwanthiv*: abandoned for 13 years, Fig. 1), resulting
 304 from the conversion of mangroves, as well as intact mangroves adjacent to them, were
 305 sampled in January 2014. Samples (n=9) were collected from mangrove sites using a deep
 306 soil corer. Subsamples were taken for the determination of sediment bulk density and carbon
 307 concentration at the following depths (cm): 0-5, 5-10, 10-20, 20-50, 50-100, 100-150, 150-
 308 200 and 200-250. The Loss On Ignition (LOI) method was applied to the sediments
 309 (Kauffman and Donato, 2012). Dry biomass was converted into carbon mass using

310 carbon:biomass ratios of 45% (IPCC, 2014) and soil carbon storage was calculated as
311 described by Donato *et al.* (2012).

312 Using the pond surface area, depth and the soil bulk density at each depth interval, the
313 amount of soil removed (in kg) due to conversion into ponds was estimated. The carbon soil
314 storage patterns prior to pond excavation were assumed to be similar to the adjacent
315 mangrove forests. Thus, the amount of carbon lost with the removed soil for each depth
316 interval of the ponds was obtained as the product of soil carbon content in mangroves and the
317 total soil weight removed at the same depth in ponds.

318 Coconut soil carbon content was measured using the same method. Samples (n=7) were taken
319 each time at two depths (cm): 0-15 and 15-50. A LOI: CN ratio of 31% was determined by
320 analysing sediments for C:N ratio (Kauffman and Donato, 2012). Soil carbon storage was
321 then calculated.

322

323 2.3.2 Spatial distribution

324

325 To estimate carbon (C) vegetation stock balance related to land cover/use changes detected in
326 the study area between 1992/1994 and 2012, C vegetation stocks ($t\cdot ha^{-1}$) were taken either
327 from the literature or from new field measurements (Table 2). Carbon gained or lost between
328 1992/1994-2007 and 2007-2012 for transitions between the land use categories was
329 determined using GIS. Parameters queried for each possible combination of land-use/cover
330 change were as follows: belowground carbon (BGC), aboveground carbon (AGC), Net
331 Primary Production rates (NPP) and belowground storage rates (BS) (Table 2). Time since
332 conversion was used to calculate the sums of annual carbon increments gained or lost in
333 conversions involving mangroves. Information about the exact year of change from one land
334 cover to another was taken from the literature when available. If a conversion from
335 vegetation cover (mangroves or coconut plantations) to aquaculture ponds was detected
336 between 1992/1994 and 2007, the year of conversion was estimated to be 1995 since this is
337 recorded as the peak year in this time envelope for new aquaculture developments (IUCN
338 2009). On the contrary, when a return from aquaculture to vegetation cover was observed, the
339 estimated year of conversion was 2004 as a major WSSV outbreak caused waves of decline
340 in the industry in 2004-2005 (Munasinghe *et al.*, 2010). No literature related to the changes in
341 coconut plantations along the lagoon was found. Thus conversion from either coconut
342 plantation to mangrove or mangrove to coconut plantation was estimated to take place at the

343 mid-point of the time series (in 2000 for 1992/1994-2007, or in 2009 for the 2007-2012
 344 series). These assumptions were made in the absence of remote-sensed data for each year
 345 between 1992-2012. Carbon stock changes induced by conversion into salt pans were
 346 assumed to be the same as for a conversion into shrimp ponds, as deforestation techniques
 347 used to clear the ponds are identical.

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349 **Table 2** Carbon stock and flow values for each vegetation cover as well as gain or loss applied to each land
 350 cover changes detected in the study area. BGC=belowground carbon; AGC=aboveground carbon; NPP=net
 351 primary production; BS=belowground storage rate from trapped sediment. M=mangrove; SF=shrimp farms;
 352 SP=salt pan; C=coconut plantations. Other= land use other than mangroves, aquaculture or coconut groves.
 353 Carbon stocks are expressed in $t.ha^{-1}\pm SD$. If SD does not figure in the table this means the value was not given
 354 in the literature.

	BGC		AGC		NPP		BS	
	$tC.ha^{-1}$	Source	$tC.ha^{-1}$	Source	$tC.ha^{-1}.yr$	Source	$tC.ha^{-1}.yr$	Source
Mangrove	199.18± 19.02	Field measurement	159	Donato <i>et al.</i> (2011)	5.3	Alongi, (2009)	1.74±0.23	Alongi, (2014)
Coconut plantation	34.15 ±31.01	Field measurement	194.4	Mattsson <i>et al.</i> (2009)	n/a		n/a	
Land-use change queries	BGC		AGC		NPP		BS	
M → SF / SP	-186.64±26.49		- 159		- 5.3		-1.74±0.23	
SF/SP → M	n/a		n/a		+ 5.3		+1.74±0.23	
C→SF/SP	-34.15 ±31.01		-194.4		n/a		n/a	
SF/SP → C	+34.15 ±31.01		+ 194.4		n/a		n/a	
M→C	-199.18± 19.02 +34.15 ±31.01		-159 + 194.4		n/a		n/a	
C→ M	n/a		-194.4		+ 5.3		+1.74	
M-No change	n/a		n/a		+5.3		+1.74	
M→ other	n/a		- 159		- 5.3		- 1.74	

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357 2.4 Establishing the number of working shrimp ponds

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359 In order to understand the degree of abandonment of shrimp ponds in Puttalam lagoon, high-
360 resolution images from 2011 on Google Earth were manually analysed. Shrimp ponds were
361 distinguished from salt pans based on their size: ponds exceeding 50x50m size were always
362 classified as shrimp ponds.

363 Functioning and non-functioning ponds were distinguished using various features. When the
364 boundaries of ponds were even and well shaped, the ponds and/or dykes were free from any
365 type of vegetation (*i.e.* herbs, bushes or trees) and not submerged by water; if they were full
366 of homogeneous water and some aerators were present then it was classified as a functioning
367 pond.

368 The dimensions of functioning/non-functioning ponds were measured using Google Earth
369 tools, allowing calculations of their areas. The first three of the abovementioned factors were
370 compulsory in categorising a pond as functioning. In order to ground truth the results, field
371 visits and interviews (n=20) with local people were carried out.

372

373 3. Results

374

375 3.1 Land use changes between 1992/1994 and 2012

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377

378 The outlines of the land use classification varied depending on the type of image (aerial
379 photograph, SPOT 5 or Pleiades). In order to compare patterns of land use/cover between
380 1992/1994, 2007 and 2012, images were extracted by mask within ArcGIS to show the same
381 area and thus be comparable. The quantifications of change in land use between 1992/1994
382 and 2012 are shown in table 3. There was a dramatic expansion of shrimp farms during this
383 period (+ 2777%, Table 3). Highlighted in Fig. 3 is the Mee-Oya estuary on the east of the
384 lagoon that represents these patterns of change.

385

386 The rate of growth in the area of shrimp farms was higher between 1992/1994 and 2007, with
387 an increase of 71 ha year⁻¹, compared with a slower rate of 23 ha year⁻¹ between 2007 and
388 2012 (Table 4). On the contrary, the area of salt pans increased faster between 2007 and 2012
389 than between the early 1990s and 2007, +32 ha year⁻¹ and +12 ha year⁻¹ respectively (Table
390 4). The area of coconut plantations increased more between 1992/1994 and 2007 than
391 between 2007-2012, +27 ha year⁻¹ and +10 ha year⁻¹ respectively (Table 4). Mangroves were

392 lost at a rate of 27 ha year⁻¹ between 1992/1994 and 2007, while they increased by 3 ha year⁻¹
 393 between 2007 and 2012.

394

395 **Table 3** Land use areas in 1992/1994 and 2012 in Puttalam lagoon. Ratios of the area of shrimp farm (SF)
 396 to mangrove (M), and of shrimp farm (SF) to coconut plantation (CP) are indicated in the table, as well as
 397 the changes in land use areas between the beginning of the 90s and 2012. Percentages in brackets represent
 398 the percentage of total land areas.
 399

Land use	1992/1994 (ha)	2012 (ha)	Net Change (%)
Shrimp farms	39.63 (1%)	1 140.3 (20%)	+2 777.3
Salt pans	539.3 (13%)	862.1 (15%)	+59.8
Mangroves	1 093.7 (26%)	726 (13%)	- 33.6
Coconut plantations	2 535 (60%)	2 963.6 (52%)	+16.9
SF: M ratio	1: 28	1: 0.6	
SF: CP ratio	1: 64	1: 2.6	

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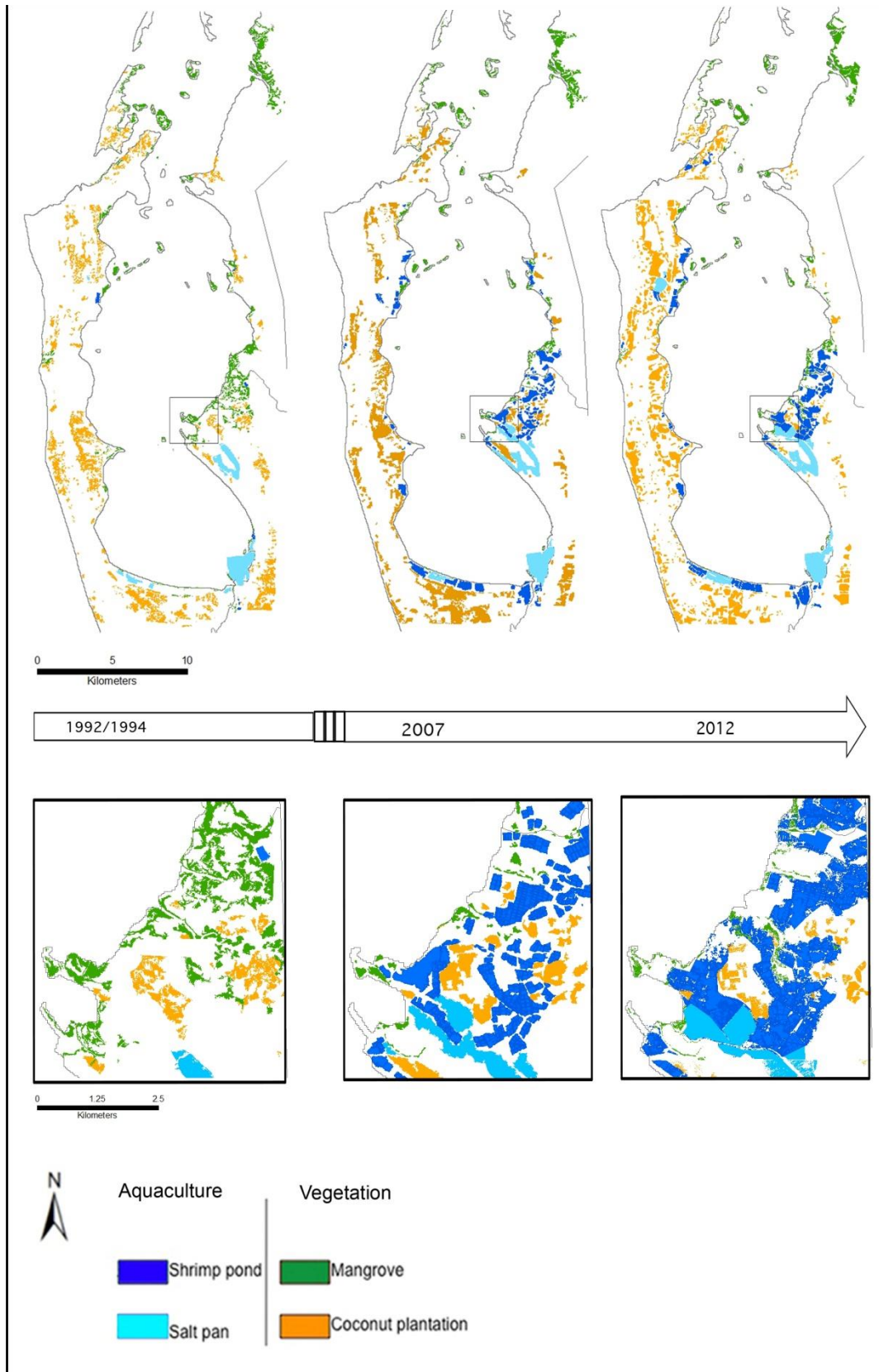
403 **Table 4** Hectares of each land use lost or gained per year for the Puttalam lagoon, based on the analysis of
 404 image classification between 1992/1994-2007 and 2007-2012.

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Land use	1992/1994-2007 (ha yr ⁻¹)	2007-2012 (ha yr ⁻¹)
Shrimp farms	+ 71	+23
Salt pans	+ 12	+32
Mangroves	- 27	+3
Coconut plantations	+27	+9.9

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Figure 3 Time series for the four land uses classified in this study in Puttalam lagoon, with a zoom in the Mee-Oya estuary, clearly showing expansion of shrimp farms and salt pans and loss of the coastal mangrove ecosystem between 1992/4 and 2012.



454 3.2 Impacts of shrimp farming on carbon dynamics between 1992/1994-2012

455
456 Figure 4 shows changes in carbon stocks between the early 1990s and 2012; it was obtained
457 by superimposing carbon gain/loss in 1992/1994-2007 and 2007-2012 (Supplementary
458 material table S1). The important areas of carbon accumulation are mostly located at the NE
459 of the lagoon, which is an area of mangrove forest with no aquaculture infrastructure.
460 Therefore, this area represents the capacity of mangroves as carbon stores when they are not
461 subject to intense deforestation. Losses of >2 000 tC have taken place mainly in areas where
462 mangroves were replaced by aquaculture ponds. The conversion from mangroves to shrimp
463 farms represents 24% all land cover changes to aquaculture observed between 1990s-2007,
464 which is the second largest proportion of land use changes due to aquaculture observed
465 around the lagoon (Fig. 5). The largest proportion of change is the conversion of 'Other' to
466 aquaculture, which includes mainly coastal vegetation (Fig. 5). A decrease of the conversion
467 from mangroves to shrimp farms can be observed between 2007-2012 (Fig. 5). During the
468 first time period of the study, 34% of mangroves were converted to shrimp ponds, and 23%
469 to other land use, which includes agricultural uses and housing areas (Table 5). Between
470 2007-2012 this conversion from mangroves to other land uses increased, with 32% of
471 mangroves present in 2007 lost in 2012 to 'Other' (Table 5). 41% and 59% of the mangroves
472 present in 1990s and 2007 respectively have not changed and have accumulated a total of 52
473 892 tC in 1990s-2012 (Table 5, S1), which represents by itself the major carbon
474 accumulation along the lagoon for the study period. The conversion of mangroves to ponds
475 (shrimp farms and salt ponds) led to a loss of 186 359 tC between 1990s-2012, whilst the
476 conversion of coconut plantations into ponds accounted for 2 502 tC lost in Puttalam (S1).
477 Therefore, the conversion of mangrove into aquaculture ponds represents the most significant
478 carbon loss. The overall carbon loss in the study area for the time period 1990s-2012 was 191
479 584 tC (S1).

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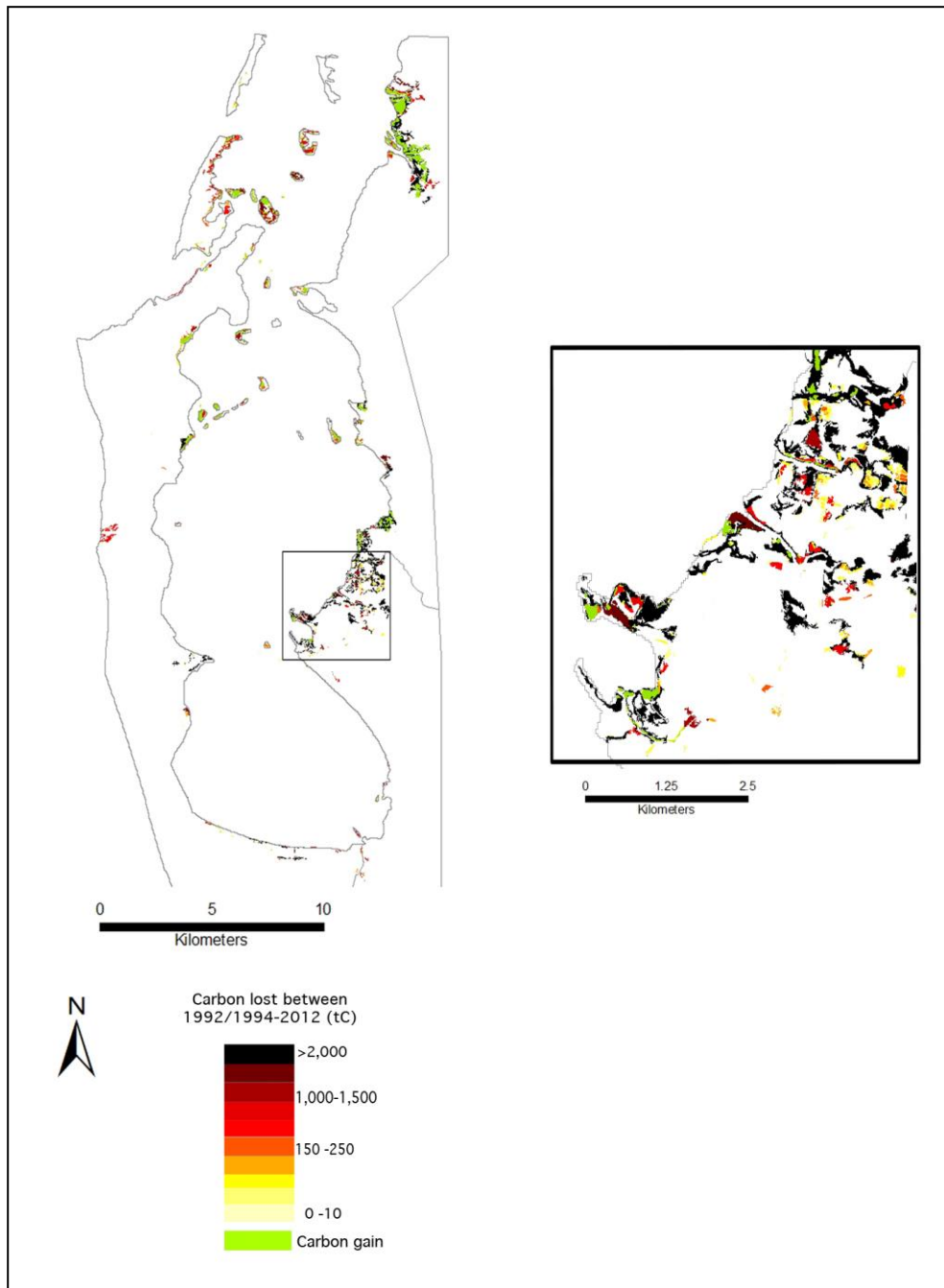
487 **Table 5** Combinations of land-use and their proportion of loss. M=mangroves; SF=shrimp farms; SP=salt
 488 pans; C=coconut plantations; other= other land-use. No change represents unchanged areas.
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	Area converted (ha)		Loss as % of original LC	
	1992/1994-2007	2007-12	1992/1994-2007	2007-12
C → M	1.12	1.38	0.04	0.05
C → SF	3.73	4.83	0.15	0.17
C → SP	0.21	2.17	0.01	0.07
C- no change	1 279.72	1 647.91	50.48	56.54
C → other	1 250.27	1 258.08	49.32	43.17
M → C	15.57	0.48	1.42	0.07
M → SF	374.67	64.34	34.26	9.05
M → SP	2.28	1.71	0.21	0.24
M- no change	446.92	418.73	40.86	58.90
M → other	252.9	226.36	23.12	31.84
SF → C	0.002	0.25	0.01	0.02
SF → M	0.28	1.02	0.71	0.10
SF → SP	0	23.69	0	2.31
SF- no change	26.48	775.13	66.82	75.54
SF → other	12.87	225.91	32.48	22.02
SP → M	0.52	0.001	0.10	0
SP → C	0	0.02	0	0
SP → SF	32.14	19.83	5.96	2.82
SP – no change	458.53	631.09	85.02	89.75
SP → other	48.63	52.25	9.02	7.43

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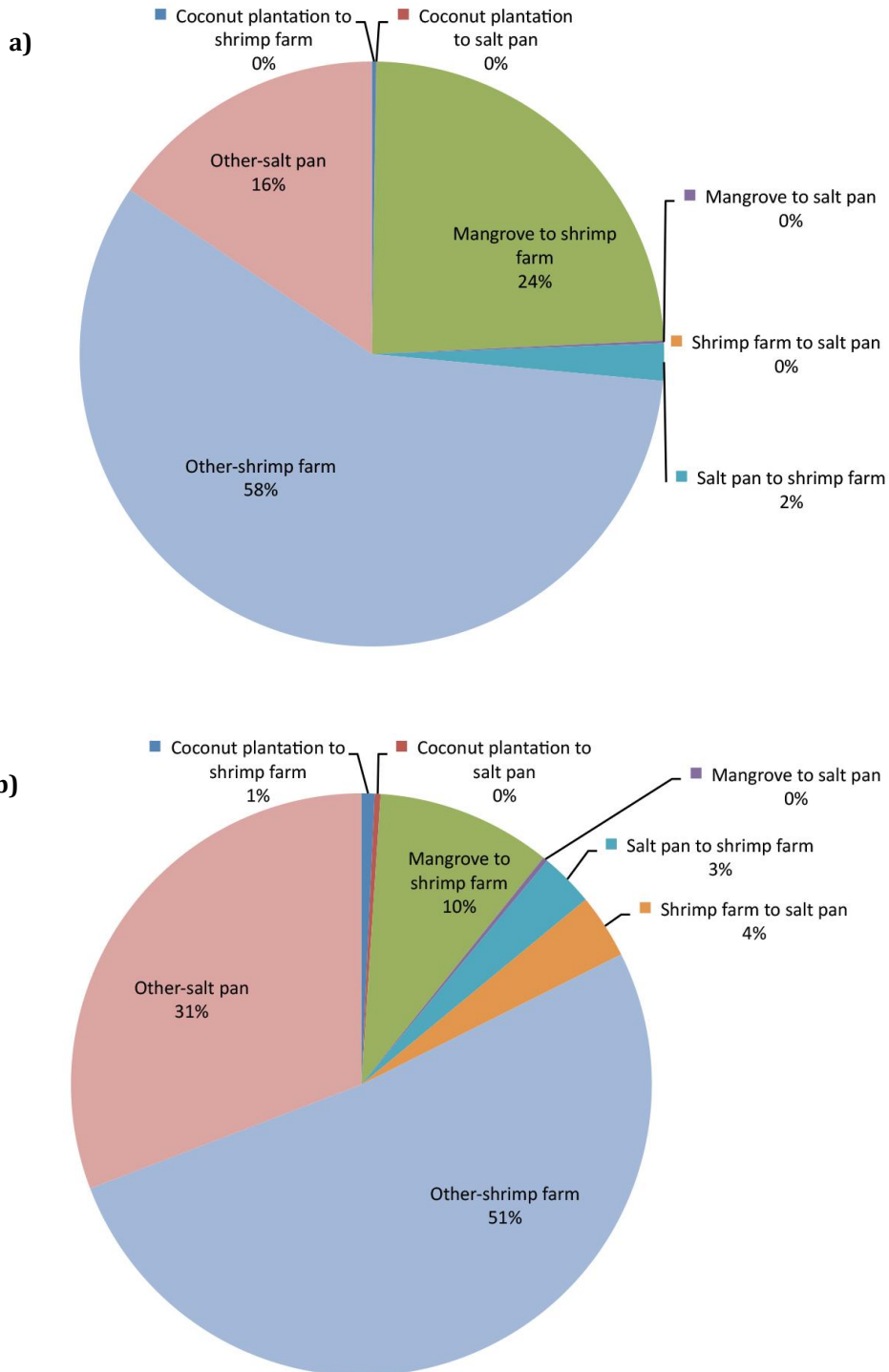
535 **Figure 4** Carbon dynamics in Puttalam lagoon between 1992/1994 and 2012, with a zoom in the Mee-Oya
536 estuary, which equates to a carbon loss of > 2 000tC with mangrove conversion to aquaculture.

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583 **Figure 5** The proportion of land cover/land use types converted to aquaculture around Puttalam lagoon
 584 between **a)** 1990s-2007 and **b)** 2007-2012.

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631 *3.3 Estimate of the current functioning shrimp farms area*

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633 Only 10% of the shrimp ponds in Puttalam lagoon were classified as currently productive,
634 leaving a large area of ponds unused. This number suggests a continuing decline in shrimp
635 farming viability around the lagoon, as 75 % of farms were estimated to be non-operational
636 in 2008 (Pathirana *et al.*, 2008).

637

638 **4. Discussion**

639

640 *4.1 The extent of shrimp farming in the Puttalam lagoon: impacts on land use/cover change*
641 *since 1992-1994.*

642

643 GIS and remote sensing techniques are potentially powerful tools to support the sustainable
644 management of shrimp aquaculture. Studies in India (Hossain *et al.*, 2003; Kumaran *et al.*,
645 2003), Brazil (Cavalcanti Maia Santos *et al.*, 2014), Mexico (Sanchez *et al.*, 2003),
646 Bangladesh (Salam and Ross, 2000; Quader *et al.*, 2004), Thailand (Tripathi *et al.*, 2000) and
647 Vietnam (Tong *et al.*, 2004; Giap *et al.*, 2005) give different case studies on how GIS and
648 remote sensing can be used to inform the management of shrimp culture. The present study
649 adds to the literature on this matter.

650

651 Previous studies of land use change caused by shrimp farming in the Puttalam lagoon used
652 aerial surveys conducted in the Puttalam district between 1981 and 1992 (Senarath and
653 Visvanathan, 2001; Pathirana *et al.*, 2008). The latest national forest inventory data available
654 for Sri Lanka are from 1992-1996 (Mattsson *et al.* 2012). Therefore, the time series presented
655 here provides a more recent and comprehensive picture of the impacts of aquaculture
656 development in the Puttalam lagoon.

657

658 The ratio of mangrove forests to shrimp farms changed from 28:1 at the beginning of the
659 1990s to 0.6:1 in 2012 (Table 3). These observations concur with studies of other sites on the
660 west Sri Lankan coast. In Chilaw, Dahdouh-Gubeas *et al.* (2001) recorded a ratio of
661 mangroves to shrimp farms of 2.6:1 in 1998 and noticed a historical trend towards 1:1, with
662 increasingly fewer mangroves and more shrimp ponds. The current results suggest that
663 shrimp farming dynamics are likely to be similar among lagoons in the NWP of Sri Lanka.

664

665 Between 1981 and 1992, 64% of the mangrove area in Puttalam was lost (Senarath and
666 Visvanathan, 2001). Approximately 34% of the remaining mangrove area has been lost
667 between 1992/1994 and 2012 in Puttalam (Table 3). Hence it appears that the rate of
668 mangrove destruction around the lagoon has decreased in recent decades, with a slight
669 increase in mangrove coverage in the final five years of our study. Mangrove loss observed
670 during the 1980s and 1990s was mostly caused by the initiation of shrimp farming in the
671 NWP, but could also be partly attributed to increased pressure from local populations; about
672 55% of house-holds used mangrove as firewood in the mid-1980s, and this consumption
673 further increased with an influx of political refugees in the west of the country (Senarath and
674 Visvanathan, 2001; Pathirana *et al.*, 2008; Ranasinghe, 2010).

675

676 Of the various types of land-use considered in the present study, 41% and 59% is represented
677 by mangrove area that remained forested between 1990s-2007 and 2007-2012 respectively
678 (Table 5). When considering only land use changes over the studied period, 34% of
679 mangroves were converted to shrimp farms between 1990s-2007, which is by far the largest
680 category of land-use change concerning mangroves (Table 5). This trend has changed more
681 recently, with 9% of mangroves that were converted to shrimp ponds between 2007 and
682 2012, leaving their conversion to other land uses becoming the major conversion occurring
683 around the lagoon (32%, Table 5). The land uses included in this miscellaneous category
684 were not classified using GIS. Our knowledge of the field site suggests that they include
685 conversion to other agricultural land uses (including paddy fields), loss to buildings, to scrub
686 or other coastal vegetation and to water.

687

688 Shrimp farms around Puttalam lagoon were mainly constructed on areas previously occupied
689 by coastal vegetation (classified as 'other' in this study). Nevertheless, a significant
690 proportion of these ponds also replaced mangrove areas, especially between 1992/1994-2007,
691 with 24% of land-use conversion to aquaculture attributed to the change from mangrove to
692 shrimp ponds (Fig. 5). This result shows that the impact of shrimp farms on mangroves in
693 Puttalam follows the dramatic trend of other countries where land cover changes related to
694 shrimp culture have recently been studied. For instance, 23.9% of mangrove cover has been
695 converted to shrimp farms between 1999 and 2008 in Ha Long, Vietnam (Bui *et al.*, 2014).

696

697 Only two salt ponds were present in the Puttalam area at the beginning of the 1990s (Fig. 3).
698 The salt industry also contributed, albeit to a lesser extent, to the loss of mangroves; in
699 1992/1994 only 13% of the lagoon was used for this purpose compared to 15% in 2012
700 (Table 3). Finally, conversion of mangroves to coconut plantations accounted for only a small
701 percentage of total land changes (1.42% and 0.07% in 1990s-2007 and 2007-2012
702 respectively, Table 5). However, the high carbon density of mangroves means this still
703 resulted in a loss of some 2 081 tC between the early 1990s and 2012.

704

705 Whilst large areas of valuable mangrove forest have been lost, this has not resulted in
706 permanent (or even extended) economic benefits for local people. Intensive shrimp farms
707 have a relatively short initial productive life, with problems of disease and pollution often
708 leading to permanent or temporary abandonment after 5 to 10 years. Stevenson (1997)
709 described this problem in Thailand and estimated that ‘up to 70%’ of all farms in the study
710 area were abandoned. Our data show that the situation in Puttalam is worse than this, with
711 90% of farms abandoned; because of the criteria used to identify abandonment, which
712 included the growth of vegetation which will take many years to establish, this estimate may
713 be conservative. Pond abandonment results in large areas of unoccupied land unsuitable for
714 most uses because of the unfavourable chemical and physical properties of the soil, which
715 include low pH and loss of organic structure (Towatana *et al.*, 2003).

716

717 Between the early 1990s and 2012, shrimp farms in Puttalam have been converted into
718 coconut plantations at a constant rate of 0.02% (Table 5). Some natural mangrove
719 regeneration can be observed in abandoned ponds, with 0.71% and 0.010% of shrimp farm
720 area classified as returning to mangroves during 19902/1994-2007 and 2007-2012
721 respectively (Table 5). However natural recovery of these ponds is likely to remain very
722 slow, due to limits on the dispersal ability of propagules (Di Nitto *et al.*, 2013) as well as the
723 chemical and physical unsuitability of the sediments.

724

725 Most shrimp farms in Puttalam were constructed illegally, thus appropriate site selection was
726 not performed (Cattermoul and Devendra, 2002; Dahdouh-Guebas *et al.*, 2001). Mangrove
727 areas are able to buffer the impacts of effluents from ponds in surrounding areas hence
728 retaining mangroves is one way of helping to ensure sustainability and avoiding collapse. The

729 low ratio of mangrove to shrimp farms (abandoned or operational) in Puttalam estimated in
730 the current study (0.6:1 in 2012, Table 3) will have contributed to the high rate of
731 abandonment and the slow rates of recovery of ponds.

732

733 The Sri Lankan government still considers aquaculture as an important industry for further
734 development (Department of National Planning, 2013). There is also now strong demand
735 from the EU for sustainable shrimp products (Lei, 2012). Therefore, there is policy and
736 economic potential for the rehabilitation of some of the abandoned ponds, which must
737 involve careful planning to ensure a correct balance between mangroves and aquaculture.
738 Achieving this would involve active policy support and intervention and must learn from the
739 mistakes of the past two decades, linking development to sustainability, climate change
740 adaptation and mitigation (Harkes *et al.*, in prep.).

741

742 *4.2 Impacts of shrimp farming on carbon storage and sequestration*

743

744 The exceptional ability of mangrove forests to sequester carbon and to store it belowground
745 makes carbon storage one of their most important regulating ecosystem services. By
746 assessing land-use changes in Puttalam during the two last decades, the present study
747 underlines the consequences of these dynamics for carbon stores. The land use patterns
748 studied in this research have caused a net loss of stored carbon of 191 584 tC between
749 1992/1994 and 2012. The conversion of vegetated areas into aquaculture ponds represents a
750 total loss of 188 861 tC in the 19-year period (S1). Mangroves were converted into coconut
751 plantations, especially between 1992/1994 and 2007, leading to a loss of some 2 081 tC
752 during the last two decades (S1). Reconversion of aquaculture ponds into vegetation is a
753 minor change, which has produced a total sequestration of 103 tC, contributing only an
754 estimated 0.2% of the total C accumulation in Puttalam over the study period.

755

756 **5. Conclusion**

757 This study shows that Puttalam lagoon has experienced significant land use changes in the
758 past two decades. There are implications for a range of ecosystem services; here we
759 document the effects on one, carbon sequestration, with a net loss of 191 584 tC in the 19-
760 year period. It is obvious that the development of shrimp farming has had a negative impact

761 on the coastal environment in Puttalam, and the loss of ecosystem services has not been
762 balanced by permanent economic benefits since 90% of ponds are now abandoned.

763

764 The results presented in this paper emphasise the requirement for integrated planning in the
765 Puttalam area. Most of the aquaculture in the study area is currently unproductive, has lost
766 natural ecosystem services such as carbon sequestration and has increased vulnerability to
767 natural hazards and climate change. Therefore there is a pressing need for reconversion or
768 rehabilitation of abandoned ponds in Puttalam lagoon. The findings of this study highlight the
769 need for more control over pond site selection and shrimp farming licences. The economic
770 and ecological advantages in implementing sustainable aquaculture practices in Puttalam are
771 potentially considerable.

772

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774

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Supplementary table S1: Carbon loss or gain induced by land cover/use conversion around Puttalam lagoon in 1992/1994-2012 in tC. M=mangrove; SF=shrimp farms; SP=salt pan; C=coconut plantations; other= other land-use; No change represents unchanged mangrove areas, included here to show amounts of carbon sequestered by untouched mangroves.

	Carbon stocks lost			Carbon stocks gained		
	1992/1994-2007	2007-12	1992/1994-2012	1992/1994-2007	2007-12	1992/1994-2012
C → M	161.9	239.5	401.4			
C → SF	852.6	1 104.1	1 956.7			
C → SP	48.3	496.7	545			
M → C	2 017.8	62.7	2 080.5			
M → SF	161 153.1	23 600.3	184 753.4			
M → SP	979.4	626.3	1 605.7			
M → other	12 462.9	40 772.8	53 235.7			
SF → C				0.43	58	58.43
SF → M				6	21,5	27.5
SP → M				11	0.02	11.02
SP → C				0	5.6	5.6
M – no change				44 048.6	8 843.7	52 892.3
Total	177 676	66 902.4	244 578.4	44 066	8 928.8	52 994.9

Carbon balance: 191 584

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