

Study of Lessons Learned from Mangrove/Coastal Ecosystem Restoration Efforts in Aceh since the Tsunami



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By:

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Indonesia Programme



Bogor, November 2006

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Introduction

The Tsunami disaster on Dec 26, 2004 swept along 800 km of NAD province's coast, causing the death and loss of 167 thousand people. Around 500 thousand people lost their homes and livelihoods.

Up to December 2005, as many as 124 international NGOs, 430 national NGOs, dozens of donor and UN organizations, a variety of Government institutions and military institutions had been recorded, together with the community, to be working on rebuilding Aceh (BRR,2005).

The first step in the reconstruction effort focused mostly on the emergency response, particularly with regard to fulfilling the victims' need for basic items such as food, clean water and shelter. As conditions in the field began to improve, the emergency gradually subsided and work moved on to the next phase, rehabilitation. From that point on, attention began to be directed towards restoration of the environment, particularly in those areas hit by the Tsunami. A number of organizations, both government and non-government, initiated a variety of environmental restoration activities, in particular the planting of mangrove and other coastal vegetation in an effort to restore the coastlands. Within only a couple of months, coastal rehabilitation actions had mushroomed throughout the Aceh coast. And the hitherto unknown term 'mangrove' suddenly become familiar in the community, who had previously called it by its local name "bak banka".

After 1.5 years of coastal rehabilitation activity, the results are now clear. Only a small fraction of it has been successful, the rest has failed. This can be seen simply from the low survival rate of plants in the field. Reasons given for the failures include: mistakes in the selection of planting sites, unsuitable choice of plants, insufficient preparation, inadequate guidance, no tending of the plants, and the low capacity of human resources.

Another weakness found in the field was the very limited amount of community involvement in the rehabilitation activity. Communities tended to be included only as workers, not as partners involved actively and continuously. Moreover, coordination and information sharing among the stakeholders concerned with the rehabilitation activity were very poor.

A mistaken perception among the implementers was that rehabilitation activity ended once the seedlings had been planted in the field. The result as they saw it, therefore, was the number of seedlings planted, not the number that survived after planting.

Apart from the matters mentioned above, the coastal rehabilitation activities underway in NAD province have provided a great many experiences and valuable lessons. Sadly, these escaped the attention of the stakeholders in Aceh, who therefore failed to learn anything from them. For this reason, Wetlands International-Indonesia Programme collaborated with UNEP to undertake this Study of Lessons Learned from Mangrove/Coastal Ecosystem Restoration Efforts in Aceh since the Tsunami.

In this study, the causes of failures have been identified and extracted from a variety of stakeholders. It is important that all stakeholders in Aceh be informed of these so that they can avoid the factors that contribute to failure. In this way, past mistakes can be prevented from being repeated in the future. In addition, this study also provides a range of information, experience, strategies and other matters relevant to supporting the rehabilitation activities undertaken by both government and NGOs. It is hoped that the suggestions and recommendations made in this study can be used to support rehabilitation efforts in NAD Province.

Glossary and Abbreviations

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| ADB | <i>Asian Development Bank</i> |
| Bappeda | Badan Perencanaan dan Pembangunan Daerah (<i>Regional planning board</i>) |
| Bappenas | Badan Perencanaan dan Pembangunan Nasional (<i>National planning board</i>) |
| Bapedalda | Badan Pengendalian Dampak Lingkungan Daerah |
| BRR | Badan Rehabilitasi dan Rekonstruksi |
| BKSDA | Balai Konservasi Sumber Daya Alam (<i>Natural Resources Conservation Agency</i>) |
| BP-DAS | Balai Pengelola Daerah Aliran Sungai (<i>Watershed management authority</i>) |
| CBO | <i>Community Based Organization</i> |
| CITES | <i>Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild flora and fauna</i> |
| CII | <i>Care International Indonesia</i> |
| CPSG | <i>Campus Professional Scientific Group</i> (LSM yang beranggotakan staff pengajar muda dan mahasiswa UNSYAH) |
| Dishut | Dinas Kehutanan (<i>Forestry office</i>) |
| Disbunhut | Dinas Kehutanan dan Perkebunan (<i>Forestry and plantation office</i>) |
| Dishutbuntran | Dinas Kehutanan, Perkebunan dan Transmigrasi (<i>Forestry, plantation and resettlement office</i>) |
| Dispertanhutbun | Dinas Pertanian, Kehutanan dan Perkebunan (<i>Agriculture, forestry and plantation office</i>) |
| DKP | Dinas Kelautan dan Perikanan (<i>Marine and Fishery office</i>) |
| dpl | di atas permukaan laut (<i>above sea level</i>) |
| ETM | <i>Enhanced Thematic Mapper</i> . Suatu system dalam pencitraan yang dimiliki oleh satelit Landsat. |
| FAO | <i>Food and Agriculture Organization</i> |
| GCRP | <i>Green Coast Recovery Project, securing the future of nature and people after the tsunami</i> . Atau disingkat Green Coast for Nature and People after the tsunami atau Green Coast. Proyek ini didanai oleh Novib (Oxfam) Netherlands dan di Indonesia dilaksanakan oleh WI-IP dan WWF |
| GPS | <i>Global Positioning System</i> |

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| GNRHL | Gerakan Nasional Rehabilitasi Hutan dan Lahan (<i>National Movement of land/forest rehabilitation</i>) |
| INTAG | Inventarisasi dan Tata Guna Hutan. Salah satu direktorat jenderal di Departemen Kehutanan yang menangani kegiatan-kegiatan yang terkait dengan perpetaan, inventarisasi dan tata guna lahan. Saat ini, institusi ini telah berubah nama menjadi BAPLAN (Badan Planologi Kehutanan). |
| IOM | <i>International Organization for Migration</i> |
| IPB | Institut Pertanian Bogor |
| ITTO | <i>International Timber Trade Organization</i> |
| IUCN | <i>International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources</i> |
| Kab. | Kabupaten |
| Kades | Kepala Desa |
| Kapet | Kawasan Ekonomi Terpadu |
| Kec. | Kecamatan |
| KK | Kepala Keluarga |
| KMS | Koalisi Masyarakat Sipil |
| KSM | Kelompok Swadaya Masyarakat (CBO – <i>Community Based Organization</i>) |
| LAPAN | Lembaga Antariksa dan Penerbangan Nasional |
| LREP | <i>Land Resources Evaluation and Planning Project</i> |
| LSM | Lembaga Swadaya Masyarakat |
| NAD | Nangroe Aceh Darussalam |
| NGO | <i>Non Government Organization</i> |
| PBB | Perserikatan Bangsa-bangsa |
| PEMDA | Pemerintah Daerah |
| Puslitanak | Pusat Penelitian Tanah dan Agroklimat (sekarang namanya diganti menjadi Balai Besar Litbang Sumberdaya Lahan Pertanian) |
| Prop. | Propinsi |
| Ramsar | Konvensi Internasional tentang Lahan Basah |
| Recharging zone | Daerah pengisian air tanah |

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| RePPPProT | <i>Regional Physical Planning Project For Transmigration</i> |
| Satker | Satuan kerja |
| SDM | Sumber daya manusia |
| SPT | Satuan Peta Tanah |
| Subsidence | Suatu proses turunnya permukaan tanah (ambeles) |
| Tk I | Tingkat I (Propinsi) |
| Tk II | Tingkat II (Kabupaten) |
| UKM | Unit Kegiatan Mahasiswa |
| UNEP | United Nation Environment Programme |
| UNSYIAH | Universitas Syiahkuala |
| TPI | Tempat Pendaratan Ikan |
| WALHI | Wahana Lingkungan Hidup |
| WI-IP | <i>Wetlands International – Indonesia Programme</i> |
| WWF-I | Yayasan <i>World Wide Fund for Nature Indonesia</i> |
| YPK | Yayasan Pengembangan Kawasan |
| ZEE | Zona Ekonomi Eksklusive |

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2. Coastal Condition Before the Tsunami

In general, Aceh's coast can be divided into two parts: east coast and west. The east coast lies from north to east, comprising the districts of Aceh Besar, Banda Aceh, Pidie, Bireun, Aceh Utara, Lhokseumawe, Aceh Timur, Langsa and Aceh Tamiang. The west coast lies from west to south, consisting of Aceh Besar District, Aceh Jaya, Aceh Barat, Meulaboh, Nagan Raya, Aceh Barat Daya, Aceh Selatan, Simeuleu Island and Aceh Singkil.

According to Forestry Department figures (2001), Aceh's shoreline runs 761 km along the east coast (from north to east) and 706 km along the west coast (from west to south), while the islands of the Simeuleu district have a total shoreline of ± 1000 km.

Aceh's east coast was mostly muddy beach which had once been covered by extensive areas of mangrove forest, while the west coast was dominated by sandy beach covered by casuarina (sea pine), coconut, hibiscus, and other species of coastal vegetation.

The land cover in NAD province can be divided into two types: forested and unforested. Prior to the Tsunami, the forested areas consisted of Primary Dry Forest, Secondary Dry Forest, Secondary Swamp Forest, and Mangrove Forest, while the unforested areas comprised Shrub land, Swampy Shrub land, Ricefield, Aquaculture Ponds, Transmigration area, and Settlement area.

The following is a description of the condition of different types of land cover along the coasts of Aceh that were hit by the Tsunami and earthquake; these are mangrove, coastal forest, peatland, swamp, aquaculture ponds, and sandy beach together with the surrounding vegetation formations.

2.1 MANGROVE FOREST

2.1.1 Condition of mangrove vegetation and a history of its utilization

Mangroves are a very common type of vegetation found on muddy shores. The areas where mangroves grow are generally known as 'tidal zones', i.e. a zone which is influenced by the ocean tides. Based on a number of studies in Aceh during the period before the Tsunami (Noor *et al*, 1999; Iwan Hasri, 2004; Siswani Sari, 2004) and field visits by a Technical Team from Wetlands International Indonesia Programme (Suryadiputra *et al*, 2006), it is known that the mangroves growing in Aceh before the Tsunami consisted of a variety of species, comprising: *Avicennia marina*, *A. officinalis*, *A. alba*, *A. lannata*, *Rhizophora mucronata*, *R. Apiculata*, *R. stylosa*, *Bruguiera gymnorrhiza*, *B. parviflora*, *Ceriops tagal*, *C. decandra*, *Lumnitzera littorea*, *L. racemosa*, *Scyphiphora hydrophyllacea*, *Sonneratia alba*, *S. caseolaris*, *Excoecaria agallocha*, *Aegiceras corniculatum*, *Xylocarpus rumphii*, and *X. granatum*.

Mangrove forest growing on a flat muddy shore along a straight coastline characteristically shows zonation. The zone nearest the sea is dominated by *Avicennia spp.*, which tolerates high levels of salinity. Landwards from this, in the middle or mesozone, grow a variety of species, in particular *Rhizophora spp.*, *Lumnitzera spp.*, *Scyphiphora hydrophyllacea*, *Bruguiera spp.*, and *Ceriops spp.* Further inland where the land is drier (not affected by tides), the species *Xylocarpus spp.*, and *Aegiceras spp* grow well (Noor *et al*, 1999).



Figure 2-1. *Scyphiphora hydrophyllacea*, *Ceriops decandra*, *Bruguiera gymnorhiza*, and *Lumnitzera littorea* (left to right)

It must be remembered that even before the Tsunami Aceh's coastal areas had already suffered degradation, mainly along the east coast where, according to a variety of reports, serious damage had been done. The main causes of this were the development of shrimp ponds, oil palm plantations, and the felling of mangrove trees for charcoal. This had been going on for a long time and it was reported in the national press that in 1999 as much as 36,000 hectares of mangrove forest had been cut down to be made into charcoal (Kompas, 13 February 1996).

The community has long had the tradition of making charcoal from mangrove trees. In fact, the utilization of mangrove for commercial purposes, such as timber export, bark (for tannin) and charcoal, has a long history. Charcoal has been used for making charcoal in Riau since the nineteenth century and still is today. The large scale exploitation of Indonesia's mangroves appears to have commenced at the beginning of the twentieth century, especially in Java and Sumatra (van Bodegom, 1929; Boon, 1936), although it seems that heavy equipment only started to be used in 1972 (Forestry Department & FAO, 1990). In 1985, 14 companies were granted licences to exploit a total of 877,200 hectares of mangrove forest, that is about 35% of the mangrove forest remaining at that time (Forestry Department & FAO, 1990).

BOX 2-1. Mangrove's function in protecting the coast

Mangrove plays an important role in protecting the coast from waves, wind and storms. Mangrove stands can protect settlements, buildings and agriculture from strong winds and from intrusion by sea water. Mangrove has been proven to play an important role in protecting the coast from the battering of sea and storms. The villages of Tongke-tongke and Pangasa, Sinjai, South Sulawesi, which both possess a dense strip of mangrove along their coast, were protected from the Flores Tsunami at the end of 1993, whereas neighbouring villages that did not have such dense mangrove cover suffered serious damage. In Bangladesh in June 1985, 40,000 coastal dwellers suffered as a result of hurricanes. Knowing the benefit of mangrove in mitigating storm damage, the Bangladesh Government then planted 25,000 hectares of coastlands with mangrove (Maltby, 1986 in Yus *et al*, 1999).

2.1.2 Distribution and extent of mangrove in NAD province

The most extensive mangrove areas on Aceh's east coast were in Aceh Timur and Aceh Tamiang. Moderate amounts of mangrove were also found in Aceh Utara and Bireun. Although very limited in area, mangrove forest could also be found in some places on the west coast, i.e. Aceh Jaya, Aceh Barat and Aceh Singkil. There were also extensive areas of mangrove on the east coast of Simeuleu island, and moderate amounts on the east coast of Pulau Banyak island. The map in Figure 2-2 below shows mangrove distribution in NAD province in 2000.

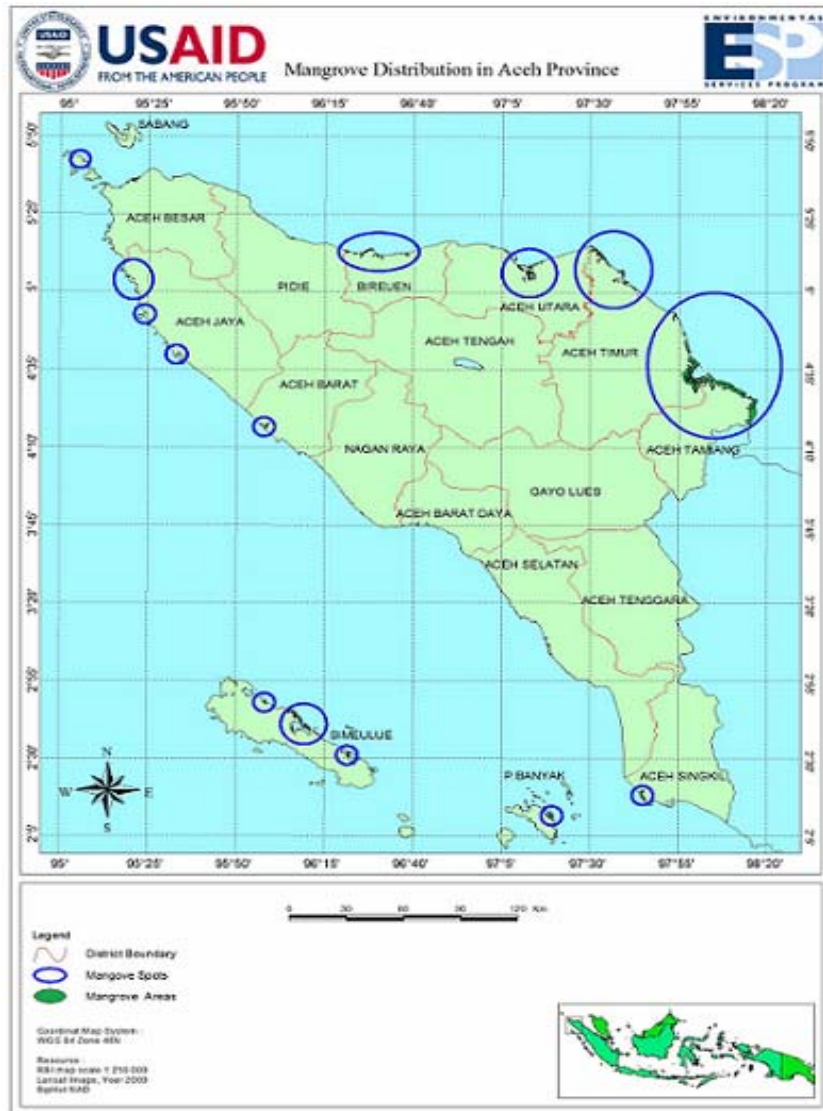


Figure 2-2. Map of Mangrove Distribution in NAD Province (Landsat image, 2000)

Data on the extent and distribution of mangrove in NAD Province varies considerably, mainly because of differences in the methods and definitions used to quantify it. Table 2-1 gives data from several sources on the extent of mangrove in Aceh province from 1982 to 2002.

Table 2-1. Extent of mangrove forest in Aceh Province before the Tsunami

| Source of data | Year | Extent (ha) |
|---------------------------|------|-------------|
| Bina Program | 1982 | 54,335 |
| Silvius <i>et al.</i> | 1987 | 55,000 |
| INTAG | 1996 | 60,000 |
| Giesen <i>et al.</i> | 1991 | 60,000 |
| Forestry Planology Agency | 2002 | 24,000 |

In 2004, the Department of Forestry announced in a press release that mangroves covered 296,078 ha on the east coast, 49,760 ha on the west coast and a total of 1000 ha in the Simeuleu District (press release no. S. 32/II/PIK-1/2004).

In 2000, however, the Department of Forestry had reported that only 30,000 ha of Aceh's coastal mangrove forest was still in good condition, including the mangroves on Simeuleu Island. A total of 286,000 ha of mangrove was in moderate condition, and 25,000 ha badly degraded.

One area of mangrove forest still in good condition and growing densely, according to a study done in January 2004, was that on the coast of Ulee Iheue, before it was swept by the Tsunami. An analysis of the vegetation in this forest recorded 167 *Rhizophora stylosa* trees and 9 *Rhizophora apiculata* in a small plot measuring only 10m x 10m (Siswani Dari, 2004).

Prior to the Tsunami, the main threats to the mangrove's continued survival were charcoal making and conversion to aquaculture ponds. In the district of Aceh Tamiang, it is reported that only 8,800 ha (44%) of the 22,000 ha of mangrove remained, the rest having been converted to aquaculture ponds and oil palm plantation (Forest Service of Tamiang District, 2006). The same trend was observed in other districts, particularly those on Aceh's east coast.

BOX 2-2. Green belt policy and spatial planning

The green belt is the zone of protected mangrove which is maintained all along the coast and which it is forbidden to cut down, convert or damage. The function of this mangrove green belt, in principle, is to preserve the coast from the threat of erosion and to act as a nursery and breeding ground for a variety of fish species.

Government policy to formulate a green belt began in 1975 with the publication of a decree by the Director General for Fisheries (SK Dirjen Perikanan No H.I/4/2/18/ 1975) which pronounced the need to maintain a belt of land along the coast, with a width of 400m measured from the average low tide level. The Director General for Forestry subsequently issued decree No. 60/KPTS/DJ// 1978 concerning guidelines for silviculture in areas of brackish water. This decree stipulated a 10m wide green belt along the length of rivers, and a 50m-wide one along the coast, measured from the lowest point at low tide.

In 1984, the Forestry and Agriculture ministers issued joint decrees No. KB 550/246/ KPTS/1984 and No. 082/KPTS-II/1984, which called for the conservation of a 200m wide green belt along the coast, forbade the felling of mangrove trees in Java, and placed a conservation order on all mangroves growing on small islands (less than 1,000 ha.)

In 1990, Presidential Decree No. 32 concerning the Management of Conservation Areas replaced all previous regulations on green belt and granted more satisfactory protection to green belt zones. The decree stipulated that coastal mangrove green belt should be a minimum of 130 times the average tide, measured landwards from the point of the lowest tide mark. In practice, however, this decree suffered from a number of weaknesses as regards its application in the field. Some of the criticisms leveled at the decree are as follows:

- The decree cannot be applied to areas which, as a result of exploitation or conversion at some time in the past, no longer possess mangroves. Provision has to be made for this.
- This decree cannot be used to make an effective determination of green belt on very wide flat shores or mud flats. In several such areas, if the green belt is measured from the lowest point at low tide, it will comprise nothing but mud flats and will not reach as far as the mangroves. This problem can be solved by having a definition of measurement that starts from the seaward edge of the mangrove.
- This decree does not press for the protection of mangroves as a whole nor of their ecological function. It disregards their ecological interdependence with, for example, terrestrial mangrove, freshwater sources or freshwater swamps. Unless the supporting ecosystems are also protected in a properly integrated manner, the future survival of the green belt will be at risk.
- This decree gives only one choice, conservation. This choice is inadequate for areas where the intensive utilization of mangroves has long been a tradition, with the result that it will be difficult to reach consensus on the management of mangroves in such areas. In Java, for example, almost the entire mangrove area has been utilized by the inhabitants for aquaculture ponds and for a variety of other uses which do not, in fact, support mangrove conservation.

In 1993, the Forestry Department advocated that the total extent of protected areas needed to be doubled from 15 million to 30 million hectares. This was relevant to much of the nation's mangroves. In response, a variety of organizations active in the field of nature conservation submitted proposals for new conservation areas and extensions to existing ones. One proposal for an additional 630,000 hectares of mangrove to be conserved was submitted by the Asian Wetland Bureau / Wetlands International – Indonesia Programme in 1994.

The most recent regulation on green belt is the Minister of Trade's instruction of 1997 concerning the Designation of Mangrove Forest Green Belt (Inmendagri No. 26, 1997). This instructed all governors and heads of local government throughout Indonesia to determine mangrove forest green belt areas in their respective part of the country (Noor *et al*, 1999).

2.2 BEACH FOREST

2.2.1 Distribution and extent of forest in NAD province

Forest which suffered direct impact from the Tsunami was that near to the coast, often referred to as 'beach forest'. Unfortunately, there is no data on the extent of beach forest in NAD province as it is not listed separately but classified under Primary Dry Forest or Secondary Dry Forest.

All the data obtained from various sources always indicates a decrease in forest area from year to year. Satellite image interpretation for 1999-2000 shows that NAD province had 1,417,000 ha Primary Dry Forest (Hutan Lahan Kering Primer/HLKP) and 1,179,000 ha Secondary Dry Forest (Hutan Lahan Kering Sekunder/HLKS) (Dept Forestry, 2002). Images for 2002-2003, however, show 480,000 ha of Primary and 2,413,000 ha of Secondary Dry Forest (Dept Forestry, 2005). So, in only 3-4 years, Primary Dry Forest had decreased by 937,000 ha while Secondary Dry Forest had increased by 1,234,000 ha, mainly due to the degradation of Primary forest caused by its exploitation for timber, both legal and illegal.

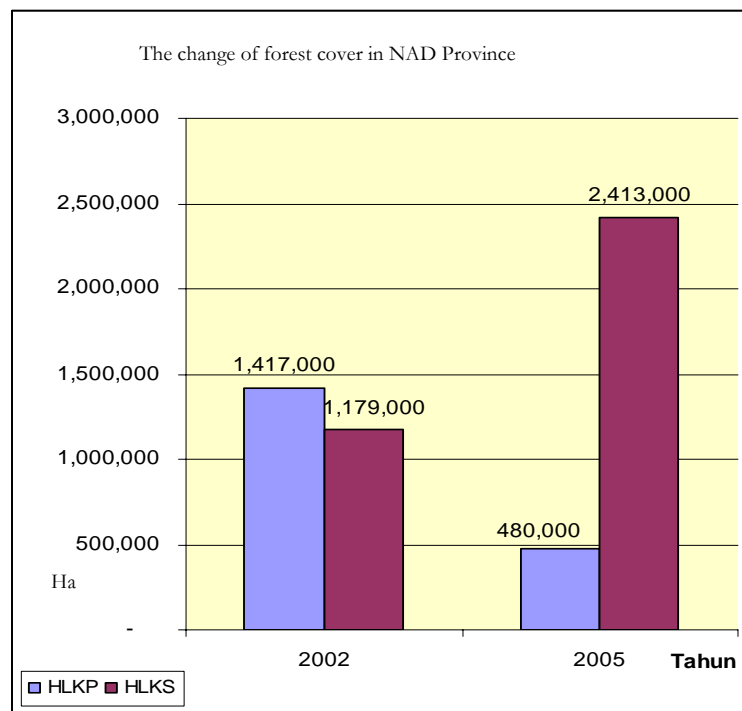


Figure 2-3. Changes to the extent of forest cover in NAD Province

2.2.2 Biodiversity

To date, no comprehensive study has yet been done specifically on the biodiversity of the whole of NAD province. Studies which have been done are generally scattered and not comprehensive. They are the result of observation, research or monitoring carried out in separate areas. One body of data that could be used as a basis for comparison for forest diversity in NAD is the data on the biodiversity of the Leuser Ecosystem, which covers:

- More than 4,500 species of vegetation

- 434 species of birds
- 392 species of mammal
- 171 species of herpetofauna (amphibians & reptiles)
- 350 species of insect, and
- 81 species of fish (UML Database, 2002, in Irfan,2002)

This means that around 45% of the total estimated number of plant species in the West Indomalayan region, 85% of all the bird species in Sumatra, and 54% of the estimated total land fauna species in Sumatra, are all found in the Leuser Ecosystem.

BOX 2-3. Biodiversity in Beach Forest, Pulot village – Aceh Besar

With its unique conditions, from the ocean shore in the west to the hills in the east, the Pulot area still provides good habitat for a wide variety of wildlife species. Sightings have been recorded of no fewer than 44 species of bird, including 3 species of hornbill and 3 species of eagle/birds of prey. Around 15 species of mammal are thought to live here still, based on evidence including actual sightings, the discovery of animal spoor, food remnants and feces, and information from the local inhabitants. Herpetofauna diversity has not yet been studied specifically, but the small streams that flow between the hills are thought to offer habitat that could be home to some of the 171 species of amphibians and reptiles recorded to have been found in the Leuser Ecosystem (KEL).

Although the Pulot area is not as rich as the Leuser Ecosystem, a brief study by a survey team from Wetlands International Indonesia Programme found that it is still habitat for a number of rare and protected species, such as gibbons *Hylobates syndactylus*, *Hylobates agilis*, *Presbytis thomasi*, several species of hornbill (Bucerotidae), birds of prey/eagles (Accipitidae), and Honey sucker bird (Nectarinidae) (Hasundungan, 2006).

Compared to upland forest, trees in beach forest are much smaller but grow at high densities. Tree species generally found in beach forest include *Pterospermum diversifolium*, *Eugenia cumini*, *Alstonia macrophylla*, *Macaranga tanarius*, *Guetarda speciosa*, *Peltophorum pterocarpum*, and *Ficus spp.* Various types of palm also grow there, in particular Lontar *Borrassus spp.*, and Aren *Arenga pinnata*.

2.3 AQUACULTURE PONDS

According to the Fisheries and Marine Affairs Department (2005), the total area covered by aquaculture ponds in NAD province before the Tsunami was estimated to be 36,597 hectares. Of this, the largest area was in Aceh Utara (10,520 ha), followed by Aceh Timur (7,822 ha) and Pidie (5,056 ha). Most of these had previously been flourishing mangrove forests, which investors had then cut down and converted to ponds. Their two main reasons for choosing these sites had been:

- To sell the wood obtained from cutting down the trees during land clearing. Thus the investors would receive money before starting to construct the ponds.

- The mangrove forest environment is particularly suitable for the cultivation of shrimps and milkfish because it possesses a source of brackish water. Ponds will therefore be cheaper to construct as the land will not need to be modified.

The area taken up by aquaculture ponds on the west coast was much less, only 289 ha in Aceh Barat 25 ha in Aceh Utara.

Aceh dalam Angka (2004) presents the data in more detail and differing somewhat from that provided by the Fisheries and Marine Affairs Department (2005). This document specifies the area covered by aquaculture ponds in each district/town as shown in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2-2. Total area of aquaculture ponds for each district/town in NAD Province

| No | District/Town | Pond area (ha) |
|----|-----------------|----------------|
| 1 | Simeulue | 34 |
| 2 | Aceh singkil | - |
| 3 | Aceh Selatan | 648 |
| 4 | Aceh Timur | 8,474 |
| 5 | Aceh Barat | 679 |
| 6 | Aceh Besar | 979 |
| 7 | Pidie | 2,689 |
| 8 | Bireuen | 5,580 |
| 9 | Aceh Utara | 8,789 |
| 10 | Aceh Barat Daya | - |
| 11 | Aceh Tamiang | - |
| 12 | Nagan Raya | 907 |
| 13 | Aceh Jaya | - |
| 14 | Banda Aceh | 427 |
| 15 | Lhokseumawe | - |
| | TOTAL NAD | 36,439 |

Source: Aceh Dalam Angka 2004

2.4 PEATLAND

NAD province possesses 274,051 hectares of peatland (including peaty mineral soil), which is found only along a narrow strip on the west coast. Of this, 169,000 ha (61.6%) is in Aceh Selatan district and 105,000 hectares (38.4 %) in Aceh Barat.

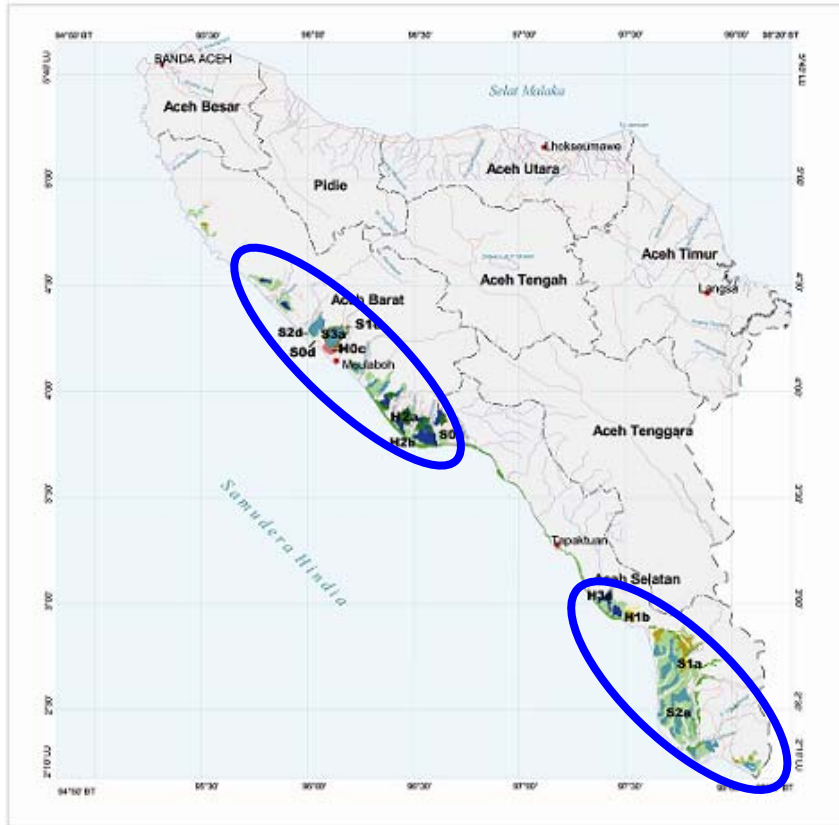


Figure 2-4. Map of peatland distribution in NAD Province (WIIP, 2005)

The extent of peatland in each district in NAD province, based on the depth of the peat, is listed below, starting from the most extensive :

- Very shallow peat (< 50 cm): Aceh Barat 21,867 ha (57.1%) and Aceh Selatan 16,403 ha (42.9%).
- Shallow peat (50 – 100cm): Aceh Selatan 15,181 ha (76.8%) and Aceh Barat 4,591 ha (23.2%).
- Moderate depth (100-200 cm) peat, found in: Aceh Selatan 96,900 ha (67.0%) and Aceh Barat 47,852 ha (33.0 %).
- Deep peat (200 – 400 cm): Aceh Selatan 40,150 ha (56.4%) and Aceh Barat 31,107 ha (43.6%).

Based on the types and degree of decomposition, the peat composition of each layer found in NAD is:

- Very shallow peat: Hemists/mineral and Saprists/Hemists and Saprists/mineral.
- Shallow peat: Hemists/mineral, Saprists/Hemists and Saprists/mineral.
- Moderate depth peat: Hemists/Saprists, Hemists/mineral, Saprists/Hemists and Saprists/mineral.
- Deep peat: Hemists/Saprists and Saprists/Hemists (WI-IP, 2006)

This unique ecosystem is inhabited only by certain species that are rarely found in dry land forest, such as *Dyera lowii*, *Alstonia pneumatophora*, *Vitex pubescens*, and *Campnosperma macrophylla*. Some peatland has been degraded, mainly as a result of fire or conversion to oil palm plantation.

Based on field observation and information from the local community, the peatland had become degraded several years before the Tsunami. In Cot Rambong village in the district of Nagan Raya, hundreds of hectares of peatland forest had been completely cut down and converted to oil palm plantation. To make matters worse, this damage had been further exacerbated by the digging of canals at right angles to the peat dome. Local inhabitants reported that this area was often subject to fire in the dry season because the peat was so dry.



Figure 2-5. Degradation of peatlands (Cot Rambong village, Nagan Raya)

2.5 SWAMP

The Planology Agency (Forestry Department) classifies swamp into several types of cover. These are: Primary Swamp Forest, Secondary Swamp Forest, Swamp Shrub, and Unforested Swamp. Data from ETM 7 Landsat imaging in 1999 and 2000 showed the extent of each type to be as follows:

- Primary swamp forest: 1000 ha.
- Secondary swamp forest: 17,000 ha.
- Swamp shrub: 3000 ha.
- Open swamp (unforested) 3000 ha. (Dept Forestry, 2002)

However, very different conditions were shown by the ETM 7 Landsat imaging for 2004:

- Primary swamp forest: none remaining
- Secondary swamp forest: 165,000 ha.
- Swamp shrub: 37 ha.
- Open swamp (unforested) 10,000 ha. (Dept Forestry, 2005)

Freshwater swamp ecosystems are rich in aquatic plant biodiversity, including *Pistia stratiotes*, *Nympheae nouchali*, *Lotus Nelumbo nucifera*, *Echinodorus paleaifolius*, *Hydrocleides spp.*, and *Typha angustifolia*.

Besides aquatic plants, several species of grasses also grow well, such as *Phragmites karka* and *Sacharum spontaneum*. One species of palm, the sago palm *Metroxylon sago* is a landmark species characteristic of a freshwater swamp ecosystem. However, other palm species such as *Oncosperma spp* and *Calamus spp.* are also common around swamps. Other trees common to freshwater swamp include *Ficus microcarpa*, *Barringtonia racemosa*, and *Artocarpus elastica*.

2.6 SANDY BEACH VEGETATION

Information and data describing the condition of sandy beaches in NAD province are sorely limited. However, their condition before the Tsunami can be seen clearly from the remains of trees and other vegetation found along the sandy beaches. From observations of these and from information supplied by the local community, it can be deduced that the dominant species growing on the sandy beaches along Aceh's west coast just before the Tsunami struck included, among others: *Casuarina equisetifolia*, *Hibiscus tiliaceus*, *Pongamia pinnata*, *Ficus septica*, *Timonus compressicaulis*, *Pterospermum diversifolium*, *Cerbera manghas*, and *Barringtonia asiatica*.

Aceh's west coast is dominated by sandy beach, which stretches from Banda Aceh to Nagan Raya. It is reported to have been very common for communities living on the west coast to grow plantations of coconut *Cocos nucifera* and rubber *Hevea brasiliensis*. Usually, coconut groves were planted near the coast, and rubber plantations further inland.

Two formations of coastal vegetation commonly found near the beach were the Pes-caprae Formation and Barringtonia Formation.

2.6.1 Pes-caprae formation

As its name suggests, this formation is dominated by the herb *Ipomea pes-caprae*, which is common on dune strands. The herbs grow slowly from the back edge of the beach towards the front and sides. Its rate of growth and expansion depends heavily on the condition of the substrate. If the substrate is stable, the plant will grow rapidly and dominate the back part of the sandy beach. This herb is usually also followed by the growth of other species of grass such as *Spinifex littoreus*, *Cyperus maritima*, *Ischaemum muticum*, and herbs such as *Desmodium umbellatum*, *Vigna marina*, *Crotalaria striata*, and *Calopogonium mucunoides*.

For practitioners of coastal rehabilitation, *Ipomea pes-caprae* also functions as a biological indicator that the area is especially suitable for the planting of *Casuarina equisetifolia*, *Callophyllum innophyllum*, *Cerbera manghas*, *Terminalia catappa*, *Barringtonia asiatica*, *Pongamia pinnata*, *Hibiscus tiliaceus* and other beach trees.

According to information from the local community, before the Tsunami *Ipomea pes-caprae* only inhabited the back part of the sandy beaches. After the Tsunami, however, it was found growing far inland.

2.6.2 Barringtonia Formation

This formation is usually found behind Pes-caprae formation, on sand mixed with ordinary mineral soil. An examination of the remnants of trees and plants left on the sandy beaches indicates that this formation consisted of big trees such as *Barringtonia asiatica*, *Cerbera manghas*, *Terminalia catappa*, breadfruit *Artocarpus* sp., *Morinda citrifolia*, *Erithryna variegata*, *Hibiscus* sp., *Hernandia peltata*, and sea pine *Casuarina equisetifolia*.

In addition to the large trees, a number of shrubs and other vegetation are also found in this formation, including *Pluchea indica*, *Desmodium umbellatum*, *Sophora tomentosa*, *Pemphis acidula*, and *Ximения americana*.

3. Coastal Conditions After the Tsunami

3.1 IMPACT OF THE TSUNAMI AND EARTHQUAKE ON ACEH'S COAST

The 10-15 metre high Tsunami travelling at more than 40 km per hour which hit the coast of Aceh caused tremendous damage, the most devastating of which was along the length of Aceh's west coast (comprising Aceh Barat and Nagan Raya), the district (kabupaten) of Banda Aceh, Aceh Jaya, and Aceh Besar.

According to the analysis carried out by LAPAN, of the 21 districts/towns in NAD Province, at least 15 were affected by the earthquake and Tsunami, while the total area affected was 649,582 ha, including 131,810 ha of wet ricefields, 9448.5 ha of swamp, and 32,004 ha of mangrove forest and coastal vegetation.

Damage to coastal areas was caused not only by the Tsunami but also by the violent earthquake that altered the landscape along the west coast of Aceh and the islands of Simeulue and Nias. The following paragraphs describe some of the impacts on these coastal areas, both those resulting from the Tsunami and those from the earthquake.

Damage to coastal ecosystems arising from the Tsunami was brought about by two mechanisms:

- ❑ Mechanism 1 : the energy of the Tsunami, which directly struck the coast and destroyed mangrove forests, casuarina (sea-pine) stands, coconut groves, and a range of other vegetation. This happened extremely fast. Vegetation was damaged, parts torn off. In the worst struck areas, mangrove trees were uprooted from their substrate by the force of the waves.
- ❑ Mechanism 2 : inundation by the sea water brought by the Tsunami, the high salinity of which caused coastal vegetation to become stressed, dry up and die. Plant death due to saltwater inundation always happened gradually. Unlike the destruction resulting from the force of the wave, the trees that died from inundation were generally still seen to be whole and standing upright.

Almost all of the formations and types of vegetation existing along Aceh's west coast were severely damaged. More than 60,000 ha of ricefields were totally destroyed as a result of sea water inundation. To date, only 21.6 % of the total area of ricefield has yet been rehabilitated, while most of the remainder has been abandoned (BRR, 2005). Neither mangrove forests, beach forests, sea pine forests, swamps nor any other type of vegetation along the coast escaped damage. The following paragraphs describe the damage done to several types of wetlands along the coast.

3.1.1 Changes to the coastal landscape of Aceh, Simeulue island and Nias island

The powerful earthquake of 26 December 2004, which triggered the Tsunami, caused changes to the landscape, mainly on the west coast of Aceh and the islands of Simeulue and Nias. According to an assessment conducted by a team from Wetlands International (2005), Aceh's west coast experienced

subsidence causing the shoreline to advance 100 to 200 meters inland. On Simeulue island, in contrast, part of the land was lifted up by 2 meters, thereby exposing the coral reef and killing the mangrove forest. The same happened in the north part of Nias island, causing similar damage to the coral reef and mangrove. Nevertheless, not all parts of Nias were lifted up. In the southern part of the island, the land subsided thus causing the shoreline to advance inland by 200 meters. Figure 3-1 below gives a general picture of the landscape change, based on field observations by the WI-IP Team on the west coast of Aceh, Simeulue island and Nias island.

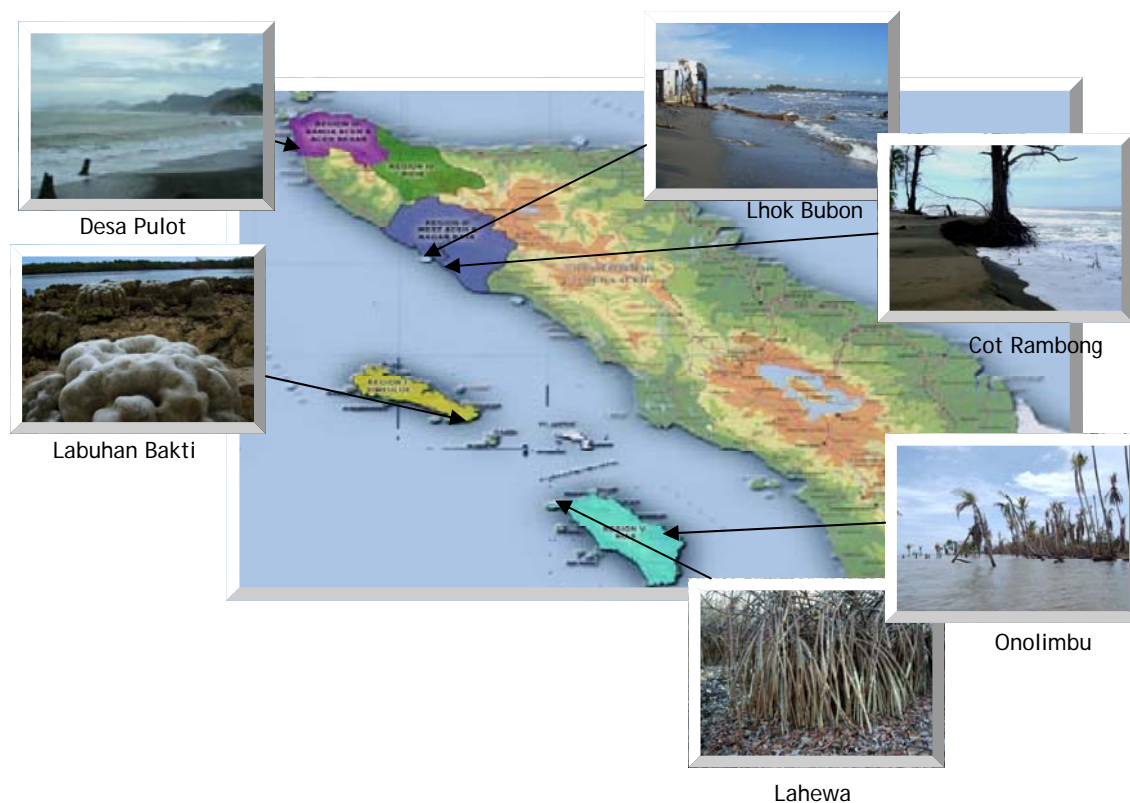


Figure 3-1. Landscape change caused by earthquake and Tsunami along Aceh coast

The greatest impact from subsidence was on the west coast of Aceh. Along almost the whole length of Aceh's west coast the shoreline moved 200 meters inland. What had once been areas of human habitation, coconut groves and rubber plantations, etc. is now part of the ocean. For the inhabitants, the greatest impact (apart, of course, from the loss of loved ones) has been the loss of their land, coconut trees and other property upon which their livelihoods depended. Similar land subsidence also occurred on the southern edge of Nias island.

Seen from another angle, the loss of a substantial part of the coastland also means the loss of prospective rehabilitation sites. In other words, the available space has decreased as a result.



Figure 3-2. *Loss of land as a result of earthquake and Tsunami (Lbok Bubon, Aceh Barat)*

The uplifting of land on Simeulue island and the northern part of Nias island not only exposed the coral reef, causing it to dry out and die, but also had a detrimental impact on the mangrove forest which, now too high above sealevel to be inundated by sea water, also dried out and died (see Figure 3-3 below).



Figure 3-3. *Impact of uplifting of substrate: coral reef exposed and dying in Labuhan Bhakti-Simeulue, emergence of new land in Alus-alus- Simeulue, and dried, dead mangrove in Labewa, Nias (clockwise)*

These changes to the landscape on Aceh’s west coast, Simeulue and Nias islands automatically have an effect on the availability of land for rehabilitation, as follows:

- ❑ Subsidence along Aceh’s west coast accompanied by the advance of the shoreline and consequent loss of land automatically reduces the space potentially available for rehabilitation activities.
- ❑ Although uplifting has caused the emergence of new land, this does not necessarily mean that it can be used for planting. In fact, much of it consists of coral reef or sand which is highly saline and therefore cannot be planted on.

**BOX 3-1. The status and management of new and lost land
(resulting from landscape change)**

Changes to the landscape along the west coast of Aceh, Simeulue and Nias islands have created problems concerning the status both of the land lost and the new land that has emerged. For those inhabitants whose land has become part of the ocean, the problem is one of loss. According to information obtained during field observation, they want the government to compensate them by providing them with land in a different location but still nearby the land which they have lost. To date, however, it is still unclear how this problem is being handled and what stage of progress has been reached in the process towards a solution.

As regards the new land that has emerged due to the uplifting of the substrate, the foremost problem is the question of who has the responsibility for this land. According to a variety of different parties, this new land belongs to the state and an institution should be appointed without delay to administer it. In addition, the future utilization of this land is still undecided. However, there is little or no possibility of planting mangrove or coastal species on it as much of it is covered by coral.

In view of these problems, the government should take immediate steps to address these issues and clarify the status of these lands and the plans for their future utilization.

3.1.2 Degradation of mangrove forest

Degradation of mangrove due to the impact of the Tsunami

Mangrove forests were one of the types of wetland which suffered the worst damage. This was because, being on the edge of the coast, they were directly hit by the full force of the Tsunami. Towering an average of 10-15 m in height, the Tsunami destroyed the mangrove forests in a matter of seconds. Mangroves were devastated along almost the whole length of Aceh's west coast and part of the east coast.



Figure 3-4. Mangrove forest destroyed by Tsunami in Tibang – Aceh Besar

Data varies widely as to the extent of mangrove forest damaged by the Tsunami. Bappenas (2005) estimates it to be 25,000 ha. Lapan (2005), however, gives a higher figure stating that 32,003 ha of Aceh's mangrove forest was severely damaged by the Tsunami, as detailed in Table 3-1 below.

Table 3-1. Area of mangrove forest damaged by Tsunami in NAD province

| No | District/Town | Area (ha) |
|----|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1 | Banda Aceh | 111.3 |
| 2 | Lhoksumawe | 308.6 |
| 3 | Aceh Jaya | 67.6 |
| 4 | Aceh Selatan | 0 |
| 5 | Aceh Singkil | 1,460.4 |
| 6 | Aceh Tamiang | 16,095.0 |
| 7 | Aceh Timur | 10,453.6 |
| 8 | Aceh Utara | 0 |
| 9 | Aceh Bireun | 0 |
| 10 | Nagan Raya | 0 |
| 11 | Pidie | 32.3 |
| 12 | Aceh Barat Daya | 2.7 |
| 13 | Aceh Barat | 361.6 |
| 14 | Aceh Besar | 53.9 |
| 15 | Simeulue | 3,056.9 |
| | Total | 32,003.0 |

Source: Lapan

By interpreting volunteers' photographs of the coast and other available information, it can be estimated that the extent of Tsunami damage to mangrove was as follows:

1. Aceh Besar 100% (approximately 26,823 ha)
2. Banda Aceh 100% (<500 ha)
3. Pidie 75% (17,000 ha)
4. Aceh Utara and Bireun 30% (26,000 ha)
5. Aceh Barat 50%, (14,000 ha}

Field orientation in Tibang village revealed that all of the mangrove forest on the coast had been totally destroyed. However, young mangrove which the community had planted around their tambak aquaculture ponds had escaped serious damage.



Figure 3-5. Surviving young mangrove stand belonging to the community

Damage to the mangrove forests was not limited to the loss of several species of mangrove, but also devastated the mangrove's habitat. The loss of the mature trees automatically means the loss of seed production, while the degradation of so much of the mangrove habitat means a great reduction in the area suitable for replanting mangrove.

Degradation of mangrove due to lifting of the substrate

Besides the impact of the Tsunami, another cause of mangrove degradation was the lifting of the substrate with the result that the mangrove was no longer inundated by the ocean tides. This phenomenon was frequently found on Simeulue island and part of Nias island's coast.

Observation of the impact of substrate uplifting on the mangrove forest was carried out by the WI-IP Team in September 2005 in Lahewa village on Nias. It was found that the tides no longer reached the mangrove, with the result that almost all of the mangrove trees had dried up. The dominant species in Lahewa's mangrove forest was *Rhizophora apiculata*, while *Ceriops decandra* was found sporadically in gaps between the *Rhizophora apiculata*.

Observation at this site revealed that all *Rhizophora apiculata* trees had become desiccated. All their leaves had fallen, creating a layer of dry litter extending across the floor of the stand. However, on cutting the twigs and branches, it was discovered that the interior parts (xylem, floem) were still moist, indicating that the trees were still alive. The shedding of leaves is most probably the mangrove's response in adapting to the dry conditions through its mechanism of keeping the water balanced. This same leaf-shedding phenomenon also occurs in teak trees during the dry season. If this species of mangrove is capable of adapting to its new environment, then it can be predicted that these stands will survive. If not, they will die. To see how these stands develop, they will need to be monitored continuously and be made the subject of specific research. Amid the dry *Rhizophora* stands, the assessment team found several trees that had survived in spite of the dry conditions. What is interesting is that the species *Ceriops decandra* seemed grows normally without stressed symptom as it happened to *Rhizophora* trees.



Figure 3-6. Mangrove which has desiccated due to uplifting of the substrate at Lahewa village, Nias.

In the vicinity of the mangrove forest, several other species of mangrove were found to be growing well on the dry land. These were *Aegiceras corniculatum*, *Ceriops decandra*, *Xylocarpus rumphii* and *Dolichandrone spathacea*.

The assessment team also discovered that the floor of the mangrove stands had been invaded by a number of pioneering species, in particular *Acrostichum aureum*. This indicates that the floor of the mangrove stands is now never inundated by sea water. If these conditions persist, the invasion will continue until the entire forest floor is covered with this vegetation (Suryadiputra *et al*, 2005).

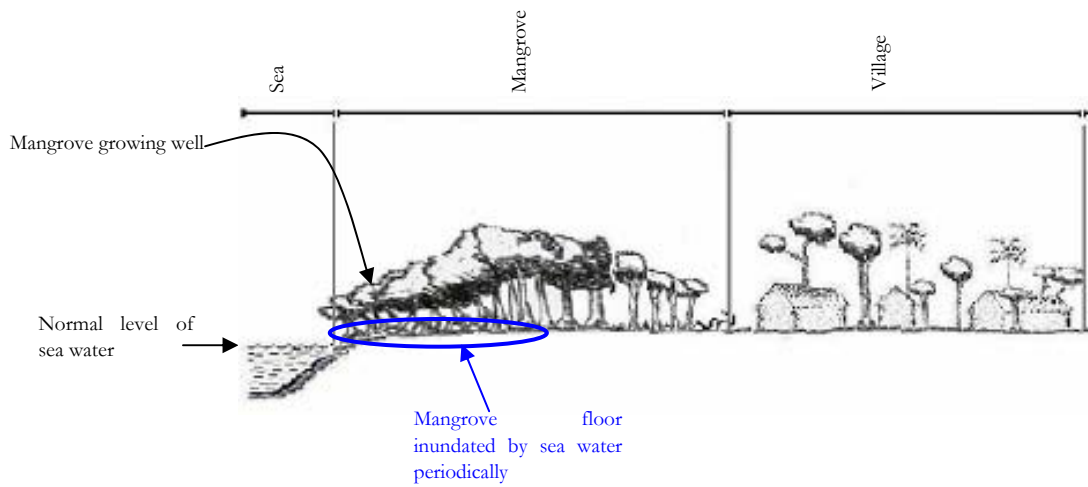


Figure 3-7. Invasion of mangrove stand floor by pioneer species of vegetation

In August 2006, WI-IP's local partners in Lahewa-Nias reported that desiccated *Rhizophora* trees were eventually died. Even, some part of the mangrove stand had been cut by community for fuel wood.

The illustrations in Figure 3-8 below show two different conditions: that before and that after the lifting of the substrate. Diagram B is a cross-section of the condition actually observed in the field after uplifting, while diagram A shows the condition before the substrate was lifted based on field observations enriched with information from the local community.

A. Mangrove condition before lifting of substrate



B. Mangrove condition after lifting of substrate

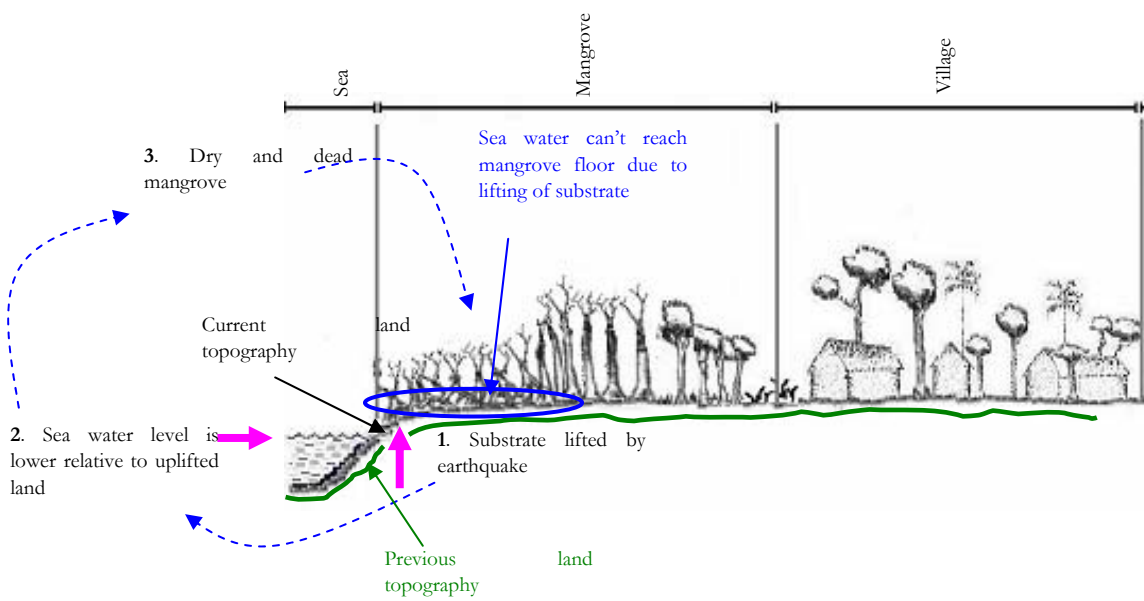


Figure 3-8. Illustration of mangrove death caused by lifting of the substrate at Labewa-Nias

3.1.3 Degradation of aquaculture ponds

Aquaculture ponds, generally constructed behind the shoreline or mangrove forest, did not escape being hit by the Tsunami, which destroyed the dykes, ditch banks, water channels, water-gates, and buildings. According to data from the Fisheries and Marine Affairs Department, almost half of the total pond area suffered serious damage. In Banda Aceh, all the ponds were destroyed. Table 3-2 below presents the Department's analysis of the area of aquaculture ponds damaged by the Tsunami in NAD province.

Table 3-2. Area of aquaculture ponds damaged by the Tsunami

| No | District/Town | Pond area before Tsunami (ha) | Area of damaged ponds (ha) |
|----|-----------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | Banda Aceh | 724 | 724 |
| 2 | Lhoksumawe | - | - |
| 3 | Aceh Jaya | - | - |
| 4 | Aceh Selatan | 25 | 10 |
| 5 | Aceh Singkil | - | - |
| 6 | Aceh Tamiang | - | - |
| 7 | Aceh Timur | 7,822 | 2,347 |
| 8 | Aceh Utara | 10,520 | 4,208 |
| 9 | Aceh Bireun | - | - |
| 10 | Nagan Raya | - | - |
| 11 | Pidie | 5,056 | 2,573 |
| 12 | Aceh Barat Daya | - | - |
| 13 | Aceh Barat | 289 | 289 |
| 14 | Aceh Besar | 1,006 | 1,006 |
| 15 | Kota Sabang | 28 | 28 |
| 16 | Langsa | 2,122 | 424 |
| 17 | Simeulue | - | - |
| | Total | 36,597 | 14,523 |

Source: Fisheries and Marine Affairs Department, 2005

Data from BRR suggests that the figure is higher, stating that the total area of aquaculture ponds which were either destroyed or made unusable reached 20,000 ha. Of these, 5000 ha or 25% have been repaired and are ready to function again.

There is a strong link between pond rehabilitation and coastal reforestation, in particular the planting of mangroves. This is because, in Aceh, the majority of mangrove planting has been in aquaculture ponds. Ideally, mangrove planting should be done after the pond has been repaired, so that the dykes are clear to see and the deposits left by the Tsunami have been removed. If mangroves are planted before the ponds are repaired, there is a risk that the seedlings will be destroyed by the heavy equipment used to reconstruct the ponds.

When the Tsunami occurred, it brought up an enormous volume of material from the ocean. This material was carried a considerable distance inland by the wave, then deposited over a large part of the coastal area.

The material deposited consisted mostly of sand, ranging from fine to coarse. Ponds were one of the receptacles for these deposits, which were up to 0.5 metres thick.

The illustrations in Figure 3-10 below show two different conditions: that before and that after the Tsunami. Diagram B is a cross-section of the condition actually observed in the field, showing the mangrove damage and Tsunami deposits, while diagram A shows the condition before the Tsunami based on field observations enriched with information from the local community.



Figure 3-9. *Tsunami deposits on pond floor*

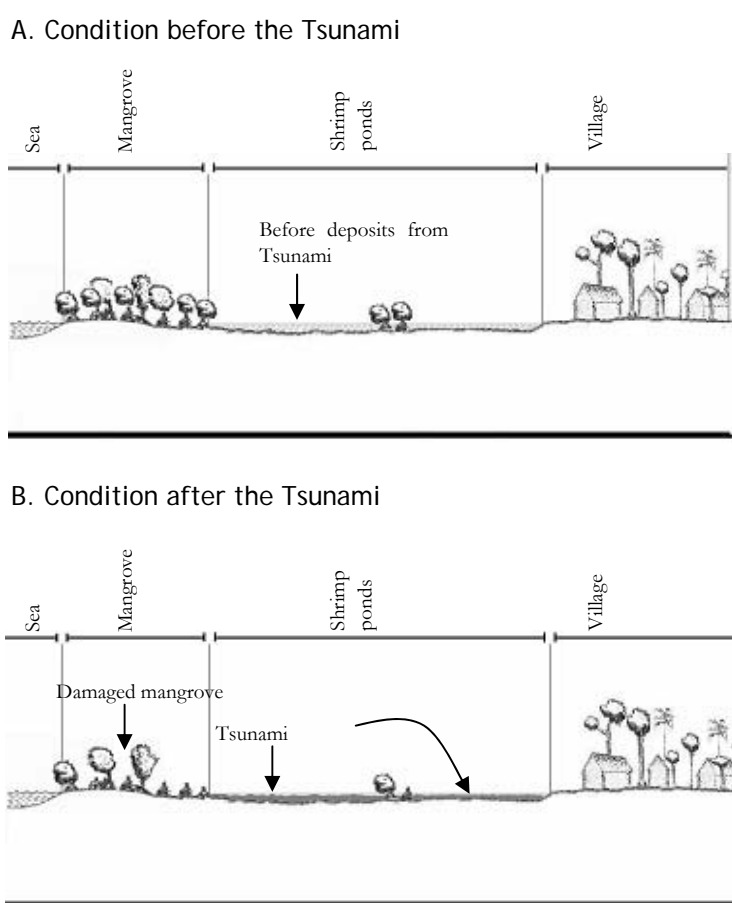


Figure 3-10. *Condition of aquaculture ponds at Lham Ujong before (top) and after (bottom) the Tsunami*

The deposited material totally altered the condition of the ponds, causing the land's carrying capacity to decline drastically to the point that the area was no longer suitable for aquaculture. The ponds had, however, been an important asset to the community because they provided a source of income. For that reason, one of the most important programs carried out by the government and several NGOs has been the rehabilitation of these ponds. The rehabilitation activities generally consisted of removing the materials deposited by the Tsunami and rebuilding the damaged dykes.

At present, most of the mangrove planting in NAD province has been in coastal aquaculture ponds. However, only a small proportion of this can be considered successful, the majority having failed. Indications suggest that one factor which played a role in this failure is the Tsunami deposits. To find out in more depth about the impact of Tsunami deposits on mangrove planting, a study was carried out at Lham Ujong, Aceh Besar (see Box 3-2).

**BOX. 3-2. The impact of Tsunami deposits on the environment's carrying capacity
(Case study in Lham Ujong village)**

The Tsunami brought material from the sea and deposited it as far as 1 - 2 km inland. In order to determine the impact of this deposit, a case study was carried out by an Assessment Team from Wetlands International in August-September 2005 in the coastal area of Lham Ujong village (Aceh Besar). The study found that coarse material (like sand) had been deposited in locations near the shoreline to a thickness of 20 – 50 cm. This deposit then formed a solid soil structure which caused a decrease in the soil's aeration capability and which transmitted heat easily. Under such conditions, the seedlings' rooting process was seriously obstructed. Meanwhile, finer material (dust and clay) has been deposited further inland. If this material has been deposited on coastal plain to a thickness of less than 20 cm, it will have a more beneficial effect as it will supply additional minerals thus making the soil more fertile. (See Figure 3-11 below).

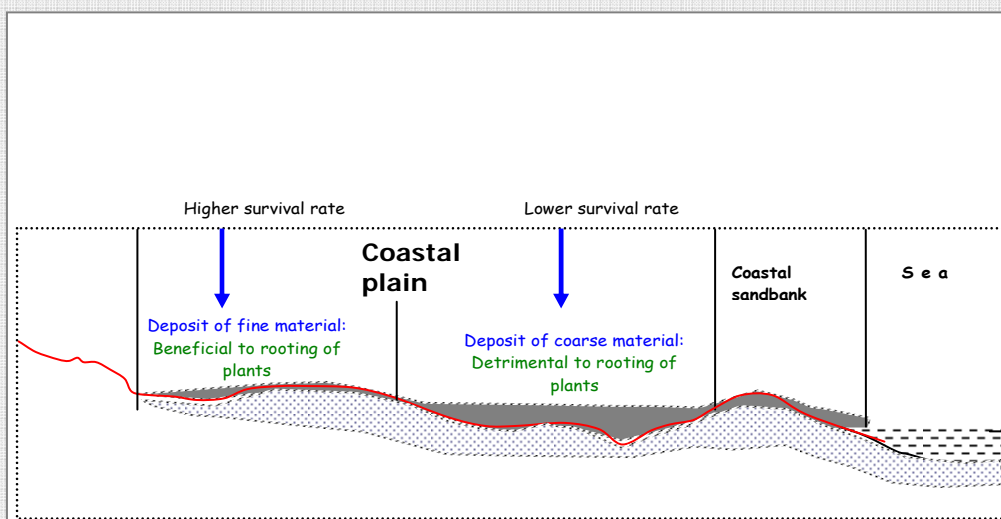


Figure 3-11. Correlation between location of Tsunami deposit and success of mangrove rehabilitation in Lham Ujong village, Aceh Besar

Preliminary results illustrated in the diagram above are as follows:

1. Mangrove planted in ponds containing thick Tsunami deposits are less likely to survive. This is strongly believed to be because the deposit is formed of coarse and solid materials. Such conditions cause the seedlings to become stressed and then die. Thick deposits are generally found in ponds near the shoreline.
2. Mangrove planting in ponds further inland shows a higher survival rate. This is thought to be because the deposit consists of fine materials (dust and clay). A provisional hypothesis is that this fine deposit enriches the soil and is beneficial for plant rooting. Thus, seedlings planted here can grow well.

3.1.4 Degradation of Peatland

All of the peatland in NAD province is situated on the west coast, where the Tsunami hit hardest. Ecological assessment conducted by WI-IP in Cot Rambong village (Nagan Raya district) found that the Tsunami had reached peatland areas. The sea water dumped there by the Tsunami was unable to flow away and became trapped in the peat. Being highly saline, it had a detrimental effect on the peat and on the vegetation above. Some plants became stressed and subsequently died as a result. It was even reported that entire rubber plantations had died from the effect of the sea water entering the peatland where they were growing.

3.1.5 Degradation of swamp

Swamp affected by the Tsunami was generally in areas close to the coast. As well as physical damage from the force of the Tsunami, swamps also suffered damage due to inundation by sea water, one obvious result of this being the death of some of the swamp vegetation.

Based on the interpretation of satellite images, Lapan (2005) states that 9,448.5 ha of swamp were affected by the Tsunami. The district of Aceh Jaya suffered the greatest area of swamp damage (3,126.8 ha), followed by Aceh Timur (1,558 ha) and Aceh Besar (945.9 ha). A list of the area of swamp damaged in each district is given in Table 3-3 below.

Table 3-3. Area of swamp damaged by Tsunami

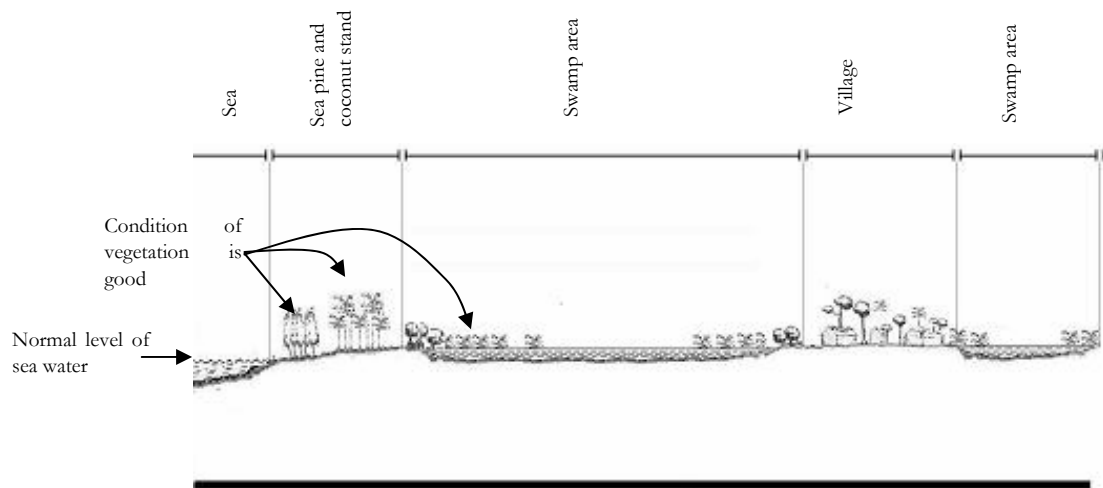
| No | District/Town | Area (ha) |
|----|------------------|----------------|
| 1 | Banda Aceh | 797.0 |
| 2 | Lhokseumawe | 120.1 |
| 3 | Aceh Jaya | 3,126.8 |
| 4 | Aceh Selatan | 60.9 |
| 5 | Aceh Singkil | 633.4 |
| 6 | Aceh Tamiang | 325.5 |
| 7 | Aceh Timur | 1,558.0 |
| 8 | Aceh Utara | 0.3 |
| 9 | Bireuen | 623.1 |
| 10 | Nagan Raya | - |
| 11 | Pidie | 708.1 |
| 12 | Aceh Barat Daya | 171.7 |
| 13 | Aceh Barat | 274.6 |
| 14 | Aceh Besar | 945.9 |
| 15 | Simeulue | 103.1 |
| | TOTAL NAD | 9,448.5 |

Source: Lapan 2005

In addition to swamplands, a total of 131,809.7 hectares of ricefields in NAD province were affected by the Tsunami. Lhokseumawe was the district with the greatest area of damaged ricefield (39,929.4 ha) while Aceh Utara had the smallest (11.9 ha). Besides ricefields, at least 22,618.7 hectares of dry agricultural land was also affected by the Tsunami, the most damage being in Aceh Timur (9,199.5 ha) (Lapan 2005).

Observations in Lhok Bubon village, Aceh Barat revealed that the Tsunami had inundated swamps behind the sandy beach. This had increased the salinity of the swamp, thereby causing several species of swamp vegetation to die. Aside from sea water inundation, vegetation along the coast had also been severely damaged by the force of the Tsunami when it struck. Figure 3-12 below illustrates the impact of the Tsunami on swampland.

A. Condition before the Tsunami



B. Condition after the Tsunami

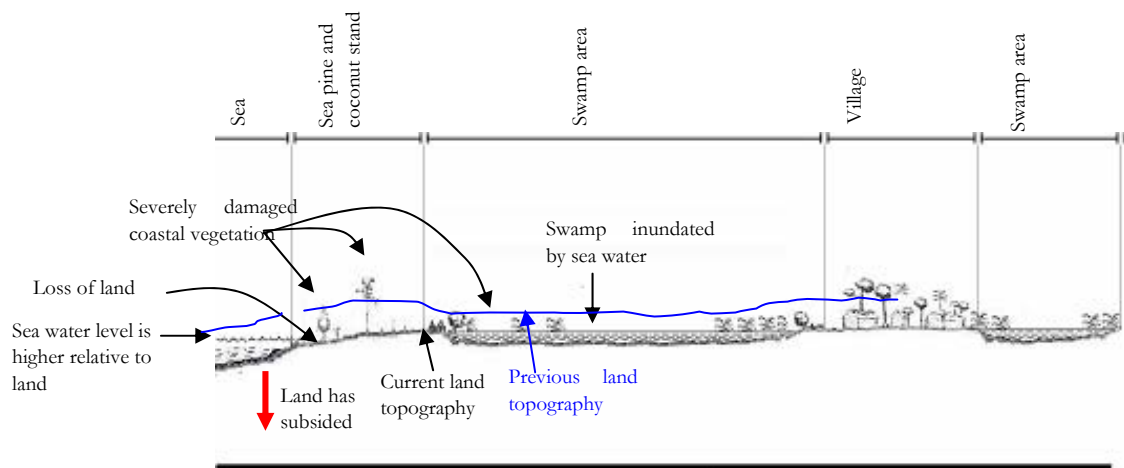


Figure 3-12. Condition of swamp before and after the Tsunami, at Lhok Bubon-Aceh Barat

3.1.6 Degradation of coastal vegetation

Coastal terrestrial vegetation is defined as all types and formations inhabiting dry land in coastal area, not growing in inundated or tidal zones. Terrestrial vegetation includes beach forest, rubber plantation, coconut plantation, cultivated gardens, barringtonia formation, and casuarina pine forest, etc. It is estimated that the damage caused by the Tsunami to this kind of ecosystem covered more than 80,795 ha (source: EU Joint Research Center).



Figure 3-13. Damage to coastal zone of West Aceh, caused by Tsunami

Table 3-4 below lists the areas of forest, shrubland, plantation and open land affected by the Tsunami in NAD province.

Table 3-4. Area of forest, shrubland, plantation and open land affected by Tsunami (Ha)

| No | District/Town | Forest | Shrubland | Plantation | Open land | Total |
|----|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| 1 | Banda Aceh | - | 180.7 | 1,507.9 | 183.8 | 1,872.40 |
| 2 | Lhokseumawe | - | 14,114.1 | 8,676.8 | 2,035.0 | 24,825.90 |
| 3 | Aceh Jaya | 3,499.0 | 8,763.9 | 595.3 | 676.0 | 13,534.20 |
| 4 | Aceh Selatan | 6,629.6 | 14,179.5 | 3,118.1 | 570.4 | 24,497.60 |
| 5 | Aceh Singkil | 17,922.8 | 14,314.0 | 3,626.6 | 2,913.4 | 24,477.11 |
| 6 | Aceh Tamiang | - | 11,847.6 | 14,674.6 | 1,505.4 | 28,027.60 |
| 7 | Aceh Timur | 50.3 | 16,203.2 | 10,577.0 | 1,641.1 | 28,471.60 |
| 8 | Aceh Utara | - | 3.0 | 84.5 | 119.0 | 206.50 |
| 9 | Bireuen | 0.1 | 3,531.6 | 5,276.0 | 1,120.8 | 9,928.50 |
| 10 | Nagan Raya | 7,074.0 | 22,025.7 | 26,623.6 | 342.8 | 56,066.10 |
| 11 | Pidie | 139.4 | 4,201.2 | - | 1,338.3 | 5,678.90 |
| 12 | Aceh Barat Daya | 2,005.0 | 7,747.7 | 8,685.5 | 1,127.0 | 19,565.20 |
| 13 | Aceh Barat | 12,449.8 | 19,520.2 | 9,833.4 | 4,015.6 | 45,819.00 |
| 14 | Aceh Besar | 692.1 | 2,964.0 | 3,434.1 | 345.6 | 7,435.80 |
| 15 | Simeulue | 8,983.1 | 11,069.6 | 808.4 | 3,975.1 | 24,836.20 |
| | TOTAL NAD | 59,445.2 | 150,666.3 | 97,521.8 | 21,909.3 | 329,542.60 |

Source: Lapan 2005

The Tsunami's sweeping devastation of the coastland and its vegetation is apparent all along the west coast of Aceh. The wave's force was so great that it smashed all the vegetation up to several kilometres inland.

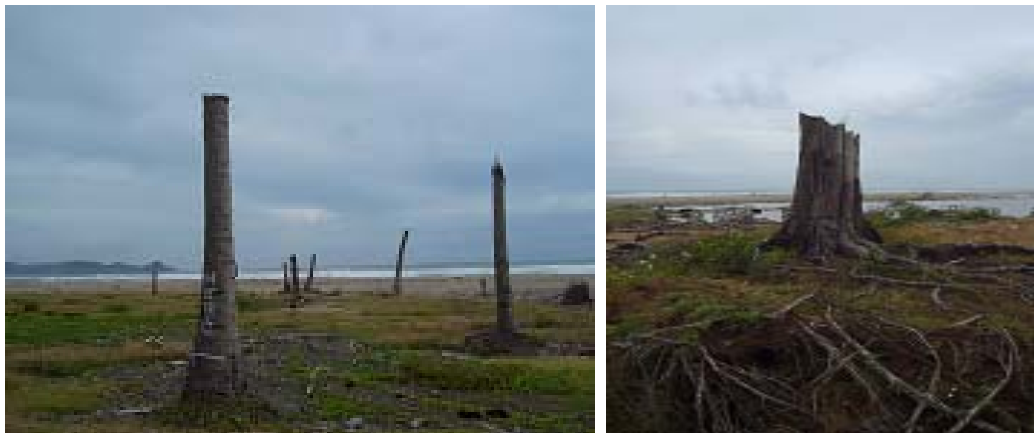


Figure 3-14. *Impact of Tsunami: coconut tree (left) and pine (right) broken, swept by the Tsunami at Lbok N'ga-Aceh Besar*

Vegetation along the coast was damaged and killed not only by the direct force of the Tsunami but also as a result of sea water inundation which lasted for several days. In general, it was areas far inland that were inundated.



Figure 3-15. *Effect of sea water: Breadfruit tree alive and healthy (left), Mangosteen tree dead as a result of sea water inundation (right)*

As stated previously, plant death as a result of sea water inundation is a relatively slow process. The high salinity causes the leaves to turn yellow, become dry and fall. Subsequently, the twigs and branches also dry up and the tree dies still standing erect. Nevertheless, there are some trees that manage to recover after they have shed all their leaves. This can be easily seen from the growth of shoots or the budding of leaves.

3.1.7 The formation of lagoon ecosystems as a result of the Tsunami (case study at Pulot village, Leupung sub-district, Aceh Besar)

As a result of the Tsunami on 26 Desember 2004, followed by the earthquake in March 2005, a new type of coastal wetland was formed, called a lagoon. A lagoon is defined as a body of water (similar to a lake) near the coast, which had previously formed part of the sea or been connected to the sea but, due to a geological event, became separated from the sea and formed a new coastal wetland ecosystem.

The assessment carried out by the Wetlands International team on the west coast of Aceh in 2005 found at least 4 new lagoons that had been formed due to the Tsunami, one of them in Pulot village. Corresponding to the definition above, the Pulot village lagoon had originally been a river estuary facing the sea (not a habitat that formed part of the sea). When the Tsunami struck, sea water traveled far upriver (making it part of the sea), then the mouth of the estuary became blocked by deposits of sand brought up from the sea and material from the land. Thus the Krueng Pulot estuary became separated from the sea and formed a lagoon.

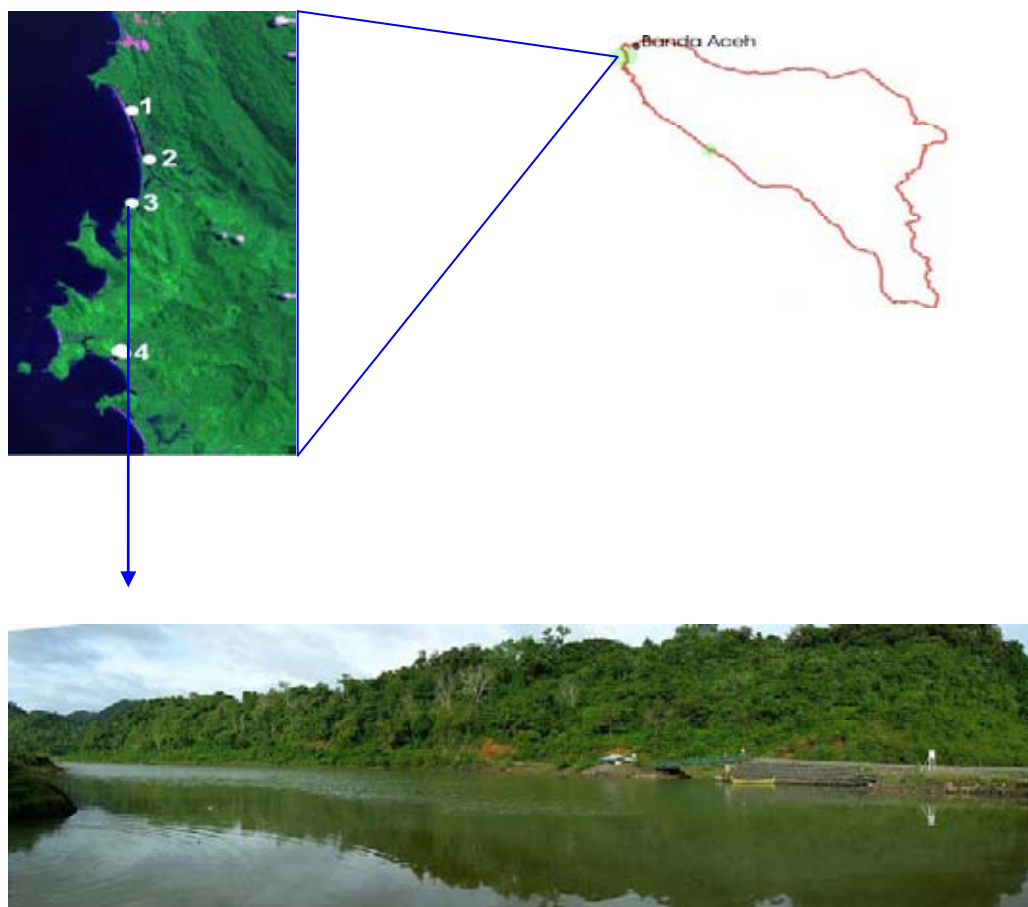


Figure 3-16. Lagoon at Pulot village, formed by the Tsunami

This lagoon is fairly big, covering an area of ± 25 ha, its waters reaching a depth of 2 to 8 metres. Fishes commonly found there include *Lates calcarifer*, *Caranx* sp., *Epinephelus* spp. and *Mugil cephalus*.

Steps must be taken urgently to protect the Pulot lagoon, for a number of reasons which include the following:

1. The management status of the lagoon is unclear, which could encourage over exploitation of its resources.
2. The banks of the lagoon are eroding, which could accelerate shallowing of the lagoon and cloud its waters.
3. The waters of the lagoon are threatened with pollution from a number of potential sources, both from Tsunami debris and from current activities being carried out in the area of the lagoon.
4. The lagoon promises great economic and ecotourism potential which can contribute to the future development of Pulot village.
5. The lagoon is a natural reservoir which can mitigate flooding of the surrounding land during high tides and rain.
6. It can prevent the subterranean intrusion of sea water to the surrounding land (especially if the lagoon is filled with freshwater from rainfall).
7. Its high biodiversity holds good potential for fisheries, with a variety of economically valuable fish species.
8. The lagoon creates a micro-climate for the surrounding area, making the air feel fresher and more pleasant.

In order to protect the lagoon, it needs to be managed in an integrated manner which involves the participation of the local community. Some of the matters that must be undertaken include the following:

1. Determine the lagoon's management status through the participation of the local community (including mapping, zoning of the lagoon and its surrounding area, and the formulation of regulations for the utilization of resources in and around the lagoon).
2. Prepare seedlings which will later be planted around the lagoon in order to prevent abrasion of the lagoon walls to prevent the surrounding area from becoming arid.
3. Clear away the debris left by the Tsunami both in and around the lagoon.
4. Raise the community's awareness of the lagoon's functions and benefits to the economy and to the aquatic environment.
5. Promote the beauty of the lagoon for eco-tourism, so as to increase income to the local community.

3.2 REGENERATION AND PRESENT CONDITION OF VEGETATION

3.2.1 Regeneration of mangrove

Field observation revealed that the process of recovery through natural regeneration and succession has been much slower and more difficult for mangrove than for other species of coastal vegetation. This is generally because the habitat had been destroyed or drastically altered thus making it unsuitable for mangrove. Changes to the habitat could be due to physical and chemical changes to the substrate or because it was no longer influenced by ocean tides. The mangrove's poor capacity for recovery could also be caused by the loss of all the parent trees, without which there was no possibility of regeneration.



Figure 3-17. Mangrove habitat so badly devastated that mangrove can not recover

However, in several places (one being Lamsenia village, Aceh Besar) the regeneration of *Nypa fruticans* and *Avicennia spp* was progressing well. From information provided by the local inhabitants, it was discovered that some trees had survived the Tsunami. These have managed to live and can produce seeds, as a result of which the stands of *Nypa fruticans* and *Avicennia spp*. are able to recover (see Figure 3-18).



Figure 3-18. Regeneration of *Nypa*(left) and *Avicennia* (right).

3.2.2 Regeneration of coastal vegetation

Moments after the Tsunami, almost all the vegetation along the coast had gone leaving nothing but open space. Now, however, coastal conditions have changed as succession and regeneration have occurred naturally along Aceh's west coast. Areas that had been completely bare of any vegetation are now supporting the growth of a variety of species.

Compared to mangrove, the regeneration of terrestrial areas has been much more rapid. The wave that struck the land and the inundation by sea water acted as seed dispersal agents. These seeds came from a wide variety of species that had been growing along the coast, including *Casuarina equisetifolia*, *Pterospermum diversifolium*, *Peltophorum pterocarpum*, *Guettarda speciosa*, *Trema orientalis*, *Muntingia calabura*, *Terminalia cattapa*, and many others.



Figure 3-19. Shrublands formed 1.5 years after the Tsunami.

In less than two years, a number of locations have become vegetated by a variety of species, ranging from grasslands to shrublands. Observations along Aceh's west coast (from Banda Aceh to Pulot village) found naturally formed shrublands generally consisting of a variety of species, as listed in Table 3-5 below.

Table 3-5. Species of vegetation commonly found in shrublands.

| No | Local name/Species | Family | Abundancy |
|----|---------------------------------------|----------------|-----------|
| 1 | Mengkirai /Trema orientale | Ulmaceae | +++ |
| 2 | Bayur /Pterospermum diversifolium | Sterculiaceae | ++ |
| 3 | Jati pasir/ Guettarda speciosa | Rubiaceae | + |
| 4 | Petai cina or Lamtoro /Luacana glauca | Leguminosae | +++ |
| 5 | Kresen/ Muntingia calabura | Tiliaceae | ++ |
| 6 | Ketepeng/ Senna alata | Leguminosae | + |
| 7 | Peltophorum pterocarpum | Leguminosae | +++ |
| 8 | Cemara laut/ Casuarina equisetifolia | Casuarinaceae | +++ |
| 9 | Macaranga tanarius | Euphorbiaceae | + |
| 10 | Jatropha gossypifolia | Euphorbiaceae | + |
| 11 | Pulai /Alstonia macrophylla | Apocynaceae | ++ |
| 12 | Callicarpa arborea | Verbenaceae | + |
| 13 | Abelmoschus moschatus | Malvaceae | + |
| 14 | Timonius compressicaulis | Rubiaceae | + |
| 15 | Akasia/Acacia auriculiformis | Leguminosae | ++ |
| 16 | Akasia/Acacia mangium | Leguminosae | ++ |
| 17 | Crotalaria striata | Leguminosae | + |
| 18 | Indigofera suffruticosa | Leguminosae | + |
| 19 | Gmelina elliptica | Verbenaceae | + |
| 20 | Abutilon hirtum | Malvaceae | + |
| 21 | Sasamum indicum | | + |
| 22 | Premna corymbosa | Verbenaceae | ++ |
| 23 | Kayu tua/ Leea indica | Vitaceae | + |
| 24 | Gamal/ Gliricidia sepium | Leguminosae | + |
| 25 | Kuda-kuda/ Lannea coromandelica | Anacardiaceae | + |
| 26 | Abroma mollis | Sterculiaceae | + |
| 28 | Aeschynomene indica | Leguminosae | + |
| 29 | Galaran /Ipomea pes-caprae | Convolvulaceae | ++ |
| 30 | Gelagah /Sacharum spontaneum | Poaceae | + |
| 31 | Lantana camara | Verbenaceae | ++ |

Note : + : sparce ++ : moderate +++ : abundant

BOX 3-3. Natural regeneration; the threats and recommendations for better management

Lhok Nga was once famous for the beauty of its beach and pine forest. Unfortunately, the whole of this area was destroyed by the 2004 Tsunami. Most of the pine stands died while the remaining few were very badly degraded. Only moments after the Tsunami, most of the Lhok Ngah area had been reduced to empty land. Now, however, the emptiness has been replaced by young stands of Casuarina pine growing very close together. WI-IP's survey of the vegetation (July 2006) recorded that in a single plot measuring 20 m x 2 m there were 153 individual saplings with heights ranging from 50 cm to 350 cm. A rough calculation estimates that 1 hectare would therefore contain 3,825 saplings.



Figure 3-20. Condition of young Casuarina stand in Lhok Nga, Aceh Besar

There are concerns that this dense, lush stand of casuarina will suffer degradation from a number of threats, including the uncontrolled taking of wildlings, forest fire, and land conversion. Hence, it is strongly recommended to all the parties concerned that they conserve and protect these casuarina stands from such threats.

The utilization of casuarina wildlings for cultivation purposes is deemed feasible, provided that it is carefully managed and does not endanger the casuarina stand by exceeding its capacity to provide. Moreover, this location is highly suitable for research, particularly to monitor the dynamics of casuarina populations.

3.3 PROSPECTS FOR REHABILITATION IN SEVERAL LOCATIONS

Rehabilitation activity should always take into account the land's carrying capacity. Mistakes made in the selection of suitable sites run a high risk of leading to failure, resulting in a waste of money, time and effort. Planting must always be preceded by a careful assessment of the site. If its carrying capacity is found to be low and its conditions do not meet those required by the seedlings, then a different site should be sought. The following paragraphs describe a variety of different site conditions in the context of their prospects for rehabilitation.

3.3.1 Locations with good prospects for rehabilitation

Not all areas affected by the Tsunami have the necessary carrying capacity for rehabilitation. Some were so badly damaged that they are no longer suitable for the type of vegetation which used to grow there. Many others, however, do possess the necessary conditions making them suitable for rehabilitation.

Locations which hold good prospects for mangrove rehabilitation are generally muddy beaches, river estuaries and brackish aquaculture ponds (tambak). Nevertheless, in every case, the mangrove species chosen must be one(s) suited to the condition of the substrate at the particular site where it will be planted.



Figure 3-21. Suitable locations for mangrove; pond dykes (left) and river estuary (right).

A number of substrate conditions are described below, together with recommendations for suitable species of mangrove for each:

- ❑ Muddy substrate with a soft texture of clay to dusty clay and high salinity is highly recommended for *Avicennia marina*, *Avicennia lanata*, *Avicennia alba*, and *Rhizophora mucronata*.
- ❑ Non-muddy substrate with a sandy to sandy clay texture and high salinity is highly recommended for planting *Rhizophora stylosa*, *R. apiculata*, *Sonneratia alba*, *Aegiceras floridum*, and *Bruguiera spp.*
- ❑ Non-muddy substrate with clay texture and high salinity is suitable for *Ceriops tagal*, *Osbornea octodonta* and *Scyphiphora sp.*

Unlike mangrove, species of coastal vegetation such as *Casuarina equisetifolia*, ketapang *Terminalia catappa*, coconut *Cocos nucifera*, *Hibiscus tiliaceus* and several others prefer soil which is sandy and dry. It is recommended that planting is done in *Ipomea Pes-caprae* formations usually found at the back of sandy beach.

For organosol (peat), indigenous peatland species are recommended, such as *Dyera lowii*, *Alstonia pneumatophora*, *Vitex pubescens*, and *Campnosperma spp.*



Figure 3-22. *Pes-caprae* formation on sandy beach suitable for planting activities.

3.3.2 Locations not suitable for rehabilitation

Observations along the coast of Aceh and Simelue island have identified a number of locations which should be avoided for rehabilitation because of the high risk of failure. These are:

Labile sandy beach

A labile beach is generally affected by two factors, i.e. wind and waves. Wind can erode the beach and move it from one location to another. The dynamic behaviour of waves often reaches the rear line of the beach and then causes the substrate to become highly saline. Seedlings planted in this type of location stand very little chance of survival.

Empty sandy beach

The absence of vegetation on sandy beaches is generally due to their high salinity resulting from the high tides. High salinity is most unsuitable for plants and, for this reason, rehabilitation should not be carried out at this kind of location.

Totally altered mangrove habitat

Not all of the places where mangrove used to grow are still suitable for replanting with mangrove. Some have been totally transformed, in particular those which are no longer inundated by sea water or which have been covered in a layer of coarse material deposited by the Tsunami. Any attempt to plant mangroves in such locations will only end in failure.

Newly formed land

Newly formed land is not fertile. It is usually covered by coral and is highly saline. Moreover, it is usually no longer inundated by sea water, so is not suitable for mangrove. Other species of coastal vegetation will not grow there either, because of the extreme substrate and high salinity.

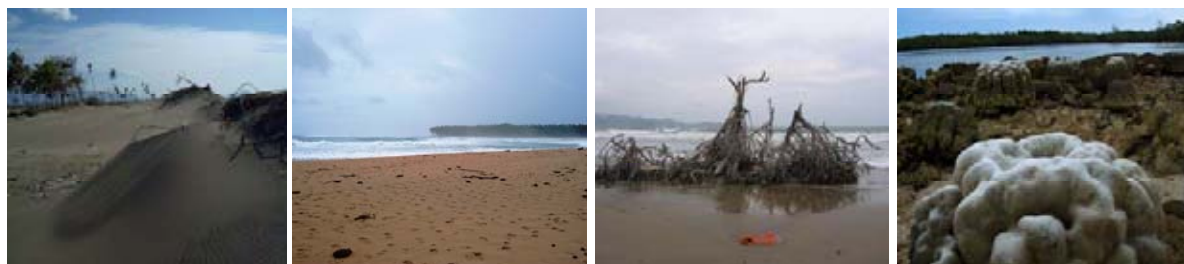


Figure 3-23. Locations where rehabilitation should be avoided

4. Lessons Learned

The recovery of Tsunami affected areas in Nanggroe Aceh Darrusalam province and Nias is being carried out in three stages: emergency response, rehabilitation, and reconstruction. The initial emergency response stage, which focused on rescuing survivors and providing for their basic needs, lasted from January 2005 to March 2005. The second stage, rehabilitation, began in April 2005 and is scheduled to end in December 2006. During this stage, a variety of rehabilitation activities have been carried out, including cleaning up the environment from Tsunami debris and repairing mosques, hospitals and other parts of the infrastructure. This will be followed by the reconstruction stage, which is scheduled to start in July 2007 and finish in December 2009 (Bappenas, 2005).

The coastal rehabilitation now underway is part of the second stage. During this stage, those parts of the coast damaged by the Tsunami are being reforested through the planting of mangrove and other coastal species. Most of the mangrove planting has been done in Banda Aceh, Aceh Besar, Pidie, a little in Aceh Jaya and other parts of Aceh's eastern coast that have muddy beaches. Meanwhile, the planting of other coastal species (generally sea pine *Casuarina equisetifolia*) has been mainly along the western coast, particularly in the districts of Aceh Besar, Aceh Barat, Nagan Raya and Aceh Selatan.

4.1 THE ACTORS AND THEIR ROLES IN COASTAL REHABILITATION

The rehabilitation of degraded coastal areas involves a variety of different parties, each with their particular role and position. The main roles of all those involved in rehabilitating Aceh's coastal vegetation can be grouped into three simple categories: donor, facilitator, and implementer. The role of Donor is usually played by donor agencies, foreign governments and international organizations having access to funds raised from the international community. These funds (part of which are also allocated to the emergency and reconstruction stages) are then dispersed to a number of stakeholders, primarily to international and national NGOs, to facilitate efforts towards the goals of rehabilitation. These NGOs then play the role of Facilitator; they channel funds from the Donor to the Implementers in the field and are responsible to the Donor for the implementation and results of field activities (including the utilization of the funds). Meanwhile, the Implementers are those (usually the communities living on the coast) who undertake the actual physical work of rehabilitation activities in the field and who are responsible to the Facilitator for the work and its results.

Besides the main actors, there are also other parties who are involved as Supporters. They are not part of the implementation mechanism but provide support for an activity. They include labourers, seedling suppliers, etc. They are only involved when a particular activity is going on, and their involvement automatically ceases as soon as the task they were needed for is finished. Moreover, the result of the activity is not their responsibility.

The relationships between these roles can be described in terms of several mechanisms as illustrated in the flowchart below.

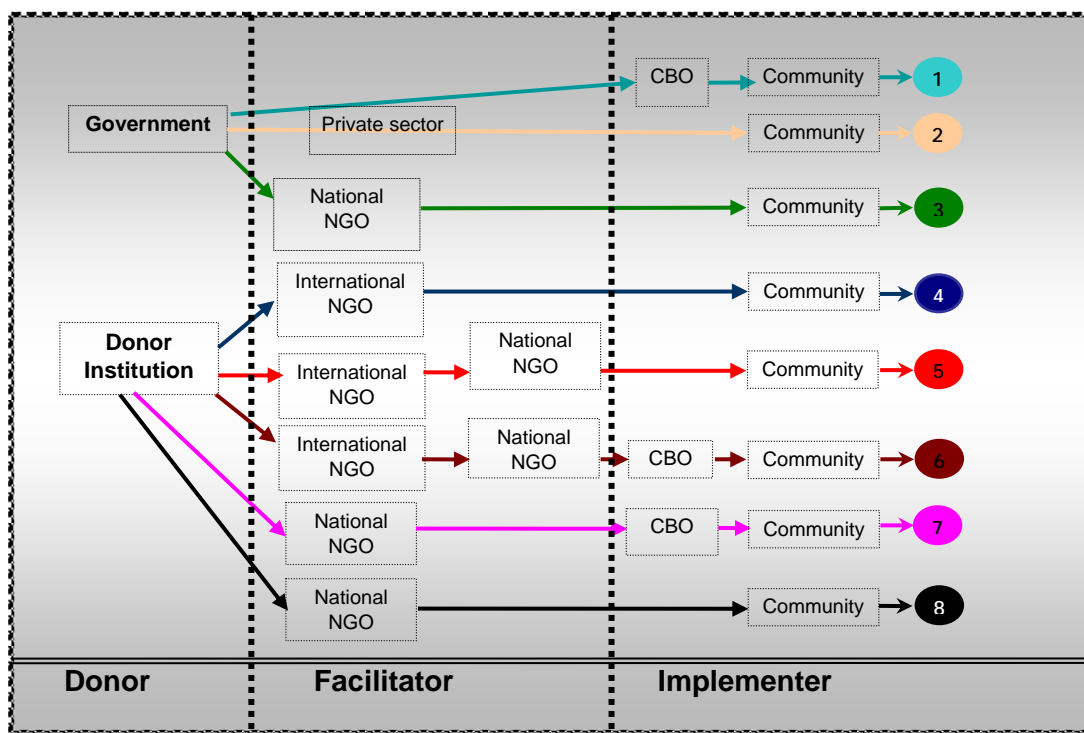


Figure 4-1. Flowchart showing the mechanisms for rehabilitation activities

As can be seen from the chart, coastal rehabilitation activities are carried out through at least eight mechanisms for cooperation among the various stakeholders concerned. The following paragraphs describe the roles and involvement of each stakeholder.

4.1.1 Government

In this context, the term Government covers Central Government, Provincial Government, District Government and Municipal Government. The position of BRR (Agency for the Rehabilitation and Reconstruction of Aceh and Nias) also represents the government role having specific responsibility for the coordination and implementation of the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Aceh and Nias.

Only a few government institutions are involved directly in coastal rehabilitation. These include: the Provincial Forestry Agency, the Forestry Agency for each District, BKSDA (Agency for the Conservation of Natural Resources), and BP DAS (the Watershed Management Service). Most of the coastal rehabilitation activity carried out has been the planting of mangrove at a number of locations affected by the Tsunami. GNRHL (the National Movement for Forest and Land Rehabilitation) is the channel most often used by government institutions through the Forestry Department to facilitate coastal rehabilitation activity in Aceh.

The government has generally run the rehabilitation activities by using a project approach, in the same way as before the Tsunami. As its capacity for simultaneously planning and implementing the activities is limited, the government has needed the support of other parties, for example to supply seedlings and

manpower in the field. In order to obtain seedlings, government usually cooperates with seedling suppliers from private companies or from farmers' groups. For technical work in the field (e.g. land preparation, planting, etc.) the government usually engages the private sector (including by tender) or the community as manpower.

4.1.2 International Non Government Organizations (NGOs)

Up to December 2005, as many as 124 International NGOs had been recorded in BRR's list of parties involved in the Rehabilitation and Reconstruction of Aceh and Nias. Unfortunately, only a few of these have a particular interest in environmental issues. No more than 20 International NGOs are known to have a coastal restoration program.

Oxfam International, Islamic Relief, Mercy Corps, Wetlands International Indonesia Programme, Care International Indonesia, Beach Care Programme-Japan Surf and several other international NGOs have worked or are working on coastal rehabilitation activities in Aceh. Although some of them use the same patterns and approach in implementing the activities, some others employ a different approach. For example, Oxfam International has combined reforestation activities with job creation through the *Cash for work* program, while Wetlands International Indonesia Programme has combined coastal rehabilitation with livelihood development through the *Small grants* mechanism.

4.1.3 National NGOs

In this context, National NGO refers not only to NGOs domiciled in Aceh, but also includes NGOs from other provinces of Indonesia which have new (post- Tsunami) or old (pre-Tsunami) activities in Aceh.

Local NGOs usually have links with international NGOs or even with donor institutions. Via these links, some local NGOs have gained the trust of international NGOs and donors to manage the implementation of rehabilitation activities in Aceh. This is based on a variety of considerations, such as the belief that the local NGOs understand the field conditions in Aceh, have better access to local government and other relevant institutions, understand the sociocultural character of the local communities, and share the same language. In fact, however, not all these local NGOs possess adequate skills to manage coastal rehabilitation.

At present, no fewer than 430 National NGOs are recorded in BRR's list as being involved in the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Aceh and Nias (BRR, 2005). It is estimated that fewer than 20% of them are dealing with coastal rehabilitation.

4.1.4 Private enterprise

Private businesses have not been much involved in the post-Tsunami rehabilitation of Aceh, because it is considered that their status as profit-oriented organisations makes them unsuitable for inclusion in rehabilitation projects (even though, in fact, many have been involved in reconstruction work in Aceh, such as supplying materials and building houses).

Nevertheless, for rehabilitation funded by the Indonesian Government, private companies have been involved in providing mangrove seedlings, and these companies have then employed local people to plant them in the field. One example of this is the coastal rehabilitation program in Lham Nga village, Aceh Besar, which was facilitated by BP DAS of Kerueng Aceh (private interviews with labourers at the site, June 2005).

4.1.5 Community

The chief victims of the Tsunami disaster are the community. Besides the tragedy of losing their family and relatives, the survivors have also lost their property and livelihoods. For this reason, the various parties concerned with the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Aceh have tried as far as possible to involve them in the projects, including coastal rehabilitation.

Nevertheless, the community's position is more that of field implementers. Their involvement has been passive in nature, depending simply on whether or not an activity was being organized in their area, and on whether there were any third parties who needed them.

Field observations indicate that community involvement was limited to certain activities, mainly transporting and planting seedlings. In most cases, they had no access whatever to involvement in the process of planning, preparation, acquisition of seedlings, etc., these activities usually being performed by a facilitator (private enterprise, NGO or other).

At the beginning of the rehabilitation stage in Aceh, the NGOs involved the Tsunami survivors in their programs through the *Cash for work* approach. From this, the participants received wages ranging from Rp. 25,000 to Rp. 35,000 per day for a variety of tasks. At first, *Cash for work* focused just on clearing away the wreckage and debris left by the Tsunami. As conditions improved, it was extended to coastal rehabilitation, thus involving the community unawares in coastal reforestation.

Information from the field revealed that planting mangrove under the *Cash for work* program was not accompanied by adequate training in planting technique, etc. The community simply followed instructions given by the field supervisor. Their target was usually the number of seedlings planted. How they should be planted and what procedure should be followed were not a high priority. Hence most *Cash for work* activities had a low success rate. Nevertheless, there were a few locations where the percentage survival was fairly high.

As time passed, the form of community involvement began to change from individual to group. Many members of the community therefore formed groups. One of the main aims of this was to accommodate the local community's own aspirations, and to enable them to cooperate collectively with NGOs, particularly with those that had a community empowerment program.

BOX 4-1. Cash for work in rehabilitation activities

Many of the rehabilitation activities in Aceh, especially during the early phases, used the Cash for work mechanism. In this way, the community were involved in carrying out coastal rehabilitation by being paid around Rp 35.000 for each day's work.

The main reasons behind the Cash for work program were:

- It provides opportunity for employment, where jobs and livelihoods have been lost
- In the short term, the money earned can be used to pay for daily necessities such as food, etc.
- It injects money into the economy at grass roots
- Keeping occupied through work is one way of dealing with the psychological trauma resulting from the Tsunami
- It can help develop communication and relationships among men and women in the community

(OI Tsunami External Bulletin #24 of 23 Mar 2005)

Observation at several planting sites using the Cash for work approach found that at least two mechanisms were being applied. These were:

Mechanism 1: The cash for work was paid by the fund manager/owner directly to the community in return for their involvement in planting seedlings. The money was calculated daily at a rate of Rp. 25,000 – Rp. 35,000, but usually paid out weekly.

Although the results were successful at some planting sites, most of the rehabilitation done using this mechanism was judged to have failed, as indicated by the seedlings' low survival rate. Failure was generally due to the following factors:

- Planting was usually done by the community en masse and was therefore very difficult to control. As a consequence, it was very difficult to ensure that the seedlings were planted in a careful, serious manner.
- The community participating in the Cash for work program were not given adequate technical guidance and information on how to plant the seedlings.
- Timing was not appropriate. The best time to plant coastal species is in the early morning or late afternoon when it is relatively cool. In fact, however, some participants were busy with something else at those times and therefore did the planting in the middle of the day. This is very inadvisable as the intense heat from the midday sun can cause the seedlings to become stressed and die.
- The location chosen for planting was unsuitable. For example, mangrove was planted on dry land, pine trees were planted on barren sand.
- Once planted, the seedlings were not tended. Under the Cash for work program there was no obligation on the participants to tend the seedlings, thus their responsibility ended with the planting. As a result, many seedlings died from lack of water, were uprooted by high tides, attacked by pests or livestock.

In general, therefore, the coastal rehabilitation Cash for work program can be said to have successfully achieved its goals of encouraging community participation, providing employment and income. Regrettably, however, it did not succeed in rehabilitating the coast.

Mechanism 2: The fund manager entrusted the running of the Cash for work program to a local NGO. In this case, there was a closer relationship with the community and some technical guidance was provided, although this was very limited. The time schedule for the activity was usually determined jointly.

This mechanism showed better results compared to the first, with higher survival rates at several of the planting sites.

Conclusion:

Cash for work is more effective when used for physical, labour-intensive work that does not require carefulness, experience, or specific skill (for example, unskilled labour to help skilled construction workers, or to clean up the environment).

The Cash for work approach is not recommended for the planting of seedlings, which requires special expertise, experience, carefulness and continuous maintenance.

4.1.6 Community Based Organizations (CBO)

A Community Based Organization or CBO can be defined as an non-profit organization or group comprising members of the community who possess the same mission and goals, and who have a strong commitment to progress and work together. Generally, these CBOs are formed with the assistance of local NGOs, which play a role both in their formation and in capacity strengthening.

Although their management is very simple, CBOs fulfil the administrative and legal requirements to implement coastal rehabilitation.

Lately, CBOs have become a possible choice of partner for facilitators and donor agencies, especially for those concerned with community empowerment. Field observation shows that one CBO can be involved in several activities facilitated by a number of different facilitators or donor agencies. CBOs in Aceh include those already in existence before the Tsunami (such as the *Lembaga Panglima Laot* and a wide variety of cooperatives) as well as the many formed after it. These latter were usually created under the auspices of a local NGO and their continued existence is still a matter of some uncertainty.

Apart from those mentioned above, a number of other parties play a role in the rehabilitation of Aceh's coast, including research institutions, Universities, Scouts, seedling suppliers, etc.

4.2. THE IMPLEMENTATION AND PROGRESS OF REHABILITATION

The planting of mangrove and other coastal vegetation was first initiated by a number of International NGOs (Oxfam, Islamic Relief, Mercy Corps, etc) through *Cash for work* programs in April 2005 in several locations in Aceh Besar, and in Simeulue through a program of planting by community groups facilitated by Care International-Indonesia in cooperation with Wetlands International (from June 2005). Subsequently, the Watershed Management Service (BP DAS - *Badan Pengelolaan Daerah Aliran Sungai*) began the planting of mangrove in Lham Nga village-Aceh Besar, attended by Forestry Minister MS Kaban. It was not until 21 November that BRR officially launched the 'Coastal Re-greening Project' in collaboration with Wetlands International – Indonesia Programme and WWF-Indonesia. From then on, a variety of other institutions, both government and non-government, have been quick to join in the coastal rehabilitation effort.

Mangrove is usually planted on a variety of sites, particularly brackish aquaculture ponds, degraded mangrove habitat, and along river banks. Nevertheless, mangrove was also found to have been planted in unsuitable places, such as deep sandy beaches and dry land. The seedlings' survival rate differed widely between these two types of site, being much higher on muddy sites (ponds and river banks) than on sandy beach. Almost all of the mangrove planting done on sandy sites totally failed. This is because mangrove is not a species suited to dry, sandy areas.

The assessment conducted by the Wetlands International Team in September-October 2005, identified 25 true mangrove species in Aceh (including Simeulue island) and Nias, of which 20 species were considered to have good potential for cultivation and planting in Aceh. In practice, however, no more than 5 species of mangrove have been planted and 95% consisted of *Rhizophora apiculata* and *R. mucronata*, the remaining 5% comprising Nipah *Nypa fruticans*, *Tengar Bruguiera spp* and *Api-api Avicennia spp*.

A wider variety of species was found to have been used for coastal dry land rehabilitation, however. Those most commonly planted included coconut *Cocos nucifera*, sea pine *Casuarina equisetifolia*, *Terminalia cattapa*, *Cerbera manghas*, *Hibiscus tiliaceus*, *Azadirachta indica*, *Callophylum inophyllum*, *Jatropha curcas*, and *Pandanus tectorius*.



Figure 4-2. Various species of coastal vegetation: sea pine, hibiscus, pandanus, cerbera and tamarind (clockwise from top left)

Besides these, several other multi-purpose tree species (MPTS) were also planted, including Tamarind *Tamarindus indica*, Areca palm *Areca cathecu*, Breadfruit *Artocarpus spp.*, Cacao *Theobroma cacao* and others in limited numbers.

According to WIIP's analysis of available data from various sources in Aceh, plans have been made for the rehabilitation of at least 56,502 hectares of coast. Of this, 27,532 ha is plotted for mangrove and 28,969 ha for other species of coastal vegetation. Sadly, only a small proportion of the implementers have reported the actual extent of their activities, while the others have failed to report the area of planting done. It is also possible that these latter have not in fact carried out any rehabilitation.

Considering the total area planned for rehabilitation, it can be deduced that at least 29,843,221 seedlings were to be planted. Of these, 98.65% (29,439,840 seedlings) are mangrove and 1.34% (403,371 seedlings) coastal vegetation. Unfortunately, however, most of the implementers have failed to report the number of seedlings actually planted (or perhaps, for certain reasons, some of them cancelled planting or reduced the number of seedlings).

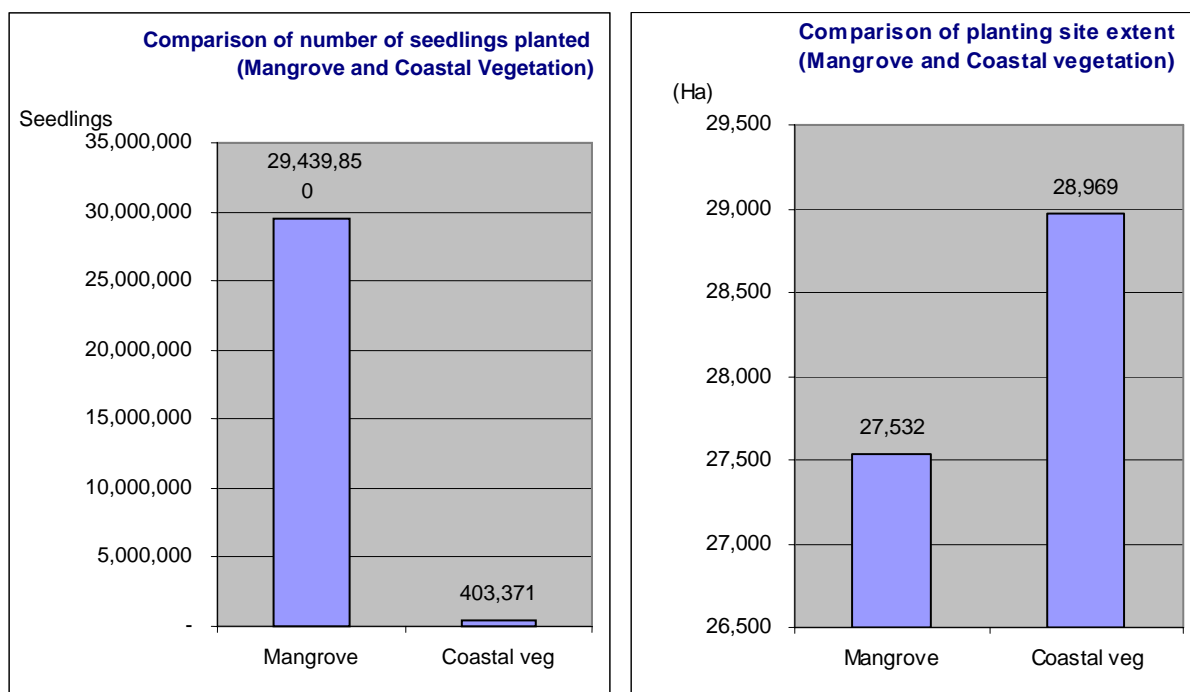


Figure 4-3. Rough calculation of the total area rehabilitated and number of seedlings planted (based on data compiled from various sources)

Coastal rehabilitation in NAD province has involved various parties, both government agencies and non government organizations. Tables 4-1 to 4-3 below show the figures for the plans for and/or realisation of coastal rehabilitation activities of each implementer, together with other accompanying information. Note: The information below does not give the number of seedlings actually planted (because some activities are still at the planning stage) nor the number surviving (because no reports have been received as to the percentage of planted seedlings that are still alive).

Table 4-1. Data on plans for or realization of mangrove planting conducted by Government agencies*

| No | Facilitator/Implementer | District/Subdistrict/Village | Species | Area (Ha) | Number of seedlings |
|----|--------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------|-----------|---------------------|
| 1 | BPDAS-Krueng Aceh Propinsi NAD | Aceh Besar (Lham Nga) | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 50 | 267,500 |
| 2 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 300 | 1,080,000 |
| 3 | Dishut A. Besar | Aceh Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 900 | ? |
| 4 | GERHAN BPDAS | PIDIE | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 600 | ? |
| 5 | Disbunhut Pidie | PIDIE | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,000 | ? |
| 6 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Jaya | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 100 | 360,000 |
| 7 | Disbunhut A. Jaya | Aceh Jaya | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 700 | |
| 8 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Barat | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 800 | 2,880,000 |
| 9 | Dishutbuntrans A. Barat | Aceh Barat | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,200 | |

| No | Facilitator/Implementer | District/Subdistrict/Village | Species | Area (Ha) | Number of seedlings |
|----|---------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 10 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Utara | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 600 | 2,160,000 |
| 11 | Disbunhut A. Utara | Aceh Utara | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,650 | |
| 12 | GERHAN BPDAS | Simeulue | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 200 | 720,000 |
| 13 | Dishut Simeulue | Simeulue | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,000 | |
| 14 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Singkil | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 850 | 3,060,000 |
| 15 | Dishut A. Singkil | Aceh Singkil | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,275 | |
| 16 | GERHAN BPDAS | Bireuen | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 500 | 1,800,000 |
| 17 | Disbunhut Bireuen | Bireuen | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,850 | |
| 18 | GERHAN BPDAS | Banda Aceh | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 500 | 1,800,000 |
| 19 | Dinas PPPK | Banda Aceh | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 600 | |
| 20 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Barat Daya | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 300 | 1,080,000 |
| 21 | Dishut Abdya | Aceh Barat Daya | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 610 | |
| 22 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Selatan | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 100 | 360,000 |
| 23 | Disbunhut A. Selatan | Aceh Selatan | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,100 | |
| 24 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Tamiang | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 700 | 2,520,000 |
| 25 | Dishut A. Tamiang | Aceh Tamiang | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,850 | |
| 26 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Timur | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 800 | 2,880,000 |
| 27 | Disbunhut A. Timur | Aceh Timur | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,100 | |
| 28 | GERHAN BPDAS | Kota Langsa | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 100 | 360,000 |
| 28 | Dispersantun Langsa | Kota Langsa | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,284 | |
| 30 | GERHAN BPDAS | Kota Sabang | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 200 | 720,000 |
| 31 | GERHAN BPDAS | Kota Lhokseumawe | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 300 | 1,080,000 |
| 32 | Disbunhut Gayo Lues | Gayo Lues | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1,150 | |
| 33 | Dishutpertrans Nagan Raya | Nagan Raya | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 800 | |
| 34 | Disperhut Kota Sabang | Sabang | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 700 | |
| 35 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Aceh Besar, Kec.Pkn Bada 1 | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 47 | 77,500 |
| 36 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Aceh Besar, Kec.Pkn Bada 2 | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 91 | 350,350 |
| 37 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Aceh Besar, Kec. Masjid Raya | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 91 | 123,200 |
| 38 | Satker BRR Pesisir | PIDIE | <i>Rhizophora, Avicennia spp.</i> | 42 | 231,000 |
| 39 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Aceh Jaya | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 60 | 330,000 |
| | TOTAL | | | 26,100 | 24,239,550 |

Notre: Gerhan: Gerakan Rehabilitasi Lahan (land rehabilitation movement), Disbunhut : Dinas Perkebunan&Kehutanan (Forestry & Plantation Agency), Satker: Satuan Kerja (wok unit), BP DAS: Badan Pengelolaan Daerah Aliran Sungai (River Catchment Management Agency), BRR: Badan Rekonstruksi & Rehabilitasi (Rehabilitation and Reconstruction Board)

Table 4-2. Data on plans for or realization of mangrove planting conducted by NGOs*

| NO | Facilitator/Implementer | District/Subdistrict/Village | Species | Area (Ha) | Number of seedlings |
|----|---------------------------|------------------------------|---|-----------|---------------------|
| | International NGOs | | | | |
| 1 | Islamic Relief | Tibang, A. Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 4 | 20,000 |
| 2 | Livelihood Development | Cundien, A.Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | - | 800 |
| 3 | (Conservation Program) | | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 1 | 4,000 |
| 4 | OXFAM | Lamsenia | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 22 | 110,000 |
| 5 | OXFAM | Lhok Seudu | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 22 | 110,000 |
| 6 | OXFAM | Pulot | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 22 | 110,000 |
| 7 | OXFAM | Menasah Mesjid | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 22 | 110,000 |
| 8 | OXFAM | Meunasah Ba'u | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 22 | 110,000 |
| 9 | OXFAM | Daeah Mamplam | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 22 | 110,000 |
| 10 | OXFAM | Lampulo malahayati | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 10 | 50,000 |
| 11 | OXFAM | Alue Deah Tengoh | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 20 | 100,000 |
| 12 | OXFAM | Deah Baro | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 10 | 50,000 |
| 13 | OXFAM | Deah Glumpang | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 10 | 50,000 |
| 14 | OXFAM | Ulee Lheu Mesjid | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 24 | 120,000 |
| 15 | OXFAM | Lamteh | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 2 | 10,000 |
| 16 | OXFAM | Tibang | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 2 | 10,000 |
| 17 | OXFAM | Lam Batueng | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 75 | 373,000 |
| 18 | OXFAM | Lam Prada | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 75 | 373,000 |
| 19 | OXFAM | Man singet | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 75 | 373,000 |
| 20 | OXFAM | Lam Seunong | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 75 | 373,000 |
| 21 | OXFAM | Keude Aron | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 75 | 373,000 |
| 22 | OXFAM | Gampong baru | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 14 | 70,000 |
| 23 | ADB | Aceh Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 20 | ? |
| 24 | GTZ-SLGSR | Aceh Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 25 | ? |
| 25 | FAO | Paru Keude | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 89.5 | ? |
| 26 | FAO | Paru Cot | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 15 | ? |
| 27 | FAO | Meunasah & | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> , <i>Nypa fruticans</i> | 8 | ? |
| 28 | FAO | Kiran Baroh | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 12 | ? |

| NO | Facilitator/Implementer | District/Subdistrict/Village | Species | Area (Ha) | Number of seedlings |
|---|---|---|------------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 29 | Wetlands International – Indonesia Programme (WI-IP) through Small Grants from Green Coast project ¹ | A.Besar, B.Aceh, Semeulue, Nias, Pidie, Aceh Utara, Lhok Seumawe, Sabang. | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 200 | 1,100,000 |
| | TOTAL (International NGOs) | | | 973,50 | 4,109,800 |
| | National NGOs * | | | | |
| 1 | Yayasan Leuser Indonesia | Lambada, A.Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 3 | 13,000 |
| 2 | Yayasan Gajah Sumatera | Tibang, A. Besar | <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | 2 | 10,000 |
| | TOTAL (National NGOs) | | | 5 | 23,000 |
| Note: The number of seedlings planted through national NGOs is in reality much greater than that stated here, because most rehabilitation by international NGOs was in fact facilitated or implemented in the field by national NGOs. For example, the planting of 80% of the seedlings listed under WIIP was facilitated by around 60 local NGOs in Aceh, while the other 20% was facilitated by WIIP directly with the community. | | | | | |

Table 4-3. Data on plans for or realization of planting of coastal vegetation by Government agencies and NGOs*

| No | Facilitator/Implementer | District/Subdistrict/Village | Species | Area (Ha) | Number of seedlings |
|-------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------|---------------------|
| Government | | | | | |
| 1 | GERHAN BPDAS | Aceh Besar | Ketapang & Sea pine | 800 | ? |
| 2 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Batee, Pidie | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba, Bunot | 12 | 5,760 |
| 3 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Kota Sigli | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba, Bunot | 18 | 8,640 |
| 4 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Simpang Tiga | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba, Bunot | 9 | 4,320 |
| 5 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Keumbang Tanjong | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba, Bunot | 8 | 3,840 |
| 6 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Lancak, Pasi lhok, Jeumerang | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba, Bunot | 6 | 2,880 |
| 7 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Bandar Baru | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba, Bunot | 15 | 7,200 |

¹ The Green Coast Project is a coastal rehabilitation program which actively involves participation of the local community (facilitated by local NGOs), in which the community is given working capital (small grants) on the condition that they actively reforest the coast by planting mangrove and/or other species of coastal vegetation. This program is coordinated by WIIP with funding from Oxfam.

| No | Facilitator/ Implementer | District/Subdistrict/ Village | Species | Area (Ha) | Number of seedlings |
|------------|--|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------|------------------------|
| 8 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Lancang Paru | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 6 | 2,880 |
| 9 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Pasi Pusong | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 9 | 4,320 |
| 10 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Pante Raja Mesjid | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 11 | 5,280 |
| 11 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Meue | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 6 | 2,880 |
| 12 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Cot Lheue | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 15 | 7,200 |
| 13 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Sagoe | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 7 | 3,360 |
| 14 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Meuraxa | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 17 | 8,160 |
| 15 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Aceh Jaya | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 200 | 96,000 |
| 16 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Bireuen | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 100 | 48,000 |
| 17 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Peukan bada | Sea pine, Ketapang, Mimba, Bunot | 5 | 2,400 |
| 18 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Lhok Nga | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 84 | 40,320 |
| 19 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Wilayah Pante | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 31 | 14,880 |
| 20 | Satker BRR Pesisir | Mesjid Raya | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba,Bunot | 30 | 14,400 |
| 21 | Note: Satker BRR Pesisir = BRR Coastal Work unit | | TOTAL | 1,389 | 282,720 |
| NGO | | | | | |
| 22 | Beach Care Programme, By Japan surf | Leupung-Lhok Nga | Sea pine | 2 | ? |
| 23 | Livelihood Development | Birek | Sea pine | 2 | 20 |
| 24 | Livelihood Development | Karueng | Sea pine | 1 | 40 |
| 25 | Livelihood Development | Baroh KK | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba | - | 40 |
| 26 | Livelihood Development | Tanah Ano | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba | 3 | 1,066 |
| 27 | Livelihood Development | Jantang | Coconut | 4 | 800 |
| 28 | Livelihood Development | Paroy | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba | - | 30 |
| 29 | Livelihood | Cot | Coconut | 1 | 300 |

| No | Facilitator/ Implementer | District/Subdistrict/ Village | Species | Area (Ha) | Number of seedlings |
|---|---|--|--|--------------|------------------------|
| | Development | | | | |
| 30 | Livelihood Development | Glee Bruek | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba | - | 40 |
| 31 | Livelihood Development | Pudeng | Ketapang, Sea pine, Mimba, Bunot | | |
| 32 | Livelihood Development | Cundien | Coconut, Ketapang, Sea pine | 3 | 415 |
| 33 | OXFAM | Alue Deah Tengoh | Coconut & Sea pine | | 1,100 |
| 34 | OXFAM | Deah Baro | Coconut & Sea pine | | 1,100 |
| 35 | OXFAM | Deah Glumpang | Coconut & Sea pine | | 1,100 |
| 36 | OXFAM | Lamteh | Coconut | | 5,000 |
| 37 | OXFAM | Tibang | Sea pine | | 600 |
| 38 | FAO | Bandar Baru, Pideie | Coconut, Sea pine, Ketapang | 12 | ? |
| 39 | Care International Indonesia & WIIP | Langi & Alus-alus villages in Simeulue district | Ketapang | 20 | 10,500 |
| 40 | Wetlands International – Indonesia Programme through Small Grants from Green Coast project | A. Besar, B. Aceh, Semeulue, Nias, Pidie, Aceh Utara, Lhok Seumawe, Sabang. | Sea pine, Coconut, Bunot, Tamarind, Ketapang | 152 | 109,000 |
| | | | TOTAL | 198 | 131,151 |
| Note: Ketapang = <i>Terminalia cattapa</i> Mimba = <i>Azadirachta indica</i> Bunot = Punago = nyamplung = <i>Callophylum inophyllum</i> <i>Cemara laut</i> = sea pine = <i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i> | | | | | |

* Based on data from various sources, compiled and analyzed by WI-IP

BOX 4-2. Excerpts from press reports on Coastal Rehabilitation (translated from the Indonesian)

Tempo Interaktif, 4 January 2005

As part of the three stages of action following the earthquake and tsunami in Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam and Nias-Sumatera Utara (i.e. emergency stage, rehabilitation and reconstruction), the Ministry for the Environment (KLH) announced that they have mobilized a Commando Post (Posko) for the rehabilitation of Aceh. Coordinated by the secretary to the Minister for the Environment, the Posko has sent tens of KLH Ministry staff to inventorise data concerning the damage to nature. This team has also been instructed to calculate how much must be spent to repair the environment.

Bisnis Indonesia, 07 January 2005

The Forestry Department has allocated Rp806 billion to re-establish 200,000 ha of mangrove forest along the coast of Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (NAD) and its vicinity. This money will come from unused funds remaining from the 2003-2004 budget for the National Movement for Land and Forest Rehabilitation (GNRHL). It is envisaged that with this amount of money it will be possible to establish 150,000 – 200,000 ha of mangrove forest, calculated on an estimated cost of Rp 4 juta - Rp 5 per hectare, including labour costs. [author's note: This target is questionable since only less than 60,000 ha of NAD's coast is thought to be suitable for mangrove].

Serambi Indonesia, 14 March 2005

Inhabitants of Leupung in the Aceh Besar district have begun rehabilitation along the coast and river by planting 85,000 mangrove seedlings in an effort to restore the coastal ecosystem destroyed by the Tsunami. These thousands of seedlings have been provided through the help of a leading member of the local community and distributed to the inhabitants of six villages for planting along the coast and riverside.

BRR Press announcement, 21 November 2005

The Agency for the Rehabilitation and Reconstruction of Aceh and Nias (BRR) on 21 November 2005 launched the Coastal Re-greening Project in collaboration with Wetlands International Indonesia Programme and WWF Indonesia. These latter two organisations are the primary implementers for the Green Coast Project in Indonesia which is funded by Oxfam Netherlands. This coastal reforestation program will focus on two areas: improving the livelihoods of coastal communities, and conserving the environment.

Serambi Nanggroe, 27 April 2006

The Forestry and Plantations Agency (Dishutbun) for Aceh Barat is currently developing 800 ha of mangrove forest in watersheds and swamps distributed through the sub-districts of Samatiga, Meurebo, Johan Pahlawan, and Arongan Lambelek. To achieve this target, Dishutbun has prepared 2 million mangrove seedlings, all of which have been donated by the Watershed Management Service (BP-DAS) for Krueng Aceh Pemprov NAD. The seedlings will be planted by the local communities. This forms part of the National Movement for Land and Forest Rehabilitation (Gerhan), which has a target of planting 1000 hectares.

Serambi Nanggroe, 29 July 2006

A number of coastal inhabitants in the Syah Kuala sub-district of Banda Aceh have planted 200 thousand mangrove seedlings around newly renovated aquaculture ponds in order to reforest the coastal area devastated by the earthquake and Tsunami on 26 December 2004. There are currently around 150 ha of aquaculture ponds that have been rehabilitated and are in need of mangrove because of the benefits these trees provide in preventing abrasion, especially abrasion to the community's ponds. The mangrove seedlings were donated to the community by the Agency for the Rehabilitation and Reconstruction of Aceh and Nias (BRR).

4.3. LEVEL OF SUCCESS

To date, the degree of success achieved by rehabilitation work is not known with any certainty due to the lack of data and information as to what percentage of seedlings have survived. Only a small proportion of the implementers possess data on the progress of their rehabilitation activities, including seedling survival rate in the field. Most do not do any monitoring, so do not know how many seedlings survive. This is one of the results of the fragmented nature of the activities, such that rehabilitation is considered to be finished as soon as the seedlings have been planted. Neither tending nor monitoring has been deemed necessary.

Rough calculations made during field observation suggest that the survival rate for mangrove (40%-60%) is considerably higher than for other coastal species (20%-50%). As time goes on, however, this percentage is certain to decrease for the following reasons:

- ❑ Some mangroves were planted using the propagule which, for a period of 1-2 months, gives the plant an excellent chance of living as the embryo is sustained by the nutrients contained in the hypocotyl. Only after this store is exhausted and the seedling has to depend upon nutrients in the soil can success or failure be determined.
- ❑ Seedlings still alive now will not necessarily continue to live. This will depend upon the conditions prevailing in the seedling's environment, such as drought, the action of the waves as tides ebb and flow, or being eaten by animals.
- ❑ The seedlings are not tended. Without proper maintenance, plants will be attacked by pests and diseases thus reducing the survival rate.
- ❑ Regional development involving the development of public facilities and infrastructure (such as roads) could destroy rehabilitation sites.
- ❑ Land owners may change their minds after their land has been planted with mangrove or coastal vegetation. Having initially agreed to the planting of these rehabilitation species, they subsequently pull them up because they want to use their land for another more economically advantageous purpose (e.g. aquaculture ponds, housing, etc.).

4.4 LIMITATIONS AND CONSTRAINTS IN THE FIELD

The coastal rehabilitation currently underway is still far from successful. This can be seen from the low percentage of seedlings still growing, both mangrove and terrestrial. Changing environmental conditions, mistakes in the choice of site, the implementers' lack of preparation, lack of experience, insufficient coordination, unclear spatial planning, and other constraints are all factors causing the low level of success in coastal rehabilitation.

Field observations identified several constraints or limiting factors which caused rehabilitation efforts to fail. These are described below.

4.4.1 No blueprint for coastal rehabilitation has yet been provided

It is essential to have a blue print for rehabilitation so that the activities are integrated and given direction. This is especially important considering how many stakeholders there are working on coastal rehabilitation. In addition to containing spatial planning, the blueprint should also provide information on important matters such as land suitability, land conditions/level of damage, the plans of parties concerned with the land's utilization, land ownership status, etc. Without this blueprint, the rehabilitation activities will lack direction and run a serious risk of leading to problems/conflict in the future.

Unfortunately, however, possibly because of complexities in the field, no such blueprint has yet been provided. Hence, every implementer freely chooses sites in a manner which appears to be unplanned, undirected and unorganised. It even happens that more two (or more) different implementers find themselves planting on the same site. Lacking clear direction, planting is done arbitrarily without finding out who the site belongs to nor what plans there may be for its development.

According to the information available, the Department of Forestry and the ITTO are drawing up a blueprint for rehabilitation, but it is not expected to be finished until the end of 2006 or early 2007. If this does in fact materialize, this document is likely to have been in vain as most activities are already under way (many even finished) in the field, and the rehabilitation stage is itself due to finish in December 2006.

4.4.2 Most NGOs see coastal rehabilitation as a secondary activity

A large proportion of the facilitators, especially those who arrived shortly after the Tsunami disaster, are usually concerned with the emergency response, which is accompanied by the building of facilities such as houses, boats, roads and other infrastructure. Environmental rehabilitation is, for them, not a top priority. As a result, coastal rehabilitation is usually subject to the following constraints:

- Inadequate funding. It seems that funding is limited to the provision of seedlings and cost of planting. No funds have been made available for plant maintenance/tending.
- Inadequate manpower. This has been the cause of many of the factors leading to failure, such as the selection of unsuitable sites, seedlings not ready for planting, planting at the wrong time, etc.
- Inadequate preparation. Because of the lack of preparation, several International NGOs often opted for the 'instant' step of contracting the planting to another party such as a local NGO or CBO who was not, in practice, monitored nor evaluated. The International NGOs should not be blamed for taking this option, however, as they were under a great deal of pressure from the donors in the country they come from to show evidence of how their contributions had been spent.

Under such conditions, it is not surprising that planting did not go well and that it was prone to failure.

Nevertheless, there are a few NGOs and projects that have coastal rehabilitation as their top priority, such as the Green Coast project (funded by Oxfam) whose implementation in Indonesia is managed by WI-IP.

4.4.3 The lack of preparation

What is meant here by ‘preparation’ includes: the preparation of reliable implementers, the preparation of good quality seedlings and the selection of suitable planting sites, and preparation in terms of clear land ownership status. Some of the rehabilitation activities appear to have been done in a sudden rush without the proper preparation described above. However, all of this was due to the lack of time, as the organizations channeling funds (facilitators) came under pressure from the public in the donor’s own country to report their use of the money without delay.

To achieve optimum success, the people doing the work must be properly prepared in advance. This can be done through a comprehensive training programme that includes practical training in how to select good seeds, prepare the seedlings in the nursery, choose suitable sites for planting and plant the seedlings there properly, etc.

4.4.4 Failure in the nurseries

One of the keys to success in rehabilitation is an adequate supply of good quality seedlings that are ready for planting. Implementers should undertake seedling production on this basis. Unfortunately, they often run up against technical obstacles (e.g. seedlings die due to pests or lack of water) which reduce the number of seedlings produced for coastal rehabilitation. Several other factors causing low success include the following.

Difficulties in seed procurement

The devastation of the mangrove and other coastal vegetation has resulted in the loss of seed stocks. Such seeds have therefore become difficult to find in Aceh. Several NGOs (also the Government) have been obliged to import mangrove seeds and seedlings from places far away, such as Banyuwangi and Cilacap. Their transport to Aceh has taken time, as much as 5 to 8 days. The length of time and the shocks received during shipment caused the quality to decline. Some sources have even reported that 35%-50% of mangrove seedlings imported from outside Aceh were dead on arrival at the planting site in Aceh while the quality of the remainder had deteriorated. Moreover, when planted, most of these subsequently died as a result of stress experienced during shipment.

In fact, large stocks of mangrove seedlings were still available in nearby districts such as Aceh Timur and Aceh Tamiang whose coast had not been badly damaged. Not having been informed about the network of seedling suppliers, however, the implementers resorted to the well known centres for seedling production in Java.

Poor seed quality

Seed quality is extremely important in the production of seedlings. If inferior quality seeds are used, fewer will sprout, and those that do grow will result in poor quality plants which may be of dwarf size or highly vulnerable to pest and disease. This very often happens because unripe seeds are used, because the implementers do not understand how to identify ripe, mature seeds.

To prevent this from happening in future, information must be disseminated on how to identify good quality, mature seeds. This can be done in several ways, such as through training sessions and the distribution of instructions, leaflets and posters that give information on techniques for selecting seeds. Table 4-4 below lists the characteristics of matured seeds for several species of mangrove and coastal vegetation.

Table 4-4. Characteristics of seed maturity for mangrove and coastal species.

| No | Species | Characteristics of matured seed |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
| Mangrove species | | |
| 1 | <i>Rhizophora spp</i> | <i>R. mucronata</i> : yellowish cotyledon, minimum length of hypocotyl: 50 cm <i>R. apiculata</i> : Yellowish red cotyledon, minimum length of hypocotyl: 20 cm |
| 2 | <i>Ceriops tagal</i> | The cotyledon has grown to a length of 1-1.5 cm, minimum length of hypocotyl: 20 cm |
| 3 | <i>Bruguiera gymnorhiza</i> | Reddish brown cotyledon, minimum length of hypocotyl: 20 cm |
| 4 | <i>Sonneratia alba</i> | Seed taken from fruit which has a minimum diameter of 40 mm and is floating in the water. |
| 5 | <i>Avicennia marina</i> | Yellowish green colour, weight: 1.5 gram |
| Coastal species | | |
| 1 | <i>Callophyllum inophyllum</i> | Yellowish brown colour. Diameter 2.5-4 cm. |
| 2 | <i>Terminalia cattapa</i> | Yellowish green colour |
| 3 | <i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i> | Yellowish green colour. Diameter \pm 1 cm. |

Lack of skill and expertise

The field implementers' low capacity and lack of experience are among the main causes of failure in seedling production. Without adequate knowledge, the process will be carried out haphazardly without proper heed to the principles and techniques of silviculture. In some cases, the approach was frequently found to have been one of trial and error. The implementers had done what they thought was appropriate. If an activity was successful, the next activity would follow the same procedure as the previous one. If it failed, the implementers would make changes and then try again until they met with an appropriate method. This is extremely ineffective, considering that rehabilitation activities require a guaranteed supply of good quality seedlings in large quantities and ready for planting at the time required by the project.

Inappropriate choice of nursery site

Mistakes were often made in selecting the site for a mangrove nursery, which requires special conditions. Among other things, it must be reached by high tide, have a muddy substrate, flat topography, and be near to a site supplying media as well as to the planting site. Field observations found several nurseries in unsuitable sites: for example, inundation was too high, the water currents too strong, the nursery was far from a source of media because part of the area had been covered by Tsunami deposits.



Figure 4-4. Nurseries sited in unsuitable areas: site subject to heavy inundation and strong currents (left); site not subject to inundation (right). Both failed totally. Photographs taken in Lham Nga - Aceh Besar

Mistakes in selecting media

Mangrove species prefer a muddy media which is always wet with brackish water, whereas coastal species grow well in a media of earth mixed with sand. However, it was found in the field that mistakes had often been made in the choice of media. The most common mistake was to use a sandy media for mangrove, as a result of which the seeds could not grow properly and died.



Figure 4-5. Nursery failure due to mistakes in choice of media

No hardening off

In practice, seedlings were usually taken directly from the nursery for planting, without being given the chance to acclimatize. As a result, the seedlings became stressed and died. The implementers were generally unaware of this, so the same failure happened repeatedly.

To make seedlings ready for planting out in the field, they must go through a process of hardening or acclimatization 1 – 2 months prior to planting out. For mangroves, this consists of gradually reducing the shade until they can survive without shade. For coastal species, it is not only the amount of shade that is reduced but also the intensity of watering. Thus the seedlings become ready to adapt to the conditions in the field.

4.4.5 Planting in unsuitable locations

Many instances were found in the field where seedlings, both mangrove and coastal species, had been planted in an unsuitable site and did not survive. In general, two important mistakes were made in selecting a planting site. These were:

Planting mangrove in sandy areas

Generally, mangrove planted in sand will gradually show signs of stress and then die. If planted with its propagule, however, the seedling will at first appear to be growing normally as the embryo feeds off the nutrients in the propagule. This gradually runs out, as the plant's organs such as leaves and roots grow. When it has been completely exhausted, the seedling will have to depend on the nutrients in the soil. At this point, it will gradually wilt and die.

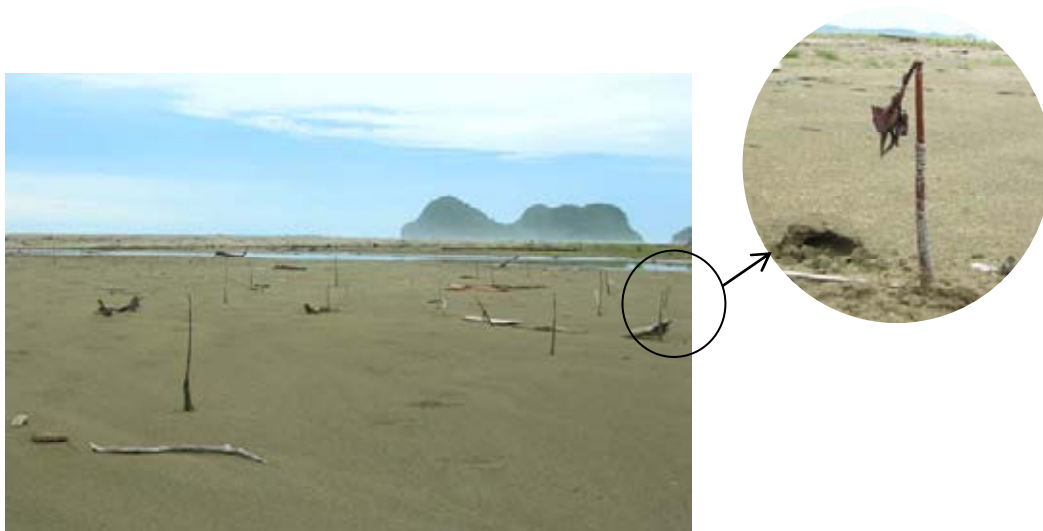


Figure 4-6. Mangrove planted on sandy beach

As well as being poor in nutrients, sandy soil is unsuitable for mangrove seedlings because the sand absorbs and transmits heat from the sun thus burning the seedlings' roots.

Planting mangrove in dry mud

Although better than sandy soil, the planting of mangrove in dry mud is also not recommended because a supply of water is essential for the plant to grow. Mangrove planted on dry mud will not grow normally and may die.



Figure 4-7. Mangrove planted on permanently dry mud

Planting on open, labile sandy beach

Open sandy beach is very difficult to rehabilitate. Apart from being labile as the sand is easily eroded by the wind, it is highly saline and stores heat from the sun. It would seem obvious that such an area is unsuitable for planting as nothing is growing on it. Nevertheless, planting has been attempted on some sites of this nature and, as a result, most of the seedlings died.



Figure 4-8. Planting on open sandy beach

Planting coastal species in inundated areas

For terrestrial coastal species, inundation (especially by salt water) is most unsuitable and can result in plant death. However, this was frequently found to have happened. During orientation at several planting sites, many coastal species such as coconut *Cocos nucifer* and sea pine *Casuarina equisetifolia* were found to have been planted in places that were inundated. Close examination of these showed that all the inundated seedlings were dead.



Figure 4-9. Coastal species planted on inundated land

Most inundated land is situated around estuaries, rivers, lagoons or seashore which from time to time receive overflow or are influenced by the tides. This must be taken into account when selecting suitable species for planting.

4.4.6 Problems concerning land ownership status of planting site

The status of the planting site is of utmost importance as it relates to a person's rights and obligations regarding that land.

Several NGOs have had bitter experience regarding land status. In one case, hundreds of mangrove seedlings were pulled up from aquaculture ponds as they had been planted without the owner's permission. There were also owners who granted permission for the seedlings to be planted but then, a few months later, pulled them up because they wanted to reactivate the ponds.

4.4.7 Pressure from the community on the donor to perform activities contrary to rehabilitation (Case study of Lham Ujong & Lham Dingin)

Donor institutions (including Government) often find themselves in a difficult position because of the multitude of differing demands from the community. As a result, conflict of interest becomes unavoidable as the fulfilment of one group's aspirations through a particular activity is certain to disturb another group's program.

Such a conflict of activities occurred recently in Lham Ujong village as a result of community pressure. Some of the aquaculture pond owners asked a donor (ADB) to rehabilitate their ponds and irrigation ditches, although another community group had already planted mangrove around this area. The seedlings were already 4 months old. As a result, the rehabilitation work on the ponds and ditches (using excavators), damaged some of the mangrove seedlings, which subsequently died. It appeared as if the Donor Agency was powerless to do anything in the face of the community's demands other than grant them and rehabilitate the ponds.



Figure 4-10. Construction of ditches (pond rehabilitation) has damaged the mangrove already planted (Lham Ujong village, Aceh Besar)

A similar occurrence happened in Lham Dingin village, where the pond owners demanded that the government build a sea wall in front of their ponds to protect them from erosion and damage from the waves (see Box 4-3 below). Unfortunately, the building of the sea wall was not preceded by an environmental impact assessment, so there was a danger that the ponds behind the wall would be flooded at high tide. If, instead, part of the pond land (total area about 140 ha) had been planted with mangrove, according to the concept of silvo-fishery, the mangrove would be able to act as a natural defence and, at the same time, increase natural fishery productivity.

BOX 4-3. Sea Wall in LHAM DINGIN

(taken from Suryadiputra, I.N.N. (editor) 2006. Kajian Kondisi Lingkungan Pasca Tsunami di Beberapa Lokasi Nangro Aceh Darussalam dan Nias. Wetlands International-Indonesia Programme/CPSG/Univ. Syah Kuala. Bogor xxvi + 421pp.)

A sea wall approximately 16.2 meters long and two meters high is being built along the coast of Lham Dingin (from the mouth of the Krueng Aceh to the mouth of the Krueng Cut). The sea wall is located approximately 200 m from the aquaculture ponds.

The building of this sea wall requires deeper study [construction of the sea wall by the Department of Public Works began in July/August 2005 without a prior Environmental Impact Assessment (AMDAL); information obtained from staff of BRR during a donors meeting at the Embassy of Denmark in Jakarta]. The sea wall could create new problems including:

1. Such a large structure will likely restrict the discharge of fresh water during the rainy season or salty water during high tide (see this hypothesis in Figure 4-11). Because the wall will lead to retention of water behind the structure, in areas that are largely aquaculture ponds and homes, there is a risk of flooding. If there is flooding of the ponds, this places aquaculture activities at risk because fish and shrimp fry that are being cultivated would be released to the sea or nearby rivers (Krueng Aceh and Krueng Cut).
2. It is suspected that there will be an increased risk of sea water intrusion. If sea water is trapped behind the wall after high tide in the pond area, and the water remains there for a long period of time, there is the potential for recharging of sea water in the soil meaning that sea water will intrude further inland.
3. The presence of the sea wall is also likely to change the patterns of currents and wave action, causing them to shift to other locations. If this happens, it could affect other coastal areas through, for example, erosion.
4. Sea water and water from the Krueng Aceh and Krueng Cut rivers have relatively high levels of suspended particles (clay particles, fine sand, among others), with a value ranging from 36 – 46 mg/l. If this water floods the area behind the sea wall there is a risk it will lead to sedimentation, and ultimately turn the aquaculture ponds to land (there is a risk it could be land heavy in salt if sea water is dominant and is not washed away for long periods of time). A salty substrate could be an obstacle to the vegetation rehabilitation program that is underway in the area of the sea wall.
5. The sea wall could also restrict washing away of organic material resulting from the tsunami, meaning that decomposing organic matter will collect in the ponds. This situation is already evident in the Gampong Jawa area, and is characterized by a rotten smell.
6. During the dry season the sea wall could prevent water from entering the area behind the wall, leaving it dry. This is evident in Tibang, Gampong Jawa, Lham Pulo and Dean Raya where there is a scarcity of water and seedlings are drying out and dying [note: the two pieces of information above were provided by the Head of the Provincial Environmental Agency of Aceh during a technical meeting at the Ministry of Environment in Jakarta in May 2006].

Continued ...

Based on the scenario outlined above, the following steps need to be taken:

- A detailed study of the hydro-oceanographic aspects (including the watersheds of the Krueng Aceh and Drueng Cut) and coastal areas near the sea wall. This should include an analysis of any potential changes in currents, water turbidity, ground water quality, potential for sea water intrusion and possibility of flooding behind the sea wall.
- Research on the ecological conditions (biodiversity and habitat for flora and fauna) in coastal parts of Lham Dingin and nearby areas. This should include research on the physical and chemical quality of the substrate/ soil (including pond soil) behind the sea wall which could impact on the success of on-going rehabilitation activities and re-establishment of aquaculture activities (especially if the salt content is high).
- Socio-economic research to understand the impacts on the ponds and homes that are behind the sea wall.
- Research on possible alternatives to protect Lham Dingin (other than a large embankment built from rocks from the mountains), e.g. by mangrove planting.

Alternative to construction of sea wall. A protective barrier can be provided by coastal rehabilitation using mangroves and other coastal vegetation. There are examples from several coastal areas in Indonesia which show that mangroves trap mud naturally. Over time this mud increases the area for mangrove seedling growth, and a barrier is formed from dense and strong mangrove vegetation. Implementation of this concept will, however, take time before it is functioning optimally but the ecological advantages are many. In addition, it is most likely a less expensive option than constructing a stone sea wall.

JETTY CONSTRUCTION

Hypothetical land subsidence following tsunami in north west coast of Aceh and its impact to inundation

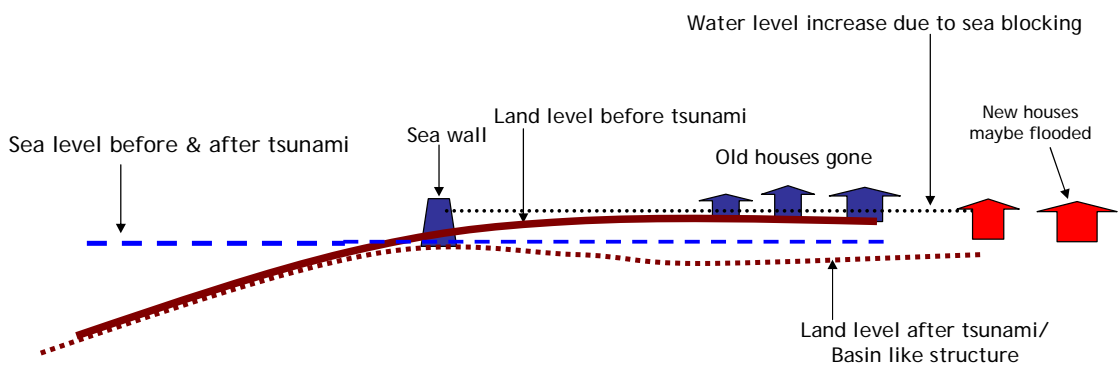


Illustration by Nyoman Suryadiputra

Figure 4-11. One hypothesis of the potential flooding that could result in Lham Dingin (where land sunk after the tsunami), if a sea wall is constructed



LhamDingin 11 September 2005



Lham Dingin 17 September 2005



Condition of ponds in Lham Dingin, which are behind (on the land side) the sea wall (September 2005)



Construction of sea wall in front of aquaculture ponds in Lham Dingin village (Photograph: Suryadiputra, September 2005)

Figure 4-12. Lham Dingin flooded with sea and river water Photograph WI-IP 11 & 17 September 2005)

4.4.8 Road construction from Banda Aceh to Meulaboh could clash with coastal rehabilitation program

There are fears that the highway construction work currently in progress (traversing the west coast from Banda Aceh to Meulaboh) could clash with the rehabilitation work being carried out by other agencies. In Pulot, for instance, the highway is planned to traverse the Pulot lagoon which is now in the process of being reforested (by WIIP and UNEP). Similarly, in Lamno, the highway is expected to hit the aquaculture ponds already rehabilitated by BRR. To overcome such problems, the road construction agency needs to coordinate its activities with the agencies undertaking environmental rehabilitation.

4.4.9 Aquaculture pond rehabilitation without mangrove

Following the Tsunami, many ponds in Aceh Besar and Banda Aceh were rehabilitated by a variety of agencies, including ADB and BRR. Unfortunately, this was not done in the light of the silvo-fishery concept now being widely promoted in Aceh. Mangroves were not, therefore, planted around the ponds or ditches. Had this been done, especially on the dykes, the mangrove trees would not only have strengthened the ponds' construction but also provided shade and, it is believed, been capable of increasing the productivity of natural fishery in the area. Table 4-5 below shows the area of ponds (11,609 ha) destroyed by the Tsunami. Imagine how green Aceh's coast would be in years to come if mangrove could be planted along all the dykes and within some of the ponds.

Table 4-5. Tsunami damage to aquaculture ponds in Aceh (source: Fisheries and Marine Affairs Department, 2005)

| District | Pond area (ha) before tsunami | Damaged pond area (ha) |
|---|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| Banda Aceh | 724 | 724 |
| Aceh Selatan | 25 | 10 |
| Aceh Timur | 7,822 | 2,347 |
| Aceh Utara | 10,520 | 4,208 |
| Pidie | 5,056 | 2,573 |
| Aceh Barat | 289 | 289 |
| Aceh Besar | 1,006 | 1,006 |
| Kota Sabang | 28 | 28 |
| Langsa | 2,122 | 424 |
| Total | 27,592 | 11,609 |
| NB No data are available for Lhoksumawe, Aceh Jaya, Aceh Singkil, Aceh Tamiang, Aceh Bireun, Nagan Raya, Aceh Barat Daya, and Simeulue, which between them had had about 9,000 ha of ponds. | | |



Figure 4-13 (Top) Pond dykes and land (empty land in centre) where mangrove could be planted (these ponds are in Ceunamprong and Kareng Ateuh villages in Jaya subdistrict of Aceh Jaya district, and have been rehabilitated by BRR).

(Bottom left) One of these ponds has become a slough for buffalo to wallow.

(Bottom right) Pond on Lboong coast in danger of abrasion. Mangrove therefore needs to be planted along the shore in front.

4.4.10 Rehabilitation using a project approach

In a project, local residents are typically only involved as unskilled labour. This is not enough to awaken a psychological bond between them and the seedlings they have planted. Once the planting has been completed, the people's sense of responsibility ends and nobody cares about the result.

Moreover, a single project is not sustainable. Once the project is over the rehabilitation activities are finished, and the seedlings are neglected and die. Also, a project tends to focus only on the immediate physical results, such as the number of seedlings planted, rather than the number that have actually survived after a longer period of time. In trying to achieve the physical target the activities are conducted haphazardly (without adequate preparation and without a clear system of planting). As a result, the survival percentage tends to be low.

4.4.11 Technical errors and mistakes in the field

Rehabilitation efforts often fail as a result of technical errors, for example, mistakes in the way seedlings are handled during transportation. Such mistakes are frequently encouraged by the desire to speed up or simplify the process, without considering the effect this will have. Seedlings must be handled carefully, so that they are not damaged (e.g. snapped off) and the media is not ruined. Other mistakes noticed during field observation included transporting seedlings unshaded during the heat of midday, and treating them carelessly during loading and unloading.

It was even found that seedlings had been removed from their polybags to make transportation and planting easier. This threatened the seedlings in at least two ways: the sun's heat shining directly on the roots, and damage to the roots as they were planted into the ground.



Figure 4-14. Seedlings taken out of the polybags to make work easier

4.4.12 Conflict of Interest

The rehabilitation and reconstruction of a region involves a large number of different parties, each with their own point of view. These views often not only differ but may also conflict. Sadly, coordination among stakeholders is so weak that they can not reach agreement. Hence each goes his own way. Then, when one party's activities collide with those of another, a conflict of interests arises.

Meanwhile in Kahju village, the rebuilding of pond dykes caused serious damage to the mangrove previously planted there. It is estimated that more than 1000 one-year old seedlings were destroyed.



Figure 4-15. Mangroves fall victim to rehabilitation of ponds

Conflict of interest is certain to continue at many other sites and claim more mangroves. Steps must therefore be taken as early as possible to try to eliminate or at least minimize the impact of such conflicts of interest.

4.4.13 Pests

Pests attacking mangrove

Pests that attack mangrove include molluscs *Cellana spp.*, crabs *Helice spp.*, *Sesarma spp.*, *Motapograpus spp.*, mud shrimp *Alpheus spp.*, and *Aulacapsis marine*. As far as possible, these must be avoided, controlled or exterminated. Molluscs pose the greatest threat to mangrove. They can spread rapidly and infest the trunk thus killing the tree. So far, no effective way has been found of eliminating them other than by hand.



Figure 4-16. Molluscs attacking mangrove

It is therefore much better to avoid this pest in the first place rather than try to eliminate it. Mangrove should not be planted on a site where there are molluscs, however few there may be.

Pests attacking coastal species

Unlike the pests that attack mangrove, those which attack coastal vegetation tend to be livestock, such as goats, buffalo and cattle. They eat the leaves, trample on or pull up the plants. But their attack is nothing compared to that of the wild boar *Sus scrofa*, which wreaks havoc on all species of vegetation. Being wild, this animal is very difficult to control.



Figure 4-17. Coconut palms devastated by wild boar attack

The worst area for wild boar attack is on the west coast of Aceh where there are still large tracks of forest which form the boar's habitat. The forest is very close to some of the planting sites, less than 500 metres, putting them within easy reach of the boars.

A number of measures have been tried to protect the seedlings, such as fences, ditches and barbed wire, but none have had much effect. According to local NGO Gamma 9, heaping stones around a barbed wire fence protecting the seedlings is more effective. However, this is considered uneconomic as it entails large amounts of labour to pile the stones and money to buy the materials for the fence.

Box 4.4. The dilemma of pest protection; between effectiveness and extravagance

Along the western coast, most of the planting sites for coastal vegetation (especially coconut) are attacked by wild boar *Sus spp.* To protect against this pest, some NGOs and Government fenced every seedling planted. Ironically, the expenditure for fencing was much higher than the price of the seedlings. According to interviews, a fence cost Rp.25,000 to Rp.50,000 (made from wood and/or wire netting), while a coconut seedling cost no more than Rp. 7500, only \pm 20% of the fence price.



Figure 4-18. Various types of fence to protect seedlings

More saddening was the fact that the plants had not been tended. Dead seedlings had not been replaced, so fences were often found without a seedling. In some places, the fences were found broken, uncared for and falling apart.



Figure 4-19. Broken, useless and abandoned fences in Lhok Nga

4.4.14. Lack of replacement planting and seedling maintenance

Most of the rehabilitation activities in NAD province lacked any program for replacement planting or follow-up care. Field observations along the west coast from Leupung to Lhong village (Aceh Besar) did not find any site where dead seedlings had been replaced. If this is not done, the reforestation will have a low success rate or may even fail. If dead seedlings are replaced with new healthy ones, there is a much better chance of success.

If, on the contrary, the seedlings are not tended, they are likely to die. According to field observations, many fences were found to have been covered by climbing weeds (climber herbs), which then covered the seedling and in many cases choked it to death.



Figure 4-20. Fence swallowed by climbing plants, and seedling eventually dies

Besides being killed by weeds, coastal vegetation can also suffer from livestock and strong winds. Livestock trample the growing seedlings, even eat them, while strong winds can blow away the substrate (such as sand) and uproot the seedlings.

4.4.15 Lack of monitoring and evaluation

Without monitoring and evaluation (MonEv), the progress and success of plant rehabilitation can not be known. Properly planned, routine MonEv can help to detect factors that cause failure, early on, so that steps can be taken promptly to remedy the situation.

4.4.16 Poor coordination among stakeholders

This weakness was found not only in government agencies but also among implementers in the field and donor institutions involved in funding the rehabilitation and reconstruction of Aceh. This was obvious from the rarity of any meetings among stakeholders. If a meeting was held, only a few of the stakeholders attended, and it was not followed up by communication or coordination capable of reaching the implementers in the field. Everyone seemed to go their own way without caring about the interests or activities of the other stakeholders.

Without good coordination, activities will run in a manner which is sectoral, fragmented, directionless, overlapping or going in opposite directions. In contrast, with good coordination, although it will take more time, the activities carried out by various stakeholders can be harmonized and integrated so as to provide maximum benefit to the ecosystem and the community. Furthermore, the experience gained from the activities has not been well documented so as to provide valuable lessons for others to learn from in the future.

4.4.17 Inadequate spatial planning

Spatial planning in most of the areas affected by the Tsunami is still inadequate. It tends to have been done in a partial, fragmented manner, in accordance with the needs of the implementers and their partners in the field. It is not comprehensive and has not been formerly integrated into the spatial planning at District level. Each sector and institution plans its own program, with little or no sharing or compromise with other stakeholders. As a result, there are both gaps and overlapping.

Inadequate spatial planning often ends in conflict of interest; for example, demolishing a rehabilitated site because the same site is to be used to construct a harbour, ditches for aquaculture ponds, highway, etc. For this reason, the spatial planning must be discussed together by all the stakeholders, including the community. Once agreement has been reached on the spatial planning, all parties must use it as a fundamental reference document for action and not contravene it.

4.4.18 Lack of environmental awareness

The community's poor environmental awareness is usually due to their ignorance of the environment's functions and benefits, including the benefit of mangrove and coastal vegetation. This is what makes them appear indifferent to the rehabilitation activity in their vicinity. Poor environmental awareness also causes them to get used to a lifestyle that is not clean.

Ironically, this lack of environmental awareness was found not to be limited to the community but also to be prevalent among government and other stakeholders. It is the reason why they have not considered the environmental impact of the activities they carry out. One example is the construction of a sea wall at Lham Dingin without first doing an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), with the result that water supply to the planting site was cut off (see Box 4-3 Sea wall in Lham Dingin).

A continuous effort must be made, therefore, to raise the environmental awareness of all parties, including community leaders, schoolchildren, government officials, members of the legislative, NGOs and the general public. Some of the ways this can be done include: environmental campaigns, showing films about the environment, environmental education in schools, etc. A variety of materials for environmental campaigns in Aceh have been published by various parties, but only on a limited range of themes. Among them are the posters, comics, leaflets/flyers published by UNEP in collaboration with WI-IP and the Green Coast Project.



4.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The obstacles, failures and experience obtained from rehabilitation efforts during the two last years in Aceh and Nias have provided us with valuable lessons. These, it is hoped, can help to ensure that both on-going and future activities run better, are properly prepared, well coordinated, have direction, and are on target, thus leading to the success of the coastal rehabilitation effort.

It is strongly advised that the following recommendations be followed up, so as to achieve success in the coastal rehabilitation of NAD Province and Nias.

4.5.1 Selection of appropriate species and planting sites

The species selected should be those best suited to the conditions prevailing at the planting site, priority being given to local species. Avoid introducing alien species as this can seriously disturb the equilibrium of the ecosystem.

If the planting site is muddy beach, mangrove seedlings should be selected, though the decision on which particular species of mangrove to plant will depend on the specific characteristics of the substrate, in particular the depth of the mud, the condition of the tides, the distance from a river, etc.. On the contrary, if the planting site is sandy beach, other species of coastal vegetation species must be chosen.

Table 4-6. Suitability of seedling species for different types of site

| Species | Substrate condition | Location | Hydrology | Salinity |
|---|---|---|---|----------|
| <u>Mangrove species</u> | | | | |
| Bakau <i>Rhizophora spp.</i> | Medium to deep mud | Both sides of dykes of aquaculture ponds, river's edge, muddy beach | Obvious high and low tides | Moderate |
| Tengal <i>Ceriops spp.</i> | Medium to shallow mud | Muddy beach | Obvious high and low tides | Moderate |
| Tanjang <i>Bruguiera spp.</i> | Medium thickness of mud, shallow muddy soil | Near a river | Obvious high and low tides, but a supply of fresh water is more important | Low |
| Pedada/Bogem <i>Sonneratia spp.</i> | Muddy sand, shallow muddy soil | Sea shore, along rivers near the estuary | Obvious high and low tides | Moderate |
| <i>Avicennia spp.</i> | Muddy sand | Sea shore | Always inundated by salt water | High |
| <u>Coastal vegetation</u> | | | | |
| Sea pine <i>Casuarina equisetifolia</i> | Sandy soil | Sandy beach where <i>Ipomea pes-caprae</i> is growing | Dry land | - |
| Nyamplung <i>Callophyllum inophyllum</i> | Sandy soil | Behind sandy beach | Dry land | - |
| Barringtonia | Sandy soil | Behind sandy beach | Dry land | - |
| Ketapang <i>Terminalia cattapa</i> | Sandy soil | Behind sandy beach | Dry land | - |
| Putat | Sandy soil | Behind sandy beach | Dry land | - |

4.5.2 Use of biological indicators when selecting planting site

A species of plant or animal found on the site can be used as a biological indicator of the site's suitability for the purposes of rehabilitation.

- ❑ Biological indicator for mangrove planting site

The mud skipper (locally known as Glodok or Tembaku) is an animal indicator of sites suitable for planting mangrove. This creature likes a muddy substrate with periodic flooding.

- ❑ Biological indicator for coastal species planting site

Ipomea pes-caprae (locally known as Katang-katang or Galaran) is a herb that flourishes on sandy beaches. It is a pioneer species able to grow on open sandy substrate, and has high tolerance to salinity. Substrate (and also eventually the seedlings, such as sea pine) which is covered by this herb is protected from the sun's direct heat and does not become too hot. Moreover, it is also protected from the direct force of the wind, so is more stable and less susceptible to erosion. These conditions are usually accompanied by the appearance of micro-organisms and small creatures which slowly improve the carrying capacity of the substrate by, for example, enriching its organic and nutrient content. As a result, species such as sea pine and *Callophyllum inophyllum* can grow well.



Figure 4-21. Biological indicators of planting sites for mangrove and coastal vegetation: *Ipomea pes-caprae* (left) and Mud skipper (right)

- ❑ Biological indicator for sites to avoid for mangrove planting

Molluscs are a bad sign in a site planned for mangrove planting. Even though mud skipper are abundant, if mollusks/barnacles (see picture) are found, the site should not be used for mangrove. Just one single mollusk/barnacle in the site will multiply very rapidly and become extremely difficult to exterminate.



Figure 4-22. Molluscs/ barnacle ; a biological indicator of sites to be avoided

4.5.3 Development of Decision Supporting System for rehabilitation site selection

Mistakes in selecting the planting site are a major factor leading to the failure of rehabilitation work. It can be avoided by properly assessing a prospective site before deciding whether to use it for rehabilitation. A Decision Supporting System (DSS) is a tool which can be used to help make this decision. In this system, a number of parameters are used to assess the land's suitability and feasibility.

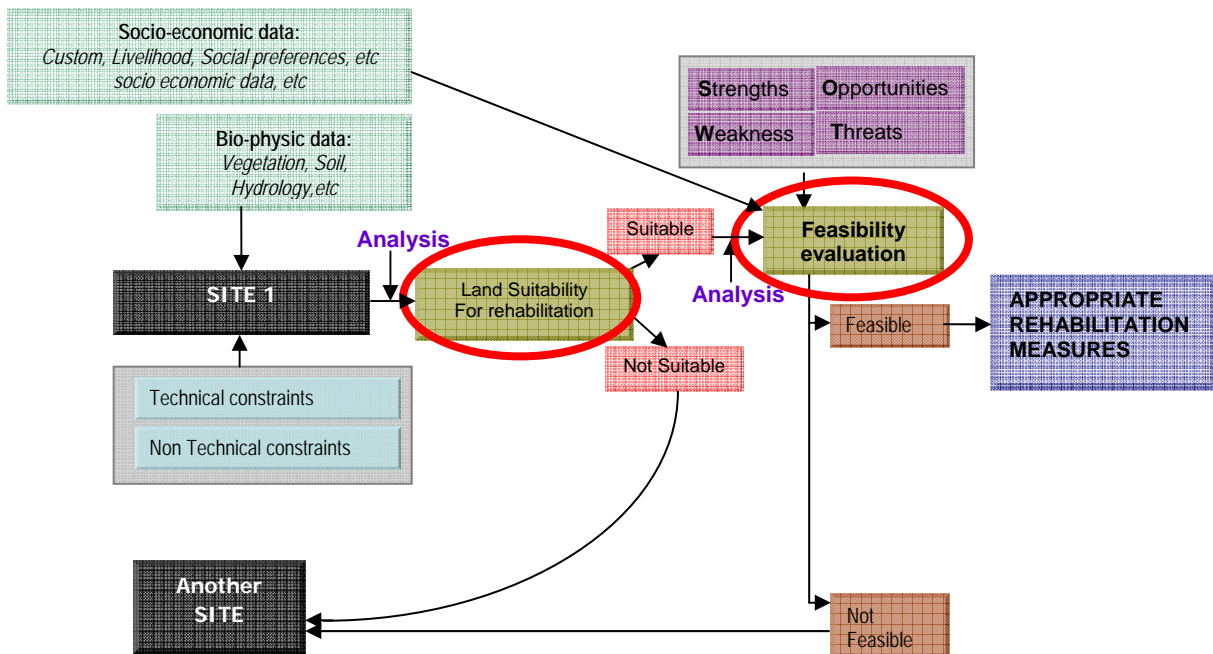


Figure 4-23. DSS flow chart for selecting a rehabilitation site

Although the land is bio-physically suitable, there may be other factors that make it an unfeasible site for rehabilitation. For example, it may be too remote from the community for rehabilitation work there to be effective or efficient.

Furthermore, all the potentials and constraints must be identified and analyzed to discover the possibility of success and the risk of failure. If the constraining factors are greater than the supporting factors, the activity should not be undertaken. If, on the contrary, the supporting factors outnumber the constraints, the activity has a good chance of succeeding and can therefore be undertaken.

4.5.4 Improvement of active community participation

The community is the spearhead in rehabilitation activity. Unfortunately, their role and participation is still very limited, appearing to be little more than a symbol that the rehabilitation work has involved the community. In all the various rehabilitation activities in NAD and Nias, the community has so far been involved only as planters and porters, and their involvement has automatically ceased when the planting and carrying is finished. Through this mechanism, they have no sense of ownership towards the seedlings they have planted nor care whether or not the seedlings will survive. This is one of the factors leading to the failure of rehabilitation.

For rehabilitation to be successful, the community must be involved actively in the whole spectrum of activities, starting from planning, planting and then the other activities after planting. In this way, the community not only gets involved but also has a sense of ownership and cares about the rehabilitation. They will also have acquired the range of skills needed to undertake the whole process of rehabilitation on their own, as they will have been involved from the beginning to the end of the activity. If this mechanism is managed well, the community will also function as warden of the growing trees. Nevertheless, this must continue to be supported by raised public awareness of the importance of coastal vegetation to the environment and to the community.

4.5.5 Capacity building through provision of technical manuals and training

Based on field observation, it is known that almost all field implementers have neither the necessary experience nor skills required to undertake coastal rehabilitation activities. As a consequence, rehabilitation programs are not carried out properly and thus end in failure. Through the provision of simple, easy to understand manuals, it is hoped that field operators will understand the procedure through each stage of the activity, from the beginning to the end. In this way, rehabilitation activity in the field will progress well and result in the numbers of trees hoped for. Besides manuals, other materials such as posters and leaflets can help to improve the community's capacity.

However, for some field operators, particularly those with little or no formal education, a manual is not enough on its own as they may be unable to understand it. It needs to be interpreted through hands on training and demonstration by field instructors.

4.5.6 Development of silvo-fishery

Currently, almost all of the rehabilitation programs in NAD province and Nias have the same planting pattern, i.e. they plant on empty coastal land. Unfortunately, the understanding of ‘rehabilitation’ is limited to the physical act of ‘planting’, lacking a basic understanding of the concept of conserving the coastal ecosystem in its entirety. To overcome this, reforestation should also be carried out in aquaculture territory (not just on empty land) by planting mangrove along the dykes and in some of the ponds. This concept is known as ‘silvo-fishery’, i.e. the combination of forestry through planting mangrove and fishery through the cultivation of shrimps or fish (see Figure 4-24 below).

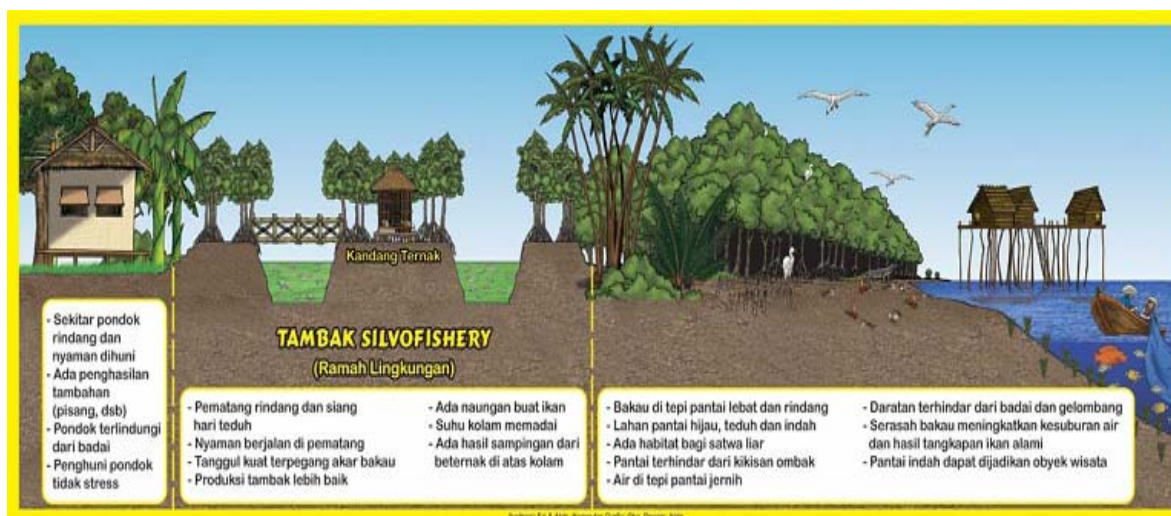


Figure 4-24. A recommended silvo-fishery system: planting mangrove around ponds

4.5.7 Improving coordination among stakeholders

The poor coordination among stakeholders must be rectified urgently. Communication and information sharing must be rapidly improved. In order to activate such coordination, BRR should take the lead as both initiator and facilitator, by holding routine meetings that involve all the stakeholders and subsequently distribute the results of each meeting to the various parties working in Aceh and Nias. For this purpose, BRR could be assisted by other related institutions such as BAPEDALADA, the Forestry Agency and BP-DAS.

Nevertheless, all the other stakeholders (including international donors and NGOs) should proactively coordinate their activities with BRR and inform the other parties so that all can learn from one another. In this way, the development of each stakeholder’s activities can be monitored and comprehensive data on their progress be made available. In addition, the stakeholders’ activities will run better as a result of sharing experience and lessons.

4.5.8 The need for sustained tending, monitoring and evaluation

One of the keys to successful rehabilitation is the tending of the seedlings after they have been planted. The main tasks involved in tending include: replacement planting, pest and disease control, and weeding. If repeated replacement planting still results in failure, further enrichment should be discontinued. This is likely to occur when the substrate is unsuitable, for example as a result of Tsunami deposits. Besides tending, both monitoring and evaluation (monev) need to be carried out.

BRR or government agencies should play a role in monev so that all the activities carried out by all the various parties in Aceh are well looked after and properly documented. This step can also be an alternative way of solving problems when all the NGOs and Donor agencies leave Indonesia.

4.5.9 The need for mangrove enrichment

The current planting of mangrove in Aceh will, unawares, create a monoculture stand because almost all of the seedlings used are of the species *Rhizophora* spp. Although this is a local species, domination by a single species is not good as regards ecological balance.

For this reason, enrichment planting is essential. This can be done by planting other species of mangrove such as *Avicennia* spp., *Bruguiera* spp. and *Ceriops* spp. on sites which suit each particular species. Thus the quality of the mangrove stand will improve along with its protective function and other benefits.

4.5.10 Planting from the back of the beach towards the front

Beach vegetation should be planted starting from the land then moving towards the beach, so that the seedlings do not die as a result of inundation by sea water, nor wilt/die due to the hot sand substrate. In the field, however, it was frequently found that species such as pine and coconut had been planted starting from the sandy shore line then working inland. Perhaps this was done in the expectation that the shore line would quickly be protected from the action of the waves, but in fact many of these seedlings died from lack of water.

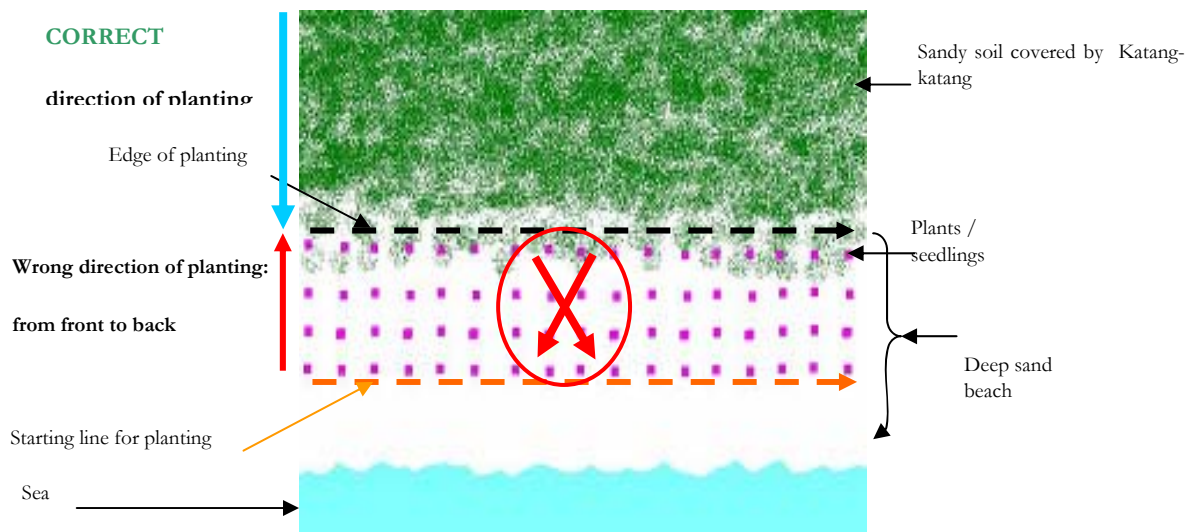


Figure 4-25. Incorrect planting strategy (from front of beach towards back)

To improve the success rate further, planting should be done from the back (land) towards the beach, and should stop at the line where the sand is deep and there is no vegetation growing on it. The herb Katang-katang *Ipomea pes-caprae* can be used as an indicator of where this line occurs.



Figure 4-26. Incorrect planting strategy at Lhoong, Aceh Besar (from beach towards land), most of the sea pine seedlings (in wire cages) died from drought

4.5.11 Improvement of awareness raising

Unless the community is environmentally aware, coastal rehabilitation runs a high risk of failure. One way of tackling this is through an environmental awareness campaign. This campaign can make use of a variety of methods, such as talks, discussions, documentary film shows, etc. It can include interactive events to attract the public, such as mangrove planting contests, environmental quiz competitions, etc. And the message can be consolidated through campaign materials like posters, leaflets, billboards.

Environmental awareness must be instilled as early as possible in the community and must take into account the local culture and customs

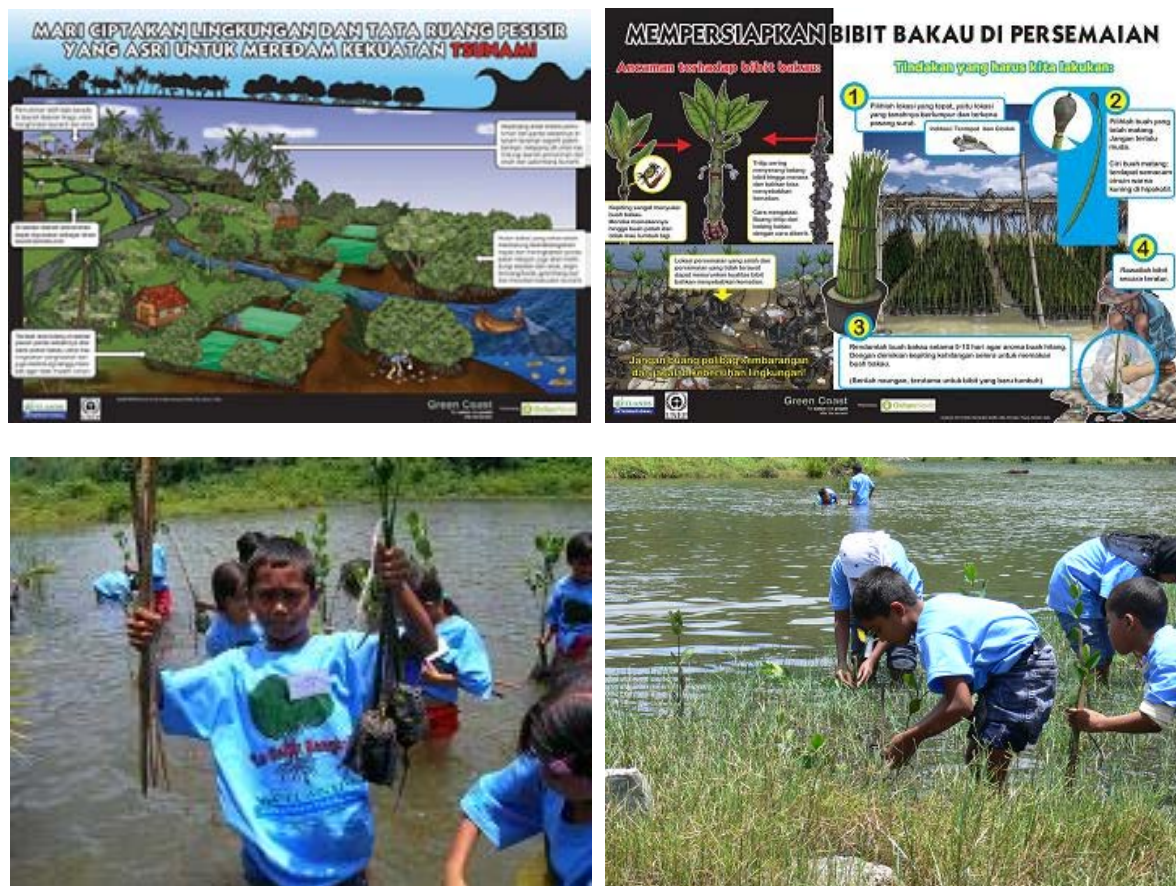


Figure 4-27. Examples of environmental awareness posters (above) and mangrove planting contest (below)

4.5.12 Development of an “Exit strategy” to follow the completion of the rehabilitation and reconstruction program

Within the next few years, one by one the NGOs and Donor agencies now working in Aceh will leave the province with the conclusion of the Rehabilitation and Reconstruction mission in NAD Province and Nias. At the end, only the residents and local government will remain. The withdrawal of the NGOs/Donor agencies from Aceh will mean the end of the various programs, the termination of the employment they provided for all local employees and workers, and the end of rehabilitation activities. This is certain to have a detrimental impact; there will be a large number of newly unemployed people, economic activity will decline, and there will be the question of the status of the activities that had been done (sustainability, maintenance, etc.).

As regards environmental rehabilitation, the end of the mission is certain to give rise to several problems for the future. One of these will be the abandonment of the mangroves and coastal vegetation planted; their status being unclear, there is a high risk that the rehabilitated sites could later be demolished.

For these reasons, special attention needs to be paid and measures taken to prevent these problems from arising. These should be packaged together in an ‘exit strategy’ specifically designed to anticipate all the problems that could arise after the rehabilitation and reconstruction, when the Donors and NGOs have left Aceh and Nias. Through this ‘exit strategy’ the negative impacts from the cessation of these activities can be eliminated, prevented, or reduced.

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