

Protective functions of coastal forests and trees against natural hazards

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The coastal zone

- 60% of the world's population
- population doubled the last 20 years
- exposed to natural hazards
 - from the land
 - from the sea

HAZARD FROM THE LAND

1. Increased soil erosion

The sediment yield is largely determined by the climate, the topography and human activities, and is weakly dependent on the catchment size. (Data from Wolanski and Spagnol, 2000; Syvitski et al., 2005; Victor et al., 2005).

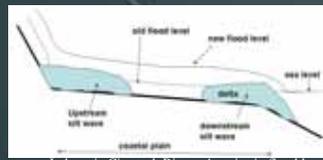
River	Area (10 ⁶ km ²)	Yield (tonne km ⁻² year ⁻¹)
Minimal land use		
Ngerdoch (Palau)	39 X 10 ⁶	2
King Sound (Australia)	0.12	50
Moderate land use		
Yangtze (China)	1.9	252
Amazon (Brazil)	6.1	190
Mississippi (USA)	3.3	120
Mekong	0.79	215
Extensive land use		
La Sa Pua (Guam)	5 X 10 ⁶	480
Ganges	1.48	1670
Brahmaputra (India)	0.0036	6350



Philippines

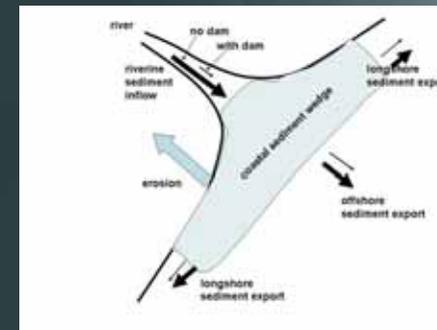
Results
-catastrophic mud slide

-siltation and more flooding



Indonesia Cimanuk River : 4 m rise in flood level

2. Large dams: trap coarse sediment> coastal erosion



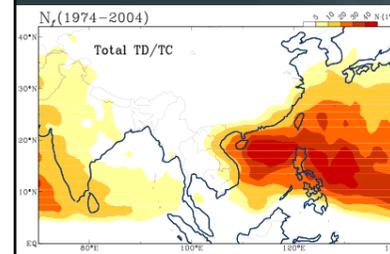
Lessons:

- *vegetation must be used to protect the coastal population from landslides in the mountainous areas and along the river banks
- *large dams must be operated so as to maintain the coarse riverine sediment flow necessary to prevent coastal erosion.

NATURAL HAZARDS FROM THE SEA

- **Storms and typhoons** generate storm surges and waves, wind and flooding rain mainly at 10 to 40° latitude. The high impact area might be 30 km wide, with extensive/lesser damage at 100 km.
- A **tsunami** is a solitary wave group generated by sudden tectonic movements and volcanoes. In shallow water its height increases to several m or even to tens of m.
- **Coastal erosion** and coastal sedimentation are natural processes. Most coasts are naturally occasionally eroded during storms. Some coasts are naturally eroding in the long-term, some are prograding.
- **Salt spray** originates from seawater droplets that evaporate; It is carried on land by offshore winds.

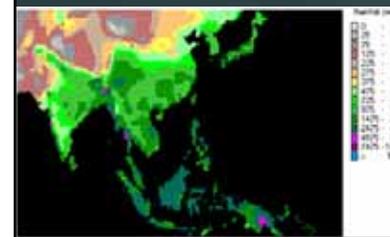
Where do these hazards occur?



Typhoons (hurricane, tropical cyclone)

SE Asia & Bay of Bengal

(Takle et al., 2006)



Salt spray:

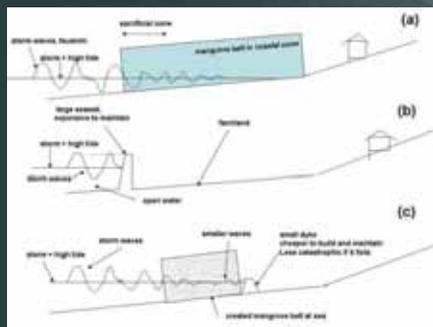
mainly in arid areas (rainfall less than 0.5 m/yr)

(Pakistan).

For rainfall > 1 m/yr, salt is essentially diluted and washed out

(FAO data)

- **Tsunamis can happen anywhere –**
 - the origin is mainly volcanic and tectonically active areas (eg Indonesia),
 - the tsunami can impact coastal areas thousands of km away from the origin.
- **Erosion can happen anywhere in storms; in the long-term some coasts are eroding and some coasts are prograding.**



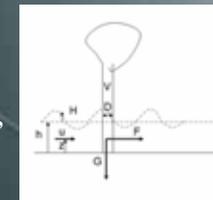
Natural bioshield (for naturally prograding or stable coasts in the long-term)

Hard engineering for eroding coasts

Mixed bioshield - engineering structures on prograding coasts (e.g. Vietnam)

Protection against coastal erosion in storms/typhoons by absorption of wave energy

Mangroves absorb energy from the water, reducing wave height and slowing down the currents



Wave attenuation rate

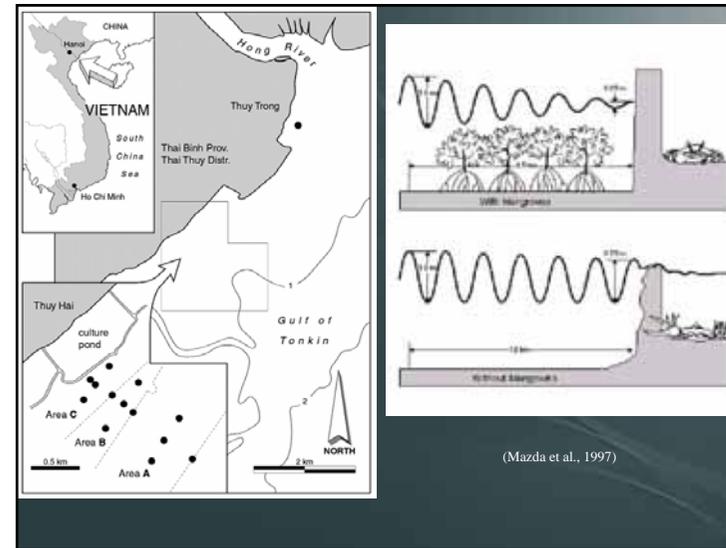
$$r = (\text{wave height offshore} - \text{wave height 100 m inside mangroves}) / \text{wave height}$$

r (in %) per 100 m of adult mangrove plantation.

Mangrove species	Water depth (m)			
	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8
<i>Kandelia candel</i>	20	20	18	17
<i>Sonneratia</i>	60	40	30	15-40

The value of r without mangroves was about 5% next to the *Kandelia candel* site and 10% next to the *Sonneratia* site.

(Data from Mazda et al., 1997 and 2006).



India's Bhitarkanika mangroves: October 1999 super cyclone (wind 260 km h^{-1} ; storm surge 9 m)

Badola and Hussain (2005)

Three villages equidistant from the seashore:

Damage included household damage by the wind, inundation of crops, loss of fingerlings, and salt intrusion.

The losses incurred per household:

US\$ 154 in the village that was not sheltered by mangroves and had a dyke that failed

US\$ 44 in the village with no mangroves or dyke

US\$33 in the village protected by mangroves

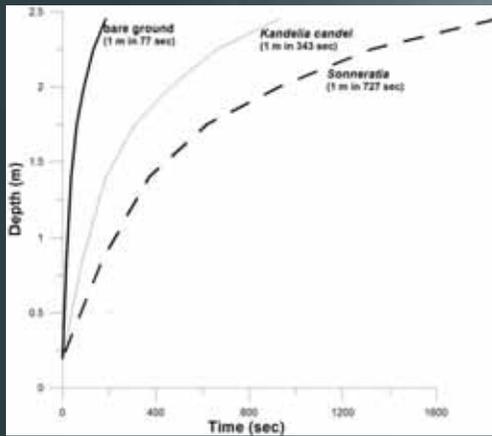
main reason: mangrove creeks drained out faster the flooded land in the shadow of mangroves

Protection from tsunamis

A tsunami is most lethal as a shock wave that carries debris that smashes people and property. The shock wave dynamics are equivalent to that of a tidal bore. Mangroves can transform it in a less lethal flood wave by increasing friction losses, over a distance L (the sacrificial zone).



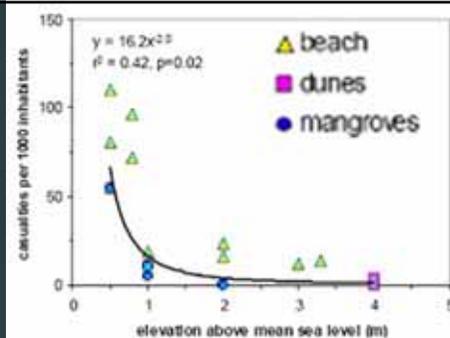
Fluid dynamics model predictions of the rate of rise of the water surface at a point 500 m from the shore, assuming flat terrain, from a 5 m tsunami at the coast,



Probably nothing can stop a 10 m tsunami.

Empirical evidence in Sri Lanka

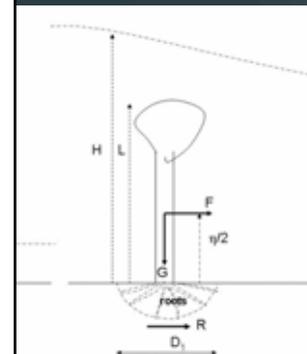
<http://river.ceri.go.jp/rpt/asiantsunami/en/survey.html>



For the December 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, mortality (lives lost per 1000) in 18 hamlets on the coast of Tamil Nadu

(Source: Vermaat and Thampanya, 2006).

The mangrove sheltering effect stops if the tree is snapped or uprooted

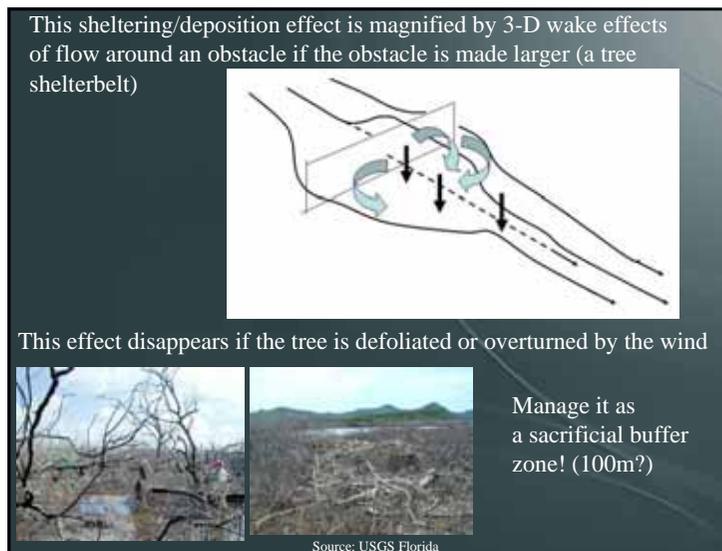
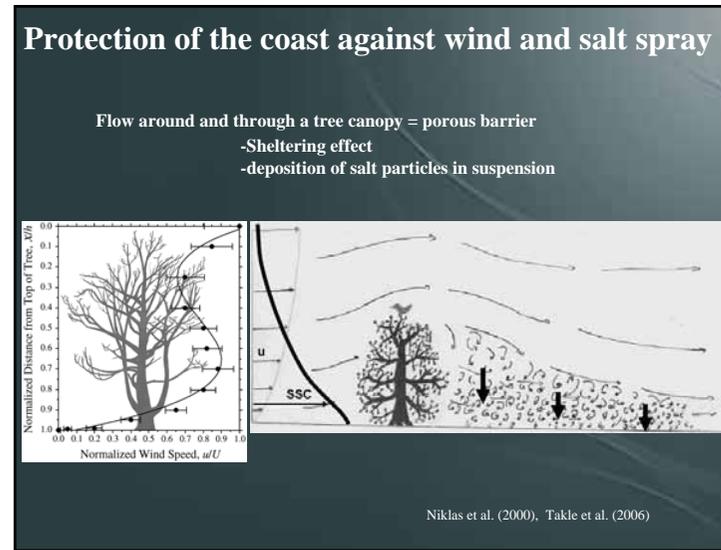
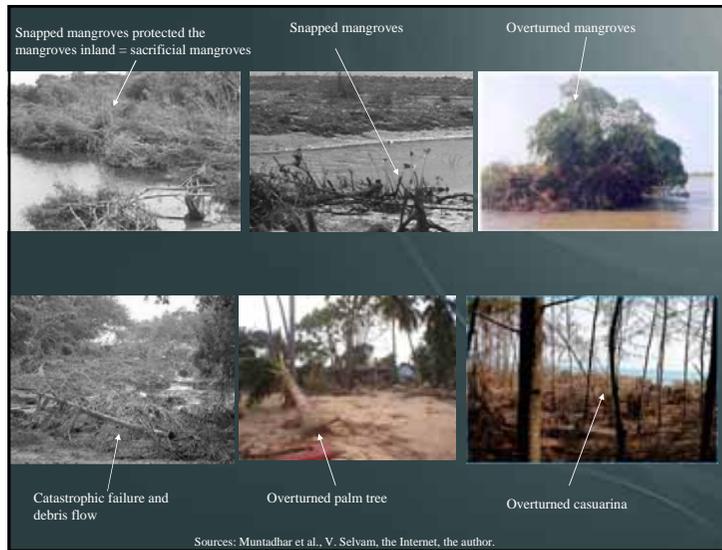


Engineering modeling and field data suggest:

- 3 m tsunami snaps 3-m tall mangrove tree
 - 6 m tsunami wave snaps 8-m mangrove tree
 - 3 m tsunami uproots an isolated 3 m tree.
- However if the trees grow close together, they are more resistant due to interlocking of roots. Thus densely vegetated mangrove forest of a height > 6 m may be able to sustain a 6 m tsunami wave.

Mangrove trees can't survive a larger tsunami.

Casuarina and palm trees are much weaker (< 3 m tsunami wave – no root interlock?).



- ### Ecological services provided by mangroves
- Enhancement of estuarine and coastal fisheries**
Typically 1 ha of mangrove forests support 100-1000 kg/yr of marine fish and shrimp catch; for the Mekong this catch is about 450 kg/yr. (Manson et al., 2005)
 - Trapping sediment and sheltering seagrass/coral reefs/fisheries**
 - A mangrove area = 5% of the catchment area traps 50% of riverine mud flux
 - Mangroves facing the sea trap 1,000 tonnes/km²/year
 - Providing self-scoured, deep, navigable channels**
- ### Socio-economic services provided by coastal forests and mangroves
- Food (eg honey, crabs, shrimp, fish), fodder, wood, medicine,**

Restoring mangroves + creating new mangroves = soft technology, local knowledge, local conditions. Does not work in naturally eroding coasts.
Problems = acidic soils + stagnant water (shrimp ponds) + waves

Stagnant water kills seedlings (Thailand)

New mangrove forest offshore where they did not exist before (Eritrea) (sandy soil enriched by manure)

Failure in wave-dominated areas (upper Gulf of Thailand) – hard structures are still needed

Riley enclosed method, one of several to protect seedlings from wave erosion.

In steep slopes, wind-driven shallow water waves and boat wakes undercut mangroves at low tide

The width of bioshields (empirical evidence)

- typhoon winds:**
 - mangroves: 100-300 m
 - coastal forests: 1-2 km
- typhoon waves:**
 - 500 – 1000 m of mangroves to protect small coastal dykes
 - This will fail if the coast is naturally eroding.
- storm surge:**
 - 200 m of coastal forest and mangrove to produce weak currents;
 - will not change much the storm surge height;
 - mangroves will speed up draining out the flooded area after the surge.
- tsunami:**
 - >500 m of mangroves for a tsunami < 4 m
 - 2000 m of mangroves will reduce the tsunami to a small wave less than 1 m.
 - mangroves will not be helpful against a larger tsunami at which times other measures (such as advance warning systems, evacuation plans, and shelters) are necessary
- Salt spray:**
 - long shelterbelt several km long, several rows 100 m apart

Take-home message

- coastal bioshields cannot provide complete protection;*
- they must be part of regional plan to reduce the risk of loss of life, property and infrastructure to an acceptable level.*
- a sacrificial zone within this bioshield must be incorporated in the management plan.*
- the choice of vegetation depends on the severity of the natural hazards, the bathymetry, the climate, the local land use, and the available options to survive extreme events.*
- the solution must involve the whole river catchment.*
 - vegetation to protect from erosion*
 - in the mountainous areas*
 - along the river banks*
 - large dams must be operated so as prevent coastal erosion.*