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Access to and Allocation of Ecosystem Services in Malaysia's Pulau Kukup Ramsar Site

Aliyu Salisu Barau

Department of Urban and Regional Planning,
Faculty of Earth and Environmental Science,
Bayero University Kano, Nigeria
aliyubarau1@yahoo.co.uk

Lindsay C. Stringer

Sustainability Research Institute
School of Earth and Environment
University of Leeds
Woodhouse Lane, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK
l.stringer@leeds.ac.uk

Abstract

This paper explores how the Ramsar Convention, a key multilateral environmental agreement for the world's wetlands, influences the allocation and use of ecosystem goods and services. Focusing on the world's second largest uninhabited mangrove island, Pulau Kukup, this study illustrates the social and ecological risks and opportunities surrounding protected wetlands. Interviews with, and observations of, nearby communities reveal that Pulau Kukup has continued to render regulatory, cultural, provisioning and supporting ecosystem services under different governance regimes and institutional arrangements. Under the current governance regime, national conservation agencies focus largely on conservation and have struggled to implement the principles of wise use as specified by the Ramsar Convention. Nevertheless, such strict local (formal) conservation rules restricting public access have improved the ecological integrity of the mangrove island, with little negative impact on the locals. While restrictions in access may be seen as a trade-off for local communities wishing to pursue cultural activities, tourism linked to the island's Ramsar designation has boosted the local economy. Despite these benefits, changes in property rights and growing influxes of tourists visiting the protected wetland may affect the long-term ecological integrity and the balance between wetlands, communities, livelihood options, and sustainability. Such challenges demand governance that recognises and responds to these emerging issues.

Keywords: Wetlands, local community, resource regimes, intergovernmental, trade-offs

1. Introduction

Resource governance (including the governance of ecosystem services) encompasses a range of different approaches, both at and across different levels. Governance can include centralised and decentralised policy-making, non-hierarchical decision-making, involvement of public and private actors, and engagement of formal and informal rules (Biermann, 2012; 2013; Jax et al. 2013; Paavola

40 and Hubacek 2013; Schroeder, 2014). Resource governance institutions in any given society interact
41 to determine patterns of access to and allocation of ecosystem services (Gómez-Baggethun et al.
42 2013). Recognition of the importance of access and allocation of resources and opportunities
43 increased when it became one of five research themes of the Earth System Governance Project –
44 the world’s largest social science research network on governance and environmental change
45 (Biermann et al. 2009; Biermann et al. 2010). Coupled with this, increasing pressure on vulnerable
46 natural resources and the need to ensure social and environmental justice (Guzman Ruíz et al. 2011;
47 Benerjee, 2013; Kantor, 2013) have resulted in greater policy focus on access and allocation of
48 ecosystem services.

49 In resource governance, the interactions of multiple institutions, operating at and across different
50 scales and levels, complicate patterns of access and allocation of ecosystem services for some types
51 of ecosystems. Such governance complexity can be seen in wetland areas designated as Ramsar sites.
52 Under the influence of traditional institutions, local communities had historical stewardship of
53 wetlands, long before recent interventions by sub-national, national and international conservation
54 institutions. Some scholars consider that in the current era of governance complexity, challenges of
55 scale, science–policy gaps, weak scientific foundation and lack of rigour in evaluation have
56 considerably weakened the effectiveness of (formal) ecosystem service governance mechanisms
57 (Higgins et al. 2014; Guerry et al. 2015; Naeem et al. 2015). It therefore becomes essential to
58 redefine and co-construct knowledge on access and allocation of ecosystem services if these
59 challenges are to be addressed (Fletcher et al. 2011; Diaz et al. 2015) and if wetland governance is to
60 be sufficiently responsive to emerging sustainability challenges.

61 Many protected wetlands are exposed to environmental hazards that threaten their ecological
62 functioning and the quality of the ecosystem services they provide for communities. Recent studies
63 have revealed that water quality degradation arising from urban and industrial uses is threatening
64 livelihoods and ecosystems around Malaysia’s Pulau Kukup Ramsar site (Jaafar et al. 2014; Lim et al.
65 2014). Similarly, pollution from aquaculture has threatened livelihoods dependent upon ecosystem
66 services from Vietnam’s mangrove systems (Orchard et al., in press 2015). The vulnerability of
67 Ramsar sites to stressors such as rapid coastal urbanisation and climate change, and the implications
68 of that for community access to ecosystem services have received little research attention. Similarly,
69 researchers and policymakers understand little about the (direct and indirect) implications of Ramsar
70 site designation for neighbouring communities.

71 It is imperative to understand both the negative and positive sides of community-Ramsar site
72 interactions in order to gain more insights into ecosystem services governance, particularly with
73 regard to questions of resource access and allocation. Against this backdrop, the research questions
74 driving this study ask: how does designation of a wetland as a Ramsar site undermine communities’
75 access to ecosystem services? How do communities exploit the benefits of labelling wetlands as
76 Ramsar sites/conservation areas, and what are the socio-ecological benefits and threats this creates?
77 Focusing on Malaysia’s Pulau Kukup, this study contributes to the existing ecosystem services

78 governance literature by presenting a more nuanced understanding of wetland governance in the
79 context of the interests and aspirations of local communities.

80 **2. Governance of wetland ecosystem services**

81 Many scholars perceive ecosystem services governance as a loose and weak concept owing to
82 complexities in institutions, actors, and fragmentation of policy frameworks (Joshi, 2012; Kalfagianni
83 and Pattberg, 2013). Nonetheless, the need for governance of ecosystem services in wetlands
84 requires these ecosystems to be clearly defined. According to the Ramsar Convention (1971),
85 wetlands are “areas of marsh, fen, peatland or water whether natural or artificial, permanent or
86 seasonal with water that is static or flowing, fresh, brackish or salty, including areas of marine water
87 the depth of which at low tide does not exceed six metres.” What is unique about wetlands is that
88 they are saturated, inundated, for an extended period, have unique soils and vegetation, and their
89 distinctive terrestrial, hydrological and climatic conditions support unique biodiversity (Aber et al.
90 2012). Compared to other ecosystems, wetlands provide the highest and most diverse range of
91 ecosystem services (Barbier, 2011; ten Brink et al. 2013). Just over a decade ago, the global
92 estimation of annual wetland ecosystem service monetary values placed Asian wetlands the highest,
93 with a value of US\$ 1,818,534 billion out of the global total of US\$3,444,682 (Schuyt and Brander,
94 2004). The unique and immense socio-ecological functions of wetlands create a need for innovative
95 policy and governance systems capable of responding to the challenges these systems face.

96 Currently, there are over 700 sites that the intergovernmental Ramsar convention designates as
97 wetlands for conservation and wise use by citizens (Ramsar Convention, 2008; Griffin, 2012). In
98 principle, implementation of Ramsar Convention falls under the responsibility of governments
99 through their conservation agencies. Therefore, the extent to which ecosystem services are allocated
100 to people is defined by the decisions of conservation authorities. However, ambiguities in strategies
101 and approaches for implementing the Ramsar Convention, particularly in respect of conservation
102 versus wise use, have remained critical challenges for communities’ abilities to access ecosystem
103 goods and services (Fletcher et al. 2011; Horowitz, 2013). Indeed, the experience of some places has
104 shown that the transformation of institutions governing resource regimes dictates communities’
105 opportunities for accessing ecosystem services (Gómez-Baggethun et al. 2013).

106 Unravelling the history of resource regimes operating in wetlands is essential for understanding and
107 analysing the dynamics of access to and allocation of ecosystem services. Historical analyses of many
108 south Asian and Australian societies have revealed the role played by customary laws in establishing
109 intergenerational wise use and private ownership of wetlands designated as Ramsar sites (Farrier and
110 Tucker, 2000; Moore et al. 2013). However, today’s multiplicity of stakeholders and institutions
111 governing wetlands resource regimes remain fragmented (Kalfagianni and Pattberg, 2013), despite
112 that their interactions lead to specific outcomes for communities. As such, it is critical to shift
113 attention towards understanding how people living around protected ecosystems and Ramsar sites
114 are affected by, and respond to, the different governance regimes that shape their access to and
115 allocation of ecosystem services.

116 2.1 Governance of wetland ecosystem services in Malaysia

117 As a humid tropical country, Malaysia has an abundance of wetlands whose biodiversity and
118 ecosystem services potentials are ranked among the most valuable in the world (Schuyt and Brander,
119 2004). It is important to stress that wetlands, and mangrove forests in particular, are critical to the
120 survival of the Malaysian fishing industry and other sources of local livelihood. According to Yahaya
121 (2003), the richest commercial fishing grounds in Malaysia are found very close to mangroves. These
122 mangrove forests are important sources of wood-fuel for charcoal production, poles and building
123 materials for local communities living in their fringes (Juliana et al. 2014; Lantiff and Farida-Hanum,
124 2014).

125 Malaysia's integrated wetland governance is spelled out under the National Wetlands Policy of 2004,
126 which according to Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment (2014) aims to fulfil Malaysia's
127 obligations under the Ramsar Convention and Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD). The four
128 objectives of this policy are as follows: 1) protection and conservation of different types of wetlands;
129 2) integration of wetland conservation interests into overall natural resource planning; 3) increase
130 scientific and technical knowledge 4) increase public appreciation of wetland functions or benefits
131 and the restoration of degraded wetlands. These objectives tend to emphasise conservation and
132 protection of ecosystems and do not explicitly recognise public rights to access wetland areas. This
133 situation also extends to sub-national level where, for instance, Maniam and Singravelloo (2015)
134 observed disconnections between conservation projects, policies, and local communities in the
135 southern Malaysia's Johor State. Researchers also tend to pay attention to the potentials of wetlands
136 to the formal economy, in lieu of the local economy, around Ramsar sites (Aminu et al. 2014).

137 3 Methods and study area

138 This study depended largely on primary data acquired through fieldwork, as well as detailed literature
139 review. The purpose of the fieldwork was to understand and analyse how the designation of Pulau
140 Kukup as a Ramsar site has affected communities' access to ecosystem services. Data collection used
141 group interviews and direct observations of people's interactions with resources, including
142 observation of socio-economic and ecological opportunities. The approach followed scholarly views
143 on the need to redirect ecological sciences towards policy-based responses and solving societally
144 relevant problems (Barot et al. 2015; Courchamp et al. 2015), identifying from the bottom up, the
145 who, what and how of ecosystem service access and allocation (Naeem et al. 2015). Fieldwork was
146 conducted during weekends in April 2013. The weekends are the peak periods for tourists' arrival in
147 the town and also peak periods for social activities and businesses. Choice of this time aimed to
148 maximise observations of people's interactions with this environment. Field observations and
149 interviews were conducted at three locations: Pulau Kukup Ramsar site, Kukup fishing village, and
150 *kelong* sites (floating fish farms) located on the water that separates the Ramsar site and Kukup
151 village.

152 Some studies use semi-structured group interviews to scrutinise respondents' direct experiences of
153 community access to ecosystem services (Gómez-Baggethun et al. 2013). In framing the interview
154 questions set for this study, note was taken of the experiences of Iarossi (2006), who suggested that
155 respondents from countries including Malaysia dislike lengthy interview questions. Hence, short
156 questions focused on ecosystem services, livelihoods, and land tenure as critical issues that underpin
157 the principle of wise use of wetlands (Ramsar Convention, 1971) and fair and equitable use, as
158 specified by CBD Article 1 (CBD, 2006). Questions asked included: what are the benefits of Pulau
159 Kukup for this community? Does restriction in accessing Pulau Kukup worry the community? What
160 role does land tenure security play in changing this community? What are the most important
161 livelihood options for this community? How does tourism industry benefit people? Do you consider
162 the use of tidal wave waste cleaning appropriate?

163 In framing the study questions and observations, the principles of knowledge co-design and co-
164 production in landscape studies were considered (Ayre and Nettle, 2015). As such, the field
165 assistance of a Malaysian Chinese university Associate Professor who had worked in the study area
166 for more than twenty years was sought. She played an important role in simplifying the terms and
167 concepts used for the interviews into a common language that she interpreted into the languages
168 spoken by the respondents (Malay and Chinese). Based on the study research questions, we focussed
169 on waste disposal, flood control, provisioning services (underpinning fishing/*kelong* businesses,
170 ecotourism, local businesses), cultural history and the functions of Pulau Kukup. Participants in the
171 first three interviews were drawn using snowball sampling. The research assistant contacted a
172 respected businesswoman who identified other participants she believed had sufficient knowledge,
173 stake and community experience.

174 Table 1 summarises the group interview sample. The first group interview was conducted at a home-
175 stay (tourist accommodation) on a Saturday during the dinner time. This involved four participants
176 (coded 1A-4A). The second interview with three fishermen/*kelong* operators (coded 5B-7B) was held
177 on a Sunday afternoon at one of the *kelong* sites directly located between Kukup village and the
178 Kukup Ramsar site. The third group interview with two staff of Johor Park (coded 8C-9C) was held
179 at Pulau Kukup Ramsar site office reception on a Sunday. The fourth group interview was held
180 inside the Sea Dragon Temple at Kukup fishing village. The three participants for the Sea Dragon
181 Temple interview (coded 10D-12D) were sampled through convenience sampling method. The
182 author and field assistant jointly selected the site because it is located away from the coastline and
183 provides the chance of meeting other community members who belong to other occupational
184 groups. In every interview, each participant was given a chance to respond to all the questions.
185 Responses were noted down following interpretation by the field assistant. The field assistant
186 advised against using recording devices because the respondents might not like their responses to be
187 recorded electronically. Some respondents skipped some questions or simply agreed with the views
188 expressed by their co-interviewees.

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Table 1: Profile of the 12 interviewees held at Pulau Kukup and surroundings

Respondents	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Length of Stay	Major occupation
1A	Female	>60	Chinese	>30 years	Homestay owner
2A	Female	57	Chinese	>20 years	Homestay owner
3A	Male	49	Chinese	>15 years	Homestay caretaker
4A	Female	51	Chinese	>10 years	Homestay caretaker
5B	Male	24	Chinese	6	Fish farmer
6B	Male	28	Chinese	10	Fish farmer
7B	Male	43	Chinese	35	Fish farmer
8C	Female	29	Malay*	1	Conservation officer
9C	Male	33	Malay*	2	Conservation officer
10D	Male	32	Chinese	8 years	Seafood seller
11D	Male	35	Chinese	5 years	Grocery shopkeeper
12D	Male	39	Chinese	20	Fish farmer

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Source: Fieldwork 2013; *questions asked in English

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In addition to the group interviews, passive direct observations were undertaken, where the observer plays a role of bystander and does not directly engage with study population (DeWalt et al. 1988). This method is also called covert observation because the study population is often unaware that they are being observed (Gajendragadkar et al. 2013). In this case, the purpose of field-based observations was to achieve what Patton (2002) called direct contact with physical environment and people and to understand realities. As such, attention was paid to tourists' movements, time spent in different locations and types of activities undertaken. Photographs were taken in order to document sites and provide a record of activities of tourists and community members.

202

3.1 Pulau Kukup and its surroundings

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Pulau Kukup (Kukup Island) is located between 01°19'N and 103°25'E on the shores of Southern Peninsular Malaysia's Johor State. The total area of this mangrove island is 6.47 km². Pulau Kukup offers physical protection of shoreline and acts a barrier against strong winds and tides for the low-density coastal settlement. According Cheang (2003), Pulau Kukup is the world's second largest

207 mangrove island. Its mangrove tidal forest trees grow up to 30 m and its mudflats are exclusive
208 habitats for 12 vertebrate species and 23 bird species. Birdlife International (2007) reported that
209 species covering a range of IUCN conservation categories are found in Pulau Kukup. These include:
210 the Lesser Adjutant stork (*Leptoptilos javanicus* - threatened), Milky Stork (*Mycteria cinerea* -
211 endangered), Chinese Egret (*Egretta eulophotes* - vulnerable), Common Redshank (*Tringa tetanus* - least
212 concerned), White-winged (*Tern Chlidonias leucopterus* - least concerned), and the Straw-headed Bulbul
213 (*Pycnonotus zeylanicus* - vulnerable).

214 Although Pulau Kukup is uninhabited by humans, merely 1 km separates it from Kukup village,
215 which comprises three major settlements: Kukup, Kampung Sungai and Kampung Air Masin
216 (Hampton, 2010). Kukup village is a type of settlement called a parallel water village and it is located
217 on swamps. Its houses are connected by pedestrian walk ways (Hassan, 2010). The area has been
218 settled by people of various ethnic backgrounds since before the 1870s (Tachimoto, 1994). Recently,
219 Pulau Kukup has become an important ecotourism hub, receiving 90,229 local and international
220 tourists during the period 2010-2012 (Sanmargaraja and Wee, 2013). According to Hampton (2010),
221 the mainstay of Kukup village economy is gastronomy tourism, focused on high-quality seafood
222 eateries. The author estimates the settled population of the Kukup fishing village at around 1000,
223 with most inhabitants being Hokkien Chinese.

224 The island was designated as Ramsar Site No. 1287 under the Ramsar Convention on 31st January,
225 2003 (Giesen et al. 2007). According to Michel and Zahler, (2015), the earliest people that inhabited
226 the surroundings of Pulau Kukup were nomadic fishermen. Therefore, fishing became an enduring
227 economic activity that has become part of the culture, history, food security, and landscape systems
228 of the area. In the pre-colonial days, most parts of Malaysia, including Kukup, enjoyed a customary
229 land tenure system, known as *adat*, which determined the nature of resource use regimes. According
230 to Ngidang (2005:50), the *adat* system is “instrumental for maintaining law and order and provides a
231 state of balance between individuals, between individuals and community, and between community
232 and the environment, both physical and spiritual”. The *adat* system also provides for rules of access
233 and land ownership rights through inheritance, access to public goods, protection of the commons,
234 and inter-generational transfers. However, until recently, the subsequent colonial and post-colonial
235 laws of Malaysia failed to guarantee and or establish the rights of communities to own the lands they
236 have occupied for generations (Xanthaki, 2003).

237 Neglect of the rights of local people by the colonial and post-colonial land tenure systems influenced
238 the top down conservation policies on this ecosystem. Historically, local people inhabiting the
239 surroundings of Pulau Kukup freely exploited its mangroves for the production of poles and
240 charcoal, until 1923, when it was designated as a forest reserve (Jusoff, 2008). Several mechanisms
241 were introduced to regulate local access to ecosystem goods and services which included the need
242 for permission to be gained for the local commercial production of firewood in 1947. Subsequently,
243 regulated pole production was permitted between 1950s and 1960s. Then, an integrated approach
244 for local production, conservation and protection of coastal areas was introduced in 1972. In 1997

245 the government of Johor State gazetted Pulau Kukup as a state park for tourism and conservation
246 purposes (Wetlands International, 2007). Jusoff (2008) reported that between 2000 and 2009, Pulau
247 Kukup became a subject of intergovernmental conservation and development interest through a
248 collaboration project between the Johor Forestry Department and the Danish Cooperation for
249 Environment and Development. The collaboration was responsible for launching long-term
250 management, conservation and protection activities, as well as rehabilitating degraded areas in the
251 Kukup Ramsar site. According to the Asian Development Bank report *State of the Coral Triangle:*
252 *Malaysia* (2014), several laws in Malaysia such as the Fisheries Act 1985, the Environment Quality
253 Act 1974, the National Forestry Act 1984, the Wildlife Protection Act 2010, the National Parks Act
254 1980 support today's wetland governance. Indeed, the interplay of restrictions focusing on
255 conservation are considered to have improved the area's ecological integrity. Azlan and Othman,
256 (2009) found that the areal size of Pulau Kukup Ramsar has increased by more than 10 ha in a
257 decade and this is most probably due to the existing conservation measures which include the area's
258 designation as a Ramsar site.

259

260 **4. Results and Discussion**

261 This section directly addresses the study's research questions: how does designation of a wetland as a
262 Ramsar site undermine communities' access to ecosystem services? How do communities exploit the
263 benefits of labelling ecosystems as Ramsar sites/conservation areas and what are the socio-ecological
264 benefits and threats? It sets out the findings in the context of the literature and shines light on the
265 implications for access to resource use and related opportunities. It also highlights the need for
266 governance to respond to emerging challenges.

267

268 **4.1 Ecosystem services in Pulau Kukup Ramsar site**

269 Pulau Kukup provides a wide range of ecosystem services, such as soil formation in its mudflats,
270 nutrient cycling, refugia functions for migratory birds, conservation of genetic flora and fauna
271 species, ecotourism, fish habitat, and so on (Giesen et al. 2007; Lim et al. 2012). Collectively, these
272 functions represent provisioning, regulating, supporting, and cultural ecosystem services. In
273 answering the first research question, "how does designation of a wetland as a Ramsar site
274 undermine community's access to ecosystem services?" Respondent 2A noted that "a few years ago
275 fishermen used to make offerings to the god of the sea to seek for his protection. This ritual was
276 forced to stop after Kukup was designated as a conservation area." This opinion demonstrates a
277 mismatch between national and international conservation institutions, showing how access to
278 certain areas can be restricted, prioritising the protection of certain ecosystem services. The blocking
279 of fishermen from accessing Pulau Kukup for rituals is in line with the existing Johor State
280 conservation laws set for the park (Jusoff, 2008). However, this contradicts the principles of wise
281 and equitable use supported by the Ramsar Convention and CBD (Ramsar Convention, 2008; CBD,

282 2006). Such discrepancies in the implementation of international environmental conventions for
283 ecosystems need to be addressed in the interest local people and environmental justice.

284 The second research question asked: how do communities exploit the benefits of labelling wetlands
285 as Ramsar sites/conservation areas and what are the socio-ecological benefits and threats?
286 According to Respondent 7B, “the designation of Pulau Kukup as a Ramsar site has made it one of
287 the best-known sites for ecotourism in Malaysia.” Eight other respondents held the same positive
288 view on the role of labelling Pulau Kukup as a Ramsar site. The influx of nearly 100,000 local and
289 international tourists into the area within two years (2010-2012) illustrates its rising popularity as a
290 tourist site (Sanmargaraja and Wee, 2013). The community has demonstrated a good understanding
291 that the survival of this mangrove island is crucial for the local economy. For example, Respondent
292 1A noted that “if Pulau Kukup disappeared, businesses in Kukup village will also decline
293 considerably.” It seems that the local people are supportive of the strict implementation of the
294 restricted use of the wetland in spite of its drawbacks in the way of access.

295 In some ways, the restricted access maps neatly onto local beliefs and perspectives. According to
296 Respondent 8C “the Malays believe that Pulau Kukup is an abode of spirits and that is why it is
297 uninhabitable”. Respondents 5B and 6B suggested that conservation of Pulau Kukup “is for the
298 permanent good of the locals”. While local cultural and historical values of wetlands are neglected
299 in the current governance regime, communities nevertheless understand that the access restrictions
300 provide longer-term benefits. At the same time, local people have benefitted from improved land
301 tenure security.

302 **4.2 Land tenure change and vulnerability of wetlands**

303 Historically, the *adat* system has been instrumental in maintaining a balance between communities
304 and ecosystems through communal ownership (Ngidang, 2005). In the past, customary tenure
305 systems determined how people utilised a wide range of environmental resources in and around the
306 shores of Kukup village without pushing Pulau Kukup into extinction. Indeed, previous studies have
307 observed the predominance of wooden houses standing on stilts (Hampton, 2010; Hassan, 2010).
308 Contrastingly, findings from the current study’s fieldwork reveal a rather dramatic change in the
309 morphology of the settlement. Currently, most of the residential structures were built with
310 permanent structures that appeared quite new, while some were still under construction during the
311 fieldwork. According to Respondent 2B, the Johor State Government offered people permanent
312 land titles in 2012 and this came “after nearly 100 years that many family generations kept holding
313 temporary land titles”. The same respondent claimed that “over 300 people have benefited” from
314 this land tenure security initiative of the Johor State Government. She added that “this delayed
315 action has now brought more development to the area and has improved human well-being.”

316 In addition, the field-based observations provided insight into understanding how the recent
317 changes in land tenure regimes pose risks to the sustainability of Pulau Kukup Ramsar site. The
318 previous temporary land tenure arrangements discouraged pressure on the coastal areas, as most of

319 the buildings were made from locally-sourced materials. The acquisition of permanent land titles has
320 spurred a massive transformation of the Kukup village, particularly along its low-elevation coastal
321 areas. New concrete buildings overlooking the Pulau Kukup Ramsar site have been developed.
322 Invariably, this has added more pressure on the swamps and stamped out the traditional and
323 environmentally-friendly morphology of the area. At the same time, the change in land tenure
324 security has created multiple opportunities for people, particularly through the ways it boosts the
325 local tourism industry. According to Respondent 1A “tenure security has boosted the confidence of
326 the local community that companies will not take over the land.” The respondent added that
327 “previously, some people moved out of this community in spite of opportunities, simply due to this
328 uncertainty.”

329 **4.3 Sustainability of local fish farming (*kelong*)**

330 The fishing industry has flourished in Kukup village and its surroundings for centuries and it has
331 become one of the bold features of its cultural landscapes (Tachimoto, 1994; Hassan 2010; Michel
332 and Zahler, 2015). It is evident that local people have been able to maintain some aspects of their
333 indigenous knowledge and livelihood options. The relatively small-sized fish farms located between
334 Kukup village and Pulau Kukup were constructed using wood, nets and ropes that are sourced
335 locally. Although, the *kelongs* cover only a few square meters, the fish and seafood cultivated for local
336 sale and exports are good sources of income for the local people. Respondents 9C, 11D, and 12D
337 believed that “water is a natural gift” for their business. According to Respondent 10D, the *kelong*
338 business became more popular when the fish stocks in the waters of Straits of Malacca started
339 depleting progressively a few decades ago. However, Respondent 9C opined that, “demand for some
340 uncommon fish species and seafood has also boosted the *kelong* business”. *Kelong* therefore helps in
341 preserving the diversity of aquatic species.

342 Field observations showed that the anglers sell many types of fish and seafood to chains of
343 restaurants in and around Kukup. They also export their products to Singapore, Hong Kong, and
344 Taiwan among others. The floating farms may also benefit from ecological functions of Pulau
345 Kukup. The concentration of fishing activity around Pulau Kukup is because mangrove swamps are
346 naturally rich areas for fishing (Yahaya, 2003; Juliana et al. 2014; Latiff and Farida-Hanum, 2014).

347 **4.4 Tourism and recreation in Pulau Kukup Ramsar site**

348 The tourism industry is a major beneficiary of wetlands as half of all international tourists visit
349 wetland areas (Secretariat of the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands and World Tourism Organisation,
350 2012). Tourism in Pulau Kukup can be broadly categorised into ecotourism and holidaymaking. The
351 former involves visits to Pulau Kukup Ramsar site and the latter involves visiting sea food
352 restaurants (gastronomy tourism), leisure activities, and night time recreational activities. Visits to
353 *kelong* platforms have also become part of the major sites that tourists visit before or after going to
354 Pulau Kukup. Some 20 or more tourists can visit one *kelong* at a time. Most of the *kelongs* also host

355 shops that sell seafood, herbs, and souvenirs. This section considers the different types of tourist
356 activities and their implications for the Ramsar site.

357 Being the world's second largest uninhabited mangrove swamp island, Pulau Kukup is a good site
358 for watching nature. In response to the question relating to the functions of the Ramsar site,
359 Respondent 7B stated that Pulau Kukup served as a "good spot for researchers from within
360 Malaysia and beyond." Going by the number of different fish and aquatic species seen at *kelong*
361 sites, it is possible that tourist visits to *kelongs* can be considered as another form of ecotourism as it
362 involves displays of different fish species that tourists can feed for fun. These activities are
363 important for the local economy, as it was observed that some tourists spend only a few hours in
364 Pulau Kukup.

365 Although ecotourism is the mainstay of Kukup Laut, Hampton (2010) identified gastronomy
366 tourism as one of the key activities in the area. Chains of restaurants offer a variety of seafood for
367 holidaymakers from morning until late evening during the weekends. Home-stays are another
368 flourishing business, whereby tourists are accommodated in purpose-built, well-furnished homes. A
369 typical home-stay facility in Kukup can accommodate fifteen people or more at a time. According to
370 the respondents, most of the residents of Kukup were elderly people as most of people of working
371 age stay in cities and other bigger towns and only visit Kukup occasionally. According to
372 Respondent 11D, "some absentee homeowners consider home-stay facilities as investments."
373 Observations showed that many tourists took their dinner in their home-stay facilities as part of
374 their tour package. Thus, in the evenings, most of the backyards were busy with tourists who spent
375 time enjoying chicken, seafood or barbecued fish.

376 It was observed that after taking dinner some tourists engage in recreational activities. For instance,
377 some of them watched or lit fireworks at night. Nevertheless, the most common recreational activity
378 observed was karaoke, which is usually performed indoors. Some tourists also engaged themselves in
379 walking around the interconnecting paved walkways of the village. In general, people felt the tourism
380 industry has improved the lives of the community members. This was confirmed by Respondent 4A
381 who noted that "20 - 30 years ago, many people in this community were very poor. Now things have
382 improved for the people through the tourism industry." In other words, the tourism industry, which
383 depends on the conserved ecosystem, contributes substantially to poverty alleviation. Conservation
384 has helped the local economy to grow substantially.

385 **4.5 Community Induced Threats to Ramsar sites**

386 Based on observations from the sites in this study, it is critical for conservation authorities to
387 establish measurable thresholds between community use of ecosystem services and vulnerability of
388 wetlands. In the case of Kukup village and its surroundings, the residential areas standing on the
389 shallow waters have continued to rely on rising and receding water tides for household toilet waste
390 disposal. As homes depend on this natural cleaning method, Respondents 2A and 4A mentioned
391 that "this practice has been the tradition in this locality for ages". However, Respondent 3A noted

392 that, “the faecal material serves as food for aquatic life”, while Respondent 2A added that, “apart
393 from toilet waste, the residents do not throw any domestic waste such as plastic and metals into the
394 swamps.” Nevertheless, the increasing development and influx of tourists, could, over time,
395 negatively affect water quality and the sustainability of the marshes. Indeed, indications are that
396 negative effects are already being experienced. The fishing areas around Kukup have recently
397 experienced the massive decimation of fish stocks due to infections from microbial organisms
398 (Jaafar et al. 2014). Prior to this, Diego-McGlone and Dupra (2005) observed that untreated sewage
399 is responsible for eutrophication which is one of the major threats to seas and wetlands in Southeast
400 Asian countries. Thus, it is imperative for the local community and the authorities to give top
401 priority to sanitation. As Hampton (2010) observed, poor sanitation undermines the prosperity of
402 Kukup tourism industry. Pollution of swamps may also affect some species such as mudskipper
403 (*Gobiidae*) swamp snakes, and lobsters (*Procambarus clarkii*) that are found abundantly below the
404 houses. Hence, it is imperative to integrate social and ecological dimensions in developing
405 governance mechanisms that can allow people to more sustainably exploit the opportunities of being
406 close to Ramsar sites.

407 **5. Conclusion**

408 By scrutinising access and allocation of ecosystem services in one of the unique Ramsar sites, this
409 study sheds light on the complexity of governance of ecosystem services. This study has shown that
410 national institutions for governing biodiversity and ecosystem services do not implement some of
411 the principles of wise use, as ordained by the Ramsar Convention. This failure to fully implement
412 international multilateral agreements such as the Ramsar Convention is a potential area to explore in
413 further studies on the effectiveness of local governance arrangements to support multilateral
414 environmental agreements (MEAs). Our study has also shown that in order to understand the
415 current state of access and allocation of ecosystem services, it is imperative to consider the historical
416 evolution of wetlands and local people’s interactions. Without understanding the dynamics of the
417 local community and ecosystem relations, it will be difficult to understand and evaluate the current
418 state of this relationship and the new and emerging risks to sustainability that such changes may
419 bring. Another critical conclusion is that the mere designation of an ecosystem as a Ramsar site can
420 improve and diversify economic opportunities for local communities, particularly through the
421 tourism industry. The study also illustrated a positive side to the top down approach to ecosystem
422 service governance used in the area, where it is shown to have improved the ecological integrity of
423 ecosystem. Despite the trade-off created between strict conservation rules and the direct and indirect
424 benefits that people draw from tourism activities, the respondents in this study were found to be
425 comfortable with more top down governance approaches. Such public acceptance and confidence in
426 international, national conservations institutions and policies seems highly dependent upon the level
427 of the overall prosperity of national economy and public wellbeing. Looking to the future, for
428 positive relations between people and environment to continue in the area, it will be imperative for
429 governance systems to take proactive measures in order to address challenges of sanitation, which
430 this study has identified as a key threat to the sustainability of the wetland ecosystem.

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