Evaluation of Mangrove rehabilitation and afforestation in

2

the southern coasts of Iran

3

Beytollah Mahmoudi^a, Davood Mafi-Gholami^b, Eric Ng^c

^a Department of Forest Sciences, Faculty of Natural Resources and Earth Sciences, Shahrekord
 ^b Department of Forest Sciences, Faculty of Natural Resources and Earth Sciences, Shahrekord

7 University, Shahrekord, Iran. E-mail: <u>d.mafigholami@nres.sku.ac.ir</u>

^c School of Business, University of Southern Queensland, Toowoomba, QLD 4350, Australia;
 <u>eric.ng@usq.edu.au</u>

- 10
- 11

12 Abstract

13 The increasing multiple ecosystem services of mangrove forests, especially in the coastal regions have highlighted a need for conservation and afforestation of these forests. However, economic development 14 and activities on the coasts have generated severe pollution issues that caused irreparable damages to the 15 16 areas and quality of mangrove forests. As a result, rehabilitating the affected areas and forest planting are increasingly important, whereby some form of an assessment is needed to determine their sustainable 17 performance and effectives. This study has used the indicators of forest resource sustainability, and the 18 sustainability of planting sites to evaluate mangrove plantings in Iran's southern coast. Findings showed 19 20 that there was a total of 47 mangrove planting sites on the coasts of the three provinces studied with an area of 9,584.5 hectares. There were 26 afforestation practice sites with an area of 5,724 hectares, and 21 21 22 combined rehabilitation and afforestation practice sites with an area of 3,860.5 hectares identified in this study. Approximately 76.6% of planting sites had been lost and the remaining areas had experienced an 23 24 average density drop of 44%. Results of the stability class analysis revealed that 23 planting sites were in 25 an extremely unsustainable state, 15 sites were considered as highly unsustainable, six sites were in a 26 state of tendency to be unsustainable, whereas only three sites were regarded as sustainable. Findings 27 from this study can assist managers and decision makers to review the site selection processes and 28 pattern of successful planting sites, to facilitate better site selection and enhance the monitoring of 29 mangrove rehabilitation or afforestation.

30 Keywords: Mangrove forest, rehabilitation, afforestation, sustainability, Iran.

32 **1. Introduction**

33 The increasing multiple ecosystem services of mangrove forests, including wildlife and aquatic habitat, 34 timber production, livestock grazing, ecotourism, coastline protection, and educational and research 35 values, have led to intensified conservation and afforestation of these forests (Sharma, 2018; Singh & 36 Odaki, 2004). In many countries, coastal local communities are heavily dependent on mangrove forest 37 structures, which have caused severe damages to the ecosystem (Gandhi & Jones, 2019). Furthermore, the increasing economic development and activities on the coasts have given rise to severe pollution 38 39 issues that resulted in irreparable damages to the area and quality of these forests (Friess et al., 2019; Queiroz et al., 2020). Climate change has been regarded as a key underlying reason for many ecological 40 pressures on these forests (Ellison, 2015). As such, mangrove forests are exposed to a significant number 41 42 of natural and human disturbances globally. These disturbances have resulted in the reduction in the size 43 and health of mangroves, global warming and other climate change, declining coastal water quality, 44 biodiversity loss, degradation of coastal habitats, and the destruction of the resources needed by human communities in recent decades (Walters et al., 2008). In view of this phenomena and the associated 45 46 threats, rehabilitating the affected areas and forest plantation are increasingly important (Thivakaran, 2017; Ward & de Lacerda, 2021). 47

48 Unlike other forest ecosystems, the process of forest regeneration and afforestation in mangrove habitats 49 is often met with challenges due to its specific ecological conditions, and thus many of such efforts have 50 failed (Lewis, 2005). One of the main reasons behind such failures is the lack of attention to ecological 51 principles and incorrect assessment of the planting area (Balke & Friess, 2016; Bosire et al., 2008). Take 52 for instance, despite two decades of efforts to rehabilitate mangrove forests at great expense in the 53 Philippines, only 10% to 20% mangrove survival rates have been achieved due to unprincipled site 54 selection and species inadequacy (Primavera & Esteban, 2008). Whereas in Bangladesh, the success rate of 9,050 hectares of mangroves was 1.52%, and in Vietnam, the survival rate of 580 hectares of 55 mangrove forest between the years 1989 and 1993 is estimated to be approximately 40% (Marchand, 56 57 2008). A study by Kodikara et al. (2017) on the effectiveness of mangrove planting schemes in Sri Lanka 58 reveal that only about 200 to 220 (out of approximately 1,000 to 1,200) hectares were successful.

59 According to Lewis et al. (2019), an understanding of the ecology of different mangrove species, hydrological patterns of species location and recognizing changes that have already occurred in the 60 61 selected environment are important factors to the success of mangrove habitat. The unsuitability of the 62 mangrove cultivation site is mainly caused by natural factors on the coasts that are not favorable to the 63 establishment and long-term survival of mangrove species, and this has severely restricted forest 64 creation. A lack of attention to the limiting natural processes (e.g. coastal microtopography, sedimentation, storms and drought) has also contributed to the failure of afforestation projects carried out 65 66 on the coasts (Balke & Friess, 2016). In addition to natural factors, human factors (such as coastal 67 exploitation and economic activities) and a lack of adequate monitoring mechanisms have also played a role in the destruction of afforested areas. Monitoring measures and replanting, along with efforts to 68 reduce human destructive pressures are among the activities that can partially reduce failures after 69 70 afforestation (Primavera & Esteban, 2008). Understanding these limitations requires on-going 71 observations of the long-term trends about the coastal ecological factors (Lewis, 2005).

A critical success factor in mangrove forest rehabilitation and afforestation projects is the monitoring of hand-planted areas, which includes follow-up evaluation of sustainability indicators in these areas so that the performance and effectiveness of these projects can be assessed (Lewis, 2005; Primavera et al., 2004). While this is a very important aspect of planting and developing mangrove forests to achieve sustainability, however only a limited number of studies have been previously conducted, particularly in Iran (Andon Petrosians et al., 2013; Dehghani, 2014; Hajebi et al., 2019; Khayrandish et al., 2015).

78 Mangrove revitalization and afforestation activities first started in Iran in 1977, and to date there is 79 inadequate information available about the success, effectiveness and monitoring of these activities. Due 80 to the high administrative costs involve in the process of seedling production, transportation and planting of seedlings in the field, better target planning, and cost reduction, it is imperative to assess the 81 82 sustainability of these planting areas. Such an assessment can provide provincial and national officials 83 and planners a better understanding of the current status and help determines areas to be improved and 84 strategies to be adopted, to strengthen the sustainability of Iran's mangrove rehabilitation and 85 afforestation practices. Therefore, this study seeks to analyze the stability or instability of afforested sites by using a method of sustainability classification that includes indicators such as area decline, densitydecline, and regeneration rate and altitudinal growth.

88

89 2.Materials and methods

90 2.1. Study Area

91 In Iran, mangrove forests are located in the Gulf and Oman vegetation region at the coasts and islands of 92 the Persian Gulf and the Sea of Oman in the three provinces of Bushehr, Hormozgan and Sistan, and 93 Baluchestan (Zahed et al., 2010). All mangrove forests in Iran are regarded as important marine sensitive 94 areas due to habitat importance (including for breeding of endangered and rare species), biodiversity, 95 being on the ecological threshold of environmental conditions, and sensitivity to pollutants (Danehkar,

96 <u>2012</u>).

97 The study area is the coasts of the three provinces of Sistan and Baluchestan, Hormozgan, and Bushehr 98 with a total coverage of 3,232 km. The coastlines of these three provinces account for the bulk of the 99 natural distribution of mangrove forests in Iran (Figure 1). Although the habitat of the mangrove 100 ecosystem in Iran is about 20,000 hectares, but the area of its forest habitat is estimated to be 10,692 101 hectares. There are two forest sites with an area of 560 hectares in the Sistan and Baluchestan province, 102 12 forest sites with an area of 10,026 hectares in the Hormozgan province, and three forest sites with an 103 area of 106 hectares in the Bushehr province. In terms of the size of mangrove forests, Iran is ranked 104 43rd in the world and tenth in Asia, and among the countries bordering the Persian Gulf, Iran has the 105 highest level of natural mangrove forests. Only two species of mangrove in Iran, namely Avicennia 106 marina and Rhizophora mucronata. Ninety-five percent of Iranian mangrove forests harbor only 107 Avicennia marina (Danehkar, 2012).

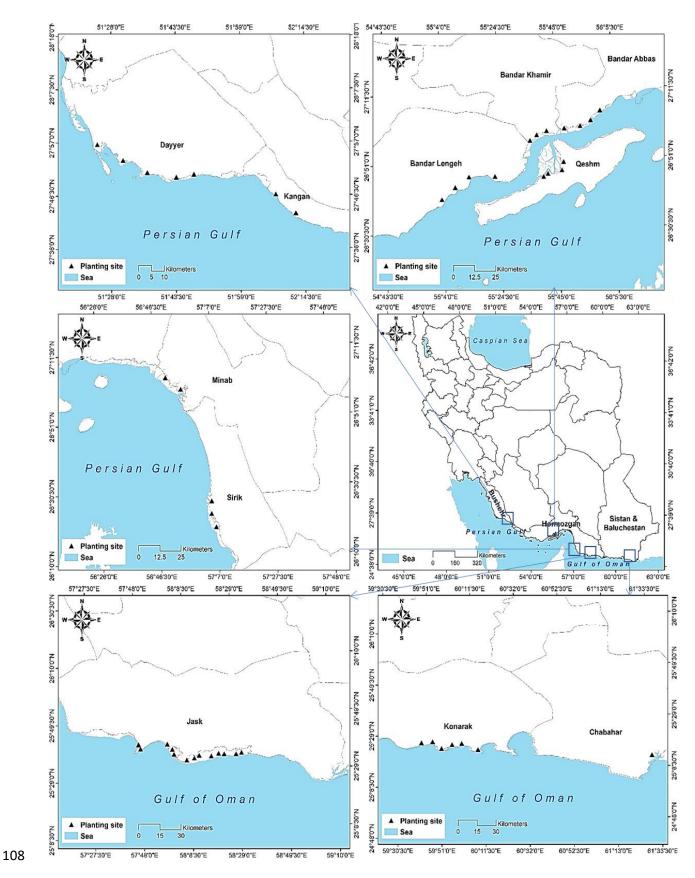




Fig. 1. Geographic location of the study area (Source: Current study)

111 2.2. Methodology framework

112 The research framework adopted in this study involves a multi-stage approach to evaluate the 113 sustainability of afforested areas in the southern coast of Iran. Specifically, there were four stages, 114 namely (1) Identification of forest restoration and afforestation sites, (2) Selection of criteria and 115 indicators for measuring sustainability, (3) Measuring sustainability indicators, and (4) Scoring and 116 classifying the sustainability of forest sites. Each of these stages will be further elaborated next.

117

118 2.3. Identification of rehabilitation and afforestation sites

During the first phase of the research, relevant reports and documents were reviewed, and preliminary 119 120 information was obtained about the possibility of mangrove afforestation in the three studied provinces (i.e. Bushehr, Hormozgan and Sistan, and Baluchestan). These documents mainly included technical-121 122 administrative reports, articles and provincial studies, of which some might have provided statistics on tree planting on the southern coast of the country. To triangulate the information gathered, interviews 123 124 were further conducted with experts and executives from the forest department of natural resources in the 125 Bushehr, Hormozgan and Sistan, and Baluchestan provinces. In each province, an average of three 126 experts and/or executives were interviewed, and this was followed by field visits to afforested areas (i.e. 127 mangrove planting). As a result, the environmental characteristics of afforested areas such as 128 geographical location, area of cultivation, year of cultivation, and number of seedlings planted, and 129 planting distance were identified. In this study, only planting sites between the year 1977 (the beginning 130 of forest rehabilitation and afforestation practices on the southern coast of the country) to 2011 were 131 analyzed.

132

133 2.4. Selection of criteria and indicators for measuring sustainability

The second phase of the research investigated the sustainability of forest stands that had been used as criteria and indicators of forest sustainability (Raison et al., 2001). There were seven main criteria of sustainable forest management being considered, namely (1) Forest coverage, (2) Biological diversity, (3) Forest condition, (4) Productive functions of forest resources, (5) Protective functions of forest resources, (6) Socio-Economic-functions, and (7) Legal, policy and institutional framework. From these criteria, two (i.e. forest coverage, and forest condition) were selected based on the thematic relationship
about the stability of afforestation stands, which is the key focus of this study. The indicators of these
two criteria were subsequently determined by reviewing related studies (Boukherroub et al., 2017; Lewis
et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2010; O'Connell et al., 2022; Trumbore et al., 2015). Table 1 shows the criteria
and indicators used.

144

145

Table 1. Criteria and indicators for evaluation the sustainability of mangrove forest stands.

Criteria	Indicators
Forest sources	Forest area changes (area reduction)
Forest coverage	Forest density changes (density reduction)
Forest condition	Average height growth
Forest condition	Average forest regeneration

146

147 2.5. Measurement of sustainability indicators

In the third phase of the study, a purposeful sampling method was used to measure changes in forest density, average height growth and average regeneration (Badarna & Shimshoni, 2019; Ukpong, 1992). A total of 47 sites were sampled with the area of each site having a minimum of three and a maximum of 15 circular plots of 100 square meters. Visual interpretation of Google Earth images was used to examine changes in forest area and measure the current area of forest sites (Chen et al., 2021).

153

154 **2.6.** Scoring and classifying the sustainability of planting sites

155 The final phase of the study gathered the opinions and experiences of five experts (Lewis, 2005; 156 Wodehouse & Rayment, 2019), to determine the importance of each indicator (Table 2) in the process of 157 afforestation sustainability. In order to compare the status of indicators in planting zones and determine 158 the sustainability status of each, the percentage of decline in density indices and habitat level was 159 classified, and the score of each category was determined according to the mentioned method. Existing 160 density was divided by the expected density, which was the number of seedlings planted per hectare. Based on the mean of minimum and maximum height growth and the rate of regeneration as lower and 161 162 upper limit, the scores of these indicators are as shown in Tables 2. Then, by multiplying the score of each indicator (based on the results of the sample parts and estimating areas) in its weight score, a 163

sustainability score was calculated for each indicator. Finally, by adding the stability scores of all indicators, the total sustainability score for each site was determined. The description of the sustainability status of the sites was considered based on the sustainability scores as presented in Table 3. The sustainability status of each habitat was calculated using Eq.1:

168
$$S = \sum_{I=4}^{I=1} X * Y$$
 (1)

169 S is sustainability score of each site, X is score of each indicator in each site, Y is weight score of each170 indicator, I is indicator 1 to 4.

171

172

Indicators	Weight score	Percentage drop / Ind		Scor
Forest area changes	5		1-20	-1
r orest area enanges		_	21-40	-2
		Percentage drop	41-60	-3
Forest density changes	4		61-80	-4
			81-100	-5
			<1-1.5	1
	3	Indicator range	1.6-2	2
Forest height growth			2.1-2.5	3
			2.6-3	4
			3.1-3.5	5
		Indicator range	1-50	1
			51-150	2
Forest regeneration	2.5		151-300	3
-			301-450	4
			451-600	5

Sustainability status

High sustainability Extremely sustainability

High unsustainability

Tendency to sustainability

Tendency to unsustainability

Extremely unsustainability

176

173 174

175

177 **3. Results**

178 **3.1. Environmental characteristics of planting sites**

Sustainability

score

1 to 10 10 to 20

Above 20 -1 to -10

-10 to -20

Above -20

179 A total of 47 sites have been planted on the coasts of the three provinces studied. As shown in Table 4,

180 these sites were distributed on the coasts of two townships in the Sistan and Baluchestan province, seven

181 townships in the Hormozgan province, and two coastal townships in the Bushehr province. The total area

182	of mangrove planting sites was 9,584.5 hectares, of which approximately 15,503 thousand seedlings or
183	seeds were used. Majority of the sites (70.2%) and their area (79%) were in the Hormozgan province.
184	There were 26 afforestation practice sites with an area of 5,724 hectares, and 21 combined rehabilitation
185	and afforestation practice sites with an area of 3,860.5 hectares carried out in this study. Seventy-six
186	percent of the planting sites had a 3×3 meters planting distance with the remaining sites being 1×1.5
187	(15%) and 1×2 (9%) meters respectively (Figure 2). There were four sites in the Jask and Sirik township
188	with an area of 417 hectares that had planted Rhizophora mucronata, whereas the rest of the afforestation
189	sites were planted with Avicennia marina.

Province	Township	Practice type	No. of Sites	Planted Area(ha)	No. of seedlings (thousand)
Sistan &	Chabahar	Afforestation	1	590	2475
Balouchestan	Konarak	Afforestation	6	1052	3000
Hormozgan	Jask	Afforestation	4	1147	1147
		Rehabilitation & Afforestation	9	2161	2161
	Sirik	Rehabilitation & Afforestation	1	648	648
	Minab	Afforestation	2	130	130
		Rehabilitation & Afforestation	2	270	270
	Qeshm	Afforestation	4	1641	1641
	Bandar	Afforestation	1	610	610
	Abbas	Rehabilitation & Afforestation	3	600	600
	Bandar	Afforestation	1	15	15
	khamir	Rehabilitation & Afforestation	2	17.5	17.5
	Bandar	Afforestation	3	188	188
	lengeh	Rehabilitation & Afforestation	1	145	145
Bushehr	Kangan	Afforestation	1	8	53
		Rehabilitation & Afforestation	1	10	66.6
	Dayyer	Afforestation	3	343	2276.6
		Rehabilitation & Afforestation	2	9	59.6
Total			47	9584.5	15503.3

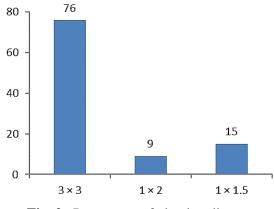


Fig. 2. Percentage of planting distance

193 194

196 **3.2.** Measuring sustainability indicators

197 As shown in Table 5, findings indicated that there was a total of 2,235.9 hectares of surviving planted 198 area in the three provinces (i.e. Sistan and Baluchestan, Hormozgan, and Bushehr), of which the Qeshm 199 township (in the Hormozgan province) had the largest area of 705.6 hectares, and the Kangan township 200 (in the Bushehr province) had the smallest area of 7 hectares. The average forest density for the three 201 provinces was approximately 1,498 per hectare, with the Chabahar (in the Sistan and Balouchestan 202 province) and the Bandar khamir (in the Hormozgan province) townships having the highest and lowest 203 average density of 4,460 and 390 per hectare respectively. Findings also revealed that the average 204 generation per hectare in these three provinces was 206.5 per hectare, and the townships that had the 205 highest and lowest average generation were Bandar Abbas (in the Hormozgan province) and Sirik (in the 206 Sistan and Balouchestan province) respectively. The average tree height in the three provinces was 207 estimated at 154 cm, with the tallest (215cm) in the Chabahar township (in the Sistan and Balouchestan 208 province) and the shortest (121cm) in the Kangan township (in the Bushehr province). According to Figure 3, the largest area reduction was estimated to be 98% in the Konarak township, whereas the 209 210 Qeshm township had the smallest reduction of 57%. In addition, the Konarak township had the highest density reduction of 79%, and the Oeshm township had the lowest density reduction of 16%. Overall, 211 76.7% of the area of planting sites were lost and the remaining areas had experienced a 44% decrease in 212 213 density.

- 214
- 215

216	Table 5. Measuring sustainability indicators					
	Province	Township	Surviving Planted Area	Average density per	Average of generation per	Average tree height (cm)
			(ha)	hectare	hectare	
	Sistan &	Chabahar	20	4460	327.2	215
	Balouchestan	Konarak	13.3	1580	230.7	198
	Hormozgan	Jask	661.6	510	102	140
		Sirik	162	500	99.5	125
		Minab	92.5	389	105	122
		Qeshm	705.6	840	321	135
		Bandar Abbas	399.3	680	353.5	192
		Bandar khamir	11.4	390	102	150
		Bandar lengeh	99.8	690	169.2	150
	Bushehr	Kangan	7	3800	345	121
		Dayyer	63.4	2640	116	142
		Total	2235.9	1498	206.5	154

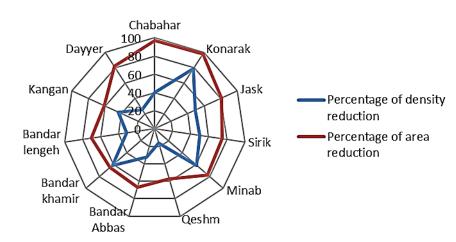


Fig. 3. Percentage of area and density reduction

3.3. Significant status of sustainability indicators

Although results showed that there was no significant difference between combined rehabilitation and afforestation practice and afforestation alone, however there was a significant difference between sites for all indicators. At the township level, findings indicated that there was a significant difference in survival planted area, average of density, percentage of area reduction, and percentage of density reduction. In contrast, only two indicators (i.e. surviving planted area, and percentage of area reduction) were significant at the province level. Table 6 shows the significant status of sustainability indicators at the scale of type of practice, sites, township and province.

229

 Table 6. Significant status of sustainability indicators

Indicator	Practices (p-value)	Sites (p-value)	Township (p-value)	Province (p-value)
Surviving planted area	0.104	**0.004	**0.000	**0.000
Average of density	0.211	*0.063	*0.044	0.233
Average of generation	0.620	**0.000	0.199	0.928
Average of height trees	0.874	**0.009	0.380	0.733
Percentage of area reduction	0.112	**0.005	*0.025	*0.055
Percentage of density reduction	0.215	**0.000	*0.044	0.204

** Level of significance at 99% confidence interval

* Level of significance at 95% confidence interval

232

233 **3.4. Sustainability of planting sites**

According to Table 7, 93.7% (i.e. 44 out of 47) of the planting sites were regarded as unsustainable with majority (i.e. 31 out of 44) of them located in the Hormozgan province. In contrast, there were only three planting sites considered as sustainable and they were spread across two provinces (i.e. Sistan and Baluchestan, Hormozgan).

238

239

	Table 7. Distribute the number of sites in each sustainability category
--	-------------------------------------------------------------------------

Province	Sustainability status					
	Tendency to be sustainable	Highly sustainable	Extremely sustainable	Tendency to be unsustainable	Highly unsustainable	Extremely unsustainable
Sistan &	0	0	1	2	2	2
Balouchestan						
Hormozgan	1	1	0	3	10	18
Bushehr	0	0	0	1	3	3
Total	1	1	1	6	15	23

240

241 **4. Discussion**

242	Monitoring and evaluating changes in sustainability indicators are important to the orientations and
243	trends in the field of forestry, and they can reveal the degree of deviation or proximity to the ideal state
244	or sustainable forestry. Through such monitoring and evaluating mechanisms, policy decision-makers,
245	and planners in forestry could gain valuable insights to the status and develop appropriate strategies and
246	actions to achieve sustainable forestry (Lewis et al., 2019). This study has identified and evaluated a
247	series of indicators (e.g. changes in areas and density, regeneration rate and height growth rate) on forest

resource sustainability, and the sustainability of planting sites on the southern coast of Iran, which have
also been used in previous studies (e.g. (Lewis, 2005); (Luo et al., 2010).

250 In this study, the percentage change of planting area was considered the most important indicator since 251 human interventions (e.g. economic developments, pollutions) have contributed to changes in these areas 252 and impacted forest sustainability (Mafi-Golami et al, 2017). As shown in Table 4, there were two 253 practice types (i.e. afforestation only, and rehabilitation and afforestation) of planting in the southern 254 coast of Iran that covered an area of 9,584.5 hectares. This represents approximately 89.7% of the natural 255 mangrove forests area in Iran, which is a significant coverage. The main purpose of mangrove planting in 256 Iran has been to rebuild degraded sites as well as to expand the area of forests to benefit from ecological 257 services and non-consumption uses (Danehkar, 2012). In fact, if appropriate sustainability measures and 258 practices had been put in place, Iran's natural mangrove forests area could have been much greater. 259 Instead, about 76.7% (equivalent to 7,348.6 hectares) of these planting areas have been destroyed and 260 only 2,235.9 hectares remaining. Furthermore, results showed that the remaining area of planting sites 261 had a 56% drop in density.

From the remaining 23.3% of the area, 93.7% were regarded as unsustainable (Table 7). This suggests that the remaining afforestation is unstainable and is highly exposed to area reduction. A detailed examination of the conditions of each site and the identification of degradation factors in each of them can help to apply management measures to support these sites. These measures can improve the sites' sustainability status from extremely unsustainable to highly unsustainable, or highly unsustainable to tendency to be unsustainable, by preventing controllable destruction factors.

Studies in other countries have confirmed that the success rate of mangrove rehabilitation and afforestation is low. For example, a study of mangrove plantations in Thailand and the Philippines found that 66% of rehabilitation had a survival rate of less than 20% (Wodehouse & Rayment, 2019). Another study by Marchand (2008) revealed that the success rate of mangrove afforestation was estimated at 1.52% in Bangladesh and 40% in Vietnam. Some of the key factors contributed to this relatively low rate of success included unfavorable ecological conditions in afforested sites, drastic reduction in the area and density of forests, which have obstructed the height growth of trees that prevented their regeneration. Other factors such as inappropriate planting locations, storm events, coastal sediment, increasing
droughts, lack of participation and supervision have also been regarded as the main causes of such a
failure, and this is supported by previous studies (<u>Balke & Friess, 2016</u>; <u>Bosire et al., 2008</u>; <u>Hai et al.,</u>
2020; Wodehouse & Rayment, 2019).

According to Table 6, there was no significant difference between combined rehabilitation and 279 280 afforestation, and afforestation alone. This suggests that sites where planting was done for rehabilitation 281 purposes were not significantly different from sites for afforestation purposes only. Areas that were once 282 thought to have been deforested and reforested might have never been covered due to unfavorable 283 ecological conditions. For this reason, the practice of rehabilitation could be less effective and practical, 284 and afforestation practices should be considered instead. On average, the survival rate of planted area in 285 western sites was higher than those in eastern sites, and this could be explained by the direct influence of 286 the eastern sites on the sea currents of the Oman Sea. Furthermore, the Gono storm occurred in 2006 had 287 caused extensive destruction of planting sites on the coasts of the Sistan and Baluchestan province and 288 the eastern coasts of the Hormozgan province. This indicates that western sites are far less exposed to sea 289 waves due to their location on the northern shores of the Persian Gulf.

290 One of the primary reasons for the unsustainable and failure of mangrove afforestation in the south coast 291 of Iran was cultivation at inappropriate or unsuitable planting areas, which can be divided into two 292 categories. The first category relates to areas that do not naturally have much capacity for mangrove 293 growth, and therefore cultivation in them often result in failures. In these areas, factors such as sea 294 hydrology, coastal geomorphology, lack of freshwater and erosion of the coasts will not provide 295 mangroves a long-term establishment opportunity. The second category relates to areas that are affected by destructive social, economic, and environmental factors, which do not allow the dynamics and 296 297 sustainability of forestry. In these areas, mangrove growth will face many challenges because of increasing pollutions, tourism, fishing, livestock grazing activities, and industrial, farming and 298 299 environmental wastes. A key priority for the management is to not consider planting in areas that are naturally unsuitable for mangrove establishment, and to make essential adjustments and removal of 300 301 destructive and limiting factors before starting any forestry activities. However, field investigations have shown that no control actions were taken before or after afforestation in these areas, to help improve the 302

303 situation. Unsustainable sites located in the Bushehr province have been mainly affected by coastal 304 erosion, oil pollution, and industrial and urban wastes. As for those unsustainable sites at the Hormozgan 305 province, mangrove seedlings being out of the tidal range, shrimp farming, rural and urban wastes, 306 tourism and fishing activities have the greatest effect on the sustainability of the areas. Whereas sea 307 storms (Gono Storm) and livestock grazing are the main factors leading to the failure and unsustainable 308 afforestation at the Sistan and Baluchistan province.

309 A lack of attention to the severity of occurrence and destructive effects of natural and human factors 310 when selecting afforestation sites is deemed to be a critical concern. In fact, no study has been conducted 311 on the vulnerability assessment of forestry areas in relation to multiple environmental hazards, and only 312 criteria such as close access to the cultivation site, the allocation of provincial or city financial resources, 313 and efforts to increase the extent of cultivation areas have been considered for the selection of sites. The 314 actions taken before the start of cultivation activities in the sites were generally aimed at management 315 coordination for cultivation. A greater level of involvement and participation from local institutions and 316 communities will be beneficial to improving the site selection process.

317 With regards to the sustainability status, 48.9% of the planting sites were considered extremely 318 unsustainable, 31.9% were highly unsustainable, and 12.8% had a tendency to be unsustainable. This 319 outcome indicates that unless adequate support and remedial measures are put in place and undertaken, 320 the planting sites will not be sustainable. Evidences show that actions that are based on continuous 321 monitoring and evaluation over periods of time, and the use of adaptive management techniques can 322 make positive changes (Laulikitnont, 2014; Lewis et al., 2019). Of the 47 sites studied, there was only 323 one site in each of the category (i.e. extremely sustainable, highly sustainable, and tendency to be 324 sustainable) to be considered as sustainable (Table 7). The ecological conditions in these three sites could 325 be used as guiding principles for the subsequent forestation of mangrove forests on the southern coast of 326 the country. Conducting climatological, sedimentological, geomorphological studies as well as social 327 and economic surveys in these three sites can help to provide a better understanding when identifying 328 new sites and improve the sustainability of existing sites.

329 It is also worth noting that in the process of revitalizing a forest ecosystem, attention should be paid to all 330 components of the ecosystem, especially plant and animal biodiversity and even microorganisms. While the four indicators (i.e. area, density, height growth and natural regeneration of the forest) investigated in this study can serve as a basis for evaluating other forest restoration areas, but will more comprehensive if biodiversity indicators are included. Biological diversity is one of the seven criteria of forest sustainability that can be measured in a separate study, to better understand the extent of the restoration activity.

336

337 5. Conclusion

338 Findings from this study have provided the basis for proper management of sustainable mangrove forest 339 areas, as well as a guide to select and prioritize the rehabilitation and afforestation of these forests. This is the first major study conducted in Iran, using the indicators of forest resource sustainability, the 340 341 sustainability of planting sites on the southern coast to evaluate the sustainability of mangrove planting in the country. Specifically, changes in area, density, height growth, and generation rate were the key 342 343 indicators evaluated. Results revealed that the total planting areas in 47 sites across seven cities in three provinces were 9,584.5 hectares with only 2,235.9 hectares remained in recent times, and only 6.3% of 344 345 these sites were considered sustainable. Due to the various costs in the process of production, transfer, 346 planting and maintenance of seedlings and cultivation areas, it is very important to choose the 347 appropriate area for mangrove forestation and to consider the degree of coastal vulnerability. As such, it is necessary to review the southern coasts of the country by following the example of successful planting 348 sites and locating forest restoration and afforestation in them. The results of this study will help managers 349 350 and decision makers to review the site selection processes as well as regulatory and management 351 measures, to assist them in their decision-making process towards achieving sustainable mangrove 352 forests.

353

354 **References**

Andon Petrosians, H., Danehkar, A., Mahmoudi, B., Saeed Sabaei, M., Ghadirian, T., Asadollahi, Z.,
 Sharifi, N., & Petrosian, H., Ashrafis., & Feghhi. (2013). Application of Delphi Method for
 Prioritization of Mangrove Afforestation Site Selection Criteria (Case Study: Grey Mangroves on
 North part of Persian Gulf, Iran). *Environment and Development Journal*, 4(7), 37-.
 https://www.magiran.com/paper/1218888

360 361	Badarna, M., & Shimshoni, I. (2019). Selective sampling for trees and forests. <i>Neurocomputing</i> , 358, 93-108.
362 363	Balke, T., & Friess, D. A. (2016). Geomorphic knowledge for mangrove restoration: a pan-tropical categorization. <i>Earth Surface Processes and Landforms</i> , <i>41</i> (2), 231-239.
364 365	Bosire, J. O., Dahdouh-Guebas, F., Walton, M., Crona, B. I., Lewis Iii, R., Field, C., Kairo, J. G., & Koedam, N. (2008). Functionality of restored mangroves: a review. <i>Aquatic Botany</i> , <i>89</i> (2), 251-259.
366 367	Boukherroub, T., LeBel, L., & Ruiz, A. (2017). A framework for sustainable forest resource allocation: A Canadian case study. <i>Omega</i> , <i>66</i> , 224-235.
368	Chen, S., Woodcock, C. E., Bullock, E. L., Arévalo, P., Torchinava, P., Peng, S., & Olofsson, P. (2021).
369 370	Monitoring temperate forest degradation on Google Earth Engine using Landsat time series analysis. <i>Remote Sensing of Environment</i> , 265, 112648.
370	Danehkar, A., Mahmoudi, B., Saeed Sabaei, M., Ghadirian, T,. Asadollahi, Z., Sharifi, N., & Petrosian, H.
372	(2012). National document of Iran mangrove forest sustainable management program.
373	Dehghani, A., Pourhashemi, M., Shabanian, N. & Mirakhorlou, K. (2014). Identification of suitable sites
374	for development of mangrove forests in Holor region, Qeshm Island. Forest sustainable
375	development, 1(2), 151-165. <u>https://www.magiran.com/paper/1615981</u>
376	Ellison, J. C. (2015). Vulnerability assessment of mangroves to climate change and sea-level rise impacts.
377	Wetlands Ecology and Management, 23(2), 115-137.
378	Friess, D. A., Rogers, K., Lovelock, C. E., Krauss, K. W., Hamilton, S. E., Lee, S. Y., Lucas, R., Primavera, J.,
379	Rajkaran, A., & Shi, S. (2019). The state of the world's mangrove forests: past, present, and
380	future. Annual Review of Environment and Resources, 44, 89-115.
381	Gandhi, S., & Jones, T. G. (2019). identifying mangrove deforestation hotspots in South Asia, Southeast
382	Asia and Asia-Pacific. <i>Remote Sensing</i> , 11(6), 728.
383	Hai, N., Dell, B., Phuong, V., & Harper, R. (2020). Towards a more robust approach for the restoration of
384	mangroves in Vietnam. Annals of Forest Science, 77(1), 1-18.
385	Hajebi, A., Moslehi, M., & Hassani, M. (2019). Effects of species, light, and irrigation regime on
386	vegetative growth of grey mangrove (Avicennia marina and red mangrove (Rhizophora
387	mucronata seedlings in the nursery. <i>Iranian Journal of Forest and Poplar Research</i> , 27(1), 90-99.
388	https://www.magiran.com/paper/1993206
389	Khayrandish, H., Esmaeilpour, Y., Kamali, A. R., & Zakeri, O. (2015). Locating suitable areas for mangrove
390	afforestation in the Sirik habitat, Hormozgan Province. Journal of Aquatic Ecology, 5(2), 112-
391	123. <u>https://www.magiran.com/paper/1634096</u>
392	Kodikara, K. A. S., Mukherjee, N., Jayatissa, L. P., Dahdouh-Guebas, F., & Koedam, N. (2017). Have
393	mangrove restoration projects worked? An in-depth study in Sri Lanka. Restoration Ecology,
394	<i>25</i> (5), 705-716.
395	Laulikitnont, P. (2014). Evaluation of mangrove ecosystem restoration success in Southeast Asia.
396	Lewis, I., Roy R. (2005). Ecological engineering for successful management and restoration of mangrove
397	forests. <i>Ecological engineering</i> , 24(4), 403-418.
398	Lewis, R. R., Brown, B. M., & Flynn, L. L. (2019). Methods and criteria for successful mangrove forest
399	rehabilitation. In <i>Coastal wetlands</i> (pp. 863-887). Elsevier.
400	Luo, Z., Sun, O. J., & Xu, H. (2010). A comparison of species composition and stand structure between
401	planted and natural mangrove forests in Shenzhen Bay, South China. Journal of Plant Ecology,
402	3(3), 165-174.
403	Marchand, M. (2008). Mangrove restoration in Vietnam: Key considerations and a practical guide.
404	O'Connell, D. P., Fusi, M., Djamaluddin, R., Rajagukguk, B. B., Bachmid, F., Kitson, J. J., Dunnett, Z.,
405	Trianto, A., Tjoa, A. B., & Diele, K. (2022). Assessing mangrove restoration practices using
406	species-interaction networks. <i>Restoration Ecology</i> , <i>30</i> (4), e13546.
407	Primavera, J., Sadaba, R. B., Lebata, M., Hazel, J., & Altamirano, J. (2004). Handbook of mangroves in the
408	Philippines-Panay. Aquaculture Department, Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center.
409 410	Primavera, J. H., & Esteban, J. M. A. (2008). A review of mangrove rehabilitation in the Philippines: successes, failures and future prospects. <i>Wetlands Ecology and Management</i> , <i>16</i> (5), 345-358.

Queiroz, H. M., Ferreira, T. O., Taniguchi, C. A. K., Barcellos, D., do Nascimento, J. C., Nóbrega, G. N.,
Otero, X. L., & Artur, A. G. (2020). Nitrogen mineralization and eutrophication risks in
mangroves receiving shrimp farming effluents. Environmental Science and Pollution Research,
<i>27</i> (28), 34941-34950.
Raison, R. J., Brown, A. G., & Flinn, D. W. (2001). Criteria and indicators for sustainable forest
management (Vol. 7). CABI.
Sharma, S. (2018). Mangrove Ecosystem Ecology and Function. BoD–Books on Demand.
Singh, V. P., & Odaki, K. (2004). Mangrove ecosystem: structure and function. Scientific Publishers.
Thivakaran, G. (2017). Mangrove restoration: an overview of coastal afforestation in India. Wetland
<i>Science</i> , 501-512.
Trumbore, S., Brando, P., & Hartmann, H. (2015). Forest health and global change. Science, 349(6250),
814-818.
Ukpong, I. (1992). Is there vegetation continuum in mangrove swamps. Acta Botanica Hungarica, 37(1-
4), 151-159.
Walters, B. B., Rönnbäck, P., Kovacs, J. M., Crona, B., Hussain, S. A., Badola, R., Primavera, J. H., Barbier,
E., & Dahdouh-Guebas, F. (2008). Ethnobiology, socio-economics and management of
mangrove forests: A review. Aquatic Botany, 89(2), 220-236.
Ward, R. D., & de Lacerda, L. D. (2021). Responses of mangrove ecosystems to sea level change. In
Dynamic Sedimentary Environments of Mangrove Coasts (pp. 235-253). Elsevier.
Wodehouse, D. C., & Rayment, M. B. (2019). Mangrove area and propagule number planting targets
produce sub-optimal rehabilitation and afforestation outcomes. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf
<i>Science, 222,</i> 91-102.
Zahed, M. A., Rouhani, F., Mohajeri, S., Bateni, F., & Mohajeri, L. (2010). An overview of Iranian
mangrove ecosystems, northern part of the Persian Gulf and Oman Sea. Acta Ecologica Sinica,
<i>30</i> (4), 240-244.