

# Financial Feasibility of Green-water Shrimp Farming Associated with Mangrove Compared to Extensive Shrimp Culture in the Mahakam Delta, Indonesia

BOSMA ROEL H.<sup>1\*</sup>, ELEONOR A. TENDENCIA<sup>2</sup> and STUART W. BUNTING<sup>3</sup>.

<sup>1</sup>Aquaculture and Fisheries group, Animal Science Department, Wageningen University, Netherlands

<sup>2</sup>Aquaculture Department Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center, Tigbauan 5021 Iloilo, Philippines

<sup>3</sup>Essex Sustainability Institute, School of Biological Sciences, University of Essex, Colchester CO4 3SQ, UK

## Abstract

This paper presents a post-hoc assessment of the introduction of intensive shrimp farming strategies, with and without green-water (GW) technology, in the Mahakam Delta where extensive systems (ES) dominate. The study also assesses the potential of integrated mangrove GW shrimp production (MGW). The method section describes the systems considered, the cost-benefit analysis applied and the assumptions for different scenarios. The data for the GW and non-GW systems were based on a survey in the Philippines. Assessing cultured shrimp yields from the total farm area showed that production from non-GW was 10% higher than from GW farms. Compared to these two systems, the MGW system produces about 20% of the total shrimp, but provides complementary livelihood options and ecosystem services. Per unit area covered, MGW system produces 20 times more shrimp than ES, while income for farmers doubles and opportunities for livelihoods enhancement associated with the mangrove area increase. Low operating costs make the ES interesting for resource poor farmers, but risks to producers and societal cost are underrated. Transferring from ES to MGW system will increase the contribution to the national economy whilst maintaining ecosystem services, that would otherwise be lost, were intensive culture systems to predominate.

## Introduction

Shrimp production and associated financial returns from semi-intensively managed culture systems in former mangrove forests were often short lived (Naylor et al. 1998). Following declines in productivity as a result of deteriorating pond bottom and water quality and outbreaks of shrimp disease such as white spot syndrome virus (WSSV), farmers operating ponds in former mangrove areas of the Mahakam Delta, East Kalimantan, Indonesia, reverted to extensive production modes (Bosma et al. 2012), while farmers elsewhere developed more intensive culture systems. In the Philippines where mangrove cutting has been prohibited since 1982 (Primavera 1993) farmers opted to pursue more intensive production strategies and developed green-water (GW) culture practices (Tendencia et al. 2005).

---

\*Corresponding author. E-mail address: [roel.bosma@wur.nl](mailto:roel.bosma@wur.nl)

Paper presented at the 9<sup>th</sup> Asian Fisheries and Aquaculture Forum April 21-25, 2011, Shanghai, China

In GW systems the water is conditioned either in separate ponds in which finfish are cultured before it is transferred to the shrimp pond or the finfish are stocked in an isolated net pen inside the shrimp culture pond. Tilapia is most commonly used in the Philippines, sometimes configured with an initial reservoir stocked with carnivorous seabass, *Lates calcarifer* (Bloch, 1790) that feed on potential disease agents in the system (Tendencia et al. 2006a). Tank based experiments showed that GW technology proved effective in controlling luminous bacterial disease (Tendencia et al. 2006b). The effectiveness of the GW culture system against luminous bacteria is attributed to the associated bacterial, fungal and phytoplankton microbiota resulting from consumption by and excretions of e.g. tilapia (Lio-Po et al. 2005). Harvesting of tilapia may be undertaken depending on access to market channels and production strategies adopted on individual farms.

Though GW culture practices spread rapidly throughout the Philippines and various production strategies integrating mangrove and shrimp are practised in Vietnam (Tran 2012), encouraging the introduction of such systems in e.g. Indonesia would require convincing data on financial performance. Post-hoc feasibility is invoked here to overcome this constraint and generate information for policy-makers and prospective operators.

The specific aim of this paper is to assess whether replacing the extensive systems (ES) operated in the Mahakam Delta with either shrimp farming strategies with and without GW or the GW system associated to mangrove forestry (MGW) is profitable. This paper presents the results of the assessment and the implications concerning options to move toward sustainable mangrove-shrimp agro-ecosystems management. Broader ecological, economic and social consequences of widespread adoption are discussed and research priorities proposed.

## Materials and Methods

Material and methods describes the cost-benefit analysis used for the financial assessment before giving the input data and their collection methods of the three existing systems considered. Subsequently the complementary assumptions made for assessing the financial feasibility, including the scenario for MGW, are given.

### *Financial calculations*

The financial indicators for each system (see below) were calculated by applying an aquaculture production model prepared for the EC funded GENESIS project (Bunting and Shpigel 2009) and for a post-hoc evaluation of introducing better management practices for shrimp production in East Kalimantan (Bunting et al. in press). Subsequently a cost benefit analyses based on discounted cash-flows permitted calculation of (1) the net present value (NPV) over 10 years at discount rates of 5%, 10%, 15% and 20%, (2) the internal rate of return (IRR) over 10 years, and (3) the estimated pay-back period. Salvage values and depreciation periods for ponds were fixed at 40%

of capital costs and 20 years, respectively, for buildings and aerators these values were 0% and 10 years, respectively.

The NPV of discounted cash-flows was calculated to assess financial returns and the IRR over 10 years employed to compare the performance of the various culture systems. Sensitivity analysis to test robustness of the results was done by assessing changes in the 10-year IRR in response to varying single input costs, management practices and commodity prices. Exchange rates for one United States Dollar (US\$) of 45 Philippine Pesos and 10,000 Indonesian Rupiah were assumed to permit comparison. As shrimp is mainly produced for the world market we did not use the purchasing power parity.

### ***Mahakam Delta***

The main characteristics of ES systems operated in the Mahakam Delta are presented below, whilst drawing on both primary and secondary data a more detailed description of culture practices was presented in Bosma et al. (2012). Investment costs for extensive shrimp ponds and integrated shrimp-mangrove systems in the Mahakam Delta were obtained from interviews with key informants and farmers (Table 1). In the Mahakam Delta, the surface of ponds varies between 3 and 30 ha, whilst 10 ha was assumed for the baseline. Wild animals are permitted to enter during tidal exchange and constitute an important part of the harvest. Wild shrimp, average weight 25 g, are harvested every 20 days using nets in non-stocked ponds. To replicate extensive culture conditions stocking densities for post-larvae shrimp (*Penaeus monodon* Fabricius, 1798) and milkfish, *Chanos chanos* (Forsskäl, 1775) of 1 m<sup>-2</sup> and 0.4 m<sup>-2</sup> were assumed. The predicted number of days of culture for stocked shrimp and milkfish were 90 and 180 days, respectively, and no supplementary feed is provided. Survival rates of 10% and 40% were deemed appropriate for shrimp and milkfish, respectively (Table 2). The yield levels used for the 10 ha ES ponds were 490 kg y<sup>-1</sup> and 103 kg y<sup>-1</sup> of wild shrimp and crabs, and 500 kg y<sup>-1</sup> and 5,280 kg y<sup>-1</sup> of cultured shrimp and milkfish, respectively (Noryadi and Sidik, 2008; Noryadi et al. 2006).

### ***The green-water (GW) and non-green water shrimp farms***

Financial data on GW and non-GW systems in the Philippines were collected from eight enterprises during a survey in February 2010; these data related to 2009 when the shrimp market price was low compared to other years. The Philippines farms were purposefully selected from a large database compiled for an epidemiological study on WSSV (Tendencia et al. 2011) for having comparable intensive production characteristics. In general, intensive shrimp producers in the Philippines opted to have only one annual culture period to permit pond drying when conditions were optimal and avoid problems associated with stocking in the rainy season. Pond preparation followed a schedule of plowing, drying, harrowing, liming, draining and drying.

**Table 1.** Supplementary data on the extensive system practised in the Mahakam Delta, East Kalimantan.

Method used	Operating procedures and inputs assessed	Practices employed and costs incurred
Focus group discussion	Harvest period and weight for wild shrimp entering traditional and extensive ponds.	Caught every 20 days with nets with market size shrimp (20 g) being retained.
	Pond pre-treatment and disinfection prior to stocking extensive ponds.	Saponin, a naturally occurring plant extract, is applied at a rate of 100 kg ha <sup>-1</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> and costs Rupiah 5,000 per kg (US\$0.57 kg <sup>-1</sup> ).
	Culture periods for extensive production.	Culture typically 2-3 crops per year, May to July, September to November and Jan to March; highly dependent on weather with stocking starting in dry season to avoid rainy season.
Key informant interview	Cost of production enhancing inputs for culture systems.	Rupiah 500 (US\$0.06) per kg for lime; Rupiah 25,000 (US\$2.85), 6,000 (US\$0.68) and 5,000 (US\$0.57) per kg for urea, superphosphate and NPK, respectively.
	Value of aquaculture production.	Crab and milkfish both valued at Rupiah 15,000 kg <sup>-1</sup> (US\$1.71 kg <sup>-1</sup> ); wild and cultured (30 pieces per kg) shrimp valued at Rupiah 40,000 (US\$4.56) and 120,000 (US\$13.68 kg <sup>-1</sup> , resp..
	Cost for land and access rights.	Producers estimated land cost at Rupiah 5 million per ha (US\$570 ha <sup>-1</sup> ), but in reality it is not possible to purchase land, only acquire <i>de facto</i> rights under which cultivation is permitted.
	Costs of establishing and maintaining an integrated mangrove-shrimp systems,	Rupiah 2,000 (US\$0.23) per tree for sapling, planting labour and maintenance; planting density at 25,000 trees per ha.
	Value of mangrove wood in local markets.	Biomass derived from thinning and pruning and destined for charcoal estimated at Rupiah 1,500 per kg (US\$0.17 kg <sup>-1</sup> ) from year 5; timber extraction may be expected from year 15 according to Department of Forestry.

Source: Bunting et al. in press

Estimated mortality on GW farms was lower than on non-GW farms at 11% and 29%, respectively (Table 3). Though a degree of caution is required owing to differences in the calculation methods and small sample, these higher survival rates as well as the higher final weight related to a better growth rate in the GW compared to the non-GW (Tendencia et al. 2011 and Tendencia et al. in press, respectively) and were confirmed in others years. Average harvested biomass for GW and non-GW from stocked pond areas was close to 6,500 and 6,065 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, and average shrimp weights at harvest were 32 and 28 g, respectively, while the length of the culture periods was about equal (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Operating parameters for culture systems specified.

Operating parameter <sup>1</sup>	Extensive <sup>2</sup>	MGW	Intensive	
			Non GW	GW
Net pond area (ha)	10	2	9.2	8
Total farm area (ha)	11	11	11	11
Pond depth (m)	0.6	1.25	1.25	1.25
Shrimp stocking density (PL15-20 m <sup>-2</sup> )	1	22	31	22
Shrimp survival <sup>3</sup> (%)	10	90	71	89
Mean shrimp harvest weight (g)	25	25	28	32
Days of culture	90	120	152	148
Milk fish stocking density (no. m <sup>-2</sup> )	0.4			
Milkfish survival (%)	40			
Mean milkfish harvest weight (g)	330			
Lime (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> cycle <sup>-1</sup> )	0	1,000	1,160	1,040
NP fertiliser (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> cycle <sup>-1</sup> )	50	0	0	0
Urea (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> cycle <sup>-1</sup> )		30		
Super-phosphate (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> cycle <sup>-1</sup> )		75		
Saponin (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> cycle <sup>-1</sup> )	100	100		
Feed input (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> cycle <sup>-1</sup> )	0	9,050	9,640	11,900

PL - Post-larvae; GW - Green-Water

<sup>1</sup> supplementary inputs are mentioned in Table 1 or in text;

<sup>2</sup> data from Bunting et al. in press;

<sup>3</sup> Survival rate either given by the farm that recounted the PLs or recalculated based on stocking density and given individual and total harvest weight.

Ponds on most farms had been constructed by former owners and costs of US\$ 16,000 ha<sup>-1</sup> were associated with rehabilitating these ponds; an investment cost of US\$ 20,000 ha<sup>-1</sup> was estimated and applied in the model (Table 3). Production ponds on shrimp farms occupied on average close to 60% of the total farm area, whilst GW reservoirs occupied an area equivalent to 15% of the pond surface area.

### ***The integrated mangrove green-water scenario***

The ratio of surface areas in the integrated mangrove green-water (MGW) system was set at 1:0.15:3.6 for culture ponds, reservoirs and mangrove, respectively. Cost and production assumptions for MGW culture were the same as those for the GW system when it came to pond operation and for the ES when it came to anticipated wild catches. Income from wild species harvested from ponds and aquaculture products was estimated based on local market prices in 2009. Additional labour costs of US\$ 100 ha<sup>-1</sup>·y<sup>-1</sup> were anticipated for the mangrove stand. The value of mangrove wood from thinning and pruning estimated at US\$ 0.18 kg<sup>-1</sup> was based on the prevailing market price in 2009 for wood to make charcoal in Balikpapan. Potential income generation from mangroves that might be realised through capitalising on broader ecosystem services, namely provisioning (other than thinning), supporting, regulating and cultural services was not included in this financial assessment (see Discussion).

**Table 3.** Average capital and operating costs of the extensive system in East Kalimantan (Bunting et al. in press) and of the two intensive shrimp culture systems in the Philippines, the last including financial results for 2009.

Capital costs (US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup> )			Fixed and variable operating costs (US\$ yr <sup>-1</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )			
Description	GW & non-GW	ES	Description	Non-GW	GW	ES
Value of land	2,500	555	Pond bottom preparation *	1,390	580	0
Farm construction	20,000	3,500	Maintenance *	870	400	0
Aerators	2,050		Pesticides & T-seed	500	300	111
Other equipment	330	444	Chlorine *	170	700	0
			Lime	460	485	11
			Fry	2,250	1,580	78
			Feed	15,085	15,450	56
			Probiotics & molasses	1,690	950	0
			Electricity, fuel & freight *	5,440	7,580	53
			Permit & Taxes	850	1,920	0
			Labour*	5,250	4,220	67
			Incentives and operation*	990	1,160	0
Totals				34,945	35,325	376
Value of shrimp harvest (including fish, collected shrimp and crab for ES)				40,750	42,240	1,217
Gross income				5,805	6,885	841

\* Cost factors included by GW and non-GW farmers in these categories varied and thus they are not directly comparable.

### Complementary assumptions

Relative to pond area, an additional land area was included for access and infrastructure; this was set at 10% for the extensive system and at 25% for the others, giving a total area of 11 ha for all systems. Costs for a guardhouse and storage facilities and laboratory equipment to monitor water quality were assumed at US\$ 444 ha<sup>-1</sup> and US\$ 330 ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Table 3). We assumed that the value of land in the Mahakam Delta would increase five-fold to US\$ 2,500 ha<sup>-1</sup> following investment in ponds for system intensification. The required GW reservoir area was included in calculating the cost of land and construction; we considered the construction cost to be identical to the ponds which might be an overestimation for farms with concrete lined shrimp ponds.

## Results

Capital cost per ha were about 50% higher for the MGW system than for the ES but about one-quarter of those for the intensive systems (Table 4). Operating costs per ha for the MGW system were over fifteen-fold that of the ES and net profit five-fold; operating cost for the intensive systems are five-fold those for MGW culture. Consequently returns on operating cost were highest for the ES. Average annual profits including depreciation were highest for the GW system (approaching US\$ 4,800 ha<sup>-1</sup> for the 2009 price level) and about six-fold the profits from non-GW culture. Profits including depreciation of the ES were about equal that from non-GW culture, whilst profits for MGW were 50% higher, and GW six-fold ES and non-GW. Returns on capital and operating cost were lowest for non-GW, thus resulting in the longest pay-back period. At the 2009 farm-gate price

for shrimp the 10-year NPV of MGW, GW and non-GW was negative for a 10% discount rate; ES became slightly negative at a 15% rate. The 10-year IRR was highest for ES (14%), intermediate for the GW (4.3%), minimal for the MGW (2.8%) and negative for non-GW systems.

**Table 4.** Financial indicators for developing an 11 ha shrimp farm under different management regimes with a farm gate shrimp price of US\$ 6.4 kg<sup>-1</sup>.

Characteristic	Unit	Extensive	MGW	Intensive		
				non-GW	GW	
Capital costs	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	4,100	6,600	35,500	35,500	
Operating costs	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	380	5,800	26,400	23,100	
Gross Income	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	1,120	6,100	28,100	28,000	
Profit excluding depreciation	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	830	1,110	1,700	4,800	
Profit including depreciation	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	680	940	610	3,760	
Return on capital costs	%	20%	17%	5%	14%	
Return on operating costs	%	218%	21%	6%	21%	
Pay-back period	year	5	6	21	7	
Ten year NPV at:	10%	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	650	-1,800	-23,400	-6,900
	15%	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	-90	-2,500	-23,800	-10,800
	20%	US\$ ha <sup>-1</sup>	-600	-3,000	-23,900	-13,300
IRR (%) over:	10 y	%	14,3%	2.8%	< 0%	4,3%

### Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis showed that a 10% increase of the farm-gate price of shrimp resulted in a promising 10-year IRR for all systems (4.5 to 16.5%), though apparent benefits for the ES remained limited (Table 5). The effect of a 10% decrease of the price for feed was about equal to a 5% increase in shrimp market price; a 10% increase of the feed cost gave a negative IRRs for all intensive systems. The effect of increasing fuel prices was less dramatic but a 10% increase brought a negative IRR for the non-GW. The change in market prices of the collected shrimp and crab has less dramatic effects for the two systems, ES and MGW, producing these.

**Table 5.** Sensitivity of 10-year IRR (%) to changing costs and commodity prices, for the four shrimp farming systems.

Parameter	Extensive	MGW	Intensive	
			Non-GW	GW
Baseline	10.1	1.7	< 0	4.3
Cultured shrimp farm-gate price increased, +10%	15.3	16.5	4.5	16.4
Cultured shrimp farm-gate price increased, +20%	16.5	30.1	19.0	28.1
Site development cost, +10%	8.2	0.7	< 0	2.8
Feed cost decrease, -10%	10.1	7.9	< 0	8.7
Feed cost increase, +10%	10.1	< 0	< 0	< 0
Fuel cost increase, +10%	14.1	0.1	< 0	2.0
Value of wild shrimp and crab decreased, -50%	7.9	1.0	< 0	4.3
Value of wild shrimp and crab increased, +50%	20.1	4.4	< 0	4.3

Assuming the farm-gate price of shrimp increased to US\$ 7 kg<sup>-1</sup>, 9% higher than in 2009, all systems continue to give reasonable returns even with a 20% increase in feed, fuel and labour costs (Table 6). While the 10-year IRR of the ES is hardly effected, the non-GW system is most vulnerable while the GW performance is most robust continuing to give good returns even with 50% cost increase for labour and feed. Making a similar assumption on land cost to that for intensive GW and non-GW, i.e. the value of land converted to ponds in the MGW system would increase five-fold whilst the value of land under mangrove would remain constant, resulted in a 10-year IRR of 6.4%, i.e. four-fold the MGW baseline (Table 5).

The return on operational cost of the ES remained highest under the various scenarios tested in the sensitivity analysis. However, the MGW aquaculture system can more than double farmer's income, without accounting for the livelihood contributions from collecting in close to 8 ha mangrove (Table 6).

**Table 6.** Sensitivity of the 10-year IRR (%) to changing costs with a 9% higher farm-gate price (US\$ 7 kg<sup>-1</sup>) for shrimp, and productivity of the three scenarios for a shrimp farm-gate price of US\$ 7 kg<sup>-1</sup> and an 11 ha area.

Parameter	Unit	Extensive	Intensive		
			MGW	non-GW	GW
10 yr NPV for shrimp price +9%	US\$ kg <sup>-1</sup>	1,760	11,670	-100,100	70,170
10 yr IRR for shrimp price +9%	%	11.1	13.9	2.4	14.8
Labour cost increase, + 20%	%	10.6	11.4	< 0	12.7
Labour cost increase. + 50%	%	10.0	7.4	< 0	9.4
Feed cost increase. + 20%	%	11.1	4.2	< 0	6.7
Fuel cost increase, + 20%	%	10.7	9.3	< 0	10.9
Fuel cost increase. + 50%	%	10.2	1.7	< 0	4.7
Pond area	ha	10	2.2	8.3	7.2
Total cultured shrimp	kg	500	10,900	50,000	46,500
Return on operating costs	%	194	31	17	32

### *Macro-economic implications*

The total shrimp production from the non-GW farm was about 5 tonnes·yr<sup>-1</sup> higher than the GW, due to the larger pond area of the first. The quantity of shrimp produced in the MGW was about one-fifth of the two intensive systems having larger pond areas. However, compared to ES, MGW can deliver 20 times more shrimp per farm area. The capital needs of a transfer to MGW system would be less than investing in one of the two intensive systems, while maintaining mangrove ecosystems services and livelihood contributions.



## Discussion

The farm-gate price of shrimp fluctuates widely and differs between countries due to input price levels, market access and regulations. For example, while the farm-gate shrimp price in Vietnam had been US\$ 10.5 kg<sup>-1</sup> in 2000, it decreased to 6 in 2004 and further to 4.5 in 2005-2006, recovering to US\$ 5.7 kg<sup>-1</sup> only in 2009 (Vu et al. 2011). Then the shrimp price was US\$ 6.4 kg<sup>-1</sup> in the Indonesia and the Philippines, where it decreased to US\$ 6.2 kg<sup>-1</sup> in 2012. Thus comparisons between countries and years should be viewed with caution.

Financial returns from ES are modest but associated operating costs are considerably lower as compared to the other systems, explaining the attractiveness of the system to poor migrants (Bosma et al. 2012). In 2004-2005, comparable extensive systems in India yielded 337 kg·ha<sup>-1</sup> and earned US\$ 1,085 ha<sup>-1</sup>, while the most intensive system studied yielded 12-fold: 4,927 kg·ha<sup>-1</sup> and earned US\$ 12,643 ha<sup>-1</sup> (Bhattacharya and Ninan 2011). In Vietnam, using data from 2008-2009, Tran et al (in press) confirmed this gap in gross income between extensive and semi-intensive systems: 352 compared to 5,941 US\$ ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The more than five-fold difference in our model, i.e 1,120 and 6,100 US\$ ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, is modest compared to the differences reported in India and Vietnam; this better performance of the ES might be due to integrating milkfish and accounting for wild crab and shrimp collected. Though ES are generally perceived as low risk owing to reduced stocking densities, absence of feed inputs and minimal operating costs, all hazards are not expressed in these figures because the large pond area requires long protective dikes increasing the risk of abrasion and demanding high maintenance cost while capital availability is low. Damage occurring in consecutive years of low benefits resulted in abandonment of farms which were either returned to nature or were taken-over by neighbours (Bosma et al. 2012).

As demonstrated in Bangladesh (Hossain et al. 2004) and Vietnam (Joffre and Schmitt 2010), low-skilled and lowly-educated farmers, as is the case for most farmers in the Mahakam Delta, generally have only one alternative: abandon farming at the present site and open new mangrove stands for shrimp culture or forest areas for other activities elsewhere. Thus, diversification of livelihood activities based on the mangrove ecosystem can contribute to increased sustainability and sedentarisation of their farming system. The positive impact mangrove may have on income from aquaculture farms was confirmed by findings from Tran et al (in press) where improved extensive shrimp farms with mangrove made US\$ 824 ha<sup>-1</sup>, while those without mangrove made less than half (US\$ 352 ha<sup>-1</sup>).

Observing various shrimp production systems in South Vietnam, Tran (2012) concluded that integrating mangrove stands in ponds was more beneficial and robust than the associated system we modeled. The integrated mangrove-shrimp system yielded US\$ 1,110 ha<sup>-1</sup> while the gross income of the associated mangrove-shrimp system was US\$ 512 ha<sup>-1</sup>. Such a system might be easier to implement in the Mahakam Delta as farmers can increase gradually the number of ditches for shrimp and of bunds with mangrove trees.

Neither Tran (2012) nor the anticipated income generation in the MGW scenario did include mangrove's potential revenues from collection other than timber, nor its societal services. Next to timber, crustaceans, fish and shellfish, thatch, charcoal, honey, tannins, medicines and raw materials for handicrafts can be marketed from mangrove stands (Ruitenbeek 1994). Moreover, mangroves generate supporting services e.g. soil formation and nutrient cycling, regulating services e.g. water purification, erosion regulation and storm protection, and cultural services e.g. aesthetic, educational and spiritual and inspirational benefits (de Groot et al. 2002). In Thailand, the total economic value (TAV) of intact mangrove forest ecosystems was up to 70% higher than the economic value when converted to a shrimp farm (Sathirathai 1998 cited by Balmford et al. 2002). The need for biodiversity conservation and CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration are further arguments to strive for conversion of extensive culture areas to mangrove-GW shrimp production systems. Economic returns could be enhanced by capitalising on the ecosystem services through carbon credits and through organic certification giving a price premium for the products. DeRoy (2012) estimated the TAV of the Pichavaram mangroves at about US\$ 57,000 ha<sup>-1</sup>, which includes valuation estimates of the indirect services such as bio-fencing and carbon sequestration. This is double the gross income from the two intensive systems modelled here and suggests that the TAV of the MGW system might be higher than these intensive systems. Capitalisation of ecosystem services may enhance the sustainable management of mangroves if contracted out to farmers, as done in Vietnam (Tran et al. 2012).

Regarding the GW technology, tilapia are exotic species in the Mahakam Delta and milkfish does not reduce luminous bacteria (Tendencia et al. 2006a). Considering biodiversity conservation it is recommended to identify indigenous species that efficiently can replace tilapia in the GW system. The integration of seabass will increase the system's resilience if there is market demand for this fish. Though capital investments for conversion are high, a well-managed GW system improves financial robustness and thus attractiveness for investors.

## **Conclusion**

Though the total cultured shrimp production from intensive non-GW farms was 10% higher than from GW farms, the latter are more resilient and generate higher profits. An integrated mangrove GW shrimp farm would yield only about 20% of the amount of shrimp produced by similarly sized non-GW and GW farms, but the integrated MGW farms would sustain additional ecosystems services, such as fish breeding and nursing grounds and coastal protection. Transition from prevailing extensive farms to the integrated mangrove green-water shrimp production system will increase the contribution of the sector to the national economy twenty-fold, whilst simultaneously doubling the income of farmers and enhancing even more the economic value of the coastal ecosystem services.

## Acknowledgement

Preparation of this paper was supported by the MANGROVE project which received research funding from the European Community's Sixth Framework Programme [Contract: INCO-CT-2005-003697], and from the RESCOPAR project funded by the INREF programme of Wageningen University. This publication reflects the authors' views and the European Community is not liable for any use that may be made of the information contained herein.

## References

- Balmford A., A. Bruner, P. Cooper, R. Costanza, S. Farber, R.E. Green M. Jenkins, P. Jefferiss, V. Jessamy, J. Madden, K. Munro, N. Myers, S. Naeem, J. Paavola, M. Rayment, S. Rosendo, J. Roughgarden, K. Trumper and R. Turner. 2002. Economic reasons for conserving wild nature. *Science* 297: 950-953. Cited Sathirathai, S. 1998 Economic Valuation of Mangroves and the Roles of Local Communities in the Conservation of Natural Resources: Case Study of Surat Thani, South of Thailand. unpublished report, Economy and Environment Program for Southeast Asia, Singapore.
- Bhattacharya P. and K.N. Ninan. 2011. Social cost-benefit analysis of intensive versus traditional shrimp farming: A case study from India. *Natural Resources Forum* 35:321-333.
- Bosma, R.H., A.S. Sidik, P.A.M. van Zwieten, A. Aditya and L. Visser. 2012. Challenges of sustainably managing shrimp culture in Mahakam delta, Indonesia. *Wetlands Ecology and Management* 20: 89-99.
- Bunting, S.W. and M. Shpigel. 2009. Evaluating the economic potential of horizontally integrated land-based marine aquaculture. *Aquaculture* 294:43-51.
- Bunting, S.W., R.H. Bosma, P.A.M. van Zwieten and A.S. Sidik. in press. Bioeconomic modelling of shrimp aquaculture strategies for the Mahakam delta, Indonesia. *Aquaculture Economics and Management*.
- de Groot, R.S., M.A. Wilson and R.M.J. Boumans. 2002. A typology for the classification, description and valuation of ecosystem functions, goods and services. *Ecological Economics* 41:393-408.
- DebRoy, Piyashi. 2012. Economic valuation of mangroves for assessing the livelihood of fisherfolk – A case study in India. Presented at IIFET 2012, abstract 1362 downloaded from <http://www.xcdsystem.com/iifet/Program/index.cfm?ID=Sc4B2IJ> on 1-8-2012.
- Hossain, S, A.S.M. Nazmul, K.C. Lin, H. Demaine, Y. Sharif, A. Khan, N.G. Das and M.A. Rouf. 2004. Integrated management approach for shrimp culture in the coastal environment of Bangladesh. *World Aquaculture* 35:35-67.
- Joffre, O. and K. Schmit. 2010. Community livelihood and patterns of natural resources uses in the shrimp-farm impacted Mekong Delta. *Aquaculture Research* 41:1855-1866.
- Lio-Po, G.D.T, E.M. Leano, M.D. Penaranda, A.U. Villa-Franco, C.D. Sombito and N.G. Guanzon Jr. 2005. Anti-luminous *Vibrio* factors associated with the green water grow-out culture of the tiger shrimp *Penaeus monodon*. *Aquaculture* 250:1-7.

- Naylor, R.L., R.J. Goldberg, H. Mooney, M. Beveridge, J. Clay, C. Folke, N. Kautsky, J. Lubchenco, J. Primavera and M. Williams. 1998. Nature's subsidies to shrimp and salmon farming. *Science* 282:883-884.
- Noryadi and A.S. Sidik. 2008. Pengembangan Alternatif Model Wanamina (Silvofisheries). Program PMD Mahakam, Samarinda. Fakultas Perikanan dan ilmu Kelautan Universitas Mulawarman, Samarinda, East Kalimantan, Indonesia. 70 pp.
- Noryadi, B.I. Gunawan, A. Maidie, I. Suyatna, A.S. Sidik and Suripno. 2006. Studi Produktivitas Tambak di Kawasan Delta Mahakam Kalimantan Timur. Laporan Akhir disampaikan kepada Total E&P Indonesia. Fakultas Perikanan dan ilmu Kelautan Universitas Mulawarman, Samarinda, East Kalimantan, Indonesia. 101 pp.
- Primavera, J.H. 1993. A critical review of shrimp pond culture in the Philippines. *Review of Fisheries Science* 1:151–201.
- Ruitenbeek, H.J. 1994. Modelling economy-ecology linkages in mangroves: economic evidence for promoting conservation in Bintuni Bay, Indonesia. *Ecological Economics* 10:233-247.
- Tendencia, E.A., M.R. dela Peña and C.H. Choresca Jr. 2005. Efficiency of *Chlorella* sp. and *Tilapia hornorum* in controlling the growth of luminous bacteria in a simulated shrimp culture environment. *Aquaculture* 249:55-62.
- Tendencia, E.A. and C.H. Choresca Jr. 2006a. Presence of snapper, seabass, and siganid inhibits growth of luminous bacterial in a simulated shrimp culture system. *Aquaculture* 260:54-60.
- Tendencia, E.A., A.C. Fermin, M.R. Dela Peña and C.H. Choresca Jr. 2006b. Effect of *Epinephelus coioides*, *Chanos chanos* and GIFT tilapia in polyculture with *Penaeus monodon* on the growth of the luminous bacteria *Vibrio harveyi*. *Aquaculture* 253:48- 56.
- Tendencia, E.A., R.H. Bosma and J.A.J. Verreth. 2011. White spot syndrome virus (WSSV) risk factors associated with shrimp farming practices in polyculture and monoculture farms in the Philippines. *Aquaculture* 311:87-93.
- Tendencia, E.A., R.H. Bosma, M.J.M. Verdegem and J.A.J. Verreth, in press. Effect of greenwater technology on water quality and occurrence of white spot syndrome virus (WSSV) in pond cultured *Penaeus monodon*. *Aquaculture Research*.
- Tran, T. Phung. H., H. van Dijk, R.H. Bosma and Le X. Sinh, in press. Livelihood capabilities and pathways of shrimp farmers in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam. *Aquaculture, Economic and Management*.
- Tran, T. Phung H. 2012. Resilience and livelihood dynamics of shrimp farmer and fishers in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam. PhD thesis Wageningen University 160 pp.
- Vu, N.S., Nguyen, T.P., Tran, N.H. and A. Yakupitiyage. 2011. Production and economic efficiencies of intensive black tiger prawn (*Penaeus monodon*) culture during different cropping seasons in the Mekong delta, Vietnam. *Aquaculture International* 19:555–566.