



Article title: Climate Change Awareness and Risk Perceptions in the Coastal Marine Ecosystem of Palawan, Philippines

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Keywords: climate change awareness, risk perception, exposure, experience, impact, policy, Climate change, Policy and law, Environmental protection, Environmental policy and practice

28 geographical location. The results suggest that addressing poverty, and effectively
29 communicating climate change risks can improve climate change awareness and risk
30 perceptions.

31 Keywords: climate change awareness, risk perception, exposure, experience, impact, policy

32

33 **1. INTRODUCTION**

34 Climate change is the challenge of our generation. Its impacts are already seen in human
35 health, agriculture, water resources, food safety, food security, and coastal and marine
36 ecosystems [1–5]. In coastal and marine ecosystems, climate change is causing two important
37 impacts: sea level rise and changing ocean chemistry [6,7]. Thermal expansion brought on by
38 ocean warming and land-based ice melting, such as glaciers and ice sheets, is the main factor
39 contributing to sea level rise. Rising sea levels are expected to have the greatest influence on
40 the distribution and condition of the mangrove ecosystem in the future [8,9]. Meanwhile,
41 changes in ocean chemistry are caused by anthropogenic climate drivers, including increasing
42 amounts of greenhouse gases and aerosols [10]. Because of increased greenhouse gas
43 concentrations, the ocean’s sea surface temperature is rising and making the oceans more
44 acidic, increasing the risks of coral bleaching, leading to coral death, and losing critical habitats
45 for other species [11,12]. These impacts of climate change which result in the loss of marine
46 diversity and the degradation of coastal marine ecosystems are relatively well known [13,14].
47 However, coastal communities may perceive these impacts differently, which necessitates
48 further investigation.

49 In the Philippines, the serious impacts of climate change are becoming more apparent
50 – thus, the need for proactive mitigation and adaptation approaches has become an urgent
51 public concern. The Philippines is one of the most vulnerable countries to sea-level rise and its
52 impacts due to its numerous low-lying coastal areas. Seven out of 25 cities globally most

53 vulnerable to a 1-m sea level rise are in the Philippines [15]. Based on the Marine Geological
54 Survey Division report, from 1992 to 2011, the rate of sea level rise in the Philippines was 5.8
55 (± 0.6) mm per year [16]. This is faster compared to the global rate of sea level rise averages
56 of 3.3 (± 0.4) mm per year [17]. At the current rate of sea level rise, it would lead to the
57 inundation of more than 167,000 ha of coastal land (about 0.6% of the country's total area) and
58 171 towns, as well as the displacement of 13.6 million Filipinos [18]. In the 2015 simulation,
59 Palawan is one of the Philippine provinces most vulnerable to coastal flooding due to its low
60 coastline elevation zones [19,20]. With a 1-m sea level rise, 6,428.16 ha of land is expected to
61 be inundated in the province [19]. Thankfully, Palawan's selection as a UNESCO Biosphere
62 Reserve (BR) can help lessen the effects of climate change and spur efforts to mitigate and
63 adapt to climate change [21].

64 Previous research in Palawan has explored adaptation strategies for enhancing climate
65 resilience at the local level [22], assessed long-term climate variability's effects on coral reefs'
66 biophysical conditions [23], and studied fishers' perceptions and adaptation capacities [24].
67 Further research into community awareness and risk perceptions can give us a clearer picture
68 on which to base conservation decision-making and environmental management, which will
69 help the province better mitigate and adapt to the effects of climate change [25]. Additionally,
70 this could lead to greater participation, more effective management practices that meet the
71 capabilities of the concerned stakeholders, and, eventually, faster restoration of maritime
72 resources [26].

73 Studies have shown that people's climate change awareness and risk perceptions vary
74 widely and are influenced by various factors [27]. In Asia, the most important indicator of risk
75 perception of climate change impacts is local temperature change [27,28], whereas globally,
76 climate change awareness is determined by educational attainment [27]. Furthermore, personal
77 experiences of other extreme weather events and impacts of climate change also influence

78 climate change risk perceptions [29–31], as well as socio-demographic characteristics, which
79 include gender, income [27,28], age [32], geographical location [33,34]; and occupation [28].
80 Although several studies have been conducted globally to evaluate how these factors influence
81 climate change awareness and risk perceptions, none have been done so far in the coastal
82 communities of Palawan, Philippines, particularly on the perceived impact on the mangrove,
83 seagrass, and coral reef ecosystems.

84 The current study focuses on climate change awareness and risk perceptions of the
85 impacts on coastal communities caused by sea-level rise in the mangrove ecosystem, as well
86 as the perceived impacts of climate change and anthropogenic drivers on coral reefs and
87 seagrass beds [27,35]. This is a part of a more extensive survey conducted as part of the GCRF
88 Blue Communities project, which intends to investigate the well-being benefits and risks of
89 coastal living in and around UNESCO Biosphere Reserves and Marine Protected Areas
90 (MPAs) across Southeast Asia. The study approach was patterned with the ecosystems-
91 enriched Drivers, Pressures, State, Exposure, Effects, Actions (eDPSEEA) model, which
92 recognizes the convergence between the idea of ecosystem services, which gives the value of
93 ecosystems a human health and well-being slant while also emphasizing the health of the
94 environment, and the growing calls for "ecological public health" as a response to global
95 environmental concerns that are currently permeating the discourse in public health [36].
96 Specifically, the following are the objectives that this research attempted to address: (i) whether
97 the participants are aware that climate is changing or not; (ii) whether they have experience
98 climate change impacts or not; (iii) whether climate change and sea level rise affect the coastal
99 and mangroves ecosystem; (iv) whether climate change, anthropogenic drivers, and marine
100 livelihood affect the state of coral reefs and seagrass beds. The results of this study will
101 contribute to the knowledge gap in understanding the climate change awareness and risk
102 perceptions of the coastal communities to design more effective mitigation measures to address

103 climate change impacts at the local level and for policies, programs, and activities aimed at
104 building resilience to climate change and managing marine resources.

105

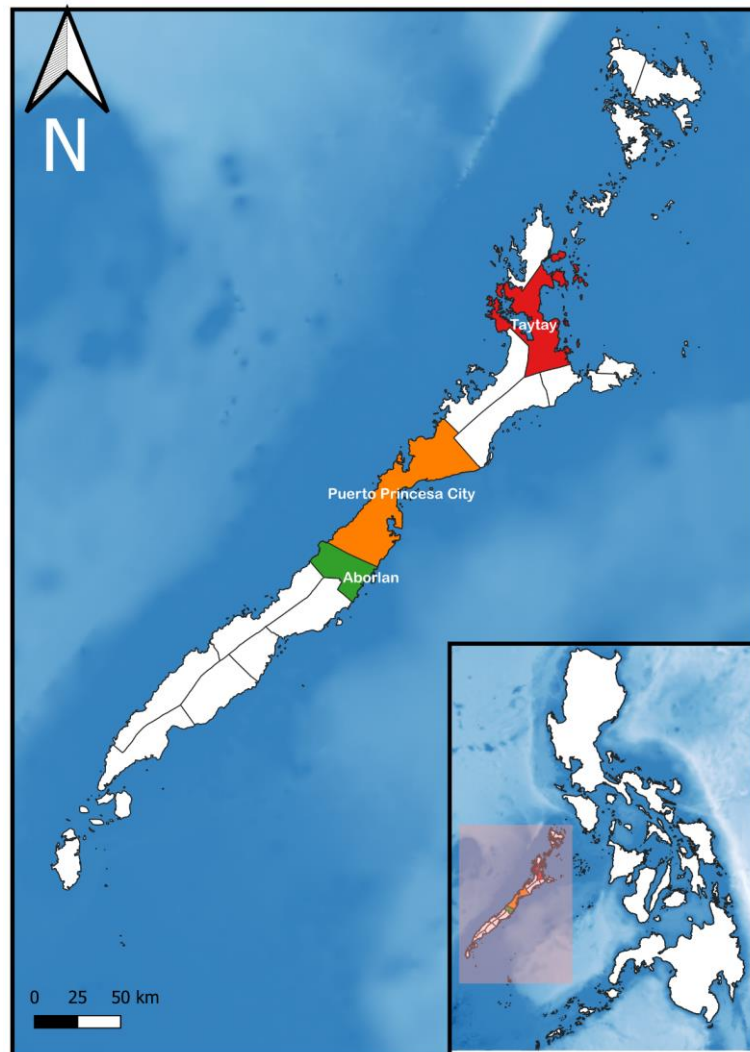
106 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

107 **2.1. Study Area and Sample**

108 The Palawan province, known as the “last ecological frontier” of the Philippines, is an
109 archipelago composed of the main island and more than 1,700 islands [21]. Its coastal marine
110 ecosystems include coral reefs, seagrass meadows, mangroves, and several marine mammals
111 [21]. The province was declared as Mangrove Reserve Swamp in 1981 under Presidential
112 Proclamation No. 2152 for having the most extensive remaining mangrove forest in the
113 country, which was estimated at 63,532 ha in 2010 [37]. In 1991, it was also declared by
114 UNESCO as a Biosphere Reserve to serve as a learning area to promote sustainable
115 development and conservation of biodiversity [21]. The projected population of Palawan in
116 2022 is 1,254,111 [38]. The primary economic activities are agriculture, fisheries, tourism, on-
117 shore, and off-shore mining, gathering of minor forest products, and pearl farming [21].

118 The three study areas are Aborlan, a coastal municipality located in the southern part
119 of the province; Puerto Princesa City, a highly urbanized coastal city, located in the central
120 part; and Taytay, a coastal municipality located in the northern part (Fig.1). Ten (10) coastal
121 villages from these areas were chosen as study sites. Aborlan, Puerto Princesa City, and the
122 rest of southern Palawan are vulnerable to sea level rise, whereas Taytay and the rest of
123 northern Palawan are vulnerable to extreme heating events, unstable water supplies, and sea-
124 level rise, according to the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) climate
125 change exposure map (Supplementary Fig. 2) [39]. Aborlan is also highly prone to landslides,
126 while Puerto Princesa City has the highest population at risk from landslides and storm surges
127 [40]. Both areas have mainstream economic activities, including airports, seaports, malls,

128 schools, and populated urban areas on the east coast, where storms make landfall first, making
129 them more vulnerable to the effect of changing climate. Furthermore, the province of Palawan
130 is the largest producer of seaweed in the country, and Taytay is one of the main producers in
131 the province [41]. The recent onslaught of Typhoon Rai caused unprecedented losses to
132 seaweed farmers, which environmentalists identified as an escalating issue fueled by climate
133 change [41] Due to the vulnerability of the chosen study areas, they are ideally suited to explore
134 how coastal communities perceive climate change and anthropogenic pressures that impact the
135 coastal marine ecosystem.



136
137 **Figure 1.** Map of Palawan showing an inset of the Philippines, with Palawan highlighted with a light
138 red shade. Aborlan, Puerto Princesa City and Taytay are highlighted in green, orange, and red colors,
139 respectively.
140
141

142 The target populations were households within coastal marine areas in our three
143 selected study areas, and the respondents were restricted to 18 years old and above. Literacy
144 rates among the target populations were variable which is why we decided to use a face-to-face
145 survey, rather than self-completion. However, it was evident during the stakeholder workshops
146 and discussions that they have good knowledge of the local environmental conditions and
147 causes, so the topics of the survey were more familiar to them.

148

149 **2.2. Survey procedure**

150 The survey was divided into 4 questions (See supplementary material 1). The first
151 question aimed to understand if the participants believe that the climate in the locality was
152 changing, using a semantic differential (bipolar) response rating scale with anchor points (1)
153 “fully disagree” to (7) “fully agree”. The second question sought to understand the participants'
154 observations and experiences of the various climate change impacts, using a semantic
155 differential (bipolar) rating scale with anchor points (1) “very low” to (7) “very high”. The
156 third focused on perceived risks of climate change impacts on the coastal areas using a semantic
157 differential (bipolar) rating scale with anchor points (1) “fully disagree” to (7) “fully agree”
158 while the fourth question explored participants' perceived risks of climate change impacts and
159 anthropogenic pressures on coral reef and seagrass ecosystems, using a semantic differential
160 (bipolar) rating scale with anchor points (1) “very low” to (7) “very high”.

161 A two-stage pilot testing was conducted to ensure that participants would understand
162 the questions. An in-home face-to-face survey was conducted using a Computer Assisted
163 Personal Interviewing (CAPI) method, employing a tablet computer (Samsung Galaxy Tab A)
164 with a pre-loaded questionnaire available in Filipino and English languages. The questionnaire
165 was formatted using free data collection software (KoBo Toolbox v.2).

166 The development of the survey was through a co-creation approach, with most of the
167 content emerging from discussions and workshops with local stakeholders. The survey was
168 drafted in line with the eDPSEEA model which integrates human health and environmental
169 impact on the ecosystem [36]. The finalized survey was quite complex as it contained all
170 aspects of the eDPSEEA model. In this study, the focus was only on climate change awareness
171 and the perceived climate change risks in the coastal areas of Palawan.

172

173 **2.3. Data Analysis**

174 SPSS version 26.0 for Windows was used for all data analyses. The relationships
175 analyzed were the influence of the “Exposure” and “Effect” (as per the “eDPSEEA” model) on
176 the perception of climate change impacts on the coastal communities (Fig. 2). Descriptive
177 statistics (mean, standard deviation, and standard error) were used to analyze and organize the
178 characteristics of the data.

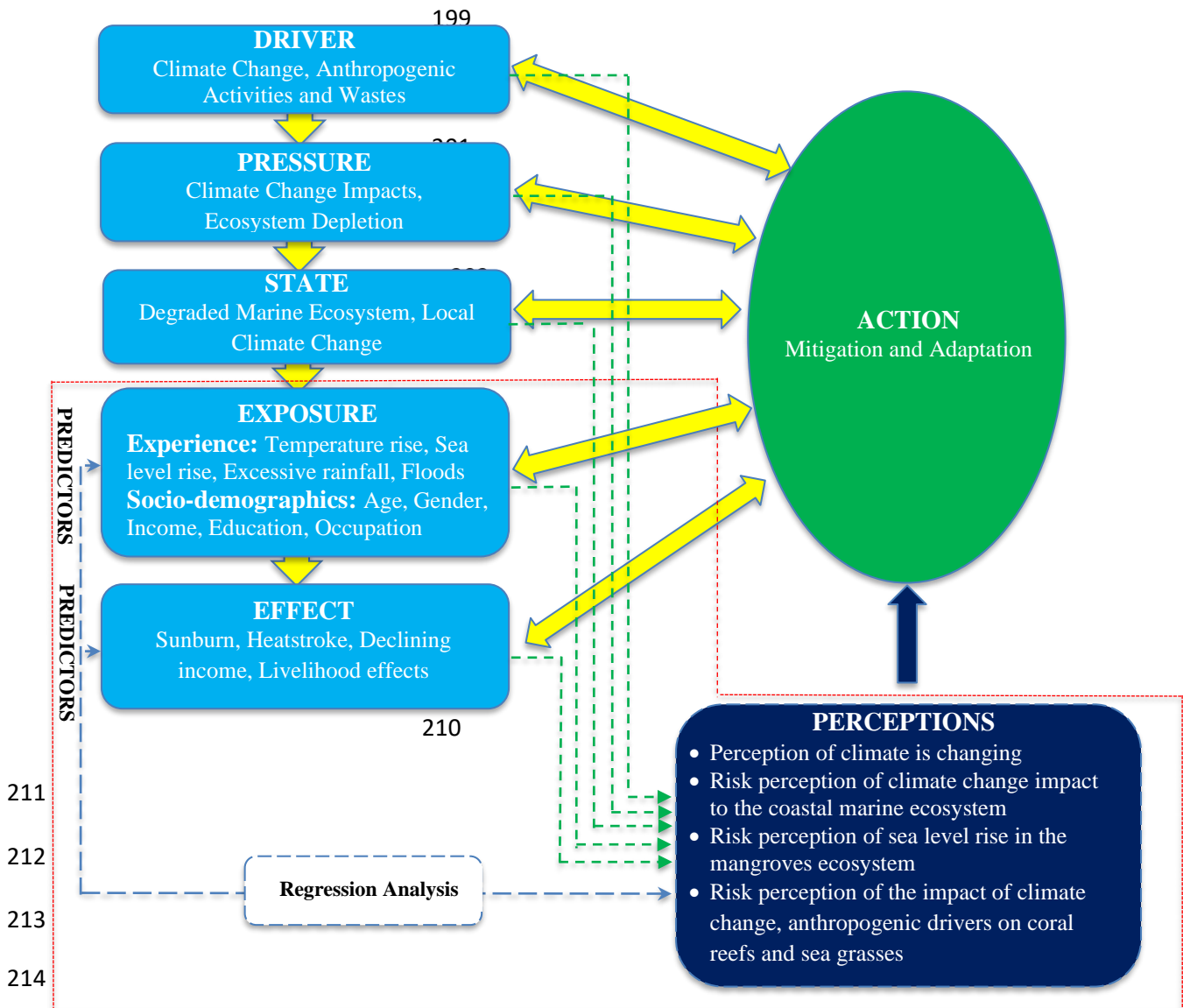
179 An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was
180 used to reduce data on risk perceptions of climate change impact in the coastal areas (6
181 variables) and on the risk perceptions of factors affecting coral reefs and seagrass beds (17
182 variables), to a smaller set of summary variables (factors) and to explore the underlying
183 theoretical structure relating to these perceptions (Supplementary Table 1 & 2) [42]. To
184 confirm if PCA was suitable, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was set at ≥ 0.70 to
185 indicate good sampling adequacy, and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was set at $p < 0.001$ to
186 confirm highly significant correlations among the variables [43,44]. The number of the retained
187 factors was based on the criterion of the eigenvalue (> 1.0) and examination of the scree plots.
188 The retained factors underwent reliability analysis with Cronbach value set at $\alpha \geq 0.70$ to
189 indicate good internal consistency [45]. Finally, we used linear regression to analyze the
190 relationships between the risk perceptions of climate change impacts and the predictors [46].

191 The risk perceptions of climate change impacts based on PCA factoring will be the outcome
 192 variables, while the personal experiences of climate-related events and socio-demographic
 193 variables will be used as predictor variables (see Supplementary Tables 1 & 2 for groupings).

194 On the risk perception of sea level rise impact on the mangrove areas, we used an
 195 additional test (paired samples t-test) to determine if the presence of mangroves compared to
 196 the absence of mangroves had a significant effect on risk perception of sea level rise impact.

197 This was followed by calculating the effect size using Cohen’s D.

198



215 **Figure 2.** Conceptual framework used in data analysis of the relationship between Predictors and Risk
 216 Perceptions of Climate Change Impacts based on eDPSEEA model. (Analysis is focused only on the
 217 highlighted, red-dotted line.)

218 **3. RESULTS**

219 **3.1. Socio-Demographics**

220 A total of 291 respondents participated (Table 1) across 10 barangays: two barangays in
 221 Aborlan, four in Taytay, and four in Puerto Princesa City, with a higher number of females
 222 (59.1%) than males (39.5%). The higher percentage of female participants was in part due to
 223 the time of day the interviews were conducted (morning and afternoon), as many male
 224 household members would have left home for work at sea, as elaborated in another paper from
 225 the same survey [47].

226

227 **Table 1.** Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents (n = 291)

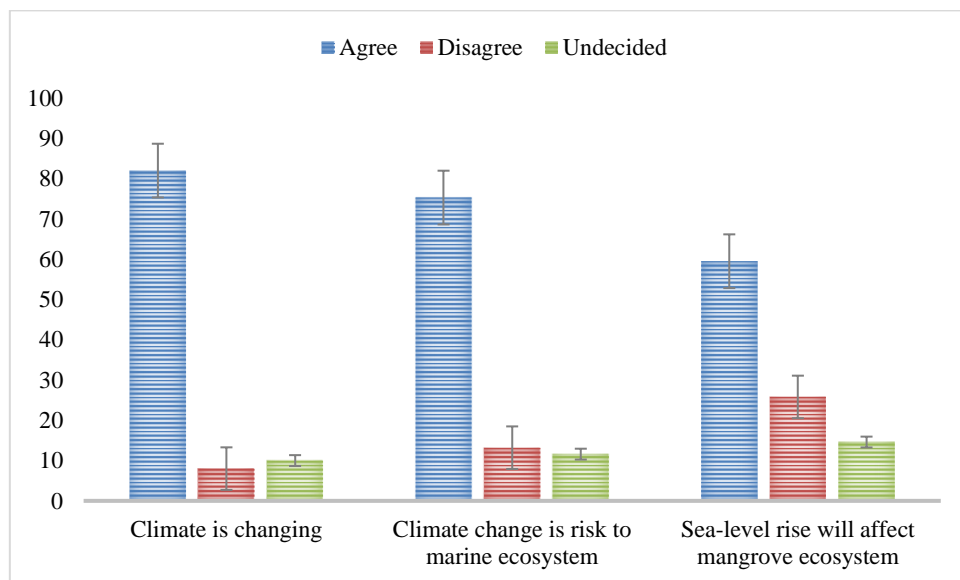
228

Category	Aborlan (n = 61)		Puerto Princesa (n = 68)		Taytay (n = 162)		Total Sample (n = 291)	
	N	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender								
Female	33	54.1	44	64.7	95	58.6	172	59.1
Male	27	44.3	23	33.8	65	40.1	115	39.5
Missing Data	1	1.5	1	1.5	2	1.2	4	1.4
Income								
Poor (< \$ 196.70 / mo.)	47	77.0	47	69.1	121	74.7	215	73.9
Not Poor (≥ \$ 196.70 / mo.)	9	14.8	18	26.5	30	18.5	57	19.6
Missing Data	5	8.2	3	4.4	11	6.8	19	6.5
Age								
19 – 29	12	19.7	10	14.7	21	13.0	43	14.8
30 – 39	15	24.6	15	22.1	33	20.4	63	21.6
40 – 49	16	26.2	21	30.9	45	27.8	82	28.2
50 – 59	10	16.4	12	17.6	31	19.13	53	18.2
60 – 99	7	11.5	9	13.2	29	17.9	45	15.5
Missing Data	1	1.6	1	1.5	3	1.9	5	1.7
Education								
Elementary	32	54.2	32	47.8	55	35.3	119	42.2
High School	23	39.0	27	40.3	75	48.1	125	44.3
College	4	6.8	8	11.9	26	16.7	38	13.5
Missing Data	2	3.3	1	1.5	6	3.7	9	3.1
Occupation								
Fisherfolk	53	86.9	57	83.8	142	87.7	252	86.6
Non-Fisherfolk	5	8.2	10	14.7	15	9.3	30	10.3
Missing Data	3	4.9	1	1.5	5	3.1	9	3.1

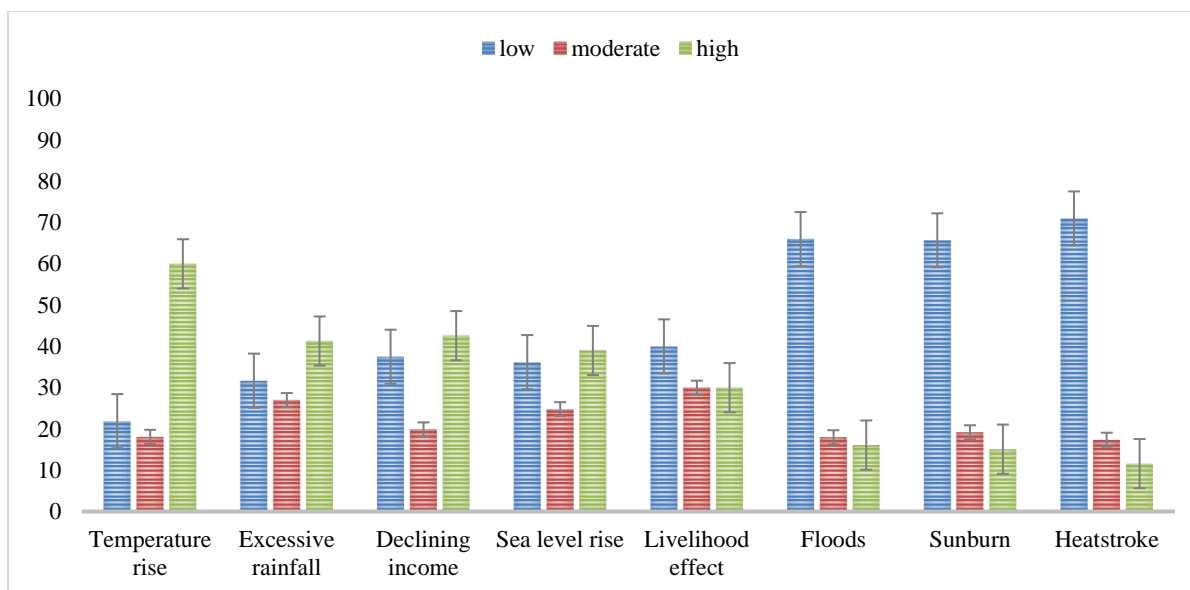
229 **3.2. Climate Change Awareness and Personal Experiences of Impacts**

230 Most of the participants (82%) agreed that the climate in their locality is changing; 8%
231 disagreed, while 10% were undecided (Fig. 3). The most common climate change impact
232 experienced by a higher proportion of participants (60%) is local temperature rise (Fig. 4).
233 Other climate change impacts that a higher proportion of the participants also experienced are
234 excessive rainfall (41.2%), declining income (42.6%), and sea level rise (39%) (Fig. 4). In
235 contrast, the climate change impacts that are less experienced by the higher proportion of the
236 participants are flooding (66%), sunburn (65.7%), heatstroke (71%) and the effects on their
237 livelihood (40%) (Fig. 4).

238 Their personal experiences with climate-related events and their awareness of climate
239 change were also analyzed. The results suggest that personal experiences with excessive
240 rainfall ($B = 0.17, p < 0.05$) and local temperature rises ($B = 0.17, p < 0.05$) are significantly
241 associated with a higher awareness of climate change (Table 2). Regarding socio-demographic
242 factors, the 40-49 years old ($B = -0.69, p < 0.05$) has significantly lower climate change
243 awareness compared with the 19-29 years old (Table 3).



244 **Figure 3.** Proportion of participants who perceived that the climate in their locality is changing; climate change
245 is a risk to the coastal marine ecosystem, and sea-level rise will affect the mangrove ecosystem (n = 291).
246 (Percentage was based on valid responses).
247
248
249



250
251
252 **Figure 4.** Proportion of participants who perceive low, moderate, or high frequency of experience of various
253 climate change impacts. The response options provided to the participants is a bipolar rating scale: 1 = very low
254 to 7 = very high. Low category included scores 1-3, Moderate category score 4, and High category scores 5-7 n =
255 291. (graph whiskers are standard error of the mean).

256

257 **Table 2.** Results of linear regression model exploring the association between participants' personal experience
258 and climate change awareness; personal experience and risk perception of climate change impacts in the coastal
259 marine ecosystem in Palawan, Philippines (standard errors in parenthesis).

260

Predictors (Experiences)	Outcome Variables (Awareness and Risk Perceptions)		
	Climate Change Awareness	Risk Perception of Climate Change Impact on Coastal Marine Ecosystem ¹	Risk Perception of Sea Level Rise Impact on Mangroves Ecosystem ¹
Constant (B)	4.497 (0.40) ***	4.733 (0.49) ***	3.650 (0.43) ***
Local temperature rise	0.17* (0.08)	0.01 (0.09)	-0.03 (0.08)
Sea level rise	0.09 (0.07)	0.19* (0.09)	0.36*** (0.08)
Excessive rainfall	0.17* (0.08)	0.01 (0.10)	0.07 (0.09)
Floods	-0.06 (0.07)	-0.16 (0.08)	-0.03 (0.08)
Heatstroke	-0.01 (0.07)	-	-
Sunburn	0.06 (0.06)	-	-
Declining income	0.16 (.09)	0.11 (0.10)	-0.14 (0.09)
Livelihood effect	-0.17 (0.09)	-0.13 (0.11)	0.03 (0.10)

261

262 *** $p < 0.001$; * $p < 0.05$

263 ¹ Variable obtained from the data reduction method (PCA) see Supplementary Table 1

264 Note: Heat stroke and sunburn were used as predictors only in climate change awareness.

265

266

267

268 **Table 3.** Results of linear regression model exploring the association between participants’ socio-demographic
 269 characteristics and their awareness; socio-demographic characteristics and risk perceptions of climate change
 270 impacts in the coastal marine ecosystem in Palawan, Philippines (standard errors in parenthesis).
 271

Predictors (Experiences)	Outcome Variables (Awareness and Risk Perceptions)		
	Climate Change Awareness	Risk Perception of Climate Change Impact on Coastal Marine Ecosystem ¹	Risk Perception of Sea Level Rise Impact on Mangroves Ecosystem ¹
Constant (B)	6.429 (0.51) ***	4.296 (0.57) ***	4.467 (0.54) ***
Gender (ref = male)	-	-	-
Female	-0.18 (0.22)	0.69 (0.25) **	0.25 (0.23)
Education Level (ref = Elementary)	-	-	-
High School	0.27 (0.24)	0.33 (0.26)	0.29 (0.25)
College	0.58 (0.33)	0.64 (0.37)	0.28 (0.34)
Income (ref = poor)	-	-	-
Not Poor	0.28 (0.27)	0.59 (0.29) *	-0.24 (0.27)
Occupation (ref = non-fisherfolks)	-	-	-
Fisherfolks	-0.17 (0.36)	0.16 (0.41)	-0.42 (0.38)
Age Group (ref = 19 – 29 years old)	-	-	-
30 – 39 years old	-0.36 (0.35)	-0.12 (0.39)	0.60 (0.36)
40 – 49 years old	-0.69 (0.33) *	-0.05 (0.37)	0.78 (0.34) *
50 – 59 years old	-0.16 (0.36)	0.57 (0.41)	1.40 (0.37) ***
60 – 99 years old	-0.07 (0.38)	0.84 (0.43)	1.35 (0.41) ***
Study Sites (ref = Puerto Princesa)	-	-	-
Aborlan	-0.50 (0.32)	-0.15 (0.36)	-0.76 (0.33) *
Taytay	-0.27 (0.26)	0.01 (0.28)	-0.59 (0.27) *

272
 273 *** $p < 0.001$; * $p < 0.05$.

274 ¹ Variable obtained from the data reduction method (PCA) see Supplementary Table 1
 275

276 3.3. Risk Perception of Climate Change Impact on the Coastal Marine Ecosystem

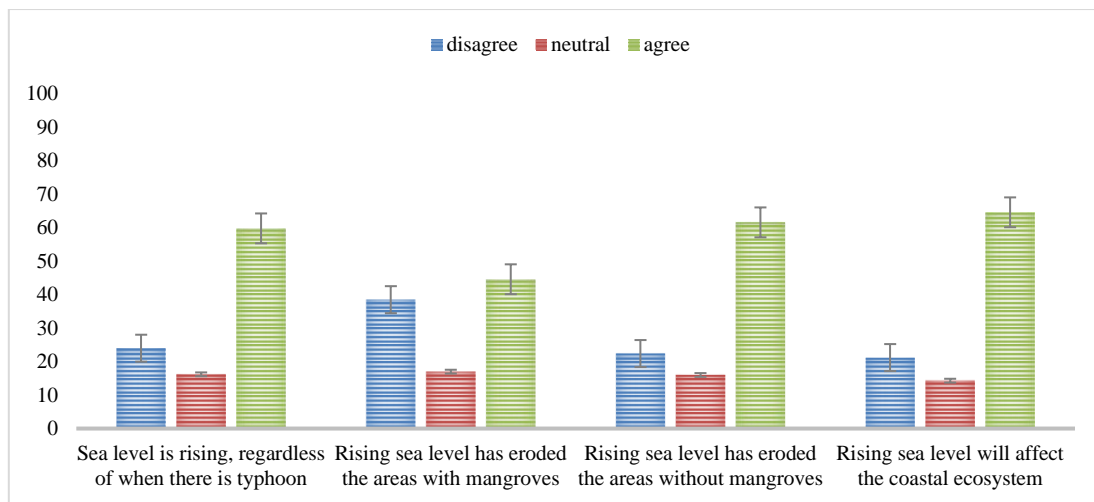
277 The “climate change impact on the coastal marine ecosystem” factor resulted from the
 278 PCA of two variables (Supplementary Table 1). Most of the participants (75%) perceived that
 279 “climate change impact” is a risk to the mangrove ecosystem as well as to the function and
 280 structure of the whole coastal marine ecosystem (Fig. 5). The personal experience of sea level

281 rise ($B = 0.19, p < 0.05$) was the only significant risk perception predictor of the impact of
282 climate change on the coastal marine ecosystem. Females were also found to have a higher risk
283 perception ($B = 0.69, p < 0.05$) than males. Further, the not-poor group ($B = 0.59, p < 0.05$)
284 had a significantly higher risk perception than the poor group. Other socio-demographic
285 predictors did not show significant differences (Table 3).

286

287 **3.4. Risk Perception of Sea Level Rise Impacts on the Mangrove Ecosystem**

288 The “sea level rise impact” factor was a result of the PCA of four variables
289 (Supplementary Table 1). In general, the “sea level rise impact” was perceived by many
290 (59.5%) of the participants to cause coastal erosion to areas without mangroves and will affect
291 the mangrove ecosystem, and the sea level is rising regardless of when there is a typhoon (Fig.
292 6). Analysis of the individual variables in the sea level rise impact showed that 60% agreed
293 that the sea level was rising regardless of typhoon occurrence. Most participants also perceived
294 that the sea level rise had eroded areas without mangroves (61.6%) and that it will affect the
295 coastal ecosystem (64.6%). A considerable portion of the participants (44.6%) also perceived
296 that sea level rise had eroded areas with mangroves (Fig. 7). The impact of sea level rise on
297 coastal erosion based on the participants’ perception in areas with mangroves and without
298 mangroves displayed a significant difference; $t = -6.65, p < 0.001$ (Supplementary Table 3).
299 Further, Cohen’s d value ($d = 0.42$) suggested a moderate effect size.



300

301 **Figure 5.** Proportion of participants' risk perceptions on the individual variables regarding "sea-level rise
 302 impacts". n = 291
 303

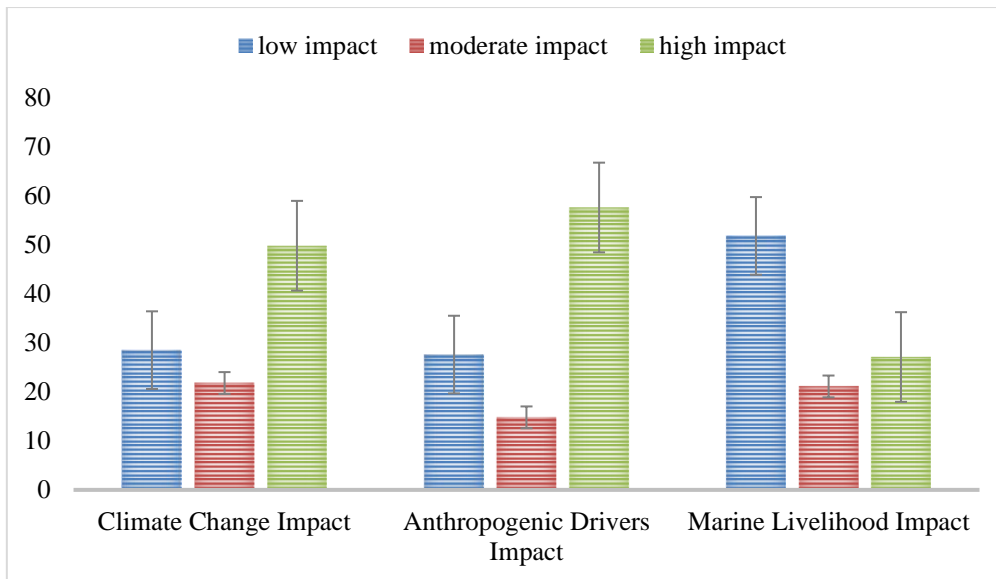
304 In our analysis, the personal experiences or observations of rising sea level was the
 305 strongest predictor of the risk perception of sea level rise impact ($B = 0.36, p < 0.001$).
 306 Furthermore, the 60-99 years old ($B = 1.35, p < 0.05$), the 50-59 years old ($B = 1.41, p < 0.05$)
 307 and the 40 – 49 years old groups ($B = 0.78, p < 0.05$) have a significantly higher risk perception
 308 than the 19-29 years old group (Table 3). The study site was also found to influence the risk
 309 perception of sea level rise impact as the Aborlan ($B = -0.76, p < 0.05$) and Taytay ($B = -0.59,$
 310 $p < 0.05$) participants have significantly lower risk perception as compared with Puerto
 311 Princesa City participants.

312

313 **3.5. Risk Perceptions of the Factors Affecting the Coral Reefs and Seagrass Beds**

314 Three factors affecting the coral reefs and seagrass beds were derived from PCA,
 315 namely: climate change impacts, anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihood
 316 (Supplementary Table 2). Results showed that most of the participants perceived the
 317 anthropogenic pressures (57.6%) and climate change (50.3%) to have a high impact on the
 318 coral reefs and seagrass beds, while marine livelihood was perceived to have a low impact
 319 (51.8%) (Fig. 8).

320



321

322 **Figure 6.** Proportion of participants who perceive low, moderate, or high impacts to coral reefs and sea grass
 323 beds from different drivers. The response options provided to the participants is a bipolar rating scale: 1 = very
 324 low to 7 = very high. Low category included scores 1-3, Moderate category score 4, and High category scores 5-
 325 7 n = 291.

326

327 The local temperature rise is a significant predictor of the perceived climate change
 328 impact ($B = 0.16, p < 0.05$), anthropogenic pressures ($B = 0.25, p < 0.01$) and marine livelihood
 329 impact ($B = 0.21, p < 0.01$) (Table 4). Additionally, excessive rainfall and declining income are
 330 perceived as significant risk predictors of climate change impact and anthropogenic pressures
 331 (Table 4).

332 On socio-demographic variables, the group categorized as “not poor” have a
 333 significantly higher risk perception of climate change impact ($B = 0.94, p < 0.001$),
 334 anthropogenic pressures ($B = 1.19, p < 0.001$), and marine livelihood ($B = 1.07, p < 0.001$)
 335 compared to poor participants. The high school group ($B = 0.51, p < 0.05$) has shown a
 336 significantly higher risk perception of climate change impact compared with the elementary
 337 group. On the other hand, the 40-49 years old group ($B = -0.73, p < 0.05$) has shown also
 338 significantly lower risk perception compared with 19-29 years old.

339

340

341 **Table 4.** Results of linear regression predicting the participants' risk perception of climate change impact,
 342 anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihood from their personal experiences of climate-related events in the
 343 coastal marine environment of Palawan, Philippines (standard error in parenthesis).
 344

Predictor variables	Perceived Impacts on Corals reefs and Seagrasses (Outcome Variables)		
	Climate Change Impact ¹	Anthropogenic Drivers Impact ¹	Marine Livelihood Impact ¹
Constant (B)	2.19*** (0.36)	2.27*** (0.39)	1.41** (0.46)
Local temperature rise	0.16 (0.07) *	0.26*** (0.08)	0.21** (0.09)
Sea level rise	0.08 (0.07)	-0.01 (0.07)	0.03 (0.09)
Excessive rainfall	0.19 (0.08) *	0.16* (0.08)	0.09 (0.10)
Floods	-0.10 (0.06)	-0.08 (0.07)	-0.07 (0.08)
Declining income	0.30 (0.07) ***	0.19* (0.08)	0.09 (0.08)
Livelihood effect	-0.05 (0.08)	-0.01 (0.09)	0.08 (0.11)

345 * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

346 ¹ Variable obtained from the data reduction method (PCA) see Supplementary Table 2

347
 348
 349 **Table 5.** Results of linear regression analysis predicting the participants' risk perceptions of climate change
 350 impact, anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihood from key socio-demographic characteristics in the
 351 coastal marine environment of Palawan, Philippines (standard error in parenthesis).
 352

Predictor variables	Perceived Impacts on Corals reefs and Seagrasses (Outcome Variables)		
	Climate Change Impact ¹	Anthropogenic Drivers Impact ¹	Marine Livelihood Impact ¹
Constant (B)	3.658 (0.48) ***	4.162 (0.52) ***	3.862 (0.56) ***
Gender (ref = male)	-	-	-
Female	0.27 (0.21)	0.22 (0.22)	0.10 (0.25)
Education Level (ref = Elementary)	-	-	-
High School	0.51 (0.22) *	0.14 (0.24)	-0.14 (0.27)
College	0.30 (0.33)	0.23 (0.35)	0.18 (0.39)
Income (ref = poor)	-	-	-
Not Poor	0.94 (0.24) ***	1.16 (0.26) ***	1.073 (0.30) ***
Occupation (ref = non-fisher folks)	-	-	-
Fisher folks	0.20 (0.35)	0.08 (0.37)	-0.28 (0.42)
Age Group (ref = 19 – 29 years old)	-	-	-
30 – 39 years old	-0.40 (0.33)	-0.43 (0.35)	-0.62 (0.39)
40 – 49 years old	-0.40 (0.31)	-0.52 (0.33)	-0.73 (0.36) *
50 – 59 years old	-0.41 (0.34)	-0.52 (0.37)	-0.38 (0.41)

60 – 99 years old	-0.19 (0.37)	-0.42 (0.40)	0.04 (0.44)
Study Sites (ref = Puerto Princesa)	-	-	-
Aborlan	0.14 (0.30)	0.53 (0.33)	0.55 (0.37)
Taytay	0.29 (0.24)	0.46 (0.26)	0.52 (0.29)

353 * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; $p < 0.001$

354 ¹ Variable obtained from the data reduction method (PCA) see Supplementary Table 2

355

356

357 4. DISCUSSION

358 The results from this study contribute to a greater understanding of the relationship
359 between coastal community perceptions and climate change impacts which, in turn, adds
360 knowledge to the gaps about how to involve the public in building climate change resilient
361 efforts.

362

363 4.1. Role of Personal Experiences in Shaping Climate Change Awareness and Risk 364 Perceptions

365 Climate change awareness and risk perceptions can be shaped by direct experiences of
366 extreme weather events, local weather anomalies [48,49] and climate-related livelihood
367 damages [50,51].

368

369 4.1.1 Experience with Extreme Weather Events and Anomalies

370 In our results, most study participants (82%) perceived that climate change was
371 happening and this is consistent with the results from a nationwide survey conducted in the
372 Philippines in February 2021, which found that 83% of Filipinos believe the climate is
373 changing [52]. Of the various extreme weather events and weather anomalies, the personal
374 experience of temperature rise is the strongest predictor of climate change in Asian and African
375 countries [27–29]. Our analysis showed that the personal experience of temperature rise was a
376 significant predictor of climate change awareness. These findings are in line with more

377 evidence suggesting that personal experiences of local weather anomalies (i.e., local
378 temperature rises) and extreme weather events could influence perceptions and attitudes toward
379 climate change [29,53–56]. This study also found that the person's own experience with
380 excessive rainfall is another significant predictor of climate change awareness. Excessive
381 rainfall is an unusual occurrence in Palawan and may not significantly impact climate change
382 perception because it cannot be easily recalled [48,57]. However, the excessive rainfall brought
383 by typhoon Ketsana (2009) may have left a lasting impression. Previous study suggests that
384 deviations from normal occurrences, such as excessive rainfall, may be perceived by locals as
385 an indicator of climate change [58]. Other studies also show that experiences of climate-related
386 events can generate climate change concern and awareness if they are: (1) unusual weather
387 events compared to local historical events; and (2) they are associated with significant financial
388 and/or personal damages [49–51]. This study was not able to capture the perceived impacts of
389 the recent typhoon Rai devastation in Palawan in the last quarter of 2021 which the researchers
390 believe would be significant in changing the perception of those who are skeptical of climate
391 change. Further research in relation to excessive rainfall, flooding, and change in weather
392 patterns is recommended in Palawan to promote climate change awareness and concern.

393 This study also analyzed the relationship between personal experience of extreme
394 weather events and anomalies with the perceived impacts of climate change, anthropogenic
395 drivers, and marine livelihood on the seagrasses and coral reefs (Table 4). The findings
396 revealed that the perceived risks brought by anthropogenic drivers and climate change impacts
397 were found to be significantly associated with personal experiences of local temperature rise
398 and excessive rainfall. The findings also revealed that study participants perceived
399 anthropogenic drivers to be the major factor damaging coral reefs and seagrasses. Climate
400 change was also perceived to have a high impact on the coral reefs and seagrasses but to a
401 lesser extent than anthropogenic drivers. The perception of the participants is in line with a

402 previous study which revealed that anthropogenic drivers pose a far greater immediate threat
403 to coral reefs than climate change [59]. It must be noted that anthropogenic drivers and climate
404 change impacts are interconnected and that anthropogenic drivers are the reason why there are
405 climate change impacts. Thus, the impact of both anthropogenic drivers and climate change
406 must be viewed as per our conceptual framework (Fig. 2). Moreover, our findings that the
407 experience of local temperature rise influences the perceived impacts of climate change and
408 anthropogenic drivers is supported by the empirical evidence about the observed ocean
409 temperature rise trend in different regions of the world [60]. The warmer temperatures can
410 cause coral reefs to bleach and seagrasses to alter growth rates, resulting in reef fish deaths
411 [61,62]. In addition, anthropogenic drivers result in the contamination of aquatic environments
412 which is one of the leading types of pollution that has significant negative impacts on coral
413 reefs and seagrasses [63]. This study also found that personal experience of excessive rainfall
414 is a significant predictor of the anthropogenic drivers and climate change impact on the
415 seagrasses and coral reefs (Table 4). Excessive rainfall results in increased runoff of freshwater,
416 sediment, and land-based pollutants which increase algal blooms and turbidity, thereby
417 inhibiting light penetration that is necessary for the survival and growth of coral and seagrass
418 ecosystems [64–66].

419 Personal experience of local temperature rise was also found to be significantly
420 associated with the perceived marine livelihood impact on seagrasses and coral reefs. The
421 warming of the oceans means fewer marketable fish species to catch which in turn induces
422 overfishing and illegal fishing activities [67,68]. These destructive fishing practices have been
423 identified as the primary threat to coral reefs and the quality of the coastal marine environment
424 [47,69]. On the other hand, long-term fish cage operations, if poorly located and managed, will
425 result in the reduction of the abundance and diversity of benthic species and the degradation of
426 the surrounding habitats [70,71].

427 Our findings suggest that the perceptions of the coastal residents are consistent with the
428 established scientific information that anthropogenic drivers, climate change impacts, and
429 marine livelihoods significantly impact coral reefs and seagrasses. Since these perceived
430 impacts are significantly associated with local temperature rise and excessive rainfall, it is
431 therefore suggested that when communicating climate change risks and mitigation measures to
432 the coastal communities should start with explaining the impacts of local temperature rise and
433 excessive rainfall. In this way, the coastal people can easily relate to and understand. Giving
434 coastal communities a high level of climate-relevant knowledge on the impact of climate
435 change and anthropogenic drivers on corals and seagrasses is vital for preserving reef systems
436 and accepting climate change policies [72]. Our results also open an exciting new avenue of
437 study focused on what and how the coastal communities are doing to preserve reef ecosystems.
438 Specifically, on how they adapt and mitigate the impact of climate change and reduce
439 anthropogenic drivers on the corals and seagrasses. Moreover, we suggest explanatory or
440 applied scientific research to determine the impact of climatic and anthropogenic drivers on
441 corals and seagrasses.

442

443 **4.1.2 Experience with Sea Level Rise**

444 Climate change is a disaster risk driver and is perceived by the coastal residents (75%)
445 in this study to impact the mangroves and the coastal marine ecosystem. This is higher public
446 concern about the risk brought about by climate change compared to 67% in a nationwide
447 survey in 2018 (Philippines) [73]. The higher climate change concern among the coastal
448 community compared to the public can be attributed to the higher vulnerability of coastal areas
449 to adverse impacts caused by climate stressors on their surroundings and livelihoods which
450 shape people's climate risk perception [74,75]. However, 25% of the participants are skeptical
451 and do not consider climate change as a coastal risk driver. This could be attributed to the

452 perception of some coastal communities that the land along the coastal margin will persist
453 permanently, and that those living there will be safe from natural coastal hazards (apart from
454 rare storm surge events) [76].

455 Personal experience of sea-level rise was found to be significantly associated with
456 climate change risk perception to the mangrove ecosystem and the marine coastal ecosystem
457 which is consistent with many studies that sea-level rise is the main threat to the coastal
458 ecosystem [7,15]. Our findings are also in line with earlier research that showed experience is
459 one of the factors affecting how people perceive and respond to sea level rise impacts [48].
460 Notably, this study also found out that only 59.5% of the participants agree that sea-level rise
461 will cause coastal erosion and affect the coastal ecosystem (Fig. 7). The skepticism expressed
462 by 40.5% of the participants that sea-level rise will cause major damage to coastal areas could
463 be attributed to the perception that mangroves can prevent coastal erosion (Fig. 7). Nationwide,
464 the skeptical risk perceptions of sea level rise impact could be attributed to a lack of prominence
465 given by the media outlets to the phenomenon [77]. Coastal residents in the Philippines tend to
466 disregard the risk of sea level rise possibly because of their fisheries' livelihood, causing them
467 to generally prefer in situ adaptation strategies rather than relocation to the mainland [78]. This
468 is in line with findings in a study conducted in the US Gulf Region where public perceptions
469 of sea level rise remain to be a temporally distant issue among coastal residents [79]. In
470 contrast, research in New Zealand found that adults were overestimating the amount of sea-
471 level rise expected by 2100 which can result in feeling anxious rather than being motivated to
472 mitigate and adapt [76]. Overestimation of sea-level rise impact in New Zealand results from
473 indiscriminate media reporting of the sea level rise warning that it could reach 5 m by 2100
474 [76].

475 The results revealed that 61.6% of the participants perceived that coastal areas without
476 mangroves are eroded by sea level rise, compared to only 44.6% who perceived that areas with

477 mangroves are also eroded, implying that most of them are aware of how important mangroves
478 are to preventing coastal erosion (Fig. 5). This awareness can result in mangrove preservation
479 for their protection. Our findings suggest the importance of training and communication tools
480 to effectively relay information about coastal risks brought on by climate change and the
481 impacts of sea level rise to help motivate coastal residents to act. By educating coastal
482 communities about the importance of mangrove preservation and building their capacity to
483 manage mangrove forests sustainably, climate-friendly policies were more likely to be
484 supported [9,59].

485

486 **4.1.3 Experience with Climate-Related Livelihood Damages**

487

488 Coastal and low-income communities are most vulnerable to climate change impacts
489 [61,80]. Our results showed that participants perceive that declining income is the strongest
490 predictor of climate change and anthropogenic drivers' impact on seagrasses and coral reefs
491 (Table 4). The impact is already felt by fishers by getting lower revenue which creates a domino
492 effect of several other socio-economic consequences including low economic standing, non-
493 existent social welfare or pension systems for fishers, and poor health and living standards for
494 their families [61,81]. Fisherfolks perceived that loss of income was a result of climate change
495 impacts such as rising sea levels, excessive rainfall, temperature rise, the decline in fish catch,
496 and loss of coral reefs, and seagrass cover [61]. Additionally, anthropogenic drivers also result
497 in damaging the coral reefs and seagrass meadows, thereby reducing seaweed farmers' and
498 fisherfolk's incomes [63,69]. It is therefore necessary for these vulnerable fishers in the coastal
499 areas to acquire different adaptation and coping strategies to mitigate these impacts [82,83]. To
500 enhance their resilience to the impacts, fishers need development assistance that protects their
501 well-being, prioritizes alternative livelihoods, and provides technical skills training [61,84,85].
502 Additionally, the coastal community must support the preservation of mangroves, seagrass,

503 and coral reefs, which provide a habitat for important commercial and recreational species and
504 stabilize the seafloor [61,86,87].

505

506 **4.2. Role of Socio-Demographic Factors in Shaping Climate Change Awareness and** 507 **Risk Perceptions**

508 Understanding population demographics and heterogeneity is essential for improving
509 our understanding of climate change and risk perceptions of the impacts. Our results showed
510 that age, educational attainment, household income, and study sites influence the climate
511 change awareness and risk perceptions of the participants.

512

513 **4.2.1 Gender**

514 The results showed that women have a higher risk perception of climate change's
515 impact on the coastal marine ecosystem than men. This is consistent with findings that women
516 consistently have a higher risk perception and express slightly greater concern about climate
517 change compared to men [88,89]. Women tend to have a higher sensitivity to environmental
518 concerns compared to men due to their higher levels of socialization, rich local social networks,
519 and being more socially responsible [91,92]. The gender gap in perceiving climate change
520 hasn't changed much since 2010, even though men's understanding of the scientific consensus
521 has improved over time [90]. The United Nations has recognized that the climate change crisis is
522 not "gender neutral" because women are more vulnerable to its effects than men, primarily because
523 they make up the majority of the world's poor and are more dependent on natural resources for their
524 survival, which is under threat from climate change [93,94]. Therefore, it is imperative that
525 policymakers should aim to advance the implementation of gender-responsive climate policies and
526 mandates across all areas of discussion when taking actions to mitigate the impact of climate
527 change [95].

528

529 **4.2.2 Educational Attainment**

530 Climate change's impact on coral reefs and seagrasses is perceived differently
531 depending on educational attainment, in line with previous studies which showed that those
532 with higher education tend to have more concern for the environment [96,97]. Surprisingly the
533 high school category has a slightly higher risk perception than the college category, although
534 they are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$. The slight difference could be attributed to the
535 fact that there is a higher ratio of women to men among the college group (65%) compared to
536 the high school group (51%) (See Supplementary Fig. 1). A previous study showed that
537 women's self-perceived knowledge is higher than men's among people with low levels of
538 education but higher for men among people with high levels of education [98]. It should be
539 noted, however, that our study had some gender imbalances, so we should be cautious when
540 interpreting the interaction between gender and education results.

541

542 **4.2.3 Income**

543 Poor households have a significantly lower risk perception of climate change's impact
544 on the coastal marine ecosystem (Table 3), which is in line with another study conducted in
545 Singapore which found that low-income households reported a lower level of knowledge
546 compared with higher-income households [99]. Poor households also have significantly lower
547 risk perceptions of the impact of climate change, anthropogenic pressures, and marine
548 livelihood on sea grasses and coral reefs compared with not-poor households (Table 5). Lower
549 climate change risk perception for poor households compared to not-poor households could be
550 explained by the fact that low-income households and communities develop academic skills at
551 a slower rate than those from higher-income groups [99]. Poverty levels are strongly linked to
552 educational attainment. In the Philippines, the heads of two of three poor households have only

553 reached elementary education and below [100]. Further, the lack of economic resources was a
554 major barrier to paying attention to climate change, as they had more pressing priorities, such
555 as the financial pressure of daily living [101]. For poor households who face more financial
556 pressure than high-income households, climate change is less likely to be a concern.

557

558 **4.2.4 Age**

559 The 19 – 29-year-old group has higher climate change awareness and risk perception
560 of marine livelihood impact on coral reefs and seagrasses compared with other age groups (see
561 Table 3 &5), in line with other studies that report the younger generation in the USA worries
562 more about the effects of global warming than the older generation [32]. In contrast, for the
563 risk perception of sea-level rise impact on the mangrove ecosystem, the older generations group
564 was found to have the higher risk perception compared with 19-29 years old. (Table 3).
565 Scientific knowledge about the causes, impacts, and solutions to climate change generally
566 increases with age, as would be expected with increased scientific education and exposure to
567 information [102]. Having lived many years and experienced the various changes that have
568 taken place in coastal areas, the older generation may have acquired enough wisdom or
569 experienced enough changes in their youth to know about the threat climate change poses
570 [102]. This could be because younger generations have less experience and exposure to the
571 impact of rising sea levels and since older generations have more experience, they perceive
572 greater damage caused by sea-level rise compared with younger generations.

573

574 **4.2.5 Location**

575 Puerto Princesa City participants have higher climate change awareness compared
576 with Aborlan and Taytay participants (Table 3). These results suggest that climate change
577 awareness might be influenced by geographical context [33,103]. The differences in climate

578 change awareness could be attributed to the more publicized people's participation in the
579 reforestation of mangroves in Puerto Princesa which has been going on for more than two
580 decades and resulted in the planting of millions of mangrove trees, thereby increasing beach
581 coverage. [103–105]. In Aborlan and Taytay, which are more rural than Puerto Princesa, there
582 are fewer environmental conservation activities publicized and participants have limited media
583 coverage of those activities, which may explain the lower climate change awareness [105,106].
584 Similarly, Puerto Princesa participants have significantly lower risk perception ($p < 0.05$) of
585 the impact of marine livelihood on the sea grasses and coral reefs as compared with Aborlan
586 participants (Table 5). Further studies are necessary to conclude a causal association between
587 the differences in perceptions.

588

589 **4.3. Limitations**

590 The findings of this study must be seen considering some limitations. The first is that
591 we did not include in this study questions about how they perceived the impact of climate
592 change on their livelihood and food security. These additional factors could be significant in
593 determining how people perceive the overall impact of climate change, which will help
594 communities and policymakers to develop more environmentally sustainable and socially
595 adaptable programs. However, we intend to address these limitations in future studies.

596 The second limitation concerns the state of ecosystems impacted by climate change in
597 the coastal areas. Directly cross-verifying the state of ecosystems impacted by climate change
598 and the historical data of climate-related events in the coastal areas compared to their
599 perceptions would give a good measurement of their current level of climate-relevant
600 knowledge. Nevertheless, their perceptions are useful in understanding their mental model.
601 Furthermore, this limitation is another avenue for potential future research.

602

603 5. CONCLUSIONS

604 As the impacts of climate change are likely to worsen the problems in vulnerable coastal
605 areas, it is important to understand how experiences of climate-related events and various
606 socio-demographic characteristics of the coastal community shape their awareness and risk
607 perceptions. This study suggests that while coastal communities in our study sites have a high
608 awareness (82%) of climate change, the remaining 18% are still notably unaware that climate
609 change is happening. The most common climate change impacts observed or experienced by
610 the participants are temperature rise and excessive rainfall. In descending order, other impacts
611 of climate change experienced or observed by the participants in low frequency include
612 declining income, sea-level rise, flood, sunburn, and heat stroke. Among these climate change
613 experiences, temperature rise, and excessive rainfall are significant predictors of climate
614 change awareness.

615 Experience or observation of sea-level rise is a significant predictor of risk perception
616 of climate change impacts on the mangroves and coastal marine ecosystem. This study also
617 established that “women” and “not poor” participants perceived the risk of climate change to
618 the coastal marine ecosystem as higher compared to the reference groups. Furthermore, the 19-
619 29 years old group has higher climate change awareness and more concern about marine
620 livelihood impact on coral reefs and seagrasses compared with other age groups. In contrast,
621 the 19-29 years old group has lower risk perception compared with older age groups in the risk
622 perception of sea-level rise impact on the mangrove ecosystem. Moreover, the risk perception
623 of sea level rise impact is influenced by geographical context.

624 Most participants perceived that anthropogenic drivers and climate change have a high
625 impact on the coral reefs and seagrasses, while marine livelihood is perceived as having a low
626 impact. Local temperature rise, excessive rainfall, and declining income are significant
627 predictors of these risk perceptions. Education has a significant influence on the risk perception

628 of the impact of climate change on coral reefs and seagrasses. While the “not poor” participants
629 have significantly higher risk perception compared to the “poor” group in perceiving the impact
630 of the various factors affecting coral reefs and seagrasses.

631 Future research on climate change mitigation should focus on how to improve the
632 coastal community’s awareness and increase their willingness to support climate-friendly
633 policies. There is a need for a bespoke climate change “knowledge management system” and
634 risk communication tools for different demographics to further increase awareness and concern
635 for a healthy and sustainable coastal community. By addressing these issues from an
636 interdisciplinary perspective, we can build adaptive capacity and reduce the vulnerability of
637 coastal communities.

638

639 **6. DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

640 The datasets presented in this article and from the entire survey will be made open
641 access after an embargo period currently under discussion with the international consortium.
642 Requests to access the datasets should be directed to the last author.

643

644 **7. ETHICS STATEMENT**

645 The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by the
646 University of Exeter Medical School Research Ethics Committee (May19/B/185) and
647 Philippines National Ethics Committee (2019-002-Creencia-Blue). The patients/participants
648 provided their written informed consent to participate in this study.

649

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655

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662

663 **10. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

664 LA: conceived and design the analysis, development, and design of methodology, performed
665 analysis, wrote the original draft, revised, and edited the paper. JRV: collected data, contributed
666 to methodology and analysis, performed analysis, reviewed, and edited the paper. KM:
667 collected data, reviewed, and edited the paper. JBJ: contributed data, reviewed, and edited the
668 paper. LC: collected data, supervised, reviewed, and edited the paper. FC: contributed to
669 methodology, reviewed, and edited the paper. All authors contributed to the article and
670 approved the submitted version.

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677 **11. REFERENCES**

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987 **Supplementary Table 1.** Perceptions of climate change impact in the coastal areas. The
 988 response options provided to the respondents was a bipolar rating scale: 1 = fully disagree to 7
 989 = fully agree. n = 291

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Perceptions	Responses (%)							Missing (%)	Mean	SD	Loadings
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
Climate Change Impact on coastal marine ecosystem¹	9.5	0.8	2.9	11.6	14.9	21.1	39.3	16.8	5.41^a	1.87	
Climate Change is a threat to the mangroves	12.8	1.7	2.1	16.7	15.8	16.2	34.6	19.6	5.08	2.00	0.94
Climate Change is a threat to the coastal ecosystem	10.5	1.3	0.4	12.2	11.8	18.1	45.8	18.2	5.51	1.92	0.94
Sea level rise impact on mangroves ecosystem¹	11.2	5.2	9.4	14.6	14.2	22.8	22.5	8.2	4.74^a	1.97	
Sea level is rising, regardless of when there is typhoon	18.0	1.5	4.5	16.2	9.8	12.0	38.0	8.6	4.86	2.24	0.79
Rising sea level has eroded the areas with mangroves	30.4	1.6	6.5	17.0	9.7	13.0	21.9	15.1	4.0	2.34	0.72
Rising sea level has eroded the areas without mangroves	15.6	2.0	4.8	16.0	11.2	13.2	37.2	14.1	4.94	2.16	0.86
Rising sea level will affect the coastal ecosystem	15.1	1.6	4.5	14.3	13.9	17.6	33.1	15.8	4.95	2.10	0.79

991 ^a Factor means

992 ¹ Factor obtained from data reduction thru Principal Component Analysis of perceived climate change impact in the
 993 coastal areas

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1003 **Supplementary Table 2.** Perceptions of factors affecting the coral reefs and seagrass beds.
 1004 The response options provided to the respondents was a bipolar rating scale: 1 = fully disagree
 1005 to 7 = fully agree. n = 291
 1006

Factors	Responses (%)							Missing (%)	Mean	SD	Loadings
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
Climate Change Impacts ¹	9.2	5.9	13.4	21.8	24.7	14.2	10.9	17.9	4.28 ^a	1.53	
Temperature rise	13.0	3.5	11.3	18.6	26.8	12.1	14.7	20.6	4.38	1.84	0.73
Excessive rainfall	16.6	4.7	9.4	26.0	21.3	12.8	9.4	19.2	4.06	1.83	0.76
El niño (drought)	13.4	3.9	7.8	22.1	22.1	15.6	15.2	20.6	4.43	1.87	0.79
Frequent typhoons	11.6	4.7	12.5	19.4	21.1	17.7	12.9	20.3	4.38	1.82	0.72
Runoffs	12.9	4.4	12.4	22.7	21.8	12.4	13.3	22.7	4.27	1.82	0.63
Natural calamities	15.3	4.8	10.5	16.7	18.7	21.1	12.9	28.2	4.33	1.94	0.42
Anthropogenic Drivers ¹	9.5	7.1	11.0	14.8	18.6	23.3	15.7	27.8	4.52 ^a	1.60	
Sewerage	12.3	4.8	8.3	14.0	23.7	18.0	18.9	21.6	4.61	1.92	0.72
Pollution	9.9	4.5	4.9	13.9	22.0	20.6	24.2	23.4	4.92	1.87	0.79
Domestic wastes	8.3	3.0	7.8	13.5	25.7	21.3	20.4	21.0	4.91	1.76	0.67
Land use change	25.9	6.5	6.5	20.4	17.9	10.0	12.9	30.9	3.80	2.09	0.64
Urbanization	20.7	6.1	8.9	15.0	23.0	14.1	12.2	26.8	4.05	2.02	0.66
Illegal fisheries	8.6	3.6	5.0	5.4	15.3	25.7	36.5	23.7	5.38	1.88	0.71
Marine Livelihood ¹	31.2	11.9	8.7	21.1	13.8	9.6	3.7	25.1	3.22 ^a	1.74	
Pearl farms	41.9	5.8	6.8	22.0	6.3	6.8	10.5	34.4	3.07	2.12	0.82
Fish cages	31.5	8.0	9.0	31.0	9.0	5.5	6.0	31.3	3.19	1.86	0.83
Shellfish farms	44.8	4.4	4.4	26.5	4.4	6.1	9.4	37.8	2.97	2.09	0.90
Tourism related development	28.2	4.8	8.6	28.7	12.9	10.0	6.7	28.2	3.50	1.93	0.47

1007 ^a Factor means

1008 ¹ Factor obtained from data reduction thru Principal Component Analysis of perceived impact of factors affecting the
 1009 coral reefs and seagrass beds
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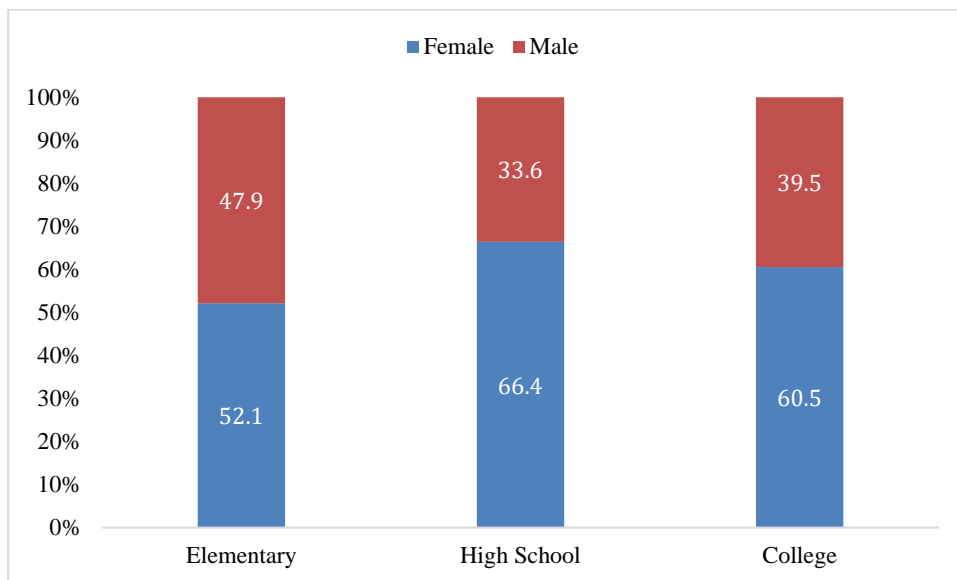
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1014 **Supplementary Table 3.** Paired samples t-test comparing sea level rise impact on coastal
 1015 erosion when there are mangroves compared to when there are no mangroves in the coastal
 1016 areas of Palawan, Philippines.
 1017

Pair variable	Mean	SD	SE	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	DF	p
				Lower	Upper			
Rising sea level has eroded the areas with mangroves	3.99	2.34	0.15					
Rising sea level has eroded the areas without mangroves	4.94	2.16	0.14					
Pair: w/ mangroves – w/o mangroves	-0.95	2.24	0.14	-1.23	-0.67	-6.65***	244	0.000

1018 **Note: Cohens D = 0.42; *** p < 0.001**
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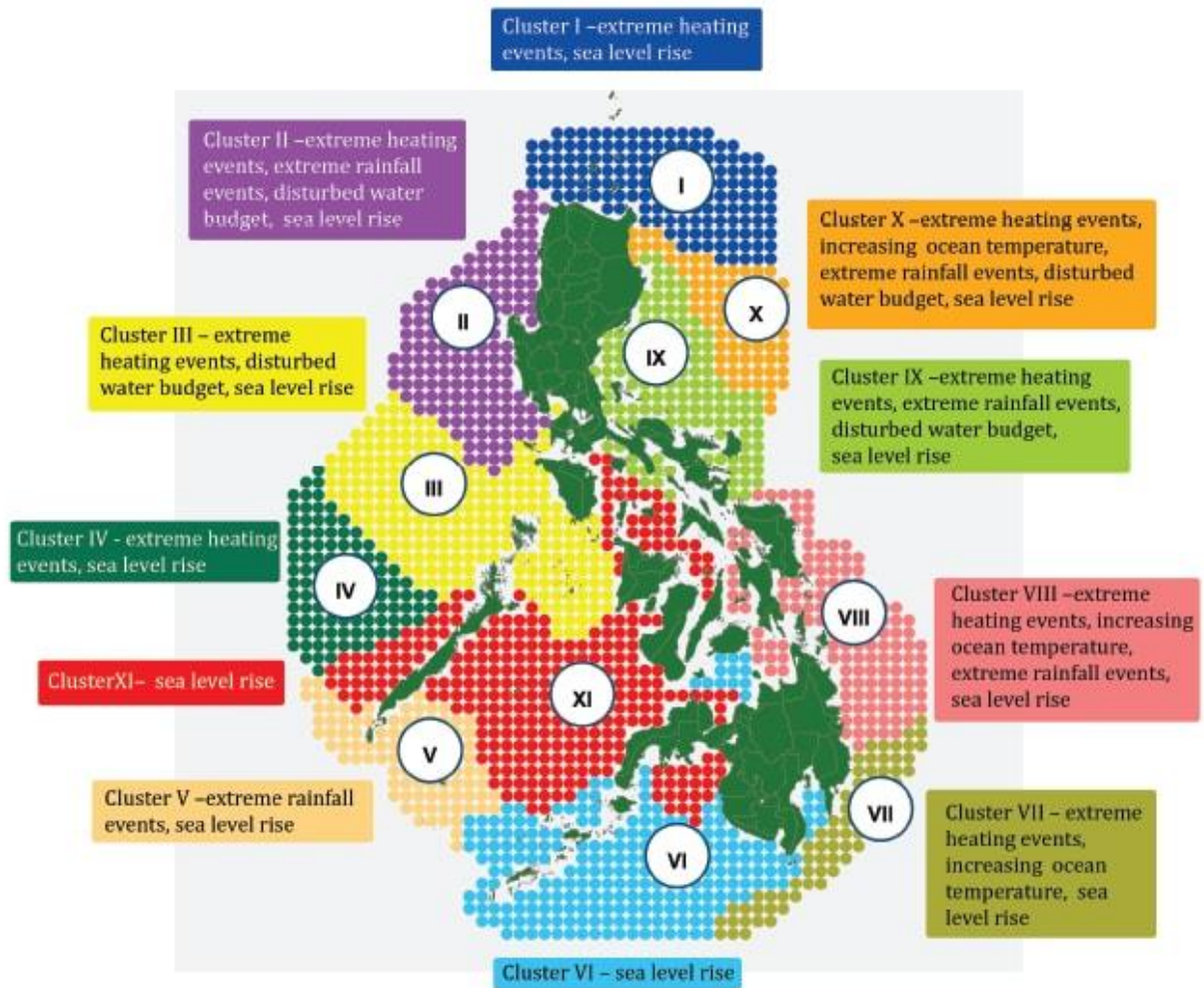
1022 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Proportion of participants' gender and educational attainment who
 1023 perceived the climate change impact on coral reefs and seagrasses. (n = 291). (The count was
 1024 based on listwise deletion).
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PHILIPPINE EXPOSURE MAP ON CLIMATE CHANGE



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1031 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Philippine Exposure map on Climate Change (source: Department
1032 of Environment and Natural Resources, Philippines, 2012).

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