



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

Authors: Lutgardo Alcantara[1], Lota Creencia[2], Karen Madarcos[3], John Roderick Madarcos[4], Jean Beth Jontila[5], Fiona Culhane[6]

Affiliations: College of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, Western Philippines University, Puerto Princesa City, 5300, Palawan, Philippines[1], School of Biological and Marine Sciences, University of Plymouth, Plymouth, UK[2]

Orcid ids: 0000-0001-6423-7670[1], 0000-0002-8586-8604[2], 0000-0001-8016-9401[3], 0000-0001-6513-901X[4], 0000-0003-3452-1341[5], 0000-0002-0488-1277[6]

Contact e-mail: lutgardo.alcantara@gmail.com

License information: This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY) 4.0 <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>, which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Preprint statement: This article is a preprint and has not been peer-reviewed, under consideration and submitted to UCL Open: Environment Preprint for open peer review.

Funder: This project has received funding from the Global Challenges Research Fund (GCRF), United Kingdom Research and Innovation (UKRI)

DOI: 10.14324/111.444/000150.v2

Preprint first posted online: 14 September 2022

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

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

Lutgardo B. Alcantara¹, John Roderick V. Madarcos¹, Karen G. Madarcos¹, Jean Beth S. Jontila¹, Fiona Culhane², Lota A. Creencia¹

¹College of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, Western Philippines University, Puerto Princesa City, Philippines

²School of Biological and Marine Science, University of Plymouth, Plymouth, UK

ABSTRACT

Understanding the coastal communities' awareness and risk perceptions of climate change impact is essential in developing effective risk communication tools and in developing mitigation strategies to reduce the vulnerability of coastal communities. In this study, we examined the coastal community's climate change awareness and risk perceptions of climate change impact on the coastal marine ecosystem, sea level rise impact on the mangrove ecosystem, and as a factor affecting coral reefs and seagrass beds. The data were gathered by conducting face-to-face surveys with 291 respondents from the coastal areas of Taytay, Aborlan, and Puerto Princesa in Palawan, Philippines. Results showed that most participants (82%) perceived that climate change is happening and a great majority (75%) perceived it as a risk to the coastal marine ecosystem. Sea level rise was perceived by most participants (60%) to cause coastal erosion and affect the mangrove ecosystem, but they also perceived that coastal erosion can be prevented by mangroves. On coral reefs and seagrass ecosystems, anthropogenic pressures and climate change were perceived to have a high impact, while marine livelihoods had a low impact. In addition, we found that climate change risk perceptions were influenced by direct experiences of extreme weather events (i.e., temperature rise and excessive rainfall), and climate-related livelihood damages (i.e., declining income). Climate change risk perceptions were also found to vary with household income, education, age group, and geographical location. The results suggest that addressing poverty, and effectively

28 communicating climate change risks can improve climate change awareness and risk
29 perceptions.

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

31

32 **1. INTRODUCTION**

33 Climate change is the challenge of our generation. Its impacts can already be seen on
34 human health [1], agriculture, water resources [2], food safety [3], food security [4], and coastal
35 and marine ecosystems [5]. In coastal and marine ecosystems, climate change is causing two
36 important impacts: sea level rise [6] and changing ocean chemistry [7]. Sea level rise is caused
37 primarily by thermal expansion due to the warming of the oceans and melting of land-based
38 ice, such as glaciers and ice sheets. Meanwhile, changes in ocean chemistry are caused by
39 anthropogenic climate drivers including increasing amounts of greenhouse gases and aerosols
40 [8]. The ocean has absorbed over 93% of the excess heat from greenhouse gas emissions [9].
41 The absorption of greenhouse gases makes the oceans more acidic, making it more difficult for
42 corals to build their skeletons [9]. Aside from acidification, higher sea surface temperatures
43 also increase the risks of coral bleaching, which can lead to coral death and the loss of critical
44 habitats for other species [10]. Understanding the public's perception of these climate change
45 impacts is key to getting public support and fostering collective action for effective climate
46 change adaptation, mitigation, and sustainable resource management [11–13].

47 In the Philippines, the serious impacts of climate change are becoming more apparent,
48 thus the need for mitigation and adaptation to climate change has become an urgent public
49 concern. The Philippines is one of the most vulnerable countries to sea-level rise and its impacts
50 due to its numerous low-lying coastal areas. Seven out of 25 cities most vulnerable to a 1-m
51 sea level rise are in the Philippines [14]. Based on the Marine Geological Survey Division
52 report, from 1992 to 2011, the rate of sea level rise in the Philippines was 5.8 (\pm 0.6) mm per

53 year [15]. This is faster compared to the global rate of sea level rise averages of 3.3 (\pm 0.4) mm
54 per year [16]. At the current rate of sea level rise, it would lead to the inundation of more than
55 167,000 ha of coastal land (about 0.6% of the country's total area) and 171 towns, as well as
56 the displacement of 13.6 million Filipinos [17]. In Palawan particularly, which ranks second
57 among the provinces in the Philippines as most vulnerable to sea level rise [18], the declaration
58 of the province as a UNESCO Biosphere Reserve (BR) is one way of mitigating the impact of
59 climate change [19]. The province's 1-m rise in sea level is projected to inundate 6,428.16 ha
60 of land [15]. The results of the Marine Geological Survey Division survey suggest that the
61 island municipalities of Palawan are moderate to highly susceptible to coastal erosion [15].

62 Previous research in Palawan has explored adaptation strategies for enhancing climate
63 resilience at the local level [20], assessed long-term climate variability's effects on coral reefs'
64 biophysical conditions [21], and studied fishers' perceptions and adaptation capacities [22]. To
65 better mitigate and adapt to climate change impacts in the province, further understanding of
66 the community's awareness and risk perceptions can provide a complete picture on which we
67 can base conservation decisions and environmental management [23]. Moreover, this could
68 lead to greater participation, more suitable management measures that fit the capacities of the
69 involved stakeholders, and ultimately, faster restoration of marine resources [24]. In Asia, the
70 most important indicator of risk perception of climate change impacts is local temperature
71 change [25,26], whereas globally, climate change awareness is determined by educational
72 attainment [25]. Furthermore, personal experiences of other extreme weather events and
73 impacts of climate change also influence climate change risk perceptions [27–29], as well as
74 socio-demographic characteristics which include gender, income [25,26], age [30], and
75 geographical location [31,32]; and occupation [26]. However, studies on climate change
76 awareness and risk perceptions of climate change impacts on the coastal marine ecosystem,
77 particularly in Palawan, are less explored.

78 The present study focuses on climate change awareness and risk perceptions of the
79 impacts on coastal communities. Public opinion research finds that climate change awareness
80 varies greatly [25]. The study on risk perceptions will focus on the climate change and sea-
81 level rise impacts in the coastal marine ecosystem which includes the mangrove areas, as well
82 as the climate change and anthropogenic pressures' impact on the coral reefs and seagrass beds
83 [25,33]. This is a part of a larger survey of the GCRF Blue Communities project that aims to
84 investigate the complex impacts of changes in the regulatory backdrop of marine spatial
85 planning for coastal communities located in and around UNESCO Biosphere Reserves and
86 Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) across Southeast Asia. It was formed as part of Project 6 of
87 the program, which assessed the well-being benefits and risks of coastal living. The study
88 approach was patterned with the ecosystems-enriched Drivers, Pressures, State, Exposure,
89 Effects, Actions or 'eDPSEEA' model, which recognizes convergence between the concept of
90 ecosystems services that provides a human health and well-being slant to the value of
91 ecosystems while equally emphasizing the health of the environment and the growing calls for
92 'ecological public health as a response to global environmental concerns [34]. Specifically,
93 the four research objectives we aimed to address were as follows: (i) whether the participants
94 are aware that climate is changing or not; (ii) whether they have observed or experience climate
95 change impacts or not; (iii) whether climate change and sea level rise affect the coastal
96 ecosystem; (iv) whether climate change, anthropogenic pressures and marine livelihood affect
97 the state of coral reefs and seagrass beds. Answers to these questions will contribute to the
98 knowledge gap in understanding the climate change awareness and risk perceptions of the
99 coastal communities to design more effective mitigation measures to address climate change
100 impacts at the local level and for policies, programs, and activities aimed at building resilience
101 to climate change and managing marine resources.

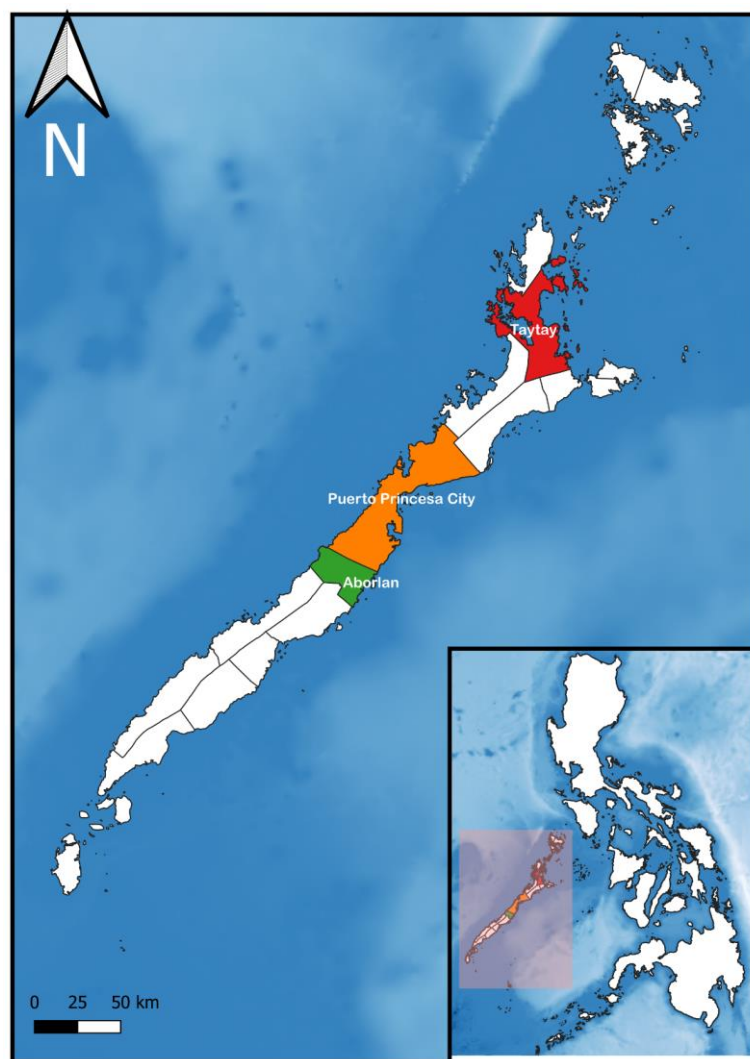
102 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

103 **2.1. Study Area and Sample**

104 The Palawan province, known as the “last ecological frontier” of the Philippines, is an
105 archipelago composed of the main island and more than 1,700 islands [19]. Its coastal marine
106 ecosystems include coral reefs, seagrass meadows, mangroves, and several marine mammals
107 [19]. The province was declared as Mangrove Reserve Swamp in 1981 by virtue of Presidential
108 Proclamation No. 2152 for having the largest remaining mangrove forest in the country which
109 was estimated at 63,532 hectares in 2010 [35]. In 1991, it was also declared by UNESCO as a
110 Biosphere Reserve to serve as a learning area to promote sustainable development and
111 conservation of biodiversity [19]. The projected population of Palawan in 2022 is 1,254,111
112 [36]. The major economic activities are agriculture, fisheries, tourism, on-shore, and off-shore
113 mining, gathering of minor forest products, and pearl farming [19].

114 The three study areas are Aborlan, Puerto Princesa City, and Taytay (Fig. 1). Aborlan
115 is a coastal municipality located in the southern part of the province; Puerto Princesa City is a
116 highly urbanized coastal city located in the central part; while Taytay is a coastal municipality
117 located in the northern part. Ten (10) coastal villages from these areas were chosen as study
118 sites. In the simulation conducted by Lapidez et al. (2015), it was shown that Palawan, due to
119 its low coastal elevation zones is one of the most vulnerable provinces in the Philippines to
120 coastal flooding [37]. In the climate change exposure map from the Department of
121 Environment and Natural Resources (DENR), it was shown that Aborlan, Puerto Princesa City,
122 and the rest of southern Palawan are vulnerable to sea level rise; while Taytay and the rest of
123 Northern Palawan are vulnerable to extreme heating events, unstable water supply, and sea-
124 level rise [38]. Additionally, Taytay and the rest of northern Palawan is a “hotspot areas of
125 exposure to climate hazards”, with extreme human sensitivity to climate change [35]. Puerto
126 Princesa City and Aborlan were also identified as highly vulnerable to landslides. Furthermore,

127 Puerto Princesa City has the highest population vulnerable to storm surges [39]. In addition,
128 both areas have mainstream economic activities including airports, seaports, malls, schools,
129 and populated urban areas on the east coast where storms land first, making them more
130 vulnerable. The province is the largest producer of seaweed in the country, and Taytay is one
131 of the main producers of the province [40]. The most recent onslaught of Typhoon Odette
132 caused unprecedented losses to seaweed farmers, which environmentalists identified as an
133 escalating issue fueled by climate change [40].



134
135 **Figure 1.** Map of Palawan showing an inset of the Philippines, with Palawan highlighted with a light
136 red shade. Aborlan, Puerto Princesa City and Taytay are highlighted in green, orange, and red colors,
137 respectively.
138
139

140 Thus, due to the vulnerability of the chosen study areas, they are ideally suited to explore how
141 coastal communities perceive climate change and anthropogenic pressures that impact the
142 coastal marine ecosystem.

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

149

150 **2.2. Survey procedure**

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

162 A two-stage pilot testing was conducted to ensure that participants would understand
163 the questions. An in-home face-to-face survey was conducted using a Computer Assisted
164 Personal Interviewing (CAPI) method, employing a tablet computer (Samsung Galaxy Tab A)

165 with a pre-loaded questionnaire available in Filipino and English languages. The questionnaire
166 was formatted using free data collection software (KoBo Toolbox v.2).

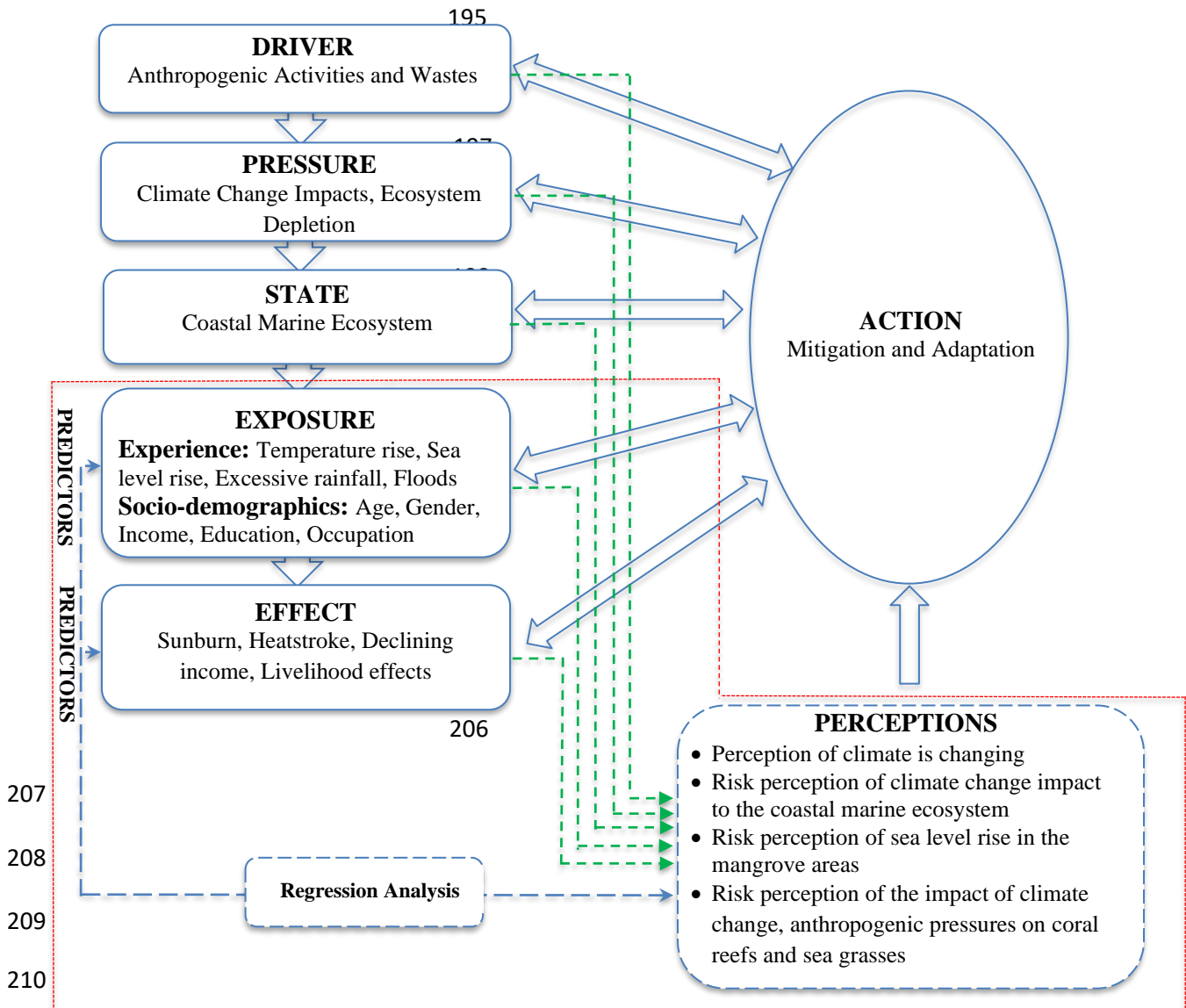
167 The development of the survey was through a co-creation approach, with most of the
168 content emerging from discussions and workshops with local stakeholders. The survey was
169 drafted in line with the eDPSEEA model which integrates human health and environmental
170 impact on the ecosystem [34]. The finalized survey was quite complex as it contained all
171 aspects of the eDPSEEA model. In this study, the focus was only on climate change awareness
172 and the perceived climate change risks in the coastal areas of Palawan.

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) [41]. 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 [42,43]. 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 [44]. Finally, we used linear regression to analyze the

190 relationships between the risk perceptions of climate change impacts and the predictors [45].
 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



211 **Figure 2.** Conceptual framework used in data analysis of the relationship between Predictors and Risk
 212 Perceptions of Climate Change Impacts based on eDPSEEA model. (Analysis is focused only on the
 213 highlighted, red-dotted line.)
 214

215 On the risk perception of sea level rise impact on the mangrove areas, we used an
 216 additional test (paired samples t-test) to determine if the presence of mangroves compared to

217 the absence of mangroves had a significant effect on risk perception of sea level rise impact.

218 This was followed by calculating the effect size using Cohen's D.

219

220 3. RESULTS

221 3.1. Socio-Demographics

222 A total of 291 respondents participated (Table 1) across 10 barangays: two barangays
223 in Aborlan, four in Taytay, and four in Puerto Princesa City, with a higher number of females
224 (59.1%) than males (39.5%). The higher percentage of female participants was in part due to

225

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

227

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

228

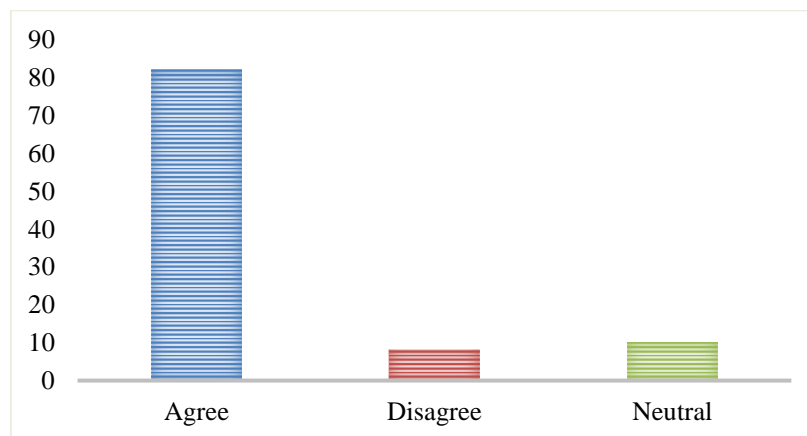
229 the time of day the interviews were conducted (morning and afternoon), as many male
230 household members would have left home for work at sea as elaborated in another paper from
231 the same survey [46].

232

233 3.2. Climate Change Awareness

234 Most of the respondents (82%) agreed that the climate in the locality is changing, a
235 small portion disagreed (8%) while the rest had a neutral stance (10%) (Fig. 3). Their socio-
236 demographic characteristics and their personal experiences of climate-related events which
237 may have influenced their awareness that the “climate is changing” were used as predictors.
238 The participants’ personal experiences of local temperature rise ($B = 0.17, p < 0.05$) and
239 excessive rainfall ($B = 0.17, p < 0.05$) were significant risk predictors of climate change
240 awareness showing positive relationship (Table 2). This implies that higher climate change
241 awareness is associated with the experience of local temperature rise and excessive rainfall. In
242 terms of socio-demographic variables, the 40-49 years old ($B = -0.69, p < 0.05$) has
243 significantly different climate change awareness compared with the 19-29 years old.

244



245

246

247 **Figure 3.** Proportion of participants who perceived that the climate in their locality is changing. (n = 291).
248 (Percentage was based on valid responses).

249

250

251

252

253

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

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)

258
 259 *** $p < 0.001$; * $p < 0.05$

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

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

262
 263 **Table 3.** Results of linear regression model exploring the association between participants' socio-demographic
 264 characteristics and their awareness; socio-demographic characteristics and risk perceptions of climate change
 265 impacts in the coastal marine ecosystem in Palawan, Philippines (standard errors in parenthesis).
 266

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) *

267
268
269
270
271

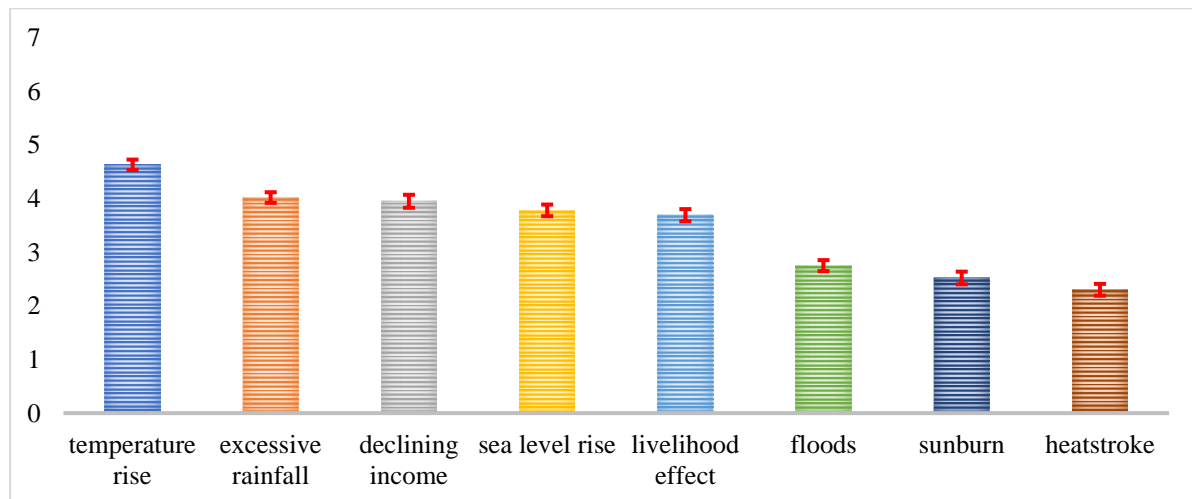
*** $p < 0.001$; * $p < 0.05$.

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

3.3. Perceived personal experiences of climate change impacts

272
273
274
275

Study participants perceived that the most common climate change impact they experienced was local temperature rise, followed by excessive rainfall, declining income, sea-level rise, and livelihood effect. The occurrence of flood, heatstroke, and sunburn was relatively low (Fig. 4).



276
277
278
279
280

Figure 4. Mean score with standard deviation of the responses to the question “have you observed/experienced the following phenomenon in your area?”. The response options provided to the respondents was a bipolar rating scale: 1 = very low to 7 = very high. n = 291 (graph whiskers are standard error of the mean).

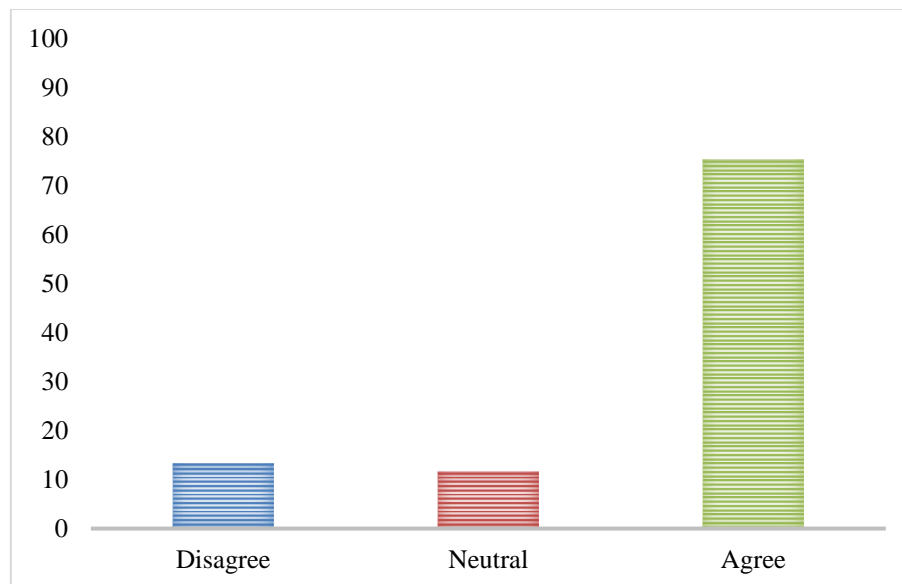
281

3.4. Risk perception of climate change impact on the coastal marine ecosystem

282
283

The “climate change impact on the coastal marine ecosystem” factor was a result of the PCA of two variables (Supplementary Table 1). Most of the participants (75%) perceived that

284 “climate change impact” is a risk to the mangrove ecosystem as well as to the function and
 285 structure of the whole coastal marine ecosystem (Fig. 5). The personal experience of sea level
 286 rise ($B = 0.19, p < 0.05$) was the only significant risk perception predictor of the impact of
 287 climate change on the coastal marine ecosystem. Females were also found to have a higher risk
 288 perception ($B = 0.69, p < 0.05$) than males. Further, the not-poor group ($B = 0.59, p < 0.05$)
 289 had a significantly higher risk perception than the poor group. Other socio-demographic
 290 predictors did not show significant differences (Table 3).
 291



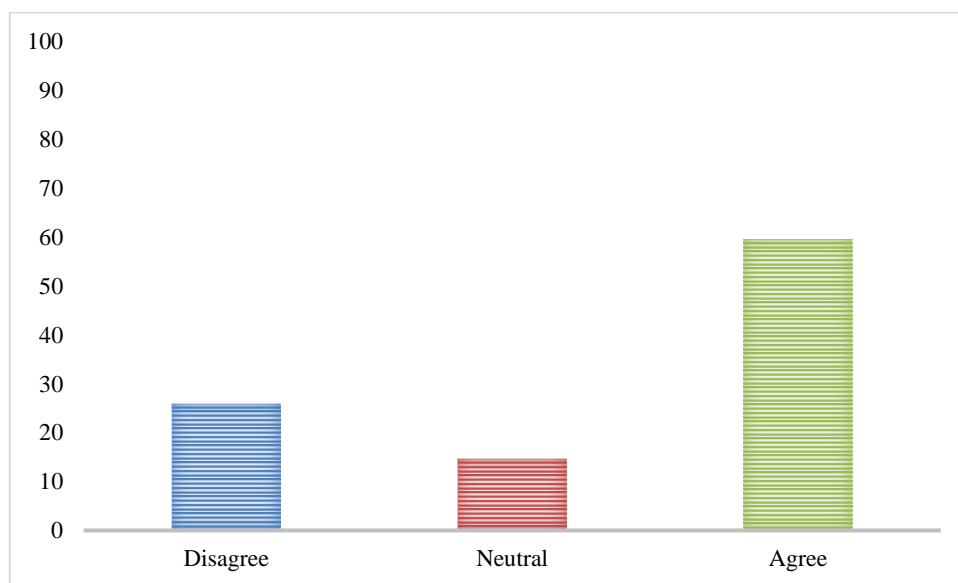
292
 293 **Figure 5.** Proportion of participants who perceived that climate change is a risk in the coastal marine ecosystem
 294 (n = 291). (Percentage was based on valid responses).
 295

296 **3.5. Risk perception of sea level rise impacts on the mangrove ecosystem**

297 The “sea level rise impact” factor was a result of the PCA of four variables
 298 (Supplementary Table 1). In general, the “sea level rise impact” was perceived by many
 299 (59.5%) of the participants to cause coastal erosion to areas without mangroves and will affect
 300 the mangrove ecosystem, and the sea level is rising regardless of when there is a typhoon (Fig.
 301 6). Analysis of the individual variables in the sea level rise impact showed that 60% agreed
 302 that the sea level was rising regardless of typhoon occurrence. Most participants also perceived

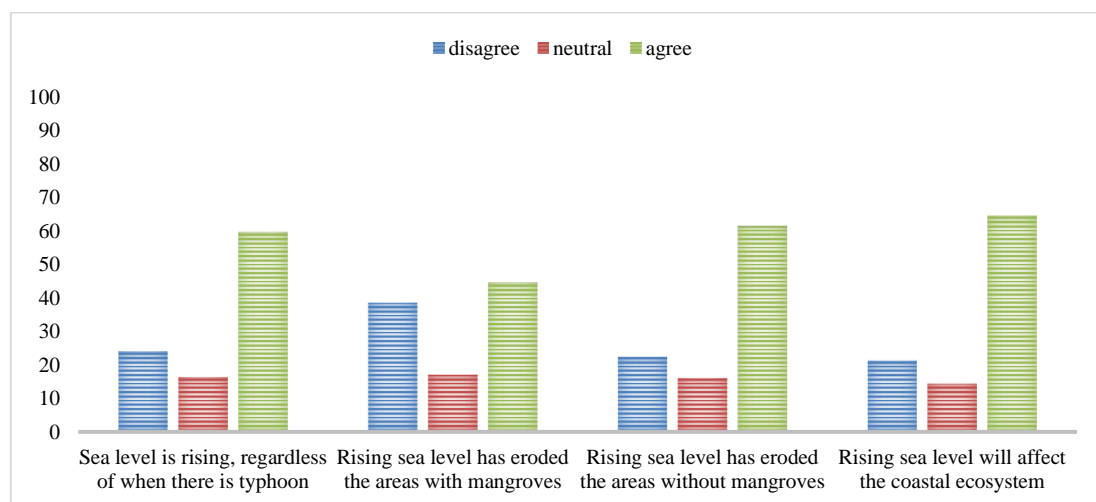
303 that the sea level rise had eroded areas without mangroves (61.7%) and that it will affect the
 304 coastal ecosystem (64.6%). A considerable portion of the participants (44.5%) also perceived
 305 that sea level rise had eroded areas with mangroves (Fig. 7). The impact of sea level rise on
 306 coastal erosion based on the participants' perception in areas with mangroves and without
 307 mangroves displayed a significant difference; $t = -6.65, p < 0.001$ (Supplementary Table 3).
 308 Further, Cohen's d value ($d = 0.42$) suggested a moderate effect size.

309



310
 311
 312
 313
 314

Figure 6. Proportion of participants who perceived “sea-level rise impact” will affect the mangrove ecosystem. $n = 291$.



315

Figure 7. Proportion of participants' risk perceptions on the individual variables regarding “sea-level rise impacts”. $n = 291$

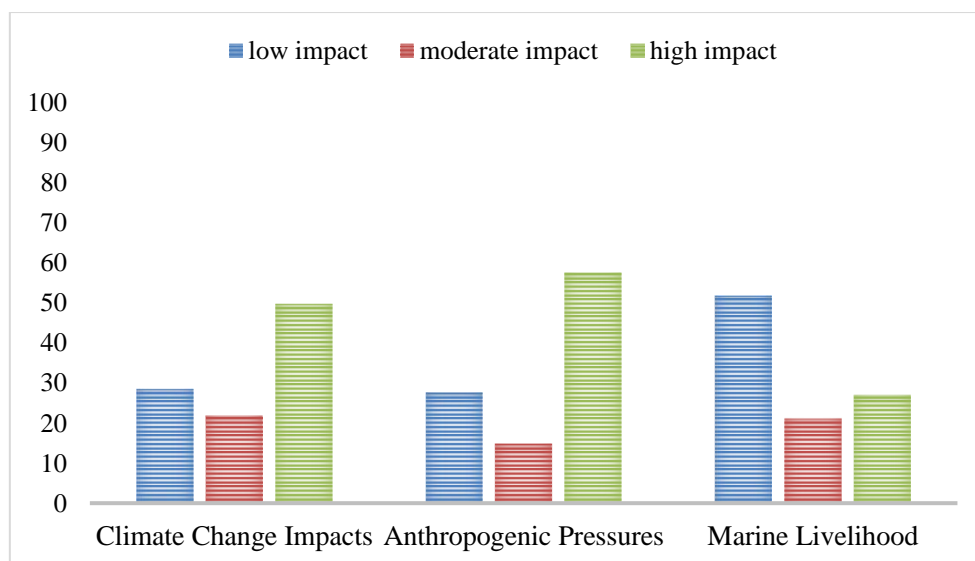
317

318 In our analysis, the personal experiences or observations of rising sea level was the
 319 strongest predictor of the risk perception of sea level rise impact ($B = 0.36$, $p < 0.001$).
 320 Furthermore, the 60-99 years old ($B = 1.35$, $p < 0.05$), the 50-59 years old ($B = 1.41$, $p < 0.05$)
 321 and the 40 – 49 years old group ($B = 0.78$, $p < 0.05$) have a significantly higher risk perception
 322 than the 19-29 years old group (Table 3). The study site was also found to influence the risk
 323 perception of sea level rise impact as the Aborlan ($B = -0.76$, $p < 0.05$) and Taytay ($B = -0.59$,
 324 $p < 0.05$) participants have significantly lower risk perception as compared with Puerto
 325 Princesa City participants.

326

327 3.6. Risk perceptions of the factors affecting the coral reefs and seagrass beds

328 Three factors affecting the coral reefs and seagrass beds were derived from PCA,
 329 namely: climate change impacts, anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihood
 330 (Supplementary Table 2). Results showed that most of the participants perceived the
 331 anthropogenic pressures (57.6%) and climate change (50.3%) to have a high impact on the
 332 coral reefs and seagrass beds, while marine livelihood was perceived to have a low impact
 333 (51.8%) (Fig. 8).



334

335 **Figure 8.** Proportion of respondents who perceive high, moderate, or low impacts to coral reefs and sea grass
 336 beds from different drivers. The response options provided to the respondents is a bipolar rating scale: 1 = very
 337 low to 7 = very high. Low category included scores 1-3, Moderate category score 4, and High category scores 5-
 338 7 $n = 291$.

339
 340 The local temperature rise is a significant predictor of the perceived climate change
 341 impact (B = 0.16, $p < 0.05$), anthropogenic pressures (B = 0.25, $p < 0.01$) and marine livelihood
 342 impact (B = 0.21, $p < 0.01$) (Table 4). Additionally, excessive rainfall and declining income are
 343 perceived as significant risk predictors of climate change impact and anthropogenic pressures
 344 (Table 4).

345 On socio-demographic variables, the group categorized as not poor have significantly
 346 higher risk perception of climate change impact (B = 0.94, $p < 0.001$), anthropogenic pressures
 347 (B = 1.19, $p < 0.001$), and marine livelihood (B = 1.07, $p < 0.001$) compared to poor
 348 participants. The high school group (B = 0.51, $p < 0.05$) has shown a significantly higher risk
 349 perception of climate change impact compared with the elementary group. On the other hand,
 350 the 40-49 years old group (B = -0.73, $p < 0.05$) has shown also significantly lower risk
 351 perception compared with 19-29 years old.

352 **Table 4.** Results of linear regression predicting the participants' risk perception of climate change impact,
 353 anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihood from their personal experiences of climate-related events in the
 354 coastal marine environment of Palawan, Philippines (standard error in parenthesis).
 355

Predictor variables	Perceptions of Factors Affecting the Corals reefs and Seagrasses (Outcome Variables)		
	Climate Change Impact ¹	Anthropogenic Pressures ¹	Marine Livelihood Impact ¹
Constant (B)	2.19*** (0.36)	2.21*** (0.39)	1.41** (0.46)
Local temperature rise	0.16 (0.07) *	0.25*** (0.08)	0.21** (0.09)
Sea level rise	0.08 (0.07)	-0.03 (0.07)	0.03 (0.09)
Excessive rainfall	0.19 (0.08) *	0.17* (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) ***	0.23* (0.08)	0.09 (0.08)
Livelihood effect	-0.05 (0.08)	-0.01 (0.09)	0.08 (0.11)

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

357 ¹ Variable obtained from the data reduction method (PCA) see Supplementary Table 2
 358
 359
 360
 361
 362

363 **Table 5.** Results of linear regression analysis predicting the participants' risk perceptions of climate change
 364 impact, anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihood from key socio-demographic characteristics in the
 365 coastal marine environment of Palawan, Philippines (standard error in parenthesis).
 366

Predictor variables	Risk Perceptions of Factors Affecting the Corals reefs and Seagrasses (Outcome Variables)		
	Climate Change Impact ¹	Anthropogenic Pressures ¹	Marine Livelihood Impact ¹
Constant (B)	3.658 (0.48) ***	4.182 (0.52) ***	3.862 (0.56) ***
Gender (ref = male)	-	-	-
Female	0.27 (0.21)	0.20 (0.22)	0.10 (0.25)
Education Level (ref = Elementary)	-	-	-
High School	0.51 (0.22) *	0.11 (0.24)	-0.14 (0.27)
College	0.30 (0.33)	0.21 (0.35)	0.18 (0.39)
Income (ref = poor)	-	-	-
Not Poor	0.94 (0.24) ***	1.19 (0.26) ***	1.073 (0.30) ***
Occupation (ref = non-fisher folks)	-	-	-
Fisher folks	0.20 (0.35)	0.03 (0.37)	-0.28 (0.42)
Age Group (ref = 19 – 29 years old)	-	-	-
30 – 39 years old	-0.40 (0.33)	-0.40 (0.35)	-0.62 (0.39)
40 – 49 years old	-0.40 (0.31)	-0.57 (0.33)	-0.73 (0.36) *
50 – 59 years old	-0.41 (0.34)	-0.51 (0.37)	-0.38 (0.41)
60 – 99 years old	-0.19 (0.37)	-0.40 (0.40)	0.04 (0.44)
Study Sites (ref = Puerto Princesa)	-	-	-
Aborlan	0.14 (0.30)	0.46 (0.32)	0.55 (0.37)
Taytay	0.29 (0.24)	0.38 (0.26)	0.52 (0.29)

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

368 ¹ Variable obtained from the data reduction method (PCA) see Supplementary Table 2
 369
 370

371 4. DISCUSSION

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

375

376 **4.1. Role of Personal Experiences in Climate Change Awareness and Shaping Risk**
377 **Perceptions**

378 Climate change awareness and risk perceptions can be shaped by direct experiences of
379 extreme weather events, local weather anomalies (i.e., temperature rises) [47,48], and climate-
380 related livelihood damages [49,50]. In our results, most study participants (82%) perceived
381 that climate change was happening and this is consistent with the results from a nationwide
382 survey conducted in the Philippines in February 2021, which found that 83% of Filipinos
383 believe the climate was changing [11]. Of the various extreme weather events and weather
384 anomalies, the personal experience of temperature rise is the strongest predictor of climate
385 change in Asian and African countries [25–27]. In our study, it was found that temperature rise
386 significantly predicted the response variable “climate is changing” ($B = 0.17$, $p < 0.03$). The
387 findings are in line with more evidence suggesting that personal experiences of local weather
388 anomalies (i.e., local temperature rises) and extreme weather events could influence
389 perceptions and attitudes toward climate change [27,51–54]. Personal experience of excessive
390 rainfall ($B = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$) is another significant predictor of the response variable “climate is
391 changing” (Table 2). It is uncommon in Palawan to have extreme weather events like excessive
392 rainfall, thus deviations from normal occurrences like this may serve as an indicator of what
393 climate change will mean for the province [55]. The relationship of other climate-related
394 experiences compared with the “climate is changing” variable is not significant in this study
395 may be because they are not: (1) relatively recent [56]; (2) linked with significant personal
396 and/or financial damages [49,50]; and (3) experienced as abnormalities in temperature [49].
397 The occurrence of extreme weather events is rare in Palawan and thus may not have a
398 significant impact on climate change perception, because they cannot be easily recalled [47,57].
399 The recentness effect can be amplified if the event was linked with personal and financial
400 damage [49,50].

401 Climate change is a disaster risk driver and is perceived by the coastal residents (75%)
402 in this study to impact the mangroves and the coastal marine ecosystem. This is higher public
403 concern about the risk brought about by climate change compared to the 67% in a nationwide
404 survey in 2018 (Philippines) [58]. The higher climate change concern among the coastal
405 community compared to the public can be attributed to the higher vulnerability of coastal areas
406 to adverse impacts caused by climate stressors on their surroundings and livelihoods which
407 shape people's climate risk perception [59,60]. However, there is still a substantial percentage
408 of skeptics who do not consider climate change as a coastal risk driver. This could be attributed
409 to the perception of some coastal communities that the land along the coastal margin will persist
410 permanently, and that those living there will be safe from natural coastal hazards (apart from
411 rare storm surge events) [61].

412 Personal observation of sea-level rise was also a significant predictor of climate change
413 risk perception to the mangrove ecosystem and the marine coastal ecosystem which is
414 consistent with many studies that sea-level rise is the main threat to the coastal ecosystem.
415 [6,14]. Additionally, other studies stated that experience is one of the drivers of perception of
416 sea level rise and how they respond to the impact [47]. However, only a slight majority of
417 coastal residents agree that sea-level rise will cause coastal erosion and affect the coastal
418 ecosystem (Fig. 7). The skepticism expressed by some coastal residents that sea-level rise will
419 cause major damage to coastal areas could be attributable to various factors, like the perception
420 that mangroves can prevent coastal erosion (Fig. 7). The skeptical perception of sea level rise
421 as a coastal risk is in line with findings that public perceptions of sea level rise in the US Gulf
422 Region remain to be a temporally distant issue among coastal residents [62]. In contrast, the
423 research in New Zealand found that adults were overestimating the amount of sea-level rise
424 expected by 2100 which can result in feeling anxious rather than being motivated to mitigate
425 and adapt [61]. Overestimation of sea-level rise impact in New Zealand results from

426 indiscriminate media reporting of the sea level rise warning that it could reach 5 meters by
427 2100 [61]. While, in contrast, we could attribute the skeptical risk perceptions of sea level rise
428 impact in the Philippines to a lack of prominence given by the media outlets [63]. Additionally,
429 coastal residents in the Philippines tend to disregard the risk of sea level rise possibly because
430 of their fisheries' livelihood causing them to generally prefer in situ adaptation strategies rather
431 than relocation to the mainland [64].

432 Our study also examines how coastal communities perceive the effects of climate
433 change, anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihoods on coral reefs and sea grasses. We
434 found that coastal communities perceived anthropogenic pressures to be the major driver
435 affecting coral reefs and sea grasses, and climate change impact was also perceived to have
436 similar effects. On the other hand, marine livelihood is perceived to have a low impact. The
437 results of this study are consistent with the report of the UNEP-IOC-ASPEI-IUCN Global Task
438 Team, which states that human anthropogenic pressures pose a far greater immediate threat to
439 coral reefs than climate change [65]. However, on the contrary, another research study found
440 that climate change is the main driver affecting coral dynamics and can exacerbate the impact
441 of anthropogenic drivers [66]. The perception of the respondents that marine livelihood,
442 especially illegal fisheries can also impact the coral reefs and seagrasses is in line with the
443 findings of previous research. This unsustainable fishing practice has been identified as the
444 primary threat to coral reefs and the quality of the coastal marine environment [46,67]. On the
445 other hand, long-term fish cage operations, if poorly located and managed, will result in the
446 reduction of the abundance and diversity of local benthic species and degrade the habitats
447 surrounding the cages [68]. A study found that the impact of long-term fish farming resulted
448 in seagrass decline in the areas surrounding the fish farm site even though at the time of
449 sampling the fish farm operation had already ceased [69]. This could be due to the excess

450 organic matter remaining in the sediments, resulting in the organic pollution of seagrass
451 meadows [69].

452 In our analysis, personal experience of local temperature rise is a significant predictor
453 of the perceptions of the effect of anthropogenic pressures and marine livelihood impact on the
454 sea grasses and coral reefs (Table 4). There is empirical evidence about the anthropogenic
455 influence on the observed temperature rise trend in different regions of the world [70]. The
456 warmer temperatures can cause coral reefs to bleach and seagrasses to alter growth rates,
457 resulting in reef fish deaths [71,72]. Anthropogenic pressures result in contamination of aquatic
458 environments which is one of the leading types of pollution that has significant negative
459 impacts on coral reefs and seagrasses [73]. Because of these negative impacts, coral reefs and
460 seagrass farming can suffer, thus reducing the income of seaweed farmers. These negative
461 anthropogenic pressure impacts may have significantly affected their perceptions and
462 behavioral responses to climate change [74,75].

463 Personal experience of excessive rainfall is also a significant predictor of the climate
464 change impact on the seagrasses and coral reefs (Table 4). Excessive rainfall results in
465 increased runoff of freshwater, sediment, and land-based pollutants that contribute to algal
466 blooms and cause murky water conditions that reduce light – which is a key factor to coral reef
467 survival and physiology and can contribute to the decline in seagrass growth and distribution
468 [76–78].

469 Coastal and low-income communities are most vulnerable to climate change impacts
470 [71,79]. Our results showed that participants perceive that declining income is the strongest
471 predictor of climate change and anthropogenic pressures impact seagrasses and coral reefs. The
472 impact is already felt by fishers by getting lower revenue which creates a domino effect of
473 several other socio-economic consequences including low economic standing, non-existent
474 social welfare or pension systems for fishers, and poor health and living standards for their

475 families [71,80]. Fisher folks perceived that loss of income was a result of climate change
476 impacts such as rising sea levels, excessive rainfall, temperature rise, the decline in fish catch,
477 and loss of coral reefs, and seagrass cover [71]. Anthropogenic pressures result in
478 contamination of aquatic environments which is one of the leading types of pollution that has
479 significant negative impacts on coral reefs and sea grasses [73]. Because of these negative
480 impacts, coral reefs, seagrass meadows, and seaweed farming can suffer, thus reducing the
481 income of seaweed farmers. These negative anthropogenic pressure impacts may have
482 significantly affected their perceptions and behavioral responses to climate change [74,75].
483 These vulnerable fishers in the coastal areas need to acquire different adaptation and coping
484 strategies to mitigate these impacts [81,82]. To enhance their resilience to the impacts, fishers
485 need development assistance that protects their well-being, prioritizes alternative livelihoods,
486 and provides technical skills training [71,83,84]. Additionally, the coastal community must
487 support the conservation of mangroves, seagrass, and coral reefs, which provide a habitat for
488 important commercial and recreational species and stabilize the seafloor [71,85,86].

489 In this study, our findings suggest that the perceptions of the coastal residents are
490 consistent with the established scientific information that anthropogenic pressures, climate
491 change consequences, and marine livelihoods have a significant impact on corals and
492 seagrasses. This high level of climate-relevant knowledge on the impact of climate change and
493 anthropogenic pressures on corals and seagrasses is vital for preserving reef systems and
494 accepting climate change policies [87].

495 Our results open an exciting new avenue of study focused on what and how the coastal
496 communities are doing to preserve reef ecosystems. Specifically, on how they adapt and
497 mitigate the impact of climate change and reduce anthropogenic pressures on the corals and
498 sea grasses. Moreover, we also suggest explanatory research or applied scientific research to

499 determine the actual impact of climatic pressures and anthropogenic pressures on corals and
500 seagrasses.

501

502 **4.2. Role of Socio-Demographic Factors in Climate Change Awareness and Shaping** 503 **Risk Perceptions**

504 Understanding population dynamics and heterogeneity is essential for improving our
505 understanding of climate change and risk perceptions of the impacts. Our results showed that
506 age, educational attainment, household income, and study sites influence the climate change
507 awareness and risk perceptions of the participants.

508 In terms of gender, we found that women have a higher risk perception of climate
509 change's impact on the coastal marine ecosystem. This is consistent with findings that women
510 consistently have a higher risk perception and concern about climate change compared to men
511 [88]. In a similar finding, it was reported that women express slightly greater concern about
512 climate change than men [89]. Since 2010, the gender gap in this form of knowledge has
513 remained relatively stable, even though men's understanding of the consensus has improved
514 over time [90].

515 Climate change's impact on coral reefs and seagrasses is perceived differently
516 depending on educational attainment, in line with previous studies which showed that those
517 with higher education tend to have more concern for the environment [91,92]. Surprisingly the
518 high school category has a slightly higher risk perception than the college category, although
519 they are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$. The slight difference could be attributed to the
520 fact that there is a higher ratio of women to men among the college group (65%) compared to
521 the high school group (51%) (See Supplementary Fig. 1). A previous study showed that
522 women's self-perceived knowledge is higher than men's among people with low levels of
523 education but higher for men among people with high levels of education [93]. It should be

524 noted, however, that our study had some gender imbalances, so we should be cautious when
525 interpreting the interaction between gender and education results.

526 Poor households have a significantly lower risk perception of climate change's impact
527 on the coastal marine ecosystem, which is in line with another study conducted in Singapore
528 which found that low-income households reported a lower level of knowledge compared with
529 higher-income households [94]. Poor households also have significantly lower risk perceptions
530 of the impact of climate change, anthropogenic pressures, and marine livelihood on sea grasses
531 and coral reefs compared with not-poor households (Table 5). Lower climate change risk
532 perception for poor households compared to not-poor households could be explained by the
533 fact that low-income households and communities develop academic skills at a slower rate than
534 those from higher-income groups [94]. Poverty levels are strongly linked to educational
535 attainment. In the Philippines, the heads of two of three poor households have only reached
536 elementary education and below [95]. Further, the lack of economic resources was a major
537 barrier to paying attention to climate change, as they had more pressing priorities, such as the
538 financial pressure of daily living [96]. For poor households who face more financial pressure
539 than high-income households, climate change is less likely to be a concern.

540 The 19-29 years old have higher climate change awareness and risk perception of
541 marine livelihood impact on coral reefs and seagrasses compared with other age groups (see
542 Table 3 &5), in line with other studies that report the younger generation in the USA worries
543 more about the effects of global warming than the older generation [30]. In contrast, for the
544 risk perception of sea-level rise impact on the mangrove ecosystem, the older generations group
545 was found to have the higher risk perception compared with 19-29 years old. (Table 3).
546 Scientific knowledge about the causes, impacts, and solutions to climate change generally
547 increased with age, as would be expected with increased scientific education and exposure to
548 information [97]. Having lived many years and experienced the various changes that have

549 taken place in coastal areas, the older generation may have acquired enough wisdom or
550 experienced enough changes in their youth to know about the threat climate change poses [97].
551 This could be because younger generations have less experience and exposure to the impact of
552 rising sea levels and since older generations have more experience, they perceive greater
553 damage caused by sea-level rise compared with younger generations.

554 Puerto Princesa City participants have higher climate change awareness compared
555 with Aborlan and Taytay participants (Table 3). These results suggest that climate change
556 awareness might be influenced by geographical context [31,98]. The differences in climate
557 change awareness could be attributed to the more publicized people's participation in the
558 reforestation of mangroves in Puerto Princesa which has been going on for more than two
559 decades and resulted in the planting of millions of mangrove trees, thereby increasing beach
560 coverage. [98–100]. In Aborlan and Taytay, which are more rural than Puerto Princesa, there
561 are fewer environmental conservation activities publicized and participants have limited media
562 coverage of those activities, which may explain the lower climate change awareness [100,101].
563 Similarly, Puerto Princesa participants have significantly lower risk perception ($p < 0.05$) of
564 the impact of marine livelihood on the sea grasses and coral reefs as compared with Aborlan
565 participants (Table 5). Further studies are necessary to conclude a causal association between
566 the differences in perceptions.

567 The positive finding of this research is that the coastal residents understand that
568 mangroves are beneficial to them in preventing coastal erosion. Thus, conserving mangroves
569 for their protection becomes a concern. Our findings also suggest the importance of training
570 and communication tools to effectively relay information about coastal risks brought by climate
571 change and sea level rise impacts to help motivate coastal residents to act. By increasing their
572 knowledge about climate change causes and impacts, they will be more concerned about
573 climate change and more likely to support climate-friendly policies [65]. Although there is no

574 significant difference among different education levels in this study, other studies suggest that
575 participants with higher education tend to have a higher risk perception of climate change
576 impacts compared with lower education [26].

577

578 **4.3. Limitations**

579 The findings of this study must be seen considering some limitations. The first is that
580 we did not include in this study questions about how they perceived the impact of climate
581 change on their livelihood and food security. This could be significant in predicting their
582 overall perception of climate change as a coastal hazard. However, we intend to address these
583 limitations in future studies.

584 The second limitation concerns the actual status of climate change impact on the coastal
585 areas. Directly cross-verifying the actual status of climate change impact in the coastal areas
586 compared to their perceptions would give a good measurement of their current level of climate-
587 relevant knowledge. Nevertheless, their perceptions are useful in understanding their mental
588 model. Furthermore, this limitation is another avenue for potential future research.

589

590 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

591 As the impacts of climate change are likely to worsen the problems in vulnerable coastal
592 areas, it is important to understand how experiences of climate-related events and various
593 socio-demographic characteristics of the coastal community shape their awareness and risk
594 perceptions. This study suggests that the coastal communities in our study sites have high
595 climate change awareness, but a number remain unaware of the damaging effects of climate
596 change. The most common climate change impacts observed or experienced by the participants
597 are temperature rise and excessive rainfall. In descending order, other impacts of climate
598 change experienced or observed by the participants in low frequency include declining income,

599 sea-level rise, flood, sunburn, and heat stroke. Among these climate change experiences,
600 temperature rise, and excessive rainfall are significant predictors of climate change awareness.

601 Experience or observation of sea-level rise is a significant predictor of risk perception
602 of climate change impacts on the mangroves and coastal marine ecosystem. This study also
603 established that “women” and “not poor” participants perceived the risk of climate change to
604 the coastal marine ecosystem as higher compared to the reference groups. Furthermore, the 19-
605 19-29 years old have higher climate change awareness and more concern about marine
606 livelihood impact on coral reefs and seagrasses compared with other age groups. In contrast,
607 the 19-29 years old have lower risk perception compared with older age groups in the risk
608 perception of sea-level rise impact on the mangrove ecosystem. Moreover, the risk perception
609 of sea level rise impact is influenced by geographical context.

610 Most participants consider perceived anthropogenic pressures and climate change
611 impacts have a high impact, while marine livelihood is perceived as having a low impact on
612 the coral reefs and seagrasses. Local temperature rise, excessive rainfall, and declining income
613 are significant predictors of these risk perceptions. Education has a significant influence on the
614 risk perception of the impact of climate change on coral reefs and seagrasses. While the “not
615 poor” participants have significantly higher risk perception compared to the poor group in
616 perceiving the impact of the various factors affecting coral reefs and seagrasses.

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

624 **6. DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

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

628

629 **7. ETHICS STATEMENT**

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

634

635 **8. FUNDING**

636 The current study is part of a larger survey that has received funding in part from the Global
637 Challenges Research Fund (GCRF) via the United Kingdom Research and Innovation (UKRI)
638 under grant agreement reference NE/P021107/1 to the Blue Communities under Project 6
639 which aimed to understand the well-being benefits and risks of coastal living in Southeast Asia.

640

641 **9. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

642

643 Our sincere thanks go out to all the stakeholders and partners involved in the
644 development until the conduct of the survey and to all the study participants. We are also
645 grateful to Western Philippines University's Blue Communities Team for participating in the
646 data collection.

647

648 **10. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

649 LA: conceived and design the analysis, development, and design of methodology, performed
650 analysis, wrote the original draft, revised, and edited the paper. JRV: collected data, contributed
651 to methodology and analysis, performed analysis, reviewed, and edited the paper. KM:
652 collected data, reviewed, and edited the paper. JBJ: contributed data, reviewed, and edited the
653 paper. LC: collected data, supervised, reviewed, and edited the paper. FC: contributed to
654 methodology, reviewed, and edited the paper. All authors contributed to the article and
655 approved the submitted version.

656

657 **11. REFERENCES**

658

- 659 1. Balbus J, Crimmins A, Gamble JL, Easterling DR, Kunkel KE, Saha S, et al. Ch. 1:
660 Introduction: Climate Change and Human Health. The Impacts of Climate Change on
661 Human Health in the United States: A Scientific Assessment [Internet]. Washington,
662 DC; 2016. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7930/J0VX0DFW>
- 663 2. Dole R, Hoerling M, Schubert S. CCSP, 2008: Reanalysis of Historical Climate Data
664 for Key Atmospheric Features: Implications for Attribution of Causes of Observed
665 Change [Internet]. Ashville, NC; 2008 [cited 2021 Nov 2]. Available from:
666 [10.13140/RG.2.1.4747.5046](https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.4747.5046)
- 667 3. Ziska L, Crimmins A, Auclair A, DeGrasse S, Garofalo JF, Khan AS, et al. Ch. 7:
668 Food Safety, Nutrition, and Distribution. The Impacts of Climate Change on Human
669 Health in the United States: A Scientific Assessment [Internet]. Washington, DC;
670 2016. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.7930/J0ZP4417>
- 671 4. Mbow C, Rosenzweig C, Barioni LG, Benton TG, Shukla PR, Skea J, et al. Food
672 Security. In: Climate Change and Land: an IPCC special report on climate change,
673 desertification, land degradation, sustainable land management, food security, and
674 greenhouse gas fluxes in terrestrial ecosystems [Internet]. 2019. Available from:
675 <https://www.ipcc.ch/srccl/chapter/chapter-5/>
- 676 5. Cowan J, Hare S, Kennedy V, Kleypas J, Twilley R. Coastal and marine ecosystems
677 Potential Effects on U.S. Resources & Global climate change [Internet]. Arlington, VA
678 22201 (USA); 2002 Aug. Available from: [https://www.c2es.org/wp-](https://www.c2es.org/wp-content/uploads/2002/08/marine_ecosystems.pdf)
679 [content/uploads/2002/08/marine_ecosystems.pdf](https://www.c2es.org/wp-content/uploads/2002/08/marine_ecosystems.pdf)

- 680 6. Oppenheimer M, Glavovic BC, Hinkel J, van de Wal R, Magnan AK, Abd-Elgawad A.
681 Sea Level Rise and Implications for Low-Lying Islands, Coasts and Communities. In:
682 IPCC Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate. 2019.
- 683 7. Turley C. Ocean Acidification. A National Strategy to Meet the Challenges of a
684 Changing Ocean [Internet]. Vol. 12, Fish and Fisheries. 2011. 352–354 p. Available
685 from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-2979.2011.00415.x>
- 686 8. Bindoff, N.L., P.A. Stott, K.M. AchutaRao, M.R. Allen, N. Gillett, D. Gutzler, K.
687 Hansingo, G. Hegerl, Y. Hu, S. Jain II, Mokhov, J. Overland, J. Perlwitz RS and XZ.
688 Detection and Attribution of Climate Change: from Global to Regional. In: Climate
689 Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the
690 Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Internet].
691 Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA; 2013. Available from:
692 https://www.ipcc.ch/site/assets/uploads/2018/02/WG1AR5_Chapter10_FINAL.pdf
- 693 9. Stocker TF, D. Qin, G.-K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S.K. Allen. IPCC, 2013: Climate
694 Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the
695 Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.
- 696 10. Dao HN, Vu HT, Kay S, Sailley S. Impact of Seawater Temperature on Coral Reefs in
697 the Context of Climate Change. A Case Study of Cu Lao Cham – Hoi An Biosphere
698 Reserve. *Front Mar Sci* [Internet]. 2021 Aug 9;8. Available from:
699 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.704682>
- 700 11. Leiserowitz A, Carman J, Buttermore N, Wang X, Rosenthal S, Marlon J, et al.
701 International Public Opinion on Climate Change. New Haven, CT: Yale Program on
702 Climate Change Communication and Facebook Data for Good. 2021;
- 703 12. Taylor AL, Dessai S, Bruine de Bruin W. Public perception of climate risk and
704 adaptation in the UK: A review of the literature. *Clim Risk Manag.* 2014;4–5:1–16.
- 705 13. Kitolelei J v., Sato T. Analysis of Perceptions and Knowledge in Managing Coastal
706 Resources: A Case Study in Fiji. *Front Mar Sci.* 2016 Sep 28;3.
- 707 14. Brecht H, Dasgupta S, Laplante B, Murray S, Wheeler D. Sea-Level Rise and Storm
708 Surges. *J Environ Dev* [Internet]. 2012 Mar 24;21(1). Available from:
709 <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1070496511433601>
- 710 15. Marine Geological Survey Division. Beaches and Small Island Municipalities of
711 Palawan Found at Risk Due to Impacts of Climate Change [Internet]. 2019. Available
712 from: <https://mgb.gov.ph/2015-05-13-02-02-11/mgb-news/>
- 713 16. Sea Level Research Group University of Colorado. Most Recent Global Mean Sea
714 Level Release [Internet]. 2021. Available from: <https://sealevel.colorado.edu>

- 715 17. International Development Research Centre (IDRC). Parts of Philippines may
716 submerge due to global warming [Internet]. 2015. Available from:
717 www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2015/10/151021104913.htm
- 718 18. Greenpeace.org. Maps show RP on road to climate change catastrophe [Internet].
719 2007. Available from: www.greenpeace.org
- 720 19. Palawan Biosphere Reserve, Philippines [Internet]. UNESCO. 1990. Available from:
721 <https://en.unesco.org/biosphere/aspac/palawan>
- 722 20. Banaguas G, Ramos R, Co M et. al. Climate Smart Palawan Creating Climate
723 Resilience in Calamianes Group of Islands (Busuang, Coron and Culion) [Internet].
724 2020. Available from: www.gwp.org/
- 725 21. Bernert K, Cabrera M, Ang MT, Belza VD, Banaguas G. Impact Assessment of
726 Climate Change of Coral Reefs in Busuanga, Palawan.
- 727 22. Pana MCF, Su GLSIA. Perceptions and adaptation capacities of fisher men on climate
728 change: the case of Palawan, Philippines. *J Appl Sci Environ Sanit* [Internet].
729 2012;7(153–160). Available from:
730 https://journaldatabase.info/articles/perceptions_adaptation_capacities.html
- 731 23. Bennett NJ. Using perceptions as evidence to improve conservation and environmental
732 management. *Conservation Biology*. 2016 Jun;30(3):582–92.
- 733 24. Beyerl K, Putz O, Breckwoldt A. The Role of Perceptions for Community-Based
734 Marine Resource Management. *Front Mar Sci*. 2016 Nov 22;3.
- 735 25. Lee TM, Markowitz EM, Howe PD, Ko CY, Leiserowitz AA. Predictors of public
736 climate change awareness and risk perception around the world. *Nat Clim Chang*. 2015
737 Nov 27;5(11):1014–20.
- 738 26. Kabir MI, Rahman MB, Smith W, Lusha MAF, Azim S, Milton AH. Knowledge and
739 perception about climate change and human health: findings from a baseline survey
740 among vulnerable communities in Bangladesh. *BMC Public Health* [Internet]. 2016
741 Dec 15;16(1). Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-016-2930-3>
- 742 27. van der Linden S. The social-psychological determinants of climate change risk
743 perceptions: Towards a comprehensive model. *J Environ Psychol*. 2015 Mar;41:112–
744 24.
- 745 28. Xie B, Brewer MB, Hayes BK, McDonald RI, Newell BR. Predicting climate change
746 risk perception and willingness to act. *J Environ Psychol*. 2019 Oct;65:101331.
- 747 29. van Eck CW, Mulder BC, van der Linden S. Climate Change Risk Perceptions of
748 Audiences in the Climate Change Blogosphere. *Sustainability*. 2020 Sep
749 27;12(19):7990.

- 750 30. Ballew M, Marlon J, Rosenthal S, Gustafson A, Kotcher J, Maibach E, et al. Do
751 younger generations care more about global warming? *Climate Change*
752 *Communication* [Internet]. 2019 Jun 19; Available from:
753 [https://climatecommunication.yale.edu/publications/do-younger-generations-care-](https://climatecommunication.yale.edu/publications/do-younger-generations-care-more-about-global-warming/)
754 [more-about-global-warming/](https://climatecommunication.yale.edu/publications/do-younger-generations-care-more-about-global-warming/)
- 755 31. Kopp RE, Hay CC, Little CM, Mitrovica JX. Geographic Variability of Sea-Level
756 Change. *Curr Clim Change Rep* [Internet]. 2015 Sep 1;1(3). Available from:
757 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s40641-015-0015-5>
- 758 32. Becerra MJ, Pimentel MA, de Souza EB, Tovar GI. Geospatiality of climate change
759 perceptions on coastal regions: A systematic bibliometric analysis. *Geography and*
760 *Sustainability*. 2020 Sep;1(3):209–19.
- 761 33. *Climate Change: Regional Impacts* [Internet]. University Corporation for Atmospheric
762 Research. 2021. Available from: [https://scied.ucar.edu/learning-zone/climate-change-](https://scied.ucar.edu/learning-zone/climate-change-impacts/regional)
763 [impacts/regional](https://scied.ucar.edu/learning-zone/climate-change-impacts/regional)
- 764 34. Reis S, Morris G, Fleming LE, Beck S, Taylor T, White M, et al. Integrating health
765 and environmental impact analysis. *Public Health*. 2015 Oct;129(10):1383–9.
- 766 35. PCSDS. State of the Environment 2015 Updates, Province of Palawan (UNESCO Man
767 and Biosphere Reserve), Philippines. 2015;1–188.
- 768 36. Authority PS. Updated Projected Mid-Year Population for the Philippines. 2021.
- 769 37. Lapedez JP, Tablazon J, Dasallas L, Gonzalo LA, Cabacaba KM, Ramos MMA, et al.
770 Identification of storm surge vulnerable areas in the Philippines through the simulation
771 of Typhoon Haiyan-induced storm surge levels over historical storm tracks. *Natural*
772 *Hazards and Earth System Sciences*. 2015;15(7):1473–81.
- 773 38. Fisher M. This map shows why the Philippines is so vulnerable to climate change.
774 *Washington Post.com*. 2013;1.
- 775 39. FABRO KA. Palawan’s hazard-prone towns identified [Internet]. *Rappler*. 2017. p. 1.
776 Available from: [https://www.rappler.com/moveph/176746-palawan-hazard-prone-](https://www.rappler.com/moveph/176746-palawan-hazard-prone-towns-identified/)
777 [towns-identified/](https://www.rappler.com/moveph/176746-palawan-hazard-prone-towns-identified/)
- 778 40. Romar Miranda. Climate change cripples Palawan seaweed farms. 2022.
- 779 41. Watkins MW. Exploratory Factor Analysis: A Guide to Best Practice. *Journal of Black*
780 *Psychology*. 2018 Apr 27;44(3):219–46.
- 781 42. Hoelzle JB, J. Meyer G. Exploratory Factor Analysis: Basics and Beyond. In:
782 *Handbook of Psychology, Second Edition*. Hoboken, NJ, USA: John Wiley & Sons,
783 Inc.; 2012.

- 784 43. Lloret S, Ferreres A, Hernández A, Tomás I. El análisis factorial exploratorio de los
785 ítems: análisis guiado según los datos empíricos y el software. *Anales de Psicología*.
786 2017 Mar 31;33(2):417.
- 787 44. Field A. *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics*. fourth ed. London: SAGE
788 Publications Ltd.; 2013.
- 789 45. Zdaniuk B. Ordinary Least-Squares (OLS) Model. In: *Encyclopedia of Quality of Life*
790 *and Well-Being Research*. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands; 2014. p. 4515–7.
- 791 46. Madarcos JR v., Creencia LA, Roberts BR, White MP, Nayoan J, Morrissey K, et al.
792 Understanding Local Perceptions of the Drivers/Pressures on the Coastal Marine
793 Environment in Palawan, Philippines. *Front Mar Sci* [Internet]. 2021 Sep 14;8.
794 Available from: <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.659699>
- 795 47. Sambrook K, Konstantinidis E, Russell S, Okan Y. The Role of Personal Experience
796 and Prior Beliefs in Shaping Climate Change Perceptions: A Narrative Review. *Front*
797 *Psychol* [Internet]. 2021 Jul 2;12. Available from:
798 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.669911>
- 799 48. Spence A, Poortinga W, Butler C, Pidgeon NF. Perceptions of climate change and
800 willingness to save energy related to flood experience. *Nat Clim Chang*. 2011;1(1):46–
801 9.
- 802 49. Sisco MR, Bosetti V, Weber EU. When do extreme weather events generate attention
803 to climate change? *Clim Change*. 2017 Jul 29;143(1–2):227–41.
- 804 50. Lujala P, Lein H, Rød JK. Climate change, natural hazards, and risk perception: the
805 role of proximity and personal experience. *Local Environ*. 2015 Apr 3;20(4):489–509.
- 806 51. Howe PD. Perceptions of seasonal weather are linked to beliefs about global climate
807 change: evidence from Norway. *Clim Change*. 2018 Jun 5;148(4):467–80.
- 808 52. Zaval L, Keenan EA, Johnson EJ, Weber EU. How warm days increase belief in global
809 warming. *Nat Clim Chang*. 2014;4(2):143–7.
- 810 53. Howe PD, Leiserowitz A. Who remembers a hot summer or a cold winter? The
811 asymmetric effect of beliefs about global warming on perceptions of local climate
812 conditions in the U.S. *Global Environmental Change*. 2013 Dec;23(6):1488–500.
- 813 54. Krosnick JA, Holbrook AL, Lowe L, Visser PS. The Origins and Consequences of
814 democratic citizens' Policy Agendas: A Study of Popular Concern about Global
815 Warming. *Clim Change*. 2006 Aug 21;77(1–2):7–43.
- 816 55. Yumul GP, Cruz NA, Servando NT, Dimalanta CB. Extreme weather events and
817 related disasters in the Philippines, 2004–08: a sign of what climate change will mean?
818 *Disasters* [Internet]. 2011 Apr;35(2):362–82. Available from:
819 <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1467-7717.2010.01216.x>

- 820 56. Konisky DM, Hughes L, Kaylor CH. Extreme weather events and climate change
821 concern. *Clim Change*. 2016 Feb 28;134(4):533–47.
- 822 57. Keller C, Siegrist M, Gutscher H. The Role of the Affect and Availability Heuristics in
823 Risk Communication. *Risk Analysis*. 2006 Jun;26(3):631–9.
- 824 58. Fagan M, Huang C. A look at how people around the world view climate change. Pew
825 Research Center [Internet]. 2019 Apr 18; Available from:
826 <https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2019/04/>
- 827 59. Shameem MIM, Momtaz S, Kiem AS. Local perceptions of and adaptation to climate
828 variability and change: the case of shrimp farming communities in the coastal region
829 of Bangladesh. *Clim Change*. 2015 Nov 21;133(2):253–66.
- 830 60. Roy AK, Sharma S. Perceptions and Adaptations of the Coastal Community to the
831 Challenges of Climate Change. *Environment and Urbanization ASIA*. 2015 Mar
832 4;6(1):71–91.
- 833 61. Priestley RK, Heine Z, Milfont TL. Public understanding of climate change-related
834 sea-level rise. *PLoS One* [Internet]. 2021 Jul 9;16(7). Available from:
835 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0254348>
- 836 62. Shao W, Moftakhari H, Moradkhani H. Comparing public perceptions of sea level rise
837 with scientific projections across five states of the U.S. Gulf Coast region. *Clim*
838 *Change* [Internet]. 2020 Nov 24;163(1). Available from:
839 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-020-02893-1>
- 840 63. Piamonte RA, Gravoso R. Research Note: Coverage of climate change risks in leading
841 Philippine newspapers. *Annals of Tropical Research*. 2008;136:125–36.
- 842 64. Laurice Jamero Ma, Onuki M, Esteban M, Billones-Sensano XK, Tan N, Nellas A, et
843 al. Small-island communities in the Philippines prefer local measures to relocation in
844 response to sea-level rise. *Nat Clim Chang* [Internet]. 2017 Aug 24;7(8):581–6.
845 Available from: <http://www.nature.com/articles/nclimate3344>
- 846 65. Wilkinson CR, R.W. Buddemeier. *Global Climate Change and Coral Reefs:*
847 *Implications for People and Reefs*. Report of the UNEP-IOC-ASPEI-IUCN Global
848 Task Team on the implications of climate change on coral reefs. Gland, Switzerland;
849 1994.
- 850 66. Aronson RB, Precht WF. White-band disease and the changing face of Caribbean coral
851 reefs. *Hydrobiologia* [Internet]. 2001;460(1/3). Available from:
852 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1013103928980>
- 853 67. *Overfishing and Destructive Fishing Threats*. Reef Resilience Network . 2021.
- 854 68. *Habitat Impacts*. Reef Resilience Network . 2021.

- 855 69. Delgado O, Ruiz J, Pérez M, Romero J, Ballesteros E. Effects of fish farming on
856 seagrass (*Posidonia oceanica*) in a Mediterranean bay: seagrass decline after organic
857 loading cessation. *Oceanologica Acta* [Internet]. 1999 Jan;22(1). Available from:
858 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0399-1784\(99\)80037-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0399-1784(99)80037-1)
- 859 70. Estrada F, Kim D, Perron P. Anthropogenic influence in observed regional warming
860 trends and the implied social time of emergence. *Commun Earth Environ*. 2021 Dec
861 12;2(1):31.
- 862 71. Macusi ED, Camaso KL, Barboza A, Macusi ES. Perceived Vulnerability and Climate
863 Change Impacts on Small-Scale Fisheries in Davao Gulf, Philippines. *Front Mar Sci*.
864 2021 Jul 5;8.
- 865 72. Short FT, Neckles HA. The effects of global climate change on seagrasses. *Aquat Bot*.
866 1999 Apr;63(3–4):169–96.
- 867 73. Bashir I, Lone FA, Bhat RA, Mir SA, Dar ZA, Dar SA. Concerns and Threats of
868 Contamination on Aquatic Ecosystems. In: *Bioremediation and Biotechnology*
869 [Internet]. Cham: Springer International Publishing; 2020. Available from:
870 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-35691-0_1
- 871 74. Fulton CJ, Depczynski Martial, Holmes TH, Noble MM, Radford B, Wernberg T, et
872 al. Sea temperature shapes seasonal fluctuations in seaweed biomass within the
873 Ningaloo coral reef ecosystem. *Limnol Oceanogr*. 2014 Jan;59(1):156–66.
- 874 75. Whitmarsh L. Are flood victims more concerned about climate change than other
875 people? The role of direct experience in risk perception and behavioural response. *J*
876 *Risk Res* [Internet]. 2008 Apr;11(3). Available from:
877 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13669870701552235>
- 878 76. How does climate change affect coral reefs? [Internet]. National Oceanic and
879 Atmospheric Administration. 2021. Available from:
880 <https://oceanservice.noaa.gov/facts/coralreef-climate.html>
- 881 77. Kuanui P, Chavanich S, Viyakarn V, Omori M, Fujita T, Lin C. Effect of light
882 intensity on survival and photosynthetic efficiency of cultured corals of different ages.
883 *Estuar Coast Shelf Sci*. 2020 Apr;235:106515.
- 884 78. Ralph PJ, Durako MJ, Enríquez S, Collier CJ, Doblin MA. Impact of light limitation
885 on seagrasses. *J Exp Mar Biol Ecol*. 2007 Nov;350(1–2):176–93.
- 886 79. APHA. *Climate Changes Health: Vulnerable Populations*. American Public Health
887 Association. 2021;
- 888 80. Muallil RN, Cleland D, Aliño PM. Socioeconomic factors associated with fishing
889 pressure in small-scale fisheries along the West Philippine Sea biogeographic region.
890 *Ocean Coast Manag*. 2013 Sep;82:27–33.

- 891 81. Ankrah J. Climate change impacts and coastal livelihoods; an analysis of fishers of
892 coastal Winneba, Ghana. *Ocean Coast Manag.* 2018 Jul;161:141–6.
- 893 82. Afjal Hossain Md, Imran Reza Md, Rahman S, Kayes I. Climate Change and its
894 Impacts on the Livelihoods of the Vulnerable People in the Southwestern Coastal Zone
895 in Bangladesh. In 2012. p. 237–59.
- 896 83. Islam MM, Islam N, Habib A, Mozumder MMH. Climate Change Impacts on a
897 Tropical Fishery Ecosystem: Implications and Societal Responses. *Sustainability.* 2020
898 Sep 25;12(19):7970.
- 899 84. Suh D, Pomeroy R. Projected Economic Impact of Climate Change on Marine Capture
900 Fisheries in the Philippines. *Front Mar Sci.* 2020 Apr 16;7.
- 901 85. McClanahan TR, Cinner JE, Maina J, Graham NAJ, Daw TM, Stead SM, et al.
902 Conservation action in a changing climate. *Conserv Lett.* 2008 May 20;1(2):53–9.
- 903 86. Lee SY, Primavera JH, Dahdouh-Guebas F, McKee K, Bosire JO, Cannicci S, et al.
904 Ecological role and services of tropical mangrove ecosystems: a reassessment. *Global
905 Ecology and Biogeography.* 2014 Jul;23(7):726–43.
- 906 87. Shi J, Visschers VHM, Siegrist M. Public Perception of Climate Change: The
907 Importance of Knowledge and Cultural Worldviews. *Risk Analysis [Internet].* 2015
908 Dec;35(12). Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1111/risa.12406>
- 909 88. Pearson AR, Ballew MT, Naiman S, Schuldt JP. Race, Class, Gender and Climate
910 Change Communication. In: *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Climate Science*
911 *[Internet].* Oxford University Press; 2017. Available from:
912 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190228620.013.412>
- 913 89. McCright AM. The effects of gender on climate change knowledge and concern in the
914 American public. *Popul Environ [Internet].* 2010 Sep 5;32(1). Available from:
915 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11111-010-0113-1>
- 916 90. Ballew M, Marlon J, Leiserowitz A, Maibach E. Gender Differences in Public
917 Understanding of Climate Change. *Climate Change Communication [Internet].* 2018
918 Nov 20; Available from: <https://climatecommunication.yale.edu/publications/>
- 919 91. Shen J, Saijo T. Reexamining the relations between socio-demographic characteristics
920 and individual environmental concern: Evidence from Shanghai data. *J Environ
921 Psychol [Internet].* 2008 Mar;28(1):42–50. Available from:
922 <https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0272494407000783>
- 923 92. Cao S, Chen L, Liu Z. An Investigation of Chinese Attitudes toward the Environment:
924 Case Study Using the Grain for Green Project. *AMBIO: A Journal of the Human
925 Environment [Internet].* 2009 Feb;38(1):55–64. Available from:
926 <http://www.bioone.org/doi/abs/10.1579/0044-7447-38.1.55>

- 927 93. Selm KR, Peterson MN, Hess GR, Beck SM, McHale MR. Educational attainment
928 predicts negative perceptions women have of their own climate change knowledge.
929 Morrissey K, editor. PLoS One [Internet]. 2019 Jan 4;14(1):e0210149. Available from:
930 <https://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0210149>
- 931 94. Yang X, Wei L, Su Q. How Is Climate Change Knowledge Distributed among the
932 Population in Singapore? A Demographic Analysis of Actual Knowledge and Illusory
933 Knowledge. Sustainability. 2020 May 6;12(9):3782.
- 934 95. Poverty in the Philippines [Internet]. Available from: www.adb.org/
- 935 96. Frumkin H, Fried L, Moody R. Aging, Climate Change, and Legacy Thinking. Am J
936 Public Health. 2012 Aug;102(8):1434–8.
- 937 97. Lee K, Gjersoe N, O’Neill S, Barnett J. Youth perceptions of climate change: A
938 narrative synthesis. WIREs Climate Change. 2020 May 22;11(3).
- 939 98. Jayagoda DD. Community-based Mangrove Forest Management in Association with
940 Sustainable Tourism in Puerto Princesa City of the Philippines. International Journal of
941 Sustainable Future for Human Security. 2016 Apr 1;3(2).
- 942 99. Strain EMA, Alexander KA, Kienker S, Morris R, Jarvis R, Coleman R, et al. Urban
943 blue: A global analysis of the factors shaping people’s perceptions of the marine
944 environment and ecological engineering in harbours. Science of The Total
945 Environment. 2019 Mar;658:1293–305.
- 946 100. Sumeldan JDC, Richter I, Avillanosa AL, Bacosa HP, Creencia LA, Pahl S. Ask the
947 Locals: A Community-Informed Analysis of Perceived Marine Environment Quality
948 Over Time in Palawan, Philippines. Front Psychol [Internet]. 2021 Aug 10;12.
949 Available from: <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.661810>
- 950 101. Gkargkavouzi A, Paraskevopoulos S, Matsiori S. Public perceptions of the marine
951 environment and behavioral intentions to preserve it: The case of three coastal cities in
952 Greece. Mar Policy. 2020 Jan;111:103727.

953

954

955

956

957

958

959

960

961

Questionnaire

962 **Climate Change Awareness and Risk Perceptions in the Coastal Marine** 963 **Ecosystem of Palawan, Philippines**

964

Climate Change Awareness	Fully disagree						Fully agree	No Answer
1. Do you think the climate on your locality is changing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
Experiences of Climate Change Impacts								
2. Have you observed/experienced the following phenomenon in your area?	Very low						Very high	No Answer
• Floods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Local Temperature Rise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Sea level rise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Excessive rainfall	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Heatstroke	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Sunburn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Income	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Affecting livelihood activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
Perceptions of Climate Change Impacts								
3. Climate Change Impacts on the Coastal Marine Ecosystem:	Fully disagree						Fully Agree	No Answer
• Risk to mangroves ecosystem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Risk to the marine coastal ecosystem as a whole	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Sea level is rising rapidly, regardless of when there is a typhoon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• The rising sea level has eroded the areas with mangrove trees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• The rising sea level has eroded the areas without mangrove trees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• The rising sea will affect the mangroves ecosystem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
Climate Change Impacts on Coral Reefs and Seagrass Beds								
4. At what level does the following affect the state of your corals, reefs, and sea grass beds?	Very low						Very high	No Answer
• Changes in environmental temperature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Excessive rainfall	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• El Nino (droughts)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Frequent typhoons and floods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Runoffs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Sewerage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Domestic wastes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Pollution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Red tide (HABs)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Land use change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Urbanization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Natural Calamities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Illegal Fisheries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99

Target Journal: UCL OPEN ENVIRONMENT

• Tourism-related development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Pearl farms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Fish cages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99
• Shellfish (mussel) farms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	99

965

966 This final section will ask you various background questions to help us understand what different sections of the local
 967 population think about marine issues. Please remember that all the information you provide is **confidential**.

968

969 Interviewer, please note: Gender (Male/Female)

970

971 Interviewer please note: Name of village/barangay _____

972

973 Q1) Can I ask how old you are please _____yrs.

974

975 Q2) Do you or any member of your household do any of the following types of work (Please select all that apply)

976 Fishing for the market (wild fish/shellfish)

977 Fishing/gleaning for family food

978 Aquaculture (farmed fish/shellfish/seaweeds)

979 Shipping (including freight, passenger, etc.)

980 Coastal tourism/recreation (e.g., tourist boats, seaside walking guides, swimming/snorkeling guides)

981 Coastal management (e.g., coastline protection, wastewater treatment)

982 Marine environment protection (e.g., environmental group or government agency, mangrove protection)

983 Marine policy/research

984 Others (Specify_____)

985 None of the above (No one in my household works in the marine sector)

986 Don't know/ Prefer not to answer

987

988 Q3) Do you get income from any of the following activities?

989 Fishing

990 Crabbing/shrimping

991 Aquaculture (caged fish/fin-fish)

992 Seaweed farming

993 Post-harvest activities

994 Taking tourists on boats etc.

995 Q4) And approximately how much money do you make from all these activities together per month?

996 (Pesos)

997

998 **And finally, a few questions about your background and affiliations:**

999 Q5) What is your highest education level?

1000 Elementary level

1001 Elementary graduate

1002 High School level

1003 High School Graduate

1004 College Level

1005 College Graduate

1006 **Supplementary Table 1.** Perceptions of climate change impact in the coastal areas. The
 1007 response options provided to the respondents was a bipolar rating scale: 1 = fully disagree to 7
 1008 = fully agree. n = 291
 1009

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

1010 ^a Factor means

1011 ¹ Factor obtained from data reduction thru Principal Component Analysis of perceived climate change impact in the
 1012 coastal areas

1013

1014

1015

1016

1017

1018

1019

1020

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025 **Supplementary Table 2.** Perceptions of factors affecting the coral reefs and seagrass beds.
 1026 The response options provided to the respondents was a bipolar rating scale: 1 = fully disagree
 1027 to 7 = fully agree. n = 291
 1028

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 Pressures 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
Red tide	35.4	3.9	1.1	20.8	11.2	12.9	14.6	38.8	3.66	2.28	0.72
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

1029 ^a Factor means

1030 ¹ Factor obtained from data reduction thru Principal Component Analysis of perceived impact of factors affecting the
 1031 coral reefs and seagrass beds

1032

1033

1034

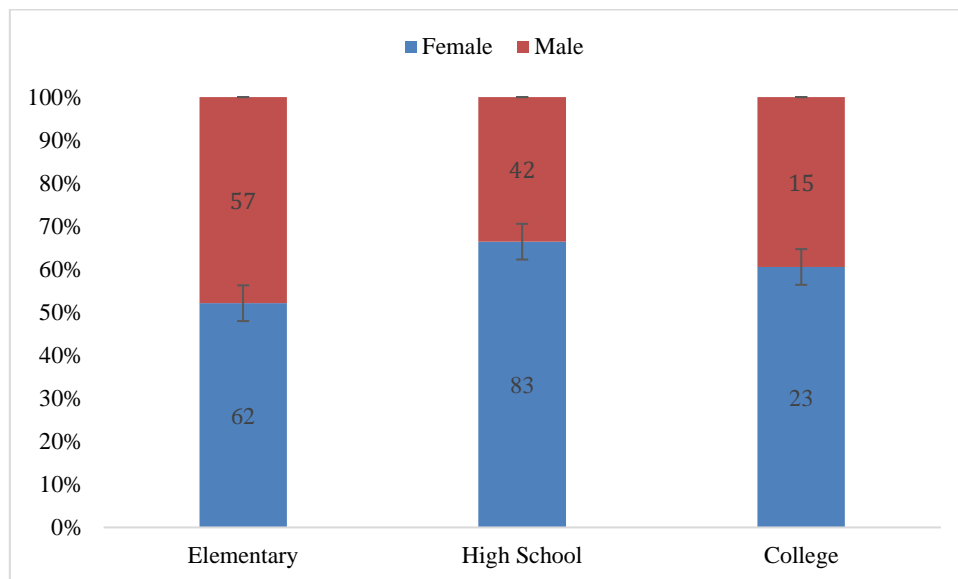
1035

1036 **Supplementary Table 3.** Paired samples t-test comparing sea level rise impact on coastal
 1037 erosion when there are mangroves compared to when there are no mangroves in the coastal
 1038 areas of Palawan, Philippines.
 1039

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

1040 **Note: Cohens D = 0.42; *** p < 0.001**

1041
 1042
 1043
 1044



1045 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Cross-tabulation count of participants' gender and educational
 1046 attainment who perceived the climate change impact on coral reefs and seagrasses. (n = 291).
 1047 (The count was based on listwise deletion).
 1048
 1049

1050
 1051
 1052