

# Spatial Planning Model for Optimizing Conservation Priorities for Local Community Utilization on Arefi Island in the Raja Ampat Marine Protected Area (MPA) Southwest Papua, Indonesia

Mulyanto Darmawan<sup>1</sup>, Debora Christi Simamora<sup>2</sup>, Irmadi Nahib<sup>4</sup>, Fadhlullah Ramadhani<sup>1</sup>, Dewayany Sutrisno<sup>3</sup>, Fahmi Amhar<sup>1</sup>, Muhammad Ramdhan<sup>1</sup>, Sitarani Safitri<sup>1</sup>, Bayu Sutejo<sup>4</sup>, Samsul Arifin<sup>1</sup>, Syamsul Bahri Agus<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Research Center for Geoinformatics, National Research and Innovation Agency of Indonesia (BRIN), Bogor, West Java, Indonesia

<sup>2</sup> Department of Marine Science and Technology, IPB University, Bogor, West Java, Indonesia

<sup>3</sup> Research Center for Conservation of Marine and Inland Water Resources, National Innovation and Research Agency (BRIN), Bogor, West Java, Indonesia

<sup>4</sup> Research Center for Limnology and Water Resources, National Research and Innovation Agency of Indonesia (BRIN), Bogor, West Java, Indonesia

Corresponding Author:

Mulyanto Darmawan<sup>1</sup>

Street Address, Bogor, West Java, 16680, Indonesia

Email address: Muly023@brin.go.id

## Abstract

This study investigates the application of remote sensing technologies to identify the biophysical characteristics of marine ecosystems for spatial planning, focusing on optimal conservation scenarios within the Raja Ampat Marine Protected Area (MPA) on Arefi Island, Southwest Papua, Indonesia. Indigenous communities manage this area. WorldView-3 satellite imagery, combined with an object-based image analysis (OBIA) approach, was used to classify and map coastal ecosystems. A Marine Reserve Design using the Spatially Explicit Annealing (Marxan) model was applied to delineate conservation areas and propose zoning strategies. The analysis revealed that Arefi Island's coastal ecosystems cover 64.78 hectares, consisting of seagrass beds (45.41%), coral reefs (36.35%), and mangroves (18.24%), with a kappa accuracy of 0.82. Three scenarios, based on ecological values, were tested to prioritize conservation features while ensuring sustainable ecosystem use. Ecological Value III is most closely aligned with international conservation standards, designating 34.37 hectares (6.32%) as a core conservation zone. However, Ecological Scenario II provided a balanced approach, allocating larger areas for local community use while preserving conservation integrity. This study highlights the

effectiveness of remote sensing and spatial planning tools, such as Marxan, in marine conservation within indigenously managed areas, emphasizing the importance of balancing conservation efforts with sustainable community use for future planning.

**Keywords:** Spatial planning, remote sensing, marine protected area, indigenous management, marxan models.

## Introduction

Indonesia harbours some of the world's richest marine biodiversity. It encompasses approximately 3,953,800 hectares of the world's coral reefs, over 3,000,000 hectares of seagrass beds, and 2,332,429 hectares of mangroves (Amkieltiela et al., 2022; Burke et al., 2011; Hamilton & Friess, 2018; Thorhaug et al., 2020). These productive ecosystems provide numerous benefits, such as filtering pollutants, supplying nutrition, offering coastal protection, supporting livelihoods, and sequestering carbon. Due to these significant benefits, Indonesia has a high conservation priority, particularly in the Raja Ampat Marine Protected Area, located in the Arefi Island Regency, Southwest Papua Province. While other regions in Indonesia, such as Komodo National Park, Wakatobi, and Bunaken, hold substantial conservation value, Raja Ampat stands out due to its unparalleled biodiversity, strategic location within the Coral Triangle, and globally significant ecosystems. The unique marine life, ecological significance, and need for sustainable management in the face of growing environmental pressures position Raja Ampat as a top conservation priority for Indonesia. The nation recognizes that safeguarding Raja Ampat is not only a national obligation but also essential for protecting global marine biodiversity. Conservation efforts in Raja Ampat have also focused on supporting the livelihoods of indigenous and local communities (Sutton, 2023).

The conservation of marine environments is crucial for maintaining the Earth's natural processes, addressing significant future challenges such as climate change, and ensuring societal well-being and benefits (Marcos et al., 2021). The Indonesian government has established 411 Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) across its archipelago, covering approximately 9% of its territorial waters—over 28 million hectares (Estradivari et al., 2022). The Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Fisheries (MMAF) of the Republic of Indonesia issued ministerial decree no. 36 in 2014, designating the Raja Ampat marine area as an MPA. This MPA is divided into five regions, totalling approximately 1,026,540 hectares. Each area includes specific zones that play a vital role in the management and conservation of natural resources, offering a framework for effective planning and sustainable development (MMAF, 2014). In this context, "zone" refers to a designated area with specific characteristics or purposes, often demarcated for conservation, resource management, or regulatory objectives. The zones in Raja Ampat include core, utilization, fisheries, and other zones. The "other zones" are further divided into two subzones: traditional use and seasonal closure, and other utilization (MMAF, 2016).

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79 For marine biodiversity conservation, MPAs are defined as marine, coastal, or small island areas  
80 that are protected and managed by a zoning system to achieve the sustainable management of  
81 fish resources and biodiversity conservation (Green et al., 2009). MPAs are essential tools for  
82 conserving marine biodiversity and sustaining ecosystem services (Claudet et al., 2020).  
83 Particularly, MPAs with well-designed spatial planning strategies are more effective at achieving  
84 conservation goals (Edgar et al., 2014). With the rising threats from human activities such as  
85 overfishing, habitat destruction, and climate change, spatial planning within MPAs has become  
86 vital for sustainable management (Mora et al., 2011). In recent years, MPA areas, including  
87 Arefi Island, have faced increasing pressures from sea level rise, ocean acidification, and  
88 anthropogenic impacts like overfishing and habitat destruction. To mitigate these challenges,  
89 effective spatial planning is essential (White et al., 2018). Advanced modelling techniques have  
90 positioned spatial planning as a valuable tool for optimizing conservation efforts within MPAs.  
91 Spatial planning involves the systematic allocation of marine areas for various uses while  
92 considering ecological, social, and economic objectives.  
93  
94

95 The Raja Ampat Regency in Southwest Papua, Indonesia, is renowned for its natural tourism,  
96 both on land and at sea, and its rich sociocultural heritage, largely due to its extraordinary marine  
97 biodiversity (Cinner et al., 2018). However, the Raja Ampat MPAs face certain shortcomings,  
98 particularly in areas such as Arefi Island. Arefi Island and its surroundings are located within the  
99 “other zones” of the Raja Ampat marine conservation area (MMAF, 2014). While the  
100 significance of Arefi in the broader context of marine conservation is recognized, the MMAF  
101 decree lacks the specificity required to fully harness its potential. In particular, the decree fails to  
102 clearly delineate the boundaries of subzones, address the diverse ecosystems and biodiversity  
103 within the area, and optimize the use of marine resources by indigenous communities. This lack  
104 of precision hinders the realization of conservation objectives. For an MPA to be both effective  
105 and beneficial to surrounding communities, its location must adhere to four key principles:  
106 Connectedness, Adequacy, Representativeness, and Effectiveness (CARE) (Ban et al., 2011).  
107 According to various studies, the ideal proportion of coastal areas that should be protected ranges  
108 from 20-30% of the total coastal area (Krueck et al., 2017; IUCN, 2008; Green et al., 2014).  
109

110 Establishing MPAs is an important step toward conservation, but the lack of precise boundary  
111 delineation and insufficient consideration of the intricate mosaic of ecosystems impede the  
112 strategic planning needed for effective conservation. This gap in applying CARE principles in  
113 Arefi Island’s designation highlights a critical issue in marine conservation efforts in Indonesia  
114 and other similarly biodiverse regions worldwide. The broad approach of the MMAF decree  
115 overlooks the ecological and socioeconomic complexities of Arefi Island, leading to a disconnect  
116 between conservation objectives and on-ground realities. This oversight not only compromises  
117 the ecological integrity of the protected area but also the livelihoods and cultural heritage of  
118 indigenous communities dependent on these marine resources. Moreover, the failure to align

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with recommended coverage and core zone area standards for MPAs exacerbates challenges in achieving sustainable conservation outcomes. Addressing these gaps requires a comprehensive, data-driven approach to MPA management that emphasizes spatial planning and community involvement, ensuring both biodiversity conservation and socioeconomic resilience.

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Effective maritime planning is essential for designing marine conservation areas. In this process, analyzing spatial information is crucial. Decision-making regarding conservation costs becomes particularly important when budgets are limited (de Groot et al., 2022). Some decision-makers argue that areas designated for ecosystem services (ES) conservation should focus on meeting specific ES conservation targets at low cost, rather than prioritizing areas with the highest ES intensity (Schröter and Remme, 2016). Various spatial decision support tools, such as Marxan, have been developed to integrate socioeconomic costs into ES conservation planning (Adame et al., 2015). As conservation costs vary across different regions (Naidoo et al., 2006), Marxan iteratively selects low-cost areas until the combined ES conservation targets are achieved (Watson et al., 2019). Thus, conservation costs act as a spatial constraint for ES conservation, necessitating the prioritization of lands with lower conservation costs (Egoh et al., 2011).

Research has demonstrated that conservation prioritization based on systematic conservation planning (SCP) theory can result in cost-effective conservation efforts while meeting multiple objectives (Beger et al., 2022). SCP theory, initially a foundational paradigm in conservation biology (Margules and Pressey, 2000), is now widely applied to guide objective decision-making in the prioritization of conservation actions (Kukkala and Moilanen, 2017). There are two significant advantages to using SCP-based prioritization. First, SCP theory suggests that priority areas should be identified based on three core criteria: importance, vulnerability, and feasibility (Wilson et al., 2009). This approach ensures comprehensive coverage and balances multiple objectives during implementation (Kukkala and Moilanen, 2017). Second, SCP theory categorizes prioritization challenges into two main types of mathematical problems: minimizing costs and maximizing benefits. These offer different but effective solutions for planning and implementation (Alagador et al., 2016).

In this context, implementing maritime planning within a Geographic Information System (GIS) framework provides significant advantages. An effective maritime planning process involves evaluating various objectives, identifying conflicts or synergies in marine use, assessing risks posed by human activities, managing spatial zones, and testing different scenarios. Stelzenmüller et al. (2013) noted that conservation area planning can be efficiently evaluated using practical tools, including risk assessments, forecasting, modeling, and decision-support tools such as simulation models to explore planning options and address complex scenarios.

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This study aimed to examine the complexities of conserving the Arefi subzone by utilizing existing biodiversity elements through remote sensing data, enabling the community to make

184 optimal use of these resources. The primary objectives were to use remote sensing data to  
185 identify biophysical features (mangroves, coral reefs, and seagrass) as input for determining  
186 conservation areas on Arefi Island and to propose zoning within the MPA to protect biodiversity  
187 while supporting the sustainable management of marine resources by the local community.  
188 Through this research, we seek to provide valuable insights into marine conservation planning,  
189 contributing to the development of a robust and sustainable spatial plan for Arefi Island.

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191 **Materials & Methods**

192 **Study Area**

193 This research was conducted in Area III of the Marine Protected Area (MPA) in the Dampier  
194 Strait, Arefi Island, Raja Ampat Regency, Southwest Papua (Fig. 1). Raja Ampat Regency is  
195 characterized by a cluster of islands situated between 2°25' N and 4°25' S latitude and 130° E to  
196 132°55' E longitude. The regency covers approximately 6,084.5 km<sup>2</sup> and includes around 600  
197 islands of varying sizes. The Raja Ampat conservation area is renowned for its ecological  
198 richness and is a popular tourist destination. It also holds strategic importance for fisheries due to  
199 its well-functioning aquatic ecosystem. Although categorized under "other zones" in the Raja  
200 Ampat MPAs, satellite data reveal the significant biophysical potential of Arefi Island (McKenna  
201 et al., 2002; RPZ Raja Ampat, 2018). The term "other zone" refers to the zoning classification  
202 used by the MMAF of the Republic of Indonesia for the Raja Ampat water conservation area,  
203 which includes four districts in Southwest Papua.

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205 Arefi Island, located at 0° 47' 18.67" S and 130° 42' 27.72" E, supports significant marine  
206 biodiversity and provides critical habitats for various species, including corals, fish, and  
207 endangered marine mammals (Kovacs et al., 2021; Trip et al., 2019). The island's characteristics  
208 make it a suitable candidate for various conservation zones, including core, fisheries, and  
209 sustainable utilization areas. Additionally, Arefi Island is home to indigenous cultures that  
210 practice the "sasi" tradition, a customary resource management system deeply rooted in their  
211 cultural heritage. This system involves periodic closures to allow ecosystem recovery and ensure  
212 resource sustainability (Sairiltiata, 2023). Under sasi, indigenous communities impose temporary  
213 bans (moratoriums) on the use of marine resources, such as coral reefs and fish, in specific areas  
214 for designated periods (Rachma Persada et al., 2018). This highlights the need for a  
215 comprehensive and nuanced zoning strategy to fully protect and utilize the island's diverse  
216 ecosystems.

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218 Figure 1. Study area map in Arefi Island, Raja Ampat District

219 **Data Used**

231 The data used in this research primarily consists of remote sensing data, supported by secondary  
232 data sources (Table 1). Specifications of the multispectral bands of the Worldview 3 imagery are  
233 detailed in Table 2. The research framework and stages are illustrated in Figure 2.

234  
235 Figure 2: Research Framework

236  
237 The first step involved analyzing satellite imagery to map biophysical parameters, including  
238 mangroves, seagrass, and coral reefs. These biophysical parameters serve as breeding grounds  
239 for numerous fish species with both commercial and ecological significance (Weeks, 2017;  
240 Sutrisno et al., 2021) and are integral to conservation efforts. In the second step, the **locations of**  
241 **biophysical parameters** were used as inputs for determining conservation features. Cost features  
242 were calculated based on the **current usage?** of the area, as presented in Table 3.

243  
244 Table 1: Types and Sources of Data

245 Table 2: Multispectral Bands of the WorldView-3 Satellite Imagery (Source: Choudhury et al.,  
246 2021)

247  
248 **Method of Biophysical Analysis**

249 The biophysical parameters were **mapped** using high-resolution Worldview 3 satellite images  
250 from 2021, provided by the Center for Data and Information, National Innovation and Research  
251 Agency (BRIN). The spatial resolution of these images is approximately 0.6 meters, allowing  
252 detailed analysis and mapping of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems.

253  
254 Due to the high resolution of the satellite images, thorough image analysis is essential.  
255 Traditional pixel-based classification methods are limited due to spectral similarities. To address  
256 this, Object-Based Image Analysis (OBIA) was employed, which differs from pixel-based  
257 methods by using image objects as the basic unit of analysis rather than individual pixels  
258 (Hossain and Chen, 2019). OBIA is an iterative process that starts with segmenting satellite  
259 images into cohesive and contiguous segments. These image objects are then classified using  
260 either supervised or unsupervised approaches (Belgiu and Csillik, 2018).  
261 According to Ventura et al. (2018), the OBIA workflow begins with image segmentation, a  
262 process based on pixel parameters with similar spectral values. In this study, we used the Multi-  
263 resolution Segmentation (MRS) algorithm to create image objects that minimize average  
264 heterogeneity and maximize homogeneity. The three key parameters in the MRS algorithm are  
265 shape, compactness, and scale (Darmawan et al., 2022). OBIA analysis was performed using  
266 eCognition Developer 64 software.

267 The segmentation results were then classified using support vector machine (SVM) algorithms, a  
268 sophisticated non-parametric classifier widely employed in hyperspectral image classification  
269 that operates based on statistical learning theory (Tan et al. 2018). It is designed to seek an  
270 optimal decision hyperplane within a high-dimensional space, ensuring optimal separation of

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classes. SVM consistently performs well in challenging classification scenarios with high-dimensional features, demonstrating its effectiveness even when dealing with a limited number of training samples (Cao et al. 2018). The fundamental concept behind the SVM is to identify a hyperplane that maximizes the margin between distinct classes. This hyperplane is expressed by the following equation (Camps-Valls & Bruzzone, 2009)

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i K(x, x_i) + b$$

where,  $f(x)$  : decision function

$\alpha_i$  : Coefficients obtained during the training process

$y_i$  : class label of training sample  $x_i$

$K(x, x_i)$  : kernel function

$b$  : bias term

The predicted class of the input data point  $x$  is determined by  $f(x)$ . If  $f(x) > 0$  then the data point is classified as belonging to one class. If  $f(x) < 0$  then the data point is classified as belonging to another class. The classified data and field and secondary observations were then input into the Marxan software.

#### Method of Priority Area Conservation

##### Marxan Model Principle

Marine Reserve Design Using Spatially Explicit Annealing (Marxan) is software designed to support the systematic design of conservation areas (Ball et al., 2009). Marxan aids in identifying conservation areas that offer high sustainability value while maintaining relatively low management costs. It operates using a simulated annealing algorithm, which is developed to rapidly achieve optimal results through iterative optimization (Anggraeni et al., 2017).

The Marxan algorithm involves numerous random changes to the protected area system, often involving one million or more iterations. Initially, all changes to the system are accepted, regardless of their impact on the objective function score. As the annealing process progresses, the likelihood of accepting unfavourable changes (those that increase the objective function score) gradually decreases, while the acceptance of beneficial changes (those that decrease the score) becomes more likely. This approach allows the algorithm to converge on a solution that closely approximates the optimal result (Moilanen and Ball, 2009).

The optimal results represent the lowest total cost and are derived using the following equation (Watts et al., 2017):

$$Total\ Cost = \sum_{i=1}^n Cost + (BLM \times \sum Boundary) + \sum_{i=1}^n (SPF \times Penalty)$$

**Commented [MM10]:** From the introduction this analysis seems to be the novel/contributing piece of the paper, perhaps the previous section could be summarized more.

313 Cost : The combination of socioeconomic values in each planning unit within the selected  
314 solution.  
315 BLM : Boundary Length Modifier is a value set by the user and is related to the level of  
316 connectivity between planning units. The higher the Boundary Length value, the denser the  
317 solution area.  
318 Boundary: The boundary of the selected area.  
319 SPF : Values set by the user and related to the importance of biodiversity target objectives.  
320 The higher the SPF assigned to a feature, the more Marxan prioritizes that feature in the solution.  
321 Penalty: Penalty value assigned if biodiversity protection targets are not achieved (optional).  
322 i : Unit ID in the shapefile.  
323 n : Last Unit ID in the shapefile.

324  
325 The boundary length in the protected area system was measured by counting the number of  
326 planning units that border areas outside the protected system. A fragmented protected area  
327 system will have a substantial boundary length. Modifying the boundary length or Boundary  
328 Length Modifier (BLM) aims to address connectivity issues by assigning a value based on the  
329 importance of maintaining a dense protected area network. BLM is crucial because a fragmented  
330 system is typically more challenging and costly to manage (Watts et al., 2017).

331  
332 **Marxan Models**

333 To meet conservation feature targets, enhance connectivity between areas, and minimize overall  
334 management costs for priority zones, we utilized Marxan v.4.0.6. This software is designed to  
335 identify priority conservation areas. The analysis was conducted using the QMarxan Toolbox  
336 (2.0.1), a plugin for QGIS 3.18.3. The conservation features of Arefi Island include three critical  
337 ecosystems: mangroves, seagrass, and coral reefs. These features were identified using a map  
338 generated from object-based image analysis. Arefi Island served as the primary study area, with a  
339 buffer zone extending from the coastline to encompass all shallow water habitats within this  
340 zone. The study area was divided into hexagonal planning units with a side length of 15 meters,  
341 resulting in 9,531 planning units (PUs) within the area.

342  
343 To estimate conservation costs, the cost feature used is based on the status of the area or region,  
344 as modified by Wijayanto et al. (2021) and Watts et al. (2017), and presented in Table 3. This  
345 includes areas with the following statuses: Resident Area (1), Land Use (3), Floating Net Cage  
346 (1), and Dock Area (3). Land use refers to the land cover on an island that is not identified as part  
347 of marine conservation areas.

348  
349 Table 3 Cost Features

350  
351 This study examines the cost attributes of various human spatial utilization activities within the  
352 conservation area. Penalty scores are assigned to each cost attribute based on the significance of

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353 the activity, following Watts et al. (2017). Higher penalty scores indicate greater difficulty in  
354 designating the area as a core conservation zone. For instance, a penalty score of one is assigned  
355 to activities such as docks and floating net cages, while higher scores are given to land use and  
356 residential areas. These scores reflect the challenge of considering or reclassifying the area as a  
357 core zone (Wijayanto, 2021).

358  
359 Both conservation features and cost attributes are assigned to each planning unit (PU) without  
360 normalization, ensuring that each PU contains values for both conservation features and costs.  
361 We then calibrated the Species Penalty Factor (SPF) and the Boundary Length Modifier (BLM).  
362 The SPF was calibrated to appropriately scale the penalty for missing conservation features  
363 relative to one another. The BLM was adjusted to identify the optimal value that balances area  
364 compactness with cost. As the BLM value increases, the algorithm tends to Favor a 'single large'  
365 design over 'multiple small' designs, thereby enhancing connectivity.

366  
367 Next, three Ecological Value (EV) scenarios were analyzed using QMarxan. Scenario EV I,  
368 aligned with Target 3 of the post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework and IUCN guidelines,  
369 aims to protect 30% of identified conservation targets, including coral reefs, seagrass, and  
370 mangroves. This scenario is designed to enhance connectivity within the conservation area  
371 (IUCN, 2008) while supporting fisheries in the surrounding regions (Firmansyah et al., 2018).  
372 Protecting 30% of these key habitats is intended to strike a balance between conservation efforts  
373 and sustaining benefits for the local fishery sector (Waldron et al., 2020).

374  
375 Scenario EV II set a 40% protection target, following the recommendations of Noss et al. (2012),  
376 which suggest that between 25% and 75% of an area should be managed primarily for nature  
377 conservation to achieve biodiversity goals. Conservation planners often adopt targets of 10%,  
378 30%, 40%, or 50%, consistent with Aichi Target 11 (Harris & Holness, 2023). Aichi Target 11  
379 emphasizes the need for protected areas and other effective conservation measures across  
380 geographic regions, including strictly protected zones as well as areas where sustainable use is  
381 permitted, as long as species, habitats, and ecosystem functions are adequately protected.

382  
383 Scenario EV III adopted a 50% conservation target, following the 'Half-Earth' concept, which  
384 advocates protecting 50% of conservation targets. This ambitious scenario aligns with the  
385 ecoregional approach proposed by Dinerstein et al. (2017), which seeks to preserve 50% of the  
386 terrestrial biosphere for global ecological heritage conservation.

387  
388 The irreplaceability of each planning unit was measured based on the frequency with which it  
389 was selected across 1,000 iterations, with values ranging from 0 to 1,000. Units with higher  
390 irreplaceability scores were considered more important for conservation. Planning units scoring  
391 between 750 and 1,000 were designated as Priority I, indicating their critical importance for  
392 conservation. Units scoring between 500 and 750 were categorized as Priority II, while those

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with scores between 250 and 500 were labelled as Priority III. Units with scores between 0 and 250 were classified as Priority IV. Any unit with a score of zero was considered a nonpriority zone. Priority I areas were designated as core conservation zones, Priority II areas were allocated for tourism, Priority III areas were identified as fisheries zones, and Priority IV areas were set aside for other uses, such as coastal development.

Finally, we validated the outputs of the Marxan model by comparing the conservation areas generated with actual field conditions to ensure that the target species and ecosystems were present in the identified priority areas. This validation was essential to confirm the feasibility of implementing Marxan's recommendations in the field. Additionally, we refined the model through iterative adjustments, such as modifying the SPF and testing various scenarios. This iterative process allowed us to develop a more robust and optimal conservation strategy.

**Results**  
**Satellite Image Analysis Results**

Satellite image analysis using Object-Based Image Analysis (OBIA) identified three main coastal ecosystems on Arefi Island: mangroves, seagrasses, and coral reefs (Fig. 3). These ecosystems are vital for the conservation sustainability of Arefi Island and are interrelated in ways that support one another. Mangroves and seagrasses play a key role in controlling sediment release from land, thereby reducing excessive sediment flows that could potentially suffocate coral reefs (Golbuu et al., 2008). In turn, mangroves benefit from reduced wave impact and establish mutually beneficial biological connections with coral reefs. Consequently, preserving these three ecosystems is crucial, and efforts must be made to minimize degradation from anthropogenic activities.

Figure 3 OBIA analysis of coastal ecosystems of Arefi Island, Raja Ampat, Southwest Papua

The total area of coastal ecosystems on Arefi Island is approximately 64.78 hectares (Table 4). Coral reefs cover 36.35% of this area, making them a significant component. Mangroves and seagrasses are also present but are distributed unevenly across the island. Mangroves, which cover 11.81 hectares (18.24% of the total area), are primarily concentrated in the southeast, while their presence is relatively sparse in residential areas. Seagrass beds, covering 29.42 hectares and constituting 45.41% of the total area, are dominant in the northern part of Arefi Island. The overall classification has a kappa accuracy value of 0.82. Additionally, the presence of a port and floating fish cages indicates local community activities such as shipping, fishing, and tourism.

Table 4 Percentage coverage of coastal ecosystems using OBIA analysis.

**Conservation Priority Area Recommendations for Arefi Island**

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438 From the analysis of the maps presented in Figure 4, three key areas with higher selection  
439 percentages were identified, even under lower target scenarios. These areas are found in the  
440 northern, southeastern, and southwestern waters of Arefi Island. Notably, the eastern part of  
441 Arefi Island showed a lack of selected areas for conservation.

Commented [MM17]: Confusing

442  
443 Figure 4. Conservation zones on Arefi Island under (A) Ecological Value I, (B) Ecological Value  
444 II, (C) Ecological Value III.

445  
446 The spatial zoning arrangements for Arefi Island's conservation areas under the three Ecological  
447 Value (EV) scenarios revealed significant differences in how space is allocated to optimize  
448 conservation priorities, as shown in Table 5.

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449  
450 Table 5. Zoning arrangements for Arefi Island conservation area.

451  
452 This study compares three conservation scenarios (EV I, EV II, and EV III) in terms of the  
453 spatial allocation of core zones and their effectiveness in protecting key habitats, such as coral  
454 reefs, seagrass beds, and mangroves:

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- 455 • EV I designates a Core Zone of 12.33 hectares (2.27% of the total area), offering minimal  
456 protection, conserving only 5.82% of coral reefs, 16.25% of seagrass beds, and 29.55%  
457 of mangroves. Most of the area (92.43%) was left for general use.
- 458 • EV II expands the Core Zone to 15.13 hectares, increasing habitat protection to 21.74%  
459 of coral reefs, 22.16% of seagrass beds, and 29.55% of mangroves. This resulted in  
460 23.35% of the total key habitats being safeguarded.
- 461 • EV III further expands the Core Zone to 34.37 hectares (6.32% of the total area),  
462 significantly enhancing protection to 40.85% of coral reefs, 40.79% of seagrass beds, and  
463 29.64% of mangroves. This scenario covered 38.76% of the key habitats, demonstrating  
464 a shift towards stronger conservation efforts.

465 As shown in Table 5, increasing the proportion of protected conservation features across the  
466 scenarios leads to a corresponding rise in the number of conservation planning units designated  
467 as core and utilization zones. Conversely, it results in a reduction in the areas allocated for  
468 sustainable fisheries and other zones. Using the 30% conservation scenario (EV I) as a baseline,  
469 expanding the protection targets to 40% (EV II) and 50% (EV III) increased the core zone size  
470 by 58.39% and 178.75%, respectively.

471  
472 However, the growth in utilization areas under EV III (34.99%) was less significant compared to  
473 EV II (80.75%). Both EV II and EV III led to a reduction in areas designated for sustainable  
474 fisheries and other uses. This shift reflects a deliberate reallocation of spatial zones, with EV III  
475 showing a substantial reduction in these areas to accommodate an expanded Core Zone. This

Commented [MM18]: Significant according to what statistical test?

reconfiguration highlights the increased prioritization of conservation as the Other Zones decrease in size, making room for more core conservation areas.

The results for the multitarget scenario are summarized in Table 6. As shown, increasing conservation targets leads to higher conservation costs and longer boundary lengths, although the pattern of conservation efficiency remains irregular.

Table 6 Comparison of Total PU, Cost, Boundary Length and Efficiency

Discussion

This study provides an overview of remote sensing techniques for biodiversity monitoring in marine protected areas. The OBIA (Object-Based Image Analysis) method has proven effective in detecting biophysical parameters in shallow marine environments (Darmawan et al., 2022; Ventura et al., 2018). This method leverages high-resolution satellite imagery to assess shallow marine ecosystem habitats. The results underscore the potential of integrating remote sensing data with ground-based observations to enhance the accuracy of monitoring efforts (Petrou et al., 2015).

Our study found that spatial planning models can effectively identify optimal conservation priority zones on Arefi Island for local community use within the Marine Protected Area. This finding is consistent with the research by Halpern et al. (2019), which demonstrated that spatial planning modelling integrates ecological data, habitat suitability assessments, and stakeholder input to identify areas of high conservation value and vulnerability.

Applying this approach will enhance the effectiveness of conservation measures and ensure the long-term sustainability of marine ecosystems within the Raja Ampat Marine Protected Area. Smaller conservation areas with well-defined boundaries facilitate better management and monitoring, thereby improving the capacity of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) to conserve, enhance, and restore the marine environment (Henneberg, 2023). Transparency in decision-making and active community involvement are also crucial for the long-term success of MPAs (Henneberg, 2023).

Referring to Figure 4, the absence of selected conservation areas in the eastern waters of Arefi Island is evident. This is likely due to the lower biodiversity in this region compared to other areas, justifying its exclusion from the Marxan-generated solution. Additional factors include data scarcity and the cumulative impacts of anthropogenic activities, such as tourism, shipping routes, and aquaculture practices—particularly floating net systems. These impacts are more

Commented [MM19]: I don't see this as a main result.

Deleted: WorldView-3 satellite imagery offers a wide range of multispectral bands, each targeting specific wavelengths instrumental in distinguishing various surface materials and conditions. The Coastal band (400-450 nm) is designed to penetrate aquatic environments, providing insights into water clarity and sediment levels. The Blue band (450-510 nm) and Green band (510-580 nm) are critical for assessing water depth and the health of aquatic vegetation. The Yellow band (585-625 nm) aids in differentiating between soil and vegetation types. Given its sensitivity to chlorophyll absorption, the Red band (630-690 nm) is highly effective in identifying vegetation. The Red Edge band (705-715 nm), which marks the transition between the red and near-infrared regions, provides valuable information on vegetation health and stress. Additionally, the Near-Infrared bands (770-895 nm and 860-1040 nm) are essential for analyzing biomass content and delineating water bodies. These bands are crucial for identifying and quantifying vegetation types, soil moisture levels, and other critical environmental variables.

Deleted: The application of remote sensing satellite technology to provide spatial information has been widely adopted and is continually advancing. The ongoing development of remote sensing technology is closely tied to improvements in satellite technology, particularly in natural-resource monitoring satellites. These satellites are being developed with enhanced capabilities to deliver image data related to Earth's surface features. The resulting satellite imagery varies in spatial and spectral resolutions, ranging from low to high, depending on the specific satellite and its intended application.

Commented [MM20]: What types of data? Were you unable to get satellite images from this area?

pronounced in the western and southern waters of Arefi Island, where human activities, including tourism and aquaculture, contribute to the scarcity of high-priority conservation areas.

Among the three ecological values (EV), EV II and EV III were the closest to the ideal conservation scenario. According to Green et al. (2014), marine sanctuary areas should cover 20–40% of each primary habitat to optimize benefits for fisheries management and biodiversity conservation, particularly in the context of climate change. Additionally, the core zone of a marine conservation area should encompass 20–30% of the total area to ensure the sustainability of key biological stocks (Krueck et al., 2017). Indonesia's Minister of Marine Affairs and Fisheries Regulation No. 31 of 2020 on conservation area management stipulates that the core zone of a conservation area classified as a park must cover at least 10% of the ecosystem or habitat of the target species. The protection targets set in EV II meet the regulatory standards, as well as the guidelines outlined by Green et al. (2014) and Krueck et al. (2017).

The study's findings on Arefi Island, where a 40% protection target was applied, yielded a conservation area covering 20–30% of the region, consistent with research by Suprianto et al. (2019) in the Thousand Islands, Jakarta. Suprianto et al. (2019) employed Marxan analysis with a 40% protection target to identify potential MPAs in the Thousand Islands. The results indicated that the selected areas had a selection probability of over 80%, covering most of the study area and demonstrating high biodiversity. The 40% protection target aligns with the minimum conservation requirement of 20–30% of the total protected habitat in the Thousand Islands of Jakarta.

Similarly, Anggraini et al. (2017) conducted research in the Sunda Banda Seascape, located in the Coral Triangle of Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia, to identify potential core, utilization, and sustainable fishing zones using Marxan analysis. The conservation targets for these habitats were set at 30%, 40%, and 50%. Analysis of nine MPAs in Southeast Sulawesi revealed that the core zones ranged from 2% to 13% of the total conservation area, while the utilization zones varied from 2.5% to 49%.

Marxan has been effectively used to identify conservation areas, as demonstrated by research conducted of Aulia et al. (2021) in the Pulau Pinang, Siemat, and Simanaha Islands (PISISI), located in the northeastern region of Simeulue Island. The selection of no-take zones was based on conservation targets with high biodiversity values in the PISISI area. The model results indicated that these no-take zones could protect 80% of the conservation targets, with a total estimated area of approximately 2,283.89 hectares.

Yusuf et al. (2008) and Sidik (2008) conducted research in Gili-Sulat and Gili Lawang, Lombok Regency, focusing on one of Indonesia's established local marine protected areas. The Marxan approach was utilized to identify new zones within the MPA, based on in-situ data surveys and

Commented [MM21]: How are you defining 'ideal' here?

Commented [MM22]: Confusing. I cannot tell which sentences are about the present study and which are about others

Commented [MM23]: I don't see the need for a literature review in the discussion, how do your results compare? Why might they be the same or different? What does that imply for conservation planning? This comment applies for the rest of the discussion section.

other relevant information. The target area for the no-take zone was set at 30% of the total area. As a result, Marxan identified potential zones for designation as no-take areas, including coral reef ecosystems, mangroves, and seagrass beds. It is important to note that Marxan's results serve as suggestions and recommendations for the zoning process within the MPA, rather than definitive decisions.

Firmansyah's research (2009) utilized Marxan to identify conservation areas on Maratua Island and Kakaban Island in the Berau Regency, East Kalimantan Province. The study incorporated coastal and marine habitat maps as input for the analysis, which resulted in an optimal conservation scenario targeting 30-40% of the area, covering approximately 3,204 hectares. Overall, the identified conservation areas represented 20.44–25.27% of the Area of Interest (AOI), meeting the criteria established by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

However, the application of Marxan does not always fully align with IUCN standards, as demonstrated by Wijayanto et al. (2021) in Southeast Sulawesi. Their study used Marxan to identify core zones under three different scenarios, with the largest zone covering 1,498 hectares—falling short of IUCN criteria. The analysis considered protection levels of 30%, 50%, and a combination of both, resulting in core zone sizes of 751, 1,008, and 1,498 hectares, respectively. While these scenarios met the critical habitat protection threshold of 30%, none encompassed more than 1% of the total conservation area. These findings provide valuable insights for managers and stakeholders, offering guidance for core zone designation, spatial planning, and sustainable development strategies.

In another study by Tasidjawa et al. (2013), Marxan was applied to determine the core zone in the Community-Based Marine Protected Area (MPA) in Bahoi Village, North Sulawesi. The selection by the Marxan model focused on 10% of the total habitat, which had relatively low management costs and was conveniently located near the village, facilitating easy monitoring from the land.

The results of this study align with those of Zhang and Li (2023), who conducted research in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region of China. As the conservation target increased, both conservation costs and boundary lengths exhibited growth. Notably, conservation costs rose sharply when the target shifted from 80% to 90%. The boundary length initially showed a slower rate of increase between 20% and 50% conservation targets before accelerating at higher targets. Considering its efficiency, a 40% conservation target is recommended for the Arefi Island area. This recommendation is consistent with Zhang and Li's (2023) findings, which suggest that a 40%-50% conservation target is optimal based on sensitivity analysis. Spatial priority results in this study were therefore derived from the 40% target.

Commented [MM24]: These findings as in already published findings or your findings?

626 Agnew et al. (2024) demonstrated the practicality of using Marxan as an accessible tool to  
627 address complex prioritization challenges and to model landscape-scale rehabilitation scenarios  
628 over time. Similarly, Chan et al. (2011) found that a 50% protection scenario effectively  
629 stabilized Marxan solutions for ecosystem services, while Delavenne et al. (2012) concluded that  
630 a 50% conservation target offers stronger ecosystem protection. This threshold is designed to  
631 provide optimal protection and ensure ecological sustainability.

632  
633 A comparison of this study's findings with previous research underscores both advances in  
634 conservation planning and the ongoing need for refined spatial analysis in MPAs. For example,  
635 Jones et al. (2016) explored MPA design and effectiveness, emphasizing the importance of  
636 integrating both ecological and social data to achieve biodiversity conservation and community  
637 benefits. While Jones et al. focused on the balance between ecological and socioeconomic  
638 factors, our study concentrated on Ecological Values and their spatial distribution. This  
639 difference highlights the importance of a holistic approach that considers both ecological  
640 integrity and human well-being, suggesting that future studies should incorporate more  
641 comprehensive socioeconomic analyses to better align conservation efforts with community  
642 needs.

643  
644 The traditional practice of *Sasi*, implemented by local communities on Arefi Island, aims to  
645 enable the recovery and reproduction of marine ecosystems, preventing the depletion of  
646 resources due to overfishing. This study demonstrates that Marxan-based conservation planning  
647 can support sustainable fishing practices and preserve marine biodiversity, a crucial objective for  
648 sensitive ecosystems like Raja Ampat.

649  
650 One limitation of this research is its reliance on static ecological data, which may not fully  
651 capture the dynamic nature of marine ecosystems or their responses to climate change and  
652 human activities. Although the spatial resolution and temporal scope of the data were sufficient  
653 for initial zoning and scenario planning, they may not reflect subtle but significant ecological  
654 shifts over time. Additionally, despite Marxan's effectiveness in conservation planning, the tool  
655 has limitations in modeling complex human-environment interactions. This highlights the need  
656 to integrate more adaptive and participatory planning tools that can respond to evolving  
657 ecological and social landscapes.

658  
659 **Conclusions**

660 Satellite image analysis using Object-Based Image Analysis (OBIA) successfully mapped the  
661 three key coastal ecosystems on Arefi Island: mangroves, seagrasses, and coral reefs. These  
662 ecosystems are vital for the island's conservation and sustainability, as they form an  
663 interconnected network that supports each other. Mangroves and seagrasses help control  
664 sediment release from land, protecting coral reefs from potential damage due to sedimentation.

Deleted: Marine Protected Areas (

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Commented [MM25]: Better

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In return, coral reefs reduce wave impacts, providing protection to mangroves, creating a mutually beneficial relationship.

Following the principles of systematic conservation planning, this study applied a straightforward remote sensing approach to map mangrove, coral reef, and seagrass ecosystems. The Marxan model was then used to analyze multi-target scenarios and identify priority areas for Marine Protected Areas (MPAs). The accuracy of this mapping was supported by a kappa value of 0.82, indicating high classification reliability.

The total coastal ecosystem area of Arefi Island is approximately 64.78 hectares, broken down as follows:

- Coral Reefs: Covering 36.35% of the total area, predominantly located around the island.
- Seagrass Beds: Dominating the northern part of the island, covering 29.42 hectares or 45.41% of the total area.
- Mangroves: Spanning 11.81 hectares or 18.24%, mainly concentrated in the southeast, with fewer mangroves in residential areas.

The presence of a port and floating fish cages indicates active shipping, fishing, and tourism by the local community. This study highlights the need to preserve these ecosystems and minimize degradation caused by human activities to maintain the island's ecological balance and long-term conservation goals.

Sensitivity analysis confirmed that a conservation objective targeting 40% of the total area (EV II) is the most effective model for Arefi Island. The zoning breakdown under this scenario includes a Core Zone of 19.53 hectares, a Utilization Zone of 15.96 hectares, a Sustainable Fisheries Zone of 15.67 hectares, and Other Zones covering 92.89 hectares. This approach underscores the importance of incorporating traditional knowledge and community participation into conservation strategies.

These findings advocate for adaptive management strategies and underscore the vital role of geospatial technology in protecting marine biodiversity while supporting sustainable resource use in Indonesia's coastal ecosystems.

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Commented [MM27]: Is this a key objective of the paper? Your aims really just state that you use remote sensing as input data for the planning tools, but now your discussion and conclusions seem to be stating that this is a novel result? Did you compare these remote sensed maps to field maps or something?

Commented [MM28]: This was not described earlier



We also like to thanks the editor [and](#) reviewer~~s~~s for their generous and constructive comments on the manuscript that greatly help us to improve the quality of the manuscript.

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