

# **Threatened ecosystems of Myanmar**

**An IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Assessment**

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# **Foreword**

Myanmar has always benefitted from our ecosystems for our wellbeing, our livelihoods and our economy. The Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Conservation (MONREC) strives for managing the natural resources including its forests and minerals as well as natural ecosystems for the benefit of both current and future generations. To ensure this future we must embrace Nature-based solutions (NBS). These solutions are actions to protect, sustainably manage, and restore our natural and modified ecosystems. That is why it is my pleasure to welcome Myanmar's first Red List of Ecosystems. Our red list will be a valuable tool to support our decisions and investments that simultaneously provide human well-being and biodiversity benefits.

Myanmar's Red List of Ecosystems has recognized and evaluated 64 ecosystem types. We now understand that almost half of our ecosystems are not threatened, and their intactness is clearly an important asset for Myanmar's future. Unfortunately, we also recognize that three of our ecosystems have changed so drastically that they could be very close to collapse; and can understand that eight of our ecosystems are Critically Endangered, nine are Endangered and twelve are Vulnerable so we need to ensure that these ecosystems are protected, restored and never lost. In understanding these ecosystems, we have a much finer view of the incredible diversity Myanmar supports and how we can work towards reaching our Forest Policy (1995), our 30-year National Forestry Master Plan targets and the fulfilment of international commitments including Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs), Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Aichi Biodiversity Targets, etc. MONREC also has a responsibility to manage our freshwater and saline wetlands and the marine realm. In protecting all of our natural resources we recognize the Sustainable Development Goals specially to conserve and sustainably use our oceans and marine resources as well as protecting, restoring and sustainably using our terrestrial ecosystems.

In Myanmar's Sustainable Development Plan (2018-2030), we clearly recognize the importance of natural resources and the environment for the posterity of the nation. Under this plan MONREC will ensure a clean environment together with healthy and functioning ecosystems as well as improving land governance and sustainable management of resource-based industries ensuring our natural resources dividend benefits all our people. Myanmar's Red List of Ecosystems, our understanding of threats and this newly developed spatial information will strengthen the implementation of our plans and strategies and ensure a sustainable future for all of Myanmar.

H. E. U Ohn Winn Union Minister Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Conservation

# Preface

Myanmar's Red List of Ecosystems is a tool to understand our threats and plan for conservation and sustainable management. Forests constitute the dominant ecosystems in Myanmar, and we are blessed with high forest cover (42.92%) and diversity, with 36 of our 64 ecosystems identified as forest and mangrove. These forests and biodiversity underpin a range of ecosystem services which are central to Myanmar's sustainable development, supporting human and resource needs, and contributing to a more stable climate. The loss of forests and our biodiversity leads to degradation and deterioration of ecosystem services and threatens Myanmar's irreplaceable ecological heritage.

We often discuss ecosystem services but this study documents Myanmar's terrestrial ecosystem typology and spatial distribution for the first time. This is one of the first ecosystem red lists developed within ASEAN and this will inform our implementation for decades to come to inform legislation, land-use planning, protected area expansion, monitoring and reporting, and ecosystem management. To sustain our forests and our biodiversity we need to sustainably manage all of these incredible ecosystems.

This report has supported Myanmar to reach Aichi Biodiversity Target 14: Ecosystems and essential services safeguarded under Myanmar's National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (2015-2020); especially Target 14.1: By 2020, a rapid national ecosystem assessment has been carried out, identifying the status, values and trends of key ecosystems and the services they provide; Action 14.1.1: Quantify trends and pressures in the status of ecosystems and species populations that provide key ecosystem services, including distinct ecological and hydrological units such as the Ayeyarwady River Basin; and Action 14.1.2: Identify and map (using GIS) key ecosystem services through desktop analyses and participatory consultations involving multiple stakeholder groups, including, marginalized poor and vulnerable groups. These actions will support the Forest Department to reduce loss and restore degraded natural habitats, through sustained land use management and take action against those committing unlawful environmental damage to conserve and protect terrestrial, freshwater, coastal and marine areas through integrated resources planning and effective and equitable management.

Myanmar will use the Red List of Ecosystems to mainstream the protection of our environmental and biodiversity dividend into a range of planning and decision making. Whether on land, above ground or under water, a range of policy safeguards, legal protections and enforcement mechanisms will be deployed to ensure that unsuitable and destructive practices are phased out and replaced with more environmentally conscious approaches. Myanmar will also ensure that

individuals and communities, including those most vulnerable, are included in decision-making processes at all levels.

This book will build a stronger foundation for achieving our Forest Policy and Sustainable Development Plan by 2030 and inform our actions for the post-2020 Global Biodiversity Framework for the Convention on Biological Diversity.

Nyi Nyi Kyaw, PhD Director General Forest Department Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental Conservation

## Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge the efforts of hundreds of scientists and practitioners who have contributed to the understanding of Myanmar's terrestrial ecosystems over the past two centuries. Our work is largely a synthesis exercise that would not have been possible without the dedication and contributions of those before us.

We also acknowledge all contributors to this project, particularly those who attended workshops in Myanmar over the last three years. Without input from a large and diverse expert group, the development of the Myanmar Ecosystem Typology, the ecosystem descriptions and application of the criteria would not have been possible. We also acknowledge the crucial support of field and GIS staff at WCS Myanmar. Contributors to this assessment are listed within each ecosystem assessment and in [Appendix 1](#).

The work to develop an IUCN Red List of Ecosystems of Myanmar was made possible through the funding and support of Global Environment Facility Strengthening Sustainability of Protected Area Management in Myanmar (GEF #5159, UNDP #5162) implemented by United Nations Development Program and executed by the Myanmar Forestry Department and Wildlife Conservation Society.

# **Coordinating Organizations**

## **Wildlife Conservation Society**

The Wildlife Conservation Society is a globally distributed science-based conservation organization, producing and disseminating the information and knowledge necessary to inform and improve conservation and management action in wild places. With field conservation operations in nearly 60 nations and all of the world's oceans, WCS has supported governments and communities in the creation or expansion of 245 protected areas. WCS employs more than 170 PhD and DVM scientists and have trained and funded generations of field and zoo colleagues, many of whom are now leaders in conservation science, wildlife veterinary medicine, and curatorial research around the world.

## **Centre for Ecosystem Science, University of New South Wales**

The University of New South Wales (UNSW) is a focal point for environmental research, and has research strengths that include conservation biology, environmental risk management and coastal and estuarine ecology. Hosted at UNSW, the Centre for Ecosystem Science (CES) is a world leader in ecosystem research, its application and communication of environmental change. It has well-established research strengths in environmental risk assessment, and has deep involvement in award winning ecosystem management programs such as the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems initiative. The CES has five major programs focused on biodiversity of ecosystems: wetlands and rivers; terrestrial ecosystems; marine ecosystems; remote sensing and GIS, and conservation policy and management.

# Summary

The Myanmar National Ecosystem Assessment contributes to the GEF funded Strengthening Sustainability of Protected Area Management in Myanmar project. To support the Myanmar National Ecosystem Assessment, Myanmar's terrestrial ecosystems were assessed under the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria. This report summarises the methods and findings of the assessment, including detailed ecological descriptions of the 64 ecosystem types assessed.

A total of 64 ecosystem types were identified and evaluated under the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems categories and criteria. Twenty-nine (45.3%) ecosystems were assigned a threatened status, consisting of 8 (12.5%) Critically Endangered ecosystem types, 9 (14.1%) Endangered and 12 (18.8%) Vulnerable ecosystem types. One ecosystem type, Central Ayeyarwady Palm Savanna ecosystem types was confirmed as Collapsed. A further two ecosystem types, Ayeyarwady kanazo swamp forest and Southern Rakhine hills evergreen rainforest, were assessed with an upper plausible status outcome of Collapsed, although their final assessment was Critically Endangered.

Twenty-eight ecosystem types were assessed as Near Threatened or Least Concern. However, a post-assessment expert review by experts suggested that 11 of the 25 Least Concern ecosystems could qualify for a different assessment outcome if more data was available. These 11 ecosystems were reclassified to Data Deficient.

Thus, 17 of Myanmar's ecosystem types were classified as Data Deficient. Data deficient ecosystem types were primarily ecosystems for which there were historical records, but with insufficient published information to assess the criteria (e.g. Rocky Tanintharyi karst). Alternatively, there were insufficient distribution records to incorporate into our mapping workflow to allow assessments of Criterion A and B (e.g. Grassy saltmarsh). Data deficient ecosystems also tended to occur in regions that were inaccessible to field researchers due to travel restrictions (e.g. Shan limestone grasslands). Urgent further work to confirm the distribution and assess the status of these data deficient ecosystems is recommended.

This IUCN Red List of Ecosystems assessment has shown a dire situation for Myanmar's ecosystems. Of the area assessed, nearly two-thirds (64%, 426,628 km<sup>2</sup>) is mapped as a natural ecosystem type, but of this over half (57.8%, 24,750 km<sup>2</sup>) of remaining area contains a threatened ecosystem type (CR, EN or VU). This means over one third of Myanmar's land area contains threatened ecosystems. There needs to be an increase in conservation efforts to reverse this situation and slow the trajectory towards collapse for ecosystems that are not currently

threatened. Conservation planning will be key to identify what are the best conservation actions and where to apply them to reduce the risk of collapse for Myanmar's natural ecosystems

# **1 Introduction**

## **1.1 Background**

The Myanmar National Ecosystem Assessment contributes to the GEF funded Strengthening Sustainability of Protected Area Management in Myanmar project. To support the Myanmar National Ecosystem Assessment, Myanmar's terrestrial ecosystems were assessed under the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria.

This report describes the development of the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems for Myanmar, which included:

- A detailed literature review of all published and unpublished material relevant to the status of ecosystems in Myanmar;
- The development of an ecosystem typology for Myanmar suitable for conducting a national scale IUCN Red List of Ecosystems assessment;
- Production of a guide to the terrestrial ecosystems of Myanmar to describe the units assessed under the red listing criteria (see ecosystem descriptions);
- More than 4000 km of reconnaissance transects traversed across Myanmar to collect georeferenced field data relevant to the mapping and assessment of Myanmar's ecosystems;
- A country-wide satellite remote sensing analysis to develop high resolution maps of Myanmar's terrestrial ecosystems from earth observation data;
- The analysis of spatial, biotic and abiotic changes to ecosystems to identify those ecosystems at the greatest risk of ecosystem collapse;
- Application of the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems categories and criteria to each ecosystem in the national typology to develop a list of threatened terrestrial ecosystems of Myanmar; and
- An expert review process for the ecosystem typology, descriptions and assessments.

To promote ecosystem conservation in Myanmar and support national-scale conservation planning and environmental reporting, all data and analysis code have been made open access (see data availability, see Appendices).



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Figure 1.1: A map of Myanmar showing the area of assessment in grey

## 1.2 The ecosystems of Myanmar: an overview

Myanmar (Figure 1.1) has a monsoonal climate throughout its full latitudinal range (9-28°N). The rain-bearing winds come from the south-west across the Bay of Bengal, with the wettest parts of the country being the Tanintharyi coast in the south and the Rakhine Bengal coast in the north receiving in excess of 5,000 mm of rainfall annually (Figure 1.2). The peak rainy season lasts from June to September, with rainfall persisting into October and November. December, January and February constitute the dry ‘cool’ season. Precipitation averages close to zero for the months December-March and, although temperatures are marginally cooler than in the rainy season, much of the country experiences significant rates of evapotranspiration and water deficits, especially in warmer months April and May at the end of the dry season prior to arrival of the monsoon.

The strong seasonal drought, alternating with reliable and abundant rain underpins ideal conditions for development of tropical dry forests, which dominate the majority of the country throughout most of the lowlands, foothills and plateaus. The dry forests are dominated by dipterocarps and teak, and usually have a mixed evergreen-deciduous phenology, with a variable proportion of tree canopies devoid of living leaves in the latter part of the dry season when water deficit is at its maximum. A patchy distribution of dense bamboo breaks through these forests is associated with human disturbance, but may also reflect legacies of natural disturbances such as tropical storms or rare fires.

The effect of the monsoon on water balance within ecosystems is profoundly modified by topography. Coastal lowlands receiving exceptionally high rainfall or areas where evapotranspiration is reduced by topographic shelter or elevation, avoid high water deficits, and may support tropical or subtropical evergreen rainforests. An important example of these forests is found in the Tanintharyi lowlands, where the rainforests are diverse and include Sundaic elements shared with equatorial forests of Malaysia and Indonesia. Other evergreen rainforests are found in the sheltered lowland valleys of the Chindwin and upper Ayeyarwady and on the western rim of the Shan plateau.

A few of the highest tropical mountains and escarpments receiving substantial orographic condensation may support tropical montane forests, including mist forests with low, even tree canopies and abundant arboreal bryophytes, lichens, orchids and other epiphytes. These ecosystems are poorly documented in Myanmar, but similar forests have been recorded in other tropical parts of southeast Asia (Ashton 2014).

In other parts of the country, topography reduces moisture inputs and exacerbates loss. The monsoon winds are intercepted by the Arakan Yoma which runs parallel to the west coast and separates the central region of Myanmar from the sea. This creates a marked rain shadow in the centre of Myanmar - the “Dry Zone” where rainfall is as low as 550 mm per annum and exposed flat topography results in major evapotranspirative moisture loss in the dry season. Here, the dominant ecosystems are grassy savannas dominated by acacias and thorny shrubs amongst a continuous ground layer of C4 tussock grasses. The grass layer cures in the dry

season, allowing these ecosystems to become fire-prone when ignited by lightning (associated with dry monsoonal storms late in the dry season) or by humans. These savannas extend into the adjacent foothills surrounding the central Ayeyarwady valley, where they are dominated by dry-season deciduous broad-leaf trees. Rainfall generally increases with elevation, and landscapes tend to be characterised by savannas with increasingly taller and denser tree canopies on drier (south-facing) slopes, with tropical dry forests, essentially devoid of flammable grasses on more sheltered slopes. Finer textured soils that retain higher levels of moisture and nutrients also tend to favour tropical dry forests over savannas.

An interesting expression of savanna ecosystems occurs on elevated hills 1000-2000 m above sea level, where reduced evapotranspiration moderates the severity of dry season droughts. These are tall forests dominated by relatively high densities of pine trees, which nonetheless have open canopies promoting seasonal growth and curing of flammable C4 grasses. The trees have high survival rates after surface fires due to their thick insulating bark, but may be killed on rare occasions when intense fires consume their leaf canopies. Pine savannas are scattered through the Kachin, Shan and Chin hills and extend to adjacent countries. Functionally similar pine savannas occur in the Caribbean and southeastern North America. Although the pine savannas contrast markedly with the low, open acacia savannas of the dry lowlands, they are united by their flammable grassy ground layer. With increasing elevation, temperatures decline, mild frosts may occur, precipitation increases and evapotranspirative losses decline. Under these conditions, tropical forests are replaced by temperate forests with simpler structure and lower diversity. These forests are dominated by tree families with strong northern temperate affinities including oaks, chestnuts, laurels and cherries, including a number with winter-deciduous phenology, which become dominant at higher elevations. At higher elevations still, where winter snow persists for weeks or months, these temperate broad-leaf deciduous forests are replaced by temperate montane conifer forests, which become lower in stature and more open with increasing exposure to cold winds. Both types of temperate forests are largely confined to the eastern Himalayan foothills in Kachin state, but limited occurrences extend south to the highest parts of the Chin Hills. At higher elevations, with increasingly cold temperatures, shorter growing seasons and prolonged snow cover, trees give way to alpine shrublands and herbfields, and ultimately to permanent snowfields, glaciers and icy cliffs and screes at more than 5,000 m above sea level (Figure 1.5). Freshwater ecosystems are partly beyond the scope of this study, but notable examples include glacial lakes restricted to the southern ridges of the Himalayas, seasonal lakes on the Ayeyarwady floodplain and rare geothermal wetlands on the Rakhine coast. Palustrine wetlands on the interface between terrestrial and freshwater realms are extensive on the Ayeyarwady floodplain and riparian corridors that extend along the major rivers. These wetlands are densely vegetated with grasses, sedges and other non-woody hydrophytes, and have strongly seasonal filling and drying regimes synchronised with the monsoon. Most dry completely during January–April, but some retain permanent water. The river banks and levees support forested wetlands with tree recruitment triggered by seasonal flood recession. The lowest part of the floodplain behind the Ayeyarwady deltas includes peat forests (characterised by kanazo), which are uncommon outside equatorial regions worldwide. The interface between the terrestrial and marine realms are occupied by several coastal ecosystems, including several

different compositional and structural expressions of mangrove forests, grassy saltmarshes, tidal mudflats and coastal dune vegetation. Finally, subterranean ecosystems are largely beyond the scope of this assessment, but we recognise important karst systems that include extensive dry caves and subterranean waters likely to harbour a diverse and endemic biota, and should be a focus of future assessments



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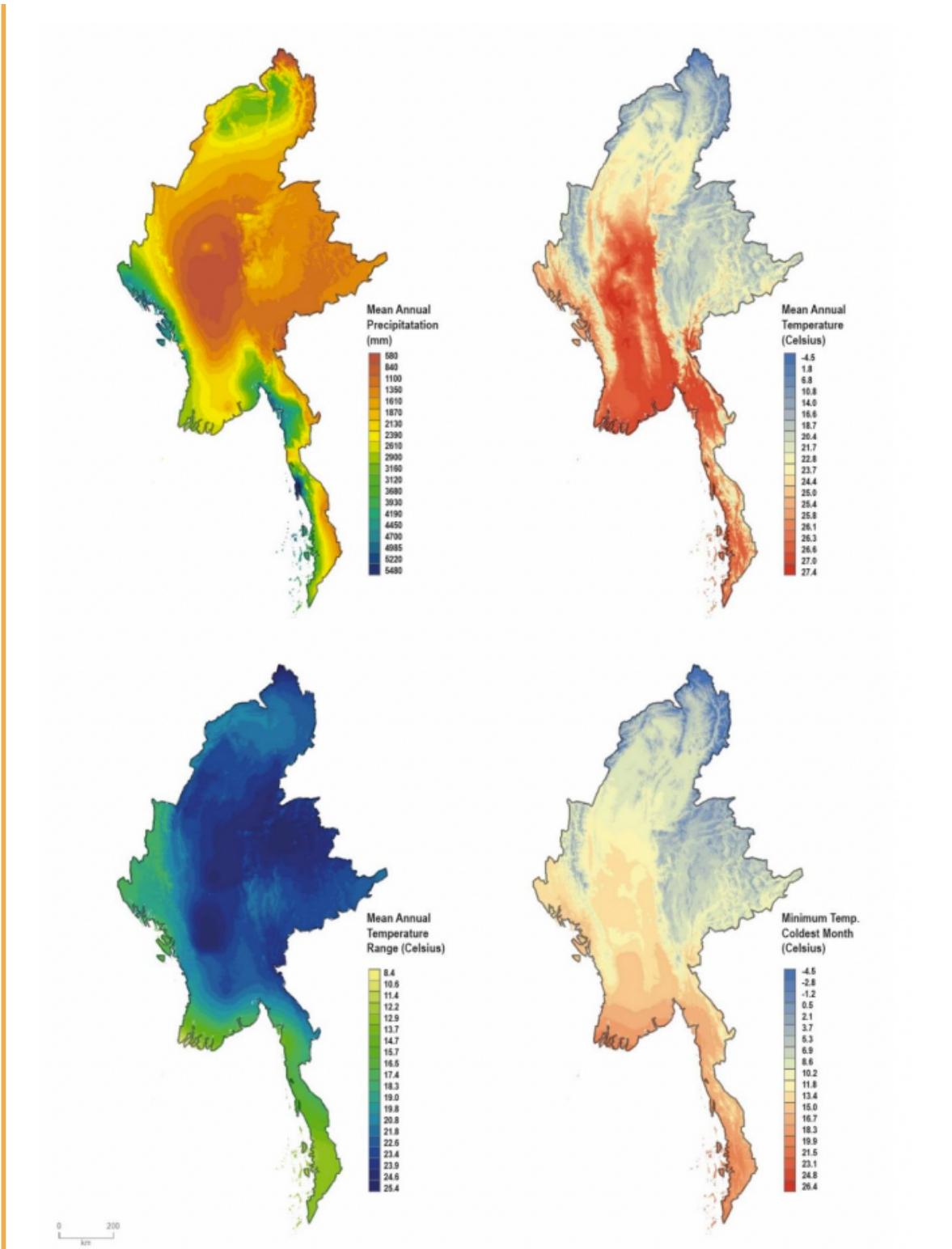


Figure 1.2: Major climatic gradients across Myanmar

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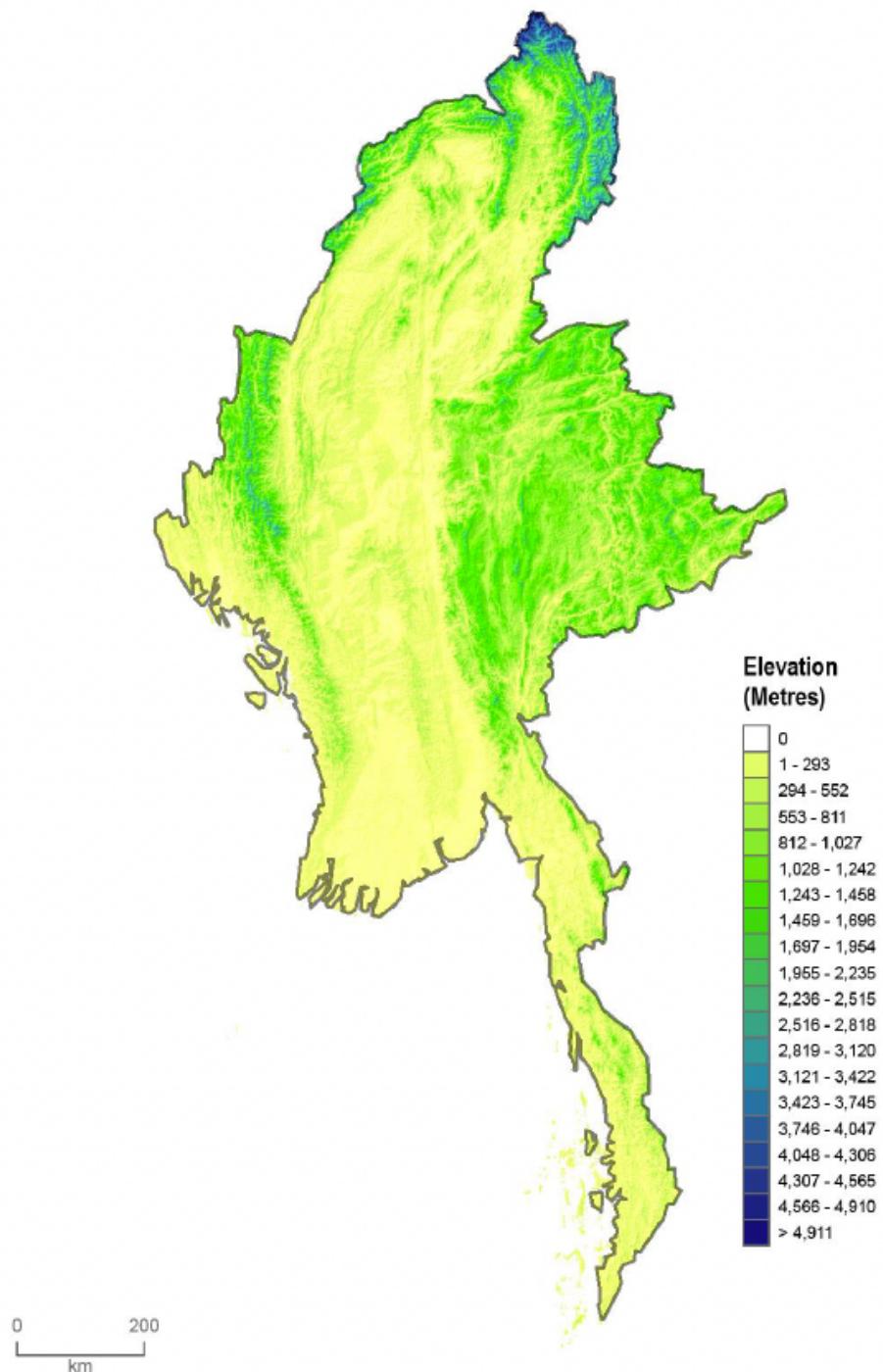


Figure 1.3: Elevation map of Myanmar

## **1.3 Introduction to the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems**

The IUCN Red List of Ecosystems (RLE) aims to support conservation in resource use and management decisions by identifying ecosystems most at risk of loss or collapse (D. A. Keith et al. 2013, 2015). Similar to the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, the outcome of an RLE assessment is a list of ecosystems and their status for a region (Figure 1.4; Rodríguez et al. (2011)). Because the RLE was developed to promote a consistent framework suitable for assessing and monitoring the status of ecosystems, it enables comparisons of collapse risk between countries, locations and ecosystem types (D. A. Keith et al. 2013).

For further information on the development of the RLE protocol, the theory and scientific foundations upon which they were developed, and detailed information on the purpose of each of the five criteria refer to the Guidelines for the application of IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria (L. Bland et al. 2017). More information on the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems, is available in multiple languages on the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems website ([www.iucnrle.org](http://www.iucnrle.org)).

Assessments of ecosystem types (commonly termed ‘assessment units’ within Red List of Ecosystems assessments) are conducted by applying five criteria and their associated thresholds, enabling each ecosystem type to be classified according to their risk of collapse (termed ‘status’). To ensure the assessment process is transparent and repeatable, each ecosystem type is clearly described according to the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems guidelines (L. Bland et al. 2017). This standard approach of applying the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria to clearly described ecosystems is critical to allow for accurate, comparable and repeatable assessments of ecosystems status and to contribute to the global IUCN Red List of Ecosystems programme.

### **1.3.1 Definitions**

There are several key concepts that must be clearly defined to allow for repeatable ecosystem risk assessments:

#### **1.3.1.1 Risk**

Risk is defined as the probability of an adverse outcome over a specified time-frame. Here, the adverse outcome is the endpoint of ecosystem decline, which the RLE terms ecosystem collapse.

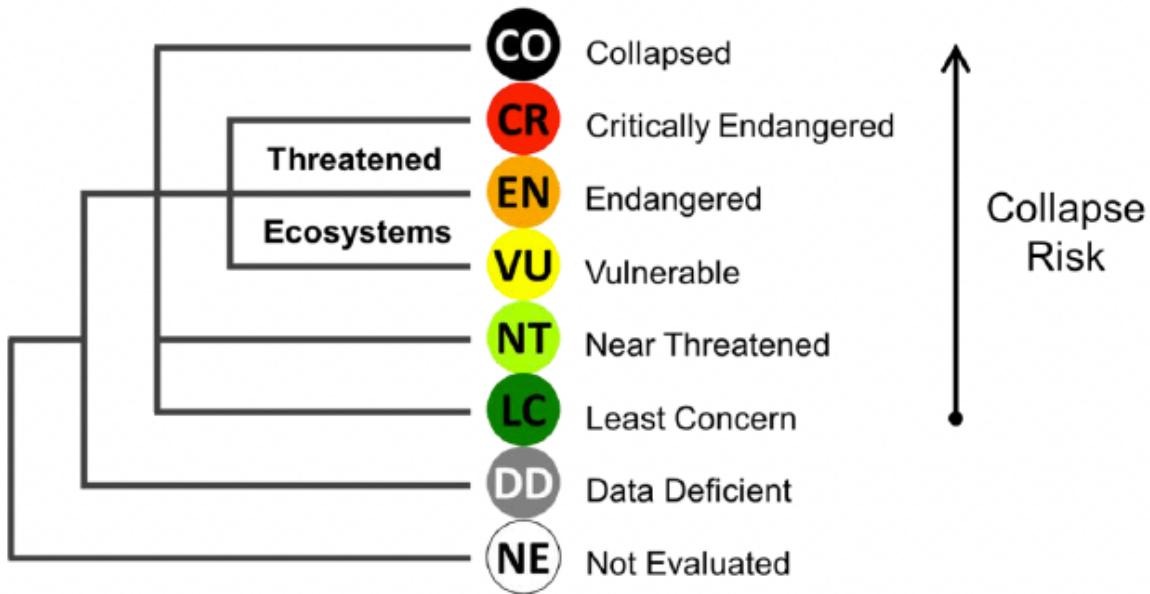


Figure 1.4: The IUCN Red List of Ecosystems categories, indicating the status of ecosystems. Threatened ecosystems are those assessed as Vulnerable, Endangered, or Critically Endangered. Source: (L. Bland et al. 2017)

### 1.3.1.2 Ecosystem collapse

Understanding the concept of ecosystem collapse is critical for interpreting IUCN RLE assessments. For the purposes of the RLE, “an ecosystem is Collapsed when it is virtually certain that its defining biotic or abiotic features are lost from all occurrences, and the characteristic native biota are no longer sustained. Collapse may occur when most of the diagnostic components of the characteristic native biota are lost from the system, or when functional components (biota that perform key roles in ecosystem organisation) are greatly reduced in abundance and lose the ability to recruit.” According to the IUCN guidelines (L. Bland et al. 2017), risks to ecosystems can be caused by a variety of threatening processes that are expressed through different symptoms of ecosystem collapse. The RLE risk model groups these symptoms into four major types, which ultimately form the RLE criteria (Figure 1.5).

For more information on the concept of collapse and how to identify when an ecosystem is collapsed, we recommend referring to the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems guidelines, which describes this in detail (Bland et al., 2017a; Bland et al., 2018). In this report and as recommended by the guidelines, we explicitly define collapse for each ecosystem type in Myanmar in their ecosystem descriptions (See section 3).

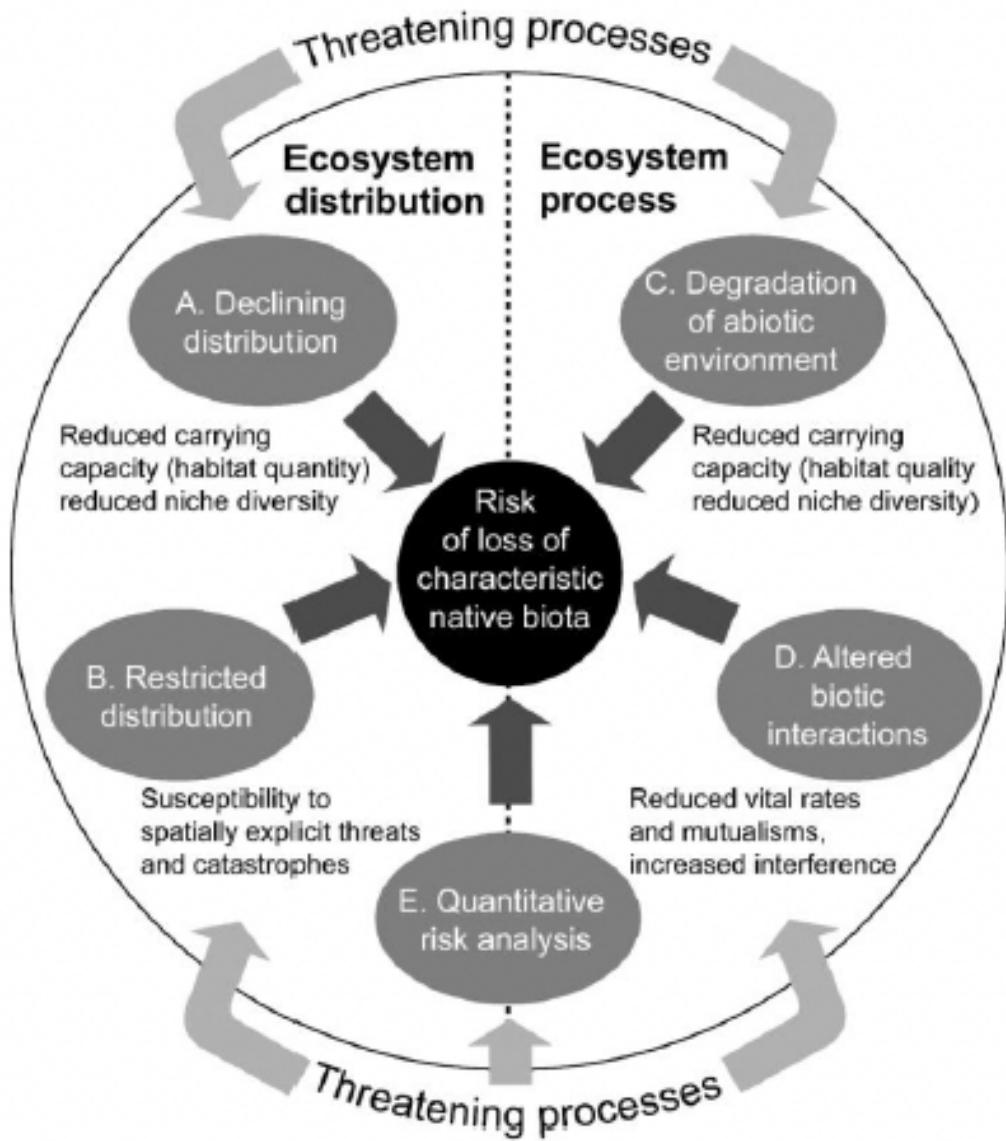


Figure 1.5: The IUCN Red List of Ecosystems risk assessment model. Source: (L. Bland et al. 2017).

### **1.3.1.3 Time frames**

Because risks must be assessed over specified time frames, a standard set of time frames are carefully defined in the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria. There are four specified time frames used in the RLE:

- The historical past. We notionally use the year 1750, which marks the onset of industrial-scale exploitation of ecosystems in South-East Asia;
- The recent past. This is the past 50 years (1969-2019), which is considered long enough to distinguish directional change from natural variability;
- Any 50-year period including the recent past, present and future. Predictions and inferences based on past declines, simulation models and any other model considered suitable for assessing risks into the future may be used.
- The future. Again, predictions are required to assess risks over this time frame and are usually based on models that use information about the response of ecosystems to threatening processes.

## **1.3.2 IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria**

### **1.3.2.1 IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Criteria**

To assess the risk of ecosystem collapse, each ecosystem is assessed under five rule-based criteria that form the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Criteria. These criteria were developed following nearly a decade of scientific work focused on understanding pathways of ecosystem decline, degradation, loss and collapse (Nicholson, Keith, and Wilcove 2009; Rodríguez et al. 2011, 2015; D. A. Keith et al. 2013, 2015; L. M. Bland et al. 2017; Murray et al. 2017, 2018; D. A. Keith, Akçakaya, and Murray 2018). Importantly, they relate the symptoms of ecosystem decline with the risk that an ecosystem will lose its defining features. The five criteria were designed to target different symptoms of ecosystem collapse (Figure 1.5). These symptoms are both distributional and functional:

- **Criterion A:** declines in distribution, which reduce carrying capacity for dependent biota;
- **Criterion B:** restricted distribution, which predisposes the system to spatially explicit threats;
- **Criterion C:** degradation of the abiotic environment, reducing habitat quality or abiotic niche diversity for component biota; and
- **Criterion D:** disruption of biotic processes and interactions
- **Criterion E:** allows for the integration of the above four symptoms into a simulation model of ecosystem dynamics to allow quantitative estimates of the risk of ecosystem collapse.

For further information on the criteria refer to the Guidelines for the application of IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria (L. Bland et al. 2017).

### 1.3.2.2 Categories

Applying thresholds (decision rules) for each of the IUCN RLE criteria enables each ecosystem to be assigned to a category of risk ('status'). An ecosystem assessed under the RLE criteria can be placed into eight categories: Collapsed (CO), Critically Endangered (CR), Endangered (EN), Vulnerable (VU), Near Threatened (NT), Least Concern (LC), Data Deficient (DD), and Not Evaluated (NE, Figure 1.4). The first six categories (CO, CR, EN, VU, NT and LC) are ordered in decreasing risk of collapse. The categories Data Deficient and Not Evaluated do not indicate a level of risk. For further details of the categories refer to the Guidelines for the application of IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria (L. Bland et al. 2017). We applied version 2.2 of the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Criteria (Table 1.1).

 TODO: Add Table 1.1

The IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Criteria, Version 2.2. Source: (L. Bland et al. 2017).

### 1.3.3 Assessment process

Application of the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria follows a generic sequential process that includes:

- Adapting the newly developed global ecosystem typology D. Keith et al. (2022) to the area of assessment (Myanmar's terrestrial environment, Figure 1.1). This process is guided by experts and the result is a list of ecosystem types for the area of assessment that will be assessed under the RLE protocol;
- Describing each of the ecosystem types in ecosystem typology following the standard approach detailed in the Guidelines for the application of IUCN Red List of Ecosystems Categories and Criteria (L. Bland et al. 2017);
- If no map data is available to support the assessment, an ecosystem mapping project is required to support the ecosystem descriptions and assessment of several of the RLE criteria;
- Applying the assessment criteria to each ecosystem type, which requires extensive data searches and analyses. The outcome of each ecosystem assessment consists of a status of the ecosystem under 5 criteria and 18 subcriteria of the IUCN Red List of Ecosystems categories and criteria;
- Compiling the results into a comprehensive IUCN Red List of Ecosystems for the area of assessment (this report), which describes each ecosystem and identifies ecosystems according to their risk of collapse.

This report details each of these steps in the following sections.

## **2 Terrestrial Ecosystems of Myanmar**

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### **3 Assessments Overview**

yada yada yada yada...

**3.1 Ecosystem 1**

**3.2 Ecosystem 2**

# **Part I**

# **Ecosystem Assessments**

# **Tanintharyi limestone tropical evergreen forest**

Authors: N.J. Murray, R. Tizard, D.A. Keith

Myanmar ecosystem names: Tropical rainforest [Kress et al. (2003)], Lowland evergreen rainforest [G. Connette et al. (2016)], Forest on Limestone [Whitten et al., 1997]

Global Classification: MMR-T1.1.3

Functional Group: T1.1

Global classification: MMR-T1.1.3

IUCN Status: **Endangered**

## **Description**

Tanintharyi has extensive patches of limestone karst scattered across the region. In these karst landscapes Tanintharyi limestone tropical evergreen forest occurs. Primary tree species are Dipterocarps that form a closed canopy, although they occur at lower density and lower tree height than surrounding lowland and upland evergreen forest ecosystems. Soils are characteristically extremely shallow and acidic, and may be humusrich. These forests can be found across the Tanintharyi lowlands on limestone hills and slopes, and in some cases may occur on very steep slopes and cliffs. As a result of the discontinuous distribution of limestone in Myanmar, which can frequently become very dry, endemism is very high. For example, 12 new karst-adapted species of gecko were recently discovered in karst environments, some of which are restricted to isolated caves and limestone towers (Grismer et al. 2018). Reliable year round rainfall, averaging in excess of 100 mm per month and between around 1,900 mm and 3,000 mm per year.

## **Distribution**

Occurs in karst landscapes in southern Tanintharyi. We used a global karst layer to refine our maps of this ecosystem type, and further work to map karst landscapes in southern Myanmar is recommended.

## **Characteristic Native Biota**

Characteristic species of this ecosystem remain relatively unknown. Stamp (1925) lists the tree species occurring in this ecosystem as including *Dipterocarpus alatus*, *D. grandiflorus*, and *D. turbinatus*, *Shorea* spp., *Anisoptera* sp., *Hopea odorata*, and *Parashorea stellata*. This ecosystem occurs in isolated fragments and has high physical complexity, a suite of microhabitats, and relatively stable climate, this ecosystem provides habitat for a large number of endemic species, including gekkos and molluscs (Whitten et al., 1997; Grismer et al., 2018). This ecosystem supports some of the remaining populations of sundaic avifauna in Myanmar. This includes Great Argus *Argusianus argus* (NT), Storm's Stork *Ciconia stormi* (EN), White-crowned Hornbill *Berenicornis comatus* (EN), Helmeted Hornbill *Rhinoplax vigil* (CR), Red-throated Barbet *Psilopogon mystacophanos* (NT), Blue-rumped Parrot *Psittinus cyanurus* (NT), Banded Broadbill *Eurylaimus harterti*, Black-and-yellow Broadbill *Eurylaimus ochromalus* (NT), Green Broadbill *Calyptomena viridis* (NT), Crested Jay *Platycnemis galericulatus* (NT), as well as a range of Bulbuls (Pycnonotidae) and Ground Babblers (Pellorneidae). The mammalian fauna is equally impressive with populations of Banded Langur *Presbytis femoralis robinsoni* (NT), Dusky Langur *Trachypithecus obscurus* (NT), Lar Gibbon *Hylobates lar* (EN), Banded Civet *Hemigalus derbyanus* (NT), Tiger *Panthera tigris* (EN), Mainland Clouded Leopard *Neofelis nebulosa* (VU), Asian Elephant *Elephas maximus* (EN) and Malayan Tapir *Tapirus indicus* (EN; Eames et al. (2005)).

## **Abiotic environment**

Shallow soils that can be fairly acidic, topographically complex and reliable year-round rainfall of >100 mm per month and warm temperature that rarely fall below 10° C.

## **Key processes and interactions**

Distribution is largely defined by the occurrence of Karst landscapes coinciding with a mean monthly rainfall of around 100 mm per month. This ecosystem may periodically become very dry, but a dense evergreen canopy can support humid microclimates throughout these periods (Whitten et al., 1997).

## **Major threats**

Unregulated quarrying is considered a primary threat to this ecosystem (Grismer et al., 2018). In addition, deforestation is widespread in this region, primarily for the development of oil palm plantations, rubber plantations and other agroforestry, with deforestation rates reaching 7.85% in some areas of Tanintharyi, the highest rate of forest loss so far recorded in Myanmar (G. M. Connette et al. 2017).

### **Ecosystem collapse definition**

This ecosystem is regarded as collapsed when its area has declined to zero, or when the proportion of the ecosystem considered primary forest declines to 0.

### **Assessment summary**

This ecosystem is highly restricted to limestone substrates and ongoing threats, particularly from quarrying, suggest that this ecosystem is undergoing a continuing decline. **Endangered**.

### **Assessment information**

TODO

### **Assessment Outcome**

**Endangered.**

### **Year Published**

2020

### **Date Assessed**

24th January 2020

### **Assessment Credits**

Assessed by: Nicholas Murray

Reviewed by: David Keith

Contributions by: Lee Grismar

### **Criterion A**

No time-series map data was available for assessing reduction in distribution of this ecosystem over any of the assessment time frames. **Data Deficient**.

### **Criterion B**

This ecosystem is highly restricted in limestone landscapes and has an AOO of 56 10 x 10 km grid cells and an EOO of 3,796 km<sup>2</sup>. There is evidence that limestone quarrying and other threats are leading to continuing decline, meeting subcriteria a(i) and a(iii). The ecosystem is assessed as **Endangered**.

### **Criterion C**

Climate simulation models suggest that environmental conditions within the limestone landscapes of southern Myanmar are unlikely to reduce suitable areas sufficiently to result in this ecosystem becoming threatened by 2050. It should be noted that the occurrence of Karst landscapes is a key distributional driver of this ecosystem, and the scale at which the suitability models were run may not adequately depict the fine-scale changes expected over the next three decades. We recommend further work to refine maps of Karst landscape to better limit the distribution of our model. **Least Concern**.

### **Criterion D**

Remote sensing analyses suggest that 72.4% of the remaining extent of this ecosystem meets criteria to be classified as primary forest (Potapov et al., 2019). If 100% of the ecosystem is assumed to be primary forest in 1750, there has been an 27.6% loss in primary forest extent since 1750. We assume that loss of primary forest has a relative severity of >90%, and use the extent of primary forest loss as a biotic variable for assessing Criterion D. With an 27.6% loss of primary forest extent, the ecosystem is assessed as Least Concern under Criterion D3. Analyses of the time-series of primary forest data (n = 18 time points) indicate that there has been 8.4% reduction in primary forest cover over the period 2000-2017. A linear model fit to this dataset, assuming that collapse occurs at 100% loss of primary forest cover, suggests that primary forest loss in this ecosystem will not occur to an extent to meet any category thresholds over a 50 year period (1984- 2034). The ecosystem is assessed as Least Concern under Criterion D2b. **Least Concern**.

### **Criterion E**

No models were used to assess Criterion E. **Not Evaluated**.

## **4 Assessment Outcomes**

yada yada yada...

## **5 Recommendations**

yada yada yada...

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