

1 **Coastal erosion vulnerability assessment along the eastern coast of**
2 **Bangladesh using geospatial techniques**

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36 **Assessment of coastal erosion vulnerability along the eastern coast of**
37 **Bangladesh using geospatial techniques.**

38

39 **Abstract**

40 Coastal zones are physically, socially, and economically important. However, many coastal
41 zones are highly vulnerable to coastal erosion due to high population density, tourist attractions,
42 developed economy, and lowland. Erosion vulnerability assessment with limited criteria and
43 components cannot provide detailed and accurate results. Therefore, an integrated vulnerability
44 assessment of coastal erosion is essential to produce detailed and accurate erosion vulnerability
45 information to support mitigation strategies. This study aims to prepare an integrated coastal
46 erosion vulnerability approach using geospatial techniques and examine the pattern of
47 vulnerability to coastal erosion effects in the eastern coastal region of Bangladesh. Thirteen
48 spatial criteria under two components of vulnerability, namely, physical and socio-economic
49 vulnerability, were assessed. These criteria were weighted on the basis of the analytical
50 hierarchy process (AHP) and then combined to generate individual vulnerability indices.
51 Finally, the overall vulnerability map was produced by integrating physical and social
52 vulnerability indices. Results showed that the area of very high vulnerability includes 11% of
53 the region, and the area of high vulnerability was 24%. Parts of Chittagong Port, Cox's Bazar,
54 Kutubdia, Teknaf, Ukhia, Anowara, and some portions of Moheshkhali regions close to the
55 coastline of the study site are likely to experience high vulnerability of coastal erosion impacts.
56 The area was classified as a low- and very-low-vulnerability zone, representing 27% and 8%,
57 respectively. For evaluating the efficiency of the outcome, the receiver operating characteristics
58 (ROC) technique was used to validate the physical erosion vulnerability results, which stated
59 an 85.2% success rate and 80.1% prediction rate of the produced results. The findings can be
60 used by concerned authorities to protect coastal erosion and minimise its effects on properties
61 and coastal environments.

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63 **Keywords:** Coastal erosion; Coastal vulnerability; GIS; Remote sensing; Analytical hierarchy
64 process

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67 **1. Introduction**

68 Coastal erosion is a severe problem for coastal communities worldwide (Rangel-Buitrago et
69 al., 2018). The rise in sea level will accelerate this process in many coastal areas under climate
70 change scenarios (Li et al., 2015; Awange et al., 2018). Coastal erosion has become considered
71 a critical issue because population concentration is high in coastal areas with many
72 development activities, such as industrial activities and increased transportation and tourism
73 activities (Barragán and de Andrés, 2015; Rumson et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2018).
74 Approximately 20% (1409 million) of the world's population live within 25 km, and 40%
75 (2818) reside within the 100 km from the coastline (Rangel-Buitrago et al., 2018). Rapid
76 developments are observed in coastal areas across the world. From 1950 to 2015, the number
77 of coastal cities has increased from 472 to 2,129 (Stronkhorst et al., 2018). Globally,
78 approximately 30% of residences in 200 m-long low coasts have been estimated to be highly
79 affected by erosion, resulting in losses to properties in the next 50 years (Rangel-Buitrago et
80 al., 2018). Erosion along the coast can affect human life, cultivation, biodiversity, natural
81 resources, and other economic sectors on a large scale (Boruff et al., 2005; Kaliraj et al., 2015).

82 Bangladesh has become one of the most disaster-prone countries in the world due to its
83 geographical location and various climate issues (Ahmed et al., 2016; Hoque et al., 2018a).
84 The coastal areas of Bangladesh experience several types of hazards each year, such as coastal
85 erosion, tropical cyclones and floods, which simultaneously result in loss of lives and damages
86 to properties and environments (Nicholls et al., 2007; Karim and Mimura, 2008; Warrick and
87 Ahmad, 2012; Hoque et al., 2018b). Sandwip and Kutubdia islands are located in the eastern
88 coastal region of Bangladesh. Sandwip island's 40% of the land has been eroded in the last few
89 decades, and Kutubdia Island has lost approximately 10% of its area (Brammer, 2014). The
90 eastern coast of Bangladesh consists of 145 km-long beach, which is under constant threat of
91 beach erosion (Sarwar, 2005). The coast near Chittagong has experienced an erosion rate of 36
92 m/year, and the Cox Bazar coast has encountered 51 m/year erosion rate (Sarwar and
93 Woodroffe, 2013). In the future, Bangladesh will suffer from the severe effects of climate
94 change, such as rising sea levels, which will intensify the impact of coastal erosion across
95 coastal districts, thereby creating adverse effects on the local economy and the environment
96 (Karim and Mimura, 2008; Sarwar, 2013; Abedin et al., 2019).

97 The spatial assessment of vulnerability to coastal erosion can assist in formulating and
98 implementing mitigation measures (Kantamaneni et al., 2018). Vulnerability is defined as the

99 dimension of damage that can be reckoned considering certain exposure, susceptibility, and
100 resilience factors (Balica et al., 2012). Geospatial techniques via remote sensing and spatial
101 analysis can efficiently map and assess vulnerability to coastal erosion (Jana and Bhattacharya,
102 2013; Kaliraj et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015). Remote sensing can provide temporal images to map
103 environmental characteristics from spatial scales of a few metres to whole continents (Jana and
104 Bhattacharya, 2013). Spatial analysis helps in the collection, analysis and integration of spatial
105 and non-spatial data for spatial decision-making (Merlotto et al., 2016; Bevacqua et al., 2018;
106 Fitton et al., 2018). Weighting and ranking are essential to incorporate and assess multiple
107 criteria in the erosion vulnerability assessment (Li et al., 2015). Analytical hierarchy process
108 (AHP) is an efficient tool for integrating multiple criteria in a spatial decision-making process
109 (Malczewski, 2010). AHP uses a hierarchical structure to assign weighting and ranking
110 incorporating the opinions of experts and users (Malczewski, 1999; Malczewski, 2006). AHP
111 has been employed successfully to map hazards, vulnerability and risk of other natural types
112 of disasters, such as floods, landslides, tropical cyclones and earthquakes, making it suitable
113 for the vulnerability assessment of coastal erosion (Roy and Blaschke, 2013; Panahi et al.,
114 2014; Ahmed, 2015; Hoque et al., 2018a).

115 Many studies focus on multi-hazard coastal vulnerability assessment (Kumar and Kunte, 2012;
116 Kunte et al., 2014; Bagdanavičiūtė et al., 2015; Denner et al., 2015; Mahapatra et al., 2015;
117 Islam et al., 2016; Kantamaneni et al., 2018; Sahoo and Bhaskaran, 2018; Ahammed and
118 Pandey, 2019). However, studies related to the direct assessment of coastal erosion
119 vulnerability are limited, although coastal erosion causes significantly high occurrences,
120 calamities and economic harm to properties and environments. Studies mostly focus on erosion
121 vulnerability assessment based on physical criteria (Anfuso and Del Pozo, 2009; Jana and
122 Bhattacharya, 2013). Anfuso and Del Pozo (2009) assessed vulnerability to coastal erosion by
123 considering few physical criteria, such as land use, wave height and coastal evolution; thus far,
124 no approach has been established to assign weight and rank in multi-criteria evaluation. Jana
125 and Bhattacharya (2013) calculated vulnerability to coastal erosion by using only three criteria,
126 namely, shoreline change rate, land use and population density, and coastal vulnerability was
127 evaluated only at 1 km inland from the shoreline. Several studies have assessed coastal erosion
128 risk by incorporating vulnerability, exposure and hazard (Li et al., 2015; Merlotto et al., 2016;
129 Narra et al., 2017). Socio-economic criteria were not considered on a broad scale because they
130 are equally important for assessing the risk or vulnerability of coastal erosion (Bouaziz et al.,

131 2011; Li et al., 2015; Merlotto et al., 2016; Narra et al., 2017; Fitton et al., 2018; Serafim et al.,
132 2019). Li et al. (2015) assessed coastal erosion risk along the coastline of Yang Muddy Coast
133 by considering 10 vulnerability indicators and three impact indicators. Their study was
134 conducted on a broad scale, and AHP technique was used to produce a risk map, but socio-
135 economic criteria were not considered.

136 Numerous studies are reported on Bangladesh coastal vulnerability (Sarwar and Woodroffe,
137 2013; Islam et al., 2016; Ahmed et al., 2018a; Hoque et al., 2019a; Mullick et al., 2019;
138 Mahmood et al., 2020). Ahmed et al. (2018a) developed a model of land susceptible to coastal
139 erosion to explore coastal physical susceptibility to erosion and applied it in coastal
140 Bangladesh. This model was developed by only considering physical criteria at the regional
141 scale. Mullick et al. (2019) and Hoque et al. (2019a) developed a coastal vulnerability index to
142 multi-hazard events by focusing on the Bangladesh coast by using a geospatial approach but
143 did not directly focus on coastal erosion assessment. In contrast, Sarwar and Woodroffe (2013)
144 calculated only the rate of shoreline changes for coastal Bangladesh. Recently, Mahmood et al.
145 (2020) assessed the coastal vulnerability of Meghna estuary covering mostly the central coastal
146 region of Bangladesh. The coastal areas of Bangladesh are classified into three coastal regions,
147 namely, western, central and eastern, according to geomorphic characteristics (Karim and
148 Mimura, 2008). Although the eastern coastal region is highly vulnerable to coastal erosion, its
149 assessment of coastal erosion vulnerability incorporating socio-economic criteria has not been
150 studied using the AHP-based multi-criteria decision-making approach.

151 This study aims to prepare a coastal erosion vulnerability approach that integrates physical and
152 socio-economic criteria by using geospatial techniques and to examine the spatial pattern of
153 vulnerability of the impacts of coastal erosion on the eastern coastal region of Bangladesh to
154 support mitigation measures. The specific objectives of this study include the following: (1) to
155 develop a physical and socio-economic vulnerability indices of coastal erosion impacts by
156 using the AHP-based multi-criteria decision-making approach; (2) to produce a vulnerability
157 index that integrates physical and socio-economic criteria to examine the spatial pattern of the
158 vulnerability of coastal erosion impacts, and (3) to evaluate the results of the spatial
159 vulnerability assessment.

160 **2. Study area**

161 This study focused on the eastern coastal region of Bangladesh, covering the 54 coastal unions
162 (smallest administrative unit) of Chittagong and Cox's Bazar coastal districts (Fig. 1). This

163 region is extended from the Mirsarai Upazila along the Meghna Estuary of Feni river to Teknaf
164 Upazila of the southern part of Bangladesh. The geographical extension of this area is 20°46'–
165 22°29' N latitude and 91°26'–92°20' E longitude. The total area of the studied coastal region is
166 1,503 km² with a population of 9.2 million, who mostly depend on the resources of the Bay of
167 Bengal (BBS, 2012). The coast is approximately 377 km-long, and the soil is composed of tidal
168 muds, estuarine deposits, submerged beach and dune sands (Islam, 2001). Submerged sand
169 stretches on the 145 km-long beach and extends from Cox's Bazar to Teknaf, thereby attracting
170 millions of tourists every year. This longest sea beach has experienced extensive coastal
171 erosion, which will likely to increase in the future (Sarwar, 2005). The tropical monsoon
172 climate prevails over this coastal region, with a daily mean average temperature of 25.9 °C
173 (Peel et al., 2007). The mean annual rainfall has been observed >3000 mm in this region
174 (Brammer, 2014). Fish farming, fishing in the sea, salt cultivation and tourism are the main sources
175 of economic activities that are observed in this coastal region. The rate of sea level rise is 7.8 mm
176 per year in this coastal region, which is higher compared to the two other coastal regions of
177 Bangladesh (Sarwar and Woodroffe, 2013). Erosion is very common in this coastal region.
178 Rapid climate change and rising sea level may expedite the coastal erosion of this region.
179 Consequently, increasing coastal erosion can severely damage coastal environments, hamper
180 agricultural activities and may interrupt tourism sectors (Wright et al., 2019).

181

[Fig. 1 near here]

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184 3. Materials and methods

185 To assess coastal erosion vulnerability, the current study adopted multi-criteria assessment
186 methods through AHP and geospatial techniques. The AHP approach incorporates and
187 aggregates multi-criteria decision-making process efficiently (Malczewski, 2010; Stefanidis
188 and Stathis, 2013). The methodological aspect of the study is interpreted in Fig 2.

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190

[Fig. 2 near here]

191 3.1 Data set and sources

192 Several criteria under two vulnerability indices were considered to assess coastal erosion
193 vulnerability. The data used in the study were aggregated from multiple data sources

194 comprising both national as well as international organizations considering existing literature,
195 data availability, and several field visits Field visits were conducted primarily to evaluate the
196 findings of the study and investigate erosion affected areas. Table 1 explains the data type,
197 sources, and other relevant information of each criterion in a concise format.

198 **[Table 1 near here]**

200 **3.2 Vulnerability evaluation criteria, alternatives and mapping**

201 Thirteen criteria were selected, comprising seven physical and six socio-economic criteria. The
202 criteria were selected on the basis of the accessibility of data and relevance to coastal erosion.
203 GIS and remote sensing techniques were used to generate the spatial layers of the selected
204 criteria by using ENVI 5.4 and ArcGIS 10.4 software. The cell size of each raster spatial layer
205 was 10 m × 10 m. This study used natural break statistical techniques to classify the produced
206 maps for its consistency in presenting the spatial pattern of erosion vulnerability (Baeza et al.,
207 2016; Hoque et al., 2019b). The characteristics and mapping approaches of each criterion are
208 explained in the following paragraphs. Table 2 briefly provides details about the statement of
209 each criterion, methodology and relationship with coastal erosion vulnerability.

210
211 **[Table 2 near here]**

213 **3.2.1 Criteria for physical vulnerability mapping**

214 Seven criteria, which are related to coastal erosion of physical vulnerability, were selected.
215 The selected criteria were elevation, slope, geomorphology, soil texture, proximity to coastline,
216 coastal vegetation and shoreline change.

217 Elevation and slope play an important role in assessing vulnerability to coastal erosion (Li et
218 al., 2015; Narra et al., 2017). Areas with low elevation and steep are highly vulnerable to
219 coastal erosion, and areas with a gradual slope and high elevation are less vulnerable.
220 Vulnerability increases with a decrease in elevation because wave action and tide will initially
221 affect those areas, where ocean and sea water can reach first (Li et al., 2015). In this research,
222 digital elevation model (DEM) was acquired from Survey of Bangladesh (SOB) with 10 m
223 resolution to generate an elevation and slope map (Fig. 3a, 3b).

224 Coastal geomorphology demonstrates the evolution of the landscape and reveals the relative
225 erosion of various kinds of landforms (Hegde and Akshaya, 2015; Mahapatra et al., 2015). The
226 geomorphological characteristics of the study area were categorised from bedrock to beach and
227 dune sand to assess landform vulnerability to coastal erosion (Fig. 3c) (Islam et al., 2016). The
228 coastal geomorphology layer was prepared using data obtained from the Geological Survey of
229 Bangladesh (GOB). Soil texture is an important criterion for assessing coastal erosion
230 vulnerability. Clay soil shows more resistance to coastal erosion, whereas sandy soil is mostly
231 erodible (Botero-Acosta et al., 2017). Soil texture layer was then prepared using data acquired
232 from the Bangladesh Agriculture Research Council (BARC) (Fig. 3d).

233 Proximity to coastline plays a vital role in the assessment of coastal erosion vulnerability. The
234 vulnerability of shoreline, island and areas near the coast are higher than that of inland areas
235 (Narra et al., 2017). ‘Euclidean distance’ tool in ArcGIS was used to generate proximity to the
236 coastline spatial layer. On-screen manual digitisation of 2018 mosaic Sentinel 2 imagery was
237 used to draw shoreline by using the Euclidean distance tool (Fig. 3e). Coastal vegetation
238 protects coastal erosion by intercepting its actions to minimise the effects on coastal
239 infrastructure and properties (Williams et al., 2018). The spatial layer of coastal vegetation was
240 created using Sentinel-2 imagery. We used Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)
241 to calculate the density of coastal vegetation to categorise it into five classes in the ArcGIS
242 platform. Mangrove vegetation was considered as coastal vegetation (Fig. 3f).

243 **[Fig. 3 near here]**

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245 Twenty-four geometrically corrected freely available Landsat images were used to calculate
246 shoreline change rate. These cloud-free images were collected between January to March
247 during high tide. The two specific methods adopted for identifying coastline boundaries and
248 calculating shoreline change rates are as follows: (1) water index algorithm for evaluating
249 coastline boundaries between land and water and (2) digitising shoreline to run DSAS (Digital
250 Shoreline Analysis System) tools. A modeller function of IDRISI SELVA was applied to
251 prepare the Modified Normalised Difference Water Index (MNDWI) algorithm by using the
252 combination of two bands of Landsat (green and mid-infrared) (Xu, 2006). An on-screen
253 manual digitisation technique was then used to digitise the shoreline from the classified Landsat
254 images (Kumar and Kamra, 2012). For further calculation, a baseline was made by digitising
255 manually approximately 1 km onshore away from the nearest shoreline and then using both

256 shorelines (1974, 1980, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2016) and baseline. Final
257 erosion/accretion rates were calculated using the DSAS tool. Linear regression was used for
258 the final assessment of erosion and accretion rates at intervals of 100 m with 3,388 transects
259 (Natesan et al., 2015). The study area was classified into five categories following the findings
260 of shoreline change rate (Fig. 4).

261 **[Fig. 4 near here]**

262 **3.2.2 Criteria for socio-economic vulnerability mapping**

263 We selected six criteria to assess socio-economic vulnerability to coastal erosion. The selected
264 criteria were population density, land use/land cover (LULC), dependent population, tourist
265 spots, road network, and literacy rate.

266 Coastal population concentration and densities have a significant influence on coastal erosion
267 (Adger et al., 2005). The age range of dependent people is between 0–14 and more than 65
268 years. Dependent populations are more vulnerable because they are unemployed or unable to
269 earn. The area with less percentage of literate people is more vulnerable because people with a
270 higher education level may seek better job options and can adapt by migrating to other places.
271 The spatial layers of population density, dependent population and literacy rate were prepared
272 using the Bangladesh population and housing census data of 2011 (Fig. 5a, b, c). The 2011
273 population and housing census was the last census, and the next one is scheduled in 2021.

274 LULC is a dynamic criterion for assessing vulnerability to coastal erosion. Five 10 m spatial
275 resolution Sentinel-2 imageries were used to produce the LULC map (Fig. 5d). Pre-processing
276 of sentinel-2 images was conducted using the Sen-2Cor tool of Sentinel Application Platform
277 (SNAP) software. Eight LULC classes were selected to classify from satellite images by using
278 a hybrid classification technique (Kumar et al., 2013). The selected classes were identified by
279 implementing an unsupervised clustering algorithm. Sample data were then chosen using the
280 maximum likelihood algorithm to conduct supervised classification by using ENVI 5.4
281 software. In brief, 505 samples were collected randomly during the same period from Google
282 Earth to assess the accuracy of the classified images following the method explained in the
283 studies of Hoque et al. (2016) and Jensen (2005). The overall accuracy and Kappa coefficient
284 values were 92.1% and 91%, respectively.

285 Tourist spots and road networks are severely affected by coastal erosion (Kim et al., 2011).
286 Tourist spots and road network data were obtained from Bangladesh Tourism Board (BTB)
287 and the Local Government Engineering Department (LGED), respectively. The collected data
288 were overlaid on the study area boundary to prepare tourist spots' spatial layer (Fig. 5e). Spatial
289 road network layer was prepared using a 1 km buffer zone as a distance from the road, which
290 was determined following the occurrence of coastal erosion to the closeness of the road (Fig.
291 5f).

292 Qualitative data such as population density, dependent population, literacy rate, and tourist
293 spots were obtained based on the smallest administrative boundary (Union). Primarily, all the
294 data were collected in vector format. The vector layers were classified into five alternatives
295 and converted to raster format with 10m spatial resolution and rest of the processes are
296 discussed in the following section.

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[Fig. 5 near here]

301 3.3 Alternative ranking and standardisation of criterion layers

302 Vulnerability ratings in the scale of five-points were assigned and ranked for each alternative
303 of spatial criterion layers, where very low vulnerability is indicated by one and very high
304 vulnerability is represented by 5 (Table 3). The alternatives were ranked considering the
305 contribution to erosion vulnerability and procedures of AHP.

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[Table 3 near here]

309 For each criterion, a 10 m-pixel raster layer was generated by converting from vector to raster
310 model for applying the weighted overlay technique. A standardisation method was applied
311 using the linear scale transformation Equation 1 to prepare the entire alternative ranking values
312 into a common range from 0 to 1.

$$p = \frac{x - \min}{- \min} \quad (1)$$

313 where p is the standardised score, min and max refer to the minimum and maximum values,
314 and x indicates the value of the single cell in the dataset.

315

316 **3.4 Weighting the criteria using AHP**

317 We employed the AHP decision-making algorithm to weigh the criteria of the two vulnerability
318 indices and develop an overall vulnerability map (Malczewski, 1999). For each vulnerability
319 component, the pair-wise comparison matrix was created with the help of three experts and one
320 user, who have considerable expertise in coastal erosion related studies and applied the scale
321 of relative established by Saaty (2008). The composite score for each vulnerability component
322 was 1.

323

324 Consistency ratio (CR) was calculated using Eq. 2 to check the consistency in the comparison
325 assigned by the experts and a user and ensure that CR value does not exceed 0.1.

326

$$CR = \text{Consistency Index} / \text{Random Index} \quad (2)$$

327

328 where random index (RI) represents the randomly generated average consistency index, and
329 consistency index (CI) can be calculated as follows:

330

$$CI = (\lambda_{max} - n) / (n - 1) \quad (3)$$

331

332 where λ_{max} is the largest eigenvalue of the matrix, and n denotes the order of the matrix
333 (Malczewski, 2010).

334

335 Table 4 outlines the criterion weights and consistency ratios calculated from the pairwise
336 comparison.

337

338 **[Table 4 near here]**

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340 **3.5 Overall vulnerability assessment**

341 Erosion vulnerability assessment was performed using a weighted overlay technique in ArcGIS
342 software with physical and socio-economic criterion layers and their assigned weights. This
343 process produced physical and socio-economic erosion vulnerability indices. The generated
344 indices were grouped into five vulnerability classes (very low, low, moderate, high and very
345 high) to generate physical and socio-economic erosion vulnerability maps. Finally, the overall
346 erosion vulnerability was assessed by combining physical and socio-economic erosion
347 vulnerability indices. These two indices were integrated with the generated weight (Table 4)

348 by applying a weighted overlay technique. The overall erosion vulnerability index was then
349 categorised into five vulnerability classes (very low to very high).

350

351 **3.6 Efficiency assessment of physical erosion vulnerability results**

352 To validate the physical erosion vulnerability map, we applied the receiver operating
353 characteristic curve (ROC) and the area under the curve (AUC). Between April 2018 and May
354 2020, the study area was visited multiple times by the authors and inspected erosion affected
355 areas to collect GPS (Global Positioning System) values of the specific erosion occurrence
356 zones for verifying the accuracy of coastal erosion vulnerability results (Fig. 6). Altogether,
357 172 highly erosion affected locations were identified, and then the collected points were
358 mapped using ArcGIS 10.4 (Fig.6). Field investigations at these particular places were
359 conducted identifying particularly vulnerable regions from the erosion vulnerability map,
360 taking photographs, and verifying the actual vulnerability to coastal erosion. Among the total
361 172 locations, training datasets resemble 70% of the erosion points, while validation datasets
362 present just 30%.

363

364 **[Fig. 6 near here]**

365

366 **4. Results**

367 **4.1 Physical vulnerability mapping**

368 Fig. 7 demonstrates the degree of physical vulnerability to erosion in the study area. The high
369 and very high physical vulnerability levels in the study area cover approximately 291 and 130
370 km², respectively, which comprise 28% of the total study area. High and very high physical
371 vulnerability was observed in the southern, western and northwestern regions. Specifically, the
372 Bairag, Barasat, Roypur union of Anowara upazila, Khurushkul of Cox's Bazar Sadar,
373 Dhalghat and Matarbari of Maheshkhali Upazila and Kutubdia Island and some sections of
374 Sandwip Island are mostly near the shoreline. Areas of moderate physical vulnerability account
375 513 km² of the study area. The moderate physical vulnerability area mainly lies in Teknaf,
376 Kutubdia, Ramu, Cox's Bazar Sadar and interior parts of Sandwip. Most portions of the
377 Maheshkhali and Sitakunda and the eastern parts of the Sandwip Islands belong to low or very-
378 low physical vulnerability levels. .

379
380

[Fig. 7 near here]

381 4.2 Socio-economic vulnerability mapping

382 Fig. 8 displays the spatial distribution of socio-economic vulnerability to erosion in the study
383 region. It introduces a pattern of coincidence with social and economic growth. High and very-
384 high degree of socio-economic vulnerability was observed in the middle and southern portions
385 of the study site, which covers approximately 824 km². The southern part of Ukhia and Teknaf,
386 Northern part of Moheshkhali, almost every union of Kutubdia, Chittagong Port, Cox's Bazar,
387 Sitakunda and Hathazari; and Sandwip, Mirsharai and Teknaf have low and very-low socio-
388 economic vulnerability levels. More than half (54%) of the total study area has a high or very-
389 high socio-economic vulnerability level, and low or very-low vulnerability levels occur in 24%
390 of the study region (Fig. 8).

391
392

[Fig. 8 near here]

393 4.3 Overall vulnerability mapping

394 Fig. 9 spatially depicts the overall vulnerability to the coastal erosion of the study area. The
395 overall vulnerability mapping shows that 523 km², which is approximately one-third (34.50%)
396 of the total study area, represents a high and very high degree of vulnerability; this area is
397 mainly located near to the coastlines or undergone continuous high erosional activities and may
398 have inadequate mitigation measures. In the exposed parts of Chittagong city, Cox's Bazar,
399 Kutubdia, Teknaf, Ukhia, Anowara and some portions of Moheshkhali, high and very high
400 vulnerability to coastal erosion were explicitly observed (Table 5). Approximately 35.50%
401 (533 km²) of the area was covered by low and very low vulnerability zone, mostly toward
402 inland from the coastline and at the interior part of the study site. Most of these areas
403 experienced accretion activities and included the north-eastern (Mirsharai, Sandwip) and
404 southern parts (Moheshkhali, Ramu) of the study site (Table 5). In addition, approximately
405 30% of the region was regarded as a moderately vulnerable region. Strong mitigation measures
406 may modify vulnerability results in certain areas, although consistency was found among
407 physical, socio-economic, and overall vulnerability results..

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[Fig. 9 near here]

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[Table 5 near here]

412 **4.4 Efficiency assessment of physical erosion vulnerability approach**

413 Fig.10 illustrates the success and prediction rate curves of the model performance employed
414 for the study, which reveals, 0.852 of success rate that interprets 85.2% AUC success accuracy
415 for the applied AHP model. On the contrary, the AUC of the prediction rate resembles 0.801,
416 interpreting 80.1% of prediction accuracy for the physical erosion vulnerability results. The
417 values of AUC range between 0.5 to 0.1, values higher than 0.8, and close to 1 represents a
418 higher accuracy (Chen et al., 2018). Therefore, AUC values of prediction rate (80.1%) and
419 success rate (85.2%) of this analysis resemble a successful outcome of our developed physical
420 erosion vulnerability assessment approach.

421 [Fig. 10 near here]

422 **5. Discussion**

423 In the recent past, the importance of the coastal region has increased significantly.
424 Consequently, the rate of coastal erosion around the world also has been increased
425 dramatically, which is threatening the livings and economy of coastal people. The intensity of
426 coastal erosion is likely to be enhanced in the future due to sea-level rise, which is related to
427 climate change. Therefore, a coastal erosion vulnerability assessment integrating physical and
428 social components is necessary to restrict coastal erosion and promote sustainable
429 development.

430 Numerous methods around the world have been performed to assess coastal erosion
431 vulnerability and risk. Most of the studies were conducted considering physical components or
432 social components, either grid-based or performed on a regional scale (Jana and Bhattacharya,
433 2013; Ahmed et al., 2018a; Awange et al., 2018; Fitton et al., 2018). Thus, the motivation of
434 the research was to propose an integrated vulnerability assessment technique taking into
435 account physical and socio-economic components. This is because we believe in vulnerability
436 assessment, both physical and social factors are equally important. Moreover, to our
437 knowledge, this study is the first integrated approach for the eastern coast of Bangladesh
438 focussing on coastal erosion vulnerability. In total, 13 vulnerability criteria (7 physical and 6
439 socio-economic) were selected to assess coastal erosion vulnerability through the AHP model.
440 The findings demonstrated, for overall vulnerability, the high and very-high vulnerability class
441 cover around 34% of the study area. Similarly, for physical vulnerability high and very-high
442 vulnerability class represents around 28% of the study area. Conversely, more than half (55%)

443 of the study area of socio-economic index covered by very-high and high vulnerability class
444 combined. Consistency was found among physical, socio-economic, and overall vulnerability
445 results. The spatial distribution suggests Chittagong city, Cox's Bazar city, Teknaf, Kutubdia,
446 and Ukhia Upazila are most vulnerable to coastal erosion, such finding is consistent with the
447 outcome of Ahmed et al. (2018b), Hoque et al. (2019a), Mullick et al. (2019) and Ahmed et al.
448 (2020). The majority portion of those Upazilas consists of mostly low elevation, steep slope,
449 non-existence of mangrove, high population density, vulnerable land cover class, presence of
450 roads, and other factors that made those regions more vulnerable. However, amongst all
451 physical vulnerability criteria, the shoreline change rate was considered as the most crucial
452 factor for assessing physical erosion vulnerability. The 42 years of analysis between 1974 and
453 2016 reveals the shoreline change rate ranges from -100m/yr to 83.96m/yr, and this finding
454 corroborated by Hoque et al. (2019a), Sarwar and Woodroffe (2013) and (Roy and Mahmood,
455 2016). Apart from this, among social vulnerability, population density, and LULC acted as
456 critical indicators in measuring the socio-economic vulnerability of the result. For instance,
457 regions with high population density and other highly vulnerable socio-economic factors have
458 demonstrated the actual picture of coastal erosion vulnerability. The integration of socio-
459 economic index has strengthened the performance of erosion vulnerability models of previous
460 works conducted considering only physical components or socio-economic components (Jana
461 and Bhattacharya, 2013; Ahmed et al., 2018a; Awange et al., 2018; Fitton et al., 2018).
462 Furthermore, the current study consolidates the other similar works of Hoque et al. (2019a),
463 Martins et al. (2017), Li et al. (2015), Merlotto et al. (2016) and Narra et al. (2017). Thus, the
464 proposed integrated model can be applied by planners and coastal engineers to restrict coastal
465 erosion and maintain sustainable development.

466 However, this study has been confined by the availability of information and data for several
467 criteria. For example, some essential criteria could be considered to evaluate the impacts of
468 climate change on coastal erosion, such as sea-level rise, tide range, and significant wave
469 height. Besides, the authors also had to overcome several challenges in managing the data-
470 quality and provide up-to-date data because the study site belongs to a third-world country. The
471 population census used was out-dated for the socio-economic criteria because it was performed
472 in 2011, no alternatives are available because the next population census will be conducted in
473 2021. In addition, managing high-resolution LULC data was very difficult and challenging due
474 to budgetary constraints. Therefore, freely available Sentinel-2 imagery was used for
475 developing the LULC layer. DEM was used to quantify the elevation and slope criteria with a

476 resolution of 10m. Future research may consider high-resolution satellite imagery, higher-
477 resolution DEM, such as light detection and ranging (LiDAR), better-scale criteria, and other
478 variables for improved erosion vulnerability assessment performance. Moreover, the current
479 study was performed using a single model (AHP). However, the application of different multi-
480 criteria decision analysis (MCDM) models (Fuzzy-AHP, Fuzzy Logic), Statistical models
481 (Bivariate and multi-bivariate), artificial neural network (ANN), and Machine learning models
482 may provide better output. Therefore, future studies can consider multiple models to compare
483 between them as many other studies considering several models to assess other natural hazards
484 such as floods, landslides, drought, etc. The best model can be attributed by the policymakers
485 to inhibit future consequences of coastal erosion.

486

487 **6. Recommendations for future coastal management**

488 In order to protect the eastern coast from future coastal erosion, we have proposed some
489 management strategies by considering current coastal erosion vulnerability results. The
490 recommendations are summarized and outlined in Table 6. The specific degree of vulnerability
491 results of this study was used to recommend the management strategies. Recommendations for
492 future coastal management has been exhibited in details below:

- 493 ▪ Due to the rapid shoreline changes, some portions of the study area belong to a very
494 high degree of vulnerability. Establishing set back zones by establishing sea walls likely
495 to be very useful to minimise the erosion rate. Moreover, shoreline stabilisation
496 techniques such as mangrove plantation also recommended minimising slow coastal
497 erosion (Sharma et al., 2016; Hoque et al., 2019a; Mullick et al., 2019). The coastlines
498 of Sandwip Island, Kutubdia, Hathazari, and Bashkhali experienced rapid erosion
499 (Figure 4). In some of these areas, three cross-dams have already been placed, and more
500 cross-dams can be designed and built. Furthermore, developing additional polders
501 along the coastlines with necessary observance can be a cost-efficient technique
502 measure to conserve the agricultural lands and physical infrastructures located adjacent
503 to the coastline.

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515 **Table 6.** Suggested strategies for future coastal management.

Degree of vulnerability	Recommendation for future coastal management
Very high	a) Setback zones by establishing sea walls b) Shoreline stabilisation techniques and mangrove plantation. c) Cross-dams and polders, set back zones
High	a) Placement of additional geo-textile bags and replacing damaged ones. b) Developing set back zone and polders.
Moderate	a) Mangrove plantation b) A policy for future development.
Low and very low	a) Conservation of existing mangrove plantation and restrict human intervene.

516

- 517 ▪ The study area under high coastal erosion vulnerability consists of the longest natural
518 beach, which is 145 km long. Unfortunately, slow and continuous beach erosion puts
519 the sandy beaches at risk. Geo-textile bags filled with sand were already installed in
520 various erosion affected areas. Even though powerful wave activities commonly
521 damaged a few of the established geo-textile bags still this is a more suitable and cost-
522 effective measure for these coastlines. However, various illegitimate and harmful for
523 ecosystem developments were noticed during field-work, mostly near the tourist spot.
524 These unplanned infrastructures are serious threats to coastal areas and biodiversity.
525 Governments must take a more active policy and strategy to stop them.
- 526 ▪ The moderate vulnerability zones mainly situated in the interior portions of the study
527 area, and some portions of Ramu Upazila also under moderate erosion vulnerability.

528 However, those areas can be in danger in the future under rapid climate change
529 scenarios. Plantation of mangrove and robust policy for future development may be
530 applicable for those vulnerable zones.

531 ■ Low and very-low vulnerability zones also covered a considerable portion of study
532 areas coastlines, specifically, the coastlines of Sandwip, Mirsharai and Maheshkhli
533 Upazilas. High accretion rate and presence of mangroves minimized the degree of
534 vulnerability in those areas. However, conservation of existing mangrove plantations
535 and restrict human intervention can be good mitigation measures for those low to very-
536 vulnerable regions.

537

538 **7. Conclusion**

539 We prepared an integrated coastal erosion vulnerability approach combining physical and
540 socio-economic criteria for examining the spatial pattern of vulnerability of the eastern coastal
541 region (1,503 km²) of Bangladesh to the coastal erosion. Several field visits were conducted to
542 acquire erosion locations and the ROC technique was used to validate the physical erosion
543 vulnerability results. The vulnerability map exhibited high vulnerability to coastal erosion
544 impacts for Bairag, Barasat, Roypur union of Anowara Upazila, Khurushkul of Cox'sBazar
545 Sadar, Dhalghat and Matarbari of Maheshkhali Upazila and almost all the unions of Kutubdia
546 Island and part of Sandwip Island, which are quite close to the coastline. Communities, tourist
547 attractions, and protected environments situated within these high-vulnerability areas are
548 directly affected by coastal erosion, as evidenced by damages to infrastructures, households,
549 agricultural lands, and tourist attractions. Despite the few limitations listed above in the
550 discussion section, the findings and recommendations of this current study are still very helpful
551 in developing mitigation policies and practices to restrict coastal erosion consequences in
552 Bangladesh's coastal region.

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556

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563

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761

762 **Figure captions:**

763

764 **Fig. 1** Study area, eastern coastal region of Bangladesh. (a) Union (administrative unit) boundary of
 765 Eastern Coast mapped on Landsat 8 OLI (Operational Land Imager) images and (b) overall study area
 766 in the context of the coastal region of Bangladesh.

767 **Fig. 2** Flowchart used for assessing coastal erosion vulnerability in this study.

768 **Fig. 3** Physical vulnerability criteria layers: (a) elevation, (b) slope, (c) geomorphology, (d)
 769 soil texture, (e) proximity to coastline and (f) coastal vegetation.

770

771 **Fig. 4** Zoomed-in view of selected localities: (a) Transect orientation of the zone includes
 772 Sandwip Island, Mirsharai, Sitakunda and Hathazari. (b) Transect orientation of the zone
 773 includes Chittagong city, Anowara and Bashkhali. (c) Transect orientation of the zone includes
 774 Kutubdia Island, Chakaria and Maheshkhali. (d) Transect orientation of the zone includes
 775 Cox's Bazar City, Ramu and Teknaf. (e) Zone-wise distribution of entire shoreline, illustrating
 776 shoreline change vulnerability.

777

778 **Fig. 5** Socio-economic vulnerability criteria layers: (a) population density, (b) dependent
 779 population, (c) literacy rate, (d) LULC, (e) tourist spots and (f) road network.

780

781 **Fig. 6** Field visit locations for validating the erosion vulnerability results in the study area.

782

783 **Fig. 7** Physical vulnerability map showing spatial pattern and degree of vulnerability to
 784 coastal erosion.

785 **Fig. 8** Socio-economic vulnerability map showing spatial pattern and degree of vulnerability
 786 to coastal erosion.

787 **Fig. 9** Overall vulnerability map showing spatial pattern and degree of vulnerability to coastal
788 erosion resulting from spatial physical vulnerability and socio-economic vulnerability indices.
789

790 **Fig. 10.** Area under the curve for success rate (85.2%) and prediction rate (80.1%).

791

792

793 **Table captions:**

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796 **Table 1.** Data type and sources used for coastal erosion assessment.

797

798

799 **Table 2.** Description of the selected criteria, methods of calculation and rationale for coastal
800 erosion vulnerability assessment.

801

802 **Table 3.** Ranking of alternative criteria following the contribution to coastal erosion
803 vulnerability.

804

805 **Table 4.** Criterion weights and consistency ratios calculated from the pairwise comparison
806 matrices.

807

808 **Table 5.** Distribution of districts, upazilas and unions in different vulnerability classes.

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