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ANNEX 1

Glossary

- Adaptive management** An iterative management approach in which management policies are treated as experiments from which managers can learn. It deals with unpredictable interactions between people and ecosystems as they co-evolve. It is an inductive approach to progressive knowledge accumulation and management optimization. Stimulating social and institutional learning, it emphasizes the importance of *feedbacks* in shaping policy (from Berkes and Folke, 2000).
A management approach that explicitly recognizes the occurrence and potential consequences of uncertainties resulting from incomplete knowledge and adopts strategies and methods aimed explicitly at “learning by management”, progressively reducing uncertainties and risk.
- Adaptability** The ability to change (or be changed) to fit changed circumstances (Wikipedia, January, 2008)
- Advocacy** Trying to influence public and political opinion to gain support for a particular change (Graham, 1971, p. 124)
- Artisanal fisheries** A term of Latin origin with a socio-economic foundation. It tends to imply a simple, individual (self-employed) or family type of enterprise (as opposed to an industrial company), most often operated by the owner even though the vessels may sometimes belong to the fishmonger or some external investor, with the support of the household. The term has no obvious reference to size but tends to have the same connotation of relatively low levels of technology and this may not always be the case. See: *Small-scale fisheries*.
- Assessment** An assessment is both *the action or an instance of assessing* and its result. *It is the process of gathering and documenting information* (appraisal is sometimes used as synonym but look at definition below) as well as *the amount assessed* (Webster online dictionary, <http://www.m-w.com/dictionary/assessment>, 2007). *It is the process of documenting, usually in measurable terms, knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs* (<http://en.wikipedia.org>, 2007). To form a *judgment about something* (a person, a situation, a patrimony) *based on an understanding* (Encarta, 2007). A judgment made by a scientist or scientific body on the state of a resource, a stock, a fishery (e.g. its size, potential, state, trend) usually for the purpose of passing advice for management (modified from Cooke, 1984). An assessment of a situation might be undertaken before (*ex-ante*), during (concurrent) or at the end/after (*ex-post*) of a project or an intervention. These phases are compressed when the assessment becomes recurrent and integral part of the decision-making process. See: *Appraisal; Baseline assessment; Conventional assessment; Integrated assessment; Pre-assessment*

Attribute	An abstraction belonging to or characteristic of an entity. A construct whereby objects or individuals can be distinguished.
Appraisal	A stage in formal decision methods (following the evaluation stage). The objective of the appraisal stage is for the decision-maker to develop insight into the decision and determine a clear course of action. Much of the insight developed in this stage results from exploring the implications of the formal decision model developed during the formulation stage (Wikipedia, June 2005)
Baseline assessment	Provides the basis for future monitoring and performance assessment
Collaborative research	<i>A relationship between equal partners in a research process. It usually involves a partnership between a traditional research institution like a university and one or more community partners</i> (Graham, 1971, p. 72). Collaborative research may improve credibility and legitimacy.
Criterion	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In common dictionaries: a criterion is the ideal in terms of which something can be judged. A basis for comparison. A reference point. A benchmark against which other things can be evaluated. 2. In a sustainability indicators framework: a property of interest when considering the principle. In a complex system perspective, a criterion is a property of a component (in this case, the resource). In order to monitor the state of the resource base, for instance, it is necessary to monitor abundance, composition and variability. Criteria can therefore be considered as second order principles that add meaning and operational value to a principle without being a direct measure of performance (i.e. objectives cannot be expressed in terms of criteria). They also often provide the level at which indicators can be meaningfully aggregated, integrated.
Component	A part that combines with other parts to found something bigger.
Conventional assessment	Refers to the process of assessing resources from the Cartesian/Newtonian positivist and reductionist paradigm (assuming equilibrium, reversibility and predictability) using quantitative methods to advise centralized governments bureaucracies. It is distinguished from integrated assessment.
Conceptual framework	<p>A structure built from a set of concepts linked to a planned or existing system of methods, behaviors, functions, relationships and objects. A conceptual framework is used in research to outline possible courses of action or to present a preferred approach to a system analysis project. (Wikipedia, November 2007)</p> <p>A conceptual framework for SSF assessment, therefore, articulates the ideas, concepts and mental images that are used to construct the operational framework. It is useful as a reference, or metaphor, for all the disciplines involved. If described in simple terms, it can also serve to articulate the interaction with other stakeholders.</p> <p>See: <i>Operational framework</i></p>

Diagnosis	Defined originally as the process used to recognize a condition by its outwards signs and symptoms using various diagnostic procedures (e.g. rapid assessment), it is taken now as including analysis of the causes of these symptoms (Wikipedia). The conclusion reached through these processes is called a <i>diagnosis</i> .
Dimension	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The magnitude of something in a particular direction (e.g. length or width or height). One of three Cartesian coordinates that determine a position in space. A magnitude or extent. 2. The highest level subdivisions of a system. The classical (UN) sustainable development framework recognizes three dimensions: Pressure, State and Response and criteria and indicators will be identified in this typology.
Domain	A knowledge area of interest. A territory over which rule or control is exercised. The set of values of the independent variable for which a function is defined (<i>range?</i>). A particular environment
Evaluation	<p>The act of ascertaining or fixing the value or worth of something. An appraisal of the value of something. A judgment (or a process leading to a judgment) on the quality, importance, amount or value of something (compiled from various dictionaries).</p> <p>A stage in formal decision methods. The objective of the evaluation stage is to produce a formal recommendation (and its associated sensitivities) from a formal model of the decision situation (Wikipedia).</p>
Ecological systems	Refers usually to the natural environment (Berkes and Folke, 2000, p. 4). It includes the fishery resources, other resources, their habitat, the web of interrelationships and their general environment. Taken as synonym of ecosystem.
Ecosystem	A system of complex interactions of populations between themselves and with their environment. The joint functioning and interaction of populations and environment in a functional unit of variable size. In modern use, conceived as comprising a natural and a human subsystem even though the boundaries between the two might be somewhat artificial. Berkes and Folke (2000) use the term social-ecological system.
Feedback	In complex systems, <i>any behaviour that may reinforce (positive feedback) or modify (negative feedback) subsequent behaviour</i> (Berkes and Folke, 2000: 6)
Fisher	A person who fishes. The term does not include those who process or market fish.
Fishworker	Men, women, children and elders involved in harvesting, processing and marketing of fish (International Conference of Fishworkers and their Supporters held in Rome, 1984).
Fisherfolk	The whole population associated with fish-related activity in a particular location. Also called fisherpeople.
Governance	The activity or process of governing. A condition of ordered rule. Those people charged with the duty of governing. The manner, method, system by which a particular society is governed (McGlade, 1999). Governance is undertaken at strategic (policy) as well as operational (management) levels

Indicator	<p>1. A device for showing the operating condition of some system. A signal for attracting attention. A number or ratio (a value on a scale of measurement) derived from a series of observed facts. Can reveal relative changes as a function of time.</p> <p>2. In the sustainable development framework, variable attributes of the criteria that can be used to track the state (represent trends) of a system component and the degree of implementation of the principle, the performance of governance. Indicators are directly connected to operational objectives. They convey a simple, useful message but may aggregate more than one element of information. In relation to the criteria listed above, indicators could be: (i) biomass and catch rates (for abundance); (ii) species diversity and average trophic level (for composition); (iii) coefficient of variation of catch or biomass (for variability).</p>
Indigenous knowledge	<p><i>Local knowledge held by indigenous peoples, or unique to a given culture or society</i> (in Berkes and Folke, 2000, p. 4). Taken as a synonym of traditional knowledge and traditional ecological knowledge (TEK) although there is no reason to limit traditional knowledge to its ecological dimension.</p>
Integrated	<p><i>Not segregated. Resembling or formed (united,* blended) into a unified whole. Introduced into another entity</i> (example: an integrated assessment and advisory process or an integrated assessment and management process).</p>
Integrated assessment	<p>An interdisciplinary process of synthesizing, interpreting and communicating knowledge from diverse scientific disciplines in order to provide relevant information to policy-makers on a specific decision problem (Toth, 2001)</p> <p>The process of assessing whole and dynamic complex fishery systems in their environment using quantitative and qualitative methods to advise centralized and decentralized government bureaucracies as well as self-governing communities. For a development see Garcia, 2006.</p> <p>See: <i>Conventional assessment</i>.</p>
Integration	<p><i>The act of combining into an integral whole.</i> The more integrated the representation, the closer to a system representation.</p>
Interdisciplinarity	<p>A typical trait of holistic approaches in science and other fields. The act of drawing from two or more academic disciplines, integrating their insights in pursuit of a common goal and to develop a greater understanding of a single subject, or solutions to a single problem that is too complex or wide-ranging to be dealt with using the knowledge and methodology of just one discipline. Attacking a subject from various angles and methods, eventually cutting across disciplines and forming a new method for understanding of the subject. It may be seen as a remedy to the effects of excessive specialization. It draws its excellence from and feeds it back to the component disciplines.</p>

Interdisciplinarity (cont.)	Examples of interdisciplinary fields are: nanotechnology, computer science, bioinformatics, ecological economics. Interdisciplinarity is sometimes understood as different from multidisciplinary (in which many different disciplines examine simultaneously their respective objects and combine their conclusions) and transdisciplinarity (which becomes necessary when the concept or method cannot be understood from within a single discipline and requires the input of many disciplines to be understood and the boundaries between disciplines dissolves. Ethnography, is a transdiscipline, combining insights from psychology, philosophy, sociology (compiled from www.wikipedia.com).
Local knowledge	In the specific case of coastal communities, <i>the body of information developed by those with a local connection to the ocean, whether living by the sea or earning a living from the sea</i> (Graham, 1971).
Monitoring	To watch and check something (e.g. indicators, activities) carefully over a period of time, sometimes keeping a record of it, usually to check if changes fit with expectations. In fisheries, the observation of fishing activities by the fishery police (as part of the monitoring, control and surveillance [MCS] programme) to check compliance with regulations and provide emergency assistance.
Operational framework	The articulation of a process or series of actions for achieving a result (in this document, an integrated assessment). A framework ready to be used or being in effect or in operation (compiled from various dictionaries).
Participatory research	<i>A research approach in which local people decide on the research priorities and questions, collect and own information and decide on how it will be used.</i> (Graham 1971, p. 66). The term collaborative research is also used. See <i>Collaborative research</i> .
Pre-assessment	Equivalent to framing, scoping or preliminary appraisal (Chapter 3, section <i>Overall framework</i>), <i>it may be a process of collecting and generating fairly complex information.</i> In this document, however, a pre-assessment is a rapid assessment of the likely parameters of the assessment itself, before starting it, involving little or no computations and no generation of new knowledge. Its purpose is to help in optimizing the main assessment process. Parameters examined include: availability of data; institutional capacity; seriousness of the issue; scope for participation, etc.
Principle	The highest level of reference in the sustainable development framework. A principle is an expression of human wisdom. It is a statement conventionally taken as a fundamental “truth” or law as a basis for reasoning and action. It can be based on subjective arguments (e.g. ethics, values and traditions) as well as objective falsifiable ones (scientific knowledge). Agreed principles of relevance for fisheries can be found in the FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries. They provide the justification for selecting criteria and indicators. They provide the basis for selection of high level conceptual objectives with which they are often confused.

Problem identification and analysis	A process of isolating the issues contained within a larger policy issue <i>with the view to</i> defining a problem, analysing its root causes and identifying possible solutions to choose from (constructed from Graham, 1971, p. 121).
Resilience	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>The ability to recover from (or to resist being affected by) some shock or disturbance</i> (www.wikipedia.com). <i>The buffer capacity or the ability of a system to absorb perturbations</i> (Holling <i>et al.</i>, 1995) It reflects the capacity of a system to stay or return in its original steady state. <i>This traditional definition concentrates on stability near an equilibrium steady-state, where resistance to disturbance and speed of return to the equilibrium are used to measure resilience.</i> 2. <i>The measure of the amount of change or disruption that is required to transform a system from being maintained by one set of mutually reinforcing processes and structures to a different set of processes and structures</i> (www.wikipedia.com). <i>The magnitude of disturbance that can be absorbed before a system changes its structure by changing variables and processes that control behaviour</i> (Holling <i>et al.</i>, 1995). This definition emphasizes conditions far from steady-states, where instabilities can flip a system into another regime of behaviour, i.e. to another stability domain. 3. Connected to (ii) the capacity for renewal of a social-ecological system in a dynamic environment, adapting to change so as to maintain or modify as appropriate essential functions (e.g. productivity, livelihoods). Connected to knowledge-building and the building of learning capabilities in institutions and organizations.
Small-scale fisheries	A term of English origin with a technological foundation. It tends to imply the use of a relatively small size gear and vessel. The term has sometimes the added connotation of low levels of technology and capital investment per fisher although that may not always be the case. See: <i>Artisanal fisheries</i> .
Stakeholder	Someone affected (positively or negatively) by an activity, or someone who can influence the process of impact of an activity. Broadly defined, stakeholders in fishery regimes include fishers, the fishing industry and institutions involved in the management system, all those who rely on fishery habitats for a living and those interested in conservation of fishery resources and habitats (taken from PARFISH, Walmsley, Howard and Medley, 2005)
Standard	A criterion, indicators and reference value can become a standard when formally established and enforced by an authority and on the basis of which constraining action can be taken (modified from Garcia, 1997).
Surprise	In complex systems behavior, an unexpected change. An outcome that differ from expectations not only quantitatively but qualitatively and may lead to a management crisis (Holling, 1986). A surprise may result from a yet uncovered emergent property of the system. It may also result from the brutal release of the unseen accumulation of minor ecological or social consequences of management under a triggering factor or beyond some tolerable threshold.

Threshold	The point where a system flips from one equilibrium to another (Berkes and Folke, 2000, p. 6). The level of an indicator at which the risk of the system to move out of the agreed limits is reached and action is needed (threshold reference point, Garcia, 1994).
Traditional knowledge	<i>A cumulative body of knowledge, practice and belief, evolving by adaptive processes and handed down through generations by cultural transmission (about the relationship of living beings (including humans) with one another in their environment)</i> (Berkes, 1999, p. 8). Also called traditional ecological knowledge (TEK). See also: <i>Indigenous knowledge; Local knowledge.</i>
Universal	<i>Of wide scope or applicability. Related to, affecting, or accepted by the whole world. Relating, affecting or including everyone in a group or situation. Used or understood by everyone. Applicable to all situations or purposes.</i>
Versatile	<i>Having a wide variety of skills. Able to move freely in all directions. Competent in many areas and able to turn with ease from one thing to another.</i> In fisheries, a useful property for an approach, method or model, allowing it to be easily used under various circumstances. Synonym: flexible.
Vulnerability	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Susceptibility to attack or/and injury.</i> A vulnerable ecosystem, species, fishery or human community can easily be modified and eventually damaged in terms of its composition, structure, functions and utility. 2. In fisheries, a multidimensional concept qualifying the relationship between SSF and their political, economic, social or natural environment. <i>Vulnerability research covers a complex, multidisciplinary field including development and poverty studies, public health, climate studies, security studies, engineering, geography, political ecology and disaster and risk management.</i> (www.wikipedia.com).
Verifiers	They are the elements to used calculate and/or verify the value of indicators and add meaning to them. They include the procedures needed to determine whether the conditions expected for the validity of the indicators are fulfilled. For catch rates, they would include catch and effort data as well as scientific survey data.

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ANNEX 2

Participation

In the assessment as well as in the monitoring and evaluation processes, participation can provide an empirical check of the models used by scientists to represent the real world. It can also provide a check of the social acceptability of management options and of the legitimacy of their evaluation. In traditional systems' thinking, participation can therefore be seen as a control regulating the quality of the process of interaction between societal demand and scientific supply (Checkland, 1981).

The term "participation" covers a variety of decision-making and information-sharing arrangements. Arnstein's (1969) original "ladder of citizen participation" (Figure A2.1) illustrates the full range of decision-making arrangements found in practice, from those where citizens' needs are "cured" (or poverty "alleviated"), to situations where the people affected by projects and policies are those who make the decisions, with advisory input from external "experts".

To paraphrase Arnstein's (1969) own words: The bottom two rungs of the ladder describe levels of "non-participation" that have been contrived to substitute for genuine participation. Their real objective is not to enable people to participate in planning or conducting programmes, but to enable power holders to "educate" or "cure" the participants. Rungs 3 and 4 progress to levels of "tokenism" that allow the have-nots to hear (3) and to have a voice (4), but only under conditions where they lack the power to ensure that their views will be heeded by the powerful. When participation is restricted to these levels, there is no follow-through, no "muscle", hence no assurance of changing the status quo. Placation (rung 5) is simply a higher level tokenism because the ground rules allow have-nots to advise, but retain for the power-holders the continued right to decide.

Further up the ladder are levels of citizen power with increasing degrees of decision-making clout. Citizens can enter into a partnership (rung 6) that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders. At the top, under delegated power (rung 7) and with citizen control (rung 8), the directly-concerned citizens obtain the majority of decision-making seats, or full managerial power. It must be noted, however, that people in the lower rungs of participation have nonetheless some power of subverting what the powerful are attempting to achieve without their concern, either through non-compliance or circumventing the measures, ultimately affecting their outcomes. This is indeed one of the powerful reasons for promoting participation.

Although it is envisaged that the assessment framework is embedded within some form of power-sharing arrangement for resource

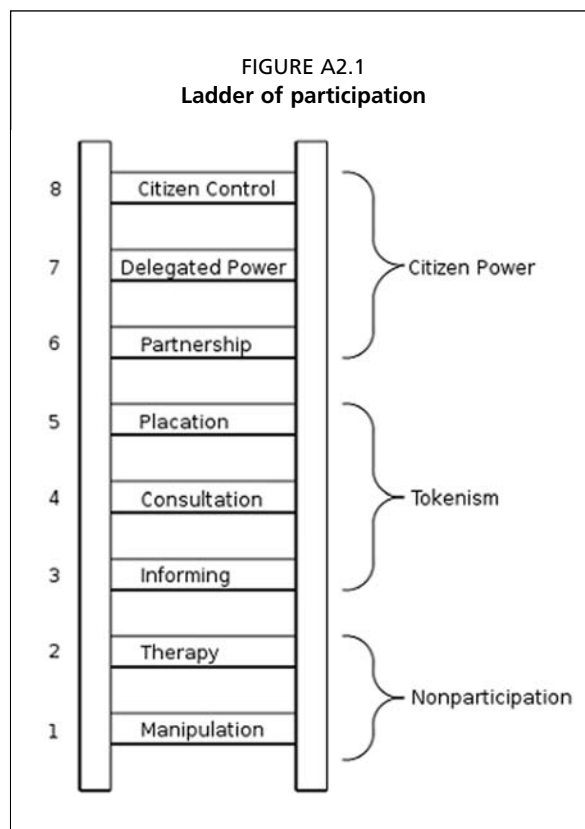


TABLE A2.1
A typology of participatory research and assessment with fishing communities

Type of participation	Main characteristics of research relationships
Induced or coerced	Scientists define the research or management agenda, fishworkers are paid or co-opted to participate
Extractive, passive or contractual	Scientists or extension agents define the research agenda, fishworkers provide data or resources for scientists to study.
Consultative	Fishworkers define the problem, researchers develop solutions
Collaborative	Fishworkers and scientists participate in different stages of the research
Collegiate	Scientists and fishworkers work together to strengthen both formal and informal knowledge systems.
Advisory	Fishworkers define their own problem-solving agendas. Scientists/ extension agents retain an 'on demand' advisory role.

Source: modified from Biggs, 1989 and Allison, 2002.

management, this cannot be considered a prescription in all cases and a prerequisite to the IAA process. The principles for “participatory research” are detailed in Table A2.1. Induced and extractive approaches prevail in much of the conventional rapid rural appraisal (RRA). While emerging from RRA, the participatory rural appraisal (PRA) prescribed for use in SSF, in line with the principles of this framework (Pido *et al.*, 1997), corresponds more to consultative, collaborative and collegiate approaches. Advisory participation may be the most realistic alternative for assessments in situations where scientific capacity is absent or too expensive to mobilize. The difference between conventional and really participative assessment is illustrated in Table A2.1.

Many assessment activities claim to adopt participatory research approaches, such as PRA. The use of PRA tools implies “broad” participatory goals by enabling rural people to explore their own visions and solutions to environment and development problems. The aim is for local people to become creative analysts and performers of research, rather than passive or reactive respondents (Chambers, 1992), yet “doing a PRA” is frequently regarded as a rather simple way of generating a lot of information quickly. The simplicity of the techniques belies the more complex political and social context in which interactions between researchers and local people take place. Local people are often seen as all-too-willing participants without their own agendas. What they say is frequently regarded as a statement of fact, rather than a product of an encounter that is always set within relations of power (Cornwall, Guijt and Welbourn, 1993). Unless they are informed by a strong theoretical grounding in the social sciences and rigorous application of ethnographic research methodology, the “results” of PRA studies are likely to be of little use in informing policy and management. This should not be interpreted as discouraging the use of PRA tools, but as encouraging their more reflective and rigorous application.

Part of the problem with inappropriate use of PRA is that it is now virtually compulsory to use participatory research and development approaches. This has been called the “tyranny of participation” and does not consider the potential pitfalls of indiscriminate and inappropriate use of participatory techniques (Cooke and Kothari, 1998). PRA has become a banner under which all research that involves visiting villages or talking to local people is grouped. Use of PRA in this “extractive” way can be damaging. The tools of PRA are designed to elicit responses on peoples’ problems, needs, hopes and aspirations. The “appraisal” is supposed to be only one part of a broader development process that “empowers” local people by enabling them to take some measure of control over the factors that affect their lives. If PRA exercises are not followed up by action to deal with identified problems and needs, expectations can be raised by researchers who lack the means – or even the intention – of fulfilling them. “PRA research” carried out in this manner poses significant ethical problems. The same could be said of application of this diagnostic framework if it is de-linked from subsequent management action.

TABLE A2.2
Differences between conventional and participatory research and assessment

	Conventional research	Participatory research
Purpose	To collect information for diagnosis, planning and evaluation	To empower local people to initiate action
Goals of approach	Predetermined, highly specified	Evolving, in flux
Approach	Objective, standardized, uniform, blueprint to test hypothesis, linear	Flexible, diverse, local adaptation, change is encouraged, iterative
Modes of operation	Extractive, distance from subject, focus on information generation,	Empowering, participatory, focus on human growth
Decision-making focus	External, centralized	Local people, with or without a facilitator
Methods and techniques	Highly structured focus, precision of measurement, statistical analysis (modelling)	Open-ended, visual, interactive, sorting, scoring, ranking, drawing
Researcher/facilitator role	Controller, manipulator, expert, dominant, objective	Catalyst, facilitator, visible initially, invisible later on
Role of local people	Sample, targets, respondents, passive, reactive	Generators of knowledge, active participants, creative
Ownership of results	Results owned and controlled by outsiders who may limit access to others	Results owned by local people, new knowledge resides in people
Output	Reports, publications, possible policy changes	Enhanced local action and capacity, local learning, cumulative effect on policy change, results may however not be recorded

Sources: Narayan, 1996 (from Pomeroy and Rivera-Guieb, 2006: Box 7.3).

Toth (2001) distinguishes two approaches to integrated assessment: mathematical modelling and participatory methods. However, the French school of integrated assessment has also developed participatory modelling (called Companion Modelling) in which stakeholders are directly involved in the design and use of multiagent models used for simulations as well as role games (see Bousquet and Lepage 2004; Gurung, Bousquet and Trébuil, 2006; and http://www.cirad.fr/ur/index.php/green_en/formations/jdr/jdr). A large array of participatory integrated assessment methods have been developed during the past few decades to satisfy the demand emerging from various segments of society (Toth, 2001).

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Conventional assessment frameworks do not provide an adequate basis for informed management decisions and development planning of the small-scale fisheries (SSF) subsector. Normative management frameworks and approaches have been developed as an evolution of conventional fisheries management, such as the 1995 FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries and the ecosystem approach to fisheries. Yet, the assessment frameworks required to operationalize these alternative management approaches have not been fully developed, at least for SSF.

The integrated assessment and advisory (IAA) framework presented in this document begins to address this need. The document presents the conceptual basis of the IAA process, introduces the framework and places the assessment within the broader planning and management cycle. The IAA framework presented here results from the synergistic efforts of FAO and the WorldFish Center, with collaboration from individuals leading both research and practical assessment and management programmes related to SSF.



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