University of Rhode Island DigitalCommons@URI

Open Access Master's Theses

2014

EXPLORING SOCIAL RESILIENCE IN MARINE PROTECTED AREAS - A CASE OF INDONESIA'S CORAL TRIANGLE

Abdul Halik University of Rhode Island, ahalik1982@gmail.com

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/theses Terms of Use All rights reserved under copyright.

Recommended Citation

Halik, Abdul, "EXPLORING SOCIAL RESILIENCE IN MARINE PROTECTED AREAS – A CASE OF INDONESIA'S CORAL TRIANGLE" (2014). *Open Access Master's Theses.* Paper 329. https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/theses/329

This Thesis is brought to you by the University of Rhode Island. It has been accepted for inclusion in Open Access Master's Theses by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@URI. For more information, please contact digitalcommons-group@uri.edu. For permission to reuse copyrighted content, contact the author directly.

EXPLORING SOCIAL RESILIENCE IN MARINE PROTECTED AREAS – A CASE OF INDONESIA'S CORAL TRIANGLE

BY

ABDUL HALIK

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

IN

MARINE AFFAIRS

UNIVERSITY OF RHODE ISLAND

MASTER OF ARTS IN MARINE AFFAIRS

OF

ABDUL HALIK

APPROVED:

Thesis Committee:

Major Professor

Richard B. Pollnac

Brian R. Crawford

Carlos G. Garcia-Quijano

Nasser H. Zawia DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

UNIVERSITY OF RHODE ISLAND 2014

ABSTRACT

The term "resilience" has a very long and rich history. The term itself received a widespread attention since Holling's seminal paper in 1973 on system ecology. Since then, the term resilience has been widely used and defined in many academic disciplines. The examination of social resilience in the context of overall coastal community resilience has been developed during the last few years. Such studies have been important in determining factors influencing the acceptance of MPAs in resource dependent communities.

The concept of social resilience has been defined mostly at the community level, and less so at the individual level. In order to fill the gap, this study is intended to measure social resilience at the individual level. The objective of this study is to explore resilience and its impact on Indonesian MPAs. It addresses the following research questions: (1) What is the degree of variability in individual resilience in Indonesia's Coral Triangle?, (2) Are there any relationships between degree of individual resilience and other social characteristics of a community?, (3) Are there any relationships between degree of individual resilience and a community' economic characteristics? (4) Are there any relationships between degree of individual resilience and community members' environmental attitudes beliefs and values?, and (5) How does community perception of MPA management influence their degree of individual resilience?

This study has discovered some important aspects of social resiliency and it's relation to some aspects of MPAs. First, the social resilience of resource dependent

individuals in Indonesia could be best explained by five components, which are: adaptive capacity, risk awareness, perceived social-economic status, community attachment and environmental awareness. Second, this study suggests that MPAs have some degree of influence on the level of individual social resilience. Several resource users' individual attributes, such as age, years of education and gender are related to their level of social resilience. Resource user's perceptions of some aspects of MPA planning and management processes were also found related to their social resilience. Finally, this study provides a basis for further in depth research of social resilience of resource dependent communities, specifically in the Indonesian context.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work would not have been completed without generous help and support from many individuals. First, I would like to thank my major professor, Dr. Richard Pollnac for his continued support during my venture as a graduate student. Additionally, I would like to acknowledge my thesis committee, Dr. Brian Crawford and Dr. Carlos Garcia-Quijano, for their time and effort in helping to shape this project.

I would like to thank USAID – PRESTASI program and the team for making my study in the U.S. possible and enjoyable. I also would like to thank to the US-CTI Learning Project team, Dr. Patrick Christie, Dr. Richard Pollnac, Dr. Todd Stevenson, Chris Rotinsulu, Sam Macks, research assistants and all communities involved for their generous support that made this thesis research possible.

Finally, I would like to thank to my wife Herna Rizki Wahyuni, my little daughter Aqila "Noina" Shaqina, my parents and my siblings (Ros, Halim, Wati and Hafid) for their enduring love and support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

.BSTRACTii
CKNOWLEDGMENTSiv
ABLE OF CONTENTS v
IST OF TABLES ix
IST OF FIGURES xi
2HAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION1
5 SHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE
2.1. RESILIENCE CONCEPT REVISITED
2.1.1. RESILIENCE IN SOCIAL-ECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS 6
2.1.2. ADAPTABILITY AND ADAPTIVE CYCLE
2.1.3. TRANSFORMABILITY
2.1.4. THRESHOLD
2.1.5. LATITUDE
2.1.6. RESISTANCE
2.1.7. PRECARIOUSNESS 11
2.1.8. PANARCHY
2.2. SOCIAL RESILIENCE
2.2. SOCIAL RESILIENCE

	2.2.2.1 Coping Ability	18
	2.2.2.2 Level of Interest to Change	19
	2.2.2.3 The Ability to Plan, Learn and Organize	20
	2.2.2.4 The Perception of Risk	20
2.3. MARIN	E PROTECTED AREA OVERVIEW	20
<u>2.4. SUMMA</u>	<u>NRY</u>	22
CHAPTER 3		24
METHODOLO	GY	24
<u>3.1. STUDY</u>	<u>AREA</u>	24
<u>3.2. DATA C</u>	COLLECTION	26
<u>3.3. INTERV</u>	<u>'IEWS</u>	28
3.3.1	VILLAGE OFFICIAL AND KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS	28
3.3.2	RESOURCE USER	29
<u>3.4. MEASU</u>	REMENT OF VARIABLES	29
3.4.1	INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS	29
3.4.2	ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND VALUES	29
3.4.3	MARINE PROTECTED AREA (MPA) MEASURES	31
	3.4.3.1 MPA awareness and participation	32
	3.4.3.2 MPA Economic outcome	32
	<u>3.4.3.3 Ecological outcome</u>	32
	3.4.3.4 Process quality	33
	3.4.3.5 MPA Management and implementation level	33

3.4.4 SOCIAL RESILIENCE	33
CHAPTER 4	. 37
RESULTS	. 37
4.1. GENERAL SAMPLE INFORMATION	37
4.2. INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS	37
4.3. ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND VALUES	40
4.3.1 RESOURCE BELIEF SCALE	40
4.3.2 HUMAN-NATURE RELATIONSHIP	41
4.4. MARINE PROTECTED AREA MEASURES	42
4.4.1 AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION	42
4.4.2 ECONOMIC OUTCOME	43
4.4.3 ECOLOGICAL OUTCOME	. 44
4.4.4 PLANNING PROCESS QUALITY	44
4.4.5 MPA MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION LEVEL	. 45
4.5. SOCIAL RESILIENCE	46
4.5.1 DEFINING AND OPERATIONALIZING SOCIAL RESILIENCE	. 46
4.5.2 SOCIAL RESILIENCE SCORES AND COMPONENT SCORES	. 48
4.6. SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS	. 50
4.7. SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS	51
4.8. SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS	. 54

4.9. SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND VALUES	56
4.10.SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND MPA MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION	57
CHAPTER 5	60
DISCUSSION	60
5.1. DEGREE OF VARIABILITY IN INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE	60
5.2. INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS	<u>3</u> 61
5.3. INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS	64
5.4. INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS	65
5.5. INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND MPA MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION	65
5.6. STUDY LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	66
CHAPTER 6	68
CONCLUSION	68
APPENDICES	71
BIBLIOGRAPHY	81

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 4.9: Difference in mean scores of SR components and MPA management	
and implementation characteristics analysis	59
1 5	
Table 6.1: Statistically significant result from variables analyzed	69

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES PAGE
Figure 2.1: Three-dimensional heuristic model of adaptive capacity (adapted from Allison and Hobbs 2004)
Figure 2.2: Stability landscape with two basin of attraction showing the three aspects of resilience, $L = latitude$, $R = resistance$, $Pr = precariousness$ (Adapted from Walker et al. 2004)
Figure 3.1: Map of study location (map is courtesy of Conservation International Indonesia Marine Program)
Figure 3.2: Human-Nature relationship illustrations (Adapted from Davis et al. 2009)
Figure 4.1: Histogram of Age distribution
Figure 4.2: Percentage distribution of respondents' occupations
Figure 4.3: Histogram of education year's distribution
Figure 4.4: Histogram of respondents' conservation beliefs scale
Figure 4.5: Percentage of respondents' MPA awareness and participation
Figure 4.6: Percentage of respondents' perception of MPA benefits and equal MPA benefits
Figure 4.7: Percentage of respondents consulted in MPA planning process and perceived respondents views in the plans
Figure 4.8: Percentage of respondents' responses in regards to MPA management level, more MPA, MPA boundary, and MPA leaders
Figure 4.9: Histogram of social resilience (SR) score

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is the world's largest archipelagic state. It has a very complex geology, climate and ocean circulation patterns, which result in a highly diverse and dynamic marine and coastal environment (Tomascik et al. 1997). The population of Indonesia is approximately 240 million (in 2010), and nearly 60 million people live along the coast within 30 km from coral reefs (Burke et al. 2012). In order to optimize the benefits of marine and coastal resources, the government of Indonesia has rapidly expanded the extent of marine waters under protection. To date, approximately 170,000 sq. km of Indonesia's marine and coastal area has been protected with some form of marine conservation arrangement. The government of Indonesia is currently continuing to establish more conservation areas to fulfill the 200,000 sq km commitment by 2020 to the Coral Triangle Initiative – CTI (Green et al. 2012; Carter et al. 2010).

Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) have a significant role to play in the protection of ecosystems and, often, in the enhancement or restoration of coastal and marine fisheries, if they are correctly designed and effectively managed (Carter et al. 2010; IUCN-WCPA, 2008). MPAs consist of a complex combination of governing arrangements managing the interactions of humans with the natural environment (Dalton 2012). However, MPAs' implementation can cause major changes to an

individual's (i.e. resource users) life and coastal communities' interaction as the result of restricting resource utilization, for protection and conservation. The coastal communities will have to be able to adapt to such changes. Their adaptation involves making adjustments to changing circumstances in order to endure the changes (Hanna, 2000).

The theory of resilience has been undergoing development for about four decades (Holling 1973; 2004). Resilience refers to a system that maintains social – ecological functions, with the ability to absorb change or perturbation and reorganize so as to maintain essentially the same function, structure, identity and feedbacks (Marshall, 2006). Resilience is the ability of a social-ecological system to cope with and adapt to external social, political, or environmental disturbances (Adger 2000, Folke et al. 2002a, Marshall and Marshall 2007, Cinner et al. 2009). During, the last ten years, efforts to apply the resilience concept to marine conservation have significantly increased (Hughes et al. 2005, Cinner et al. 2009, Marshall et al. 2009, Sutton and Tobing 2012, Cinner et al. 2012, McClanahan et al. 2012).

Social resilience, as one of the essential components of resilience theory, has been developed in the context of anthropological and medical research (Vayda and McCay 1975; Rutter 1987; Abel and Stepp 2003; Bonanno, G.A. 2004). The examination of social resilience in the context of overall coastal community resilience has been developed during the last few years. Such studies have been important in determining factors influencing the acceptance of MPAs in resource dependent communities (Marshal 2007; Marshall and Marshall 2007; Cinner et al. 2009; Marshall et al. 2009; McClanahan et al. 2012; Sutton and Tobing 2012). The concept of social resilience has been defined mostly at the community level (Levin et al. 1998, Adger 2000, McClanahan et al. 2008, Cinner et al. 2009), and less so at the individual level (Marshall and Marshall 2007, Marshall et al. 2009, Sutton and Tobing 2012). In order to fill the gap, this study is intended to measure social resilience at the individual level. Moreover, for the purpose of this study, general use of the term 'resilience' refers to individual resilience—the adaptability of individual resource users to changes and perturbations in their community and ecosystem, while community resilience is the degree to which all community members are resilient.

The objective of this study is to explore resilience and its impact on Indonesian MPAs. It will address the following research questions:

- 1. What is the degree of variability in individual resilience in Indonesia's Coral Triangle?
- 2. Are there any relationships between degree of individual resilience and other social characteristics of an individual?
- 3. Are there any relationships between degree of individual resilience and an individual's economic characteristics?
- 4. Are there any relationships between degree of individual resilience and individual's environmental attitudes, beliefs and values?
- 5. How does community perception of MPA management and implementation influence their degree of individual resilience?

This study will improve the understanding of individual resilience and its influencing factors as associated with MPAs in Indonesia's Coral Triangle region. It is also aimed to provide input to MPA officials and managers to develop strategies for better adaptive management of MPAs in Indonesia. The next chapter provides a summary of current theory regarding resilience and social resilience, including social and economic characteristics that have been found to influence social resilience, and its potential influence on MPA management. Chapter 3 provides a description of the methods used for data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 presents the results. Chapter 5 discusses key findings, management implications and potential areas for improvement. Chapter 6 presents the study's conclusion.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. RESILIENCE CONCEPT REVISITED

Resilience theory has been developed over the last few decades. The resilience perspectives surfaced over a theory of ecological stability resulting from studies of population interaction related to the predator--prey mechanisms in the field of ecology (Folke 2006). C.S. Holling (1973) initially utilizes the concept of 'resilience' in ecology in his seminal paper. "The resilience approach emphasizes non-linear dynamics, thresholds, uncertainty and surprise, how periods of gradual change interplay with periods of rapid change and how such dynamics interact across temporal and spatial scales" (Folke 2006: 253).

The resilience perspective is constantly evolving and used in a great variety of interdisciplinary works concerned with the interaction between humans and nature (Carpenter et al. 2001, Folke 2006). The concept and associated theory began to influence other fields such as anthropology and other social sciences (Vayda and McCay 1975, McCay 1978, Thompson et al. 1990, Hanna et al. 1996, Scoones 1999, Abel and Stepp 2003), ecological economics (Perrings et al. 1992, Costanza et al. 1993, Arrow et al. 1995), community planning (Lamson 1986, King 1997), disaster and hazard (Tobin 1999), geography (Zimmerer 1994), and public health (Dyer and McGuinness 1996, Rutter 1987).

Based on the original concept from Holling's synthesis (1973), resilience has three defining characteristics in a social-ecological system, which are; (1) the extent of change (or stress) that a system can undergo (or sustain) and still maintain the same controls on its structure and function, (2) the degree to which the system is capable of self-organization, and (3) the degree to which the system can build and increase the capacity for learning and adaptation (Carpenter et al. 2001, Walker et al. 2002, Folke et al. 2002a,b). The sequence of resilience concept development is summarized in Table 2.1 (Adapted from Folke 2006).

Table 2.1: A sequence of resilience concepts, from more narrow interpretation to the broader context (Adapted from Folke 2006).

Resilience Concept	Characteristics	Focus on	Context
Engineering Resilience	Return time, efficiency	Recovery, constancy	Vicinity of a stable equilibrium
Ecological/Ecosystem Resilience; Social Resilience	Buffer capacity, withstand shock, maintain function	Persistence, robustness	Multiple equilibria, stability landscapes
Social-Ecological Resilience	Interplay disturbance and reorganization, sustaining and developing	Adaptive capacity, transformability, learning, innovation	Integrated system feedbacks, cross-scale dynamic interactions

2.1.1. RESILIENCE IN SOCIAL-ECOLOGICAL SYSTEMS

"Social–ecological resilience is about people and nature as interdependent systems" (Folke et al. 2010: 2). The stability dynamic of a linked systems of human and nature emerges from three complementary and interrelated attributes: (1) resilience, (2) adaptability and, (3) transformability which could determine the system's future trajectories (Walker et al. 2004). Henceforth, Folke et al. (2010) argue that both adaptability and transformability are the prerequisite attributes for socialecological resilience. In addition, Walker et al. (2004) emphasize four crucial aspects to define resilience in the context of social-ecological systems: (1) latitude, (2) resistance, (3) precariousness and (4) panarchy.

2.1.2. ADAPTABILITY AND ADAPTIVE CYCLE

In the social-ecological system, adaptability refers to the extent of humans' (actors') capacity to influence resilience, intentionally or unintentionally (Walker et al. 2004). The adaptability of the actors decides the level of threshold in a social-ecological system (move closer/further away or more/less difficult to reach) (Walker 2004). Moreover, Walker et al. (2004) imply that a desirable regime in the social-ecological system can be created from intentional collective actions of the actors (human) to manage the resilience following a disturbance. Berkes et al. 2003 (as cited in Folke et al. 2010:2) further explained, "adaptability captures the capacity of a social-ecological system to learn, combine experience and knowledge, adjust its responses to changing internal processes and external drivers, and continue to develop within the current stability domain or basin of attraction".

Hollings et al. (1986; 2001) presented a heuristic model for understanding the process of change in complex systems, called the adaptive cycle (Fig 2.1). It consists of four cyclic development phases and three characteristics, which "can be used to identify structure, patterns, and causality in a complex adaptive system," (Allison and Hobbs 2004:4). Four development phases of adaptive cycles are rapid growth/

exploitation (r), conservation (K), release (Ω), and reorganization (α) (Hollings et al. 1986; 2001) and the three characteristics are potential (capacity), connectedness and resilience (Allison and Hobbs 2004). Table 2.2 summarizes the relationship the four-phase and three-characteristic of the adaptive cycle (adapted from Allison and Hobbs 2004).



Figure 2.1: Three-dimensional heuristic model of adaptive capacity (adapted from Allison and Hobbs 2004).

The process involves an adaptive cycle triggered by a disturbance (changeevent) that breaks down the system. The cycle then moves to the next phase of growth or exploitation. During this phase, new opportunities and innovations that could shape the system arise (Marshall 2006). The cycle then continues to the conservation phase. In this phase, any external disturbance may not significantly affect the system as the system becomes stagnant and less flexible (Marshall 2006). If an external disturbance happens that exceeded the system "threshold", the system would collapse and enter the release phase of the cycle. The system would then be restructured and regrown (Holling 1973; 2004, Gunderson et al. 1995, Marshall 2006).

Table 2.2: The relationship of four-phases and three-characteristics of adaptive capacity (adapted from Allison and Hobbs 2004).

Characteristics/ Phase	Capacity	Connectedness	Resilience
Reorganization (a)	High	Low	High
Conservation (K)	High	High	Low
Growth/exploitation (r)	Low	Low	High
Release (Ω),	Low	High	Low

2.1.3. TRANSFORMABILITY

Walker et al. (2004:3) defined transformability as "the capacity to create a fundamentally new system when ecological, economic, or social (including political) conditions make the existing system untenable". It can be a deliberate or forced process by the actors (Folke et al. 2010). Several studies of social-ecological systems suggest that transformation attributes entail four stages; (1) preparing the social–ecological systems for change, (2) a crisis that creates a window of opportunity for change occurring, (3) navigating the transition of the system and (4) charting a new direction of the social-ecological system, while building resilience for the new regime (Olsson et al. 2004a; 2006, Folke et al. 2005, Chapin et al. 2010).

2.1.4. THRESHOLD

One important factor in the resilience of a social-ecological system is threshold. Thresholds are used to describe the point where a regime or an alternate stable state in a system could be changed into another regime or stable state (Walker and Meyers 2004). They further explain that in theory, when a threshold level is passed, a regime shift occurs, and as a result, the nature and extent of feedback in the system changes. In a Socio-ecological system there exists thresholds (from primary components) that could determine the trajectory of the system from a desirable into an undesirable state, if it is passed (Walker and Meyers 2004). Marshall (2006:16) explained that an adequately big change event could result a switch in the system to an alternate regime if "the thresholds of coping are reached and exceeded". She further argued "A negative shift from 'desirable' to 'undesirable' states represents loss of system resilience" (Marshall 2006:16).

Social-ecological systems have multiple interacting thresholds that are triggered by slow and fast variables (Yorque et al. 2002, Walker et al. 2006, Renaud et al. 2010). Threshold measurement is difficult and typically has low precision; very often thresholds shift over time due to the dynamic and the complexity of the systems (Walker and Meyers 2004, Walker et al. 2006, Marshall 2006, Renaud et al. 2010).

2.1.5 LATITUDE

Latitude (L) refers to "the maximum amount from a system that can be changed before losing its ability to recover" (Walker 2005:82). It is illustrated as the width of the valley of attraction (Fig. 2.2) (Walker et al. 2004). Furthermore, Walker

et al. (2004:6) suggested that wide valleys "mean a greater number of system states can be experienced without crossing a threshold."

2.1.6 RESISTANCE

Resistance (R) suggests the level of difficulties in changing the system (Walker 2005). It is "related to the typology of the basin—deep basin of attraction; (R; or more accurately, higher ratio of R:L) which indicates that greater forces of perturbation are required to change the current state of the system away from the attractor" (Walker et al. 2004: 6-7). Figure 2.2 pictured Resistance as the depth of the valley. As the valley become deeper, a greater disturbance is needed in order to move a system closer to its threshold and into another alternate state or regime (Marshall 2006).

2.1.7 PRECARIOUSNESS

Precariousness (PR) indicates the current trajectories of a system to its thresholds (Walker et al. 2004, Walker 2005). It is pictured as the distance of the dot relative to the edge of the valley (Fig. 2.2).

2.1.8 PANARCHY

Panarchy is the theory of the cross scale, interdisciplinary and dynamic nature of a social – ecological system (Holling et al. 2002, Gotts 2007). It is how the latitude, resistance and precariousness are "influenced by the states and the dynamics of the systems at scales above and below the scales of interest" (Walker et al. 2004:7).



Figure 2.2: Stability landscape with two basin of attraction showing the three aspects of resilience, L = latitude, R = resistance, Pr = precariousness (Adapted from Walker et al. 2004).

2.2 SOCIAL RESILIENCE

It has been understood that the resilience of the social system linked to a larger resource system is just as important as resilience of the ecological components of the system (Berkes and Folke 1998, Gunderson and Holling, 2002, Berkes et al. 2003). Resilience is mostly specified within the context: 'of what, to what' (Carpenter et al. 2001, Walker et al. 2002). However, researchers and managers are mostly unclear about what they have set out to measure for social resilience (Marshall 2006).

In the context of human-nature interaction, social resilience is an essential element of the conditions in which individuals and/or social groups interact and adapt to any changes in the environment (Adger 2000, Marshal 2007). The dependence of

the individual and/or community on the environment through economic and livelihood activities is an example of connecting both social and ecological resilience (Adger 2000).

Researchers have attempted to define and to measure social resilience from various viewpoints. Harkes and Novaczek (2002) attempted to measure the resilience of a social system using the performance and status of a local customary institution (Sasi), while Gomez-Baggethun et al. (2012) studied the potential contribution of Traditional Ecological Knowledge (TEK) in community resilience. They measured the resilience using biological and social sustainability indicators, efficiency, equity, and the historical records of adaptive practices. Norris et al. (2008) and Sherrieb et al. (2010) measured social resilience in relation to community preparedness to disaster, while Machlis and Force 1988, Bliss et al. (1998) measured social resilience in forest dependent communities. Marshall and Marshall (2007) measured social resilience from individual perspectives, while Cinner et al. (2009) measured social resilience using household and community level information. For instance, Marshall and Marshall (2007) measured assessed resource users' social resilience from their responses of expected well-being, historic responses, capacity to anticipate change events. Moreover, Cinner et al. (2009) measured communities' social resilience from their flexibility, capacity to organize, capacity to learn, and their access to assets and infrastructures.

The definition of social resilience is heavily influenced by the original definition of resilience in the field of ecology. Adger (2000:347) offered an inclusive definition of social resilience:

"[...] the ability of groups or communities to cope with external stresses and disturbances as a result of social, political and environmental change."

Drawing from many definitions of social resilience, Abesamis et al. (2006:5) defined social resilience in the context of MPAs as:

"[...] the ability to cope with changes or stress brought about by MPA establishment and management without losing their critical functions as a community concerning social relations, economic prosperity and political stability."

This definition seems to imply that an MPA might create vulnerability.

However, if an MPA improves ecosystem resilience we could expect it to improve the resiliency of resources users in the adjacent areas. Moreover, these definitions highlight several dimensions of social resilience, which thus require interdisciplinary understanding and analysis at various scales.

Marshall and Marshall (2007) in their study of fishing industries in Northern Australia identified key characteristics of individual fishermen in their ability to cope and adapt to change in resource utilization policy. Such characteristics are (Marshall and Marshall 2007):

- 1. The perception of risk associated with change
- 2. The ability to plan, learn, and reorganize
- 3. The perception of the ability to cope, and
- 4. The level of interest in change.

The above-mentioned characteristics have been used in identifying and characterizing the vulnerabilities of stakeholder groups during the process of planning for prospective Marine Protected Areas in Egypt (Marshall et al. 2009) and commercial fishers response to management change in the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, Australia (Sutton and Tobin 2012).

Social resilience is generally considered to lie at the "flip side" of vulnerability, (Folke et al. 2002b, Gallopin 2006). Kelly and Adger (2000:328) define vulnerability as "the ability or inability of individuals or social groupings to respond to, in the sense to cope with, recover from or adapt to, any external stress placed on their livelihoods or wellbeing". Resilience depends on the system's adaptive capacity to anticipate and to minimize any forthcoming harm, while vulnerability depends on the system's sensitivity to any possible harm from exposure (Folke et al. 2002b). For instance, household occupational multiplicity provides a range of options if anyone occupation within the household should suffer from a shock, e.g. the collapse of fish stock or drought impacting farming.

2.2.1 RESOURCE DEPENDENCY AND SOCIAL RESILIENCE

The relationship between humans and the environment is complex. The complex and reciprocal relationships that humans have with their environment have been an interesting subject that many researchers are trying to address (Dunlap and Catton 1994, Bourdeau 2004). The concept of resource dependency explains the nature of the relationship between community and the environment where they live and rely upon for fulfilling their livelihood (Machlis and Force 1988, Bailey and Pomeroy 1996, Adger 2000, Brookfield et al. 2005).

The typical examples of resource dependent communities are those that are predominantly living from farming, logging, fishing, or mining (Machlis et al. 1990, Freudenburg 1992, Bailey and Pomeroy 1996, Adger 2000). The concept of resource dependency has been used to assess communities' social and economic conditions that are dependent on forest resources (Machlish and Force 1988, Little and Krannich 1988, Machlis et al. 1990) and coastal and fisheries related resources (Peluso et al. 1994, Bailey and Pomeroy 1996, Adger 2000, Brookfield et al. 2005, Marshall et al. 2007).

Resource dependency is a description of a relationship between resource users and a resource. It "relates to communities and individuals whose social order, livelihood and stability are a direct function of their resource production and localized economy" (Adger 1999:254). The dependency of individuals or communities on natural resources is not always depending on a particular resource, but in most cases it depends on a whole integrated ecosystem (Bailey and Pomeroy 1996, Adger 2000). Furthermore Adger (2000) implied that a community that is dependent on several natural resources is more resilient as compared to a community that depends only on one particular natural resource such as an underground mineral.

In the context of fisheries, Brookfield et al. (2005:57) defined a fishery dependent community as:

"[...] a population in a specific territorial location which relies upon the fishing industry for its continued economic, social and cultural success."

How resource dependency and social resilience are related is well summarized in Adger's (2000:354) seminal paper:

"[...] the direct dependence of communities on ecosystems is an influence on their social resilience and ability to cope with shocks, particularly in the context of food security and coping with hazards. Resilience can be undermined by high variability (or disturbance in ecological terms) in the market system or environmental system. Resilience therefore depends on the diversity of the ecosystem as well as the institutional rules which govern the social systems."

However, human systems adapt to high variability over time. For example in a fisheries dependent community, fishers employ multiple gears as a response to high seasonal and annual variability of fish abundance.

To observe and measure social resilience of communities or individuals, several social (e.g. demographic, attachment to place and family characteristics), economic (e.g. business size and approach, financial status and income source) and environmental (e.g. time spent on harvesting) attributes related to resource dependency of communities and individuals could be used (Adger 2000, Marshall et al. 2007). These attributes could positively and/or negatively affect the resiliency (Adger 2000).

2.2.2 ASSESSING SOCIAL RESILIENCE

The concept of (social) resilience, vulnerability and adaptive capacity are related in non-trivial ways (Gallopin 2006). He provided examples of the interchangeability of these concepts as follows "...Gunderson (2000) defines adaptive capacity as system robustness to changes in resilience; Carpenter et al. (2001) use adaptive capacity as a component of resilience that reflects the learning aspect of system behavior in response to disturbance; while Walker et al. (2004) describe adaptability as the collective capacity of the human actors in an SES [Social Ecological System] to manage resilience..." (Gallopin 2006: 301).

Many researchers have attempted to assess [social] resilience at various levels and ranges of scale. For example, Adger and Vincent (2005), Vincent (2007), Nelson et al. (2008) assessed resilience at the national level while Adger (2000), Berkes and Seixas (2005), and Cinner et al. (2009) assessed at community level. Resilience has also been measured at both the household (Vincent 2007) and individual level (Marshall and Marshall 2007, Marshall et al. 2009, Sutton and Tobing 2012). In addition, Marshall et al. (2010) proposed a range of social indicators that have been developed and tested in various areas to measure the level of social resilience.

2.2.2.1 Coping Ability

In the context of social systems, the coping threshold is a measure of the proximity to psychological and financial and marital terms indicators (Marshall and Marshall 2007). Smith et al. (2003), in their study of commercial fishing families in Florida after the "net ban", found out that the policy changes had resulted in mental health impacts such as increasing level of stress, depression, anxiety and anger. Similar results also showed in the study of job satisfaction among commercial fishermen in New England by Pollnac and Poggie (1988). Their finding indicated that management decision in various aspects of fishing could have an enormous impact on the fisher's work. They further argued that negatives changes in job satisfaction have

been related to negative social impacts, such as family violence and lower worker productivity (Pollnac and Poggie 1988). Binkley's (2000) studies of families coping with the North Atlantic Fisheries' crisis in Nova Scotia's fishing-families indicated that financial well-being was an urgent problem. As a response, families engaged various short-term coping strategies to deal with financial issues such as increasing the wife's employment outside the home (Binkley 2000). This illustrates one of Marshal et al. (2010) key characteristics for measuring individual social resilience, which is livelihood diversity.

2.2.2.2 Level of Interest to Change

The level of interest to change corresponds to the degree of to which the system is capable of self-organization and the flexibility of an individual's financial, social, and emotional indicators (Marshall 2006, Marshall and Marshall 2007). Individuals that have a high-level of interest to change usually have a financial, social and/or emotional flexibility (Marshall et al. 2009). These characteristics are similar to attributes of early adopters of technological innovations (Rogers 1995).

Researchers have discussed the importance of flexibility to maintain resilience (Gunderson 1999, Carpenter and Gunderson 2001, Cinner et al. 2009). Flexibility in switching livelihood strategies is important in a social-ecological system (Berkes and Sexias 2006). Loss of flexibility indicates the inability of individual or communities to exploit and benefit from other options within the industry or community (Marshall and Marshall 2007).

2.2.2.3 The Ability to Plan, Learn and Organize

This attribute suggests the ability of the individual or community to anticipate the changing future (Marshall et al. 2009). The ability to plan, learn and organize enables people to respond to disturbances by optimizing resources outside their previous experience. Understanding the perceived role of human agency in the change process can help them plan and organize for future (Cinner et al. 2009). Furthermore, the ability to reorganize after an initial change is dependent on novelty, creativity, experimentation, learning, and planning of the actors (Colding et al. 2003, Olsson et al. 2004b, Armitage et al. 2007).

2.2.2.4 The Perception of Risk

One of the fundamental elements in social resilience is the perception of risk (Marshall and Marshall 2007). Marshall and Marshall's (2007) study of commercial fishermen in Northern Australia suggested that risk perception of policy changes could influence the way the fishermen respond. The level of perceived risk by an individual determines their ability to cope and adapt to any changes and uncertainty (Marshall et al. 2010). Bradford et al. (2012) suggested that risk perception is influenced by situational (such as demographic profiles and previous experience) and cognitive factors (reflecting personal and psychological factors of the individual).

2.3 MARINE PROTECTED AREA OVERVIEW

Most of marine environments around the world are in serious decline; anthropogenic stresses and climatic related changes have caused dramatic phase or regime shifts, which are often long lasting and sometime irreversible (Huges et al. 2005). Common examples in coastal marine resources are the regime shift happening in coral reefs after habitat destruction and the collapse of many coastal and oceanic fisheries (Francis and Hare 1994, De Young et al. 2008, Huges et al. 2010).

These unwanted regime shifts are an indication that the system is losing its resilience, which has significant effects on organisms within the system and also for people who are dependent to such resources (Folke et al. 2004). Therefore, there has been a tremendous challenge worldwide to protect these habitats and conserve the remaining marine species that provide food, livelihood and well-being to societies (Huges et al. 2005; 2010).

A Marine Protected Area (MPA) is one of the promising tools for marine conservation and fisheries management (Tundi Agardy 1994, Dalton et al. 2012). It also serves as a link to the dynamics of social and ecological systems in the coastal waters (Pollnac et al. 2010). IUCN in Kelleher (1999: xviii) defines MPA as:

"Any area of intertidal or subtidal terrain, together with its overlying water and associated flora, fauna, historical and cultural features, which has been reserved by law or other effective means to protect part or all of the enclosed environment".

Earlier development of MPAs drew heavily from the bio-ecological perspectives with very little attention given to social and economical aspects of the community (Christie 2004). However, researchers have shown that socio-economic factors are equally important determinants of the success or the failure of MPAs (Christie et al. 2003, Mascia 2003, Wahle et al. 2003). The management of MPAs involves some degree of restriction of human activities for resource utilization and extraction, which in most cases could create pressures and conflicts among interested stakeholders (Christie 2004). MPAs that fail to integrate the human dimension into the design and implementation processes could downplay the evolved relations of human and natural environments (Christie et al. 2003, Mascia 2003, Wahle et al. 2003). The examples of major changes brought about by MPAs are restricted resource use access, reduced fishing grounds and increased resource protection and conservation (Abesamis et al. 2006). However, in a resilient community, these changes should have the potential to generate innovation and originality among stakeholders (Folke et al. 2002b). MPA as a tool can potentially improve ecosystem resilience and therefore can be interconnected with community resilience.

2.4 SUMMARY

The resilience concept is very broad and it is indeed difficult to measure. It is a concept that incorporates all the interrelationship factors in order to understand and to assess the system. It has been used in many disciplines and has been measured in many ways. However, in order to achieve resiliency, there is a need to understand the specific context of resilience (Carpenter et al. 2001).

MPAs have been a favorable tool for managing coastal and marine areas, as it allows multiple goals at the same time. MPAs could be described as a complex system that accommodates both social and ecological goals. The management of MPAs will definitely limit some uses of resources, which could have both positive and negative impacts. This study attempts to understand one aspect of resilience, social resilience of the resource users, within the larger context of a social – ecological system (MPA).
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology used in this study. It describes the study area, data collection methods, interviewing techniques and data analysis.

<u>3.1 STUDY AREA</u>

This study was conducted in a network of MPAs in Bali, (namely Bali MPA Network) within the Coral Triangle region of Indonesia. The Bali MPA network was initiated in 2011 and covers five coastal regencies in Bali Island (Mustika et al. 2012). There are nine priority conservation sites within the network, in which five sites have already been established as MPAs (Table 3.1).

Thirty coastal villages were selected as study sites. They are spread across four regencies within the Bali MPA network. Twenty-three study sites were associated with a managed and declared MPA, while seven villages were located in proposed sites of MPAs (Table 3.2 and Fig. 3.1). Villages were selected based on their location in the existing MPA network map (Fig. 3.1) and consultation with MPA managers and village officials. All the sample villages have a direct exposure geographically to the coastal area, and the majority of community members surveyed have activities related to coastal and marine use. Villages located within the MPAs or proposed MPAs were not surveyed if only a very limited number of their members (less than 20) have activities related to coastal and marine use, as the impact of the MPA might not be

significant on their livelihoods.

No.	Site Name	Location (Regency)	Biological Characteristic	Management Status ¹
1.	Nusa Penida	Klungkung	Coral reef, mangroves, reef fish, cetaceans, whale shark, sea turtles, shark, manta, sunfish	Declared as an MPA*
2.	Padang Bai – Candidasa	Karangasem	Coral reef	n.a.
3.	Amed – Tulamben	Karangasem	Coral reef, reef fish, sea turtle, shark	n.a.
4.	East Buleleng MPA	Tejakula, Buleleng	Coral reef, reef fish, whale shark	Declared as an MPA**
5.	Central Buleleng MPA	Lovina, Buleleng	Coral reef, reef fish, cetacean, whale shark	Declared as an MPA**
6.	West Buleleng MPA	Pamuteran, Buleleng	Coral reef, reef fish, seas turtle	Declared as an MPA**
7.	Bali Barat National Park	West Bali, Buleleng	Coral reef, reef fish, sea turtle, cetaceans	An Official MPA***
8.	Perancak	Negara	Sea turtle, mangrove	n.a.
9.	The peninsula (Including Nusa Dua and Bukit Uluwatu)	Badung	Coral reef, reef fish, cetacean, sea turtle	n.a.

Table 3.1: Bali MPA network priority sites (clock-wise eastward) (Adapted from Mustika et al. 2012)

Note: * Declared in September 2010

** Declared in August 2011

*** Declared in September 2005

Regency (MPA)	Number of Sites	Village Name
Klungkung (Nusa Penida)	7	Nusa Lembongan, Jungut Batu, Toya Pakeh,
		Ped, Kutampi Kaler, Batunuggul, Suana
Buleleng (East, Cental, West	16	Tembok, Penuktukan, Less, Tejakula, Bon
Buleleng and West Bali		Dalem, Pacung, Anturan, Kali Bukbuk, Kali
National Park)		Asem, Temukus, Pengastulan, Den Carik,
		Pamuteran, Sumber Kima, Pejarakan, Sumber
		Kelampok.
Negara	3	Air Kuning, Perancak, Pengambengan
Badung	4	Bualu, Kutuh, Kedonganan, Jimbaran

¹ The difference between a declared and an official MPA is the organizational and management structure of the MPAs. A declared MPA is an MPA that has been declared but doesn't necessarily have a complete management and organizational structure, while an official MPA is an MPA that has a clear organization and management structure.



Figure 3.1: Map of study location (map is courtesy of Conservation International Indonesia Marine Program).

3.2 DATA COLLECTION

Semi-structured questionnaires were used to collect the information. This study utilized three respondent categories: resource users, MPA project participants and village officials. Overlapping, but distinct survey forms were used for each category of respondent.

To facilitate interaction with the community members, local research assistants, familiar with the community and local languages conducted the in-person structured interviews (see similar methods used by Pollnac and Seara 2011 in the Philippines and Dalton et al. 2012 in the Caribbean). Local research assistants were personally trained to be familiar with the questionnaires and the interview methods.

A combination of both a systematic random and a snowball sampling methods were used to recruit respondents. At first, the head of village from each village was interviewed, to capture the general information of the village. If they were not available, another senior official was interviewed as a replacement. They were also asked to identify potential respondents for the key informant interview (MPA project participants) within their villages.

The key informants are those who are considered as local leaders. They have been involved in one or more of the MPA activities and/or functioned as the leader for local fishermen groups, operators of tourism related activities, or members of local environment and culture associations, etc.

The third category of respondent is the marine resource user. This research is focused on marine resource users as the primary respondents, as they are the ones who are most likely impacted by the MPA. For the purpose of this study, resource users are those who have their main source of income and livelihood based on coastal and marine resources utilization; e.g., fishermen, seaweed farmers, aquaculturists, boat crew and operators, dive/tourist guides, etc.

Thirty to forty resource user respondents were systematically selected from each village. The interviewers walked along the coastline in each village to identify and to recruit the respondents. All people encountered doing coastal and marine related uses along the beach during the survey, were asked their willingness to

participate in the study. Interviews were only conducted with the first and the fifth persons encountered. The respondents were informed concerning the study's purpose and were asked of their availability. While most interviews were conducted on the spot, there were some interviews conducted at a different time in the same day. In this study, a very few potential respondents refused to participate, minimizing the potential for self-selection bias in the sample.

3.3 INTERVIEWS

One thousand and four face to face interviews were conducted in the study location. The questionnaires and interviews were designed to address the research questions posed in Chapter 1. The interviews were conducted in *Bahasa Indonesia* and usually lasted between 30 minutes and 1.5 hours, depending on the type of questionnaire used.

3.3.1 VILLAGE OFFICIAL AND KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS

The interviews with local officials were aimed to get a general profile of the community and to obtain a local permit to conduct the survey in the village. The questions for these two respondent groups were mainly focused to gather community information on: (1) community profile, (2) resource utilization activities, (3) MPA management, (4) MPA benefits, (5) community organizing and involvement, and (6) any village related problems.

3.3.2 RESOURCE USER

The resource users are the primary source of information for assessing social resilience. The survey form for this respondent group is focused on: (1) personal information, such as their individual, social and economic attributes, (2) environmental attitudes, beliefs and values, (3) MPA management and implementation processes, and (4) social resilience variables.

3.4 MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

Measurement of some variables was based on a direct response. For example the evaluation of age, education, etc. Some questions such as "have you heard of an MPA?" required a "yes" or "no" answer. Many questions, however, especially those evaluating attitudes, beliefs or values were measured using ordinal Likert scales. In this type of question, respondents were asked to rate how strongly they agreed with each statement using a 5-point rating scale (e.g. 1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree) (Likert 1932, Spector 1992).

3.4.1 INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

In this study, individual characteristics measured were respondents' age, gender, years of formal education, and their primary occupations.

3.4.2 ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND VALUES

Respondent's environmental attitudes, beliefs and values were analyzed based on their evaluation of conservation beliefs and their subjective assessment of the degree of relationship of themselves with nature. The conservation beliefs variables were constructed of nine statements. Each of the nine statements involves some aspect of the relationships between coastal resources and human activities (see Pollnac and Crawford 2000). The following are the statements used:

- 1. We have to take care of the land and the sea or it will not provide for us in the future.
- 2. Fishing would be better if we cleared the coral where the fish hide from us.
- 3. If our community works together we will be able to protect our resources.
- 4. Farming in the hills behind the village can have an effect on the fish.
- 5. If we throw our garbage on the beach, the ocean takes it away and it causes no harm.
- 6. We do not have to worry about the air and the sea, God will take care of it for us.
- 7. Unless mangroves are protected we will not have any small fish to catch.
- 8. There are so many fish in the ocean that no matter how many we catch, there will always be enough for our needs.
- 9. Human activities do not influence the number of fish in the ocean.

The statements were arranged in the interviews so as to limit interference between similar statements. It will also be noticed that agreement with some would indicate an accurate belief, while agreement with others would indicate the opposite. This was done to control for responses where the respondent either agrees or disagrees with everything. Statements were randomly arranged with respect to this type of polarity. Respondents were asked if they strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, or neither (neutral) with respect to each statement. This resulted in a scale with a range from one to five. Polarity of the statement is accounted for in the coding process, so as a score value changes from one to five it indicates an increasingly stronger and accurate belief concerning the content of the statement (Pollnac 2013). Responses from all nine statements were dichotomized at 3. Scores above 3 were coded "1" which indicates "correct" beliefs. Scores below 3 were coded "0" which indicates "incorrect" beliefs (Pollnac 2013). All the "correct" responses from respondent were summed to create conservation belief score. Conservation belief score value is hypothetically ranging between 0 - 9.

Respondents were also asked to describe their subjective relationship with nature. Seven diagrams illustrating the human-nature relationship were used (adapted from Davis, Green & Reed 2009) (Fig. 3.2). The respondents were asked to choose a diagram that best describes their perceived relationship with nature (Davis et al. 2011). Responses were coded from one to seven, respectively. As the score changes from one to seven, it indicates a closer relationship between oneself and the nature.



Figure 3.2: Human-Nature relationship illustrations (Adapted from Davis et al. 2009).

3.4.3 MARINE PROTECTED AREA (MPA) MEASURES

Five MPA associated measures are used: MPA awareness and participation, perception of MPA economic outcome, MPA ecological outcome, MPA process quality and MPA management and implementation level. These variables were only evaluated in sites where MPAs were present.

3.4.3.1 MPA awareness and participation

MPA awareness variable was measured using yes/no questions evaluating knowledge of MPA existence as well as the existence of fishing restriction in their community. Respondents who aware of MPA were coded "1", who do not aware were coded "0". MPA participation variable was evaluated based on participation of respondent in MPA monitoring or Patrol. Respondents who participate in MPA were coded "1", who do not participate were coded "0".

3.4.3.2 MPA Economic outcome

The economic outcome variable was constructed from the perceived MPA benefits to community and whether or not there was equal opportunity to receive such benefits. Respondents who perceived MPA benefits community were coded "1" and respondent who do not were coded "0". Moreover, respondents who perceived the benefits are equally distributed were coded "1" and respondents who perceived the opposite were coded "0". Only respondents who had knowledge of MPAs were asked this question.

3.4.3.3 Ecological outcome

Ecological outcome parameters were constructed from the combination of perceptions of improvement of fish abundance, coral reef condition and mangrove condition in the last five years. If respondents mentioned that there was improvement in any or all of the variables they were coded "1", and "0" if no improvements in any were mentioned.

3.4.3.4 Process quality

To measure the process quality, respondents were asked whether or not they were consulted during the planning process and whether or not the plan reflected their views. Respondents who answered "yes" were coded as "1" and "no" were coded as "0". Only respondents who had knowledge of MPAs were asked this question.

3.4.3.5 MPA Management and implementation level

For these variables, respondents were asked if there was any clear leader for the MPA, whether or not the MPA boundaries are clear, and whether or not more MPAs should be established. Respondents who answered "yes" were coded as "1" and "no" were coded as "0". Respondents were also asked their perception of MPA management committee effectiveness on a scale of from 1 to 5 where 1 = very weak and 5 = very strong. Respondents' responding above 3 were coded "1" and coded "0" for responses 3 and below. Only respondents who had knowledge of MPAs were asked this question.

3.4.4 SOCIAL RESILIENCE

The operationalization of social resilience, used in this study as the dependent variable, was developed by Marshall and Marshall (2007) and Marshal et al. (2010). The key components of social resilience measured here are the individual's subjective beliefs and assessments about themselves rather than objective measures of a communities' abilities on these dimensions. Respondents were asked to self-assess their expected level of well-being in terms of their adaptability, flexibility, financial

and social characteristics, and willingness to be creative and novel in their approach to adapting to the requirements of (policy) change (Marshal and Marshal 2007).

A list of statements was used to measure the respondent's response to social resilience indicators. Respondents were asked to rate their attitude to each of sixteen statements (see Table 3.3) using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. This resulted in a scale with a range from one to five. Polarity of the statement is accounted for in the coding process, so score value changes from one to five it indicates an increasingly stronger and accurate belief concerning the content of the statement (Pollnac 2013).

The dependent variables of social resilience measured in this study were the social resilience score and the social resilience components scores. The social resilience (SR) score was derived by summing the response scores across all sixteen questions. This resulted in a total possible score from 16 to 80.

A second measure of social resilience was derived from Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This was used to identify the underlying variables comprising the response to social resilience statements to reduce the complexity of factors to a more manageable number. Statements that are correlated with one another but are largely independent of other responses are combined into factors (Jolliffe 2005, Tabachnick and Fidell 2006). In this study, the factors in the analysis were rotated using varimax, which simplifies the factor structure by maximizing the variance of a column in the pattern matrix (Abdi 2003, Jolliffe 2005).

Key characteristics	Questions used
1. Risk perception	I can cope with small changes in my industry
2. Coping ability	I am confident that I could get work elsewhere if I needed to
3. Interest to change	I am interested in learning new skills outside of my industry
4. Ability to plan, learn and	Every time there is a change, I plan a way to make it work for me
organize	
5. Attachment to occupation	I cannot imagine myself in any other job
6. Employability	I have many options available to me if I decide to no longer work at
	this industry
7. Family characteristic	We are more likely to cope with changes compared to other families I
	know
8. Attachment to place	I feel like I belong to this community/town
9. Business size and	I always know how much money is coming in and out of my business
approach	
10. Financial status	We always have an amount of cash available for emergencies
11. Livelihood diversity	I am having additional jobs that could produce fairly good income
12. Local environmental	I would be good at teaching younger people about the marine
knowledge	environment
13. Environmental	There are too many fishers in the region
awareness	
14. Access to technology	I can easily find the information related to my industry
and information	
15. Formal and informal	The friendships I have with people in this village mean a lot to me
networks	
16. Equity perception	The zonation of MPA helps to reduce the conflict between resource
	users

Table 3.3: Key characteristics used to measure individual social resilience (Adapted from Marshall et al. 2010)

Various independent and dependent variables related to individual characteristics, perceived MPA processes and managements, environmental attitudes, and social resilience were used in this study. Table 3.4 provides the summary of variables used in this study.

Table 3.4: Summary of data analysis conducted between social resilience and several community characteristics in MPA.

Variable	Unit of Measure
Dependent	
Total SR score	Summation of likert score on 16 questions, with total possible score of 16 - 80
PCA components	
Adaptive capacity	Component scores based on individual variable loadings
Risk Awareness	loadings
Social-Economic	Component scores based on individual variable loadings
Community Attachment	Component scores based on individual variable loadings
Environmental Awareness	loadings
Independent	
Individual characteristics	
Age	Years
Years of Education	Years of formal education
Gender	Male - Female
Social characteristics	
MPA awareness	Yes - No
MPA participation	Yes - No
Community consultation	Yes - No
View consideration	Yes - No
Economic characteristics	
Perceived ecological improvement	Yes - No
Perceived MPA benefits	Yes - No
Perceived equal MPA benefits	Yes - No
Environmental attitudes, beliefs and	
values	Summation of total correct answer, with total possible
Conservation beliefs	score of 0 - 9 Responses of likert scale diagram, with possible score
Human-nature relationship	of 1 - 7
MPA management and implementation	
Clear MPA leadership	Yes - No
Clear MPA boundary	Yes - No
MPA management committee	Strong - Weak
More MPA established	Yes - No

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 GENERAL SAMPLE INFORMATION

In total, 1004 individuals participated in this study: 934 resource users, 40 local key informants and 30 village officials from the study sites. For the purpose of this study, the study sites are categorized into two categories, which are MPA sites and non-MPA sites. Specifically for resource users, there are 721 respondents in the MPA sites and 213 respondents are in the non-MPA sites. Table 4.1 presents the distribution of respondents.

4.2 INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

Figure 4.1 provides the age distribution from the key respondents (resource users) that participated in the study. The respondents' ages ranged from 18 - 75 years with a mean of age of 40.2 years. The majority of respondents (52%) were in the age range of 31 - 45 years old, and only 4% were in the age range between 61 - 75 years. Most of the respondents are male (79%). The high number of male respondents was due to the fact that the survey took place along the beach where more males tend to congregate.

During the interview session, respondents were also asked to identify their primary occupation. Most of the respondents are fisherman (63%), followed by seaweed farmers 15%. While the rest of the respondents' occupations are within

tourism related jobs, such as dive guide (6%), boat related jobs (5%, such as boat captain or boat crew), fish sellers (5%) and other marine related occupations (4%). There were also respondents who reported two main occupations (2%). Three respondents did not disclose their main occupations (Figure 4.2).

Regency	MPA/Non MPA	Village	Resource Users Interviewed
		Toya Pakeh	24
		Ped	45
		Batu Nunggul	31
Klungkung	Nusa Penida MPA	Kutampi Kaler	30
		Nusa Lembongan	35
		Jungut Batu	33
		Suana	30
		Tembok	31
		Penuktukan	30
	East Bulalong MDA	Les	31
	East Duleleng WIFA	Tejakula	30
		Bon Dalem	31
		Pacung	31
		Anturan	30
Dulalang		Kali Bukbuk	32
Buleleng	Central Buleleng MPA	Kali Asem	31
		Temukes	31
		Pengastulan	31
		Den Carik	30
	West Buleleng MPA	Pamuteran	32
		Sumber Kima	31
	West Bali National Park	Pejarakan	31
		Sumber Kelampok	30
		Air Kuning	31
Negara		Perancak	30
		Pengambengan	31
	Non MPA	Bualu	31
Badung		Kutuh	30
Dauung		Kedonganan	30
		Jimbaran	30
	Total Resource Users Interv	viewed	934

Table 4.1: Number of respondents interviewed from each village.



Figure 4.1: Histogram of Age distribution.



Figure 4.2: Percentage distribution of respondents' occupations.

Level of respondents' education also varied, ranging from 0 - 18 years. Figure 4.3 provides respondents' years of education distribution. The overall mean of respondents' education found in this study is 7 years (N=934; std.dev. = 3.716).



Figure 4.3: Histogram of education year's distribution.

4.3 ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND VALUES

4.3.1 RESOURCE BELIEF SCALE

As one means of obtaining information concerning community member's perceptions of the coastal resources and potential human impacts on these resources, the resource users from 30 project sites and control sites (N = 934) were requested to provide a statement concerning the degree of their agreement or disagreement with nine statements. Each of the nine statements involves some aspect of relationships

between coastal resources and human activities (see Chapter 3). Figure 4.4 provides the histogram of respondents' conservation scale.



Figure 4.4: Histogram of respondents' conservation beliefs scale.

4.3.2 HUMAN-NATURE RELATIONSHIP

In regards with the human-nature relationship, the majority of the respondent (72%, N = 934) perceived a very close relationship with the environment. A descriptive statistic analysis result showed the mean response is 6.48 (in a scale 1 - 7), with standard deviation of 1.015 (N = 934).

4.4 MARINE PROTECTED AREA MEASURES

The following variables were only evaluated for respondents within MPA sites resulting in smaller number of respondents compared to respondents to the environmental attitudes, beliefs and values variables.

4.4.1 AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION

Respondents within the MPA sites were asked if they have heard/known of the MPA or any fishing restriction. The result showed that 423 (60.26%) respondents have heard/known and only 279 (39.74%) have never heard/known the MPA/fishing restriction (N = 702). Figure 4.5 illustrates the percentage of respondents who have heard/known of the MPA or fishing restrictions.



Figure 4.5: Percentage of respondents' MPA awareness and participation.

To identify participation of respondents in MPAs, they were asked about their involvement in MPA monitoring and sea watch/patrol activities. Figure 4.5 shows that

only 186 respondents (26%) mentioned that they have been involved in any of those activities (N = 717).

4.4.2 ECONOMIC OUTCOME

Respondents, who were aware of the MPA were asked whether or not MPAs have benefits for the communities. In total, 328 respondents said that MPAs have benefits in the community, for either themselves or others, and only 8 respondents said that MPAs do not benefit the community (Figure 4.6).



Figure 4.6: Percentage of respondents' perception of MPA benefits and equal MPA benefits.

Respondents were further asked whether or not the community members have the opportunity to receive equal benefits from the MPAs. In total, 294 (87.5%) respondents said that they have equal opportunity to receive benefits, and only 42 (12.5%) respondents said that they do not have the opportunity (Figure 4.6).

4.4.3 ECOLOGICAL OUTCOME

Respondents were asked their perception of the ecological outcome of the MPAs, which in the case of this study was the condition of fish abundance, coral reef and mangrove in the last five years. One hundred and ninety eight of the 344 respondents (58%) perceived that there is no improvement being made in terms of fish abundance. As for coral reef condition, most of the respondents (77%) perceived an improvement in its condition compared to five years ago. The majority (79%) of the 97 respondents perceived an improvement of mangrove conditions in the last five years.



4.4.4 PLANNING PROCESS QUALITY



Respondents were asked whether or not they were consulted and the extent to which respondents' views were taken into consideration during the MPA planning process. In total 283 respondents (87%) said that they were consulted during the planning process (N = 327), and 217 respondents (89%) perceived that the MPA plans reflected their views (Figure 4.7).

4.4.5 MPA MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION LEVEL

The level of MPA implementation was evaluated on the basis of the presence of clear leadership in MPAs, clear MPAs boundaries and the perceived MPAs management level (strong/weak). Figure 4.8 shows the percentage of respondents' responses to the three indicators, clear leader, clear boundary and management level. In total, 270 (90.6%) respondents said that there is a clear leadership in the MPA (N = 298), 268 (81.21%) respondents mentioned that the MPA boundaries are clear (N = 330), 292 (87.69%) respondents agreed more MPA established (N = 333) and 192 (55%) respondents perceived that the MPA management committee is strong (N = 349).



Figure 4.8: Percentage of respondents' responses in regards to MPA management level, more MPA, MPA boundary, and MPA leaders.

4.5 SOCIAL RESILIENCE

4.5.1 DEFINING AND OPERATIONALIZING SOCIAL RESILIENCE

Principal Component Analysis was used to examine resource users' responses to 16 statements (see Table 3.3) related to social resilience indicators (adapted from Marshall et al. 2010). The social resilience of resource users in Indonesia could be best explained by five major components: (1) the adaptive capacity of the individual, (2) risk awareness, (3) perceived of socio-economic status, (4) community attachment and (5) environmental awareness (Table 4.2). These components represented 48.8% of the variance.

Individual resilience of the respondents found in this study could be best described by five components. The first component contains the statements related to respondents' ability to cope, level of interest to change, ability to learn, employability and livelihood diversity. This component of social resilience represents the adaptive capacity of individual to cope with changes and the capacity of individual to improve its condition (Smit and Wandel 2006, Galoppin 2006).

The second component contains the statements related to respondents' family characteristics, risk perception, access to technology and local ecological knowledge. This component represents risk awareness of respondents. Risk is assessed based on their knowledge, available information and their family characteristics. This component seems to align with the risk perception components from the study conducted by Marshall and Marshall (2007) in the Northern Australia. They found that

risk perception is one of the important denominators of social resilience of fishermen in the Northern Australia.

Table 4.2: Principal component matrix of resource users' social resilience components.

Statements (abbreviated)	PC 1	PC 2	PC 3	PC 4	PC 5
I am confident that I could get work elsewhere if I needed to	0.757	0.169	-0.029	0.022	0.01
I have many options available to me if I decide to no longer work at this industry	0.732	0.008	0.172	-0.017	-0.079
I am interested in learning new skills outside of my industry	0.694	-0.216	-0.137	0.168	-0.008
I am having additional jobs that could produce fairly good income	0.585	-0.018	0.174	-0.178	-0.269
Every time there is a change, I plan a way to make it work for me	0.555	0.078	0.065	-0.013	0.103
We are more likely to cope with changes compared to other families I know	0.101	0.663	0.002	0.042	-0.152
I can cope with small changes in my industry	-0.1	0.619	0.085	0.076	-0.159
I can easily find the information related to my industry	0.078	0.575	0.162	0.09	0.266
I would be good at teaching younger people about the marine environment	0.025	0.509	0.043	-0.047	0.293
I always know how much money is coming in and out of my business	0.034	0.004	0.758	0.009	0.139
We always have an amount of cash available for emergencies	0.228	0.195	0.602	-0.199	-0.161
The zonation of MPA helps to reduce the conflict between resource users	-0.021	0.097	0.545	0.254	0.022
The friendships I have with people in this village mean a lot to me	0.036	0.068	0.061	0.800	0.167
I feel like I belong to this community/town	-0.026	0.08	0.028	0.660	-0.35
There are too many fishers in the region	0.038	0.113	-0.022	-0.099	0.746
Percent of total variance	14.93	9.93	8.57	7.98	7.37

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

One statement that had maximum factor loading scores less than 0.5 on all components was eliminated from the analysis and for calculating individual factor sores.

PC 1: Adaptive capacity; PC 2: Risk Awareness; PC 3: Perceived socio-economic status; PC 4: Community attachment; PC 5: Environmental awareness.

Total sample (N) = 934

The third component contains business characteristics, financial status and perception of equity. This component represents the socio-economic perception of respondent. In the complex of the social and ecological system, both the ecological and social economic has the same influence in the system (Perrings 1998, Levin et al. 1998). Equity issues, resilience and stewardship could be integrated in a complex system resource management (Peluso et al. 1994, Young and McCay 1995). Forbes (2007) suggested that equity is an important factor of resilience in a region undergoing rapid change in land use and climate change.

The fourth component contains formal and informal network and attachment to place. The component represents the community attachment of the respondents. Riger and Lavrakas (1981) identified two dimensions of community attachment, which are social ties and physical rootedness. Community attachment and social networks are determinant factors in the governance of natural resources (Cohen et al. 2012, Larson et al. 2013). In line with the finding in the natural resource governance, community attachment has also been an important variable in disaster management study (Paton 2003, Cox and Perry 2011).

The last component of social resilience is explained by respondents' environmental awareness. Marshall et al. (2011) study of resource dependent community in North East Queensland, Australia found that environmental awareness is one of the important factors that decide whether or not the resource dependent communities would like to adopt seasonal climate forecast to enhance their resilience. Environmental awareness is related to environmental knowledge (Acury 1990) and could be used to predict ecological behavior (Kaiser et al. 1999).

4.5.2 SOCIAL RESILIENCE SCORES AND COMPONENT SCORES

Social resilience (SR) scores of respondents were constructed from summing all 16 of social the resilience response values. The SR scores were ranged from 16 – 80. Figure 4.9 presents the histogram of SR scores for all respondents. Descriptive statistic analysis found that mean SR score is 58.38, the minimum score was 43 and 77 as the maximum score (N = 934; std. dev. 5.471).

Differences between MPA and non-MPA sites with regard to the SR score were analyzed using the independent sample t-test. The analysis showed that there was a statistically significant, but very small difference (t = -3.426; df = 932; p = 0.001) in the SR scores for MPA (N = 721; M = 58.04; std. dev. 5.506) and non-MPA sites (N = 213; M = 59.49; std. dev. 5.206). The means of SR score in non-MPA sites was found to be slightly higher compared to the MPA sites.



Figure 4.9: Histogram of social resilience (SR) score.

Further analysis between MPA and non-MPA sites with regard to SR components scores were conducted (see Table 4.3). Significant differences (equal variance not assumed) were found for the risk awareness (p < 0.001; t = -6.846) and environmental awareness (p < 0.001; t = -8.323) components. The means of SR components scores were higher at non-MPA sites compared to MPA sites.

Table 4.3: Difference in means of PCA components scores between MPA and non-MPA.

SR Components								
variable	Value	Ν	Mean	S.D.	t-value	d.f.	p-value	
Adaptiva Capacity	MPA	720	-0.016	0.993	0.024	031	0.356	
Adaptive Capacity	Non-MPA	213	0.056	1.023	-0.924	931	0.550	
Dick Awaranass	MPA	720	-0.11	1.009	6.846	306.014	0.001*	
KISK Awareness	Non-MPA	213	0.373	0.87	-0.640	390.014		
Perceived Social-	MPA	720	0.031	1.016	1 724	021	0.083	
Economic Status	Non-MPA	213	-0.104	0.938	1.734	931	0.085	
Community	MPA	720	0.008	1.004	0.472	252 000	0 (27*	
Attachment	Non-MPA	213	-0.028	0.987	0.475	552.009	0.057*	
Environmental	MPA	720	-0.151	0.938	0 202	221 104	0.001*	
Awareness	Non-MPA	213	0.509	1.038	-0.525	521.194	0.001	

* Equal variance not assumed

4.6 SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

Individual characteristics were constructed from personal attributes such as age, education and gender. In order to analyze the relationship between the SR score and individual attributes of age and years of education simple linear regression analyses were used. There is a statistically significant but very weak negative relationship between age and SR scores (R = -0.074; r² = 0.005) F = 5.82; p = 0.024). Analysis of respondents' years of education and SR score indicated a somewhat stronger, statistically significant relationship between these two parameters (R = 0.206, r² = 0.042, F = 41.239; p = 0.001).

Further analysis between SR components and age revealed that a statistically significant, but weak negative relationship was found with the adaptive capacity component (R = -0.139; $r^2 = 0.019$; F = 18.472; p = 0.001), while the analysis between education and SR components found significant relationships with two components, which were the adaptive capacity (R = 0.28; $r^2 = 0.078$; F = 79.068; p = 0.001) and environmental awareness components (R = -0.073; $r^2 = 0.005$; F = 4.963; p = 0.026).

An independent sample t-test was conducted to see whether or not the means of SR scores differed between genders. The analysis found that there was a significant difference in SR score (p < 0.001; t = 5.890; d.f. = 931) between male (N = 813; M =58.77) and female (N = 120; M = 55.68) respondents, where males had a slightly higher score. A further analysis between gender and SR components scores, found statistically significant differences in means with regard to the adaptive capacity (p =0.001; t = 3.388) and risk awareness components (p = 0.002; t = 3.156) between male (N = 812) and female (N = 120). Males scored higher than female on both components.

4.7 SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

The relationship between the Social Resilience score and selected independent variables is examined in Table 4.4. Responses related to MPA were analyzed. A statistically significant, but small difference was found between respondents who were aware and those not aware of the MPA in terms of their SR score (p < 0.001; t = - 3.975).

Variable	Value	Ν	Mean	S.D.	t-value	d.f.	p-value
	Yes	423	58.801	5.489	2 075	700	< 0.001
Aware MPA	No	279	57.139	5.414	-3.973		
Derticinate MDA	Yes	186	60.396	5.216	6.00	715	< 0.001
Participate MPA	No	531	57.215	5.377	-0.99		
Community Consulted	Yes	283	59.63	5.205	1 666	325	> 0.05
	No	44	58.23	4.997	-1.000		
Wie Constituted	Yes	217	59.92	5.758	1 676	242	> 0.05
view Considered	No	27	58.19	4.989	-1.0/0	242	> 0.05

Table 4.4: Difference in mean scores of SR and social characteristics analysis.

The difference between respondents who participated and those who did not participate in MPA planning and management processes was also found to be statistically significant (p < 0.001; t = -6.99). However, there is no relationship between respondents who said that community members were consulted and not consulted during the process in terms of their SR score (p = >0.05; t = -1.666). A similar result was found between respondents' who perceived their view were considered and not considered (p >0.05; t = -1.676).

Independent sample t-tests between each of the social characteristic parameters and SR components were employed to evaluate differences between means of component scores and the social parameters. Table 4.5 presents results of analysis between the SR components and social characteristics (only statistically significant results presented). With regard to MPA awareness parameters, statistically significant differences were found with the adaptive capacity component (p = 0.02; t = -2.333), risk awareness component (p = 0.004; t = -2.867), and perceived social-economic status component (p = 0.002; t = -3.087). A similar result was found for the MPA participation parameter. Statistically significant differences were found with adaptive capacity (p = 0.004; t = -2.919), risk awareness (p = 0.001; t = -6.751), and perceived

social-economic status components (p = 0.001; t = -5.28). Respondents who aware and participate in MPA scored higher compared to respondents who are not aware and do not participate. Statistically significant differences were also found with perceived social-economic (p = 0.021; t = -2.321) and environmental awareness components (components) in relation to the community consultation parameters. Respondents who stated that the communities were consulted during MPA planning and management processes scored higher as compare to respondents who stated that the communities were not consulted. Interestingly, the analysis found the opposite result for the environmental awareness components.

Variables	SR Components	Value	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std. Error	t-value	d.f.	p-value
Aware MPA	Adaptive Capacity	Yes	422	0.06	0.988	0.048	-2 333	699	0.02
		No	279	-0.177	0.987	0.059	2.335		0.02
	Risk Awareness	Yes	422	-0.011	0.996	0.048	-2 867	699	0.004
	Kisk / Wareness	No	279	-0.232	1.001	0.059	2.007	077	0.004
	Perceived Social-	Yes	422	0.137	1.005	0.049	-3.087	600	0.002
	Economic	No	279	-0.103	1.009	0.06	-5.007	0))	0.002
Participate	Adaptive Capacity	Yes	186	0.167	0.979	0.072	-2 919	714	0.004
	Adaptive Capacity	No	530	-0.078	0.99	0.043	-2.919		
	Risk Awareness	Yes	186	0.304	0.936	0.069	-6.751	714	0.001
MPA		No	530	-0.26	0.997	0.043			
	Perceived Social- Economic	Yes	186	0.359	1.017	0.075	-5 28	714	0.001
		No	530	-0.089	0.992	0.043	5.20		
	Perceived Social- Economic	Yes	283	0.229	0.941	0.056	-2 321	325	0.021
Community		No	44	-0.127	0.989	0.149	2.321	525	0.021
Consulted	Environmental	Yes	283	-0.177	0.864	0.051	2 327	325	0.021
	Awareness	No	44	0.142	0.714	0.108	2.321	525	0.021
	Adaptive Capacity	Yes	217	0.226	0.889	0.06	-3 294	242	0.001
View	Adaptive Capacity	No	27	-0.399	1.218	0.234	-3.274	242	0.001
Considered	Environmental	Yes	217	-0.124	0.858	0.058	-2 081	242	0.039
	Awareness	No	27	-0.495	0.991	0.191	2.001	212	0.037

Table 4.5: Difference in mean scores of SR components and social characteristics analysis.

The last parameter of social characteristics is respondent's perception of whether or not their views were considered. Analysis revealed that statistically significant differences were found with regard to the adaptive capacity (p = 0.001; - 3.294), and environmental awareness components (p = 0.039; t = -2.081). Respondents who feel that their views were considered during the MPA processes scored higher as compare to respondents who feel that their views were not considered in both the adaptive capacity and environmental awareness components.

4.8 SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

Economic characteristics in this study are derived from economic and resource status indicators, two different, yet interrelated indicators. Table 4.6 examines the relationships between the SR score and the economic characteristics. The economic indicators consist of two variables of perceived MPA benefits and equal MPA benefits. An independent sample t-test was conducted to investigate the difference in means of SR score between respondents who perceived there were economic related benefits and who were not.

Variable	Value	Ν	Mean	S.D.	t-value	d.f.	p-value
Perceived Ecological	Yes	293	59.59	5.147	2 507	342	< 0.05
Outcome	No	51	57.59	5.95	-2.307		
Perceived MPA benefits	Yes	328	59.43	5.357	0 161	334	> 0.05
	No	8	59.13	5.293	-0.101		
Equal MDA hanafita	Yes	294	59.48	5.226	1 4 4 2	224	> 0.05
Equal MPA benefits	No	42	58.21	5.953	-1.442	554	> 0.03

Table 4.6: Difference in mean scores of SR and economic characteristics analysis.

Respondents' perception of ecological status represents resource indicators. Ecological outcome parameters were constructed from the combination of perceptions of improvement of fish abundance, coral reef condition and mangrove condition in the last five years. An independent sample t-test was conducted to investigate the difference in means of SR scores between respondents who perceived there were improvements and who were not.

In total 85% respondents perceived that the MPA has helped to improve the ecological condition, and only 15% of respondents perceived the opposite. An independent sample t-test between the two responses in related to their SR score revealed a statistically significant difference between these respondents: those who perceived positive ecological outcomes have a higher SR score than those who do not (p = 0.013; t = -2.507). 98% of the respondents perceived that the MPA has benefits to community and 88% respondents perceived that the benefits were equally distributed in the community. The independent sample t-test result found no statistically significant difference between the respondents who perceived that the MPA has benefits and those who did not with regard to their SR score (p = 0.871; t = -0.161). A similar result was also found in respondents' responses concerning equal MPA benefits in terms of their SR score (p = 0.150; t = -1.442).

A further independent sample t-test analysis of the economic characteristics and the SR components conducted to investigate the whether or not the difference in means existed. Table 4.7 presents the results found between SR components and the economic characteristics (only statistically significant results presented). The analysis indicated a statistically significant difference between the perceived ecological outcome and the risk awareness components (p = 0.002; t = -3.153). The mean component score of respondents who perceived ecological improvements is higher as

compared to respondents who perceived no improvements being made. A statistically significant, but weak difference was also found between the equal MPA benefits parameter and the risk awareness component (p = 0.03; t = -2.184). Respondents who perceived that the MPA benefits are equally distributed scored higher as compare to respondents who perceived that the benefits were not equally distributed in the community.

Std. Std. p-Variable **Components** Value Ν Mean Error t-value d.f. value Dev. 293 0.124 0.995 0.058 Ecological Yes Risk -3.153 342 0.002 Outcome Awareness 0.979 0.137 No 51 -0.351 Equal 294 0.098 0.995 0.058 Yes Risk benefits of -2.184 334 0.03 Awareness -0.263 1.059 0.164 MPA No 42

Table 4.7: Difference in mean scores of SR components and economic characteristics analysis.

4.9 SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND VALUES

Linear regression analysis is used to examine the relationship between environmental attitudes/values and the SR score. The analysis showed that there is a statistically significant, weak relationship between the conservation score and SR score (R = 0.114; $r^2 = 0.013$, F = 12.290; p = 0.001). Further analysis between perceived self-nature relationship and the SC score indicated no significant relationship (R = 0.033; $r^2 = 0.001$, F = 1.012; p = 0.315).

The analysis of the conservation score with the SR components found a statistical significant, but weak relationship with the risk awareness component (R =

0.071; $r^2 = 0.005$; F = 4.663; p = 0.031) and perceived social-economic status component (R = 0.169; $r^2 = 0.029$; F = 27.432; p = 0.001). Weak but statistically significant relationships were found with the risk awareness component (R = 0.128; r^2 = 0.016; F = 15.399; p = 0.001) and environmental awareness component (R = 0.1; r^2 = 0.01; F = 9.424; p = 0.002) with regard to respondents' self-nature relationship perception.

4.10 SOCIAL RESILIENCE (SR) AND MPA MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION

Prospective policy in this study was examined in terms of the Management of MPAs. The MPA management parameter consisted of perception of clear leadership and clearly marked boundaries of the MPA, perceived strength of the MPA management committee and whether or not there should be more MPAs established. An independent sample t-test was used to investigate the relationship between the SR score and respondents' perceptions of the MPA management indicators (Table 4.8).

Variable	Value	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value	d.f.	p-value
Clear Leadership	Yes	270	59.49	5.142	2 2 1 1	296	< 0.05
Clear Leadership	No	28	57.11	5.587	-2.311		
Clean Downdom:	Yes	268	59.52	5.145	0.014	328	> 0.05
Clear Boundary	No	62	58.84	5.82	-0.914		
MPA Management	Strong	192	59.7	5.308	1 922	247	> 0.05
Committee	Weak	157	58.66	5.317	-1.032	347	> 0.05
More MPA	Yes	292	59.33	5.471	1 222	221	> 0.05
Established	No	41	58.24	4.091	-1.222	551	> 0.05

Table 4.8: Difference in mean scores of SR and MPA management and implementation analysis.

A total of 268 (90%) of the respondents within the MPA sites perceived that the MPAs have clear leader, and only 28 (10%) of respondents perceived the opposite. An independent sample t-test analysis found a statistically significant, but weak difference between respondents perception in relation to their SR score (p = 0.022; t = -2.311). There are no statistically significant relationships between the other MPA variables And the SR score.

Further independent sample t-tests were conducted between the MPA management and implementation parameters and the SR components. Table 4.9 presents the analysis between SR components and MPA management/implementation characteristics (only statistically significant result presented). A statistically significant, but weak difference was found between clear leadership and the perceived social-economical status component (p = 0.041; t = -2.055). Respondents who perceived a clear leadership in MPA scored higher as compared to respondents who perceived the opposite in the social-economic component of social resilience. Analysis between the clear boundary parameter and the SR components found relatively small differences but statistically significant with regard to the risk perception component (p = 0.016; t = -2.411), community attachment component (p = 0.014 and t = 2.487 (equal variance not assumed).

Higher scores were found for both the risk perception and community attachment components for respondents who perceived clear MPA boundary as compare to respondents who perceived the boundary was not clear. It is the opposite for the environmental awareness components, respondents who perceived clear boundary scored lower as compare to respondents who perceived an unclear boundary. In regards to MPA management committee parameter, statistically significant, but

weak differences were found with regard to the risk component (P = 0.001; t = -3.604) and perceived social-economic status component (p = 0.032; t = -2.152). Respondents who perceived a strong MPA committee scored higher in both risk awareness and social-economic components as compare to respondents who perceived a weak committee. No significant differences were found with any of the components of social resilience with regard to establishment of more MPAs.

Variable	Components	Value	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	t-value	d.f.	p-value
Clear Leadership	Social- Economic	Yes	270	0.283	0.975	0.059	-2.055	296	0.041
		No	28	-0.112	0.898	0.169			
Clear Boundary	Risk Awareness	Yes	268	0.123	0.998	0.061	-2.411	328	0.016
		No	62	-0.219	1.043	0.132			
	Community Attachment	Yes	268	0.077	0.989	0.06	-2.247	328	0.025
		No	62	-0.231	0.901	0.114			
	Environmental Awareness	Yes	268	-0.172	0.884	0.054	2.487	106.39	0.014*
		No	62	0.095	0.732	0.093			
MPA Management Committee	Risk Awareness	Strong	192	0.216	0.982	0.071	-3.604	347	0.001
		Weak	157	-0.169	1.005	0.08			
	Social- Economic	Strong	192	0.301	0.964	0.069	-2.152	347	0.032
		Weak	157	0.077	0.97	0.077			

Table 4.9: Difference in mean scores of SR components and MPA management and implementation characteristics analysis.

* Equal variance not assumed
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter provides an overview of the study results. I discuss the results presented in the previous chapter to address research questions posed in chapter 1 within the context of the current literature. This chapter concludes with the discussion of the study limitations and recommendations for future research.

5.1 DEGREE OF VARIABILITY IN INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE

The social resilience of resource users in Indonesia could be best explained by five major components: (1) the adaptive capacity of the individual, (2) risk awareness, (3) perceived of socio-economic status, (4) community attachment and (5) environmental awareness.

This study also found that the social resilience (SR) scores of people who lived within MPA and non-MPA areas are statistically significantly different. The mean score of SR is slightly higher for respondents in the non-MPA area as compared to respondents living within the MPA area. Detailed analysis of SR components between MPA and non-MPA sites found statistically significant differences in the risk awareness and environmental awareness components, where respondents from non-MPA areas scored slightly higher than those from MPA sites.

These results indicate that MPAs have a weak negative impact on the level of resource users' social resiliency. As Abesamis et al. (2006) noted, MPAs could bring

a major change to coastal communities such as restricted resource use access, reduced fishing grounds and increased natural resource protection and conservation. Thus, it is going to be a challenge for the MPA managers concerning how to improve the resiliency of resource users within the MPA. Lebel et al. (2006) suggested that there are at least three attributes of governance that the manager should focus on to improve the resilience of a social-ecological system: (1) stakeholder participation; (2) polycentric or multilayered governing institutions and (3) accountable authority.

Cinner et al. (2012) offered several examples of policy actions to increase resilience at the local scale that could be taken by the MPA managers and the governments. In the short-term, they suggested fishery diversifications, market and information improvements, and temporary fishing restriction removal. Supplemental livelihood supports (outside of fisheries) and strengthening of local community groups are examples of policy actions offered for the medium-term. As for the long-term policy actions, they suggested investment in strong local governance institutions, poverty reduction, improvement of health status of fishing communities and phasing out of fishing.

5.2 INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Resource dependent people are typically less flexible as they only have limited transferable skills (Marshall et al. 2007). They argued that, young resource users typically leave formal education early for securing an apprenticeship, while older resource users typically have become too attached to their job and became less flexible for any new employment opportunities within their area. As a result, they are "locked" into their occupation (Marshall et al. 2007), which ultimately could negatively affect their resilience. Age, education level and attitude to working elsewhere are some of indicators of individuals' employability (Marshall et al. 2007).

This study found that age and education, have a significant relationship with the SR score. Interestingly, a negative correlation between age and SR score was found. This indicates that individual resiliency decreases as age increases. An analysis of the SR components also found a negative but significant relationship between age and the adaptive capacity components. Sutton and Tobing (2012) study of fishers in the Great Barrier Reef found a similar result, where age had a significant but negative correlation with the fishermen's SR. These facts suggest that age might likely be used to predict the direction (either high or low) of individual's social resilience levels.

Although the relationship is very weak, as expected, years of education have a positive relationship with the SR score. This is somewhat similar to the Adger et al. study in 2002 that found that education is a factor that enhances social resilience of coastal communities in Vietnam. People who are educated will have access to information, which in turn could result in more options for jobs. Education also contributes to the adaptive capacity and environmental awareness components of social resilience in Indonesia; Fulan (1970) argued that education is positively linked to individual adaptive capacity. In addition, a higher education level will increase employability (Graham and Paul 2010). A well-designed environmental education program could be used to increase environmental awareness, which in turn could change ones behaviors towards the environment (Hungerford & Volk 1990).

Although the roles of woman in the resource dependent communities have been acknowledged, the hierarchy of gender is still happening (Bennett 2005). In this study, gender was found to have relationship with the level of individual social resilience. Male resource users tend to have higher SR score compared to female. To improve the level of social resilience of female resource users, they have to be actively engaged in the MPA planning and management processes. A study of forest communities in India and Nepal found that the presence of females in community institutions for forest governance were significantly improved the forest condition (Agarwal 2009).

Social characteristics have been related to the level of either individual or community social resilience (Adger et al. 2002, Marshall 2007, Sutton and Tobing 2012). Social characteristics such as awareness and participation in MPA activities, which were statistically significantly related to resilience, could help to enhance their ability to cope and adapt to any sudden change brought by the MPA. The analysis of relationships between SR components and the social characteristic parameters indicates that two of the most important components of social resilience--adaptive capacity and risk awareness—are related to these social variables. In order to increase the resiliency, the MPA managers should have to understand the social characteristics of both the individuals and communities. Programs to compensate for the short-term impacts of MPA establishment should be designed in line with the needs and characteristics of the involved community to avoid the failure of program implementation.

In order for the MPA program to be successful, the community has to be actively involved from the earliest stages of MPA planning and management processes. Mascia (2004) offered four critical sociopolitical principles in designing MPAs: (1) clear decision making arrangements, (2) clear rule of resource utilization, (3) clear monitoring and enforcement system and (4) clear conflict resolution mechanism. These principles could be used to ensure the support of stakeholders, including resource users to MPAs which could, hopefully, increase their resilience.

5.3 INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

As mentioned in the earlier chapter, the economic characteristics used here are related to the resource indicators (ecological status) and perceived benefits of the MPA. The analysis of economic characteristics and SR components showed that the economic characteristics in this study are related to the risk awareness component of social resilience.

The study also found that the current ecological status of the marine resource has a statistically significant positive relationship with the SR score, while the perceived benefit of MPA and whether or not the MPA benefit was equal were not related to the score. This result explains the interrelationship between the social and ecological factors in a complex social-ecological system, such as MPAs (Lebel et al 2006, Pollnac et al. 2010). Maintaining the ecological performance of MPAs in the long-term could positively contribute to resiliency, as healthy marine resources could potentially diversify the source of income for resource users.

5.4 INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES AND BELIEFS

Environmental attitudes of an individual heavily influence their ecological behavior (Kaiser et al. 1999). In this study, environmental attitudes and beliefs characteristics are related to the risk awareness, perceived social-economic status and environmental awareness components of respondents' social resilience. The analysis indicated that environmental knowledge and values of the individual have a weak, positive relationship with the overall social resilience score. To improve community environmental attitudes and knowledge, MPA managers should have strategy that aims to create and to improve awareness and knowledge of the local environment. Utilizing important flagship or charismatic species to create sense of pride and ownership by the community could be one of the options.

5.5 INDIVIDUAL RESILIENCE AND MPA MANAGEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION

MPA implementation processes potentially have some impact on resource users' social resilience. This study found that several aspects related to MPA management processes could potentially improve their resilience. The respondents' perception of MPA management and implementation processes were related to the perceived social-economic and risk awareness component of social resilience. The existence of clear leadership, clear MPA boundary, and a strong MPA management committee could potentially help in bridging the possible negative short-term impacts of an MPA. The results have shown that social resilience level of resource users is not related with the respondents perceived knowledge of MPA related management, impact and activity. Only perceptions of clear leadership influenced CR scores. Since most of the MPAs in this study are relatively new, MPA managers could re-design their programs and include a strategy to improve the resiliency of resource users.

To manage a complex social-ecological interaction system such as a protected area, an effective governance mechanism is needed. Adaptive co-management has been used and proven to be useful in many contexts and situations (Wollenberg et al. 2000, Olsson et al. 2004a,b). Armitage et al. (2008:95) presented four important aspect of co-management: "…innovative institutional arrangements and incentives across spatiotemporal scales and levels, learning through complexity and change, monitoring and assessment of interventions, the role of power, and opportunity to link science and policy".

5.6 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.

The author acknowledges a numbers of limitations in this study. To build an operational definition and concepts of social resilience, an in depth interview with resource users is necessary to get descriptive information concerning social/individual resilience components to compliment the quantitative responses. Limited sets of questions were used to explain the potential social resilience indicators, which might not be best to capture the essence of such indicators in defining social resilience.

Despite some of its limitations, this study has shown that some personal and social attributes associated with an MPA could potentially have an impact on the level of individual resource users' social resilience. However, a more detailed study of demographics and socio-economic indicators to compliment the information found in this study is needed. Strategies that the resource dependent communities employed in order to cope with the changes brought by the establishment of MPA also need to be further investigated. Finally, building baseline information of people's perceptions of social resilience indicators could help to assess the potential impacts of MPAs on resource dependent people.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This study explores the social resiliency of resource dependent communities in Indonesia. It seeks to understand the relationship of social resilience level with selected components of social, economic, environmental and MPA governance. I aimed to provide information on the potential impact of MPAs on the social resiliency of individuals within their communities. I hope the information found in this study can be a basis for future research in the social dimensions of MPAs. Additionally, I expect that the findings in this study could be used as a basis for MPA managers in Indonesia to include the resilience concept and its contributing factors in designing their plans for MPAs.

This study has discovered some important aspects of social resiliency and its relation to some aspects of MPAs. The social resilience of resource dependent people in Indonesia could be best explained in five components, which are: adaptive capacity, risk awareness, perceived social-economic status, community attachment and environmental awareness. In order to fine-tune the finding, these components of social resilience should be tested in future studies in various locations and settings. A summary of statistically significant findings between SR score and SR components score can be found in Table 6.1.

Variables	Volues	SD Soono		SR Components				
variables	values	SK Score	AC	RA	SE	CA	EA	
MPA	Yes – No	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P < 0.001*	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.001*	
Age	18 - 75	P < 0.05	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
Years of Education	0-18	P < 0.001	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	
Gender	Male – Female	P < 0.001	P < 0.001	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
MPA Awareness	Yes – No	P < 0.001	P < 0.05	P < 0.05	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
MPA Participation	Yes – No	P < 0.001	P < 0.05	P < 0.001	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
Community Consultation	Yes – No	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	
View Consideration	Yes – No	P > 0.05	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	
Perceived Ecol. Status	Yes – No	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
Perceived MPA Benefits	Yes – No	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
Perceived MPA Benefits Equal	Yes – No	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
Conservation Score	0 – 9	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
Human-Nature Relationship	1 – 7	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.001	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	
Clear MPA leader	Yes – No	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
Clear MPA Boundary	Yes – No	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.05	P < 0.05*	
MPA Committee	Strong – Weak	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P < 0.001	P < 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	
More MPA Established	Yes – No	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	P > 0.05	

Table 6.1: Statistically significant result from variables analyzed

* Equal variance not assumed

This study has suggested that MPAs have some degree of influence on the level of individual social resilience. Although the level of social resiliency of people within the MPA area is lower than people living in a non-MPA site, only a very small difference was found. This is an indication of the potential impact of MPAs on the resource users. However, to ensure whether or not the MPA is the primary cause of the lower SR score of resource users, well-documented baseline information is needed.

Individual characteristics such as age, years of education and gender have relationships with the level of social resilience. Increasing peoples' knowledge and participation in MPA related activities could be the first step to improve overall community resilience.

The improvement in ecological aspects of MPA has a potential impact on increasing the resiliency of resource dependent people from the economic perspective. To be fully supported by the community, the MPA should be able to show improvement in ecological conditions. Improvement in ecological conditions could provide more options to the community on how to utilize them. It could support the development of a new alternative livelihood income from tourism.

Environmental attitudes, values and beliefs of people have a relationship with their level of social resilience. People who have a high environmental attitude tend to have good environmental behavior. This type of behavior could help to reduce the pressure on the natural resources, which in turn could support the ecological/ economical goals of MPAs.

Lastly, our finding shows that how the MPA is governed and managed could have impact on resource users' social resilience level. In this study, a specific indicator of clear leadership of a MPA was found to have the potential to positively impact community resilience. Clear leadership could improve the trust of community in the management, which consequently could improve the legitimacy of the MPA in the community. Pollnac et al. 2001 and Crawford et al. 2000 found that local leadership support is one of the factors that contributes to the successful of community based MPAs in the Philippines.

APPENDICES

QUESTIONS FOR GENERAL COMMUNITY – INDIVIDUAL PERTANYAAN UNTUK MASYARAKAT UMUM – INDIVIDUAL

IDENTIFICATION (IDENTIFIKASI)

Village:	District:	_ Regency:	_ Province:	:
Desa	Kecamatan	Kabupaten	Propinsi	
Interviewer name:_		Da	ate:	
Nama pewawancara		W	aktu interview	
INDIVIDUAL ATT	FRIBUTE (ATRIB	UT INDIVIDUAL)		
1. ID respondent:	2. Age:	3. Gende	r:	
ID responden	Usia	Jenis K	elamin	
4. Education Level: Tingkat pendidika	: in	5. Marital status Status perkawi	:: nan	
6. What is the size of Berapa jumlah per	of your household nghuni rumah anda	?		
7. How many is you Berapa jumlah ana	ir dependent child ak tanggungan anda	ren?		
8. Were you born i from?)	n this village? Yes	No(Where	do you come	
Apakah anda lahir	disini? Ya	Tidak (Darim	anakah anda be	rasal)
9. Why did you mo Mengapa anda pir	ve to this village?_ ndah ke desa ini?			
10. How long have Sudah berapa lar	you been living in na anda tinggal di c	this village? lesa ini?		
11. Do you involve	in any community	organization in this v	/illage? Yes	_No
Apakah anda ter	libat di organisasi n	nasyarakat di desa ini?	Ya	Tidak

ECONOMIC ATTRIBUTE (ATRIBUT EKONOMI)

12. What is your main occupation? Apa pekerjaan utama anda	
13. Do you work for other people? Yes Apakah anda bekerja untuk orang lain? Yes	No No
14. How long have been working for that job? Berapa lama anda sudah bekerja di bidang tersebut	
15. What is the percentage of your main occupation con household income?	ntribute to your total
16. Do you have any additional occupation? Yes Apakah anda memiliki pekerjaan sampingan? Ya	NoHow many?TidakBerapa banyak?
17. Are there any of your household members currently Apakah ada anggota keluarga anda yang bekerja?	y working? YesNo Ya Tidak
18. What is their occupations? Apakah jenis-jenis pekerjaan mereka?	

ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDE, BELIEFS AND VALUES SIKAP, KEYAKINAN DAN NILAI TERHADAP LINGKUNGAN

19. Statements related to environmental Attitude, Beliefs And Values: Pernyataan yang berhubungan dengan Sikap, Keyakinan dan Nilai terhadap lingkungan:

1. We have to take care of the land and the sea or it will not provide for us in the future.

Kita harus menjaga wilayah daratan dan lautan atau mereka tidak akan memberikan hasil kepada kita dimasa depan.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

2. Fishing would be better if we cleared the coral where the fish hide from us. Menangkap ikan akan lebih baik jika kita menghilangkan batu karang tempat ikan bersembunyi dari kita.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

3. If our community works together we will be able to protect our resources. Jika masyarakat bekerja bersama, kita mampu melindungi sumberdaya hasil bumi/laut kita.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

4. Farming in the hills behind the village can have an effect on the fish. Berkebun di tebing di belakang desa akan berpengaruh terhadap ikan dilaut.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

5. If we throw our garbage on the beach, the ocean takes it away and it causes no harm.

Jika kia membuang sampah dipantai, laut akan membawa sampah tersebut dan tidak akan menimbulkan bahaya.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

6. We do not have to worry about the sea, God will take care of it for us. Kita tidak perlu khawatir tentang laut. Tuhan akan menjaganya untuk kita.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

7. Unless mangroves are protected we will not have any small fish to catch. Hanya jika mangrove dilindungi, kita tidak akan mempunyai ikan-ikan kecil untuk ditangkap.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

 There are so many fish in the ocean that no matter how many we catch, there will always be enough for our needs. Ada banyak sekali ikan di laut, sehingga berapapun kita tangkap, jumlah ikan akan selalu mencukupi kebutuhan kita.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

9. Human activities do not influence the number of fish in the ocean. Kegiatan-kegiatan manusia tidak mempengaruhi jumlah ikan di laut.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

10. There is a limit to the amount of seaweed farming that can be done in this area. Ada batasan jumlah budidaya rumput laut yang bisa dilakukan di desa ini.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	DK	Agree	Strongly Agree
Sangat tdk setuju	Tidak setuju	TT	Setuju	Sangat Setuju

OUESTIONS AND STATEMENT RELATED TO MPA PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

PERTANYAAN DAN PERNYATAAN YANG BURHUBUNGAN DENGAN PROSES PERENCANAAN DAN PENGELOLAAN MPA

AWARE OF MPA (PENGETAHUAN TENTANG MPA)

- **20.** Have you ever heard of the expression of MPA? Yes_____ No _____ Apakah anda pernah mendengar istilah KKL/KPL? Ya Tidak
- 21. Have you ever heard areas where people are regulated to fish, capture animals or extract seaweed so the environment could be preserved? Apakah anda pernah mendengar dimana ada pengaturan wilayah untuk penangkapan ikan, hewan laut dan budidaya rumput laut, dengan tujuan untuk melestarikan lingkungan?

Yes(Ya) No(Tdk)

21. Have you ever been involved in any of the following MPA participatory activities:

Apakah anda pernah terlibat di kegiatan-kegiatan partisipatif MPA:

Yes(Ya)	No(Tidak)
Yes(Ya)	No(Tidak)
	Yes(Ya) Yes(Ya) Yes(Ya) Yes(Ya) Yes(Ya) Yes(Ya) Yes(Ya) Yes(Ya)

22. What is your main reason being involved with the MPA related activities? Apakah alasan utama anda melibatkan diri dengan kegiatan-kegiatan terkait dengan MPA?

To learn_____To support community_____To maintain/to ensure livelihood____Untuk belajarUntuk membantu masyarakatUntuk menjaga kelangsungan pekerjaan

To protect environment____Others____Untuk menjaga lingkunganLain-lain

23. What do you think about the amount of conflict in the community after the establishment of MPA?

Bagaimana pendapat anda tentang jumlah konflik di masyarakat setelah MPA ditetapkan?

Much worse___ Little worse___ Not changed__ Improved a little__ Improved a lot___ Sangat buruk Sedikit lebih buruk Tidak berubah Sedikit ebih baik Sangat baik

24. Do you think that the MPA is financially benefiting the local community? Menurut anda, apakah MPA memberikan dampak positif terhadap keuangan masyarakat lokal?

Yes(Ya) No(Tidak)

25. Do you think that the MPA has the same effect to all people in the community?

Menurut anda, apakah MPA memberikan dampak yang sama terhadap semua masyarakat lokal?

Yes(Ya) No(Tidak)

26. What do you think about the coral reef condition before the establishment of MPA in your area?

Menurut anda bagaimana kondisi terumbu karang sebelum ditetapkannya MPA di tempat anda?

Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
Sangat rendah	Rendah	Biasa saja	Banyak	Sangat banyak

27. What do you think about the coral reef condition after the establishment of MPA in your area?

Menurut anda bagaimana kondisi terumbu karang setelah ditetapkannya MPA di tempat anda?

Much worse___Little worse___Not changed___Improved a little__Improved a lot____ Sangat buruk Sedikit lebih buruk Tidak berubah Sedikit lebih baik Sangat baik

28. What do you think about the number of fish catch before the establishment of MPA in your area?

Menurut anda bagaimana jumlah tangkapan ikan sebelum ditetapkannya MPA di tempat anda?

Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
Sangat rendah	Rendah	Biasa saja	Banyak	Sangat banyak

29. What do you think about the number of fish catch after the establishment of MPA in your area?

Menurut anda bagaimana jumlah tangkapan ikan setelah ditetapkannya MPA di tempat anda?

Much worse__ Little worse__ Not changed__ Improved a little__Improved a lot__ Sangat buruk Sedikit lebih buruk Tidak berubah Sedikit ebih baik Sangat baik

30. Would you rate the overall MPA is successful? Yes(Ya) No(tidak) Menurut anda apakah secara keseluruhan kegiatan MPA berhasil?

MPA RESOURCE USERS (PENGGUNA SUMBERDAYA)

- **31. Do you use MPA or waters nearby?** Yes(Ya) No(Tidak) Apakah anda beraktifitas di kawasan MPA atau perairan sekitarnya?
- 32. What do you think about the fish abundance inside the No Take Area within the MPA in your area?

Menurut anda bagaimana kelimpahan ikan didalam zona larang tangkap di dalam kawasan MPA?

Very poor___Poor___Average___Good___Very good___Sangat rendahRendahBiasa sajaBanyakSangat banyak

33. What do you think about the fish abundance outside the No Take Area within the MPA in your area?

Menurut anda bagaimana kelimpahan ikan diluar zona larang tangkap di dalam kawasan MPA?

Much worse_Little worse_Not changed_Improved a little_Improved a lot_ Sangat buruk Sedikit lebih buruk Tidak berubah Sedikit lebih baik Sangat baik

MPA MANAGEMENT AND POLICY PROCESSES PROSES PENGELOLAAN DAN KEBIJAKAN MPA

34. Statements related MPA management and policy processes

Pernyataan - pernyataan berhubungan dengan proses pengelolaan kebijakan MPA

a. Do you think to what extent your views were considered during the planning process of MPA?
 Menurut anda, sejauh mana pendapat anda dipertimbangkan dalam prosess perencanaan MPA?

None(tidak sama sekali) ____ Some(sedikit) ____ All (semua)____

b. Do you think you can influence changes in MPA after established? Menurut anda, apakah anda bisa membuat perubahan setelah MPA di tetapkan?

Yes(Ya) No(Tidak)

c. How would you rate the clarity of decision-making process in MPA? Bagaimana anda menilai kejelasan proses pengambilan keputusan mengenai MPA?

Not at all	Little clear	Clear	Very clear
Tidak jelas	Sedikit jelas	Jelas	Jelas sekali

- d. Are the decision of MPA planning and management fair? Yes(Ya)___ No(Tidak)___ Apakah pengambilan keputusan mengenai perencanaan dan pengelolaan MPA cukup adil?
- e. Were you provided with sufficient information during planning and management of MPA?

Apakah ada informasi yang cukup mengenai proses perencanaan dan pengelolaan MPA?

Yes(ya)____ No(tidak)____

f. I trust the MPA organizer would do the best for community in this area. Saya percaya pengelola MPA akan berbuat yang terbaik untuk masyarakat daerah ini.

Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
TIdak setuju	Sutuju	Sangat setuju

g. To protect the marine biodiversity is the most important goals in managing the MPA.

Melindungin keanekaragaman hewan dan tumbuhan laut adalah tujuan yang utama dalam mengelola MPA.

Disagree____ TIdak setuju Agree____ Sutuju

Strongly agree_____ Sangat setuju

SOCIAL RESILIENCE QUESTIONS PERTANYAAN-PERTANYAAN MENGENAI SOCIAL RESILIENCE

35. Statements to measure social resilience

Pernyataan-pernyataan untuk mengukur social resilience

a. I can cope with small changes in my industry Saya dapat bertahan dengan perubahan kecil di industry pekerjaan saya

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	<mark>Netral</mark>	<mark>Setuju</mark>	Sangat setuju
b. I am confident that	I could get wor	rk elsewhere if	I needed to	
Saya yakin bahwa s	saya bisa beker	ja dimana saja j	jika saya perlu	
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju
c. I am interested in le Saya tertarik untuk	earning new ski belajar keahliar	lls outside of m	ny industry dustry perkerja	an saya
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju
d. Every time there is	a change, I pla	n a way to mak	e it work for m	e
Setiap kali ada peru	<mark>ıbahan, saya se</mark>	<mark>lalu punya cara</mark>	untuk bisa ber	adaptasi
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju
e. I cannot imagine m Saya tidak bisa men	yself in any oth nbayangkan dir	er job i saya bekerja o	li bidang yang	lain
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju
f. I have many options available to me if I decide to no longer work at this industry Saya memiliki banyak pilihan yang ada jikalau saya memutuskan untuk tidak berkerja di industry perkerjaan ini lagi.				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju
g. We are more likely to cope with changes compared to other families I know Keuarga kami sepertinya bisa bertahan dengan perubahan yang terjadi dibandingkan dengan keluarga lainnya				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju
h. I feel like I belong to this community/town				

Saya merasa saya merupakan bagian dari masyarakat/desa ini

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

i. I always know how much money is coming in and out of my business Saya selalu mengetahui berapa jumlah pengeluaran dan pemasukan keuangan dari pekerjaan saya

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju	
j. We always have an amount of cash available for emergencies					
Kami selalu memili	ki uang tunai y	ang cukup u	ntuk keadaan	darurat	

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

k. I am having additional jobs that could produce fairly good income Saya memiliki perkerjaan sampingan yang menghasilkan cukup uang

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

1. I would be good at teaching younger people about the marine environment Saya merupakan guru yang baik untuk generasi muda tentang kondisi lingkungan laut

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

m. There are too many fishers in the region Terlalu banyak nelayan di daerah ini

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

n. I can easily find the information related to my industry Saya dapat dengan mudah mencari informasi yang berkaitan dengan industry pekerjaan saya

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

o. The friendships I have with people in this village mean a lot to me Persahabatan yang saya miliki dengan masyarakat di desa ini berarti sangat penting buat saya

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

p. The zonation of MPA helps to reduce the conflict between resource users. Pengaturan wilayah pemanfaatan di dalam MPA membantu mengurangi konflik sesame pengguna sumberdaya

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Sangat tidak setuju	Tidak setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat setuju

- **36. Open ended question to explore the social resilience aspect:** Pertanyaan singkat untuk menggali lebih dalam tentang aspek social resilience:
- a. How do you feel about working in this industry? (e.g. future prediction, potential income generated, likelihood of changing the job, conflict, etc.)
 Bagaimana perasaan anda bekerja di industry ini? (prediksi masa depan, prediksi income, kemuningkinan untuk mengganti pekerjaan, tingkat konflik di pekerjaan, dll.)
- b. What do you think about this village? (the future of the village, relationship between people, the conflict, etc.)
 Bagaimana pendapat anda tentang desa ini (masa depan desa, hubungan antara penduduk, konflik/pertengkaran di desa, dll).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abdi, H. (2003). Factor rotations in factor analyses. *Encyclopedia for Research Methods for the Social Sciences*. Sage. Thousand Oaks, CA. 792-795.
- Abesamis, P.N., Corrigan, C., Drew, M., Campbell, S., Samonte, G. (2006). Social Resilience: A literature review on building resilience into human marine communities in and around MPA networks. *MPA Networks Learning Partnership, Global Conservation Program, USAID*. Available online at <u>http://www.reefresilience.org/pdf/Social_Resilience_Literature_Review.pdf</u> (last accessed in March 1, 2013).
- Abel, T., Stepp, J.R. (2003). A new ecosystems ecology for anthropology. *Conservation Ecology*, 7(3): 12.
- Adger, W.N. (1999). Social vulnerability to climate change and extremes in coastal Vietnam. *World Development*, 27(2): 249-269.
- Adger, W.N. (2000). Social and ecological resilience: are they related?. *Progress in Human Geography*, 24(3): 347–364.
- Adger, W. N., P. M. Kelly, A. Winkels, L. Q. Huy, and C. Locke. (2002). Migration, remittances, livelihood trajectories, and social resilience. *Ambio*, 31(4): 358– 366.
- Adger, W.N., K. Vincent. (2005). Uncertainty in Adaptive Capacity. C.R. Geoscience, 337: 399-410.
- Agarwal, B. (2009). Gender and forest conservation: The impact of women's participation in community forest governance. *Ecological Economics*, 68(11): 2785-2799.
- Allison, H. E. and R. J. Hobbs. (2004). Resilience, adaptive capacity, and the "Lock-in Trap" of the Western Australian agricultural region. *Ecology and Society*, 9(1): 3.
- Arcury, T. A. (1990). Environmental attitude and environmental knowledge. *Human Organization*, 49(4): 300-304.
- Armitage, D., F. Berkes, N. Doubleday (Eds.). 2007. *Adaptive Co-Management: Collaboration, Learning, and Multi-level Governance*. University of British Columbia Press, Vancouver.

- Armitage, D. R., Plummer, R., Berkes, F., Arthur, R. I., Charles, A. T., Davidson-Hunt, I. J., ... & Wollenberg, E. K. (2008). Adaptive co-management for social-ecological complexity. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, 7(2): 95-102.
- Arrow, K., Bolin, B., Costanza, R., Dasgupta, P., Folke, C., Holling, C. S., ... & Pimentel, D. (1995). Economic growth, carrying capacity, and the environment. *Ecological economics*, 15(2): 91-95.
- Bailey, C. and Pomeroy, C. (1996) Resource dependency and development options in coastal Southeast Asia. Society and Natural Resources, 9: 191–99.
- Bennett, E. (2005). Gender, fisheries and development. Marine policy, 29(5): 451-459.
- Berkes, F., and C. Folke, eds. (1998). *Linking Social and Ecological Systems: Management Practices and Social Mechanisms for Building Resilience*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Berkes, F., J. Colding, and C. Folke, eds. (2003). Navigating social–ecological systems: building resilience for complexity and change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Berkes, F. and C.S. Seixas. (2005). Building resilience in lagoon social-ecological systems: A local-level perspective. *Ecosystems* 8: 967-974.
- Binkley, M. (2000). 'Getting by' in tough times. Coping with the fisheries crisis. *Women's Stud.Int.Forum* 23(3): 323-332.
- Bliss, J. C., Walkingstick, T. L., & Bailey, C. (1998). Development or dependency? Sustaining Alabama's forest communities. *Journal of forestry*, 96(3): 24-30.
- Bonanno, G.A. (2004). Loss, Trauma, and Human Resilience: Have We Underestimated the Human Capacity to Thrive After Extremely Aversive Events? *American Psychologist*, 59(1): 20-28.
- Bourdeau, P. (2004). The man-nature relationship and environmental ethics. *Journal* of environmental radioactivity, 72(1): 9-15.
- Bradford R. A., O'Sullivan J. J., van der Craats I. M., Krywkow J., Rotko P., Aaltonen J., Bonaiuto M., De Dominicis S., Waylen K., Schelfaut K. 2012. Risk perception issues for flood management in Europe. *Nat. Hazards Earth Syst. Sci.*, 12: 2299–2309.
- Brookfield, K., Gray, T., & Hatchard, J. (2005). The concept of fisheries-dependent communities: A comparative analysis of four UK case studies: Shetland, Peterhead, North Shields and Lowestoft. *Fisheries Research*, 72(1), 55-69.

- Broks, N., W.N. Adger, P.M. Kelly. (2005). The determinants of vulnerability and adaptive capacity at the national level and the implications for adaptation. *Global Environmental Change*, 15(2): 151-163.
- Burke, L., Kathleen Reytar, Mark Spalding, Allison Perry (2012). *Reefs at Risk, Revisited in the Coral Triangle*. World Research Institute. Available online at <u>http://pdf.wri.org/reefs_at_risk_revisited_coral_triangle.pdf</u> (last accessed March 1, 2014).
- Carpenter, S., and L. Gunderson. (2001). Coping with collapse: ecological and social dynamics in ecosystem management. *BioScience*, 51(6): 451-457.
- Carpenter, S.R., Walker, B.H., Anderies, J.M., Abel, N. (2001). From metaphor to measurement: resilience of what to what? *Ecosystems*, 4: 765–781.
- Carter, E., Soemodinoto, A. & White, A. (2010) *Guide for Improving Marine Protected Area Management Effectiveness in Indonesia*. Bali, Indonesia: The Nature Conservancy Indonesia Marine Program, xi + 49p.
- Cattell, R. B. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate behavioral research*, 1(2): 245-276.
- Chapin, III, F.S., S.R. Carpenter, G. P. Kofinas, C. Folke, N. Abel, W.C. Clark, P. Olsson, D.M. Stafford Smith, B.H. Walker, O.R. Young, F. Berkes, R. Biggs, J.M. Grove, R.L. Naylor, E. Pinkerton, W. Steffen, and F.J. Swanson. (2010). Ecosystem stewardship: sustainability strategies for a rapidly changing planet. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 25: 241-249.
- Christie, P., B.J. McCay, M.L. Miller, C. Lowe, A.T. White, R. Stoffle, D.L. Fluharty, L.T. McManus, R. Chuenpagdee, C. Pomeroy, D.O. Suman, B.G. Blount, D. Huppert, R.L.V. Eisma, E. Oracion, K. Lowry, and R.B. Pollnac. (2003). Toward developing a complete understanding: A social science research agenda for marine protected areas. *Fisheries*, 28(12): 22-26.
- Christie, P. (2004). Marine protected areas as biological successes and social failures in Southeast Asia. *In American Fisheries Society Symposium*, (42): 155-164.
- Cinner J., M., Fuentes B.P., Randriamahazo H. (2009). Exploring social resilience in Madagascar's marine protected areas. *Ecology and Society*, 14.
- Cinner, Joshua E., T. R. McClanahan, N. A. J. Graham, T. M. Daw, J. Maina, S. M. Stead, A. Wamukota, K. Brown, and Ö. Bodin. (2012). Vulnerability of coastal communities to key impacts of climate change on coral reef fisheries. *Global Environmental Change*, 22(1): 12-20.

- Colding, J., T. Elmqvist, and P. Olsson. (2003). Living with Disturbance: Building Resilience in Social-Ecolgoical Systems. Pages 163-185 in F. Berkes, J.
 Colding, and C. Folke, eds. Navigating Social-Ecological Systems. Building Resilience for Complexity and Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Cohen, P. J., Evans, L. S., & Mills, M. (2012). Social networks supporting governance of coastal ecosystems in Solomon Islands. *Conservation Letters*, 5(5): 376-386.
- Costanza, R., Waigner, L., Folke, C., Ma[°]ler, K.-G. (1993). Modeling complex ecological economic systems: towards an evolutionary dynamic understanding of people and nature. *BioScience*, 43: 545–555.
- Cox, R. S., & Perry, K. M. E. (2011). Like a fish out of water: Reconsidering disaster recovery and the role of place and social capital in community disaster resilience. *American journal of community psychology*, 48(3-4): 395-411.
- Crawford B, Balgos M, Pagdilao CR. (2000). *Community-based marine sanctuaries in the Philippines: a report on focus group discussions*. Coastal Management Report #2224, PCAMRD Book Series No. 30, Coastal Resources Center and Philippine Council for Aquatic and Marine Research and Development, Narragansett RI, USA, Los Banos, Laguna, Philippines.
- Dalton, T., G. Forrester, R. Pollnac. (2012). Participation, process quality & performance of marine protected areas in the wider Caribbean. *Environmental Management*, 49:1224–1237.
- Davidson-Hunt, I.J., Berkes, F. (2003). Nature and society through the lens of resilience: toward a human-in-ecosystem perspective. *In* Berkes, F.,Colding, J., Folke, C. Eds. *Navigating Social–Ecological Systems: Building Resilience for Complexity and Change*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Davis, J. L., Green, J. D., & Reed, A. (2009). Interdependence with the environment: Commitment, interconnectedness, and environmental behavior. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 29(2): 173-180.
- Davis, J. L., Le, B., & Coy, A. E. (2011). Building a model of commitment to the natural environment to predict ecological behavior and willingness to sacrifice. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 31(3): 257-265.
- De Young, B., Barange, M., Beaugrand, G., Harris, R., Perry, R. I., Scheffer, M., & Werner, F. (2008). Regime shifts in marine ecosystems: detection, prediction and management. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 23(7): 402-409.
- Duc, N. M. (2008). Farmers' satisfaction with aquaculture—A logistic model in Vietnam. *Ecological economics*, 68(1): 525-531.

- Dunlap, R. E., & Catton, W. R. (1994). Struggling with human exemptionalism: The rise, decline and revitalization of environmental sociology. *The American Sociologist*, 25(1): 5-30.
- Dyer J.G., T.M. McGuinness. (1996). Resilience: Analysis of the concept. Archives of Psychiatric Nursing, 10 (5): 276-282.
- Folke, C., S. Carpenter, T. Elmqvist, L. Gunderson, C. S. Holling, and B. Walker. (2002a). Resilience and Sustainable Development: Building Adaptive Capacity in a World of Transformations. *Ambio*, 31: 437-440.
- Folke, C., S. Carpenter, T. Elmqvist, L. Gunderson, C. S. Holling, B. Walker, D. N. Bengston, F. Berkes, J. Colding, K. Danell, M. Falkenmark, L. Gordon, R. E. Kasperson, N. Kautsky, A. Kinzig, S. Levin, K. Maler, F. Moberg, L. Ohlsson, E. Ohlsson, W. V. Reid, J. Rockstrom, H. Savenije, and U. Svedin. (2002b). Resilience and Sustainable Development: Building Adaptive Capacity in a World of Transformations. Pages 73pp. *In Scientific Background Paper on Resilience for the process of The World Summit on Sustainable Development on behalf of The Environmental Advisory Council to the Swedish Government.* Available online at <u>http://era-mx.org/biblio/resilience-sd.pdf</u> (last accessed in March 1, 2014).
- Folke, C., Carpenter, S.R., Walker, B.H., Scheffer, M., Elmqvist, T., Gunderson, L.H., Holling, C.S. (2004). Regime shifts, resilience and biodiversity in ecosystem management. *Annual Review in Ecology, Evolution and Systematics*, 35: 557– 581.
- Folke, C., T. Hahn, P. Olsson, and J. Norberg. (2005). Adaptive Governance of Social-Ecological Systems. Annual Review of Environment and Resources, 30: 441– 73.
- Folke, C. (2006). Resilience: The emergence of a perspective for social–ecological systems analyses. *Global Environmental Change*, 16: 253-267.
- Folke, C., S. R. Carpenter, B. Walker, M. Scheffer, T. Chapin, and J. Rockström. (2010). Resilience thinking: integrating resilience, adaptability and transformability. *Ecology and Society*, 15(4): 20.
- Forbes, B. C. (2007). Equity, vulnerability and resilience in social–ecological systems: a contemporary example from the Russian Arctic. *Research in Social Problems and Public Policy*, 15: 203-236.
- Francis, R. C., & Hare, S. R. (1994). Decadal-scale regime shifts in the large marine ecosystems of the north-east Pacific: A case for historical science. *Fisheries* oceanography, 3(4): 279-291.

- Freudenburg, W.R. (1992). Addictive economies: extractive industries and vulnerable localities in a changing world economy. *Rural Sociology*, 57: 305–32.
- Fullan, M. (1970). Education and Adaptive Capacity. Paper presented at American Education Research Association annual meeting Minneapolis, Minnesota, p. 30.
- Gadgil, M., P. Olsson, F. Berkes, and C. Folke. (2004). Exploring the Role of Local Ecological Knowledge in Ecosystem Management: Three Case Studies. Pages 189-209 in F. Berkes, J. Colding, and C. Folke, eds. Navigating Social-Ecological Systems. Building Resilience for Complexity and Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Gallopín, G.C. (2006). Linkages between vulnerability, resilience, and adaptive capacity. *Global Environmental Change*, 16: 293-303.
- Gómez-Baggethun, E., Reyes-García, V., Olsson, P., & Montes, C. (2012). Traditional ecological knowledge and community resilience to environmental extremes: A case study in Doñana, SW Spain. *Global Environmental Change*, 22(3): 640-650.
- Gotts, N. M. 2007. Resilience, panarchy, and world-systems analysis. *Ecology and Society*, 12(1): 24.
- Graham, B., & Paul, C. (2010). Does higher education really lead to higher employability and wages in the RMI. Available online at <u>http://www.hawaii.edu/hivandaids/Does_Higher_Ed_Really_Lead_to_Higher_Employability_RMI.pdf</u> (last accessed in April 12, 2014).
- Green, A., White, A., Tanzer, J. 2012 Integrating fisheries, biodiversity, and climate change objectives into marine protected area network design in the Coral Triangle. Report prepared by The Nature Conservancy for the Coral Triangle Support Partnership, 105 pp.
- Gunderson, L.H., Holling, C.S., Light, S.S. Eds. (1995). *Barriers and Bridges to the Renewal of Ecosystems and Institutions*. Columbia University Press, New York.
- Gunderson, L. (1999). Resilience, flexibility and adaptive management antidotes for spurious certitude? *Conservation Ecology*, 3(1): 7.
- Gunderson, L.H. (2000). Resilience in theory and practice. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 31: 425–439.
- Gunderson, L., and C. S. Holling. (2002). *Panarchy: Understanding Transformations in Human and Natural Systems*. Island Press, Washington, D.C.

- Gunderson, L.H., Pritchard, L. Eds. (2002). *Resilience and the Behavior of Large Scale Ecosystems*. SCOPE vol. 60. Island Press, Washington, DC.
- Hanna, S.S., C. Folke, K.-G. Maler (Eds.) (1996). Rights to Nature: Ecological, Economic, Cultural, and Political Principles of Institutions for the Environment. Island Press, Washington, DC.
- Hanna, S., M. Hall-Arber. Eds. 2000. *Change and Resilience in Fishing*. Oregon Sea Grant – Corvallis Oregon, Oregon State University.
- Harkes, I., and I. Novaczek. (2002). Presence, Performance, and Institutional Resilience of SASI, A Traditional Management Institution in Central Maluku, Indonesia. Ocean and Coastal Management, 45: 237-260.
- Holling, C. S. (1973). Resilience and Stability of Ecological Systems. *Annual Review in Ecology and Systematics*, 4: 1-23.
- Holling, C.S., (1986). The resilience of terrestrial ecosystems: local surprise and global change. *In* Clark, W.C., Munn, R.E. eds. *Sustainable Development of the Biosphere*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge: pp. 292–317.
- Holling, C. S. (1995). What barriers? What bridges? In S. S. Light, editor. Barriers and bridges to the renewal of ecosystems and institutions. Columbia University Press, New York, New York, USA.
- Holling, C.S. (2001). Understanding the complexity of economic, ecological, and social systems. *Ecosystems*, 4: 390–405.
- Holling, C.S., L.H. Gunderson, D. Ludwig. (2002). Chapter 1 Inquest of a Theory of Adaptive Change. *in* Gunderson, L.H., C.S. Holling. Eds. *Panarchy* – *Understanding Transformation in Human and Natural System*. Island Press, Washington D.C., USA.
- Holling, C. S. (2004). Foreword: The Backloop to Sustainability. Pages xv-xxi in F. Berkes, J. Colding, and C. Folke. eds. Navigating Social-Ecological Systems. Building Resilience for Complexity and Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Hughes, T.P., D.R. Bellwood, C. Folke, R.S. Steneck, and J. Wilson. (2005). New Paradigms for supporting the resilience of marine ecosystems. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 20: 380-386.
- Hughes, T. P., Graham, N. A., Jackson, J. B., Mumby, P. J., & Steneck, R. S. (2010). Rising to the challenge of sustaining coral reef resilience. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 25(11): 633-642.
- Hungerford, H. R., & Volk, T. L. (1990). Changing learner behavior through environmental education. *The journal of environmental education*, 21(3): 8-21.

- IUCN World Commission on Protected Areas (IUCN-WCPA) (2008) Establishing Resilient Marine Protected Area Networks – Making It Happen. Washington, DC: IUCN-WCPA, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, and The Nature Conservancy, 118 p.
- Jolliffe, I. (2005). *Principal component analysis*. Second Edition. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Kaiser, F. G., Wölfing, S., & Fuhrer, U. (1999). Environmental attitude and ecological behaviour. *Journal of environmental psychology*, 19(1): 1-19.
- Kasperson J.X., Kasperson R.E. and Turner B.L. (Eds.) (1995). *Regions at Risk: Comparisons of Threatened Environments*. United Nations University Press, NY.
- Kelleher, G. (1999). *Guidelines for Marine Protected Areas*. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- Kelly, P. M., & Adger, W. N. (2000). Theory and practice in assessing vulnerability to climate change and facilitating adaptation. *Climatic change*, 47(4): 325-352.
- King, A. (1995). Folk Management among Belizean Lobster Fishermen: Success and Resilience or Decline and Depletion? *Human Organization*, 56 (4): 418–426.
- Lamson, C. (1986). Planning for resilient coastal communities: lesson from ecological systems theory. *Coastal Zone Management Journal*, 13: 265–279.
- Larson, S., De Freitas, D. M., & Hicks, C. C. (2013). Sense of place as a determinant of people's attitudes towards the environment: Implications for natural resources management and planning in the Great Barrier Reef, Australia. *Journal of environmental management*, 117: 226-234.
- Lebel, L., J. M. Anderies, B. Campbell, C. Folke, S. Hatfield-Dodds, T. P. Hughes. and J. Wilson. 2006. Governance and the capacity to manage resilience in regional social-ecological systems. *Ecology and Society*, 11(1): 19.
- Levin, Simon A., Scott Barrett, Sara Aniyar, William Baumol, Christopher Bliss, Bert Bolin, Partha Dasgupta et al. (1998). Resilience in natural and socioeconomic systems. *Environment and Development Economics*, 3 (02): 221-262.
- Likert, R. (1932). A Technique for the Measurement of Attitude. *Archives of Psychology*, 22: 140.
- Machlis, G.E. and Force, J.E. (1988). Community stability and timber dependent communities. *Rural Sociology*, 53: 221–34.

- Machlis, G.E., Force, J.E. and Burch, W.R. (1990). Timber, minerals and social change: an exploratory test of two resource dependent communities. *Rural Sociology*, 55: 411–24.
- Marshall, N. (2006). A conceptual and operational understanding of social resilience in a primary resource industry – insight for optimizing social and environmental outcomes in the management of Queensland's commercial fishing industry. *PhD Thesis*. School of Tropical Environment Studies and Geography, James Cook University, Australia.
- Marshall, N. A., D. M. Fenton, P. A. Marshall, and S. G. Sutton. (2007). How resource-dependency can influence social resilience within a primary resource industry. *Rural Sociology*, 72(3): 359–390.
- Marshall, N. A. (2007). Can policy perception influence social resilience to policy change? *Fisheries Research*, 86: 216–227.
- Marshall, N. A., and P. A. Marshall. (2007). Conceptualizing and operationalizing social resilience within commercial fisheries in northern Australia. *Ecology and Society*, 12(1): 1.
- Marshall, N., P. Marshall, and A. Abdulla. (2009). Using social resilience and resource dependency to increase the effectiveness of marine conservation initiatives in Salum, Egypt. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 52: 901–918.
- Marshall N.A., Marshall P.A., Tamelander J., Obura D., Malleret-King D. and Cinner J.E. (2010). A Framework for Social Adaptation to Climate Change; Sustaining Tropical Coastal Communities and Industries. Gland, Switzerland, IUCN. v + 36 pp.
- Marshall, N. A., Gordon, I. J., & Ash, A. J. (2011). The reluctance of resource-users to adopt seasonal climate forecasts to enhance resilience to climate variability on the rangelands. *Climatic Change*, 107(3-4): 511-529.
- Mascia, M.B. (2003). The Human Dimensions of Coral Reef Marine Protected Areas: Recent Social Science Research and Its Policy Implications. *Conservation Biology*, 17: 630-632.
- Mascia, M. (2004). Social dimensions of marine reserves. Page 164-186. *In* Sobel, J., Dahlgren, C. Eds. *Marine Reserves: A Guide to Science, Design and Use*. Island Press. Washington DC.
- McCay, B. J. (1978). Systems Ecology, People Ecology, and the Anthropology of Fishing Communities. *Human Ecology*, 6:397-421.

- McClanahan, T. R., J. E. Cinner, J. Maina, N. A. J. Graham, T. M. Daw, S. M. Stead, A. Wamukota, K. Brown, M. Ateweberhan, V. Venus, N.V.C. Polunin. (2008). Conservation action in a changing climate. *Conservation Letters*, 1(2): 53-59.
- McClanahan TR, Donner SD, Maynard JA, MacNeil MA, Graham NAJ, et al. (2012) Prioritizing Key Resilience Indicators to Support Coral Reef Management in a Changing Climate. *PLoS ONE*, 7(8): e42884. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0042884
- Mustika, P. L., Ratha, I. M. J. & Purwanto, S. (Eds.) (2012). The 2011 Bali Marine Rapid Assessment (Second English edition August 2012). *RAP Bulletin of Biological Assessment 64*. Bali Marine and Fisheries Affairs, South East Asia Center for Ocean Research and Monitoring, Warmadewa University, Conservation International Indonesia, Denpasar. 137 pp.
- National Research Council. (2001). *New Horizons in Health: An Integrative Approach.* The National Academies Press, Washington, DC.
- Nelson R, Howden SM, Stafford Smith M. (2008) Using Adaptive Governance to Rethink the Way Science Supports Australian Drought Policy. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 11: 588-601.
- Norris, F. H., Stevens, S. P., Pfefferbaum, B., Wyche, K. F., & Pfefferbaum, R. L. (2008). Community resilience as a metaphor, theory, set of capacities, and strategy for disaster readiness. *American journal of community psychology*, 41(1-2): 127-150.
- Olsson, P. (2003). Building capacity for resilience in social-ecological systems. *Doctoral dissertation* submitted to the Department of Systems Ecology, Stockholm University, Sweden.
- Olsson, P., C. Folke, and T. Hahn. (2004a). Social–ecological transformation for ecosystem management: the development of adaptive co-management of a wetland landscape in southern Sweden. *Ecology and Society*, 9(4): 2.
- Olsson, P., C. Folke, and F. Berkes. (2004b). Adaptive comanagement for building resilience in social-ecological systems. *Environmental Management*, 34: 75-90.
- Olsson, P., L. H. Gunderson, S. R. Carpenter, P. Ryan, L. Lebel, C. Folke, and C. S. Holling. (2006). Shooting the rapids: navigating transitions to adaptive governance of social-ecological systems. *Ecology and Society*, 11(1): 18.
- Paton, D. (2003). Disaster preparedness: a social-cognitive perspective. *Disaster prevention and management*, 12(3): 210-216.

- Peluso, N.L., Humphrey, C.R. and Fortmann, L.P. (1994). The rock, the beach and the tidal pool: people and poverty in natural resource dependent areas. *Society and Natural Resources*, 7: 23–38.
- Perrings, C.A., Folke, C., Ma^{••} ler, K.-G., (1992). The ecology and economics of biodiversity loss: the research agenda. *Ambio*, 21: 201–211.
- Perrings, C. (1998). Resilience in the dynamics of economy-environment systems. *Environmental and Resource Economics*, 11(3-4): 503-520.
- Pollnac, R.B., J.J. Poggie. (1988). The structure of job satisfaction among New England fishermen and its application to fisheries management policy. *American Anthropologist*, 90(4): 888-901.
- Pollnac, R. B., & Crawford, B. R. (2000). Assessing behavioral aspects of coastal resource use (p. 139). Coastal Resources Center, University of Rhode Island.
- Pollnac, R. B., Crawford, B. R., & Gorospe, M. L. (2001). Discovering factors that influence the success of community-based marine protected areas in the Visayas, Philippines. Ocean & Coastal Management, 44(11): 683-710.
- Pollnac, Richard, Patrick Christie, Joshua E. Cinner, Tracey Dalton, Tim M. Daw, Graham E. Forrester, Nicholas AJ Graham, and Timothy R. McClanahan. (2010). Marine reserves as linked social–ecological systems. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 107 (43): 18262-18265.
- Pollnac R., Seara T. (2011). Factors influencing success of marine protected areas in the Visayas, Philippines as related to increasing protected area coverage. *Environmental Management*, 47: 584–592
- Pollnac, R., Bavinck, M., & Monnereau, I. (2012). Job satisfaction in fisheries compared. *Social indicators research*, 109(1): 119-133.
- Pollnac, R. (2013, April). Personal communication.
- Renaud, F. G., Birkmann, J., Damm, M., & Gallopín, G. C. (2010). Understanding multiple thresholds of coupled social–ecological systems exposed to natural hazards as external shocks. *Natural Hazards*, 55(3): 749-763.
- Riger, S., & Lavrakas, P. J. (1981). Community ties: Patterns of attachment and social interaction in urban neighborhoods. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 9(1): 55-66.
- Ritchie JW, Abawi GY, Dutta SC, Harris TR, Bange M. (2004). Risk management strategies using seasonal climate forecasting in irrigated cotton production: a tale of stochastic dominance. *Australian Journal of Agricultural & Resource Economics*, 48: 65-93.

- Rogers, E.M. (1995). *Diffusion of Innovations*, fourth edition. The Free Press. New York.
- Ron L. Little & Richard S. Krannich. (1988). A Model for Assessing the Social Impacts of Natural Utilization on Resource-Dependent Communities. *Impact* Assessment, 6(2): 21-35.
- Rutter, M. (1987). Psychosocial resilience and protective mechanisms. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 57(3): 316-331.
- Scoones, I. (1999). New ecology and the social sciences: what prospects for a fruitful engagement? *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 28: 479–507.
- Sherrieb, K., Norris, F. H., & Galea, S. (2010). Measuring capacities for community resilience. *Social Indicators Research*, 99(2): 227-247.
- Smit, B., Wandel, J. (2006). Adaptation, adaptive capacity and vulnerability. *Global Environmental Change*, 16(3): 282–292.
- Smith, S., S. Jacob, M. Jepson, G. Israel. (2003). After the Florida net ban: the impacts on commercial fishing families. *Society and natural resources*, 16: 39–59.
- Spector, P. E. (Ed.). (1992). Summated rating scale construction: An introduction. Sage university paper series. Quantitative applications in the social sciences 82. Newbury Park, California.
- Sutton, S. G., and R. C. Tobin. (2012). Social resilience and commercial fishers' responses to management changes in the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park. *Ecology and Society*, 17(3): 6.
- Tabachnick, B.G. and Linda S. Fidell. 2006. Using Multivariate Statistics (5th *Edition*). Allyn & Bacon, Inc., Needham Heights, MA, USA.
- Thompson, M., Ellis, R., Wildarsky, A. (1990). *Cultural Theory*. Westview Press, Boulder, Colorado.
- Tobin, G.A. (1999). Sustainability and community resilience: the holy grail of hazards planning? *Environmental Hazard*, 1: 13-25.
- Tomascik, T., A. J. Mah, A. Nontji, and M. K. Moosa. (1997). The Ecology of the Indonesian Seas, Part 1. Vol. VII, The Ecology of Indonesia Series. Singapore: Periplus Editions (HK) Ltd.
- Tompkins, E. L. and W. N. Adger. (2004). Does adaptive management of natural resources enhance resilience to climate change? *Ecology and Society*, 9(2): 10.
- Tundi Agardy, M. (1994). Advances in marine conservation: the role of marine protected areas. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 9(7): 267-270.

- Vayda, A. P., and B. J. McCay. 1975. New Directions in Ecology and Ecological Anthropology. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 4: 293-306.
- Vincent, K. (2007). Uncertainty in adaptive capacity and the importance of scale. *Global Environmental Change*, 17(1): 12-24.
- Wahle, C., S. Lyons, K. Barba, L. Bunce, P. Fricke, E. Nicholson, M. Orbach, C. Pomeroy, H. Recksiek and J. Uravitch. (2003). Social Science Research Strategy for Marine Protected Areas. National Marine Protected Areas Center, MPA Science Institute, Santa Cruz CA.
- Walker, B., S. Carpenter, J. Anderies, N. Abel, G. S. Cumming, M. Janssen, L. Lebel, J. Norberg, G. D. Peterson, and R. Pritchard. 2002. Resilience management in social-ecological systems: a working hypothesis for a participatory approach. *Conservation Ecology*, 6(1): 14.
- Walker, B. and J. A. Meyers. 2004. Thresholds in ecological and social–ecological systems: a developing database. *Ecology and Society*, 9(2): 3.
- Walker, B., Holling, C.S., Carpenter, S.R., Kinzig, A. (2004). Resilience, adaptability and transformability in social-ecological systems. *Ecology and Society*, 9(2): 5
- Walker, B. (2005). A resilience approach to integrated assessment. *Integrated Assessment*, 5(1): 77-97.
- Walker, B., L. H. Gunderson, A. P. Kinzig, C. Folke, S. R. Carpenter, and L. Shultz. (2006). A handful of heuristics and some propositions for understanding resilience in social-ecological systems. *Ecology and Society*, 11(1): 13.
- Wollenberg, E., Edmunds, D., & Buck, L. (2000). Using scenarios to make decisions about the future: anticipatory learning for the adaptive co-management of community forests. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 47(1): 65-77.
- Young, M. D., & McCay, B. J. (1995). Building equity, stewardship, and resilience into market-based property rights systems. Property Rights in Social and Ecological Context: Concepts and Case Studies. Washington/DC: World Bank, 87-102.
- Yorque, R., B. Walker, C. S. Holling, L. H. Gunderson, C. Folke, S. R. Carpenter, and W. A. Brock. (2002). Toward an integrative synthesis. Page 419-438 in L. H. Gunderson and C.S. Holling. Eds. *Panarchy: understanding transformation of human and natural systems*. Island Press, Washington, D.C., USA.
- Zeller, D., and E. G. Carmines. (1980). *Measurement in the Social Sciences*. Cambridge University Press, London.

Zimmerer, K.S. (1994). Human geography and the 'new ecology': the prospect and promise of integration. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 84: 108–125.