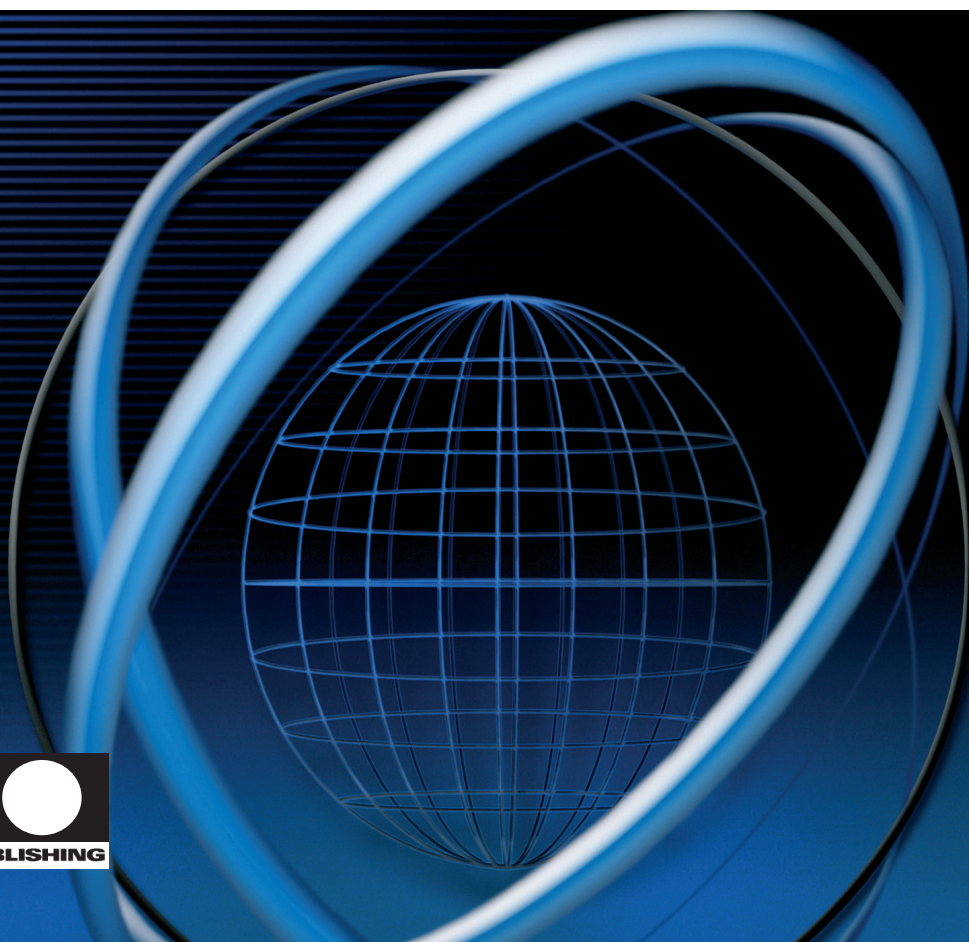




The Development Dimension

Fishing for Coherence

**FISHERIES AND DEVELOPMENT
POLICIES**



The Development Dimension

Fishing for Coherence

FISHERIES AND DEVELOPMENT POLICIES



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Rechercher la cohérence

LES PÊCHERIES ET LES POLITIQUES DE DÉVELOPPEMENT

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Foreword

Fisheries is a key sector of concern in conserving our common global resources. In both OECD and non-OECD countries, fisheries contributes about one per cent of GDP. However, its economic and social weight is significantly higher: the fisheries sector is vital for millions of people in developing countries, providing livelihoods, nutrition and protein, especially to the poorest, and a reserve of wealth for economic growth and development. The mismanagement, degradation and over-use of fisheries throughout the world are therefore of paramount concern. Part of the answer lies in a better understanding of the interaction of fisheries and other policies and their impacts on development and sustainable development.

For these reasons, the Committee for Fisheries of the OECD decided to examine issues of policy coherence for development in relation to the fisheries sector in 2003. It commissioned a study to scope out the issues and discussed drafts of the study at successive sessions of the Committee, resulting in the report contained in this volume.

The aim has been to establish a good understanding of fisheries policy coherence, including economic impacts, to underpin the establishment of appropriate institutional mechanisms for improved coherence, and to examine capacity-building requirements. This report provides a conceptual basis for analysing policy coherence for development in fisheries, established by delineating five main non-sectoral domains of policy investigation in relation to fisheries: environmental, technology, economic, social, and governance policies. Within this analytical framework, the study compares fisheries in developing and developed countries. The usefulness of the framework is illustrated through ten country and regional case studies. In addition, two typologies are developed. The first will assist policy makers to identify fisheries coherence issues that may be internal, vertical, horizontal or transnational, and the second helps to clarify to what extent policy coherence has been achieved, partially achieved, is not a priority, or has been neglected altogether. Key areas for a future research agenda are elaborated in the study.

The Committee for Fisheries agreed to the publication of the study, under the author's responsibility, as a special chapter in the 2005 edition of its flagship publication, *Review of Fisheries in OECD Countries: Policies and Summary Statistics*. At its 95th session of April 2005 it decided to continue working on aspects of policy coherence for development in the future. The Committee for Fisheries will engage fisheries experts through the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) in a dialogue on these issues during a Workshop in April 2006, so that both policy communities can better work together and develop good practice.

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The main report in this book has been written by Dr. Arthur Neiland, IDDRA, Portsmouth, United Kingdom, co-ordinated by Carl-Christian Schmidt, and feeds into the OECD's project on policy coherence for development, co-ordinated by Alexandra Trzeciak-Duval. It has been produced by Emily Andrews-Chouicha and Maria Consolati. Financing from the Government of the United Kingdom is gratefully acknowledged.

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Executive Summary

The objective of this scoping study, *Fishing for Coherence: Fisheries and Development Policies*, is to explore areas within fisheries where policy coherence could be an issue. Policy coherence as a subject area is about 10 years old and the associated literature continues to expand each year. Policy coherence in fisheries is little studied, but it is becoming clear that policy coherence is increasingly important for international policy development in key areas such as poverty reduction.

The scoping study was conducted in five phases: (i) review of key themes; (ii) examination of the conceptual basis for fisheries policy coherence; (iii) comparison of fisheries in OECD and non-OECD countries, including the presentation of 10 case-studies of policy coherence (or incoherence) from around the world; (iv) presentation of typology of policy coherence in fisheries; and (v) identification of future research needs.

The concept of policy coherence applies to many areas of policy making, but has mostly been examined in the context of sustainable development, development co-operation, aid and poverty reduction policies. There are a number of causes of incoherence, with political will recognised as the most decisive. Other important causes revolve around a lack of information and understanding of the impacts of policies on one another, inadequate decision making related to information and distribution of power, and a lack of policy co-ordination. The impacts of incoherence include weak policy performance and thus a wastage or inefficient use of national resources. Against a background of increasingly tight government budgets policy coherence therefore becomes an important area of research.

The OECD's Development Assistance Committee (DAC) has identified seven priority areas where greater policy coherence is needed to reduce poverty: trade and foreign direct investment; economic and financial issues; agriculture and food security; natural resources and the environment, including fisheries; social issues; governance; and conflict and security. Pressures have been increasing at the international and national levels to enhance policy coherence for development, notably in relation to the Doha Development Round and, for Europe, through the Treaties of Maastricht and Amsterdam. In response, numerous policies, procedures and analytical tools have been adopted in recent years at the national level to further policy coherence in OECD member countries. Measuring policy coherence in a more objective and quantitative manner remains a challenge.

These broad themes can be applied to understand the nature and occurrence of policy coherence and incoherence in fisheries, as well as the opportunities and

constraints to improved coherence between fisheries and development policies. The conceptual basis for policy coherence in fisheries is grounded in a number of important issues related to: fisheries management; technological approaches to fisheries; fisheries governance; institutional and participatory arrangements; and the observation that the broader role of fisheries may be quite different when comparing developed and developing country contexts.

In order to probe issues of policy coherence for development in fisheries it is therefore important to compare fisheries in OECD and non-OECD countries. The comparison is undertaken in five main policy domains: environment, technology, economics, social issues, and governance. The comparison highlights the implications and priorities for global fisheries policy coherence in each of these domains as illustrated through 10 case-studies of policy coherence (or incoherence) from around the world. For each case study, the policy coherence issue is examined, the development impact is analysed, and the approach to resolution and future action is presented. This systematic treatment leads to a number of conclusions for each policy area.

The importance of fisheries worldwide and the range of benefits for both developed and developing countries are revealed, as well as the increasing globalisation and inter-connectedness between fisheries and nation states. The challenges of ensuring effective fisheries management are illustrated, including the need to take analytical account of different governance and policy contexts and processes to enable scope for improvements to be identified. Policy coherence consistently emerges as an important issue in all policy domains and at various levels (international to local). Often policy statements appear coherent, but the implementation may be incoherent and potentially damaging. Fisheries and development policies between OECD and non-OECD countries illustrate the problem. The analysis suggests a need to classify types of policy coherence issues in fisheries in order to inform policy analysis and formulation and help the decision maker.

Four main types of policy coherence issues in fisheries are identified and each of the 10 case studies is classified accordingly. This typology offers an organising framework towards a better understanding of fisheries and development coherence issues and can help answer key questions. For example, is the national fisheries policy coherent with respect to the integration of the artisanal and industrial fisheries sectors? Is policy coherent at all levels, from international to local, for example in the area of fisheries trade (transnational) and development policies? Is fisheries policy coherent with other sectoral policies, notably environmental policy? A complementary typology allows policy makers to gauge the extent to which policy-makers have addressed coherence.

On the basis of the issues and themes of the study, future research needs are identified. The proposed research programme aims to establish a good understanding of

policy coherence for development in fisheries from a number of perspectives and to lay out the institutional basis for achieving fisheries coherence objectives through lessons learned and good practice approaches.

Several overall conclusions and considerations emerge from this work. Policy coherence in general (including fisheries) is dominated by descriptive work, and there is a need to extend the work undertaken to include more in-depth analysis of political, economic and social issues. Policy coherence and incoherence both within and between OECD and non-OECD countries has a major impact on the livelihoods and poverty status, economic performance, social conditions, and food supply of millions of people throughout the world. Policy coherence is often complex and presents many analytical challenges in attempting to identify, characterise and unravel the causes and identify practical solutions to policy incoherence. There is a need better to understand governance and the relationship to fisheries management and the policy process as a basis for analysing policy coherence. Finally, there is a need to develop a programme of research on policy coherence in fisheries to improve the understanding of key issues, to assess economic, social and other impacts, and to further explore the possibilities for addressing policy coherence at all geographical levels, local, national and international.

The annexes to this study are of interest as well, notably the glossary of French into English and English into French names of over one thousand types of fish and fish products. Bon Appétit!

Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACP	African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States
CAP	Common Agricultural Policy (EU)
CCA	Common Country Assessment (IMF)
CCAMLR	The Convention of the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources)
CCRF	Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (FAO)
CEC	Commission of the European Community
CEU	The Council of the European Union
CFP	Common Fisheries Policy (EU)
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DAC	Development Assistance Committee (OECD)
DAF	Development Assistance Framework (IMF)
DC	Developed country
DevC	Developing country
DFID	Department for International Development (United Kingdom)
DWF	Distant water fishing
DWFN	Distant water fishing nations
EC	European Commission
EEZ	Exclusive economic zone
EU	European Union
FIGIS	Fisheries Global Information System (FAO)
FOREX	Foreign exchange
FPA	Fishing Partnership Agreements (EU)
GDP	Gross domestic product
GMO	Genetically-modified organism
GT	Gross tonnage
ICSEAF	International Commission for SE Atlantic Fisheries

IPOA-IUU	International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate IUU fishing (FAO)
IDDDRA	Institut du Développement Durable et des Ressources Aquatiques
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IUU	Illegal, unreported and unregulated (fishing)
LIFDC	Low income food deficit country
LFA	Logical framework approach
MCS	Monitoring, Control and Surveillance
MFN	Most Favoured Nation (WTO)
MRAG	Marine Resources Assessment Group
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NSSD	National Strategies for Sustainable Development (OECD)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OVI	Objectively Verifiable Indicator
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (World Bank)
RFMO	Regional Fisheries Management Organisation
SD	Sustainable Development
SOLAS	Safety of Life at Sea
SWAp	Sector Wide Approach
UN	United Nations
UNCLOS	UN Conference on the Law of the Sea
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UN FAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation
USD	United States dollar
WHAT	World Humanity Action Trust
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development (Johannesburg, 2003)
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Preface

The UN Millennium Summit, the Monterey Consensus, the Doha Development Agenda, the Johannesburg World Summit for Sustainable Development and the headline development meetings of 2005 have kept whole-of-government approaches to development high on the international agenda. Coherent or ‘joined up’ policies across government that support development objectives are an important contribution to the achievement of sustainable development worldwide and of the Millennium Development Goals. The aim of policy coherence is a better alignment of national development objectives across the policies that potentially affect developing countries.

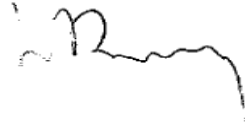
Policy coherence for development only takes on real meaning for policy makers when it is applied to specific policy domains and concrete cases. We have jointly supported the investigation of coherence issues between fisheries and development co-operation policies to establish a better understanding of the issues at stake.

The study in this volume has confirmed the strong linkages between OECD and non-OECD countries in terms of fisheries management and development, and the impact of policy coherence in both sets of countries on livelihoods, on economic performance, and on the social conditions and food supply of large numbers of people throughout the world. Its initial discussion in the OECD Fisheries Committee has shown the utility of concrete examples to illustrate the advantages of coherent, synergistic policies, as well as the damage from incoherent ones. Among other things, the study has drawn attention to the fact that policy statements often appear coherent, for example in integrating environmental and economic policy, but the resulting implementation can be incoherent and damaging. The key message from the analysis is that most member countries still need to invest an important effort in ensuring that their fisheries policies take into account the possible impact that they may have on developing countries and on the outcomes of development policies.

This work has already served as the basis for a dialogue among several OECD members at national and regional levels. Further analysis in the Committee for Fisheries and an expert workshop between the two policy communities at the OECD level are intended to deepen the policy analysis and sharpen the dialogue towards joint efforts based on good practice for fisheries and development.



Richard Manning
Chair, Development Assistance
Committee



Lori Ridgeway Chair,
Committee for Fisheries

Chapter 1

Introduction

The factor of ‘change’ has been critically important in the history of the world. Today the 168 countries which make up the international community face a range of challenges relating to such major changes as the globalisation of world markets, the worldwide revolution in media and communications, the spread of pandemic diseases and the change in global climate. What is also apparent is that not all countries will experience the impact of, or react to, these important changes in the same way. In effect, change will bring a mixture of opportunities (and potential benefits) and threats (and potential costs) depending upon the perspective taken and the circumstances prevailing in each country.

However, overall, it can be asserted that the capacity to manage change will be far greater in developed countries compared to developing countries. The latter, by definition, do not yet possess the full complement of ‘capital’ – human or otherwise – required to cope with increasingly dynamic environmental, economic, social and political conditions. In the long-run, the implications of the divergent ability to cope with impacts and change between countries are very serious. Inevitably, it will mean that the opportunities for the international community of countries to work together to address global challenges will be lessened over time.

But what can be done to address this situation? At the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in September 2003, Donald Johnston, Secretary General of the OECD, concluded that:

“...the OECD membership must accept the lead responsibility to address the challenges of sustainable development of the planet, not just of their own needs within their own respective societies” (p.1)

The need for OECD and non-OECD countries to work together in partnership to address common problems was also given emphasis at the WSSD. The building of an effective partnership will require efforts in many areas. For a start, there is a general need to better understand the relationship between OECD (developed) and non-OECD (developing countries). In this context, over the past 10 years, the issue of ‘policy coherence’ has

emerged as an area of increasing interest and analysis. The extent to which government policy, both within and between countries, and covering a full range of policy areas (environmental, economic, social and political) are mutually supportive in promoting global development is clearly a fundamental issue of the highest importance. It can be argued that the promotion of policy coherence (as opposed to policy incoherence) is a pathway by which the gap between developed and developing countries can be closed and global international co-operation encouraged (Anon, 1997; 2003).

In the following report, the results of a scoping study which set out to investigate policy coherence in fisheries are presented. For many developing countries, natural resources such as fisheries represent fundamental building blocks for future development. Throughout the world, fisheries can provide a range of benefits including a source of wealth for economic growth, a means of livelihood for millions of people and a source of food protein. However, the realisation of these potential benefits requires effective management and a favourable policy environment. Past experience has shown that the achievement of these conditions is difficult and influenced by a range of factors, and not least of these is policy coherence. However, at the present time, our knowledge and understanding of these relationships and how they might be handled in the future is still relatively limited.

In March 2003, the OECD Committee for Fisheries agreed on the desirability of integrating policy coherence into its substantive work. In late 2003, the Secretariat commissioned IDDRA to undertake a scoping study of policy coherence in fisheries.¹

Definition of Objectives and Outputs

Overall objective and context of study

The overall objective of this study is to further explore areas within the fisheries context where policy coherence could be an issue (the OECD has already undertaken a preliminary identification of relevant policy areas for examination as outlined in the Terms of Reference.

¹ The Terms of Reference for IDDRA undertaking this study are:

The purpose of the proposed scoping study is to further explore areas within the fisheries context where policy coherence could be an issue. This includes an identification of policy coherence linkages in fisheries and an in-depth description of the issues involved. Furthermore the consultant will identify relevant domestic policy frameworks that need to be addressed if policy coherence is to be achieved. If feasible, the consultant will also endeavour to describe the governance issues involved *i.e.* identify the ministries/administrative units and stakeholder groups where an effort towards integrating policy coherence is necessary to achieve the objective.

The focus of the work is the relationship between developed and developing countries in terms of fisheries exploitation, development and management. From the perspective of OECD countries, policy coherence within this context means:

- Taking into account the needs and interests of developing countries in the development of domestic and international policies. It is assumed that this will lead to a balanced and equitable evolution of the global economy in which developed and developing countries are reaping the benefits.
- Ensuring that benefits are distributed in a mutually re-enforceable and constructive way.
- Promoting mutually reinforcing policies across the spectrum of government which creates synergies.
- To seek to ensure that policies, across the range of domestic and international economic activities are symmetric and reinforcing foreign development policies.
- Recognising and addressing the spillover effects of domestic sectoral policies (such as fisheries), and the likely impact of new policies on international development goals.

Specific objectives

In response to the Terms of Reference, the study addresses the following specific objectives:

1. To explore areas of policy coherence in fisheries (linkages and issues); and to focus on areas that are of particular importance and where the welfare gains for a realignment of policies may produce most results.
2. To illustrate the fisheries policy coherence linkages and issues with particular case-studies.
3. To identify domestic policy frameworks that need addressing for policy coherence.
4. To describe the governance issues involved, identifying where possible the government administration units and the relevant stakeholders involved.

Output

The information collected and analysed in this scoping study provides an overview of the subject of policy coherence in fisheries. The report represents an important contribution to knowledge and understanding in this domain, given the limited number of dedicated studies which have been completed to date. The report will help to guide the future work of the OECD in addressing the constraints to global development represented by a lack of policy coherence.

The report addresses each of the objectives, leading to a set of conclusions and considerations for improved policy coherence in global fisheries, with particular reference to the relationship between OECD and non-OECD countries.

It also identifies a preliminary set of future research priorities for fisheries policy coherence, with particular reference to international fisheries development and poverty alleviation.

Approach and Methodology

General considerations

From the outset a number of key factors had to be taken into account in deciding upon the study approach and methodology, including:

- Policy coherence has over the past 10 years developed into a large and complex subject area, with an equally voluminous literature including both formal and grey publications.
- Fisheries policy analysis tends to be dominated by certain assumptions, including the prevalence of the linear policy process, and the role of government officials in pursuing policy improvement for the public good over other political objectives.
- Fisheries policy coherence interacts and overlaps with a range of important concepts and approaches including fisheries development, fisheries management and fisheries governance, and also the policy process, governance and governance-policy contexts.
- Fisheries policy coherence literature, to date, has been dominated by consideration and analysis of international fishing agreements (for example see Acheampong, 1997; ADE-PWC-EPU, 2002; Eurostep [n.d.]).

- The literature on policy coherence contains many detailed descriptive works covering the topic both at a general level and/or dealing with the issue(s) at a local or sectoral level (for example, Eurostep [n.d.] on the CAP).

Study phases

In response to these key factors, the scoping study has adopted the following approach and methodology, which was implemented in five phases, as shown in Box 1.1 below.

The findings of each of the five phases are reported in the next four sections to follow below. The report was completed with a set of key conclusions and suggestions for how policy coherence may be improved.

Box 1.1. Study approach and methodology – Five phases

Phase 1: Definitions and themes in policy coherence

- The scoping study commenced with a search of the international literature, with the objective in mind of identifying and highlighting prominent works in the field of policy coherence in general. As a follow-on, a selection of key works were collated and used as a basis to identify major themes in policy coherence, and to clarify important terminology and definitions.

Phase 2: Conceptual basis for fisheries policy coherence

- The concept of policy coherence in fisheries was then explored and defined, with reference to the general context provided by the findings of Phase 1. The relationship between fisheries policy coherence and other key concepts in fisheries was examined including fisheries management systems, fisheries development and poverty, fisheries governance, governance, the policy context and the policy process.

Phase 3: Fisheries in developed and developing countries compared

- A comparison was then undertaken between fisheries in developed and developing countries, using a simple analytical framework. A range of key characteristics within the 5 domains of environment, technology, economy, social issues and governance were examined using published information and drawing upon statistics from the UN FAO (FIGIS). In effect, this comparative exercise initiated the process of highlighting specific fisheries policy coherence issues; attention was paid to both sectoral factors in fisheries (e.g. objectives of fisheries policy), and non-sectoral factors (e.g. international architecture of agreements relating to the environment, investment, trade, labour movements etc) which affect policy coherence; a set of 10 case-studies of fisheries policy coherence were identified and examined covering the 5 policy domains.

Phase 4: A typology of fisheries policy coherence issues

- Drawing upon the findings and perspectives provided by the previous phases, a set of key policy coherence issues in fisheries were presented and explored within a simple typology; using this framework, the opportunities for and constraints to improvements in policy coherence in the future were examined.

Phase 5: Identification of future research priorities

- To round-off the scoping study, a set of research priorities for the future were identified, and organised into a simple research programme using a logical framework approach (LFA).

Chapter 2

An Overview of Policy Coherence

The objective of this chapter is to provide an overview of the subject of “policy coherence” based on a review of the literature. As a starting point, a number of definitions are provided in Box 2.1 below.

Box 2.1. Policy coherence – some definitions

OECD (1996) (p. 8)

- (i) In its broadest sense, coherence implies an overall state of mutual consistency among different policies.
- (ii) “Coherence may ... be defined as a policy whose objectives, within a given policy framework, are internally consistent and attuned to objectives pursued within other policy frameworks of the system – as a minimum, these objectives should not be conflicting; where strategies and mechanisms are attuned to the objectives, they should, as a minimum not conflict with the objectives or with the intentions and motives on which these are based; and where the outcome is corresponding to the intentions and objectives, it should, as a minimum not conflict with these”.

Hoebink (2001) (p. 2-3)

- (iii) “Consistency and coherency of thought and statement ...mean free from self-contradiction’.
- (iv) Coherency of policy is ... “The non-occurrence of effects of policy that are contrary to the intended results or aims of policy”.
- (v) A narrow definition is ... “that objectives of policy in a particular field may not be undermined or obstructed by actions or activities in this field”.
- (vi) A wide definition is ... “that objectives of policy in a particular field may not be undermined or obstructed by actions or activities of government in that field or on other policy fields”.

Molina (n.d.) (p. 244-245)

- (vii) Policy coherence is a policy:
 - Whose objectives, strategies and mechanisms are attuned.
 - These objectives should reinforce each other, or at a minimum, not conflict between them.
 - Objectives should be strengthened by the intentions or motives on which they are based.
 - The policy outcome should correspond to the intentions and objectives.
 - And, reinforce the other policies pursued within the framework of the system, or at least not having a negative impact on them.

Introduction, definitions and themes

The three definitions in Box 2.1 converge on the same set of principles which make up the concept of policy coherence. In essence, *policy coherence is ensuring that policies are co-ordinated and complementary and not contradictory*, as explained by Weston and Pierre-Antoine (2003).

The international literature on policy coherence is large and expanding each year as the concept is explored in an increasing number of policy areas. An overview of some of the themes which appear prominently in this literature is given in Box 2.2 below:

Box 2.2. Policy coherence – An overview of recent themes in the literature

1. Policy coherence is a relatively new concept and area of work.
2. Policy coherence is now integrally linked to development policy.
3. Policy coherence is a fundamental attribute of good governance.
4. Policy coherence is important to ensure effective and efficient policy performance, avoidance of waste and government credibility.
5. Examples of a lack of policy coherence can be found in all policy domains, but DAC has drawn up a list of 7 priority areas with reference to development and poverty reduction (described below).
6. Policy coherence has become a pressing issue and international organisations and governments have responded.
7. Policy coherence with the underlying aim of promoting global development is justifiable.
8. Reasons for a lack of policy coherence (or incoherence) fall into 4 basic categories: political decisions, lack of information, inadequate decision making; and lack of policy co-ordination.
9. Guidelines for improved policy coherence have been identified.
10. Approaches for improved policy coherence have also drawn some criticism; the measurement of the impact of a lack of policy coherence is underdeveloped, and most evaluations tend to be descriptive.

It is worthwhile examining each of these ten themes in more detail to provide a solid platform for the analysis of fisheries policy coherence to follow in later chapters below.

A new subject area

First, it is recognised that policy coherence is a relatively new subject area, and although numerous governments have committed to it in principle, the concept and its use in policy analysis, have rarely been examined (Molina, nd). There are a number of reasons for this – policy incoherence is difficult to observe and most governments tend to be reactive to such problems, and on the whole, because of the nature of the policy process in democratic societies, with competing interest groups, policy coherence is a difficult objective to attain.

Linkage to development policy

Second, the concept of policy coherence has been used mostly within the context of sustainable development, development co-operation, aid policies and poverty reduction. The donor community, and especially through the OECD's Development Assistance Committee (DAC), has played a key role in promoting the concept of policy coherence as well as designing guidelines for use in the review of donor performance (see for example Cox, 1999; Herfkens, 2000; NSSD, 2003; O'Brien and Vourc'h, 2001; OECD, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003; Quadir and Morshed, 2001). The DAC's primary purpose is to ensure that donor policies in a broad range of areas at best enhance, and at least do not undermine, efforts directed at poverty reduction (Weston and Pierre-Antoine, 2003). Before looking at the next themes, it should also be noted that the issue of policy coherence has also been examined in other fields besides that of development. For example, Persson (2002) provides a good introduction to the subject of "environmental policy integration". Clearly, there exist opportunities for lesson-learning between the various disciplines which are now focusing on policy coherence.

Governance principle

Third, although policy coherence appears to be now linked to development policy, coherence of policy is in principle important to every field of government policy and therefore to governance in this sense (see Christiansen, 2001; Jones, 2002; UNECA, 2003; WHAT, 2001). Policy coherence is a minimum requirement for government according to Box and Koulimah-Gabriel (1997).

Impact of policy incoherence

Fourth, it follows from that, in the case of ineffective government and associated policy incoherence, certain impacts may occur including weak policy performance (certain intended results of policy may be partially or completely frustrated) and conflict between policies (the attainment of objectives in a particular policy field could be hampered by action taken in other policy fields). Weak policy performance may also result in the wastage (or inefficient usage) of national resources (von Urff, 2000).

Government authorities might lose their legitimacy and credibility if policy incoherence is not addressed and managed to lessen its effects (Hoebink, 2001; Lobe, 2003; Macrae and Leader, 2000).

DAC priority areas

Fifth, although examples of policy incoherence can be found in almost every policy field dealt with by government, with particular reference to development and poverty reduction, the DAC (2001) has drawn up a list of seven priority areas as follows:

Box 2.3. Policy coherence and poverty reduction – DAC priority areas

- International trade (in goods, service and technology) and foreign direct investment.
- Economic and financial issues (e.g. macro-economic policies, portfolio investment, international financial architecture, debt).
- Agriculture and food security (including trade, food aid, research and GMOs).
- Natural resources and the environment (global, regional, local environment issues, use of renewable and non-renewable resources, trade agreements).
- Social issues (such as education, health, social safety nets and migration).
- Governance (including human rights, labour rights, responsive public institutions).
- Conflict and security (including conflict prevention and the arms trade).

Pressing issue

Sixth, as well as the important work of the DAC, policy coherence has emerged as a pressing issue for other reasons (Ashoff, 2002; Maxwell *et al.* 2003; Weston and Pierre-Antoine, 2003). At the international level, there has been increasing attention given to promoting policy coherence, particularly in discussions about trade, finance and development. At the end of the Uruguay Round (1994) it was agreed that the WTO would co-operate with the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) to achieve greater coherence in global economic policy-making. This was pursued further at Doha (2001). At Monterrey (2002), the consensus document underlined the need for the UN, the World Bank, the IMF and the WTO to address issues of coherence, co-ordination and co-operation in the international monetary, financial, trading and development systems, while recognising that governments needed “to continue to improve our domestic policy coherence through the continued engagement of our ministries of development, finance, trade and foreign affairs, as well as our central banks” (para 52, 69,71).

In Europe, the Treaties of Maastricht (1992) and Amsterdam (1997) first enshrined in law the requirement of coherence between development policies and other policies, for example:

“The community shall take account of the objectives [of its development policy] in the policies that it implements which are likely to affect the developing countries”. (Article 178 of the Treaty of Amsterdam)

Formally, this article applies only to the Community and not to the Member States (which are, however, required by Article 10 to act in the Community’s best interests) but it represents an important point of reference.

At the national level, many developed countries have already implemented or are developing policies and procedures for enhancing policy coherence including Canada, Finland, Germany, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States. These range from a Cabinet Committee to oversee policy coherence (*e.g.* the Netherlands’ Council for European and International Affairs) to a consultative commission including civil society organisations (CSOs) (*e.g.* in Switzerland) and a regulation requiring all legislation to be reviewed by the Ministry for Economic Co-operation and Development (*e.g.* Germany) to a law requiring that the country’s agriculture, migration, trade, environment and others policies must align to fight poverty and promote sustainable development (Sweden).

Also, at the national level in developing countries, there is continuing pressure on governments to develop coherent sets of policies. While the focus today in many countries has been on the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), other approaches include the World Bank’s Comprehensive Development Framework, the UN’s Common Country Assessment and Development Assistance Framework (CCA/DAF), or a Sector-Wide Approach (SWAp). Donors are encouraged to work within the same frameworks.

Global perspective

Seventh, the fact that policy coherence is now integrally linked with development policy has raised the question in many countries of whether development policy should take precedence over other national policies (Ashoff, 2002). The answer, of course, is that the question is a very difficult one, and that the answer depends on circumstances. What is certain is that other policies must take greater account of partner countries’ development prospects and of global development objectives (see for example DFID, 2003). The importance of development policy can be justified from the emergence of overriding objectives to serve as a guideline for determining the contributions to be made by various policies to coherence. Recent world conferences (Rio 1992, Vienna 1993, Copenhagen 1995, Johannesburg 2000) have helped to universalise pivotal values (*e.g.* sustainable development and human rights) and define global development

priorities which must be taken into account in policy processes. In addition, globalisation and the question of how society can cope with the future have led to an intensive debate on the shared responsibility of our policies for global development.

Underlying causes of policy incoherence

Eighth, the main causes of policy incoherence fall into four broad categories as shown in Box 2.4 below. Political decisions which over-shadow development agenda are widespread and important. It is generally accepted that political will for policy coherence is ultimately the most decisive factor (see Moore and Putzel [1999] for a general overview of politics and development). This applies to both developed and developing countries (a factor which may undermine country partnerships). Information and understanding about the impacts of policies on other policies are critical. However, the investigation and evaluation of cause and effect within the complexity of the development process are difficult, and this undermines the design of appropriate policy approaches (Dunn, 2002). Decision making is dependent on information and the capacity to use it, and within a national context, it will also depend on the distribution of power between departments and the level of participation in the process overall (will each department have equal voting rights?). These arrangements will require co-ordination and may require a supra-departmental level of organisation or institutional development to achieve this (Eurostep, n.d.).

Box 2.4. The four principle causes of policy incoherence

- Political decisions.
- Lack of information and understanding.
- Inadequate decision making.
- Lack of policy co-ordination.

Improving policy coherence

Ninth, various organisations have proposed solutions to the problem of policy incoherence. In particular, the OECD (2002a) has produced a policy brief on “Improving Policy Coherence and Integration for Sustainable Development: a Checklist” based on the findings from case-studies in five countries. Five criteria have been identified and constitute some of the fundamental elements that need to be borne in mind when assessing institutional and decision making practices for sustainable development, as shown in Box 2.5 below:

Box 2.5. Checklist on improving policy coherence and integration for sustainable development: Five criteria

1. Is there a common understanding of sustainable development?
2. Is there a clear commitment and leadership?
3. Are conditions in place to steer sustainable development integration?
4. Is stakeholder involvement in decision making encouraged?
5. Is the diversity of knowledge and the scientific input to problems adequately managed?

Source: OECD (2002a).

Further analysis

Finally, the tenth theme on policy coherence which can be derived from the international literature focuses on the important questions of identification, assessment and evaluation. It has already been mentioned above that many of the published works on policy coherence are detailed and descriptive. The issue of how to identify and measure policy coherence in a more objective and quantitative manner is a challenging area of work, which is common to policy analysis in general. The development of indicators of policy performance (and policy coherence) which can be quantified in a standardised manner over time, and fed back into the policy process, with particular reference to sustainable development will require significant research and development efforts in the future.

Chapter 3

The Conceptual Basis for Fisheries Policy Coherence

Introduction

In the following section, the concept of fisheries policy coherence will be explored very briefly from a number of different perspectives. Building upon the ideas and themes connected with policy coherence in general, as highlighted in the previous section, the objective here is to highlight the relationship between fisheries policy coherence and other important concepts and approaches used in analysing fisheries, with a particular focus on the interplay between fisheries and development policies.

There are three reasons for undertaking this exercise as follows:

- i. To understand the nature of fisheries policy coherence from a range of perspectives.
- ii. To provide a sound basis for analysing the occurrence and evolution of fisheries policy coherence and policy incoherence.
- iii. To enable a better understanding of the opportunities and constraints to improved fisheries policy coherence.

As a starting point, a total of six different, but at the same time inter-related concepts and approaches have been chosen for this exercise: three from the domain of fisheries policy analysis and three from policy analysis in general, as shown in Box 3.1. For each policy domain in turn the key concepts and approaches or principles were considered, and then the linkages to the concept of (fisheries) policy coherence were identified, with reference to the “OECD Checklist on improving policy coherence and integration for sustainable development” (Box 2.5 above). The results are shown in Table 3.1 below.

Box 3.1. Key concepts in fisheries policy and policy analysis

Fisheries policy analysis:

- Fisheries management systems
- Fisheries development and poverty reduction
- Fisheries governance

Policy analysis in general:

- Governance
- Policy context (or policy situations)
- Policy process

Fisheries management systems

First, *fisheries management systems* have three basic levels of conceptualisation – the fisheries science paradigm, the human sciences approach and the fisheries system approach, which, in simple terms, have emerged in this sequence over the past 50 years. The focus of management has changed from the resource (through fishing effort control), to the key actor (the control of fisher behaviour), and onto a wider consideration of the fishery system (the regulation of different elements of the system at the same time). The implications of this changing perspective on the nature and functioning of fisheries management systems for policy coherence are three-fold: (i) the early simple management approaches were narrowly-focused and did not recognise the potential conflict between fisheries management objectives and their impacts; (ii) the later concepts which focus on human sciences and systems in fisheries certainly take into account a range of management objectives and policies, and their interaction; (iii) the later approaches generate and utilise a wide range of multi-disciplinary information, but there is concern whether this can be used effectively to develop new fisheries management systems. With reference to the OECD Policy coherence checklist (Box 2.5 above), clearly, the broadening and increased level of complexity of the analysis of fisheries management systems is, in the first instance, related to the adequacy of knowledge management (Issue No. 5).

Fisheries development and poverty reduction

Second, the concept of *fisheries development and poverty reduction* has also evolved over the past 50 years. Early approaches assumed that by increasing fisheries production, the welfare of fishers would also be increased through increased incomes. Fisheries development programmes therefore focused primarily on the technological factors to increase catch (modern vessels and gears). However, this productionist and technological approach to development has not performed well in general, and not only have fishers remained poor, but there has also been an erosion of the resource base. In recent years, a re-consideration of fisheries development and the nature of poverty in

fisheries has led to the evolution of more broadly-based approaches using a multi-disciplinary perspective (natural and social sciences) and a consideration of both sectoral and inter-sectoral relationships. The emergence of the concept of sustainable livelihoods in fisheries, and the general context provided by the concept of sustainable development has been important in this respect. However, with regards to policy coherence in fisheries, there is still much work to be done in terms of ensuring that there is a widespread understanding by all stakeholders of the role of fisheries in sustainable development, and that this is reflected in appropriate policies (OECD Policy Coherence Checklist Criteria No. 1, Box 2.5 above).

Fisheries governance

Third, the concept of *fisheries governance* has emerged in the past 10 years in response to changing perspectives on the nature of fisheries management and the role of government. In the past fisheries management was often taken to refer to purely government action, or technocratic and narrowly science-based expressions of fisheries management. More recent perspectives on fisheries management (as identified above) have been more broad-based, and have considered the roles of government and other stakeholders, leading to the emergence of approaches such as co-management. The term “fisheries governance” acknowledges the importance of societal interaction, reciprocity between government and governed, and the normalisation of only those rules meeting a high degree of social consensus. With regards to fisheries policy coherence, the development of fisheries management policy using principles derived from concepts such as fisheries governance is important and relevant for the future involvement and benefit of all stakeholders (OECD Policy Coherence Checklist Criteria No. 4, Box 2.5 above).

Governance

Fourth, the concept of *governance* has become more prominent in the context of development in the past 20 years (indicated by the increased usage of the term “governance” in the literature). It is, of course, directly related to fisheries governance, but at the same time, it is important to recognise the “bigger picture” to which this specific term refers. In the past, governance was defined as what governments do (*e.g.* the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources). More recently, the concept of governance has been re-oriented and broadened to emphasise that it includes the totality of interactive activities and institutional arrangements, in which all stakeholders participate to address society’s goals and needs. With reference to policy coherence, this new conceptualisation draws attention to the need to be aware of the many factors which can influence the appropriate governance conditions (“good governance”) required to steer sustainable development integration (OECD Policy Coherence Checklist Criteria No. 3, Box 2.5 above).

Policy context

Fifth, the concept of *policy context* or *policy situation* highlights some of the important differences between developed and developing countries. In general, in developed countries there tends to be a high understanding of the policy process and policy changes tend to be small and incremental. The policy issues to be addressed are chosen through various mechanisms, with a low influence of politics (politics as usual), and society is the major focus of policy. By contrast, in developing countries, there is a low understanding of the policy process and policy changes tend to be large and innovative. The policy process is dominated by pressing problems, with significant political influence, and a focus on the state. The contrast in policy situations outlined here has a number of important implications for policy coherence. Policy formation and policy coherence will be constrained in developing countries due to the weakness of the policy context. The opportunities for ensuring policy coherence between developed and developing countries will also be limited. Overall, the concept of policy context highlights the importance of having appropriate conditions in place to steer sustainable development integration both within and between different countries (OECD Policy Coherence Checklist Criteria No. 3, Box 2.5 above).

Policy process

Sixth, the concept of the *policy process* has also undergone an evolution in recent years. Initially, the policy process (linear or rational model), including both policy formation and implementation, was seen as a problem-solving process that was rational, balanced, objective and analytical. However, policy research has revealed instead that the policy process tends to be non-linear, consisting of inter-related decisions which evolve over time during implementation, and it is an inherently political process. There are a number of important implications for policy coherence which derive from these contrasting conceptualisations of the policy process. For a start, the early concept (linear model) underestimated the complexity and dynamics of decision making which could affect policy coherence. The later concept (non-linear) attempts to understand the inherently political nature of the policy process and how this can lead to policy coherence or incoherence. A key factor for understanding the performance of the policy process is clear commitment and leadership, which has been identified as important for improving policy coherence and integration for sustainable development (OECD Policy Coherence Checklist Criteria No. 2, Box 2.5 above).

Conclusion

To complete this section, it can be concluded that there are a variety of important relationships between the concept of fisheries policy coherence for development and other key concepts currently used to analyse fisheries and the wider policy context. The preliminary identification and examination of these relationships carried out above, with

particular reference to the OECD Policy Coherence Checklist (Box 2.5), provides a rudimentary framework for a more in-depth consideration of specific examples of fisheries policy coherence and incoherence in Chapter 5 below.

Table 3.1. Linkages between key concepts and policy coherence in fisheries

Key policy concepts	Linkages to fisheries policy coherence and implications for improved policy integration
<p><i>(1) FISHERIES MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS</i> <i>(Charles, 1988; Catanzano and Mesnil, 1995)</i></p>	
<p>3 concepts: (i) fisheries science paradigm; (ii) human sciences approach; (iii) fisheries system approach.</p> <p>The elaboration of increasingly sophisticated concepts for fisheries management systems arise from the limitations of the simple fisheries science approach, and recognition of the need to consider the complexity and context of fishery systems.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early fisheries management policy has been developed using a narrowly-focused approach, which has failed to recognise multiple or conflicting policy objectives. • Newer approaches recognise the need to adopt a multi-disciplinary and inter-sectoral approach to fisheries management to allow for the complexity and context of fisheries. • Wide diversity of knowledge of new approaches is difficult to manage (OECD Policy Coherence Checklist criteria No. 5, Box 2.5 above).
<p><i>(2) FISHERIES DEVELOPMENT and POVERTY REDUCTION</i> <i>(CEC, 2000; Neiland and Béné, 2004; Payne, 2000; Platteau, 1989)</i></p>	
<p>Evolution of concepts and approaches over past 50 years:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early approaches focused on increasing fisheries production through technology inputs (assumed welfare gains). • Later approaches have focused on increasing welfare of fishers through a broader approach which includes fisheries management relating to fisheries livelihoods and poverty alleviation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early fisheries development approaches did not recognise relationship of fisheries to other sectors or policies. • Later fisheries development approaches have placed fisheries in a broader context and attempted to understand inter-sectoral and wider policy relationships. • Role of fisheries development in sustainable development is emerging, but there is a lack of global understanding (OECD Policy Coherence Checklist criteria No. 1; Box 2.5 above).

Key policy concepts	Linkages to fisheries policy coherence and implications for improved policy integration
<p><i>(3) FISHERIES GOVERNANCE</i> <i>(Béné and Neiland, 2004; McGlade, 2001; Nauen, 1995; Neiland & Béné, 2003)</i></p>	
<p>Concept has evolved over past 10 years:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early version equated to purely government action on a fishery (technocratic, science-based fisheries management). • Later approaches have been much broader-based including the roles of government and other stakeholders, and the emergence of co-management arrangements in fisheries. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early approaches did not consider the relationship between government and other stakeholders in fisheries. • Later approaches provide a better basis for defining societal interaction, and good possibilities for fisheries policy coherence. • Stakeholder involvement in fisheries policy decision making is encouraged (OECD Checklist No. 4).
<p><i>(4) GOVERNANCE (Kooiman, 2001; World Bank, 1997)</i></p>	
<p>Concept has re-emerged in past 20 years:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early version: governance is what governments do (...manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources). • Later definitions have emphasised that governance is the totality of interactive activities and institutional arrangements, in which all stakeholders participate to address society's goals, and needs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early approaches did not consider the relationship between governments and other stakeholders in society. • Later approaches provide a better basis for defining societal interaction, and good possibilities for ensuring policy coherence. • Importance of good governance conditions necessary to steer sustainable development integration (OECD Checklist No. 3).
<p><i>(5) POLICY CONTEXT (Barenstein, 1994; Meier, 1995; Swinnen & van der Zee, 1993)</i></p>	
<p>Policy context or situation differs between developed countries (DCs) and developing countries (DevCs):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Former show high-understanding of policy process and policy changes tend to be small and incremental (chosen problems, low politics, society-centred). • Latter show low understanding of policy process and policy changes tend to be large and innovative (pressing problems, high politics, state-centred). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy formation and policy coherence will be constrained in DevCs due to the weakness of the policy context. • The differences between policy contexts in DCs and DevCs will also constrain policy coherence between countries and regions (N-S-N). • Importance of the differing policy contexts in place to steer sustainable development integration between and within DCs and DevCs (OECD Checklist No. 3).

Key policy concepts	Linkages to fisheries policy coherence and implications for improved policy integration
<i>(6) POLICY PROCESS (Sutton, 1999; Keeley and Scoones, 1999)</i>	
<p>Concept of the policy process (formation and implementation) has evolved recently:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early version (Linear [or rational] model): policy-making is seen as a problem-solving process which is rational, balanced, objective and analytical. • Later version: policy process is non-linear, inter-related decisions which evolve over time during implementation, and inherently political process. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Early approach to understanding the policy process underestimated the complexity and dynamics of decision making which could affect policy coherence. • Later approach attempts to understand the inherently political nature of policy formation and implementation, which can give rise to policy coherence or incoherence. • Importance of clear commitment and leadership for improving policy coherence and integration for sustainable development is a key element of understanding the performance of policy process(OECD Checklist No. 2).

Chapter 4

Fisheries in OECD and non-OECD Countries Compared

Introduction

In this section, a comparison will be made between fisheries in the OECD (Developed Countries) and the non-OECD (Developing Countries). The main objective is to highlight the important characteristics of each set of fisheries. The reasons for adopting this approach are three fold:

- To provide an overview of the nature and role of fisheries in developed and developing countries.
- To help to explain and understand the differences and similarities.
- To initiate the identification of policy coherence issues which are connected with the different fisheries, and for which the contrast between OECD and non-OECD fisheries and their context is important.

It has already been pointed out above that the identification and analysis of policy coherence is difficult, due the complexities of policy arrangements and their dynamic nature. Clearly this is something which will need further research and development effort in the future, but for the purposes of this scoping study, the current comparative exercise certainly provides a useful starting point.

It should also be noted that although “fisheries” is the entry-point for this comparative exercise, the framework inevitably steers one to a consideration of both sectoral (fisheries) and non-sectoral (environment, technology, economics, social, governance) issues. In order to provide a further reference point for non-sectoral issues, a summary of the main features of international policy architecture which guide the activities of countries in the five main non-sectoral areas is provided as an aide-mémoire in Annex 2.

A detailed exposition of the comparison between fisheries in OECD and non-OECD countries is provided in Annex 1. Interestingly, this appears to be the first time that this exercise has been conducted in this way, based on a search of the international

literature. The information contained in Annex 1 is derived mainly from FAO (2001). A summary of the key findings is shown in Table 4.1.

In the sub-sections to follow, fisheries in OECD and non-OECD countries are compared in each policy domain, and then the implications and issues for policy coherence are identified and described. Given the large size of the subject area within each policy domain, this represents a challenging exercise. In order to simplify matters and to provide a starting point for debate, a series of 10 case-studies have been selected to highlight important issues. Given the importance of the EU in world fisheries, and the high level of accessibility of information relating to EU policy and legislation (for example, through the European Commission website), 5 out of the 10 case-studies focus on the EU, including the issues of bi-lateral fishing agreements, trade and fisheries development approaches.

Environment

Overview

In the first policy domain of the environment, two key elements have been used to compare fisheries in OECD and non-OECD countries – (1.1.) Aquatic ecosystems and (1.2.) Fish resources.

OECD fisheries are largely located in temperate and productive ecosystems. There is a significant amount of interaction with other sectors, and in general there exists a good level of scientific knowledge of these systems. However, the OECD fisheries resources (fish stocks) are either fully exploited or over-exploited. By contrast, non-OECD fisheries are located mainly in tropical ecosystems of variable productivity; interaction with other sectors is minimal and overall the scientific knowledge base is also lower. Most importantly, the non-OECD fisheries are either under- or moderately exploited, or fully-exploited or overexploited (depleted), in comparison with OECD fisheries.

With regards to international policy, a number of key elements are relevant to consideration of the environment in general (Annex 2). First, the central underpinning role given to resource conservation in sustainable development; second, the international treaties on the protection of the marine environment; third, the global agreements on biodiversity conservation; and fourth, the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries emphasises the importance of resource conservation.

Table 4.1. Fisheries in OECD and non-OECD countries: Policy coherence

Policy domain	Key element	OECD members	Non-OECD members	Issues for policy coherence
1. Environment	1.1. Aquatic ecosystems	Temperate and productive; Good knowledge; Much inter-sectoral interaction and concern	Tropical and variably productive; Less knowledge; Less interaction	Management policies must be appropriate for each system
	1.2. Fish resources	Fully or overexploited	Under or moderately exploited or depleted	Management policies must recognise opportunities and threats of this gradient
2. Technology	2.1. Types fisheries	Industrial level, large offshore and onshore; some coastal	Mixture of types (industrial to artisanal)	Balancing sector structure with economic/social functions of fisheries
	2.2. Fishing fleets	8 million GT; decked vessels; fleet decreasing overall	12 million GT; mixture of vessels; fleet increasing overall	Competition for fishing opportunities between fleets increasing
3. Economics	3.1. Production (vol)	24 million mt (declining); but aquaculture increasing	62 million mt (increasing); aquaculture increasing	Fish supply gradient and opportunities for contributing to development
	3.2. Production (value)	In 2000, first sale value of capture fisheries production was USD 81 billion		High value fisheries create opportunities and problems for development
	3.3. Trade	Main destination for traded fish (80%)	Main source of fish exports; valuable FOREX	Consumers and suppliers; who benefits?
	3.4. Consumption	High supply; high intake; (one diet component)	Lower supply; lower intake	Variation in nutrition supply trends; relative importance of fish
	3.5. GDP	<1% for most countries	>1% for some countries (important for agric GDP)	Relative importance to economy

Policy domain	Key element	OECD members	Non-OECD members	Issues for policy coherence
4. Social issues	4.1. Employment and livelihoods 4.2. Nutrition	1.6 million people employed (decreasing) Varies by country; fish is one component of varied diet	33 million people; crucial for poor livelihoods in many regions (Asia) Fish important as sole protein supply in many countries, especially for poor	Coherence between economic and social objectives Nutrition value of fish compromised by commercial activities in some regions
5. Governance	5.1. Changing forces 5.2. Management 5.3. Emerging needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fisheries policies and management in state of flux, SD increasingly recognised - Increasing interaction with other sectors (shipping, urbanisation, tourism) - Emergence of ecosystem approach - Conflict management important - Fisheries management needs to be multi-objective and multi-disciplinary Technical measures dominate fish stock management; but increasing recognition of economic and social dimensions, and possible new approaches	National and international fisheries policies need to recognise mutual needs, impacts and problems; both sectoral and inter-sectoral aspects should be considered	Greater and wider stakeholder involvement (but requires more official support) Serious gap between developed and developing countries Globalisation impact is increasing and needs to be part of management policy Capacity for management needs to be increased globally

What are the overall implications and priorities, therefore, for global fisheries policy coherence with regards to the environment? In the first place, the fundamental differences between OECD and non-OECD fisheries ecosystems (nature, understanding and sectoral interactions) mean that management policies will have to be appropriate and carefully developed to accommodate these features. Blue-print policy and management design cannot be used at the global level. Secondly, the “gradient” in terms of fisheries resource status between OECD and non-OECD represents both an opportunity and threat, to varying degrees, in different parts of the world. Fisheries resources will be sought out by “fisheries deficit” nations, and depending upon the management system in place, “fisheries surplus” nations may be able to turn this demand into benefits for themselves. Thirdly, the need to conserve natural resources such as fisheries, preserve bio-diversity and maintain environmental integrity, through appropriate management, is a fundamental tenet of international policy based on the concept of sustainable development. However, the difficulty of trying to operationalise these principles, and to integrate environmental policy with fisheries policy, in the wider context of OECD and non-OECD countries, is well-illustrated by case-studies numbers 1 and 2 below.

Case studies of policy coherence for development

Three case-studies focusing on environmental issues in relation to fisheries policy from different parts of the world are provided. Case study No. 1 (Box 4.1), focusing on the SE Atlantic (bordering Southern Africa), highlights the vulnerability of productive fisheries resources to intensive exploitation under open-access conditions, even when the fishing nations involved have all agreed to a convention to co-operate in resource conservation and rational use. Case study No. 2 (Box 4.2) looks at the issue of use of drift-nets in the fisheries of the South Pacific and the impact on marine wildlife management. Case study No. 3 (Box 4.3) examines the environmental impact of shrimp farming in Bangladesh. Although these case-studies are very different in terms of the environmental setting, it is possible to draw out four common issues with reference to policy coherence (building upon the themes and concepts explored earlier in this report).

Box 4.1. Case study 1.**Fisheries Policy and environmental policy: The case of fisheries resource degradation in the South-East Atlantic**

Policy coherence issue: The SE Atlantic contains valuable fisheries resources including hake, horse mackerel and sardines. For Angola, Mozambique, Namibia and South Africa, these resources represent sources of valuable economic benefits. In the 1960s, international management of fisheries was attempted through the formation of the International Commission for the South East Atlantic Fisheries (ICSEAF). The working of this commission was based on voluntary co-operation; however, the activities of distant water fishing nations (DWFNs) were largely unregulated, and by the late 1980s, the major fish stocks were depleted. The ICSEAF had been founded to promote co-operation between States in the conservation and rational exploitation of the living resources of the SE Atlantic. It failed in this role and a protocol of termination was adopted in 1990. In essence, the incentives for intensive fishing in the SE Atlantic by DWFNs out-weighted the willingness to observe fisheries management rules. In addition, agreements to land a proportion of the fish in coastal states were largely ignored.

Development impact: The failure to establish a substantive fisheries management system for the area resulted in little or no benefits from the fisheries of the SE Atlantic flowing to coastal states (amongst some of the poorest in Africa in the case of Angola and Mozambique) over a period of at least 30 years. The impact of intensive and unregulated fishing almost destroyed the important fisheries resources of this region.

Resolution and future action: There is little evidence in the literature that the countries around the SE Atlantic made concerted attempts in the past to address the serious issue of fisheries resource degradation in the face of intensive and unregulated fishing. More recently, the 4 coastal states have attempted to regulate coastal fisheries within their EEZ (200-mile limit), with varying degrees of success. Angola and Mozambique have been hampered by internal political upheaval and conflict; Namibia has been much more successful (re-building a strong fisheries sector) and South Africa continues to try to enforce a strong monitoring and surveillance system in the face of on-going illegal fishing by foreign vessels. Lessons from these successful efforts may be instructive for other countries experiencing difficulties in implementing a robust fisheries management regime.

Source: Hara (1997); Nichols (2004); Iyambo (2004).

Box 4.2. Case study 2.**Fisheries policy and environmental management policy:
The case of drift-net fisheries and by-catch in waters of the South Pacific nations**

Policy coherence issue: Fisheries are important for the South Pacific Nations. The use of driftnets in fisheries in the offshore area by DWFNs has not only created concern over fish stock conservation, but also the effect on marine wildlife, principally dolphins and sea-birds, which have been a large by-catch in the fisheries.

Development impact: The by-catch in fisheries from the use of driftnets has emerged as a major international environmental issue. International fishing companies, DWFNs and the host countries have come under significant pressure (particularly from international NGOs) to balance the fisheries business objective of a viable return with the protection of marine wildlife. In recent years, consumers have become increasingly aware of the source (*i.e.* fishery of origin) of tuna and the extent to which it is “wild-life” friendly (*i.e.* the method of fishing). A reduction in consumer demand could have serious consequences for revenues derived from fishing flowing to developing nations in addition to the possible impact of these methods on the fish stocks (which are highly-migratory and therefore difficult to assess).

Resolution and action: Members of the South Pacific Fisheries Forum drew up the Wellington Convention (1989), a convention to ban long drift-nets in the South Pacific. This led onto the 1991 UN moratorium on the use of long pelagic driftnets on the high seas.

Source: Bache and Evans (1999).

Box 4.3. Case study 3.**Aquaculture policy and environmental management policy: The case of shrimp farming in Bangladesh**

Policy coherence issue: Farmed shrimp is a highly valuable international export crop for many Asian countries with markets in the OECD (USA, Europe and Japan). Shrimp farming technology is well-advanced and farms are mostly located in coastal areas, often requiring the clearing of large areas of mangrove forest. Bangladesh is one of the poorest countries in the world with over 120 million people. Recent fisheries policy (which has always focused on increased production) has proposed further expansion of shrimp farming with assistance from international donors and financial institutions (Bangladesh’s international debt is USD 11 billion).

Development impact: The development of shrimp farms worldwide has drawn much criticism over the failure to consider environmental damage and impacts, and other costs borne by society, at the planning stage. For Bangladesh, expansion of this sector could lead to a significant increase in foreign exchange earnings (current export value is USD 300 million/year). On the other hand, the clearing of mangrove forests will expose the coast to erosion and flooding, threaten farmland and wildlife, and displace local people.

Resolution and action: Shrimp farm development in Bangladesh has already led to significant foreign exchange earnings, but also severe conflict between developers and local people in the coastal areas. Fisheries policy has been slow to react and there is strong political pressure from within the country to advance shrimp farming while local groups have less influence. The role of the international lenders is critical in the whole process, and particularly, in the way future aquaculture policy will be designed and implemented.

Source: FAO (2002); Neiland *et al* (2001).

First, in all three cases, the potential contribution of the aquatic resources to the development of the non-OECD countries concerned, has been recognised, largely through the generation of foreign exchange revenues from international trade principally with OECD countries (including, in some cases, the sale of access rights to DWFNs, (DFID, 2002). Second, the environmental “externalities” generated by fishing and aquaculture are now widely recognised internationally, and there is increased pressure on national governments to take account of the “trade-offs” between fishing and aquaculture policy (often focusing on short-run financial benefits) and environmental conservation (with considerations of a more broadly-based sustainable development and long-run economic benefits). Third, the three case-studies also highlight the possibilities for different outcomes in attempting to ensure policy coherence and integration, and how this is related to governance, policy situation and policy process. In the South Pacific, the strong regional alliance between countries (underpinned by appropriate governance and policy-making structures) has been a positive force in addressing the environmental impact of fisheries. In Bangladesh, the weaker governance and policy-making arrangements seem likely to severely constrain the possibilities for aquaculture-environment policy coherence in the future. In Southern Africa, the failure of the International Commission for the South-East Atlantic Fisheries (ICSEAF), and its subsequent termination, and then replacement by national management with EEZs has been significant in securing economic benefits for the African coastal states. The recent development of Namibia’s fisheries (following years of depletion) emphasises the importance of effective fisheries management. Fourth, it is clear that policy coherence (and incoherence) in the context of the fishery-environment domain has a number of dimensions – national and international, sectoral and inter-sectoral – which need to be considered carefully in order to understand their origin and the impact on the relationship between OECD and non-OECD countries.

Technology

Overview

In the second policy domain of technology, two key elements have been employed to make a comparison between OECD and non-OECD countries – (2.1.) Types of fisheries and (2.2.) Fishing fleets.

OECD fisheries operate mainly at an industrial level (capital intensive, high technology, low labour input), with, in some countries, large companies integrating catching-processing-marketing. The total OECD fishing fleet is 8 million GT, mostly decked vessels, but the overall fleet size is declining. Non-OECD fisheries contain a mixture of industrial, semi-industrial and artisanal operations. The total non-OECD fishing fleet is 12 million GT, with most vessels in Asia (40% decked). The overall size of the non-OECD fleet is increasing, and China has the largest fleet (6 million GT).

With regard to international policy frameworks, the importance of considering the nature of technology in relation to resource exploitation and development are particularly important (Annex 2). First, the UN Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) places the responsibility for resource management within EEZs in the hands of riparian nations, which are charged with taking account of factors such as the nature of fishing technology used. Second, the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (CCRF) recommends that fisheries policy and management plans should take careful note of the allocation of fish stocks to different fleets. Third, the UN recommends that fishing agreements between nations should take account of fishing rights and allocations within fishing areas, to ensure that industrial and artisanal fleets can co-exist. Fourth, international law regarding safety of life at sea (SOLAS) provides recourse over collisions, damage and conflict.

What are the overall implications and priorities for global fisheries policy coherence with reference to the domain of technology? There are two important issues which should be highlighted. First, the technological characteristics of the OECD and non-OECD fisheries are clearly different, and where they meet within fisheries, either internationally or nationally, it is important that appropriate policy and management arrangements are in place to deal with resource allocation and fleet interactions. In particular, the possibility of conflict between industrial and artisanal fleets needs to be avoided. Second, it should also be recognised that industrial and artisanal technology generates a variety of different economic and social benefits in different forms. For example, while industrial fleets may contribute economic benefits to the integrated economies of OECD nations, artisanal fleets often provide the sole source of livelihood and food for poor rural communities in non-OECD countries. These different roles need to be taken into account with fisheries policy and management. The increasing competition for fish resources and the difficulty of managing the relationship between industrial and artisanal fleets is illustrated by Case study No. 4 below.

Case study of policy coherence for development

The relationship between fishing fleets of different technological status and the issues arising in terms of policy coherence is well-illustrated using the Case study No. 4 (Box 4.4) which highlights the interaction between industrial and artisanal fleets in NW Africa (Mauritania and Senegal).

Box 4.4. Case study 4.**International fishing agreements and the relationship between industrial and artisanal fleets: The case of NW Africa**

Policy coherence issue: Fishing agreements between DWFNs (mainly OECD countries) and coastal states (e.g. Mauritania, Senegal) allow high tech industrial fleets access to fish stocks in return for a variety of payments. Under the conditions of the agreements with Mauritania and Senegal, the DWFN fleets can only fish within certain locations and for particular fish stocks. The inshore areas are reserved for local artisanal fleets, often supplying local markets and providing local employment. However, there are reports (e.g. Molsa, 1996; Van Bogaert, 2004) that DWFN vessels when operating inshore may lead to conflicts with the artisanal fleet. In Senegal, declining demersal catches have been blamed on industrial fishing. In response the artisanal vessels now go further offshore and the potential for conflict has increased.

Development impact: Fishing access agreements provide a significant amount of foreign exchange for the non-OECD countries concerned, which potentially can be used for investment in national development. However, the contribution of fishing agreements depend in-part on the initial negotiation of the agreements (terms agreed) and the subsequent implementation in the coastal state. A policy of allocating fishing between foreign DWFN and local artisanal vessels needs to be underpinned by an effective management system (including monitoring, control and surveillance, MCS). Unfortunately, many coastal states have weak fisheries management systems, and the benefits of fishing agreements may well be offset by negative impacts such as conflict with artisanal fleets (leading to a reduction of local benefits).

Resolution and action: Coastal states such as Senegal and Mauritania have recognised the problems resulting from DWFN and artisanal fleet conflicts (although the exact quantification of impacts and costs has not been undertaken systematically). Efforts to strengthen the fisheries management system have included new investments in MCS and the development of capacity-building strategies with international agencies.

Source: Kaczynski and Fluharty (2002); Linard (2003); Molsa (1996); Tollervey [n.d.]; Van Bogaert (2004).

The subject of fishing agreements in NW Africa is very important for a number of reasons and there is a growing international literature on various aspects. With particular reference to the technological aspects, the Case study helps to highlight at least three key issues relevant to policy coherence, and the relationship between OECD and non-OECD countries in terms of sustainable development. First, the Case study shows that fisheries development policy can be pursued using a number of different routes. For the governments concerned, fisheries policy includes both industrial and artisanal components, which potentially can yield a variety of different benefits ranging from financial contributions to the national exchequer (through fishing agreements and industrial vessels) to local employment and food supply (through local fisheries development and artisanal vessels). Second, the successful design and implementation of

this policy approach (mixed-technology) requires a certain level of capacity to ensure that an appropriate management system is also in place. Third, it is becoming apparent that fisheries development policy in non-OECD regions like NW Africa is difficult to design and implement. In many ways the increasing level of conflict between industrial and artisanal fleets reported in the literature and press is indicative of wider problems and challenges. There is no doubt that the fisheries policy of coastal states must aim for internal coherence between industrial and artisanal components, and that fisheries management systems must be strengthened in particular with regard to MCS. However, the solutions to these issues must be sought not only in the technical domain (fixing the “broken” management system), but also in the other policy dimensions, particularly governance and the nature of the policy process (as highlighted in Chapter 3 above), where a range of fundamental questions have to be asked (*e.g.* how are fishing agreements negotiated? Which stakeholders are involved? Who benefits from fishing agreements? What are the costs? Who bears the costs? Who is responsible for ensuring fair fishing agreements?).

Economics

Overview

In the third policy domain of economics (Table 4.1), five elements have been identified as a basis of comparison between OECD and non-OECD countries – (3.1.) Production volume; (3.2.) Production value; (3.3.) Trade; (3.4.) Consumption; and (3.5.) Gross Domestic Product.

In OECD fisheries, the total annual production is 24 million tonnes (2000). However, temperate regions continue to show a general decline in capture fisheries production while aquaculture production is increasing. OECD countries are the major importers of fish (80% global trade), especially the EU, Japan and the USA. Supply and consumption of fish has increased in OECD countries in recent years; fish remains as only one protein component of the diet and some fish are luxury products. With some notable exceptions, such as Iceland, OECD fisheries contribute marginally to GDP. For non-OECD countries, total annual fisheries production is much higher at 62 million tonnes with a trend of increasing catches and aquaculture production. Non-OECD countries are the major source of global fish exports; fish is a valuable export commodity and a significant source of foreign exchange. Thailand and China are the largest exporters. Supply and consumption have increased overall in non-OECD countries, but remains lower than in OECD countries; however, fish is a major protein source in non-OECD countries. Fisheries are an important economic component of many non-OECD countries (>1% GDP). Total value (first sale) of fish traded globally is over USD 80 billion.

With regard to international policy frameworks, the impact of economic policies is very prominent and an area of considerable change and on-going debate. First, the international financial organisations have been closely linked to the management of non-OECD economies over the past 50 years, and various policy initiatives have defined a role for important sectors such as fisheries in terms of economic growth and debt management. Second, international organisations (*e.g.* World Trade Organisation) have also helped to define and agree international policy in areas such as trade and the role of Government Financial Transfers (for further debate on the role and impacts of these instruments see Dernbach, 1999).

What are the overall implications and priorities, therefore, for international fisheries policy coherence with reference to the domain of economics? There are two issues which appear to be prominent. First, the role and nature of fisheries in the economies of OECD and non-OECD countries shows important and influential differences. In OECD countries, most fisheries sectors are well-established, relatively stable and organised, and although a relatively minor component of national economies, the sector has been able to utilise and gain support from national governments, through economic instruments such as government financial transfers and trade protection measures. By contrast, in non-OECD countries the fisheries sector is often relatively youthful (on a large scale), relatively unstable and less organised. The level of government support for fisheries in non-OECD is variable and often incomplete, and this has threatened the overall sustainability of the sector. For example, in some countries, despite weak fisheries management systems, governments have encouraged expansion in fisheries production and increased trade as a means of generating foreign exchange revenue (a strategy which is often in line with international economic policy [see Cunningham, 2003]). Second, and following-on from the first point, the economic frameworks which shape the nature of international trade have had a major impact on fisheries development in non-OECD countries. At the present time, OECD countries represent the major market, and non-OECD countries are the major suppliers of traded fish products – fisheries trade has become “globalised” (Schmidt, 2003). In theory, this relationship should be providing a significant level of economic benefits to both sides. However, there are concerns that the distribution of benefits is skewed towards OECD countries, with deleterious impacts on non-OECD countries, ranging from an undermining of policies for economic growth, and a disruption of local food supply (the number of accurate assessments of these effects appears to be very limited). The relationship between economic policies which target OECD fisheries and non-OECD fisheries, and the resulting impacts are illustrated in case-studies Nos. 5 and 6 (below).

Case studies of policy coherence for development

The issue of policy coherence is important within the policy domain of economics where fisheries are concerned, and the two case-studies below illustrate the situation where economic policy interacts with fisheries policy. In case study No. 5 (Box 4.5) the

coherence between fisheries policy and development policy in the EU is examined, with a particular focus on the issue of government financial transfers and their role in distance water fishing (DWF). In case study No. 6 (Box 4.6), the relationship between trade policy and development policy in the EU is examined.

Box 4.5. Case study 5.

Fisheries policy and development policy: The case of the European Union Common Fisheries Policy (International dimension)

Policy coherence issue: The European Union (EU) through its development policy has supported fisheries development programmes in many non-OECD countries over the past 35 years. For example, in West Africa, this has included financial and technical support to both offshore and coastal fisheries, including fleet development, fisheries management and post-harvest projects. With regard to bilateral fisheries access agreements, presently, the total annual payment of fees (government to government) for bilateral access agreements of the EU is about 170 million Euros. These fisheries agreements are particularly important in supporting regional economies that are heavily dependant on fishing activity (mainly Galicia in Spain). At the same time, the EU has provided government financial transfers (through the FIFG) for the for the EU distant water fishing fleet with the aim of addressing problems of excess fishing capacity.

In some areas of operation DWFNs vessels have come into competition and conflict with the fishing interests of non-OECD countries including local and foreign investors.

According to UNCLOS coastal states should regulate the level of fishing activity within their EEZs, and foreign vessels should operate according to agreed rules (level of catch, location etc). However, given the weakness of fisheries management in many non-OECD coastal states, the impact of foreign vessels may be significant and damaging when monitoring, surveillance and control are weak. However, accurate and detailed information on these impacts is not widely available.

Resolution and action: Recently, with the reform of the Common Fisheries Policy, a major effort has been undertaken on behalf of the EU in addressing the potential negative effects of bilateral fisheries agreements.

In its Communication COM(2002)637FINAL of 23.12.2002 (which was subsequently agreed to by the European Parliament in October 2003 and the EU Council in July 2004), the EU Commission proposes, as part of the revised CFP package, an integrated framework for fisheries partnership agreements with third countries. Part of the strategy is to gradually move away from the traditional access agreements towards new “fisheries partnership agreements”, with a view to contributing to responsible fishing in the mutual interest of the parties concerned. The revised CFP with its new framework for fisheries partnership agreements, among other things, provides for a clear distinction between the financial contribution for fishing access (and with the private sector to progressively assume greater responsibility for this part of the contribution) and the financial contribution devoted to partnership actions e.g. fisheries governance, stock assessment and MCS.

The new policy approach is in part a reflection of reconfirming the commitment of the WSSD (Johannesburg, 2002) including to “maintain or restore stocks to levels that can produce the maximum sustainable yields with the aim of achieving these goals for depleted stocks on an urgent basis and where possible no later than 2015”. Furthermore the new fisheries partnership agreement strategy is based on the notion that policy coherence for development must be achieved and in this regard ensure that the EU external fisheries policy do not conflict with the Community’s own objectives defined in the sphere of development co-operation. In addition, the partnership agreements should contribute to the attainment of sustainable fisheries management regimes in developing countries.

Source : Cox & Schmidt (2002); Molsa (1996); MRAG (2000); CEC (2001) ; CEC (2002); CEC (2002a); CEU (2004).

Box 4.6. Case study 6.

Trade policy and development policy: The case of ACP canned tuna trade in the Seychelles

Policy coherence issue: ACP countries, such as The Seychelles, have 0% tariff on their canned tuna trade into the EU since 1982. Although this trade is subject to rules of origin, the benefit of preferential trading arrangements with the EU has enabled The Seychelles to develop significant capacity in canned tuna production and in the process fended off stiff competition from some of the biggest producers in the world. However, Thailand and the Philippines, two important global producers from the developing world (subject to 24% tariff on canned tuna to EU) considered the preferential access given to ACP producers as against their legitimate interests (in contravention of the MFN treatment expected by WTO members) and petitioned the EC to reconsider their Preferential Tariff Treatment. In December 2002, the mediator appointed by the WTO proposed that the EC should open an MFN-based Tariff Quota of 25,000 tonnes for 2003 at an in-quota tariff rate of 12% *ad valorem* on imports for canned tuna from non-ACP states.

Development impact: Tuna trade is one of the most important sources of foreign exchange in the Seychelles. In 2001, canned tuna exports generated USD 149 million (compared with USD 140 million from tourism), accounting for 91% of total fish exports and 87% of all visible exports. The only cannery employs 10% of the working population. As a result of the ACP arrangement, the Seychelles now exports 97.3% of its canned tuna to the EU. A recent study (Bennett, 2004) into the impact of the opening up of the EU market for non-ACP canned tuna found that ACP countries as a whole were likely to suffer from the reduced rates offered under the MFN-base tariff quota as they are simply not competitive enough to withstand the much larger production levels operating in Thailand and the Philippines. The Seychelles would almost certainly experience a much reduced flow of economic benefits.

Resolution and action. The WTO has acted to resolve the issue of different EU tariff rates being levied against identical products from different countries (WTO members). However, it raises the issue that trade and development policy may not be coherent for all developing countries concerned. Whilst the non-ACP tuna producers (e.g. Thailand) continue to push for larger quotas of lower tariff, ACP producers (e.g. the Seychelles) are concerned that their industries (and thus their economic development) will be constrained. For further information on international trade see Schmidt (2003).

Source: Bennett (2004).

The two case studies which focus on the economic aspects of fisheries policy demonstrate at least four key issues. First, the importance of fisheries to the economies of countries such as those in the West Africa region and in the Indian Ocean such as the Seychelles is emphasised. But at the same time, the fragility of the policy context is also revealed. In both regions the sustainability of the flow of economic benefits is threatened by factors such as the weakness of the fisheries management system (to regulate the activities of the fishing fleets, both domestic and foreign) and the viability of traded products (in relation to other more competitive products from elsewhere). Second, in both the case-studies, the OECD countries involved have taken a pro-active role in promoting fisheries development in the non-OECD countries concerned. The underlying weaknesses (fisheries management and trade development) have been targeted for assistance and support through the EU policy on fisheries development. However, in

both specific cases, the process of establishing a sustainable response to these weaknesses (strengthened fisheries management system and trading base) will require time and careful implementation. Third, the process of addressing these weaknesses in the fisheries system (management and trade) is clearly vulnerable to disruption due to policy processes and practices in both the donor and recipient country and fisheries development is vulnerable to be overshadowed by other issues. In the case of the preferential treatment offered to the Seychelles tuna industry by the EU it appears that this is a temporary policy arrangement. Fourth, it is clear that there is an important time dimension to understanding policy coherence and incoherence issues. The development of fisheries, including management and trade aspects (policies, institutions and processes), should be conceptualised as a process which can change (positive/negative) over time and can be influenced by a range of factors (endogenous/exogenous), leading to different outcomes. The application of scenario analysis could prove useful in this context to better understand policy coherence. It is also interesting to note that in the case of the EU (case study No. 5), a process has been initiated to address policy (in)coherence between fisheries policy and development policy.

Social issues

Overview

In the fourth policy domain of social issues (Table 4.1), two key elements have been identified as a basis for comparing OECD and non-OECD countries – (4.1.) Employment and livelihoods (poverty reduction); and (4.2.) Food security and nutrition.

In OECD countries, total employment in fisheries and aquaculture is about 1.5 million (including production, processing and marketing sectors), and in general, the size of the workforce is decreasing and also aging. In terms of nutrition and food supply, fish contributes to the diet of the OECD population, rather than being an essential component since there are protein alternatives widely available (although this varies by country). In certain countries, consumption of particular fish is linked to culture (*e.g.* cephalopods in Japan and the Mediterranean), whereas in others certain products have become luxury items (*e.g.* lobsters in Europe). In non-OECD countries employment in fisheries and aquaculture exceeds 33 million people, with Asia having the greatest share (30 million). Fisheries and aquaculture help to underpin the livelihoods of millions of rural people both in coastal and inland areas, and are often integrated with other rural activities, particularly farming. The sector is also important for two other reasons in this context – it supports the livelihoods of many poor people (vulnerable to poverty) especially in countries where land rights are difficult to secure, and the sector acts as a safety-net for people when other activities fail (such as farming) and there are no alternatives (fishing as the so-called “activity of last resort”). In terms of nutrition and food supply, fish is important for many non-OECD countries, principally where alternative sources of protein are not available. This is especially the

case in many low-income food deficit countries (LIFD) such as Bangladesh and Cambodia.

With regards to international policy frameworks in the domain of social issues (Annex 2), the most prominent issue is that of poverty reduction. In the 2000 World Development Report the World Bank recognises poverty elimination as the “world’s greatest challenge”. International development organisations are trying to take concerted action to achieve the target proposed by the OECD – to reduce by half by 2015 the proportion of people living in extreme poverty (currently 1.2 billion). The importance of natural resources as a livelihood safety-net and a potential engine for economic growth has been recognised in this context. Other social issues which have been framed within international policy and which are relevant to fisheries include employment and labour policy, and social rights (Scoop, 2002, frames poverty reduction as a human rights issue).

What are the overall implications and priorities, therefore, for international fisheries policy coherence with particular reference to social issues? First, the role of fisheries in OECD and non-OECD countries in terms of economic and social development and contributions is comparatively different. For the majority of OECD countries, fisheries is a minor sector of their large and diversified economies. However, for many non-OECD countries, and especially the LIFDCs, fisheries and other natural resource sectors, make an important contribution to rural livelihoods, employment, income and food supply and nutrition. For certain non-OECD countries (*e.g.* Mauritania, Namibia, Pacific Islands, Cambodia), fisheries have also been identified as major sources of wealth and economic growth. Clearly, the role of fisheries in poverty reduction strategies needs to be defined, and the likely sources of policy in-coherence which might limit this role in the future need to be identified and assessed. Second, the contrast between OECD and non-OECD countries in terms of the social role of fisheries also raises the issue of globalisation. The development of fisheries policy and the implementation of fisheries management for many countries must now take account of both national and international perspectives. There are some simple, but hugely important relationships, now emerging between the OECD and non-OECD countries. For example, OECD countries represent the major markets for fish, non-OECD countries are the major suppliers of fish for international trade. The future development of social and economic policy for fisheries must take these important relationships into account; fisheries policy which takes a strictly national perspective may fail to recognise both the opportunities and threats represented by the globalisation of the world’s economy. The relationship between social policy in fisheries and other policies is illustrated by case studies 7 and 8 below.

Case studies on policy coherence for development

The issue of policy coherence within the policy domain of social issues is illustrated below with reference to two case studies. In case study No. 7 (Box 4.7), the coherence between economic development policy (related to domestic and foreign inward investment) and social development policy in Chile (fisheries sector) is considered. In case study No. 8 (Box 4.8), the relationship between fisheries development policy (commercial export-led) and poverty reduction in the Lake Victoria basin of East Africa is examined.

Box 4.7. Case study 7.

Economic development policy and social development policy: inward investment and social impacts in Chilean fisheries

Policy coherence issue: Chile adopted a neo-liberal economic programme in 1975. This involved lifting price controls, liberalizing capital markets, eliminating subsidies to domestic enterprises, reducing trade barriers and nationalising state industries. As a result Chilean exports increased dramatically and the economy expanded. Fisheries was one of the fastest growing sectors (contributing up to 12% GDP in the early 1990s) and a major employer. The growth of the seafood sector was judged to be a success for broad-based development and thousands of Chileans shared the benefits (e.g. increased employment and income). However, in the context of the political environment, there was a widespread failure to regulate the industry or to question its management. In the end, many local workers suffered punitive work contracts, the abolition of the minimum wage and the repression of organised labour, counteracting any meaningful social development (i.e. a definite incoherence between economic policy and social outcomes). The collapse of fish stocks resulted in widespread employment.

Development impact: Inward investment (both foreign and domestic) into the seafood sector reached a high level; from 1977-1992 the number of seafood processing plants increased by 800% (to 112). New labour laws allowed workers to be hired and fired to meet production levels; as such the burden of fluctuating output was borne by workers whose incomes fluctuated widely. Massive investment was also made in the catching sector (number of boats rose by some 700%); in turn catches fell as effort increased. As ex-factory seafood prices increased, Chilean products became less competitive. By early 1990s, factory closures made 2,000 unemployed, and accident rates in shellfish diving increased as efforts to maintain catch rates were made.

Resolution and action: Since the return of democratic government to Chile in the 1990s, attempts have been made to balance the needs of the economy (in line with international policy) with resource management and social development policy. A process of public consultation and debate has led to some improvements, but further reforms and improvements are needed in the future.

Source: Schurman (1996).

Box 4.8. Case study 8.**Fisheries development policy and poverty reduction policy: The case of the fisheries of Lake Victoria, East Africa (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda)**

Policy coherence issue: The fisheries of Lake Victoria (Africa's largest lake) have been transformed in past four decades with the deliberate introduction of Nile Perch (*Lates niloticus*) to establish a commercial fishery. This was undertaken with the support and encouragement of international donors as a way to make an important contribution to regional development and poverty reduction. However, while fish landings increased from 100 000 t (1970s) to 500 000 (1990s) as an export-oriented trade in fish developed, fish bio-diversity decreased massively. However, there are concerns that the rapid expansion of the commercial fishery (in a context of weak fishery management in all three riparian countries) is not sustainable and that the net contribution of the fisheries to development (and poverty reduction in particular) is negative (see Okeyo-Owor, 1995). International (OECD) donors actively support poverty reduction in East Africa and export-led economic growth is a priority area (but not at the expense of the environment).

Development impact: The three riparian countries of Lake Victoria exhibit a high level of poverty (40-50% of total population are impoverished). On the positive side, fish exports are currently valued at USD 500 million. On the negative side, some studies indicate that the export-oriented fishery is undermining employment, local incomes and food security (by fostering overexploitation under open-access conditions and diverting fish from local markets). Inevitably, some stakeholders are "winners" and other "losers", and given the weak governance and policy situation in each country, the concerns about "re-distribution" of benefits need to be examined more closely in the future.

Resolution and action: The future sustainability of the fisheries of Lake Victoria and the threat of greater local impoverishment are serious concerns for all three governments and international donors. A new EU-funded Lake Victoria fisheries management programme (implemented in co-operation with the Lake Victoria Fisheries Organisation, LVFO), which commenced in 2004, seeks to address key issues and influence future development actions (e.g. regional policy coherence between fisheries development policy, involving export-oriented fisheries, and policies on social development and poverty reduction).

Source: Okeyo-Owor, J.B. 1995; LVFO (1999).

The two case studies focus on three key issues in the policy domain of social issues. First, the design of fisheries development policy targeted at non-OECD countries has been underpinned by certain conceptualisations and perceptions of the key relationships between resource exploitation, resource management and social development. As shown earlier (Chapter 3 above), fisheries policy has been dominated by a "productionist" orientation. It was assumed that a resulting flow of economic benefits would foster social development, and especially poverty reduction in fishing communities. Unfortunately, the two case-studies from Chile and East Africa illustrate that rapid fisheries development, especially within a context of weak governance and inadequate fisheries management can have an adverse effect on social conditions. Clearly, the underlying assumptions and likely impacts of fisheries development policy on social conditions will need to be considered even more carefully in the future. In

particular, poverty reduction strategies must be understood from a broad perspective, linking fisheries issues with issues in other sectors. Second, the analysis of social issues within fisheries requires a serious consideration of the impact of fisheries development plans and programmes on the different groups of constituent stakeholders. While export-oriented fisheries development may be a popular prescription at the macro-economic level to contribute to economic growth in non-OECD countries, the impacts at the micro-level also need to be considered. In both Chile and East Africa, fish exports to OECD countries generate significant foreign exchange earnings, and in the long-run if the fisheries are well-managed and sustainable, it is possible that this revenue can be used to stimulate economic growth and development. However, in the short-run this strategy may generate significant negative impacts at local level for certain stakeholders, including unemployment, food shortages and impoverishment. The overall net balance of economic and social benefits, and the impact on winners and losers in society, as well as timing, must be given careful consideration by policy-makers. Third, while the nature and course of economic and social change is difficult to predict in general throughout the world, there is a growing body of literature and evidence which reveals some of the patterns which have emerged in fisheries over the past 50 years.

The case studies from Chile and Lake Victoria illustrate, for example, that fisheries expansion under conditions of weak or inappropriate fisheries management can lead to a “boom and bust” scenario, which cannot provide an effective basis for sustainable development and poverty reduction. Clearly, it is important that these lessons are incorporated into future policy design.

Governance in fisheries

Overview

In the fifth policy domain of governance in fisheries (Table 4.1), three key elements are used as a basis to compare and discuss OECD and non-OECD countries: (5.1.) Changing forces in fisheries management; (5.2.) Current management; and (5.3.) Emerging needs.

On a global scale, it has been recognised that the weak performance of fisheries policies and management in both OECD and non-OECD countries has led to the current declining status of world fisheries and has come under increased scrutiny in recent years. A range of needs have been recognised including: new management approaches which adopt multi-disciplinary and multi-objective approaches and incorporate the concept of sustainable development; and new allocation mechanisms which can accommodate intra-sectoral and inter-sectoral demands.

In terms of specific management issues, in OECD countries, the problems of over-fishing and over-capacity are proving to be a difficult challenge to address, and progress

is slow. Technical measures continue to dominate fisheries management approaches for the conservation of fish stocks, but at increased economic and social costs which has put pressure on managers to consider alternative approaches. In non-OECD countries, fisheries management is often hindered by factors such as weak organisations, lack of management capacity and weak political support. The situation is also complicated by frequent confusion, within the policy process, over the link between sustainable resource use and fisheries development activities, the prioritisation of revenue generation over other management objectives, and the increasing pressure of expanding population and the use of fisheries as a poverty safety-net in the face of a lack of alternative economic activities.

Returning again to the global perspective, it is clear that new and alternative approaches to fisheries management are emerging in both OECD and non-OECD countries, including the devolution of management to local levels and communities, and the greater involvement of stakeholders at all levels in the policy and management processes. However, if these new approaches are to be successful, they will also need to be supported and integrated with changes in other areas, including legislation, management capacity, finance, administration and political support. At the present time, non-OECD countries, in particular, lack the capacity and skills both to embark upon the design and implementation of new fisheries management approaches, and to cope with major changes such as increased resource use conflict and the impact of globalisation.

With regards to international policy frameworks in the domain of governance (Annex 2), there are a number of relevant areas applicable to fisheries. First, the UN seeks to promote sustainable development and to address IUU fishing. Second, the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (CCRF) identifies the importance of effective governance in fisheries and the relationship with other sectors based within the aquatic environment. Third, the importance of “good governance” as a major factor to underpin development in non-OECD countries has been agreed and endorsed by the international community.

What are the overall implications and priorities, therefore, for international fisheries policy coherence with reference to governance (or fisheries governance)? At least three major issues can be identified. First, the increasing recognition given to the need for “good governance” as a fundamental building block for development is an important normative trend on a global scale. However, the reality of trying to operationalise the key principles involved (*e.g.* transparency, accountability, responsibility) is a greater challenge. Second, there is also no doubt that the level of inter-sectoral interaction is increasing in all aquatic environments, and that increased conflict between fisheries and sectors such as tourism and shipping will continue unless appropriate governance mechanisms can be put in place. At the present time, a major constraint to this is the lack of information and understanding needed to assess levels of interaction and to inform the various stakeholder groups involved about the possible

solutions. Third, the need for improved and appropriate governance in fisheries cannot be addressed in isolation, but at present the policy process in many countries is operated on a sectoral basis, inevitably leading to a lack of policy coherence. Some of these challenging relationships are illustrated by case Studies 9 and 10 (below).

Case studies of policy coherence for development

Two case studies which focus on the issue of policy coherence within the policy domain of governance are provided below. In case study No. 9 (Box 4.9) the relationship between sustainable development policy and governance policy is explored with reference to the issue of Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU) in the toothfish fisheries of the Southern Ocean – perhaps the most extreme and prominent recent example of resource overexploitation by countries who, in other situations and fora, support the principles of sustainable development. In case study No. 10 (Box 4.10), principles of good governance and fisheries development are considered within the context provided by the negotiation and implementation of international fishing agreements between the EU and ACP countries.

The two case studies help to emphasise three key issues regarding the importance of policy coherence and governance. First, fisheries resources can represent significant sources of development opportunities for non-OECD countries. In terms of financial capital, the value of national fish catches often run into millions of dollars each year; capital which could be invested for national development. However, the realisation of these opportunities is highly dependent on “good governance” at all levels. International fishing agreements must be negotiated and implemented with reference to principles of good governance (responsibility, accountability and transparency) in order to realise the development potential of fisheries. Fisheries management systems which are weak and ineffective must also be strengthened to prevent them acting as a constraint to fisheries development. Second, it is clear that the establishment of an appropriate level of “good governance” in fisheries is often quite difficult. Given the fact that most non-OECD countries are characterised by weak governance in general, it is important that fisheries development programmes recognise the wider constraints to the design and implementation of policy interventions. It is also clear that, at times, fisheries will become vulnerable to overexploitation under conditions of weak fisheries governance, as shown by the case study of the toothfish fishery. Third, in recent years the importance of “good governance” for fisheries development has been increasingly recognised, and international agencies such as the FAO have been active in drawing up frameworks and plans of action to address such issues. In the case of IUU fishing problems, the greatest challenge lies in securing political support for international co-operation in making these instruments workable and effective. The role of OECD countries in providing leadership in this respect is crucial. In the case of international fishing agreements, key players such as EU have also recognised the role of co-operation between OECD and non-OECD countries in order to secure sustainable fisheries as a basis for or contribution to future

development for the nations involved. This is one of the underlying principles of the newly agreed EU “fisheries partnership agreements”, which require close co-operation between the EU and third countries in order to ensure effective policy implementation and policy coherence for development in the future. A recent meeting of The Council of the European Union (CEU, July 2004) concluded that in order to establish the regulatory and financial framework which will govern fisheries relations between the Community and one or more coastal states, and to ensure that it is properly implemented, the Commission (of the European Community) should carefully monitor, evaluate and report on the implementation of the fishing partnership agreements, and make this information available to Member States.

Summary

The comparison of OECD and non-OECD fisheries undertaken in this section, with reference to five main policy domains and focusing on issues of policy coherence for development has revealed the importance of fisheries worldwide and the range of benefits which both sets of countries receive and utilise. At the same time, the globalisation of fisheries and the increasing “inter-connected-ness” between fisheries and nations has been revealed. Another recurring theme has been the difficulties of ensuring effective fisheries management, and the different governance-policy contexts and policy processes which need to be taken into account when analysing fisheries management performance with a view to making improvements. Overall, policy coherence (and incoherence) is clearly an important issue, with major impacts, throughout the world. Policy incoherence occurs in all policy domains, at various levels (international to local). While policy statements can often appear coherent (*e.g.* integration of environmental and economic policy), the resulting implementation of different policy can be incoherent and damaging overall. The case of fisheries development policy between OECD and non-OECD countries is a good example of this problem. The question of “how to correct policy incoherence in international fisheries development” is a major challenge. As a start, there is a need to try to classify “policy coherence” in fisheries, and to start to develop an appropriate programme of research to understand the nature, causes and likely solutions.

Box 4.9. Case study 9.**Sustainable development policy and fisheries governance policy: The problem of illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing (IUU) with reference to the toothfish fisheries of the CCAMLR region**

Policy coherence issue: IUU fishing is a matter of great international concern. It is recognised that if IUU fishing and its related activities are not addressed effectively efforts by national administrations and RFMOs to manage fisheries responsibly are undermined (an indicator of the failure of fisheries governance). In effect, countries which fail to deal with IUU fishing through effective fisheries governance policy risk being incoherent with international policies on sustainable development (which includes sustainable resource usage). IUU is found in all capture fisheries, and is not a new phenomenon. IUU has many facets and motivations although the most common underlying motivations are economic in nature (e.g. the existence of excess fleet capacity, government financial transfers for fishing, strong market demand for particular products, and weak fisheries management systems, surveillance and enforcement). Although statistics on IUU are anecdotal or at best patchy, in some important fisheries, IUU fishing accounts for up to 30% of the total catch. The most high-profile IUU fishing in recent years has occurred in the Patagonian toothfish fisheries of the Southern Ocean covered by The Convention on the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR). In 1997/98, CCAMLR estimated that IUU fishing yielded over 33,000t of toothfish (50% total global catch), and in 1998/99 the IUU fishing yield was over 10,000t. Many fishing nations were involved including members of CCAMLR. The main reasons for IUU fishing in this region were the high value of the toothfish and the ineffectiveness of fisheries management (in this isolated region, MCS was difficult).

Development impact: IUU fishing (such as in the toothfish fishery) leads to a failure to achieve some fisheries management goals in particular to the loss of both short- and long-term social and economic opportunities. Fish stock collapses are also more likely and attempts to rebuild depleted stocks will be hindered. IUU fishing is not coherent with sustainable development and good governance (private choices override public choices made by governments).

Resolution and action: Since 2000, all toothfish products must have a valid "catch document" (CCAMLR members). In 2001, FAO Council endorsed an International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate IUU (IPOA-IUU); voluntary instrument related to the CCRF.

Source: FAO (2000); FAO (2002).

Box 4.10. Case study 10.

Development policy and the common fisheries policy: The negotiation and implementation of EU-ACP international fisheries agreements in West Africa

Policy coherence issue: A specific objective of the external component of the EU Common Fisheries Policy is to maintain a European presence in distant fisheries and in this regard ensure access for the community fleet to surplus stocks in the EEZ of third countries. UNCLOS requires countries to make the surplus available to foreign countries and set up arrangements to this effect. However, the implementation and impact of these fishing agreements has been widely criticised and policy incoherence between fisheries and development objectives have been noted. In the context of the EU, the EU itself diagnosed the situation and agreed, in its revised CFP, to gradually move towards a new approach with its fisheries partnership agreements (see COM(2002)637 Final of 23.12.2002).

Development impact: In discussing development impacts Kaczynski and Fluharty provide the following example: In 1996 Guinea-Bissau received USD 8 million (license fees); EU vessels landed fish in Europe worth USD 78 million; and processed value of fish was USD 110 million. The exploitation of fish resources has minimal impact on the country's economy; there is increased dependency on hard currency payments from EU; the fisheries management system remains weak and resources are vulnerable to overexploitation.

Resolution and action: Recently, with the reform of the Common Fisheries Policy, a major effort has been undertaken on behalf of the EU in addressing the potential negative effects of bilateral fisheries agreements.

In its Communication COM(2002)637FINAL of 23.12.2002 (which was subsequently agreed to by the European Parliament in October 2003 and the EU Council in July 2004), the EU Commission proposes, as part of the revised CFP package, an integrated framework for fisheries partnership agreements with third countries. Part of the strategy is to gradually move away from traditional access agreements, with a view to contributing to responsible fishing in the mutual interest of the parties concerned. The revised CFP with its new framework for fisheries partnership agreements, among other things, provides for a clear distinction between the financial contribution for fishing access (and with the private sector to progressively assume greater responsibility for this part of the contribution) and the financial contribution devoted to partnership actions e.g. stock assessment, and MCS.

The new policy approach is in part a reflection of reconfirming the commitments of the WSSD (Johannesburg, 2002) including to “maintain or restore stocks to levels that can produce the maximum sustainable yields with the aim of achieving these goals for depleted stocks on an urgent basis and where possible no later than 2015”. Furthermore the new fisheries partnership agreement strategy is based on the notion that policy coherence for development must be achieved and in this regard ensure that the EU external fisheries policy do not conflict with the Community's own objectives defined in the sphere of development co-operation. In addition, the partnership agreements should contribute to the attainment of sustainable fisheries management regimes in developing countries.

Source: Kaczynski and Fluharty (2002); Cunningham (2000); Manning (2003), CEC (2001), CEC (2002).

Chapter 5

Typology of Policy Coherence Issues in Fisheries and Identification of Future Research of Needs

Introduction

In this penultimate chapter, two simple typologies (static and process typologies) of policy coherence in fisheries will be presented in an attempt to provide an overview of the detailed information presented in Chapter 4. In turn, the typologies together with the important issues which have emerged in Chapter 4 will be used to identify future research needs and presented in the form of a research programme (based upon a simple Logical Framework Approach).

Typology of policy coherence in fisheries

Static typology

A simple static typology of policy coherence in fisheries is shown in Table 5.1 (below), based on the work of Hoebink (2001). There are four main types identified: internal, vertical, horizontal and trans-national. Each of the 10 case-studies of policy coherence outlined in Chapter 4 (above) has been classified within this typology as shown and some of the key issues associated with them have been highlighted.

The “internal coherence type” can be understood by asking the question “is the policy coherent within itself?” For example, in case study No. 4 which highlights the apparent conflict between industrial and artisanal fisheries in NW Africa (Senegal and Mauritania), national fisheries policy appears to be incoherent with regards to the integration of the two sub-sectors.

The “vertical coherence type” can be understood by asking the question “is policy coherent at all levels from international to local?” For example, in case study No. 6 which highlights the relationship between trade policies for tuna and local development in the Seychelles, coherence with international policies (alignment of tariff preferences) will tend to have a serious and incoherent impact on rural development.

The “horizontal coherence type”, which appears the most common type, can be understood by asking the question “is fisheries policy coherent with other sectoral policies operating at the same level?” For example, case study 2 highlights the importance of fisheries policy being coherent with environmental policy (wildlife conservation).

Table 5.1. A typology of policy coherence (incoherence) in fisheries

Class	Example	Key issues
Internal (is fisheries policy coherent within itself?)	Case study 4: industrial and artisanal fisheries in NW Africa.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weak fisheries management systems. • Host country dependence on foreign exchange payments. • High demand for fishing. • No forum for stakeholders meeting. • New “Fisheries Partnership Agreements” proposed by EU.
	Case study 8: Commercialisation of fisheries and poverty reduction in fisheries in Lake Victoria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conceptual basis for poverty alleviation and commercialisation uncertain. • Rapid change in socio-economic conditions. • Weak fisheries management systems.
Vertical (is fisheries policy coherent at all levels from global to local?)	Case study 6: Trade liberalisation and protection and local development.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Real agenda behind policy development? • International pressure for policy change. • Impact of policy change.
	Case study 9: IUU fishing in Southern Oceans.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fisheries policy coherent internationally with SD. • Incentives for IUU fishing. • New international initiatives (e.g. FAO IPOA-IUU).
Horizontal (is fisheries policy coherent with other sector policies operating at same level?)	Case study 2: Fisheries policy and environmental policy in S. Pacific.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic importance of fishing; • International pressure for policy change. • Political leadership good.
	Case study 3: Shrimp farming in Bangladesh.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic importance of shrimp farming. • Lack of valuation of wider environment. • Weak governance context.
	Case study 5: EU Fisheries development policy and government financial transfers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role of fisheries in development unclear. • Political influences on policy directions and difficulty of reforms. • “Fisheries Partnership Agreements” of the EU;

Class	Example	Key issues
	Case study 7: Inward investment and social policy in Chile.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic incentives for investment. • Governance conditions and stakeholder participation in decisions.
	Case study 10: International fishing agreements in EU: ACP.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concepts of development; • Governance context. • “Fisheries Partnership Agreements” of the EU.
<i>Trans-national</i> (Is fisheries policy coherent between national and federation level of country organisation?)	Case study 1: Fisheries policy and environmental policy in S.E. Atlantic.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic incentives for overexploitation. • Political commitment. • Positive change is possible.

The “trans-national type” can be understood by asking the question “is fisheries policy coherent between national and other international policy” (where the country might be part of a country grouping such as a commission or trade or political grouping of nations). For example, in case study No. 1, the national fisheries policies of member countries appeared to be incoherent with the ICSEAF.

A process typology of policy coherence

The second typology in Table 5.2 attempts to classify the ten case-studies used in Chapter 4 in terms of the process of addressing policy incoherence. There are four types as shown:

Table 5.2. A process typology of policy coherence in fisheries

Types	I	II	III	IV
	Policy coherence achieved	Policy coherence is partial	Policy coherence is not a priority	Policy coherence ignored or neglected or overlooked
Process of addressing policy incoherence				
Recognition	Yes	Yes	Yes (rejected)	No
Action	Yes	Yes (partial)	No	No
Positive impact (validated)	Yes	No	No	No
Examples				
	Case study 2: Pacific driftnet	Case study 1: SE Atlantic fisheries	Case study 3: Bangladesh shrimp farming	Case study 8: Lake Victoria fish/trade poverty
		Case study 4: NW Africa	Case study 6: Tuna trade	Case study 9: IUU fishing
		Case study 5: Government financial transfers	Case study 7: Chile inward investment	
		Case study 10: Fishing agreements and good governance		

Type I: “Policy coherence is achieved”

The process by which policy incoherence is addressed has recognised problems, taken appropriate action and there has been a positive impact (policy coherence achieved). The example of case study No. 2 is classified in this type, where policy coherence between a ban on driftnet fishery and wildlife conservation has been achieved in the South Pacific (for dolphin) to some extent.

Type II: “Policy coherence is partial”

Although the process has recognised policy coherence problems, the actions taken to address them have been partial (sub-optimal or ineffective or too “youthful” to assess their impact), and policy coherence has not been successful (or cannot be gauged yet). The example of case study No. 1, is classified in this type, where policy incoherence problems were recognised (through the information systems associated with the fisheries), but only limited action was taken to address them. The other example included in Type II relate to international fishing agreements, particularly those between the EU and third countries. Although these agreements have been widely criticised in the past for their lack of coherency with EU development policy, the EU has recently adopted a new framework of co-operation with third countries in order to address the problems. Whilst it is too early to evaluate the likely impact of this new policy initiative (policy design and implementation is gradually being undertaken), it should be underlined that the importance of policy coherence for development has been recognised.

Type III: “Policy coherence is not a priority”

In this type, although policy coherence is recognised as an issue, it is not given any priority and the policy decisions taken tend to choose between options (trade-offs). The example of case study No. 3 is classified in this type, where shrimp farming development appears to have been prioritised over environmental conservation.

Type IV: “Policy coherence is ignored or neglected or overlooked”

In this type the process of addressing policy coherence is dormant or non-existent. In case study No. 8, for example, the policy incoherence within the fisheries of Lake Victoria (fisheries development policy *versus* poverty policy) has not been addressed fully as yet.

A “process approach” to policy coherence: key issues

The two typologies presented above provide a way of organising the findings of the preliminary empirical work on policy coherence for development using the fisheries sector as an entry-point (*i.e.* recognising that fisheries interacts with other areas and contributes to development policies). The static typology helps to clarify some of the relationships between fisheries policy and policy in other domains. The process typology helps to gauge the extent to which policy-makers have addressed specific policy coherence issues, and is the more challenging of the two approaches. Clearly, there is a degree of subjectivity attached to the final output – policy analysts will almost certainly disagree on the Case studies allocated to particular “types”. However, in making the comparison between policy actions within particular Case studies, it is possible to

identify (and re-affirm) a number of key issues which must be considered for future work in policy coherence, as follows:

- i. The importance of a focus on policy coherence for development – this provides the underlying theme for the analysis, and clearly it is preferable to aim for outcomes that fall into Type I (policy coherence achieved) rather than other Types.
- ii. Opportunities for lesson-learning and development of “best practice” guidelines – the Case studies have all provided important opportunities for lesson-learning from past experiences, and the further development of this type of empirical analysis can provide a good basis for the future development of “best practice” approaches.
- iii. Further empirical work, impact assessment and capacity-building – the refinement of descriptive typologies and the further development of policy assessment tools must be underpinned by further empirical work including the measurement of impacts, and this will need to be incorporated into capacity-building programmes in both OECD and non-OECD countries.
- iv. Strength of the process approach for policy coherence – recognising that the policy process involves both the design and implementation of policy over time, it is important that policy coherence is addressed continually, and that opportunities for improving policy coherence are taken up as they are identified or emerge, drawing upon the potential for lesson-learning and best practice approaches (which is clearly already happening in many parts of the world based on the Case studies presented).

Identification of future research needs

On the basis of the issues and themes which have emerged in this report, a preliminary and generic research programme for fisheries policy coherence is identified in Table 5.3 (below).

The “Development Goal” focuses on the achievement of policy coherence in fisheries and the contribution which this would make to sustainable development (which would need to be defined carefully). The pre-requisites to achieve this goal would include a good understanding of the nature of policy coherence and its relationship to sustainable development, appropriate institutional mechanisms involving a full range of stakeholders and appropriate information flows to underpin decision making, and finally, political commitment to the overall process.

The “purpose” of the research programme would be to establish a good understanding of fisheries policy coherence for development (from a full range of perspectives, including political, economic and social), and to underpin the establishment of appropriate institutional mechanisms for achieving fisheries policy coherence by “lesson-learning” and the recognition of “best practice” approaches.

The underlying research “activities and outputs” required to achieve the “purpose” would include: investigation of the policy process, with reference to policy coherence; analysis of policy performance and the economic impact of policy coherence (or incoherence); investigation of institutional mechanisms for better policy coherence; and finally, the examination of capacity-building requirements and approaches for appropriate institutional mechanisms. The research would include both theoretical and empirical aspects, attempt to establish new study methods, build a database of case-studies and derive “lessons” and guidelines for “best practice” approaches towards “success” in fisheries policy coherence. It would be necessary, of course, to include workers from outside fisheries, and to incorporate other sectors and policy domains into the programme.

The generic research programme could be applied at a global level – to derive international lessons and establish “best practice” for fisheries policy coherence- and also at regional and national level – to capture the specific character and challenges presented by the full range of countries and their fisheries. The important relationship between OECD and non-OECD countries would need to be incorporated into the design of the research programme.

Table 5.3 Logical framework for a generic research programme in fisheries policy coherence

Narrative summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVIs)
<p>Development goal: Policy coherence in fisheries is achieved and contributes to development and sustainable development.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is a good understanding of fisheries policy coherence with reference to development and sustainable development and good governance. - Policy coherence in fisheries is managed through appropriate and sustainable institutional mechanisms involving a full range of stakeholders and appropriate information flows. - There is a clear political commitment by policy-makers to work towards effective policy coherence, and the benefits and costs of policy options and choices are explicit and transparent.
<p>Purpose: Policy coherence in fisheries is understood and mechanisms for managing the process by which policy coherence for development is achieved are established.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Policymakers are well informed about the nature of policy coherence (and incoherence) in fisheries, and its interactions with development and other policy domains. - The factors which determine “success” in achieving policy coherence have been identified and understood. - “Best practice” institutional approaches to achieving policy coherence have been documented and understood. - Capacity-building approaches for improved institutional mechanisms for policy coherence are well-established.

Table 5.3 (cont.)

Narrative summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVIs)
<p>Activities and outputs:</p> <p>1. Identification and characterisation of the fisheries policy process, and its interaction and coherence with other policies in a range of domains and at different levels.</p> <p>2. Analysis of fisheries policy performance and the economic impact of policy coherence (or incoherence).</p> <p>3. Identification and design of institutional mechanisms for greater fisheries policy coherence.</p> <p>4. Identification and design of a programme of institutional capacity-building for greater fisheries policy coherence.</p>	<p>1.1. Definition of methodology for study of policy process and coherence (theoretical and conceptual basis drawn from political, economic and other social sciences).</p> <p>1.2. Collation and analysis of a series of empirical case-studies of policy coherence, development of typology covering full range of policy domains.</p> <p>1.3. Establishment of a “policy coherence” database.</p> <p>2.1. Definition of methodology for fisheries policy performance analysis and the economic assessment of the impact of policy coherence (or incoherence), with particular attention to impacts on developing countries.</p> <p>2.2. Identification and evaluation of factors which affect policy performance and coherence across a full range of case-studies and policy domains.</p> <p>2.3. Characterisation of “success” in fisheries policy coherence, with reference to development and sustainable development indicators.</p> <p>3.1. Definition of methodology for study of policy coherence and institutions, with reference to “good governance”, “development” and “sustainable development”.</p> <p>3.2. Investigation of institutional mechanisms for the achievement of policy coherence in fisheries across a full range of case-studies and policy domains.</p> <p>3.3. Documentation and recommendations for “best practice” institutional approaches to success in fisheries policy coherence.</p> <p>4.1. Identification of methodology for the assessment of institutional capacity needs for fisheries policy coherence.</p> <p>4.2. Investigation of institutional capacity needs across a full range of case-studies and policy domains.</p> <p>4.3. Development of guidelines for institutional capacity-building for greater fisheries policy coherence.</p>

Chapter 6

Conclusions and Considerations

The results of this scoping study have confirmed:

- a) The emergence of policy coherence for development as a important subject area in its own right, with reference to understanding how development and sustainable development might be achieved.
- b) The limitations of the study of policy coherence in general (to date), which has tended to focus on descriptive analysis, and while this is an important starting point, there is a need to extend the analysis to include more in-depth analysis of political, economic, social and other dimensions.
- c) The important relationship between OECD and non-OECD countries in terms of fisheries management and development, and the impact of policy coherence in both sets of countries on the livelihoods and poverty status, economic performance, social conditions and food supply of large numbers of people throughout the world.
- d) The occurrence of policy in-coherence in the five major policy domains used in this study to characterise the fisheries: environment, technology, economics, social and governance; the apparent weakness of fisheries management systems in many parts of the world and the limited ability to cope with changes affecting fisheries at all levels (local-national-global) is a common theme which links the issues in each policy domain.
- e) The complexity and challenges presented to policy analysts in trying to identify, characterise, and unravel the causes, and likely solutions to policy incoherence (this depends on factors such as the accepted understanding of the nature of the policy process in any particular country, and the role of political forces); policy coherence for development needs to be analysed throughout the policy process since it can occur both at the policy design and the policy implementation stages.
- f) The need to better understand “governance” and the relationship to fisheries management and the fisheries policy process within countries and between

countries, as a basis for developing approaches to the analysis of fisheries policy coherence.

- g) The need to develop a programme of research on policy coherence in fisheries from a development perspective to provide a better understanding of the key issues, the economic, social and other impacts, and the possibilities for addressing policy incoherence, in the context of the contribution which fisheries can make to sustainable development.
- h) There are important opportunities for “lesson-learning” through the analysis of policy in different locations and contexts, and to use this as a basis to establish “best-practice” guidelines for coherent future policy design and implementation.

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Annex 1

A Preliminary Comparison of Fisheries between OECD and non-OECD Countries

Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
1. Environment	1.1. Eco-systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Importance of relationship between fisheries and ecosystems has long been recognised (and concern grows publicly over negative trends such as pollution). However, there is slow progress in adopting an ecosystem approach to fisheries management (EAF), according to FAO. Ecosystem research is challenging and there is much to be done with reference to fisheries. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Majority of countries associated with temperate marine and inland ecosystems; highly productive systems. Good knowledge of coastal areas; less of offshore areas and large marine ecosystems. Much interaction between fisheries and other sectors especially in coastal areas, and concern for negative effects (e.g. pollution). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Majority of countries associated with sub-tropical and tropical ecosystems; some systems very productive and variable (upwellings). Limited knowledge and understanding of ecosystems. Less interaction (but increasingly) with aquatic and maritime activities of industrial and urban origin.

Domain	Key element	Overview	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
	<p>1.2. Fisheries Resources</p>	<p>General comments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> State of world fisheries resources review undertaken regularly by FAO since 1980. Regional information variously reported by FAO Statistical area; by EEZ, by resource. Overall 25% marine fish stocks are under or moderately exploited; 47% stocks are fully exploited; 18% stocks are overexploited; 10% stocks are depleted. Trend shows overall continuing decline in marine fish stocks. Pelagic stocks highly variable (linked to environmental dynamics). Inland resources threatened by environmental change (accurate assessments not widely available). Aquaculture continues to develop and expand. 	<p>Overall, most fisheries resources are fully or overexploited. For example, marine sector (FAO Statistical Sectors):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> NW Atlantic (stable, low). NE Atlantic (stable, low). EC Atlantic (stable, high). NE Pacific (stable, low). NW Pacific (stable, high). SW Pacific (stable, high). Tuna (fully exploited) 	<p>Overall, most fisheries resources are under or moderately exploited, or fully exploited. For example, marine sector:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> EC Atlantic (stable, high). SE Atlantic (decline, low). SW Atlantic (stable, high). EC Pacific (stable, high). SE Pacific (unstable, high). Indian Ocean (stable, high). WC Pacific (stable, high). Southern Ocean (unstable, low). Tuna (fully exploited).

Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
2. Technology and Sector Structure	2.1. Types of fisheries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Broad range and diversity of fisheries and fisheries technology exists worldwide. Industrial level fisheries: capital-intensive, high technology, mechanised, low labour, high fuel energy consumption, high discard rate; often with integration of catching-processing-marketing; operations often working at distant from home ports; catch utilisation varies with market demand. Artisanal or non-industrial level fisheries: low level of capital invested, low technology, low level of mechanisation, high labour input, low fuel energy consumption, low discard rate, some integration of activities, local fisheries, catch utilised for food and sales mainly. Aquaculture also shows a similar range and diversity of activity and technology. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall, most fisheries activities operate at industrial level, although many countries also have coastal fisheries which are small-scale (semi-industrial). For example, in Spain, a long-established large off-shore fleet (often fishing in distant waters) supports a significant onshore sector providing fish processing, ship-building and gear manufacture; there is also an active coastal fleet and small-scale vessels. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall, there is a mixture of industrial, semi-industrial and artisanal fisheries. For example: in Ghana; an offshore fleet catches tuna, semi-industrial coastal fleet and artisanal fleet inshore fleet with some mechanisation. Offshore/industrial fleet is a recent development. There are some onshore facilities and support including processing.

Domain	Key element	Overview	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
	2.2. Fishing fleets	<p>General comments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • World fishing fleet is 3.8 million vessels; 1/3 decked / 2/3 undecked and <10m length; all decked vessels motorised; 1/3 undecked are motorised. • Decked (20 GT average). • Decked (100 GT, 24m = 1% world fleet). • No. decked vessels increased in 1970-1980; and has since slowed. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8 million GT. • 592,047 decked vessels. • Europe has highest proportion decked vessels (70%). • Overall fleet size falling. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 12 million GT • Most vessels in Asia • 644 305 decked vessels. • Africa (20% decked). • Asia (40% decked). • China (6 million GT) largest in world; Russia (3 million GT) is second. • Overall fleet size increasing.

Domain	Key element	Overview	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
3. Economics	3.1. Fisheries production (landings)	<p>General comments</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 2000, capture fisheries production reached 94.8 million tonnes (highest ever). Expected trend from 2001 is a decline to 92 million tonnes. Total estimates affected by data from China and fluctuating pelagic stocks such as Peruvian anchovetta. In 2000, aquaculture production increased to 46 million tonnes and continues to grow. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 2000, capture fisheries production: 24 million tonnes. Top producers: Japan (5 million tonnes); USA (4.7), Norway (2.7); Iceland (2.0). Catch trends: general decline in temperate regions. Aquaculture (mainly carnivorous fish) has grown at 3.7% p.a. since 1970. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 2000, capture fisheries production: 62 million tonnes. Top producers: China (17 million tonnes); Peru (10.7); Chile (4.3); Indonesia (4.1); Russia (4); India (3.6); Thailand (2.9); Philippines (1.9). Catch trends: general increase in tropical regions; important increases in SE Pacific, Indian Ocean and WC Pacific. Oceanic landings also increasing. Aquaculture top producers: China (32 million tonnes); India (2); Japan (1.3); Philippines (1); Indonesia (1); Thailand (0.7); Korea (0.7); Bangladesh (0.7); Vietnam (0.5).
	3.2. Fisheries Production (value)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 2000, first sale value of capture fisheries production was USD 81 billion. 	n.a.	n.a.

Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
	3.3. Fish Trade	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 2000, global trade of fish and fishery products increased to export value of USD 55 billion (+8% since 1998). Rise due to volume of commodities traded (since prices had dropped). In 2000, fish exports reached a new record of USD 60 billion. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Main destination for fish imports (80% global traded value). Japan is largest importer (26% global traded value). USA is second largest importer, followed by the EU. Issues facing trade include: change in quality control measures in main importing countries (HACCP); risk assessment; public concern regarding overexploitation and environmental change; traceability and labelling of fish products. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Main source of fishery exports. Thailand is main exporter (USD 4.4 billion). China is second largest exporter (USD 3.7 billion); (with significant re-exports). In 2000, total net receipts were USD 18 billion (+250% increase in real terms since 1980). Fish is most valuable export commodity and significant source of foreign exchange. Main exports are tuna, small pelagics, shrimps/prawns and cephalopods; increasing amount of processed product export; trade in fish meal also important. Imports mainly frozen small pelagics and cured, dried and smoked fish; some imports of raw material for re-export (tuna).

Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
	3.4. Fish consumption	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Total food fish supply for world (excluding China) has been growing at a rate of 2.4% p.a. since 1961; while population has been expanding at 1.8% p.a. From 1987 to 2000: per capita fish supply has declined from 14.6 to 13.1 kg (excluding China). Share of animal protein intake of whole human population derived from fish increased from 13.7% (1961) to 15.8 (1999). 2/3's total food fish supply is obtained from fishing (marine and inland), 1/3 from aquaculture. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Total supply of food fish has increased from 13.2 million tonnes (1961) to 25.4 million tonnes (1999). Per capita supply of food fish has increased from 19.9 kg/yr (1961) to 28.3 kg/yr (1999). Fish represents about 8% total protein intake. Total supply (million tonnes): North/Central America (8.1); Europe (13.9); Oceania (0.7). Per capita supply (kg/yr): North/Central America (16.8); Europe (19.1); Oceania (22.5). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 1999, total supply of food fish has increased to: LIFDCs (20.8 million tonnes); Developing countries excluding LIFDCs (13.7 million tonnes). Per capita supply has increased to: LIFDCs (8.3 kg/yr); Developing countries excluding LIFDCs (14.8 kg/yr). Fish intake is 50% that of OECD. Total supply (million tonnes): Africa (6.2); S.America (2.9); China (31.2); Asia (excluding China) (32.5). Per capita supply (kg/yr): Africa (8); S. America (8.5); China (25.1); Asia (excluding China) (13.7).
	3.5. GDP contribution of fisheries		<1% for most countries.	>1% for many countries (important contribution to agricultural GDP)

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Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
4. Social	4.1. Employment and livelihoods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 2000, 35 million people were directly engaged in fishing and aquaculture, compared with 28 million in 1990. • Total employment includes both full-time and part-time workers. • Equals 2.6% of total global agricultural workforce. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 2000, fisheries and aquaculture workforce was: North/Central America (751 000 people); Europe (821 000); Oceania (86 000). • Employment is decreasing overall; (e.g. since 1990 has declined by 27% in Norway, also Japan); workforce is also ageing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In 2000, fisheries and aquaculture workforce was: Africa (2.6 million); S. America (784 000); Asia (30 million). • Workforce shares closely reflect the different population shares and relative predominance of labour intensive economies. • Asia has most of the growth of employment in aquaculture, particularly China (7 million). • Fisheries and aquaculture is very important for livelihoods, employment, nutrition in many developing countries, but accurate statistics are not generally available.

Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
	4.2. Nutrition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Total amount of fish and the type consumed vary by region and country reflecting the different levels of natural availability, food traditions, tastes, demand and income. Fish contributes up to 180 calories per capita per day, but this is exceptional (e.g. Japan, Iceland); generally fish provides 20-30 calories per day. Worldwide more than 1 billion people rely on fish as an important source of animal protein (i.e. at least 30% of animal protein intake). 56% world's population derives at least 20% animal protein intake from fish. Global average fish protein supply: 4.4g/capita/day. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Average fish protein supply (g/capita/day): North-Central America (4.1); Europe (5.6); Oceania (5.5). Consumption and nutritional contribution varies by country. Demersal fish are preferred in northern Europe and North America; cephalopods in the Mediterranean and Japan. Crustaceans are still high-priced commodities and consumption is concentrated in affluent countries. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Average fish protein supply (g/capita/day): Africa (2.4); South America (2.4); Asia (4.8). Fish proteins are essential and critical in the diets of some densely populated countries, where the total protein intake may be low. Fish contributes more than 50% of total animal proteins in the Gambia, Ghana, Equatorial Guinea, Indonesia, Sierra Leone, Togo, Guinea, Bangladesh, the Republic of Congo, Cambodia).

Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
5. Governance	5.1. Changing forces in fisheries management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fisheries policies and management are in state of flux, with increasing recognition of the need for sustainable development and use. • Management efforts are increasingly complicated by other activities – urbanization, tourism, shipping, deforestation and industrial wastes. • There is a need to develop management systems which cope with competing uses and within an ecosystem context. • Intensive use of fisheries resources will require allocation mechanisms between different stakeholders, and conflict management. • There needs to be a re-consideration of management approaches used to date, and to incorporate multi-disciplinary and multi-objective approaches. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legislated principles of sustainability are driving fisheries management efforts to reverse effects of overfishing and overcapacity (slow progress). • Reducing overcapacity is complicated by intricate technical and social issues; and management of displacement and redeployment of both people and vessels is increasingly difficult. • Technical measures continue to dominate fisheries management approaches for conservation of fish stocks; but at increased economic and social costs which puts pressure on managers to consider new or different approaches. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need to clarify the linkage between development activities and sustainable resource use. • Population and economic growth are putting enormous pressure on fisheries as contributors to food security and providers of a social safety-net. • Use of domestic fisheries to generate foreign exchange is exacerbating allocation issues between industrial and artisanal fleets. • Fisheries management is difficult (under above pressures), but some positive signs for future development.
5.2. Current management		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role of fisheries in economic development, food security, poverty alleviation and human health increasingly recognised. 		

Domain	Key element	Overview General comments	OECD countries	Non-OECD countries
			<p>Other approaches include use of incentives that affect fishers' behaviour (e.g. community-based quotas, territorial use rights and transferable quota systems); but uptake has been slow; there is still a need for more development work.</p>	
5.3. Emerging needs		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alternative fisheries management approaches are emerging worldwide, including the devolution of management to local levels and communities. • Also by broadening the involvement of stakeholder groups at all levels from international to local. • New approaches also require a concomitant devolution of legislative, managerial, financial, administration capacity and political will; otherwise changes of success are low. • In other situations, stakeholders seek to create alternative institutional arrangements to overcome weaknesses in management and administration, for example, through private contracts. • Capacity and skills base for fisheries management and administration needs to undergo rapid changes to cope with new multi-disciplinary demands, including conflict management. • There is a serious and growing gap in capacity between developing and developed countries which needs to be addressed. • The impact of globalisation of trade on all aspects of fisheries management is fast-moving and far-reaching; representing both opportunities and threats which need to be managed within a strategic policy process, requiring critical levels of management capacity. 		

Annex 2

Key International Conventions, Agreements and Declarations with Regard to Fisheries, Poverty and Development

Treaty/Agreement	Date signed	Key points	Participants/ further information
ENVIRONMENT			
United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS)	10 Dec. 1982, Montego Bay, Jamaica. Entry into force: 16 Nov. 1994.	<p>a) To establish a comprehensive legal order to promote peaceful uses of the oceans and seas, the equitable and efficient utilization of their resources, the conservation of their living resources, and the study and protection and preservation of the marine environment, as well as to facilitate international navigation.</p> <p>b) To integrate and balance the right to exploit natural resources with the duty to manage and conserve such resources and to protect and preserve the marine environment.</p>	138 parties by 11 June 2002. 32 Signatories have not yet ratified. www.oceanlaw.net
Conservation and Management of Straddling Fish Stocks and Highly Migratory Fish Stocks (UNFSA)	Adopted on 4 Aug. 1995. Entered into force on 11 Dec. 2001,	Sets out principles for the conservation and management of straddling fish stocks and highly migratory fish stocks and establishes that such management must be based on the precautionary approach and the best available scientific information and holds the fundamental principle that States should co-operate to ensure conservation and promote the objective of the optimum utilization of fisheries resources both within and beyond the exclusive economic zone.	31 Parties by 11 June 2002. 38 Signatories, including the European Community, have not yet ratified. www.oceanlaw.net

Treaty/Agreement	Date signed	Key points	Participants/ further information
Convention on Biological Diversity	1992	The conservation of biological diversity, the sustainable use of its components and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources, including by appropriate access to genetic resources and by appropriate transfer of relevant technologies, taking into account all rights over those resources and to technologies, and by appropriate funding.	188 parties, 168 signatories www.biodiv.org
Convention on Wetlands of International Importance especially as Waterfowl Habitat (Ramsar Convention)	2 February 1971, Ramsar. Entry into force: 21 December 1975.	The Convention's mission is the conservation and wise use of wetlands by national action and international co-operation as a means to achieving sustainable development throughout the world.	131 Parties by 8 April 2002. No Signatories without ratification, acceptance, or approval. www.ramsar.org
Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries	At the Twenty-eighth Session of the FAO Conference on 31 October 1995.	To promote protection of living aquatic resources and their environments and coastal areas. Promote research on fisheries as well as on associated ecosystems and relevant environmental factors.	www.fao.org
TECHNOLOGY			
UNCLOS	See above	International organisations will endeavour to establish programmes of technical co-operation for the effective transfer of all kinds of marine technology to States which may need and request technical assistance in this field, particularly the developing land-locked and geographically disadvantaged States, as well as other developing States which have not been able either to establish or develop their own technological capacity in marine science and in the exploration and exploitation of marine resources or to develop the infrastructure of such technology.	

Treaty/Agreement	Date signed	Key points	Participants/ further information
CCRF	See above	Provide standards of conduct for all persons involved in the fisheries sector (see Section 8 of CCRF for more details).	
UNFSA SOLAS (Safety of Life at Sea)	See above 1914 with subsequent adaptations, now SOLAS 60	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Stipulations regarding rescue equipment on board; informing IMO about the degree to which states apply SOLAS to fishing vessels; fishing vessel stability recommendations. ▪ SOLAS is regarded as the most important Safety at Sea convention, although there are a number of other minor ones. 	http://www.fao.org/DOCREP/003/X9656E/X9656E01.htm
ECONOMICS			
The Lomé Convention	Lomé, 28 February 1975. The convention has been renewed several times (each time a number is added: Lomé II, III, IV etc) as new countries are admitted.	An agreement between the European Community (EC) and the African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP) states whose provisions call for the EC to extend economic assistance to ACP countries. Much of the aid is for project development or rehabilitation, but a large portion is set aside for the Stabilization of Export Earnings (STABEX) system, designed to help developing countries withstand fluctuations in the prices of their agricultural exports.	46 ACP countries and the European community http://www.aede.org/a33a.html
Bretton Woods Pact	1944 with subsequent amendments.	A group of two principle economic agencies: the World Bank (consisting of the IBRD, IDA, IFC, MIGA and ICSID) and the IMF. Original aim was to stabilise currencies, remove restrictive exchange practices and rebuild Post WWII Europe; institutions now focus on poverty alleviation and economic stabilisation measures through financial instruments (the IMF providing loans, the World Bank providing funds).	184 members of IBRD (the most numerous) www.worldbank.org

Treaty/Agreement	Date signed	Key points	Participants/ further information
Monterrey Consensus of the International Conference on Financing for Development	Monterrey, Mexico in March 2002	Resolves to address the challenges of financing for development around the world, particularly in developing countries. The goal is to eradicate poverty, achieve sustained economic growth and promote sustainable development as the world advances to a fully inclusive and equitable global economic system	UN members www.ICSTD.org
World Trade Organisation (WTO)	Geneva, 1 January 1995	Derives from the 1986-1994 Uruguay round of talks (GATT) and establishes a set of legal agreements to liberalise world trade and a platform for discussion and negotiation.	146 countries www.wto.org
SOCIAL ISSUES			
Agenda 21	Adopted at UN Conf on Environment and Development (UNCED) Rio de Janeiro, 3 to 14 June 1992	a) A set of principles for action addressing broad social and economic development needs. b) The full implementation of Agenda 21, the Programme for Further Implementation of Agenda 21 and the Commitments to the Rio principles, were strongly reaffirmed at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) held in Johannesburg, South Africa from 26 August to 4 September 2002.	Adopted by more than 178 Governments www.habitat.igc.org/agenda21
Johannesburg Declaration on Sustainable Development	World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa, from 2 to 4 September 2002	A set of guiding principles on peace and sustainable development with poverty reduction as the core ethos.	www.johannesburgsummit.org
CCRF	See above	Promote the contribution of fisheries to food security and food quality, giving priority to the nutritional needs of local communities.	

Treaty/Agreement	Date signed	Key points	Participants/ further information
United Nations Millennium Declaration (Millennium Development Goals – MDG)	September 2000	<p>a) Various quantified targets for 2015 including reducing the number of poor, improving schooling rates, reducing child and maternal mortality, spread of HIV/AIDS and malaria.</p> <p>b) Other targets include developing further an open trading and financial system that includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction – nationally and internationally, dealing comprehensively with developing countries' debt problems</p>	www.developmentgoals.org
GOVERNANCE			
UNCLOS International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate IUU Fishing (IPOA-IUU)	See above 2001	The objective of the IPOA is to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing by providing all States with comprehensive, effective and transparent measures by which to act, including through appropriate regional fisheries management organisations established in accordance with international law.	FAO members
CCRF	See above	<p>a) Facilitate and promote technical, financial and other co-operation in conservation of fisheries resources and fisheries management and development: establish principles and criteria for the elaboration and implementation of national policies for responsible conservation of fisheries resources and fisheries management and development.</p> <p>b) Serve as an instrument of reference to help States to establish or to improve the legal and institutional framework required for the exercise of responsible fisheries and in the formulation and implementation of appropriate measures.</p>	

Annex 3

OECD Action for a Shared Development Agenda

*From the OECD Council At Ministerial Level, Final Communiqué,
16 May 2002*

OECD's role and strengths

1. Contributing to global development is a key objective of the OECD. Its founding Convention calls upon the OECD to promote policies “designed to contribute to sound economic expansion in member as well as non-member countries in the process of economic development.” [Article 1(b)]. Given increased interdependence, this objective is even more vital today in order to achieve poverty reduction and sustainable development globally. The principles and values that the OECD promotes – commitments to democracy, market-based economies and open, rule-based, and non-discriminatory trading and financial systems, supported by good governance – are essential to achieving our ultimate goal of the economic and social well being of all people, in a way that respects diversity and cultural identity.

2. OECD's strengths include a multidisciplinary capacity for analysis and policy dialogue, its sharing of best practices and monitoring of its members through peer review, and extensive policy dialogue and capacity building activities with more than 70 non-member economies, international organisations and other stakeholders. The Development Assistance Committee (DAC) provides a capacity to foster amongst donors concerted, well co-ordinated, effective and adequately financed international efforts in support of development and poverty reduction in developing countries.

3. The building blocks for achieving the internationally agreed goals of the Millennium Declaration are now in place, supported by a broadly shared view that effective development calls for a comprehensive, partnership-based and results-focused approach. Developing countries have primary responsibility for their economic and social development, establishing good governance and sound policies to mobilise domestic resources and attract private investment, while developed countries give increased attention to the impacts of their policies on developing countries, and assist developing countries, in particular least developed countries (LDCs), in their efforts to build the capacity necessary to make effective use of trade, investment and aid in support of poverty reduction and sustainable development.

How OECD contributes

4. The OECD, for its part, will build upon its strengths to advance this shared development agenda in the following ways:

Encouraging policy coherence for development

5. Successful poverty reduction requires mutually supportive policies across a wide range of economic, social and environmental issues. Through its programme on policy coherence for development, the OECD will enhance understanding of the development dimensions of member country policies and their impacts on developing countries. Analysis should consider trade-offs and potential synergies across such areas as trade, investment, agriculture, health, education, the environment and development co-operation, to encourage greater policy coherence in support of the internationally agreed development goals.

6. By increasing understanding of the development benefits of rules-based trade and investment, such work will help to reinforce our efforts, including promoting the better integration of developing countries into the multilateral trading system, to achieve more open markets both between developed and developing countries and among developing countries themselves to allow for export-led growth, and further our aim to improve market access to the goods of developing countries, and particularly LDCs. Supporting developing countries' governance and policy capacities

7. The OECD will continue to work with developing countries and countries in transition to help them identify and meet key human and governance capacity needs, including through use of information and communication technologies. OECD Global Forums and regional dialogue can support developing countries' efforts to build good governance and market-supportive institutions conducive to mobilising domestic resources and attracting investment capital. Such resources are critically important to developing countries' efforts to achieve sustained economic growth and support their capacities to address vital environmental, educational, health and other needs. We welcome initiatives at the regional level, such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), and stand ready to share the OECD's experience and expertise, notably on peer reviews, in support of a sustained commitment to strengthen political and economic governance. Improving aid effectiveness and ensuring adequate aid volume

8. Aid remains an important policy instrument and complement to domestic and international private capital for reducing poverty, preventing conflict, promoting good governance and creating an enabling environment conducive to achieving private sector-led growth. The OECD, where the world's major donors meet, has a key role in

improving aid effectiveness, thereby sustaining the case for aid volume. Peer review in the DAC is an important tool in support of this role. The OECD is working to reduce the complexity of aid management procedures in collaboration with multilateral aid agencies and developing countries, and to ensure effective implementation of all aspects of the OECD/DAC Recommendation on untying aid to the least developed countries.

Strengthening partnerships and accountability

9. The OECD will strengthen its partnerships with non-members, in particular developing countries, as well as with international organisations and other stakeholders through analytical work, policy dialogue, and advice. A broader and more effective dialogue will improve the quality of our efforts to support development. The OECD will account for its actions to advance this shared development agenda through regular review and reports on progress.

Annex 4. Glossary

The following Glossary has been organised to help the reader understand commonly-used French terms for fish and seafood

PART A. FRENCH = ENGLISH

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
AALPRICKEN	AALPRICKEN	ANCHOVIS	ANCHOVIS
ABADÈCHE ROYALE DU CAP	KINGKLIP	ANGE DE MER	ANGEL SHARK
ABADÈCHES	CUSK EEL	ANGUILLE	EEL
ABLETTE	BLEAK	ANGUILLE D'AMÉRIQUE	AMERICAN EEL
ACIDE ALGINIQUE	ALGINIC ACID	ANGUILLE D'EUROPE	EUROPEAN EEL
ACOUPA ROYAL	SQUETEAGUE	ANGUILLE DU JAPON	JAPANESE EEL
AGAR	AGAR	ANGUILLES EN GELÉE	JELLIED EELS
AIGLE DE MER	EAGLE RAY	ANOLI DE MER	LIZARD FISH
AIGUILLAT	DOGFISH	ANTIBIOTIQUES	ANTIBIOTICS
AIGUILLAT COMMUN	PICKED DOGFISH	APOGON	CARDINAL FISH
AILE	WING	APPÂTS D'ŒUFS DE SAUMON	SALMON EGG BAIT
ALBACORE	YELLOWFIN TUNA	APPERTISATION	APPERTISATION
ALGUE	SEAWEED	APPETITSILD	APPETITSILD
ALGUE BRUNE	BROWN ALGAE	ARAIGNÉE DE MER	SPINOUS SPIDER CRAB
ALGUE ROUGE	RED ALGAE	ARAPAIMA	ARAPAIMA
ALIMENTS SIMPLES POUR ANIMAUX	ANIMAL FEEDING STUFFS	ARCHE	ARKSHELL
ALLACHE	GILT SARDINE	ARGENTINE	ARGENTINE
ALOSE	SHAD	ARNOGLOSSE	SCALDFISH
ALOSE FEINTE	TWAITE SHAD	ARROSE	OREO DORY
ALOSE GASPAREAU	ALEWIFE	ASSIETTE	MOONFISH
ALOSE NOYER	GIZZARD SHAD	ATHÉRINE	ATHERINE
ALOSE SAVOUREUSE	AMERICAN SHAD	AUXIDE	FRIGATE TUNA
ALOSE VRAIE	ALLIS SHAD	AYU	AYU SWEETFISH
AMARELO CURE	AMARELO CURE	BACALAO	BACALAO
AMBRE GRIS	AMBERGRIS	BAGOONG	BAGOONG
AMIE	BOW FIN	BAGOONG TULINGAN	BAGOONG TULINGAN
ANCHOIS	ANCHOVY	BAKASANG	BAKASANG
ANCHOIS DE PÉROU	ANCHOVETA	BALACHONG	BALACHONG
ANCHOIS DU PACIFIQUE	NORTHERN ANCHOVY	BALAI DE L'ATLANTIQUE	AMERICAN PLAICE
ANCHOIS ITALIEN	ITALIAN SARDEL	BALAI JAPONAIS	FLATHEAD FLOUNDER
ANCHOSEN	ANCHOSEN	BALAOU DU JAPON	PACIFIC SAURY
		BALBAKWA	BALBAKWA

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
BALEINE BLEUE	<i>BLUE WHALE</i>	BINORO	<i>BINORO</i>
BALEINE FRANCHE	<i>GREENLAND RIGHT WHALE</i>	BISQUE	<i>BISQUE</i>
BALEINE FRANCHE	<i>NORTH ATLANTIC RIGHT WHALE</i>	BISQUE D'ÉCREVISSES	<i>CRAYFISH BISQUE</i>
BALEINE FRANCHE	<i>RIGHT WHALE</i>	BLANCHE	<i>MOJARRA</i>
BALEINE GRISE DE CALIFORNIE	<i>PACIFIC GREY WHALE</i>	BLOCS (Congelés)	<i>BLOCKS (Frozen)</i>
BALEINES	<i>WHALES</i>	BODARA	<i>BODARA</i>
BALIK	<i>BALIK</i>	BOETTE	<i>BOETTE</i>
BALISTE	<i>TRIGGERFISH</i>	BOGUE	<i>BOGUE</i>
BANANE (DE MER)	<i>BONEFISH</i>	BOKKEM	<i>BOKKEM</i>
BAR BLANC	<i>WHITE BASS</i>	BOMBAY DUCK	<i>BOMBAY DUCK</i>
BAR BLANC D'AMERIQUE	<i>WHITE PERCH</i>	BONITE	<i>BONITO</i>
BAR COMMUN	<i>BASS</i>	BONITE À DOS RAYÉ	<i>ATLANTIC BONITO</i>
BAR D'AMÉRIQUE	<i>STRIPED BASS</i>	BONITE À DOS TACHETÉ	<i>ELEGANT BONITO</i>
BAR DU JAPON	<i>JAPAN SEA BASS</i>	BONITE À GROS YEUX	<i>RUPPEL'S BONITO</i>
BARBUE	<i>BRILL</i>	BONITE À VENTRE RAYÉ ou LISTAO	<i>SKIPJACK</i>
BARBURE ou CAPITAINE	<i>THREADFIN</i>	BONITE DE L'OcéAN INDIEN	<i>ORIENTAL BONITO</i>
BARRAMUNDI	<i>BARRAMUNDI</i>	BONITE DU PACIFIQUE ORIENTALE	<i>PACIFIC BONITO</i>
BARRÉAN GÉANT	<i>GIANT SEA BASS</i>	BONITOU	<i>BULLET TUNA</i>
BÂTONNETS DE POISSON	<i>FISH STICKS</i>	BOTTARGA	<i>BOTTARGA</i>
BÂTONNETS DE POISSON AROMATISÉS AU CRABE	<i>CRAB STICKS</i>	BOUILLA-BAISSE	<i>BOUILLA-BAISSE</i>
BAUDROIE	<i>ANGLERFISH</i>	BOULETTE DE POISSON	<i>FISH BALL</i>
BEAUCLAIRE	<i>BIGEYE</i>	BOULETTES DE POISSON	<i>FISH NUGGETS</i>
BÉCUNE	<i>BARRACUDA</i>	BOUQUET	<i>COMMON PRAWN</i>
BEIGNETS DE CRABE	<i>CRAB CAKES</i>	BOUQUET PINTADE	<i>FRESHWATER PRAWN</i>
BEKKÓ	<i>BEKKÓ</i>	BOURRUGUE	<i>KING WHITING</i>
BERARDIDÉ	<i>BEAKED WHALE</i>	BOURSE	<i>FILFISH</i>
BERNFISK	<i>BERNFISK</i>	BOUVARD	<i>SPAWNING FISH</i>
BERNICLE/BALANE	<i>BARNACLE</i>	BRADO	<i>BRADO</i>
BERYX	<i>ALFONSINO</i>	BRANCO CURE	<i>BRANCO CURE</i>
BERYX AUSTRALIEN	<i>REDFISH or NANNYGAI</i>	BRANDADE	<i>BRANDADE</i>
BERYX COMMUN	<i>RED BREAM</i>	BRAT-BÜCKLING	<i>BRAT-BÜCKLING</i>
BEURRE D'ANCHOIS	<i>ANCHOVY BUTTER</i>	BRATFISCHWAREN	<i>BRATFISCHWAREN</i>
BEURRE DE LANGOUSTE	<i>CRAWFISH BUTTER</i>	BRATHERING	<i>BRATHERING</i>
BICHIR	<i>BICHIR</i>	BRAT-ROLLMOPS	<i>BRAT-ROLLMOPS</i>
BIGORNEAU	<i>PERIWINKLE</i>	BRÈME	<i>BREAM</i>
BIGORNEAU	<i>WINKLE</i>	BRÈME	<i>QUILLBACK</i>
		BRIQUE DE MORUE	<i>CODFISH BRICK</i>

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
BRISLING	<i>BRISLING</i>	TARAKIHI	
BROCHET	<i>PIKE</i>	CASTENETTE DE JUAN FERNANDEZ	<i>TARAKIHI</i>
BROCHET DE MER	<i>SNOOK</i>	CAUMMALMUM	<i>CUMMALMUM</i>
BROSME	<i>TUSK</i>	CAVEACHED FISH	<i>CAVEACHED FISH</i>
BUCCIN	<i>WHELK</i>	CAVIAR	<i>CAVIAR, CAVIARE</i>
BUCKLING	<i>BUCKLING</i>		
BÜCKLINGE-FILET	<i>BUCKLINGS-FILET</i>		
BURO	<i>BURO</i>	CAVIAR EN GRAINS PASTEURISÉ	<i>PASTEURISED GRAIN CAVIAR</i>
CABILLAUD/MORUE	<i>COD</i>	CAVIAR EN GRAINS SAUMURÉ	<i>PICKLED GRAINY CAVIAR</i>
CACHALOT	<i>SPERM WHALE</i>	CAVIAR ROUGE	<i>RED CAVIAR</i>
CALICAGÈNE DEMI-LUNE	<i>HALFMOON</i>	CENTRINE	<i>HUMANTIN</i>
CALIPASH	<i>CALIPASH</i>	CERNIER ATLANTIQUE	<i>WRECKFISH</i>
CALMAR	<i>FLYING SQUID</i>	CERNIER DE JUAN FERNANDEZ	<i>HAPUKU</i>
CALMAR	<i>SQUID</i>	CHABOT	<i>SCULPIN</i>
CAMARDE DE NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE	<i>SAND FLOUNDER</i>	CHAIR DE CRABE	<i>CRAB MEAT</i>
CAPELAN ATLANTIQUE	<i>CAPELIN</i>	CHANIDÉ	<i>MILKFISH</i>
CAPITAINE	<i>EMPEROR</i>	CHARBONNIÈRE COMMUNE	<i>SABLEFISH</i>
CAQUÉS	<i>CAQUÉS</i>	CHARDIN	<i>THREAD HERRING</i>
CARANGUE	<i>JACK</i>	CHIKUWA	<i>CHIKUWA</i>
CARANGUE AUSTRALIENNE	<i>TREVALLY</i>	CHIMÈRE	<i>CHIMAERA</i>
CARANGUE BALO	<i>BLUDGER</i>	CHIMÈRE COMMUNE	<i>RABBIT FISH</i>
CARANGUE CREVALLE	<i>CREVALLE JACK</i>	CHIMÈRE D'AMÉRIQUE	<i>RATFISH</i>
CARDEAU	<i>FLUKE</i>	CHINCHARD	<i>HORSE MACKEREL</i>
CARDEAU D'ÉTÉ	<i>SUMMER FLOUNDER</i>	CIVELLE	<i>ELVER</i>
CARDEAU DE CALIFORNIE	<i>CALIFORNIA HALIBUT</i>	CLAM	<i>CLAM</i>
CARDEAU HIRAME	<i>BASTARD HALIBUT</i>	CLOVISSE/PALOURDE	<i>CARPET SHELL</i>
CARDINE FRANCHE	<i>MEGRIM</i>	COCKTAIL DE FRUITS DE MER	<i>SEAFOOD COCKTAIL</i>
CARLOTTIN ANGLAIS	<i>ENGLISH SOLE</i>	COLLE DE POISSON	<i>FISH GLUE</i>
CARLOTTIN JAPONAIS	<i>ROUNDNOSE FLOUNDER</i>	COMPÈRE	<i>PUFFER</i>
CARLOTTIN MEITAGARE	<i>FROG FLOUNDER</i>	CONCENTRÉ DE PROTÉINES DE POISSON	<i>FISH PROTEIN CONCENTRATE (FPC)</i>
CARLOTTIN PÉTRALE	<i>PETRALE SOLE</i>	CONGRE	<i>CONGER</i>
CARNE À CARNE	<i>CARNE A CARNE</i>	COQUE	<i>COCKLE</i>
CARPE	<i>CARP</i>	COQUE COMMUNE	<i>COMMON COCKLE</i>
CARRA GHEENE	<i>CARRA GEENIN</i>	COQUILLAGE ÉPURÉ	<i>CLEANSSED SHELLFISH</i>
CARRAGHÉEN	<i>IRISH MOSS</i>	COQUILLAGE STÉRILISÉ	<i>STERILISED SHELLFISH</i>
CASTAGNOLE	<i>POMFRET</i>	COQUILLE ST. JACQUES	<i>SCALLOP</i>
CASTANETTES, CASTANETTES	<i>MORWONG</i>	COQUILLES ET	<i>SHELLS</i>

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
CARAPACES			
CORAIL	CORAL		
CORÉGONE	HOUTING	DAUPHIN À NEZ BLANC	WHITE-BEAKED DOLPHIN
CORÉGONE	POLLAN	DAUPHIN BLANC (Beluga)	BELUGA WHALE
CORÉGONE	WHITEFISH	DAUPHIN COMMUN	COMMON DOLPHIN
CORÉGONE BLANC	VENDACE	DAUPHIN GRIS	RISSEO'S DOLPHIN
CORÉGONE CISCO	LAKE HERRING	DÉCHETS DE POISSON	FISH WASTE
CORÉGONE LAVARET	POWAN		DELICATESSEN FISH PRODUCTS
CORVINA	CORVINA	DELICATESSEN	
CORYPHÈNE	DOLPHINFISH	DEMI-BEC	HALFBEAK
COURBINE JAUNE	YELLOW CROAKER	DENTÉ À GROS YEUX	LARGE EYED DENTEX
COURT-BOUILLON	COURT-BOUILLON	DENTÉ DU CAP	RED STEENBRAS
COUTEAU	RAZOR SHELL	DENTÉ MACULÉ	SEVENTY-FOUR
CRABE	CRAB	DÉPOUILLEMENT	SKINNING
CRABE BLEU	BLUE CRAB	DESCARGEMENTO	DESCARGAMENTO
CRABE PARÉ	DRESSED CRAB	DINAILAN	DINAILAN
CRABE ROYAL	KING CRAB	DISQUE	SPADEFISH
CRABE VERT	COMMON SHORE CRAB	DJRIM	DJRIM
CRAPET DE ROCHE	ROCK BASS	DORADE	DORADE
CRAQUELOT ou BOUFFI	BLOATER	DORADE	SEA BREAM
CRÈME D'ANCHOIS	ANCHOVY CREAM	DORADE ROYALE	GILT HEAD BREAM
CREVETTE	PRAWN	DORÉ JAUNE	WALLEYE
CREVETTE	SHRIMP	DORÉ NOIR	SAUGER
CREVETTE AMÉRICAINE	WHITE SHRIMP	DORMEUR DU PACIFIQUE	DUNGENESS CRAB
CREVETTE DU PACIFIQUE	PACIFIC PRAWN	DOROME	SHIRAUO ICEFISH
CREVETTE GRISE	BROWN SHRIMP	ÉCAILLES DE POISSON	FISH SCALES
CREVETTE GRISE	COMMON SHRIMP	ÉCREVISSE	CRAYFISH
CREVETTE NORDIQUE	DEEP-WATER PRAWN	ÉGLEFIN	HADDOCK
CREVETTE ROSE	PINK SHRIMP	ÉMISSOLE	SMOOTH HOUND
CROUPIA ROCHE	TRIPLETAIL	ÉMISSOLE GOMMÉE	GUMMY SHARK
CRYO-DESSICATION	FREEZE DRYING	EMISSOLE GRIVELÉE	RIG
CUIR	LEATHER	ENCRE	INK
CYPRIN	CRUCIAN CARP	ENSHÔ-HIN	ENSHÔ-HIN
CYPRIN DORE	GOLDFISH	ENTREPOSAGE FRIGORIFIQUE	COLD STORAGE
CYPRINOÏDE	SQUAWFISH	ÉPERLAN	SMELT
DAENG	DAENG	ÉPERLAN DU JAPON	POND SMELT
DATTE DE MER	DATE SHELL	ÉPONGE	SPONGE
DAUPHIN	DOLPHIN	ESCABÉCHE	ESCABECHE
DAUPHIN À FLANCS BLANCS	WHITE-SIDED DOLPHIN	ESCOLIER	SNAKE MACKEREL
DAUPHIN À GROS NEZ	BOTTLENOSED	ESCOLIER ROYAL	GEMFISH

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
ESCOLIER ROYAL	<i>SOUTHERN KINGFISH</i>	FLÉTAN DU PACIFIQUE	<i>ARROWTOOTH FLOUNDER</i>
ESPADON	<i>SWORDFISH</i>	FLÉTAN DU PACIFIQUE	<i>ARROWTOOTH HALIBUT</i>
ESSENCE D'ANCHOIS	<i>ANCHOVY ESSENCE</i>	FLÉTAN DU PACIFIQUE	<i>PACIFIC HALIBUT</i>
ESSENCE D'ORIENT	<i>PEARL ESSENCE</i>	FLÉTAN NOIR	<i>GREENLAND HALIBUT</i>
ESTURGEON	<i>STURGEON</i>	FLOCONS DE MORUE	<i>FLAKED CODFISH</i>
ESTURGEON BELUGA	<i>BELUGA</i>	FLOCONS DE POISSON	<i>FISH FLAKES</i>
ESTURGEON DU DANUBE	<i>OSETR</i>	FOIE DE POISSON	<i>FISH LIVER</i>
ESTURGEON ÉTOILÉ	<i>SEVRUGA</i>	FONDULE	<i>KILLIFISH</i>
ETHMALOSE D'AFRIQUE	<i>BONGA</i>	FUNORI	<i>FUNORI</i>
ÉTOILE DE MER	<i>STARFISH</i>	FURIKAKE	<i>FURIKAKE</i>
ÉTRILLE	<i>SWIMMING CRAB</i>	FUSHI-RUI	<i>FUSHI-RUI</i>
EULACHON	<i>EULACHON</i>	GABEL ROLLMOPS	<i>GABEL ROLLMOPS</i>
ÉVISCÉRATION	<i>NOBBING</i>	GADICULE ARGENTÉ	<i>SILVERY POUT</i>
EXOCET (POISSON VOLANT)	<i>FLYING FISH</i>	GAFFELBIDDER	<i>GAFFELBIDDER</i>
EXTRAIT DE SOUPE DE LANGOUSTE	<i>CRAWFISH SOUP EXTRACT</i>	GALATÉES	<i>SQUAT LOBSTER</i>
FALL CURE	<i>FALL CURE</i>	GARDON	<i>ROACH</i>
FANFRE NOIR D'AMÉRIQUE	<i>BLACK SEA BASS</i>	GÁROS	<i>GÁROS</i>
FARINE DE FOIE DE MORUE	<i>COD LIVER MEAL</i>	GARUM	<i>GARUM</i>
FARINE DE HARENG	<i>HERRING MEAL</i>	GASPAREAUX À ROGUE	<i>CLIPPED ROE FISH</i>
FARINE DE LANGOUSTE	<i>CRAWFISH MEAL</i>	GASPÉ	<i>GASPÉ CURE</i>
FARINE DE POISSON	<i>FISH MEAL</i>	GATEAU DE PRESSE	<i>PRESS CAKE</i>
FARINE DE POISSON COMESTIBLE	<i>FISH FLOUR</i>	GÉLATINE	<i>GELATIN(E)</i>
FARINE DE POISSON MAIGRE	<i>WHITE FISH MEAL</i>	GERMON	<i>ALBACORE</i>
FARINE ENTIÈRE ou COMPLÈTE	<i>WHOLE MEAL</i>	GISUKENI	<i>GISUKENI</i>
FAUSSE LIMANDE DU PACIFIQUE	<i>ROCK SOLE</i>	GIVRAGE	<i>GLAZING</i>
FAZEEQ	<i>FAZEEQ</i>	GLOBICÉPHALE	<i>PILOT WHALE</i>
FILET	<i>FILLET</i>	GOBIE	<i>GOBY</i>
FILET DE MORUE SANS ARÊTE	<i>BONELESS SALT COD FILLET</i>	GONADES	<i>GONADS</i>
FILETS DE HARENG	<i>HERRING CUTLETS</i>	GORET MULE	<i>PIGFISH</i>
FILETS DE KIPPER	<i>KIPPER FILLETS</i>	GOURAMI	<i>GOURAMI</i>
FISCHFRIKAD ELLEN	<i>FISCHFRIKAD ELLEN</i>	GRAND REQUIN BLANC	<i>WHITE SHARK</i>
FISCHSÛIZE	<i>FISCHSÛLZE</i>	GRAND TAMBOUR	<i>BLACK DRUM</i>
FLET	<i>ARCTIC FLOUNDER</i>	GRANDE CASTAGNOLE	<i>RAY'S BREEM</i>
FLET COMMUN	<i>FLOUNDER</i>	GRANDE ROUSSETTE	<i>LARGER SPOTTED DOGFISH</i>
FLÉTAN	<i>HALIBUT</i>	GRANDE VIVE	<i>GREATER WEEVER</i>
		GRAVLAX	<i>GRAVLAX</i>
		GRENOUILLE	<i>FROG</i>
		GRENOUILLE JAPONAISE	<i>BULL FROG</i>
		GRISSET	<i>BLACK SEA BREEM</i>

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
GRONDEUR	GRUNT	HARENG REPAQUÉ	REPACK QUALITY HERRING
GRONDIN CAMARD	STREAKED GURNARD	HARENG ROUGE	RED HERRING
GRONDIN GRIS	GREY GURNARD	HARENG SALÉ À L'ÉCOSSAISE	SCOTCH CURED HERRING
GRONDIN JAPONAIS	HOBO GURNARD	HARENG SALÉ À LA HOLLANDAISE	DUTCH CURED HERRING
GRONDIN LYRE	PIPER	HARENG SALÉ À SEC	DRY SALTED HERRING
GRONDIN MORRUDE	SHINING GURNARD	HARENG SALÉ TYPE NORVÉGIEN	NORWEGIAN CURED HERRING
GRONDIN ou TRIGLE	GURNARD	HARENG SAUMURÉ	PICKLED HERRING
GRONDIN ou TRIGLE	SEA ROBIN	HARENG SAUR	HARENG SAUR
GRONDIN PERLON	YELLOW GURNARD	HERINGSSTIP	HERINGSSTIP
GRONDIN ROUGE	RED GURNARD	HOLBICHE BRUNE	BROWN CAT SHARK
GUAI	SPENT FISH	HOLOTHURIE	SEA CUCUMBER
GUANINE	GUANIN	HOMARD	LOBSTER
GUINAMOS ALAMANG	GUINAMOS ALAMANG	HOMARD AMÉRICAIN	NORTHERN LOBSTER
GUINÉE MACHÈTE	LADY FISH	HOMARD EUROPÉEN	EUROPEAN LOBSTER
GUITE DE PATAGONIE	ROCK COD	HOPLOSTETE ROUGE	ORANGE ROUGHY
GYOMISO	GYOMISO	HUCHON ou SAUMON DU DANUBE	DANUBE SALMON
HADDOCK	PALE CURE	HUILE DE BALEINE	WHALE OIL
HADDOCK 'EYEMOUTH' (FINNAN) HADDOCK	EYEMOUTH CURE FINNAN HADDOCK	HUILE DE CACHALOT	SPERM OIL
HADDOCK COUPÉ DE LONDRES	LONDON CUT CURE	HUILE DE FOIE DE FLÉTAN	HALIBUT LIVER OIL
HAMAYAKIDAI	HAMAYAKI-DAI	HUILE DE FOIE DE MORUE	COD LIVER OIL
HAMPEN	HAMPEN	HUILE DE FOIE DE POISSON	FISH LIVER OIL
HARENG	HERRING	HUILE DE HARENG	HERRING OIL
HARENG 'DE LA BALTIQUE'	BALTIC HERRING	HUILES DE POISSON	FISH OILS
HARENG À LA CRÈME	HERRING IN SOUR CREAM SAUCE	HÛÎTRE	OYSTER
HARENG À LA MOUTARDE	MUSTARD HERRING	HÛÎTRE CREUSE AMÉRICAINNE	BLUE POINT OYSTER
HARENG AU FOUR	BAKED HERRING	HÛÎTRE INDIGÈNE	NATIVE OYSTER
HARENG BISMARCK	BISMARCK HERRING	HÛÎTRE PLATE	COMMON OYSTER
HARENG BRAILLÉ	BLOATER STOCK	HÛÎTRE PORTUGAISE	PORTUGUESE OYSTER
HARENG DU PACIFIQUE	PACIFIC HERRING	HYDROLY SAT	HOMOGENISED CONDENSED FISH
HARENG EN GELÉE	HERRING IN JELLY	HYPEROODON	BOTTLENOSED WHALE
HARENG ÉPICÉ	SPICED HERRING	ICHTYOCOLLE	ISINGLASS
HARENG FLAQUE	FLECKHERING	INASAL	INASAL
HARENG FORTEMENT SALÉ	HARD SALTED HERRING	INCONNU	INCONNU
HARENG FUMÉ SANS ARÊTE	BONELESS SMOKED HERRING	IRRADIATION	IRRADIATION
HARENG MARINÉ AU VIN	HERRING IN WINE SAUCE		

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
IVOIRE	IVORY	LANÇON	SANDEEL
JOUES DE MORUE	COD CHEEKS	LANÇON COMMUN	GREATER SANDEEL
JUBARTE	HUMPBACK WHALE	LANÇON EQUILLE	SMALL SANDEEL
JUMBO	JUMBO	LANGOUSTE	CRAWFISH
KABAYAKI	KABAYAKI	LANGOUSTE	ROCK LOBSTER
KAHAWAI	AUSTRALIAN SALMON	LANGOUSTE	SPINY LOBSTER
KAHAWAI	KAHAWAI	LANGOUSTINE	NORWAY LOBSTER
KALBFISCH	KALBFISCH	LANGUE	TONGUE
KAMABOKO	KAMABOKO	LANGUES DE POISSON	FISH TONGUES
KAPI	KAPI	LARD DE BALEINE	BLUBBER
KARAVALA	KARAVALA	LIEU DE L'ALASKA	ALASKA POLLACK
KATSUO-BUSHI	KATSUO-BUSHI	LIEU JAUNE	POLLACK
KAZUNOKO	KAZUNOKO	LIEU NOIR	SAITHE
KEDGEREE	KEDGEREE	LIMACE	SEASNAIL
KIELER SPROTTE	KIELER SPROTTE	LIMANDE	DAB
KILKA	KILKA	LIMANDE À QUEUE JAUNE	YELLOWTAIL FLOUNDER
KIPPER	KIPPER	LIMANDE PLIE ROUGE	WINTER FLOUNDER
KIPPER SANS ARÊTE	BONELESS KIPPER	LIMANDE SOLE BABAGAREI	SLIME FLOUNDER
KLIPFISH	KLIPFISH	LIMANDE SOLE COMMUNE	LEMON SOLE
KOCHFISCHWAREN	KOCHFISCHWAREN	LIMBERT ACHIGAN	CUNNER
KOMBU	KOMBU	LINGUE	LING
KRABBENSALAT	KRABBENSALAT	LINGUE BLEUE	BLUE LING
KRILL	KRILL	LINGUE ESPAGNOLE	MEDITERRANEAN LING
KRILL ANTARCTIQUE	KRILL ANTARCTIC	LIPPU ROUDEAU	PORKFISH
KRON-SARDINER	KRON-SARDINER	LIQUEUR DE CLAM	CLAM LIQUOR
KRUPUK	KRUPUK	LOCKS	LOCKS
KUSAYA	KUSAYA	LOMPE	LUMPFISH
LABERDAN	LABERDAN	LOTTE	BURBOT
LABRADOR CURE	LABRADOR CURE	LOUP	CATFISH
LABRE	WRASSE	LOUP GÉLATINEUX	BLUE SEA CAT
LAIMARGUE DU GROËNLAND	GREENLAND SHARK	LOUP TACHETÉ	SPOTTED SEA CAT
LAITANCE	MILT	LUTEFISK	LUTEFISK
LAKERDA	LAKERDA	LYCODE	EELPOUT
LAMANTIN	SEA COW	LYRE	LYRE
LAMAYO	LAMAYO	MACHOIRON D'AUSTRALIE	COBBLER
LAMBIS	CONCH	MAHOU	COBIA
LAMINAIRE	SEA CABBAGE LAMINARIA SPP.	MAIGRE COMMUN	MEAGRE
LAMINARINE	LAMINARIN	MAIGRE DU SUD	KABELJOU
LAMPROIE FLUVIALE	LAMPREY		
LAMPROIE MARINE	SEA LAMPREY		

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
MAKAIRE	MARLIN	MERLU BLANC DU CAP	CAPE HAKE
MAKAIRE	SPEARFISH	MERLU DU CHILI	CHILEAN HAKE
MAKAIRE BLANC	WHITE MARLIN	MERLU DU PACIFIQUE	PACIFIC HAKE
MAKAIRE BLEU	BLUE MARLIN	MÉROU	GROUPEUR
MAKAIRE NOIR	BLACK MARLIN	MÉROU GÉANT	JEWFISH
MAKAIRE, MARLIN et VOILIER	BILLFISH	MÉROU NOIR	DUSKY SEA PERCH
MAKO	MAKO (SHARK)	MERSIN	MERSIN
MALACHIGAN D'EAU DOUCE	SHEEPSHEAD	MEUNIER NOIR	SUCKER
MALLARMAT	ARMED GURNARD	MIDDLE	MIDDLE
MAM-RUOT	MAM-RUOT	MIETTES	MIETTES
MANNITOL	MANNITOL	MIGAKI-NISHIN	MIGAKI-NISHIN
MANTE	DEVILFISH	MILKER HERRING	MILKER HERRING
MANTE	MANTA	MIRIN	MIRIN
MAQUEREAU	MACKEREL	MIRIN-BOSHI	MIRIN-BOSHI
MAQUEREAU DU PACIFIQUE	INDIAN MACKEREL	MOJAMA	MOJAMA
MAQUEREAU ESPAGNOL	CHUB MACKEREL	MOLUHA	MOLUHA
MAQUEREAU ESPAGNOL	PACIFIC MACKEREL	MORENESOCE DAGUE	SHARP-TOOTHED EEL
MARBRE DU CAP	WHITE STEENBRAS	MORIDE ROUGE	RED COD
MARIGANE NOIRE	CRAPPIE	MORO	DEEPSEA COD
MARINADE	MARINADE	MORO	RIBALDO
MARLIN RAYÉ	STRIPED MARLIN	MORSE	WALRUS
MARSOUIN	PORPOISE	MORUE ARCTIQUE	WACHNA COD
MASCA LABOUREUR	ELEPHANTFISH	MORUE DE SAINT PAUL	TRUMPETER
MATIOTE NOIRE	TAUTOG	MORUE DÉPOUILLÉE	SKINNED COD
MATJE (PAYS-BAS)	MATJE HERRING	MORUE DU PACIFIQUE	PACIFIC COD
MATODES	BOARFISH	MORUE EN FIBRES	SHREDDED COD
MÉDUSE	JELLY FISH	MORUE POLAIRE	POLAR COD
MEIKOTSU	MEIKOTSU	MORUE SALÉE	SALT COD
MEJI	MEJI	MORUE SANS ARÊTE	BONELESS COD
MENHADEN	MENHADEN	MOTELLE	ROCKLING
MERLAN	WHITING	MOTELLE À CINQ BARBILLONS	FIVEBEARD ROCKLING
MERLAN BLEU	BLUE WHITING	MOTELLE À QUATRE BARBILLONS	FOURBEARD ROCKLING
MERLAN BLEU DU SUD	SOUTHERN BLUE WHITING	MOTELLE COMMUNE	THREEBEARD ROCKLING
MERLU	HAKE	MOULE	COUNT
MERLU ARGENTÉ	SILVER HAKE	MOULE	MUSSEL
MERLU ARGENTIN	SOUTHWEST ATLANTIC HAKE	MOULE COMMUNE	BLUE MUSSEL
		MUGE ou MULET	MULLET
		MURÈNE	MORAY
		MUSCIAME	MUSCIAME

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
MYE	SOFT (SHELL) CLAM	PARR	PARR
NACRE	MOTHER-OF-PEARL	PASTENAGUE	STINGRAY
NAMARI-BUSHI	NAMARI-BUSHI	PÂTE D'ANCHOIS	ANCHOVY PASTE
NARUTO	NARUTO	PÂTE DE FOIE DE MORUE	COD LIVER PASTE
NARVAL	NARWHAL	PÂTE DE FOIE DE POISSON	FISH LIVER PASTE
NATIONAL CURE	NATIONAL CURE	PÂTE DE HARENG	BLOATER PASTE
NGA-BOK-CHAUK	NGA-BOK-CHAUK	PÂTE DE MOLLUSQUES ET CRUSTACÉS	SHELLFISH PASTE
NGA-PI	NGA-PI	PÂTE DE POISSON	FISH PASTE
NIBOSHI	NIBOSHI	PÂTÉ DE POISSON	FISH CAKE
NONNAT	NONNAT	PÂTÉ DE POISSON EN CONSERVE	JAPANESE CANNED FISH PUDDING
NORI	NORI	PÂTE DE POISSON FERMENTÉ	FERMENTED FISH PASTE
NUOC-MAM	NUOC-MAM	PATELLE	LIMPET
OEL-PRÄSERVEN	OEL-PRÄSERVEN	PATIS	PATIS
OMBLE	CHAR	PAUA	PAUA
OMBLE CHEVALIER	ARCTIC CHAR	PEAU DE CHAGRIN	SHAGREEN
OMBLE D'AMÉRIQUE	LAKE TROUT	PEAU DE POISSON	FISH SKIN
OMBLE MALMA	DOLLY VARDEN	PECTEN	BAY SCALLOP
OMBRE	GRAYLING	PEDAH	PEDAH
OPAH	OPAH	PERCHE	PERCH
ORMEAU	ABALONE	PERCHE CANADIENNE	YELLOW PERCH
ORMEAU	ORMER	PERLE	PEARL
ORPHIE COMMUN	GARFISH	PERROQUET	PARROT-FISH
ORPHIE et BALAOU	SAURY	PETIT CACHALOT	LESSER CACHALOT
ORPHIE ou AIGUILLE DE MER	NEEDLEFISH	PETIT RORQUAL	MINKE WHALE
ORQUE	KILLER WHALE	PETITE ROUSSETTE	LESSER SPOTTED DOGFISH
OURSIN	SEA URCHIN	PETITE SOLE JAUNE	YELLOW SOLE
PADDA	PADDA	PHOQUE	SEAL
PADEC	PADEC	PHYCIS	FORKBEARD
PAGEOT ACARNÉ	AXILLARY BREEM	PHYCIS BLANC	WHITE HAKE
PAGEOT COMMUN	PANDORA	PHYCIS ÉCUREUIL	RED HAKE
PAGEOT ROSE	BLACKSPOT SEA BREEM	PICAREL	PICAREL
PAGRE COMMUN	COUCH'S SEA BREEM	PILCHARDS PRESSÉS	PRESSED PILCHARDS
PAGRE COMMUN	RED PORGY	PINDANG	PINDANG
PAKSIW	PAKSIW	PISSALA	PISSALA
PALOMETTE	PLAIN BONITO	PLA THU NUNG	PLA THU NUNG
PALOURDE	GROOVED CARPET SHELL	PLA-RA	PLA-RA
PAPILLON	BUTTERFLYFISH	PLATY CEPHALIDÉ	FLATHEAD
PAPILLON	PAPILLON	PLIE CYNOGLOSSE	WITCH
PARAGE	TRIMMING		

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
PLIE CYNOGLOSSE ROYALE	<i>REX SOLE</i>	POISSON MARINÉ	<i>MARINATED FISH</i>
PLIE DUE PACIFIQUE	<i>STARRY FLOUNDER</i>	POISSON MARINÉ À CHAUD	<i>HOT-MARINATED FISH</i>
PLIE LISSE	<i>SMOOTH FLOUNDER</i>	POISSON MOYENNEMENT SALÉ	<i>MEDIUM SALTED FISH</i>
PLIE ou CARRELET	<i>PLAICE</i>	POISSON PARÉ	<i>DRESSED FISH</i>
POCHETEAU GRIS	<i>FLAPPER SKATE</i>	POISSON PASTEURISÉ	<i>PASTEURISED FISH</i>
POCHETEAU NOIR	<i>LONGNOSE SKATE</i>	POISSON PÉLAGIQUE	<i>PELAGIC FISH</i>
PODPOD	<i>PODPOD</i>	POISSON PILOTE	<i>PILOT FISH</i>
POISSON 'AU NATUREL'	<i>FISH 'AU NATUREL'</i>	POISSON PLAT	<i>FLATFISH</i>
POISSON À LA MARINADE	<i>ACID CURED FISH</i>	POISSON PLEIN	<i>RIPE FISH</i>
POISSON AU VINAIGRE	<i>VINEGAR CURED FISH</i>	POISSON RASSIS	<i>STALE DRY FISH</i>
POISSON CONGELÉ	<i>FROZEN FISH</i>	POISSON RÉFRIGÉRÉ	<i>CHILLED FISH</i>
POISSON CONGELÉ	<i>SHARP FROZEN FISH</i>	POISSON ROND	<i>ROUND FISH</i>
POISSON DE REBUT	<i>TRASH FISH</i>	POISSON SALÉ	<i>SALT CURED FISH</i>
POISSON DEMI-SEL	<i>HALF-SALTED FISH</i>	POISSON SALÉ	<i>SALTFISH</i>
POISSON DÉPOUILLÉ	<i>SKINLESS FISH</i>	POISSON SALÉ À SEC	<i>DRY SALTED FISH</i>
POISSON DÉSARÊTÉ	<i>BONED FISH</i>	POISSON SALÉ EN VERT	<i>GREEN FISH</i>
POISSON DÉSHYDRATÉ	<i>DEHYDRATED FISH</i>	POISSON SALÉ SÉCHÉ	<i>DRIED SALTED FISH</i>
POISSON EN CONSERVE	<i>CANNED FISH</i>	POISSON SANS ARÊTE	<i>BONELESS FISH</i>
POISSON EN CUBES	<i>DICED FISH</i>	POISSON SAUMURÉ	<i>BRINED FISH</i>
POISSON EN GELÉE	<i>FISH IN JELLY</i>	POISSON SÉCHÉ	<i>DRIED FISH</i>
POISSON EN SAUMURE	<i>PICKLE CURED FISH</i>	POISSON SÉCHÉ AU SOLEIL	<i>SUN-DRIED FISH</i>
POISSON ENSILÉ	<i>FISH SILAGE</i>	POISSON SÉCHÉ AU VENT	<i>WIND DRIED FISH</i>
POISSON ENTIER	<i>WHOLE FISH</i>	POISSON SUR BARBECUE	<i>BARBECUED FISH</i>
POISSON ENTIER SALÉ	<i>SALT ROUND FISH</i>	POISSON TRAITÉ AU SUCRE	<i>SUGAR CURED FISH</i>
POISSON ÉTÊTÉ	<i>HEADED FISH</i>	POISSON TRANCHÉ	<i>DRESSED GREEN FISH</i>
POISSON FORTEMENT FUMÉ	<i>HARD SMOKED FISH</i>	POISSON TRANCHÉ	<i>SPLIT FISH</i>
POISSON FORTEMENT SALÉ	<i>HEAVY SALTED FISH</i>	POISSON VIDÉ	<i>GUTTED FISH</i>
POISSON FRAIS	<i>FRESH FISH</i>	POISSON-CHAT	<i>SEA CATFISH</i>
POISSON FRIT	<i>FRIED FISH</i>	POISSON-GUITARE	<i>GUITARFISH</i>
POISSON FUMÉ	<i>SMOKED FISH</i>	POISSON-LUNE	<i>MOLA</i>
POISSON FUMÉ À CHAUD	<i>HOT-SMOKED FISH</i>	POISSON-LUNE	<i>SUNFISH</i>
POISSON FUMÉ À FROID	<i>COLD-SMOKED FISH</i>	POISSONS DE FOND	<i>GROUND FISH</i>
POISSON GRAS	<i>FATTY FISH</i>	POISSON-SABRE	<i>CUTLASS FISH</i>
POISSON HACHÉ	<i>MINCED FISH</i>	POISSON-SCIE	<i>SAWFISH</i>
POISSON LÉGÈREMENT FUMÉ	<i>MILD SMOKED FISH</i>	POMPANEAU	<i>POMPANO</i>
POISSON MAIGRE	<i>WHITE FISH</i>	PORTION DE POISSON	<i>FISH PORTION</i>

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
POTAGE AU POISSON	<i>FISH CHOWDER</i>	REQUIN BOULEDOGUE	<i>BULL SHARK</i>
POUDRE D'ALGUES	<i>SEAWEED MEAL</i>	REQUIN CITRON	<i>LEMON SHARK</i>
POULAMON	<i>TOMCOD</i>	REQUIN CUIVRÉ	<i>BRONZE WHALER</i>
POULE DE MER	<i>FLYING GURNARDS</i>	REQUIN GRISET	<i>SIXGILL SHARK</i>
POULPE	<i>OCTOPUS</i>	REQUIN LÉZARD	<i>FRILL SHARK</i>
POUTASSOU	<i>POUTASSOU</i>	REQUIN NOURRICE	<i>NURSE SHARK</i>
POUTINE	<i>POUTINE</i>	REQUIN OCÉANIQUE	<i>WHITETIP SHARK</i>
PRAHOC	<i>PRAHOC</i>	REQUIN PÉLERIN	<i>BASKING SHARK</i>
PRAIRE	<i>QUAHAUG</i>	REQUIN SOMBRE	<i>DUSKY SHARK</i>
PRÊTRE	<i>SILVERSIDE</i>	REQUIN TAUPE COMMUN	<i>PORBEAGLE</i>
PRISTURE à BOUCHE NOIRE ou CHIEN ESPAGNOL	<i>BLACK-MOUTHED DOGFISH</i>	REQUIN TIGRE	<i>REQUIEM SHARK</i>
QUENELLES	<i>QUENELLES</i>	REQUIN-HÂ	<i>SCHOOL SHARK</i>
RAIE	<i>BIG SKATE</i>	REQUIN-HÂ	<i>SOUPFIN SHARK</i>
RAIE	<i>SKATE</i>	REQUIN-HÂ, HA, HAT, HAST	<i>TOPE</i>
RAIE À QUEUE ÉPINEUSE	<i>SPINYTAIL SKATE</i>	REQUIN-MARTEAU	<i>HAMMERHEAD SHARK</i>
RAIE BLANCHE	<i>WHITE SKATE</i>	REQUIN-TAUPE	<i>MACKEREL SHARK</i>
RAIE BOUCLÉE	<i>THORNBACK RAY</i>	REQUIN-TAUPE SAUMON	<i>SALMON SHARK</i>
RAIE BRUNETTE	<i>UNDULATE RAY</i>	REQUIN-TAUREAU	<i>SAND SHARK</i>
RAIE CHARDON	<i>SHAGREEN RAY</i>	REQUIN-TIGRE COMMUN	<i>TIGER SHARK</i>
RAIE CIRCULAIRE	<i>SANDY RAY</i>	RETAILLES	<i>RETAILLES</i>
RAIE DOUCE	<i>SPOTTED RAY</i>	RHODYMÉNIE PALMÉ	<i>DULSE</i>
RAIE DU PACIFIQUE	<i>STARRY SKATE</i>	RIGOR MORTIS	<i>RIGOR MORTIS</i>
RAIE et POCHETEAU	<i>RAY</i>	ROGUE	<i>ROE</i>
RAIE ÉTOILÉE	<i>STARRY RAY</i>	ROI DES HARENGS	<i>OARFISH</i>
RAIE FLEURIE	<i>CUCKOO RAY</i>	ROLLMOPS	<i>ROLLMOPS</i>
RAIE HÉRISSON	<i>LITTLE SKATE</i>	RORQUAL	<i>RORQUAL</i>
RAIE LISSE	<i>BLONDE</i>	RORQUAL COMMUN	<i>FIN-WHALE</i>
RAIE LISSE	<i>SMOOTH SKATE</i>	RORQUAL DE RUDOLF	<i>SEI-WHALE</i>
RAIE MÉLÉE	<i>PAINTED RAY</i>	ROTSKJAER	<i>ROTSKJAER</i>
RAIE TACHETÉE	<i>WINTER SKATE</i>	ROUELLES	<i>ROUELLES</i>
RAIE VOILE	<i>SHARPNOSE SKATE</i>	ROUGET BARBET DE ROCHE	<i>SURMULLET</i>
RAKØRRET	<i>RAKØRRET</i>	ROUGET-BARBET	<i>GOATFISH</i>
RASCASSE/SCORPÈNE	<i>SCORPIONFISH</i>	SABRE ARGENTÉ	<i>FROSTFISH</i>
RENARD DE MER	<i>THRESHER SHARK</i>	SABRE CEINTURE	<i>SCABBARDFISH</i>
RENSEI-HIN	<i>RENSEI-HIN</i>	SAINT-PAUL MOKI	<i>MOKI</i>
REQUIN	<i>SHARK</i>	SAINT-PIERRE	<i>BLACK OREO DORY</i>
REQUIN À NEZ POINTU	<i>SHARPNOSE SHARK</i>	SALADE DE HARENG	<i>HERRING SALAD</i>
REQUIN BLEU	<i>BLUE SHARK</i>	SALADE DE POISSON	<i>FISH SALAD</i>
REQUIN BORDÉ	<i>BLACKTIP SHARK</i>		

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
SALADE DE SAUMON	SALMON SALAD	PRINTEMPS	
SALADE DE THON	TUNA SALAD	SAUMON FORTEMENT SALE	HARD SALTED SALMON
SALAGE À SEC	KENCH CURE	SAUMON FUMÉ	KIPPERED SALMON
SALAGE À TERRE	SHORE CURE	SAUMON JAPONAIS	CHERRY SALMON
SALAGE LÉGER	LIGHT CURE	SAUMON KETA	CHUM
SALAISON À L'ORIENTALE	ORIENTAL CURE	SAUMON ROSE	PINK SALMON
SALAKA	SALAKA	SAUMON ROUGE	SOCKEYE SALMON
SALÉ À BORD	SALTED ON BOARD	SAUMON ROYAL	CHINOOK
SALÉ COLOMBO	COLOMBO CURE	SAUMON ROYAL	QUINNAT SALMON
SALZFISCHWAREN	SALZFISCHWAREN	SAUMON SAUMURÉ	PICKLED SALMON
SALZLING	SALZLING	SAUMURE	BRINE
SANDRE	PIKE-PERCH	SAUPE	GOLDLINE
SAR	WHITE BREAM	SAURER HERING	SAURER HERING
SAR SALÈME	PINFISH	SCAMPI	SCAMPI
SARDINE	SARDINE	SCHILLERLOCKEN	SCHILLERLOCKEN
SARDINE/SARDINOPS	PILCHARD	SCIAENIDIÉ DU PACIFIQUE	WHITE CROAKER
SARDINELLE INDIENNE	OIL SARDINE	SCIAENIDÉ	WEAKFISH
SARDINELLE/ALLACHE	SARDINELLA	SCIAENIDÉS	CROAKER
SARDINOPS d'AFRIQUE DU SUD	SOUTH AFRICAN PILCHARD	SCIAENIDÉS	DRUM
SARDINOPS D'AUSTRALIE	PICTON HERRING	SCROD	SCROD
SARDINOPS DE CALIFORNIE	CALIFORNIAN PILCHARD	SÉBASTE	REDFISH
SARDINOPS DU CHILI	CHILEAN PILCHARD	SÉBASTE DU CAP	JACOPEVER
SARDINOPS DU JAPON	JAPANESE PILCHARD	SÉBASTE KINKIN	KICHIJI ROCKFISH
SARGUE	SARGO	SÈCHE	CUTTLEFISH
SARGUE AUSTRAL	WHITE STUMPSNOSE	SEELACHS IN OEL	SEELACHS IN OEL
SASHIMI	SASHIMI	SEMI-CONSERVES	SEMI-PRESERVES
SAUCE DE LAITANCE DE HARENG	HERRING MILT SAUCE	SÉRIOLE	YELLOWTAIL
SAUCE DE POISSON FERMENTÉ	FERMENTED FISH SAUCE	SERPENTON	SNAKE EEL
SAUCISSE DE POISSON	FISH SAUSAGE	SERRAN CHÈVRE	COMBER
SAUCISSE DE THON	TUNA LINKS	SERRAN DE SABLE	SAND PERCH
SAUERLAPPEN	SAUERLAPPEN	SERRANIDÉ ou BAR	SEA BASS
SAUMON	SALMON	SEVICHE	SEVICHE
SAUMON À L'INDIENNE	INDIAN CURE SALMON	SHADINE	ROUND HERRING
SAUMON ARGENTÉ	COHO	SHAKEII	SHAKEII
SAUMON ATLANTIQUE	ATLANTIC SALMON	SHIDAL SUTKI	SHIDAL SUTKI
SAUMON DE FONTAINE	BROOK TROUT	SHIOBOSHI	SHIOBOSHI
SAUMON DE	RED SPRING SALMON	SHIOKARA	SHIOKARA
		SHOTTSURU	SHOTTSURU
		SIKE-PÔLE	LASCAR
		SILD	SILD

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
SINAENG	SINAENG	SUCCÉDANÉS DE CAVIAR	CAVIAR SUBSTITUTES
SNOEK	SNOEK	SURIMI	SURIMI
SOBORO	SOBORO	SUR-RÉFRIGÉRATION	SUPERCHILLING
SOLE	DOVER SOLE	SURSILD	SURSILD
SOLE	SOLE	SURUME	SURUME
SOLE AMÉRICAINNE	LINED SOLE	SUSHI	SUSHI
SOLE BAVOCHÉ	HOGCHOKER	SUTKI	SUTKI
SOLE COMMUNE	COMMON SOLE	TACAUD COMMUN	POUT
SOLE PERDRIX	THICKBACK SOLE	TACAUD NORVÉGIEN	NORWAY POUT
	CONDENSED FISH SOLUBLES	TACON	SMOLT
SOLUBLES DE POISSON		TAMBOUR BRÉSILÉEN	ATLANTIC CROAKER
SOUPE D'ÉGLEFIN	HADDOCK CHOWDER	TAMBOUR CROCA	SPOT
SOUPE DE CLAM	CLAM CHOWDER	TAMBOUR ROUGE	RED DRUM
SOUPE DE LANGOUSTE	CRAWFISH SOUP	TANCHE	TENCH
SOUPE DE POISSON	FISH SOUP	TARAMA	TARAMA
SOURDON	SPINY COCKLE	TARGEUR	TOPKNOT
SPARE À SELLE BLANCHE	ROMAN	TARGIE NAINE	NORWEGIAN TOPKNOT
SPARE DORÉ	SCUP	TARPON	TARPON
SPARE GIBBEUX	RED STUMPNOSE	TASSERGAL	BLUEFISH
SPARE JAPONAIS	RED SEA BREAM	TATAMI-IWASHI	TATAMI-IWASHI
SPATULE	PADDLEFISH	TENGUSA	TENGUSA
SPECKFISCH	SPECKFISCH	TÉRAGLIN	GEELBECK
SPILLÅNGA	SPILLÅNGA	TERPUGA	ATKA MACKEREL
SPRAT	SPRAT	TERPUGA	GREENLING
SQUALE BOUCLE	SPINY SHARK	TERPUGA BUFFALO	LINGCOD
SQUALE LICHE	BLACK SHARK	THAZARD	KINGFISH
SQUALE LICHE	SEAL SHARK	THAZARD	KINGMACKEREL
STÉARINE DE POISSON	FISH STEARIN	THAZARD BATARD	WAHOO
STEUR-HARING	STEUR HERRING	THAZARD FRANC	CERO
STOCKAGE EN CAISSES	BOXED STOWAGE	THAZARD RAYÉ	SEER
STOCKAGE EN VRAC	BULK STOWAGE	THAZARD-REQUIN	DOUBLE-LINED MACKEREL
STOCKAGE RÉFRIGÉRÉ	CHILL STORAGE	THON	TUNA
STOCKAGE SUR ÉTAGÈRES	SHELF STOWAGE	THON ÉLÉGANTE	SLENDER TUNA
STOCKFISH	STOCKFISH	THON OBÈSE	BIGEYE TUNA
STREMEL	STREMEL	THON ROUGE	BLUEFIN TUNA
STRIP	STRIP	THONINE COMMUNE	LITTLE TUNNY
STROMATÉE	BUTTERFISH	THONINE ORIENTALE	KAWAKAWA
STROMATÉE LUNE	HARVESTFISH	THYRSITE	BARRACOUTA
STÜCKENFISCH	STÜCKENFISCH	TILAPIA	TILAPIA
SUBOSHI	SUBOSHI	TILE	TILEFISH

<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>
TINABAL	<i>TINABAL</i>	TUNA HAM	<i>TUNA HAM</i>
TINAPA	<i>TINAPA</i>	TURBOT	<i>TURBOT</i>
TJAKALANG	<i>TJAKALANG</i>	TUYO	<i>TUYO</i>
TÔKAN-HIN	<i>TÔKAN-HIN</i>	UO-MISO	<i>UO-MISO</i>
TOM KHO	<i>TOM KHO</i>	URANOSCOPE	<i>STARGAZER</i>
TÔMALLEY	<i>TÔMALLEY</i>	VANNEAU	<i>QUEEN SCALLOP</i>
TOROUMOQUE	<i>SANDFISH</i>	VARECH	<i>KELP</i>
TORPILLE	<i>ELECTRIC RAY</i>	VENTRÊCHE	<i>VENTRÊCHE</i>
TORTUE	<i>TURTLE</i>	VENTRES DE SAUMON	<i>SALMON BELLIES</i>
TORTUE AMÉRICAINNE	<i>TERRAPIN</i>	VÉRON	<i>IDE</i>
TOURTE DE POISSON	<i>FISH PIE</i>	VESSIE NATATOIRE	<i>SWIM BLADDER</i>
TOURTEAU	<i>EDIBLE CRAB</i>	VIEILLE COMMUNE	<i>BALLAN WRASSE</i>
TRANCHE	<i>STEAK</i>	VISCÈRES	<i>GUTS</i>
TRASSI UDANG	<i>TRASSI UDANG</i>	VIVANEAU	<i>SNAPPER</i>
TREPANG	<i>TREPANG</i>	VIVANEAU CAMPÈCHE	<i>RED SNAPPER</i>
TRONÇON	<i>TRONÇON</i>	VIVE	<i>WEEVER</i>
TROQUE	<i>TROCHUS</i>	VIZIGA	<i>VIZIGA</i>
TRUITE	<i>TROUT</i>	VOILIER	<i>SAILFISH</i>
TRUITE ARC-EN-CIEL	<i>RAINBOW TROUT</i>	WAKAME	<i>WAKAME</i>
TRUITE D'EUROPE	<i>SEA TROUT</i>	YAKIBOSHI	<i>YAKIBOSHI</i>
TSUKADANI	<i>TSUKADANI</i>	ZÉE ou SAINT-PIERRE	<i>JOHN DORY</i>

PART B: ENGLISH = FRENCH

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
AALPRICKEN	AALPRICKEN	ATHERINE	ATHÉRINE
ABALONE	ORMEAU	ATKA MACKEREL	TERPUGA
ACID CURED FISH	POISSON À LA MARINADE	ATLANTIC BONITO	BONITE À DOS RAYÉ
AGAR	AGAR	ATLANTIC CROAKER	TAMBOUR BRÉSILIEEN
ALASKA POLLACK	LIEU DE L'ALASKA	ATLANTIC SALMON	SAUMON ATLANTIQUE
ALBACORE	GERMON	AUSTRALIAN SALMON	KAHAWAI
ALEWIFE	ALOSE GASPAREAU	AXILLARY BREAM	PAGEOT ACARNÉ
ALFONSINO	BERYX	AYU SWEETFISH	AYU
ALGINIC ACID	ACIDE ALGINIQUE	BACALAO	BACALAO
ALLIS SHAD	ALOSE VRAIE	BAGOONG	BAGOONG
AMARELO CURE	AMARELO CURE	BAGOONG TULINGAN	BAGOONG TULINGAN
AMBERGRIS	AMBRE GRIS	BAKASANG	BAKASANG
AMERICAN EEL	ANGUILLE D'AMÉRIQUE	BAKED HERRING	HARENG AU FOUR
AMERICAN PLAICE	BALAI DE L'ATLANTIQUE	BALACHONG	BALACHONG
AMERICAN SHAD	ALOSE SAVOUREUSE	BALBAKWA	BALBAKWA
ANCHOSEN	ANCHOSEN	BALIK	BALIK
ANCHOVETA	ANCHOIS DE PÉROU	BALLAN WRASSE	VIEILLE COMMUNE
ANCHOVY	ANCHOIS	BALTIC HERRING	HARENG 'DE LA BALTIQUE'
ANCHOVIS	ANCHOVIS	BARBECUED FISH	POISSON SUR BARBECUE
ANCHOVY BUTTER	BEURRE D'ANCHOIS	BARNACLE	BERNICLE/BALANE
ANCHOVY CREAM	CRÈME D'ANCHOIS	BARRACOUTA	THYRSITE
ANCHOVY ESSENCE	ESSENCE D'ANCHOIS	BARRACUDA	BÉCUNE
ANCHOVY PASTE	PÂTE D'ANCHOIS	BARRAMUNDI	BARRAMUNDI
ANGEL SHARK	ANGE DE MER	BASKING SHARK	REQUIN PÉLERIN
ANGLERFISH	BAUDROIE	BASS	BAR COMMUN
ANIMAL FEEDING STUFFS	ALIMENTS SIMPLES POUR ANIMAUX	BASTARD HALIBUT	CARDEAU HIRAME
ANTIBIOTICS	ANTIBIOTIQUES	BAY SCALLOP	PECTEN
APPERTISATION	APPERTISATION	BEAKED WHALE	BERARDIDÉ
APPETITSILD	APPETITSILD	BEKKÔ	BEKKÔ
ARAPAIMA	ARAPAIMA	BELUGA	ESTURGEON BELUGA
ARCTIC CHAR	OMBLE CHEVALIER	BELUGA WHALE	DAUPHIN BLANC (Beluga)
ARCTIC FLOUNDER	FLET	BERNFISK	BERNFISK
ARGENTINE	ARGENTINE	BICHIR	BICHIR
ARKSHELL	ARCHE	BIGEYE	BEAUCLAIRE
ARMED GURNARD	MALLARMAT	BIGEYE TUNA	THON OBÈSE
ARROWTOOTH FLOUNDER	FLÉTAN DU PACIFIQUE	BIG SKATE	RAIE
ARROWTOOTH HALIBUT	FLÉTAN DU PACIFIQUE	BILLFISH	MAKAIRE, MARLIN et VOILIER

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
BINORO	<i>BINORO</i>	BONED FISH	<i>POISSON DÉSTARÉTÉ</i>
BISMARCK HERRING	<i>HARENG BISMARCK</i>	BONEFISH	<i>BANANE (DE MER)</i>
BISQUE	<i>BISQUE</i>	BONELESS COD	<i>MORUE SANS ARÊTE</i>
BLACK DRUM	<i>GRAND TAMBOUR</i>	BONELESS FISH	<i>POISSON SANS ARÊTE</i>
BLACK MARLIN	<i>MAKAIRE NOIR</i>	BONELESS KIPPER	<i>KIPPER SANS ARÊTE</i>
BLACK-MOUTHED DOGFISH	<i>PRISTURE à BOUCHE NOIRE ou CHIEN ESPAGNOL</i>	BONELESS SALT COD FILLET	<i>FILET DE MORUE SANS ARÊTE</i>
BLACK OREO DORY	<i>SAINT-PIERRE</i>	BONELESS SMOKED HERRING	<i>HARENG FUMÉ SANS ARÊTE</i>
BLACK SEA BASS	<i>FANFRE NOIR D'AMÉRIQUE</i>	BONGA	<i>ETHMALOSE D'AFRIQUE</i>
BLACK SEA BREAM	<i>GRISSET</i>	BONITO	<i>BONITE</i>
BLACK SHARK	<i>SQUALE LICHE</i>	BOTTARGA	<i>BOTTARGA</i>
BLACKSPOT SEA BREAM	<i>PAGEOT ROSE</i>	BOTTLENOSED DOLPHIN	<i>DAUPHIN À GROS NEZ</i>
BLACKTIP SHARK	<i>REQUIN BORDÉ</i>	BOTTLENOSED WHALE	<i>HYPEROODON</i>
BLEAK	<i>ABLETTE</i>	BOUILLA-BAISSE	<i>BOUILLA-BAISSE</i>
BLOATER	<i>CRAQUELOT ou BOUFFI</i>	BOW FIN	<i>AMIE</i>
BLOATER PASTE	<i>PÂTE DE HARENG</i>	BOXED STOWAGE	<i>STOCKAGE EN CAISSES</i>
BLOATER STOCK	<i>HARENG BRAILLÉ</i>	BRADO	<i>BRADO</i>
BLOCKS (Frozen)	<i>BLOCS (Congelés)</i>	BRAN	
BLONDE	<i>RAIE LISSE</i>	BRANCO CURE	<i>BRANCO CURE</i>
BLUBBER	<i>LARD DE BALEINE</i>	BRANDADE	<i>BRANDADE</i>
BLUDGER	<i>CARANGUE BALO</i>	BRAT-BÜCKLING	<i>BRAT-BÜCKLING</i>
BLUE COD		BRATFISCHWAREN	<i>BRATFISCHWAREN</i>
BLUE CRAB	<i>CRABE BLEU</i>	BRATHERING	<i>BRATHERING</i>
BLUEFIN TUNA	<i>THON ROUGE</i>	BRAT-ROLLMOPS	<i>BRAT-ROLLMOPS</i>
BLUEFISH	<i>TASSERGAL</i>	BREAM	<i>BRÈME</i>
BLUE LING	<i>LINGUE BLEUE</i>	BRILL	<i>BARBUE</i>
BLUE MARLIN	<i>MAKAIRE BLEU</i>	BRINE	<i>SAUMURE</i>
BLUE MUSSEL	<i>MOULE COMMUNE</i>	BRINED FISH	<i>POISSON SAUMURÉ</i>
BLUE POINT OYSTER	<i>HUÎTRE CREUSE AMÉRICAINNE</i>	BRISLING	<i>BRISLING</i>
BLUE SEA CAT	<i>LOUP GÉLATINEUX</i>	BRIT	
BLUE SHARK	<i>REQUIN BLEU</i>	BRONZE WHALER	<i>REQUIN CUIVRÉ</i>
BLUE WHALE	<i>BALEINE BLEUE</i>	BROOK TROUT	<i>SAUMON DE FONTAINE</i>
BLUE WHITING	<i>MERLAN BLEU</i>	BROWN ALGAE	<i>ALGUE BRUNE</i>
BOARFISH	<i>MATODES</i>	BROWN CAT SHARK	<i>HOLBICHE BRUNE</i>
BODARA	<i>BODARA</i>	BROWN SHRIMP	<i>CREVETTE GRISE</i>
BOETTE	<i>BOETTE</i>	BUCKLING	<i>BUCKLING</i>
BOGUE	<i>BOGUE</i>	BUCKLINGS-FILET	<i>BÜCKLINGE-FILET</i>
BOKKEM	<i>BOKKEM</i>	BULK STOWAGE	<i>STOCKAGE EN VRAC</i>
BOMBAY DUCK	<i>BOMBAY DUCK</i>	BULLET TUNA	<i>BONITOU</i>
		BULL FROG	<i>GRENOUILLE</i>

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
	<i>JAPONAISE</i>	CLIPPED ROE FISH	<i>GASPAREAUX À ROGUE</i>
BULL SHARK	<i>REQUIN BOULEDOGUE</i>	COALFISH	
BURBOT	<i>LOTTE</i>	COBIA	<i>MAHOU</i>
BURO	<i>BURO</i>	COBBLER	<i>MACHOIRON D'AUSTRALIE</i>
BUTTERFISH	<i>STROMATÉE</i>	COCKLE	<i>COQUE</i>
BUTTERFLYFISH	<i>PAPILLON</i>	COD	<i>CABILLAUD/MORUE</i>
CALIFORNIA HALIBUT	<i>CARDEAU DE CALIFORNIE</i>	COD CHEEKS	<i>JOUES DE MORUE</i>
CALIFORNIAN PILCHARD	<i>SARDINOPS DE CALIFORNIE</i>	CODFISH BRICK	<i>BRIQUE DE MORUE</i>
CALIPASH	<i>CALIPASH</i>	COD LIVER MEAL	<i>FARINE DE FOIE DE MORUE</i>
CANNED FISH	<i>POISSON EN CONSERVE</i>	COD LIVER OIL	<i>HUILE DE FOIE DE MORUE</i>
CAPE HAKE	<i>MERLU BLANC DU CAP</i>	COD LIVER PASTE	<i>PÂTE DE FOIE DE MORUE</i>
CAPELIN	<i>CAPELAN ATLANTIQUE</i>	COHO	<i>SAUMON ARGENTÉ</i>
CAQUÉS	<i>CAQUÉS</i>		<i>POISSON FUMÉ À FROID</i>
CARDINALFISH	<i>APOGON</i>	COLD-SMOKED FISH	<i>ENTREPOSAGE FRIGORIFIQUE</i>
CARNE A CARNE	<i>CARNE À CARNE</i>	COLD STORAGE	<i>SALÉ COLOMBO</i>
CARPET SHELL	<i>CLOVISSE/PALOURDE</i>	COLOMBO CURE	<i>SERRAN CHÈVRE</i>
CARP	<i>CARPE</i>	COMBER	<i>COQUE COMMUNE</i>
CARRA GEENIN	<i>CARRA GHEENE</i>	COMMON COCKLE	<i>DAUPHIN COMMUN</i>
CATFISH	<i>LOUP</i>	COMMON DOLPHIN	<i>HUÎTRE PLATE</i>
CAVEACHED FISH	<i>CAVEACHED FISH</i>	COMMON OYSTER	<i>BOUQUET</i>
CAVIAR, CAVIARE	<i>CAVIAR</i>	COMMON PRAWN	<i>CRABE VERT</i>
CAVIAR SUBSTITUTES	<i>SUCCÉDANÉS DE CAVIAR</i>	COMMON SHORE CRAB	<i>CREVETTE GRISE</i>
CERO	<i>THAZARD FRANC</i>	COMMON SHRIMP	<i>SOLE COMMUNE</i>
CHAR	<i>OMBLE</i>	COMMON SOLE	<i>LAMBIS</i>
CHERRY SALMON	<i>SAUMON JAPONAIS</i>	CONCH	
CHIKUWA	<i>CHIKUWA</i>	CONDENSED FISH SOLUBLES	<i>SOLUBLES DE POISSON</i>
CHILEAN HAKE	<i>MERLU DU CHILI</i>	CONGER	<i>CONGRE</i>
CHILEAN PILCHARD	<i>SARDINOPS DU CHILI</i>	CORAL	<i>CORAIL</i>
CHILLED FISH	<i>POISSON RÉFRIGÉRÉ</i>	CORVINA	<i>CORVINA</i>
CHILL STORAGE	<i>STOCKAGE RÉFRIGÉRÉ</i>	COUCH'S SEA BREEM	<i>PAGRE COMMUN</i>
CHIMAERA	<i>CHIMÈRE</i>	COUNT	<i>MOULE</i>
CHINOOK	<i>SAUMON ROYAL</i>	COURT-BOUILLON	<i>COURT-BOUILLON</i>
	<i>MAQUEREAU ESPAGNOL</i>	CRAB	<i>CRABE</i>
CHUB MACKEREL	<i>SAUMON KETA</i>	CRAB CAKES	<i>BEIGNETS DE CRABE</i>
CHUM	<i>CLAM</i>	CRAB MEAT	<i>CHAIR DE CRABE</i>
CLAM	<i>SOUPE DE CLAM</i>		<i>BÂTONNETS DE POISSON AROMATISÉS AU CRABE</i>
CLAM CHOWDER	<i>LIQUEUR DE CLAM</i>	CRAB STICKS	
CLAM LIQUOR	<i>COQUILLAGE ÉPURÉ</i>		
CLEANSSED SHELLFISH			

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
CRAPPIE	MARIGANE NOIRE	DOVER SOLE	SOLE
CRAWFISH	LANGOUSTE	DRESSED CRAB	CRABE PARÉ
CRAWFISH BUTTER	BEURRE DE LANGOUSTE	DRESSED FISH	POISSON PARÉ
CRAWFISH MEAL	FARINE DE LANGOUSTE	DRESSED GREEN FISH	POISSON TRANCHÉ
CRAWFISH SOUP	SOUPE DE LANGOUSTE	DRIED FISH	POISSON SÉCHÉ
CRAWFISH SOUP EXTRACT	EXTRAIT DE SOUPE DE LANGOUSTE	DRIED SALTED FISH	POISSON SALÉ SÉCHÉ
CRAYFISH BISQUE	BISQUE D'ÉCREVISSÉS	DRUM	SCIAENIDÉS
CRAYFISH	ÉCREVISSÉ	DRY SALTED FISH	POISSON SALÉ À SEC
CREVALLE JACK	CARANGUE CREVALLE	DRY SALTED HERRING	HARENG SALÉ À SEC
CRIMSON SEA BREAM		DULSE	RHODYMÉNIE PALMÉ
CROAKER	SCIAENIDÉS	DUNGENESS CRAB	DORMEUR DU PACIFIQUE
CRUCIAN CARP	CYPRIN	DUSKY SEA PERCH	MÉROU NOIR
CUCKOO RAY	RAIE FLEURIE	DUSKY SHARK	REQUIN SOMBRE
CUMMAMMUM	CAUMMAMMUM	DUTCH CURED HERRING	HARENG SALÉ À LA HOLLANDAISE
CUNNER	LIMBERT ACHIGAN	EAGLE RAY	AIGLE DE MER
CUSK EEL	ABADÈCHES	EDIBLE CRAB	TOURTEAU
CUT HERRING		EEL	ANGUILLE
CUTLASSFISH	POISSON-SABRE	EELPOUT	LYCODE
CUTTLEFISH	SÈCHE	ELECTRIC RAY	TORPILLE
DAB	LIMANDE	ELEGANT BONITO	BONITE À DOS TACHETÉ
DAENG	DAENG	ELEPHANTFISH	MASCA LABOUREUR
DANUBE SALMON	HUCHON ou SAUMON DU DANUBE	ELVER	CIVELLE
DATE SHELL	DATTE DE MER	EMPEROR	CAPITAINE
DEEPSEA COD	MORO	ENGLISH SOLE	CARLOTTIN ANGLAIS
DEEP-WATER PRAWN	CREVETTE NORDIQUE	ENSHÔ-HIN	ENSHÔ-HIN
DEHYDRATED FISH	POISSON DÉSHYDRATÉ	ESCABECHE	ESCABÈCHE
DELICATESSEN FISH PRODUCTS	DELICATESSEN	EULACHON	EULACHON
DESCARGAMENTO	DESCARGEMENTO	EUROPEAN EEL	ANGUILLE D'EUROPE
DEVILFISH	MANTE	EUROPEAN LOBSTER	HOMARD EUROPÉEN
DICED FISH	POISSON EN CUBES	EYEMOUTH CURE	HADDOCK 'EYEMOUTH'
DINAILAN	DINAILAN	FALL CURE	FALL CURE
DJIRIM	DJRIM	FATTY FISH	POISSON GRAS
DOGFISH	AIGUILLAT	FAZEEQ	FAZEEQ
DOLLY VARDEN	OMBLE MALMA	FERMENTED FISH PASTE	PÂTE DE POISSON FERMENTÉ
DOLPHINFISH	CORYPHÈNE	FERMENTED FISH SAUCE	SAUCE DE POISSON FERMENTÉ
DOLPHIN	DAUPHIN	FILFISH	BOURSE
DORADE	DORADE	FILLET	FILET
DOUBLE-LINED MACKEREL	THAZARD-REQUIN	FINNAN HADDOCK	(FINNAN) HADDOCK

ENGLISH	FRENCH	ENGLISH	FRENCH
FIN-WHALE	<i>RORQUAL COMMUN</i>	FLATHEAD FLOUNDER	<i>BALAI JAPONAIS</i>
FISCHFRIKAD ELLEN	<i>FISCHFRIKAD ELLEN</i>	FLATHEAD	<i>PLATY CEPHALIDÉ</i>
FISCHSÜLZE	<i>FISCHSÛZE</i>	FLECKHERING	<i>HARENG FLAQUE</i>
FISH 'AU NATUREL'	<i>POISSON 'AU NATUREL'</i>	FLOUNDER	<i>FLET COMMUN</i>
FISH BALL	<i>BOULETTE DE POISSON</i>	FLUKE	<i>CARDEAU</i>
FISH CAKE	<i>PÂTÉ DE POISSON</i>	FLYING FISH	<i>EXOCET (POISSON VOLANT)</i>
FISH CHOWDER	<i>POTAGE AU POISSON</i>	FLYING GURNARDS	<i>POULE DE MER</i>
FISH FLAKES	<i>FLOCONS DE POISSON</i>	FLYING SQUID	<i>CALMAR</i>
FISH FLOUR	<i>FARINE DE POISSON COMESTIBLE</i>	FORKBEARD	<i>PHYCIS</i>
FISH GLUE	<i>COLLE DE POISSON</i>	FOURBEARD ROCKLING	<i>MOTELLE À QUATRE BARBILLONS</i>
FISH IN JELLY	<i>POISSON EN GELÉE</i>	FREEZE DRYING	<i>CRYO-DESSICATION</i>
FISH LIVER	<i>FOIE DE POISSON</i>	FRESH FISH	<i>POISSON FRAIS</i>
FISH LIVER OIL	<i>HUILE DE FOIE DE POISSON</i>	FRESHWATER PRAWN	<i>BOUQUET PINTADE</i>
FISH LIVER PASTE	<i>PÂTE DE FOIE DE POISSON</i>	FRIED FISH	<i>POISSON FRIT</i>
FISH MEAL	<i>FARINE DE POISSON</i>	FRIGATE TUNA	<i>AUXIDE</i>
FISH NUGGETS	<i>BOULETTES DE POISSON</i>	FRILL SHARK	<i>REQUIN LÉZARD</i>
FISH OILS	<i>HUILES DE POISSON</i>	FROG FLOUNDER	<i>CARLOTTIN MEITAGARE</i>
FISH PASTE	<i>PÂTE DE POISSON</i>	FROG	<i>GRENOUILLE</i>
FISH PIE	<i>TOURTE DE POISSON</i>	FROSTFISH	<i>SABRE ARGENTÉ</i>
FISH PORTION	<i>PORTION DE POISSON</i>	FROZEN FISH	<i>POISSON CONGELÉ</i>
FISH PROTEIN CONCENTRATE (FPC)	<i>CONCENTRÉ DE PROTÉINES DE POISSON</i>	FUNORI	<i>FUNORI</i>
FISH SALAD	<i>SALADE DE POISSON</i>	FURIKAKE	<i>FURIKAKE</i>
FISH SAUSAGE	<i>SAUCISSE DE POISSON</i>	FUSHI-RUI	<i>FUSHI-RUI</i>
FISH SCALES	<i>ÉCAILLES DE POISSON</i>	GABEL ROLLMOPS	<i>GABEL ROLLMOPS</i>
FISH SILAGE	<i>POISSON ENSILÉ</i>	GAFFELBIDDER	<i>GAFFELBIDDER</i>
FISH SKIN	<i>PEAU DE POISSON</i>	GARFISH	<i>ORPHIE COMMUN</i>
FISH SOUP	<i>SOUPE DE POISSON</i>	GÁROS	<i>GÁROS</i>
FISH STEARIN	<i>STÉARINE DE POISSON</i>	GARUM	<i>GARUM</i>
FISH STICKS	<i>BÂTONNETS DE POISSON</i>	GASPÉ CURE	<i>GASPÉ</i>
FISH TONGUES	<i>LANGUES DE POISSON</i>	GEELBECK	<i>TÉRAGLIN</i>
FISH WASTE	<i>DÉCHETS DE POISSON</i>	GELATIN(E)	<i>GÉLATINE</i>
FIVEBEARD ROCKLING	<i>MOTELLE À CINQ BARBILLONS</i>	GEMFISH	<i>ESCOLIER ROYAL</i>
FLAKE		GHOST SHARK	
FLAKED CODFISH	<i>FLOCONS DE MORUE</i>	GIANT SEA BASS	<i>BARRÉAN GÉANT</i>
FLAPPER SKATE	<i>POCHETEAU GRIS</i>	GIBBING	
FLATFISH	<i>POISSON PLAT</i>	GILT HEAD BREAM	<i>DORADE ROYALE</i>
		GILT SARDINE	<i>ALLACHE</i>
		GISUKENI	<i>GISUKENI</i>
		GIZZARD SHAD	<i>ALOSE NOYER</i>

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
GLAZING	GIVRAGE		FLÉTAN
GOATFISH	ROUGET-BARBET	HAMAYAKI-DAI	HAMAYAKIDAI
GOBY	GOBIE	HAMMERHEAD SHARK	REQUIN-MARTEAU
GOLDFISH	CYPRIN DORE	HAMPEN	HAMPEN
GOLDLINE	SAUPE		CERNIER DE JUAN FERNANDEZ
GONADS	GONADES	HAPUKU	HARENG FORTEMENT SALÉ
GOURAMI	GOURAMI	HARD SALTED HERRING	SAUMON FORTEMENT SALE
GRAVLAX	GRAVLAX	HARD SALTED SALMON	POISSON FORTEMENT FUME
GRAYLING	OMBRE		HARENG SAUR
GREATER SANDEEL	LANÇON COMMUN	HARD SMOKED FISH	STROMATÉE LUNE
GREATER WEEVER	GRANDE VIVE	HARENG SAUR	POISSON ÉTÊTÉ
GREEN FISH	POISSON SALÉ EN VERT	HARVESTFISH	POISSON FORTEMENT SALÉ
GREENLAND HALIBUT	FLÉTAN NOIR	HEADED FISH	HARENG
GREENLAND RIGHT WHALE	BALEINE FRANCHE	HEAVY SALTED FISH	FILETS DE HARENG
GREENLAND SHARK	LAIMARGUE DU GROËNLAND	HERRING	HARENG EN GELÉE
GREEN LAVER		HERRING CUTLETS	HARENG À LA CRÈME
GREENLING	TERPUGA	HERRING IN JELLY	HARENG MARINÉ AU VIN
GREY GURNARD	GRONDIN GRIS	HERRING IN CREAM SAUCE	FARINE DE HARENG
GROOVED CARPET SHELL	PALOURDE	HERRING IN WINE SAUCE	SAUCE DE LAITANCE DE HARENG
GROUND FISH	POISSONS DE FOND	HERRING MEAL	HUILE DE HARENG
GROUPER	MÉROU	HERRING MILT SAUCE	SALADE DE HARENG
GRUNT	GRONDEUR	HERRING OIL	HERINGSSTIP
GUANIN	GUANINE	HERRING SALAD	
GUINAMOS ALAMANG	GUINAMOS ALAMANG	HERINGSSTIP	
GITARFISH	POISSON-GUITARE	HILSA	
GUMMY SHARK	ÉMISSOLE GOMMÉE	HOBO GURNARD	GRONDIN JAPONAIS
GURNARD	GRONDIN ou TRIGLE	HOGCHOKER	SOLE BAVOCHÉ
GUTS	VISCÈRES	HOMOGENISED CONDENSED FISH	HYDROLY SAT
GUTTED FISH	POISSON VIDÉ	HORSE MACKEREL	CHINCHARD
GYOMISO	GYOMISO	HORSETAIL TANG	
HADDOCK	ÉGLEFIN		POISSON MARINÉ À CHAUD
HADDOCK CHOWDER	SOUPE D'ÉGLEFIN	HOT-MARINATED FISH	POISSON FUMÉ À CHAUD
HAKE	MERLU	HOT-SMOKED FISH	CORÉGONE
HALFBEAK	DEMI-BEC	HOUTING	CENTRINE
HALFMOON	CALICAGÈNE DEMI-LUNE	HUMANTIN	JUBARTE
HALF-SALTED FISH	POISSON DEMI-SEL	HUMPBACK WHALE	VÉRON
HALIBUT	FLÉTAN	IDE	
HALIBUT LIVER OIL	HUILE DE FOIE DE		

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
INASAL	<i>INASAL</i>	KILLER WHALE	<i>ORQUE</i>
INCONNU	<i>INCONNU</i>	KILLIFISH	<i>FONDULE</i>
INDIAN CURE SALMON	<i>SAUMON À L'INDIENNE</i>	KING CRAB	<i>CRABE ROYAL</i>
INDIAN MACKEREL	<i>MAQUEREAU DU PACIFIQUE</i>	KINGFISH	<i>THAZARD</i>
INDIAN PORPOISE		KINGKLIP	<i>ABADÈCHE ROYALE DU CAP</i>
INDUSTRIAL FISH		KINGMACKEREL	<i>THAZARD</i>
INK	<i>ENCRE</i>	KING WHITING	<i>BOURRUGUE</i>
IRISH MOSS	<i>CARRAGHÉEN</i>	KIPPER	<i>KIPPER</i>
IRRADIATION	<i>IRRADIATION</i>	KIPPERED SALMON	<i>SAUMON FUMÉ</i>
ISINGLASS	<i>ICHTYOCOLLE</i>	KIPPER FILLETS	<i>FILETS DE KIPPER</i>
ITALIAN SARDEL	<i>ANCHOIS ITALIEN</i>	KLIPFISH	<i>KLIPFISH</i>
IVORY	<i>IVOIRE</i>	KOCHFISCHWAREN	<i>KOCHFISCHWAREN</i>
JACK	<i>CARANGUE</i>	KOMBU	<i>KOMBU</i>
JACOPEVER	<i>SÉBASTE DU CAP</i>	KRABBENSALAT	<i>KRABBENSALAT</i>
JAPANESE CANNED FISH PUDDING	<i>PÂTÉ DE POISSON EN CONSERVE</i>	KRILL	<i>KRILL</i>
JAPANESE EEL	<i>ANGUILLE DU JAPON</i>	KRILL ANTARCTIC	<i>KRILL ANTARCTIQUE</i>
JAPANESE PILCHARD	<i>SARDINOPS DU JAPON</i>	KRON-SARDINER	<i>KRON-SARDINER</i>
JAPAN SEA BASS	<i>BAR DU JAPON</i>	KRUPUK	<i>KRUPUK</i>
JELLIED EELS	<i>ANGUILLES EN GELÉE</i>	KUSAYA	<i>KUSAYA</i>
JELLY FISH	<i>MÉDUSE</i>	LABERDAN	<i>LABERDAN</i>
JEWFISH	<i>MÉROU GÉANT</i>	LABRADOR CURE	<i>LABRADOR CURE</i>
JOHN DORY	<i>ZÉE ou SAINT-PIERRE</i>	LADY FISH	<i>GUINÉE MACHÈTE</i>
JUMBO	<i>JUMBO</i>	LAKE HERRING	<i>CORÉGONE CISCO</i>
KABAYAKI	<i>KABAYAKI</i>	LAKERDA	<i>LAKERDA</i>
KABELJOU	<i>MAIGRE DU SUD</i>	LAKE TROUT	<i>OMBLE D'AMÉRIQUE</i>
KAHAWAI	<i>KAHAWAI</i>	LAMAYO	<i>LAMAYO</i>
KALBFISCH	<i>KALBFISCH</i>	LAMINARIN	<i>LAMINARINE</i>
KAMABOKO	<i>KAMABOKO</i>	LAMPREY	<i>LAMPROIE FLUVIALE</i>
KAPI	<i>KAPI</i>	LARGE EYED DENTEX	<i>DENTÉ À GROS YEUX</i>
KARAVALA	<i>KARAVALA</i>	LARGER SPOTTED DOGFISH	<i>GRANDE ROUSSETTE</i>
KATSUO-BUSHI	<i>KATSUO-BUSHI</i>	LASCAR	<i>SIKE-PÔLE</i>
KAWAKAWA	<i>THONINE ORIENTALE</i>	LEATHER	<i>CUIR</i>
KAZUNOKO	<i>KAZUNOKO</i>	LEMON SHARK	<i>REQUIN CITRON</i>
KEDGEREE	<i>KEDGEREE</i>	LEMON SOLE	<i>LIMANDE-SOLE COMMUNE</i>
KELP	<i>VARECH</i>	LESSER CACHALOT	<i>PETIT CACHALOT</i>
KENCH CURE	<i>SALAGE À SEC</i>	LESSER SPOTTED DOGFISH	<i>PETITE ROUSSETTE</i>
KICHIJI ROCKFISH	<i>SÉBASTE KINKIN</i>	LIGHT CURE	<i>SALAGE LÉGER</i>
KIELER SPROTTE	<i>KIELER SPROTTE</i>	LIMPET	<i>PATELLE</i>
KILKA	<i>KILKA</i>		

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
LINED SOLE	SOLE AMÉRICAINE	MILKFISH	CHANIDÉ
LING	LINGUE	MILT	LAITANCE
LINGCOD	TERPUGA BUFFALO	MINCED FISH	POISSON HACHÉ
LITTLE SKATE	RAIE HÉRISSON	MINKE WHALE	PETIT RORQUAL
LITTLE TUNNY	THONINE COMMUNE	MIRIN	MIRIN
LIZARDFISH	ANOLI DE MER	MIRIN-BOSHI	MIRIN-BOSHI
LOBSTER	HOMARD	MIRROR DORY	
LOCKS	LOCKS	MOJAMA	MOJAMA
LONDON CUT CURE	HADDOCK COUPÉ DE LONDRES	MOJARRA	BLANCHE
LONGNOSE SKATE	POCHETEAU NOIR	MOKI	SAINT-PAUL MOKI
LUMPFISH	LOMPE	MOLA	POISSON-LUNE
LUTEFISK	LUTEFISK	MOLUHA	MOLUHA
LYRE	LYRE	MOONFISH	ASSIETTE
MACHETE		MORAY	MURÈNE
MACKEREL	MAQUEREAU	MORT	
MACKEREL SHARK	REQUIN-TAUPE		CASTANETTES, CASTANETTES TARAKIHI
MAKO (SHARK)	MAKO	MORWONG	
MAM-RUOT	MAM-RUOT	MOTHER-OF-PEARL	NACRE
MANNITOL	MANNITOL	MULLET	MUGE ou MULET
MANTA	MANTE	MUSCIAME	MUSCIAME
MARINATED FISH	POISSON MARINÉ	MUSSEL	MOULE
MARINADE	MARINADE	MUSTARD HERRING	HARENG À LA MOUTARDE
MARLIN	MAKAIRE	NAMARI-BUSHI	NAMARI-BUSHI
MATJE CURE HERRING		NARUTO	NARUTO
MATJE HERRING	MATJE (PAYS-BAS)	NARWHAL	NARVAL
MATTIE		NATIONAL CURE	NATIONAL CURE
MEAGRE	MAIGRE COMMUN	NATIVE OYSTER	HUÎTRE INDIGÈNE
MEDITERRANEAN LING	LINGUE ESPAGNOLE		ORPHIE ou AIGUILLE DE MER
MEDIUM SALTED FISH	POISSON MOYENNEMENT SALÉ	NEEDLEFISH	
MEGRIM	CARDINE FRANCHE	NGA-BOK-CHAUK	NGA-BOK-CHAUK
MEIKOTSU	MEIKOTSU	NGA-PI	NGA-PI
MEJI	MEJI	NIBOSHI	NIBOSHI
MENHADEN	MENHADEN	NOBBING	ÉVISCÉRATION
MERSIN	MERSIN	NONNAT	NONNAT
MIDDLE	MIDDLE	NORI	NORI
MIETTES	MIETTES	NORTH ATLANTIC RIGHT WHALE	BALEINE FRANCHE
MIGAKI-NISHIN	MIGAKI-NISHIN		ANCHOIS DU PACIFIQUE
MILD SMOKED FISH	POISSON LÉGÈREMENT FUMÉ	NORTHERN ANCHOVY	
MILKER HERRING	MILKER HERRING	NORTHERN LOBSTER	HOMARD AMÉRICAIN
		NORWAY LOBSTER	LANGOUSTINE

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
NORWAY POUT	TACAUD NORVÉGIEN	PARR	PARR
NORWEGIAN CURED HERRING	HARENG SALÉ TYPE NORVÉGIEN	PARROT-FISH	PERROQUET
NORWEGIAN TOPKNOT	TARGIE NAINÉ	PASTEURISED FISH	POISSON PASTEURISÉ
NUOC-MAM	NUOC-MAM	PASTEURISED GRAIN CAVIAR	CAVIAR EN GRAINS PASTEURISÉ
NURSE SHARK	REQUIN NOURRICE	PATIS	PATIS
OARFISH	ROI DES HARENGS	PAUA	PAUA
OCTOPUS	POULPE	PEARL	PERLE
OEL-PRÄSERVEN	OEL-PRÄSERVEN	PEARL ESSENCE	ESSENCE D'ORIENT
OIL SARDINE	SARDINELLE INDIENNE	PEDAH	PEDAH
OPAH	OPAH	PELAGIC FISH	POISSON PÉLAGIQUE
ORANGE PERCH		PERCH	PERCHE
ORANGE ROUGHY	HOPLOSTETE ROUGE	PERIWINKLE	BIGORNEAU
OREO DORY	ARROSE	PETRALE SOLE	CARLOTTIN PÉTRALE
	BONITE DE L'OCÉAN INDIEN	PICAREL	PICAREL
ORIENTAL BONITO		PICKED DOGFISH	AIGUILLAT COMMUN
ORIENTAL CURE	SALAISON À L'ORIENTALE	PICKEREL	
ORMER	ORMEAU	PICKLE CURED FISH	POISSON EN SAUMURE
	ESTURGEON DU DANUBE	PICKLED GRAINY CAVIAR	CAVIAR EN GRAINS SAUMURÉ
OSETR		PICKLED HERRING	HARENG SAUMURÉ
OYSTER	HUÎTRE	PICKLED SALMON	SAUMON SAUMURÉ
	BONITE DU PACIFIQUE ORIENTALE		SARDINOPS D'AUSTRALIE
PACIFIC BONITO		PICTON HERRING	
PACIFIC COD	MORUE DU PACIFIQUE	PIDDOCK	
	BALEINE GRISE DE CALIFORNIE	PIGFISH	GORET MULE
PACIFIC GREY WHALE		PIKE-PERCH	SANDRE
PACIFIC HAKE	MERLU DU PACIFIQUE	PIKE	BROCHET
PACIFIC HALIBUT	FLÉTAN DU PACIFIQUE	PILCHARD	SARDINE/SARDINOPS
PACIFIC HERRING	HARENG DU PACIFIQUE	PILOT FISH	POISSON PILOTE
	MAQUEREAU ESPAGNOL	PILOT WHALE	GLOBICÉPHALE
PACIFIC MACKEREL		PINDANG	PINDANG
	CREVETTE DU PACIFIQUE	PINFISH	SAR SALÈME
PACIFIC PRAWN		PINK MAOMAO	
PACIFIC SAURY	BALAOU DU JAPON	PINK SALMON	SAUMON ROSE
PADDA	PADDA	PINK SHRIMP	CREVETTE ROSE
PADDLEFISH	SPATULE	PIPER	GRONDIN LYRE
PADEC	PADEC	PISSALA	PISSALA
PAINTED RAY	RAIE MÊLÉE	PLAICE	PLIE ou CARRELET
PAKSIW	PAKSIW	PLAIN BONITO	PALOMETTE
PALE CURE	HADDOCK	PLA-RA	PLA-RA
PALE SMOKED RED		PLA THU NUNG	PLA THU NUNG
PANDORA	PAGEOT COMMUN		
PAPILLON	PAPILLON		

ENGLISH	FRENCH	ENGLISH	FRENCH
PODPOD	<i>PODPOD</i>	REDFISH or NANNYGAI	<i>BERYX AUSTRALIEN</i>
POLAR COD	<i>MORUE POLAIRE</i>	RED GURNARD	<i>GRONDIN ROUGE</i>
POLLACK	<i>LIEU JAUNE</i>	RED HAKE	<i>PHYCIS ÉCUREUIL</i>
POLLAN	<i>CORÉGONE</i>	RED HERRING	<i>HARENG ROUGE</i>
POLLOCK		RED PORGY	<i>PAGRE COMMUN</i>
POMFRET	<i>CASTAGNOLE</i>	RED SEA BREAM	<i>SPARE JAPONAIS</i>
POMPANO	<i>POMPANEAU</i>	RED SNAPPER	<i>VIVANEAU CAMPÈCHE</i>
POND SMELT	<i>ÉPERLAN DU JAPON</i>		<i>SAUMON DE PRINTEMPS</i>
POOR COD		RED SPRING SALMON	<i>DENTÉ DU CAP</i>
	<i>REQUIN TAUPE COMMUN</i>	RED STEENBRAS	<i>SPARE GIBBEUX</i>
PORBEAGLE		RED STUMPNOSE	<i>RENSEI-HIN</i>
PORKFISH	<i>LIPPU ROUDEAU</i>	RENSEI-HIN	<i>REPACK QUALITY HERRING</i>
PORPOISE	<i>MARSOUIN</i>		<i>HARENG REPAQUÉ</i>
PORTUGUESE OYSTER	<i>HUÎTRE PORTUGAISE</i>	REQUIEM SHARK	<i>REQUIN TIGRE</i>
POUT	<i>TACAUD COMMUN</i>	RETAILLES	<i>RETAILLES</i>
POUTASSOU	<i>POUTASSOU</i>		<i>PLIE CYNOGLOSSE ROYALE</i>
POUTINE	<i>POUTINE</i>	REX SOLE	<i>MORO</i>
POWAN	<i>CORÉGONE LAVARET</i>	RIBALDO	<i>EMISSOLE GRIVELÉE</i>
PRAHOC	<i>PRAHOC</i>	RIG	<i>BALEINE FRANCHE</i>
PRAWN	<i>CREVETTE</i>	RIGHT WHALE	<i>RIGOR MORTIS</i>
PRESS CAKE	<i>GATEAU DE PRESSE</i>	RIGOR MORTIS	<i>POISSON PLEIN</i>
PRESSED PILCHARDS	<i>PILCHARDS PRESSÉS</i>	RIPE FISH	<i>DAUPHIN GRIS</i>
PUFFER	<i>COMPÈRE</i>	RISSO'S DOLPHIN	<i>GARDON</i>
QUAHAUG	<i>PRAIRE</i>	ROACH	<i>CRAPET DE ROCHE</i>
QUEEN SCALLOP	<i>VANNEAU</i>	ROCK BASS	<i>GUITE DE PATAGONIE</i>
QUENELLES	<i>QUENELLES</i>	ROCK COD	<i>MOTELLE</i>
QUILLBACK	<i>BRÈME</i>	ROCKLING	<i>LANGOUSTE</i>
QUINNAT SALMON	<i>SAUMON ROYAL</i>	ROCK LOBSTER	<i>FAUSSE LIMANDE DU PACIFIQUE</i>
RABBIT FISH	<i>CHIMÈRE COMMUNE</i>		<i>ROGUE</i>
RAINBOW TROUT	<i>TRUITE ARC-EN-CIEL</i>	ROCK SOLE	<i>ROLLMOPS</i>
RAKØRRET	<i>RAKØRRET</i>	ROE	<i>SPARE À SELLE BLANCHE</i>
RATFISH	<i>CHIMÈRE D'AMÉRIQUE</i>	ROLLMOPS	<i>RORQUAL</i>
RAY	<i>RAIE et POCHETEAU</i>	ROMAN	<i>ROTSKJAER</i>
RAY'S BREAM	<i>GRANDE CASTAGNOLE</i>	RORQUAL	<i>ROUELLES</i>
RAZOR SHELL	<i>COUTEAU</i>	ROTSKJAER	<i>POISSON ROND</i>
RED ALGAE	<i>ALGUE ROUGE</i>	ROUELLES	<i>SHADINE</i>
RED BREAM	<i>BERYX COMMUN</i>	ROUND FISH	
RED CAVIAR	<i>CAVIAR ROUGE</i>	ROUND HERRING	
RED COD	<i>MORIDE ROUGE</i>	ROUNDNOSE FLOUNDER	<i>CARLOTTIN JAPONAIS</i>
RED DRUM	<i>TAMBOUR ROUGE</i>		<i>BONITE À GROS YEUX</i>
REDFISH	<i>SÉBASTE</i>	RUPPEL'S BONITO	

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
SABLEFISH	CHARBONNIÈRE COMMUNE	SCOTCH CURED HERRING	HARENG SALÉ À L'ÉCOSSAISE
SAILFISH	VOILIER	SCROD	SCROD
SAITHE	LIEU NOIR	SCULPIN	CHABOT
SALAKA	SALAKA	SCUP	SPARE DORÉ
SALMON	SAUMON	SEA BASS	SERRANIDÉ ou BAR
SALMON BELLIES	VENTRES DE SAUMON	SEA BREAM	DORADE
SALMON EGG BAIT	APPÂTS D'ŒUFS DE SAUMON	SEA CABBAGE LAMINARIA SPP.	LAMINAIRE
SALMON SALAD	SALADE DE SAUMON	SEA CATFISH	POISSON-CHAT
SALMON SHARK	REQUIN-TAUPE SAUMON	SEA COW	LAMANTIN
SALT COD	MORUE SALÉE	SEA CUCUMBER	HOLOTHURIE
SALT CURED FISH	POISSON SALÉ	SEAFOOD COCKTAIL	COCKTAIL DE FRUITS DE MER
SALTED ON BOARD	SALÉ À BORD	SEA LAMPREY	LAMPROIE MARINE
SALTFISH	POISSON SALÉ	SEAL	PHOQUE
SALT ROUND FISH	POISSON ENTIER SALÉ	SEAL SHARK	SQUALE LICHE
SALZFISCHWAREN	SALZFISCHWAREN	SEA ROBIN	GRONDIN ou TRIGLE
SALZLING	SALZLING	SEASNAIL	LIMACE
SANDEEL	LANÇON	SEA TROUT	TRUITE D'EUROPE
SANDFISH	TOROUMOQUE	SEA URCHIN	OURSIN
SAND FLOUNDER	CAMARDE DE NOUVELLE-ZÉLANDE	SEAWEED	ALGUE
SAND PERCH	SERRAN DE SABLE	SEAWEED MEAL	POUDRE D'ALGUES
SAND SHARK	REQUIN-TAUREAU	SEELACHS IN OEL	SEELACHS IN OEL
SANDY RAY	RAIE CIRCULAIRE	SEER	THAZARD RAYÉ
SARDINE	SARDINE	SEI-WHALE	RORQUAL DE RUDOLF
SARDINELLA	SARDINELLE/ALLACHE	SEMI-PRESERVES	SEMI-CONSERVES
SARGO	SARGUE	SEVENTY-FOUR	DENTÉ MACULÉ
SASHIMI	SASHIMI	SEVICHE	SEVICHE
SAUERLAPPEN	SAUERLAPPEN	SEVRUGA	ESTURGEON ÉTOILÉ
SAUGER	DORÉ NOIR	SHAD	ALOSE
SAURER HERING	SAURER HERING	SHAGREEN	PEAU DE CHAGRIN
SAURY	ORPHIE et BALAOU	SHAGREEN RAY	RAIE CHARDON
SAWFISH	POISSON-SCIE	SHAKEII	SHAKEII
SCABBARDFISH	SABRE CEINTURE	SHARK	REQUIN
SCALDFISH	ARNOGLOSSE	SHARP FROZEN FISH	POISSON CONGELÉ
SCALLOP	COQUILLE ST. JACQUES	SHARPNOSE SHARK	REQUIN À NEZ POINTU
SCAMPI	SCAMPI	SHARPNOSE SKATE	RAIE VOILE
SCHILLERLOCKEN	SCHILLERLOCKEN	SHARP-TOOTHED EEL	MORENESOCE DAGUE
SCHOOL SHARK	REQUIN-HÂ	SHEEPSHEAD	MALACHIGAN D'EAU DOUCE
SCORPIONFISH	RASCASSE/SCORPÈNE	SHELF STOWAGE	STOCKAGE SUR ÉTAGÈRES

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
SHELLFISH PASTE	<i>PÂTE DE MOLLUSQUES ET CRUSTACÉS</i>	SOCKEYE SALMON	<i>SAUMON ROUGE</i>
SHELLS	<i>COQUILLES ET CARAPACES</i>	SOFT (SHELL) CLAM	<i>MYE</i>
SHIDAL SUTKI	<i>SHIDAL SUTKI</i>	SOLE	<i>SOLE</i>
SHINING GURNARD	<i>GRONDIN MORRUDE</i>	SOUPFIN SHARK	<i>REQUIN-HÂ</i>
SHIOBOSHI	<i>SHIOBOSHI</i>	SOUTH AFRICAN PILCHARD	<i>SARDINOPS d'AFRIQUE DU SUD</i>
SHIOKARA	<i>SHIOKARA</i>	SOUTHERN BLUE WHITING	<i>MERLAN BLEU DU SUD</i>
SHIRAUO ICEFISH	<i>DOROME</i>	SOUTHERN KINGFISH	<i>ESCOLIER ROYAL</i>
SHORE CURE	<i>SALAGE À TERRE</i>	SOUTHWEST ATLANTIC HAKE	<i>MERLU ARGENTIN</i>
SHOTTSURU	<i>SHOTTSURU</i>	SPADEFISH	<i>DISQUE</i>
SHREDDED COD	<i>MORUE EN FIBRES</i>	SPAWNING FISH	<i>BOUVARD</i>
SHRIMP	<i>CREVETTE</i>	SPEARFISH	<i>MAKAIRE</i>
SILD	<i>SILD</i>	SPECKFISCH	<i>SPECKFISCH</i>
SILVER HAKE	<i>MERLU ARGENTÉ</i>	SPENT FISH	<i>GUAI</i>
SILVER PERCH		SPERM OIL	<i>HUILE DE CACHALOT</i>
SILVERSIDE	<i>PRÊTRE</i>	SPERM WHALE	<i>CACHALOT</i>
SILVERY POUT	<i>GADICULE ARGENTÉ</i>	SPICED HERRING	<i>HARENG ÉPICÉ</i>
SINAENG	<i>SINAENG</i>	SPILLÅNGA	<i>SPILLÅNGA</i>
SIXGILL SHARK	<i>REQUIN GRISET</i>	SPINOUS SPIDER CRAB	<i>ARAIGNÉE DE MER</i>
SKATE	<i>RAIE</i>	SPINY COCKLE	<i>SOURDON</i>
SKINLESS FISH	<i>POISSON DÉPOUILLÉ</i>	SPINY LOBSTER	<i>LANGOUSTE</i>
SKINNED COD	<i>MORUE DÉPOUILLÉE</i>	SPINY SHARK	<i>SQUALE BOUCLE</i>
SKINNING	<i>DÉPOUILLEMENT</i>		<i>RAIE À QUEUE ÉPINEUSE</i>
SKIPJACK	<i>BONITE À VENTRE RAYÉ ou LISTAO</i>	SPINYTAIL SKATE	<i>POISSON TRANCHÉ</i>
SLENDER TUNA	<i>THON ÉLÉGANT</i>	SPLIT FISH	<i>ÉPONGE</i>
	<i>LIMANDE SOLE BABAGAREI</i>	SPONGE	<i>TAMBOUR CROCA</i>
SLIME FLOUNDER		SPOT	
SMALL SANDEEL	<i>LANÇON EQUILLE</i>	SPOTTED GURNARD	
SMELT	<i>ÉPERLAN</i>	SPOTTED RAY	<i>RAIE DOUCE</i>
SMOKED FISH	<i>POISSON FUMÉ</i>	SPOTTED SEA CAT	<i>LOUP TACHETÉ</i>
SMOLT	<i>TACON</i>	SPRAT	<i>SPRAT</i>
SMOOTH FLOUNDER	<i>PLIE LISSE</i>	SQUAT LOBSTER	<i>GALATÉES</i>
SMOOTH HOUND	<i>ÉMISSOLE</i>	SQUAWFISH	<i>CYPRINOÏDE</i>
SMOOTH SKATE	<i>RAIE LISSE</i>	SQUETEAGUE	<i>ACOUPA ROYAL</i>
SNAKE EEL	<i>SERPENTON</i>	SQUID	<i>CALMAR</i>
SNAKE MACKEREL	<i>ESCOLIER</i>	STALE DRY FISH	<i>POISSON RASSIS</i>
SNAPPER	<i>VIVANEAU</i>	STARFISH	<i>ÉTOILE DE MER</i>
SNOEK	<i>SNOEK</i>	STARGAZER	<i>URANOSCOPE</i>
SNOOK	<i>BROCHET DE MER</i>	STARRY FLOUNDER	<i>PLIE DUE PACIFIQUE</i>
SOBORO	<i>SOBORO</i>	STARRY RAY	<i>RAIE ÉTOILÉE</i>

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
STARRY SKATE	<i>RAIE DU PACIFIQUE</i>	THICKBACK SOLE	<i>SOLE PERDRIX</i>
STEAK	<i>TRANCHE</i>	THORNBACK RAY	<i>RAIE BOUCLÉE</i>
STEELHEAD TROUT		THREADFIN	<i>BARBURE ou CAPITAINE</i>
STERILISED SHELLFISH	<i>COQUILLAGE STÉRILISÉ</i>	THREAD HERRING	<i>CHARDIN</i>
STEUR HERRING	<i>STEUR-HARING</i>	THREEBEARD ROCKLING	<i>MOTELLE COMMUNE</i>
STINGRAY	<i>PASTENAGUE</i>	THRESHER SHARK	<i>RENARD DE MER</i>
STOCKFISH	<i>STOCKFISH</i>	TIGER SHARK	<i>REQUIN-TIGRE COMMUN</i>
STREAKED GURNARD	<i>GRONDIN CAMARD</i>	TILAPIA	<i>TILAPIA</i>
STREMEL	<i>STREMEL</i>	TILEFISH	<i>TILE</i>
STRIP	<i>STRIP</i>	TINABAL	<i>TINABAL</i>
STRIPED BASS	<i>BAR D'AMÉRIQUE</i>	TINAPA	<i>TINAPA</i>
STRIPED MARLIN	<i>MARLIN RAYÉ</i>	TJAKALANG	<i>TJAKALANG</i>
STÜCKENFISCH	<i>STÜCKENFISCH</i>	TOHEROA	
STURGEON	<i>ESTURGEON</i>	TÔKAN-HIN	<i>TÔKAN-HIN</i>
SUBOSHI	<i>SUBOSHI</i>	TÔMALLEY	<i>TÔMALLEY</i>
SUCKER	<i>MEUNIER NOIR</i>	TOMCOD	<i>POULAMON</i>
SUGAR CURED FISH	<i>POISSON TRAITÉ AU SUCRE</i>	TOM KHO	<i>TOM KHO</i>
SUMMER FLOUNDER	<i>CARDEAU D'ÉTÉ</i>	TONGUE	<i>LANGUE</i>
SUN-DRIED FISH	<i>POISSON SÉCHÉ AU SOLEIL</i>	TONNO	
SUNFISH	<i>POISSON-LUNE</i>	TOPE	<i>REQUIN-HÂ, HA, HAT, HAST</i>
SUPERCHILLING	<i>SUR-RÉFRIGÉRATION</i>	TOPKNOT	<i>TARGEUR</i>
SURIMI	<i>SURIMI</i>	TRASH FISH	<i>POISSON DE REBUT</i>
SURMULLET	<i>ROUGET BARBET DE ROCHE</i>	TRASSI UDANG	<i>TRASSI UDANG</i>
SURSILD	<i>SURSILD</i>	TREPANG	<i>TREPANG</i>
SURUME	<i>SURUME</i>	TREVALLA	
SUSHI	<i>SUSHI</i>	TREVALLY	<i>CARANGUE AUSTRALIENNE</i>
SUTKI	<i>SUTKI</i>	TRIGGERFISH	<i>BALISTE</i>
SWIM BLADDER	<i>VESSIE NATATOIRE</i>	TRIMMING	<i>PARAGE</i>
SWIMMING CRAB	<i>ÉTRILLE</i>	TRIPLETAIL	<i>CROUPIA ROCHE</i>
SWORDFISH	<i>ESPADON</i>	TROCHUS	<i>TROQUE</i>
TARAKIHI	<i>CASTENETTE DE JUAN FERNANDEZ</i>	TRONÇON	<i>TRONÇON</i>
TARAMA	<i>TARAMA</i>	TROUT	<i>TRUITE</i>
TARPON	<i>TARPON</i>	TRUMPETER	<i>MORUE DE SAINT PAUL</i>
TATAMI-IWASHI	<i>TATAMI-IWASHI</i>	TSUKADANI	<i>TSUKADANI</i>
TAUTOG	<i>MATIOTE NOIRE</i>	TUNA HAM	<i>TUNA HAM</i>
TENCH	<i>TANCHE</i>	TUNA LINKS	<i>SAUCISSES DE THON</i>
TENGUSA	<i>TENGUSA</i>	TUNA	<i>THON</i>
TERRAPIN	<i>TORTUE AMÉRICAINNE</i>	TUNA SALAD	<i>SALADE DE THON</i>

<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>	<u>ENGLISH</u>	<u>FRENCH</u>
TURBOT	<i>TURBOT</i>	WHITE PERCH	<i>BAR BLANC D'AMÉRIQUE</i>
TURTLE	<i>TORTUE</i>	WHITE SHARK	<i>GRAND REQUIN BLANC</i>
TUSK	<i>BROSME</i>	WHITE SHRIMP	<i>CREVETTE AMÉRICAINNE</i>
TUYO	<i>TUYO</i>	WHITE-SIDED DOLPHIN	<i>DAUPHIN À FLANCS BLANCS</i>
TWAITE SHAD	<i>ALOSE FEINTE</i>	WHITE SKATE	<i>RAIE BLANCHE</i>
UNDULATE RAY	<i>RAIE BRUNETTE</i>	WHITE STEENBRAS	<i>MARBRE DU CAP</i>
UO-MISO	<i>UO-MISO</i>	WHITE STUMPNOSE	<i>SARGUE AUSTRAL</i>
VENDACE	<i>CORÉGONE BLANC</i>	WHITETIP SHARK	<i>REQUIN OCÉANIQUE</i>
VENTRÈCHE	<i>VENTRÈCHE</i>	WHITE WINGS	
VINEGAR CURED FISH	<i>POISSON AU VINAIGRE</i>	WHITING	<i>MERLAN</i>
VIZIGA	<i>VIZIGA</i>	WHOLE FISH	<i>POISSON ENTIER</i>
WACHNA COD	<i>MORUE ARCTIQUE</i>	WHOLE MEAL	<i>FARINE ENTIÈRE ou COMPLÈTE</i>
WAHOO	<i>THAZARD BATARD</i>	WIND DRIED FISH	<i>POISSON SÉCHÉ AU VENT</i>
WAKAME	<i>WAKAME</i>	WING	<i>AILE</i>
WALLEYE	<i>DORÉ JAUNE</i>	WINKLE	<i>BIGORNEAU</i>
WALRUS	<i>MORSE</i>	WINTER FLOUNDER	<i>LIMANDE PLIE ROUGE</i>
WEAKFISH	<i>SCIAENIDÉ</i>	WINTER SKATE	<i>RAIE TACHETÉE</i>
WEEVER	<i>VIVE</i>	WITCH	<i>PLIE CYNOGLOSSSE</i>
WHALE OIL	<i>HUILE DE BALEINE</i>	WRASSE	<i>LABRE</i>
WHALES	<i>BALEINES</i>	WRECKFISH	<i>CERNIER ATLANTIQUE</i>
WHELK	<i>BUCCIN</i>	YAKIBOSHI	<i>YAKIBOSHI</i>
WHITE BASS	<i>BAR BLANC</i>	YELLOW CROAKER	<i>COURBINE JAUNE</i>
WHITE-BEAKED DOLPHIN	<i>DAUPHIN À NEZ BLANC</i>	YELLOW-EYE MULLET	
WHITE BREAM	<i>SAR</i>	YELLOWFIN TUNA	<i>ALBACORE</i>
WHITE CROAKER	<i>SCIAENIDÉ DU PACIFIQUE</i>	YELLOW GURNARD	<i>GRONDIN PERLON</i>
WHITE FISH	<i>POISSON MAIGRE</i>	YELLOW PERCH	<i>PERCHE CANADIENNE</i>
WHITEFISH	<i>CORÉGONE</i>	YELLOW SOLE	<i>PETITE SOLE JAUNE</i>
WHITE FISH MEAL	<i>FARINE DE POISSON MAIGRE</i>	YELLOWTAIL FLOUNDER	<i>LIMANDE À QUEUE JAUNE</i>
WHITE HAKE	<i>PHYCIS BLANC</i>	YELLOWTAIL	<i>SÉRIOLE</i>
WHITE MARLIN	<i>MAKAIRE BLANC</i>		

Bon appétit!

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The Development Dimension

Fishing for Coherence

FISHERIES AND DEVELOPMENT POLICIES

For millions of people in developing countries, fisheries represent a means of livelihood, a source of food and nutrition, and a source of wealth for economic growth. Fish often constitutes the sole source of protein for many people, especially the poor. Yet the risks to sustainable fisheries are high. Three quarters of global marine fisheries are overexploited or fully exploited, and the pressure on fish stocks is increasing. Demand for fish in the developed countries, which currently absorb 80% of traded fish, is increasing while the demand for fish in developing countries is likely to augment as income levels rise.

For OECD and non-OECD countries alike, the global fisheries situation poses topical questions of coherence between development and fisheries in a number of policy areas. This publication examines these questions and proposes a framework for in-depth analysis of coherence issues in five main policy areas where fisheries and development policies interact, namely environmental, technology, economic, social, and governance policies. The framework is illustrated with ten concrete country and regional case studies, analysing issues that range from international fishing agreements and the relationship between industrial and artisanal fishing fleets to fisheries trade and development policies, as well as fisheries development and poverty reduction.

For the researcher – as for the consumer and connoisseur – this book also offers a glossary to help the reader understand commonly-used, as well as more exotic, French and English terms for fish and seafood.

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