Acta Nat. Sci. (2022) 3(2): 116-125 DOI: 10.29329/actanatsci.2022.352.04 e-ISSN: 2718-0638 Https://prensip.gen.tr/

Review Article info@actanatsci.com www.actanatsci.com



An Overview of Destructive Fishing in the Philippines

Albaris Beteh Tahiluddin¹ 🗢 🕩 • Jurmin Hamad Sarri¹ 🕩

¹ Mindanao State University-Tawi-Tawi College of Technology and Oceanography, College of Fisheries, Sanga-Sanga, Bongao, 7500 Tawi-Tawi, Philippines, albarist20@gmail.com; jurslink@gmail.com

[™] Corresponding Author: albarist20@gmail.com

Please cite this paper as follows:

Tahiluddin, A. B., & Sarri, J. H. (2022). An Overview of Destructive Fishing in the Philippines. Acta Natura et Scientia, 3(2), 116-125. https://doi.org/10.29329/actanatsci.2022.352.04

ARTICLE INFO

Article History Received: 24.07.2022 Revised: 15.09.2022 Accepted: 20.09.2022 Available online: 21.09.2022

Keywords: Cyanide fishing Destructive fishing Dynamite fishing Muro-ami fishing Philippines

ABSTRACT

The Philippines, being positioned in the center of the coral triangle, is among the major-fish producing countries globally. However, in many parts of the country, illegal fishing is rampant, particularly destructive fishing practices (DFPs). Fisheries involving DFPs cause direct ecological damage to the corals. These fishing activities threaten both natural habitats and aquatic resources. In this review paper, we reviewed available scientific literature reporting the DFPs in the Philippines from 1979 to 2022. Results revealed that most DFPs, such as dynamite fishing, cyanide fishing, and muro-ami fishing, were prevalent and remained a lingering problem in the Philippines from the 1930s up to this date. The weak enforcement of the existing laws and regulations fuels these activities, compromising the productive coral reef areas in the Philippines. Thus, it is urgently necessary to cease these DFPs as well as protect the integrity of vital and fragile ecosystems. It is therefore recommended that strict implementation of the laws and regulations at local and national levels is likely to stop or if not least, reduce the pressing issues of destructive fishing techniques.

INTRODUCTION

As an archipelagic country in Southeast Asia, the Philippines has 7,641 islands with 2,200,000 km² of total territorial water, including an exclusive economic zone (EEZ) and a 27,000 km² coral reef area (BFAR, 2019; Tahiluddin & Terzi, 2021). The Philippine archipelago lies at the center of the Coral Triangle, the area that is home to the most marine species in the world (Veron, 1995; Allen & Werner, 2002; Carpenter & Springer, 2005; Muallil et al., 2014; Tahiluddin & Terzi, 2021; Mohamad et al., 2022). There are 3,645 fish species in the Philippines, and 3,213 species are marine (Froese & Pauly, 2022). The Philippines is known as one of the major fish producers in world fisheries. In 2020, the Philippines ranked 13th globally, contributing nearly 1.76 million metric tons in terms of marine capture production (FAO, 2022). Philippine capture fisheries are divided into commercial and municipal sectors. The municipal capture fisheries sector contributed 1.10 million metric tons to the total production in 2020, whereas the commercial capture fisheries sector contributed 0.98 million metric tons (PSA, 2021).



Fishing is one of the oldest forms of subsistence, relying on the abundance of aquatic resources for survival. Millions of people still rely on marine fisheries for livelihood and food even up to this date. However, due to the high demand, many fishers used illegal methods in order to catch fish faster and more profitably. Various forms of illegal fishing contribute to the depletion of fish stocks (Alvarico et al., 2021). Globally, nearly 80 percent of fish stocks have been depleted or overexploited. Ocean scientists claim that overfishing threatens not only aquatic ecosystems but also food webs and the aquatic food supply (Purcell et al., 2013; Arias & Pressey, 2016; Pala et al., 2018). The Philippines remains one of the most threatened countries with regard to marine ecosystems due to illegal fishing (Quiazon et al., 2013). Over the last years, fishing rates of the Philippine municipal fisheries have been decreasing (PSA, 2021); this may be attributed to the use of illegal fishing practices. Illegal and destructive fishing is one of the challenges facing marine fisheries (Tahiluddin & Terzi, 2021).

An illegal fishing practice that damages either the fished habitat or the primary habitats providing sustenance to the fished habitat is a destructive fishing practice (Pet-Soede & Erdmann, 1998a). The term destructive fishing refers to fishing gears or methods that cause ecosystem components to be destroyed or cease to function normally. In addition, a limited number of fishing gears or catches are inherently destructive methods, usually explosives and synthetic toxins (Willer et al., 2022). Due to increasing population growth and economic pressures, coral reef areas in the Philippines have been prone to destructive fishing since 1985, triggered by the coastal villagers (McManus et al., 1997). Destructive fishing has been one of the main causes of fishery decline in small-scale fisheries in the country for the last decades (Muallil et al., 2014).

The practice of destructive fishing is associated with poverty, as this is the faster way of capturing fish (Lauraya et al., 2010). A study by Alvarico et al. (2021) explored Filipino fishers' stories about why they used illegal fishing and the socio-economic and cultural factors that influenced the use of destructive fishing practices in coastal areas of northern Mindanao, Philippines, particularly Misamis Oriental. According to their findings, illegal fishing assisted the fishers in doing more and providing for their families with their essential needs since it doubled their catch, earned them more, and paid for medication for their sick family members. Since they used to fish together, they acquired their illegal fishing technique from their families, friends, and peers, which, according to them, was much more convenient and profitable than conventional fishing methods. The enforcement of laws is essential to restoring damaged marine habitats by curbing destructive and illegal fishing practices (Dalabajan, 2005). However, there are still persisting practices of destructive fishing in the Philippines, despite existing laws and regulations prohibiting them. In this paper, we reviewed and compiled the dispersed peer-reviewed scientific articles and books detailing destructive fishing practices, which were only confined to dynamite, cyanide, and muro-ami fishing practices in the Philippines from 1979 to 2022.

DYNAMITE (BLAST) FISHING

Dynamite fishing, also called bomb fishing or blast fishing, is one of the destructive fishing practices that uses explosives to stun or kill schools of fish (Katikiro & Mahenge, 2016). In the Philippines, the first dynamite is commonly prepared in a powder form consisting of 75% potassium chlorate, 15% charcoal, and 10% sulfur or cornstarch (Naughton, 1985). The commonly used blast fishing in the country is the use of dynamite or ammonium nitrate (Rubec, 1988). Anecdotal evidence shows that in the Philippines, an alternative to dynamite such as the use of locally available resources, like fertilizers (ammonium nitrate or sodium nitrate), prepared and mixed with kerosene or gasoline, and the explosive mixture is poured into an empty glass bottle. A makeshift fuse is created, stuck in the bottle, and sealed with rubber part of a flipflop sandal around the fuse. As part of its operation, the explosive bottle is tied to a steel rod or similar heavy material to sink quickly. In the local fishing ground, explosive bottle with sinker is thrown at schools of fish or in coral reef areas. A few minutes after the explosion, the fishers dive and start collecting dead and stunned fish with the aid of a scoop net and compressor. The groupers (Cephalopholus spp., Plectropomus spp., and Epinephelus spp.), rabbitfish (*Siganus* spp.), snappers (*Lutjanus* spp.), as well as reef associates such as fuseliers (*Pterocaesio* spp. and *Caesio* spp.) are the primary targets of dynamite fishers because of the increase in exports and the expansion of hotels and restaurants in the region (Pet-Soede & Erdmann, 1998b).

Apart from injuring and killing fish, dynamite fishing also destroys coral reefs, decimates reef habitats, breaks natural barriers that protect the coastline against storm surges and erosion, and threatens the reputation of the Philippines as an internationally renowned marine tourism destination (Chevallier, 2017). Marine organisms and coral habitats are damaged by dynamite fishing, which is a destructive and wasteful method (Alcala & Gomez, 1979; Yap & Gomez, 1985; Alcala, 2000; Raymundo et al., 2007). It is fairly straightforward to determine what the influences of dynamite fishing practices would be on the structure of reefs and productivity (Riegl & Luke, 1999; Alcala, 2000; Fox et al., 2003), and an increasing body of research is indicating that the removal of coral habitats likely to cause a decline in fish species (Lewis, 1997; Halford et al., 2004).

Dynamite fishing is a common issue worldwide, such as in Southeast Asia (Yap & Gomez, 1985; Pet-Soede & Erdmann, 1998a; Erdmann et al., 2000; Chou, 2000; Raymundo et al., 2007; Pacini et al., 2016; Hampton-Smith et al., 2021), Africa (Bigot et al., 2000; Wells, 2009; Pacini et al., 2016), and Oceania (Sulu et al., 2002; Brewer, 2013). In the Philippines, a number of different islands have practiced dynamite fishing since the 1930s, including the islands of Babuyan, Mactan, Bohol, Palawan, eastern Mindanao, Ozamis, Basilan, Misamis Occidental, Zamboanga Peninsula, and part of the Sulu Archipelago such as Turtle Island (Thomas, 1985; Magdaong et al., 2014), as fishers seek to improve production in the easier fashion (Pastoral & Ramiscal, 1997). Thus, dynamite fishing continues today, but it occurs at a local level, indicating that it still exists (Magdaong et al., 2014), and anecdotal evidence supports this study that even up to this date, dynamite fishing still continues to persist.

The use of dynamite fishing has also likely impaired innocent marine mammals. Veloria et al. (2021) stressed that marine mammals' ability to communicate, locate food, and navigate underwater was severely impacted by underwater noise including dynamite fishing. Dynamite and related impulsive sound exposure are associated with the hearing loss of marine life (Pacini et al., 2016). An experimental study assessed the effects of blast fishing on marine mammals, especially cetaceans, in San Fernando, La Union; the results indicated that marine mammals with more than 100 m from the explosion would suffer debilitating injuries (disorientation, acoustic trauma) even from a single pulse of the blast (Veloria et al., 2021). Over the past few years, a number of marine mammals have been stranded in the Philippines due to underwater explosions caused by blast fishing (Pacini et al., 2016). In addition, fishers accidentally wounded a British volunteer in 1991 with blast fishing while surveying coral reefs in the Samar Sea (Saeger, 1993).

CYANIDE FISHING

Cyanide fishing is widely used in the marine live reef fish food trade and marine aquarium fish trade, using sodium cyanide, a toxic chemical utilized to stupefy hard-to-catch species (Magdaong et al., 2014). Cyanide fishing in the Philippines has been practiced since 1962 in Central Visayas and Batangas, targeting tropical marine fish, especially agile and inaccessible reef fishes, and contributes an important role to the devastation of coral reefs and food and the dwindling of aquarium fish (Rubec, 1986; Cudia & Romero, 2022). Since the beginning of its use, over a million kg of toxic sodium cyanide have been spurted onto the Philippines' coral reefs to stupefy and collect ornamental aquarium fish species fated for the aquariums and pet shops in Western countries like North America and Europe (Barber & Pratt, 1997). Along with other illegal fishing practices, cyanide fishing is still a common problem in municipal waters (Baticados, 2004). In the late 2000s, it was estimated that over 260 000 cyanide fishers and fishing trips were recorded in the Calamianes Group of Islands alone (Dalabajan, 2005).

The preparation and operation of cyanide are clearly described by Rubec & Soundararajan (1990). Firstly, the cyanide tablets, about the size of hockey pucks, are broken down and placed into bottles of plastic detergent. The dissolved hydrocyanic acid (HCN) is used by the collectors to stupefy aquarium

fishes and kill food fish; as the collector swims toward the target area, the fish hide in the coral. The collectors ensure all the exits are sealed off by spurting clouds of milky hydrocyanic acid solution on the coral head. During the dive, the concentration of hydrocyanic acid in the bottle is successively diluted. Nearly 50% of the exposed fish die of acute doses (5-50 mg L-1) of being unable to control the concentration from the bottle. At the same time, the other remaining fish become bewildered and run away. Some stunned fish are retrieved from the bottom, while others are driven into gill nets. Roughly 10% of the exposed fish are being selected by the fish collectors choosing only the colorful species of interest to aquarists. Most fish can get recovered once placed in clean seawater (Rubec & Soundararajan, 1990).

A number of colorful species, including the clownfish Amphiprion ocellaris and large-sized wrasses and groupers, are targeted by illegal cyanide fishing in the Indo-Pacific region, including the Philippines (Madeira et al., 2020). However, the use of sodium cyanide is deleterious to non-target aquatic organisms, like corals and other invertebrates (White & Wells, 1982; Rubec, 1988; Barber & Pratt, 1997), especially larvae forms (Werorilangi et al., 2019), including phytoplankton such as marine diatom (Pablo et al., 1997), as a consequence of uncontrollable exposure doses of cyanide by the fish collectors during dive operation (Rubec & Soundararajan, 1990). Coral reefs of the Philippines have been threatened by cyanide fishers for the past years. White & Wells (1982) estimated that in every 100 fish collectors that use cyanide, about 11 million coral heads are being squirted by cyanide. The authors also mentioned coral heads exposed to cyanide are typically dead but intact, unlike dynamited corals which are fragmented. In addition, cyanide is highly dangerous to humans once inhaled, absorbed across the skin, or ingested (White & Wells, 1982; Graham & Traylor, 2022).

MURO-AMI FISHING

Muro-ami is destructive fishing that originated in Japan around the 1930s, where Okinawan migrant fishers came to the central Philippines to fish (Anonymous, 1985; Olofson, 2014). It consists of a big stationary bag net (37 m long × 10 m deep), held open with the aid of a current (Dalzell & Ganaden, 1987; Gomez et al., 1994). There are two detachable wings with a size of 100 m × 10 m, which serve as a guide for the fish towards the net (Anonymous, 1985). It is usually set over the coral reefs with a depth ranging from 13-30 m, with flagpole buoys serving as markers (Anonymous, 1985). Scarelines, made of ropes with plastic strips which are tied at intervals and 3-5 kg of stone weights on edge, are held by the swimmers aiming to drive fish into the nets and to jig them up and down on the corals as they proceed (Anonymous, 1985; Magdaong et al., 2014). Commercial muro-ami uses 200-300 swimmers, which are typically young boys, to frighten the fish (Anonymous, 1985; Dalzell & Ganaden, 1987). The majority of fish caught by muroami fishing in the Philippines are shoaling herbivores and planktivores of the Acanthuridae (surgeon fishes, bagis and labahita) and Caesionidae (fusiliers or dalagang-bukid) families (Anonymous, 1985).

A modified form of muro-ami, which is kayakas, used bamboo instead of rocks to scare the fish driving into the net (White & Wells, 1982; Magdaong et al., 2014). Banging the bottom by the swimmers with rocks or bamboo, the habitats are being disturbed, and pronounced effects are the corals which are pounded and broken as a result of this mode of operations (White & Wells, 1982). The reduction of coral reef cover has been attributed to these operations inducing overfishing as a result of slow recovery and replenishment of disturbed fish stocks (Magdaong et al., 2014). With the frequent use of muro-ami, it is no longer providing a livelihood for coastal villagers but rather further creating poverty among rural Filipinos (Olofson & Tiukinhoy, 1992). Moreover, due to its extensive damage to coral reef habitats brought about by muro-ami, which can cause depletion of the fish stock population, increasing protests from different sectors raised awareness of this destructive gear (Miclat et al., 1991). Additionally, socio-economic issues like child labor, inequitable profit-sharing system practiced among fishing cooperation, and lack of health and shipboard sanitary conditions (Miclat et al., 1991). These have prompted demands to ban this fishing method in the country, and in 1986, commercial muro-ami was banned (Dalzell & Ganaden, 1987; Miclat et al., 1991). Considering an alternative

Regulation Categories Specific Regulations Penalties Actual use of toxic or poisonous Republic Act 10654, section • Taking the gears and catch and inflicting an administrative 92 (Prohibition on the use substances, explosive including those fine equivalent to five times the catch's value of fishing through toxic or not caught illegally if they co-exist • A fine of 3,000,000 pesos is imposed for large-scale with those caught illegally poisonous substances and commercial fishing explosives) • A fine of 1,500,000 pesos is imposed for medium-scale commercial fishing • A fine of 300,000 pesos is imposed for small-scale commercial fishing • A fine of 30,000 pesos is imposed for municipal fishing • 5 to 10 years in prison • Taking the gears and catch and inflicting an administrative Explicit criminal cases are filed when explosives, toxic or poisonous fine equivalent to twice the catch's value substances are actually used and • A fine of 1,000,000 pesos is imposed for large-scale result in physical harm or death commercial fishing • A fine of 500,000 pesos is imposed for medium-scale commercial fishing • A fine of 300,000 pesos is imposed for small-scale commercial fishing • A fine of 10,000 pesos is imposed for municipal fishing 6 months to 2 years in prison Republic Act 10654, section Actual use of muro-ami fishing · Taking the gears and catch and inflicting an administrative 97 (Prohibition on Murofine equivalent to five times the catch's value ami drive fishing) • A fine of 2,000,000 pesos • In the case of failure to pay the fine, fishworkers who serve as pounders will be penalized with 20,000 pesos or community service • A fine equivalent to twice the administrative fine and imprisonment of 2 - 10 years Act No. 2255 An act prohibiting the manufacture, • Fine not to exceed 2,000 pesos but not to be less than 600 possession, and sale of dynamite and pesos, and by imprisonment for not less than 3 months nor other explosives without a special more than 3 years, in the discretion of the court. permit, providing a penalty, therefore, and for other purposes. Presential Decree No. 534 Imposing stiffer penalties for illegal • If explosives are used, 10-12 years in prison August 8, 1974 fishing • In the case of a physical injury caused by the explosion, the punishment may range from 12-20 years in prison, and if human life is lost, then the penalty is life in prison or death • If toxic or poisonous substances are used, 8-10 years in prison • In the case of a physical injury caused by such substances, the punishment may range from 10-12 years in prison, and if human life is lost, then the penalty is up to 20 years or life in prison or death Republic Act 6969 The Act provides penalties for • The penalty ranges between 6 years and 1 day to 12 years in violations of the sale, purchase, and prison, and a fine of at least 250,000 pesos possession of toxic and hazardous substances, including sodium cyanide. FAO 163 Governing Philippine waters by • The Court may impose a fine of 500 pesos to 5,000 pesos, or prohibiting the operation of kayakas imprisonment of 6 months to 4 years, or both and muro-ami

Table 1. Philippines' regulations and penalties for dynamite fishing, cyanide fishing, and muro-ami fishing

non-destructive method, the Bureau of Fisheries and Aquatic Resources of the Philippines proposed a "Paaling," a new modified gear as a substitute to muroami. The new technique involves the use of bubbles, powered by surface-supplied air via plastic hoses, to frighten and drive towards a set-net (Miclat et al., 1991).

REGULATION OF DESTRUCTIVE FISHING

Law enforcement is an efficient way of controlling the widespread use of destructive fishing in the Philippines as a promising solution to regenerate deteriorated marine habitats (Dalabajan, 2005). The Philippines has various existing laws and regulations against destructive fishing and penalties for committing these unlawful practices (Table 1). However, over the last decades, weak law enforcement is still one of the main reasons for the prevalence use of destructive fishing (Barber & Pratt, 1998). Areas that are far from law enforcement are among the most users of destructive fishing, such as dynamite fishing (Dalzell & Ganaden, 1987). Scientists and researchers are even developing or improving some way of detecting fish caught by destructive fishing. For instance, the use of potentiometry for cyanide detection has recently been improved by Cudia & Romero (2022); this method can be used to monitor any cyanide-caught fish for better regulation.

Aside from national laws and regulations, municipal ordinances throughout the country also exist. However, in most municipalities, these ordinances are not being implemented or are weakly enforced (Lauraya et al., 2010). For example, in Barangay Atulayan, Sangay municipality, Camarines Sur province, due to the indolent grind of the wheels of justice, the barangay captain lost hope in implementing the law. There were many instances when the barangay captain had apprehended many violators caught with dynamite possessions, reported and turned them over to the Philippine National Police (PNP) officers. However, after the investigation, the PNP argued that the confiscated dynamites were sodium nitrate or fertilizers. The lack of further investigation by the higher authority ignited the barangay captain's loss of faith in implementing the ordinance (Lauraya et al., 2010).

CONCLUSION

It is evident that destructive fishing practices, such as dynamite fishing, cyanide fishing, and muro-ami fishing, are still prevalent methods of capturing marine resources in the Philippines. These practices threaten marine habitats, particularly the coral reefs - crucial habitats of most reef fishes, and jeopardize the sustainability of local fishing livelihood. Despite existing law enforcement governing these illegal, destructive fishing practices, the lack of effective regulation still fuels the lingering of these practices. It is therefore recommended that strict implementation of the laws and regulations at the local and national levels is likely to stop or if not least, reduce the pressing issues of destructive fishing techniques. Sustainable fishing practices, such as spear fishing and line fishing, are still the friendly way to capture fishing sustainably while maintaining a sound and healthy environment.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Authors' Contributions

Both authors have contributed equally to this paper.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Ethical Approval

For this type of study, formal consent is not required.

REFERENCES

- Alcala, A. C. (2000, January). Blast fishing in the Philippines, with notes on two destructive fishing activities. In Workshop on the Status of Philippine Coral Reefs, UPMSI.
- Alcala, A. C., & Gomez, E. D. (1979). Recolonization and growth of hermatypic corals in dynamiteblasted coral reefs in the Central Visayas, Philippines. In *Proceedings of the International Symposium on Biogeography and Evolution in the Southern Hemisphere, Auckland, NZ*, (Vol. 2, pp. 645-661).
- Allen, G. R., & Werner, T. B. (2002). Coral reef fish assessment in the 'coral triangle' of southeastern Asia. *Environmental Biology of Fishes*, 65(2), 209-214. <u>https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1020093012502</u>

- Alvarico, A. B., Cuevas-Ruíz, J. L., & Dinsay, J. B.
 (2021). Illegal fishing: In the eyes of Filipino fishermen. *Mediterranean Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(1), 104-111.
 https://ssrn.com/abstract=3814424
- Anonymous. (1985). Traditional muro-ami: an effective but destructive coral reef fishing gear. ICLARM Newsletter, 8(1), 12-13.
- Arias, A., & Pressey, R. L. (2016). Combatting illegal, unreported, and unregulated fishing with information: A case of probable illegal fishing in the tropical eastern pacific. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 3, 13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2016.00013
- Barber, C. V., & Pratt, V. R. (1997). Policy reform and community-based programmes to combat cyanide fishing in Philippines. SPC Live Reef Fish Information Bulletin, 8, 26-35.
- Barber, C. V., & Pratt, V. R. (1998). Policy reform and community-based programmes to combat cyanide fishing in Philippines. In: Tabor, S. R. & Faber, D. C. (Eds). *Closing the loop: From research on natural resources to policy change* (pp. 114–119). Policy Management Report No. 8. Maastricht, The Netherlands: European Centre for Development Policy.
- Baticados, D. B. (2004). Fishing cooperatives' participation in managing nearshore resources: the case in Capiz, central Philippines. *Fisheries Research*, 67(1), 81-91. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fishres.2003.07.005</u>
- BFAR. (2019). Philippine fisheries profile 2018. PCA Compound, Elliptical Road, Quezon City Philippines.
- Bigot, L., Charpy, L., Maharavo, J., Rabi, F. A., Paupiah, N., Aumeeruddy, R., Villedieu, C., & Lieutaud, A. (2000). Status of coral reefs of the southern Indian Ocean: The Indian Ocean Commission node for Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, Réunion and Seychelles. *Status of Coral Reefs of the World*, 77-94.
- Brewer, T. D. (2013). Dominant discourses, among fishers and middlemen, of the factors affecting coral reef fish distributions in Solomon Islands. *Marine Policy*, 37, 245-253. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2012.05.006</u>

- Carpenter, K. E., & Springer, V. G. (2005). The center of the center of marine shore fish biodiversity: the Philippine Islands. *Environmental Biology of Fishes*, 72 (4), 467-480. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10641-004-3154-4
- Chevallier, R. (2017). Safeguarding Tanzania's Coral Reefs: The Case of Illegal Blast Fishing. South African Institute of International Affairs. https://www.jstor.org/stable/resrep29517
- Chou, L. M. (2000). Southeast Asian Reefs-Status update: Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet Nam. *Status of Coral Reefs of the World*, 117-129.
- Cudia, P. B. K. R., & Romero, M. L. J. (2022). Potentiometry for cyanide detection applied to fisheries regulation. *The Philippine Journal of Fisheries*, 29(1), *In press.* <u>https://doi.org/10.31398/tpjf/29.1.2021-0015</u>
- Dalabajan, D. (2005). Fixing the broken net: Improving enforcement of laws regulating cyanide fishing in the Calamianes Group of Islands, Philippines. *SPC Live Reef Fish Information Bulletin*, *15*, 3-12.
- Dalzell, P., & Ganaden, R. (1987). The overfishing of small pelagic fish stocks in the Philippines. *RAPA Rep*, *10*, 249-256.
- Erdmann, M., Pet-Soede, C., & Cabanban, A. (2000). Destructive fishing practices. In *Proceedings of the* 9th International Coral Reef Symposium, Bali, Indonesia.
- FAO. (2022). The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2022. Towards Blue Transformation. Rome, FAO. <u>https://doi.org/10.4060/cc0461en</u>
- Fox, H. E., Pet, J. S., Dahuri, R., & Caldwell, R. L. (2003).
 Recovery in rubble fields: long-term impacts of blast fishing. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 46(8), 1024-1031. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(03)00246-7</u>
- Froese, R., & Pauly, D. (2022). FishBase. World Wide Web electronic publication. <u>www.fishbase.org</u> (02/2022)
- Gomez, E. D., Alino, P. M., Yap, H. T., & Licuanan, W. Y. (1994). A review of the status of Philippine reefs. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 29(1-3), 62-68. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/0025-326X(94)90427-8</u>
- Graham, J., & Traylor, J. (2022). Cyanide toxicity. In *StatPearls* [*Internet*]. StatPearls Publishing.

- Halford, A., Cheal, A. J., Ryan, D., & Williams, D. M. (2004). Resilience to large-scale disturbance in coral and fish assemblages on the Great Barrier Reef. *Ecology*, *85*(7), 1892-1905. https://doi.org/10.1890/03-4017
- Hampton-Smith, M., Bower, D. S., & Mika, S. (2021). A review of the current global status of blast fishing: Causes, implications, and solutions. *Biological Conservation*, 262, 109307. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2021.109307
- Katikiro, R. E., & Mahenge, J. J. (2016). Fishers' Perceptions of the Recurrence of Dynamite-Fishing Practices on the Coast of Tanzania. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, *3*, 233. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2016.00233</u>
- Lauraya, F. L. P. M., Dullesco, N. W., & Candelaria, A.
 P. (2010). Current State of Marine Fishery Resource-Related Ordinances in Selected Marine Protected Areas in Bicol Region, Philippines. *Asian Rural Sociology IV*, 45.
- Lewis, A. R. (1997). Effects of experimental coral disturbance on the structure of fish communities on large patch reefs. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 161, 37-50.
- Madeira, D., Andrade, J., Leal, M. C., Ferreira, V., Rocha, R. J., Rosa, R., & Calado, R. (2020).
 Synergistic effects of ocean warming and cyanide poisoning in an ornamental tropical reef fish. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 7, 246. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2020.00246
- Magdaong, E. T., Yamano, H., Fujii, M. (2014).
 Development of a large-scale, long-term coral cover and disturbance database in the Philippines. In: Nakano, S., Yahara, T., & Nakashizuka, T. (Eds), *Integrative Observations and Assessments. Ecological Research Monographs.*Springer, Tokyo. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/978-4-431-54783-9_5</u>
- McManus, J. W., Reyes, J. R., Rodolfo, B., Nañola, J., & Cleto, L. (1997). Effects of some destructive fishing methods on coral cover and potential rates of recovery. *Environmental Management*, 21(1), 69-78.
- Miclat, R. I., Aliño, P. M., Aragones, N., Nañola Jr, C., & Aguilar, E. (1991). Pa-aling: an alternative to muro-ami. *Philippine Journal of Fisheries*, 22, 29-38.

- Mohammad, H. S., Ebbah, J. E., Sahiyal, K. M., & Tahiluddin, A. B. (2022). An assessment of smallscale fisheries in Tandubas, Tawi-Tawi, southern Philippines. *Menba Kastamonu Üniversitesi Su Ürünleri Fakültesi Dergisi*, 8(1), 10-22.
- Muallil, R. N., Mamauag, S. S., Cababaro, J. T., Arceo, H. O., & Aliño, P. M. (2014). Catch trends in Philippine small-scale fisheries over the last five decades: The fishers' perspectives. *Marine Policy*, 47, 110-117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2014.02.008

Naughton, J. (1985). Blast fishing in the Pacific. South Pacific Commission Fisheries Newsletter, 33, 16-20.

- Olofson, H. (2014). Children in Muro-Ami Fishing. In *The World of Child Labor* (pp. 926-928). Routledge.
- Olofson, H., & Tiukinhoy, A. (1992). "Plain Soldiers": Muro-Ami Fishing in Cebu. *Philippine Studies*, 40(1), 35-52.

https://www.jstor.org/stable/42633292

- Pablo, F., Stauber, J. L., & Buckney, R. T. (1997). Toxicity of cyanide and cyanide complexes to the marine diatom *Nitzschia closterium*. *Water Research*, 31(10), 2435-2442. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354(97)00094-8</u>
- Pacini, A. F., Nachtigall, P. E., Smith, A. B., Suarez, L. J., Magno, C., Laule, G. E., Aragones, L. V., & Braun, R. (2016, July). Evidence of hearing loss due to dynamite fishing in two species of odontocetes. In *Proceedings of Meetings on Acoustics 4ENAL* (Vol. 27, No. 1, p. 010043). Acoustical Society of America. https://doi.org/10.1121/2.0000393
- Pala, A., Zhang, J., Zhuang, J., & Allen, N. (2018).
 Behavior analysis of illegal fishing in the Gulf of Mexico. Journal of Homeland Security and Emergency Management, 15(1), https://doi.org/10.1515/jhsem-2016-0017
- Pastoral, P., & Ramiscal, R. (1997). Status of Fishing Conditions in the Philippines in Relation to Responsible Fishing. In *Proceedings of the Regional Workshop on Responsible Fishing, Bangkok, Thailand,* 24-27 June 1997 (pp. 119-124). Training Department, Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center. http://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12067/748

- Pet-Soede, L., & Erdmann, M. (1998a). An overview and comparison of destructive fishing practices in Indonesia. SPC Live Reef Fish Information Bulletin, 4, 28-36.
- Pet-Soede, L., & Erdmann, M. V. (1998b). Blast fishing in southwest Sulawesi, Indonesia. *Naga, The ICLARM Quarterly*, 21(2), 4–9.
- PSA. (2021). Fisheries statistics of the Philippines 2018-2020. PSA CVEA Building, East Avenue, Diliman Quezon City, Philippines.
- Purcell, S. W., Mercier, A., Conand, C., Hamel, J. F., Toral-Granda, M. V., Lovatelli, A., & Uthicke, S. (2013). Sea cucumber fisheries: global analysis of stocks, management measures and drivers of overfishing. *Fish and Fisheries*, 14(1), 34-59. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-2979.2011.00443.x</u>
- Quiazon, K. M. A., Santos, M. D., & Yoshinaga, T. (2013). *Anisakis* species (Nematoda: Anisakidae) of Dwarf Sperm Whale *Kogia sima* (Owen, 1866) stranded off the Pacific coast of southern Philippine archipelago. *Veterinary Parasitology*, 197 (1-2), 221-230. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetpar.2013.05.019
- Raymundo, L. J., Maypa, A. P., Gomez, E. D., & Cadiz,
 P. (2007). Can dynamite-blasted reefs recover? A novel, low-tech approach to stimulating natural recovery in fish and coral populations. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 54(7), 1009-1019. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2007.02.006
- Riegl, B., & Luke, K. E. (1999). Ecological parameters of dynamited reefs in the Northern Red Sea and their relevance to reef rehabilitation. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 37(8-12), 488-498. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(99)00104-6
- Rubec, P. J. (1986). The effects of sodium cyanide on coral reefs and marine fish in the Philippines. In *The First Asian Fisheries Forum* (Vol. 1, pp. 297-302). Manila, Philippines: Asian Fisheries Society.
- Rubec, P. J. (1988). The need for conservation and management of Philippine coral reefs. In: McAllister, D. E., & Kott, E. (Eds), On lampreys and fishes. Developments in environmental biology of fishes, vol 8. Springer, Dordrecht. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-009-3115-2_13

- Rubec, P. J., & Soundararajan, R. (1990, November). Chronic toxic effects of cyanide on tropical marine fish. In *Proceedings of the Seventeenth Annual Toxicity Workshop: November* (pp. 5-7).
- Saeger, J. (1993). The Samar Sea, Philippines: A decade of devastation. <u>http://hdl.handle.net/1834/26086</u>
- Sulu, R., Cumming R., Wantiez L., Kumar L., Mulipola A., Lober M., Sauni S., Poulasi T., & Pokoa K. (2002). Status of coral reefs in the southwest pacific to 2002: Fiji, Nauru, New Caledonia, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu and Vanuatu. Status of Coral Reefs of the World, 181-201.
- Tahiluddin, A., & Terzi, E. (2021). An overview of fisheries and aquaculture in the Philippines. Journal of Anatolian Environmental and Animal Sciences, 6(4), 475-486. https://doi.org/10.35229/jaes.944292
- Thomas, F. (1985). Research on the effects of 'payaos' on 'baclads' in the Zamboanga-Basilan areas [Philippines].
- Veloria, A. I., Hernandez, D. T., Tapang, G. A., & Aragones, L. V. (2021). Characterization of open water explosions from confiscated explosives in the Philippines–Possible implications to local marine mammals. *Science Diliman*, 33(1), 5-21.
- Veron, J. E. N. (1995). Corals in space and time: the biogeography and evolution of the Scleractinia. Cornell University Press.
- Wells, S. (2009). Dynamite fishing in northern Tanzania–pervasive, problematic and yet preventable. *Marine Pollution Bulletin 58*(1), 20-23. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2008.09.019</u>
- Werorilangi, S., Yusuf, S., Massinai, A., Niartiningsih,
 A., Tahir, A., Nimzet, R., Afdal, M., Karimah, A.
 Z., & Umar, W. (2019, April). Acute toxicity of cyanide (KCN) on two types of marine larvae:
 Acropora sp. planulae and D-veliger larvae of Tridacna squamosa. In *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science* (Vol. 253, No. 1,
 p. 012040). IOP Publishing.
 https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/253/1/012040
- White, A. T., & Wells, S. M. (1982). Coral reefs in the Philippines. *Oryx*, *16*(5), 445-451. <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S0030605300018123</u>

- Willer, D. F., Brian, J. I., Derrick, C. J., Hicks, M., Pacay, A., McCarthy, A. H., Benbow, S., Brooks, H., Hazin, C., Mukherjee, N., McOwen, C. J., Walker, J., & Steadman, D. (2022). 'Destructive fishing'—A ubiquitously used but vague term? Usage and impacts across academic research, media and policy. *Fish and Fisheries*. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/faf.12668</u>
- Yap, H. T., & Gomez, E. D. (1985). Coral reef degradation and pollution in the East Asian Seas Region. *Environment and Resources in the Pacific*, 69, 185-207.