1	Ten years of Sustainability Evaluation using the MESMIS framework: Lessons		
2	learned from its application in 28 Latin American case studies.		
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19	Abstract:		
20	Sustainability has become one of the leading targets of many organisations nowadays;		
21	simultaneously it has become one of the vaguest concepts difficult to operationalise,		
22	especially in complex systems such as peasant Natural Resource Management Systems		
23	(NRMS). The Indicator-based Framework for the Evaluation of NRMS (MESMIS, its		
24	Spanish acronym), developed in 1995, fulfilled a pioneers role by proposing an		
25	integrated multi-disciplinary approach to assess sustainability of peasant NRMS. Th		

26 framework is unique in its kind, being developed in the developing world and tested 27 extensively; currently more than forty studies have been documented in which the 28 MESMIS was applied. This paper presents the results of a research reviewing the 29 framework, ten years after its development, and seeking for improvement possibilities 30 by a thorough analysis of twenty-eight selected MESMIS case studies; an analysis 31 critical for the further development of the framework. Analysed case studies showed a 32 great diversity in both the type of systems (i.e. cropping systems, forest systems, 33 complex agro-silvo-pastoral systems) and the organisation that drove the evaluations 34 (i.e. farmers organisations, research institutes, NGO's); demonstrating the wide range of 35 systems and stakeholders to which the MESMIS appeals. Results showed the flexibility 36 and easy applicability of the framework. MESMIS greatly assisted evaluation teams and 37 stakeholders to assess sustainability of their current and alternative systems as well as it 38 increased the understanding of the complexity of these systems, making the MESMIS a 39 significant tool in sustainability evaluation of peasant NRMS. The degree in which 40 MESMIS and evaluation in general was an effective tool in reaching more sustainable 41 systems depended mainly on the type of participation applied; additional guidance and 42 information on participation is therefore essential. Improvement possibilities are 43 furthermore directed to the exploration and incorporation into the framework of 'new' 44 tools that have proven valuable for the monitoring and integrating of indicators (i.e. 45 simulation models, linear programming and trade-off analysis); tools capable of 46 assessing effects of management on indicators on long term and increasing thereby the 47 understanding of system's attributes.

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49 Keywords:

50 Sustainability, Evaluation, Peasant NRMS, MESMIS, Case Studies, Latin America.

51 Introduction

52 Sustainability has, since the Brundtland report (1987), steadily gained importance as a critical concept in natural resource management. Today it is on the agenda of almost all 53 54 research institutes, Non Governmental Organisations (NGO), and agencies related to 55 development and natural resources. The application and operationalisation of the 56 concept of sustainability is a challenging task, as the concept has become one of the vaguest paradigms of contemporary society (Bosshard, 2000) especially when 57 58 approaching and designing alternatives for complex systems such as Natural Resource 59 Management Systems (NRMS). In literature discussions on sustainable NRMS mainly 60 focus on 'sustainable agriculture', but NRMS can be understood in a broader sense, 61 including activities such as forestry, livestock production, fisheries, mining and eco-62 tourism activities (Masera et al., 1999). NRMS are commonly associated with peasants, 63 who perform a wide range of activities within these systems, pursuing multiple goals 64 such as food security, income and culture (Speelman et al., 2006). The diversification of 65 activities is a characteristic of systems with limited resources in risk prone 66 environments, as by diversifying activities risks are minimized (Ruben, 2001). Peasant 67 NRMS are generally characterised by low input use (fertiliser and pesticides) and with 68 poor living conditions of its producers; they are usually situated in fragile environments, 69 where natural resources are under high pressure. As a consequence, these NRMS are 70 usually highly complex systems. Peasant NRMS or peasant agriculture is however the 71 primary source of staple food in developing countries, where perhaps as many as 1.5 72 billion people earn their livelihood from (Chambers, 1994; Rosset, 2001).

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A general concern on the future of peasant NRMS and its economic, environmental and
 social degradation has led to the development of alternatives for more sustainable

NRMS by research institutes, development agencies, NGO's and peasant organisations during the last twenty years (López-Ridaura et al., 2002). Nonetheless, the need to understand, value and strengthen these peasant NRMS is still an issue highly relevant at this moment as it plays a critical role in the design of alternatives for more sustainable peasant NRMS.

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82 Evaluation plays an important role in the process of strengthening NRMS; it is an 83 effective tool to assess and design alternatives; by systematically evaluating current land 84 use and alternatives, informed decisions about desired future land use can be made 85 (Jordahl, 1984; Fresco et al., 1990; Dent, 1993; FAO, 1993a). However, conventional 86 evaluation approaches have not been sufficient to capture sustainability to its full extent 87 in complex NRMS as they mainly focused on a single dimension of sustainability (e.g. 88 economic, environmental, technical, social). New interdisciplinary methodological 89 approaches to evaluate current and alternative land use systems with respect to 90 sustainability are therefore necessary.

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92 Approaches that have been used in sustainability evaluation so far can be divided into 93 three main groups as stated by Masera et al. (1999) and López-Ridaura (2005), namely 94 approaches making use of lists or checklists of indicators, approaches using composite 95 indices and approaches applying frameworks for sustainability evaluation. The use of 96 indicators was originally focussed on economic sustainability, utilising indicators such 97 as net income and gross margin. When the defining of indicators was extended to the 98 field of environmental studies and environmental sustainability, the approach gained a 99 strong influence in the field of natural resource management. Comprehensive lists of 100 indicators were constructed, though little guidance for its users was at hand in relation

101 to the criteria to select them in specific case studies and the strategy to integrate the 102 information from their assessment. As a response to this, composite indices, where a 103 specific set of indicators are assessed and integrated in a single value, were developed 104 such as the Farmer Sustainability Index (Taylor et al., 1993), the Indicator of 105 Sustainable Agricultural Practice (ISAP) (Rigby et al., 2001) and the Agricultural 106 Sustainability Index (ASI) (Nambiar et al., 2001). Though using an index that reflects a 107 specific set of indicators facilitates the integration of indicators in the process of 108 sustainability evaluation, it goes beyond the fact that: a) every system is unique, 109 meaning that indicators can be meaningful in one system but irrelevant in another, and 110 b) the single numerical value given to different alternatives does not allow a transparent 111 discussion on their specific strengths and weaknesses hampering the (re)design of more 112 sustainable alternatives.

113 Frameworks for sustainability evaluation have been developed during the last ten years, 114 e.g. the international Framework for Evaluation of Sustainable Land Management 115 (FESLM) (FAO, 1993b), the Pressure-State-Response framework (PSR) (OECD, 1993), 116 and the framework for Analytic, Reflective and Participative Mapping of Sustainability 117 (MARPS, it's Spanish acronym) (IUCN-IDRC, 1995); yet these frameworks have not 118 been able to fully assist stakeholders in the process of sustainability evaluation. 119 Criticism on some of these frameworks has been that integration of indicators has been 120 overlooked, ignoring the inter-relationships amongst indicators (Bell and Morse, 2003).

121

122 The Framework for Assessing the Sustainability of Natural Resource Management 123 Systems (MESMIS, its acronym in Spanish) is an attempt to operationalise the concept 124 of sustainability in complex NRMS. The MESMIS fulfilled a pioneer's role, being one 125 of the first approaches to deal with sustainability of peasant NRMS in a

126 multidimensional manner. In this framework, evaluation is solidly imbedded in the 127 cycle of design of more sustainable alternative NRMS as, by effectively integrating 128 evaluation into the decision making process, the likelihood of success in the design of 129 alternatives and the implementation of development projects is improved (López-130 Ridaura et al., 2002). Contrary to other methodologies, MESMIS is primarily a planning 131 tool for system's improvement towards sustainability; providing guidance through an 132 indicator-based evaluation of system's sustainability in a systematic, participatory, 133 interdisciplinary and flexible manner.

134

135 The MESMIS framework is unique in its kind, as it has been developed in the 136 developing world, whereas the majority of methodologies to evaluate sustainability have been developed in or by the developed world e.g. FAO, 1993b; OECD, 1993. 137 138 Furthermore, the MESMIS framework is one of the few frameworks that has been 139 extensively tested in case studies. Since the development of the framework, it has 140 attracted considerable attention. At the moment, ten years after the development of 141 MESMIS, it has been applied to more than forty case studies in Mexico, Latin America 142 and Europe, with the highest concentration of case studies in Mexico. The development 143 of the MESMIS framework has been part of a multi-institutional research effort directed 144 to facilitate the design and adoption of more sustainable NRMS. As part of this effort an 145 annual international course has been taught since the year 2000 (www.gira.org.mx), 146 three books (Masera et al., 1999; Masera and López-Ridaura, 2000; Astier and 147 Hollands, 2005), several international publications (e.g. López-Ridaura et al., 2002; 148 Ortiz and Astier, 2003; Brunett Pérez et al., 2005), and many academic studies have 149 been published. In addition, the framework has been included in fourteen academic 150 courses both BSc and MSc courses in Mexico and Spain. Through academic discussions

and analysing its case studies the MESMIS framework is a dynamic framework,constantly evolving.

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154 Twenty-eight case studies of the MESMIS framework for sustainability evaluation of 155 peasant NRMS were analysed in relation to their main findings and the manner in which 156 the MESMIS was implemented as to discuss the strengths and limitations of the 157 framework ten years after its development and to seek possibilities for improvement of 158 the framework itself and its future applications; results of this analysis are presented in 159 this paper. The paper begins with a description of the MESMIS framework, the theories 160 it is built upon and its operational structure. The case studies and their main 161 characteristics are then shortly explained; after which, results and discussion of the case 162 studies analysis are presented. The paper ends with a section of conclusions, focussed 163 on the use of the framework as seen from the case studies as well as on the role of 164 evaluation in increasing sustainability in peasant NRMS, and a present series of 165 recommendations directed to improving the MESMIS framework and its future 166 applications.

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168 The MESMIS framework and Case Studies

The development of the MESMIS framework started in 1995 by a multi-institutional team and was lead by GIRA A.C., the Interdisciplinary Group for Appropriate Rural Technology, a Mexican NGO. The framework was the methodological core of the Natural Resource Management Network, financed by the Rockefeller Foundation, in which many Mexican organisations and institutes joined forces on the research in NRMS. The development of the MESMIS framework was part of a larger project that embodied: (a) developing a interdisciplinary framework for sustainability evaluation,

176 (b) applying the framework to different case studies, (c) training of individuals and 177 institutes in evaluating sustainability through the MESMIS framework (d) generating 178 and disseminating of documents and data bases related to the evaluation framework, its 179 theoretical basis and practical guidelines as well as its application to case studies. The 180 MESMIS approach is based on the following four premises: (i) sustainability is defined 181 by seven attributes based on a dynamic systems approach (Productivity, Stability, 182 Reliability, Resilience, Adaptability, Equity and Self-Reliance), (ii) sustainability 183 evaluations are only valid for a specific management system on a specific spatial and 184 time scale, (iii) evaluation teams should include external and internal participants as the 185 process of evaluation is participatory, and (iv) sustainability is assessed through the 186 comparison of systems either at the same time or over time (López-Ridaura et al., 187 2002).

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189 Attributes and Indicators

190 As suggested by Conway (1987) and Garcia (1992) in order for interdisciplinary 191 analysis to be effective, it has to give insights that significantly transcend those of the 192 individual disciplines involved. Therefore attributes or properties of sustainable NRMS 193 that are valid throughout the different dimensions of sustainability (e.g. environmental, 194 economic and social) need to be determined. Many research teams have defined 195 attributes or properties for deriving sustainability indicators (Smith and Dumanski, 196 1994; Conway 1994; Mitchel et al., 1995; ICSA, 1996; Kessler, 1997; Masera et al., 197 1999; Bossel, 2000; Capillon and Genevieve, 2000). However, there is no general 198 consensus on the attributes to be used in sustainability evaluation. MESMIS defined seven attributes relevant to sustainable NRMS, especially in the context of peasant 199

200 NRMS, based on a systemic approach, namely productivity, stability, equity, self201 reliance, reliability, resilience and adaptability.

202

203 The attributes productivity, stability, equity and self-reliance describe the functioning of 204 the system itself, excluding the impact of its environment and are defined in the context 205 of MESMIS as follows. The productivity of a system is the yield of a system in terms of 206 services and goods at a certain point in time; the capability of a system to maintain this 207 specific yield of goods and services at a stable dynamic equilibrium indicates the 208 system's stability. The attribute equity represents the system's ability to distribute all 209 costs and benefits fairly over its stakeholders. Self-reliance or self-empowerment shows 210 the capability of a system to regulate and control interactions with outlying systems and 211 at the same time keeping its own values and identity.

212

213 The behaviour of a system in relation to its environment and its ability to return to a 214 (new) stable dynamic equilibrium in a changing environment is described using the 215 attributes reliability, resilience and adaptability. The attribute reliability shows the 216 system's capacity to maintain its desired output level near its equilibrium when facing 217 normal disturbances in its environment. The resilience of a system shows system's 218 competence to return to a state of stable equilibrium after a non-structural perturbation. 219 The system's aptitude to adjust and to find a new state of equilibrium to a long-term 220 change in its environment expresses system's adaptability.

221

These seven pre-defined attributes are used to guide the derivation of diagnostic criteria and indicators in the sustainability evaluation process; linkages between attributes, criteria and indicators within the framework are shown in Figure 1. Diagnostic criteria

225	are defined as standards on which a judgement or decision may be based. Indicators are
226	defined within the framework as quantitative or qualitative measures that reflect
227	diagnostic criteria.

Figure 1

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231 *Structure of the framework*

232 The MESMIS operational structure consists of six steps, as shown in Figure 2, and it is 233 conceived as a cyclic process. In the first step of the cycle, the evaluation object is 234 defined. The MESMIS builds upon the premise that sustainability can only be assessed 235 in relative terms i.e. comparing two or more alternative situations; therefore several 236 management systems are defined and described. Depending on the type of comparison 237 used, either at the same time (transversal) or over time (longitudinal), a characteristic 238 reference management system, which is prevailing in the region and one or more 239 alternative systems are defined. As a systems approach is adopted for the evaluation, 240 MESMIS suggests the use of flow charts to clearly describe and highlight the 241 differences between the systems, their subsystems, components, and systems 242 relationships (internal and external).

243

Critical features of a system concerning system's sustainability are determined in step 2 of the evaluation cycle. These critical features reflect important factors that weaken or strengthen system's sustainability in relation to the proposed attributes. Critically looking at the system and asking questions such as 'which aspects of the system present problems?' and 'what makes the NRMS vulnerable?' can identify these characteristics.

After making a list of these critical features, the features need to be linked to system'sattributes in order to make sure all attributes addressed.

251

252 In step 3, indicators are derived and selected by using a two-level approach. This two-253 level approach consists of defining diagnostic criteria that link attributes, critical points 254 and indicators, these diagnostic criteria form, at the same time, a level of analysis more 255 detailed than the attributes, but more general than indicators. After defining diagnostic 256 criteria, a list of potential indicators must be composed covering all attributes and 257 diagnostic criteria. As opposed to diagnostic criteria, indicators have specific units of 258 analysis for their assessment. A selection from the list of potential indicators is required 259 to make the final set of indicators robust and not exhausting (De Camino and Muller, 260 1993). Only measurable or quantifiable indicators vital to show critical features of the 261 system should be included in this final selection of indicators.

262

Step 4 of the cycle comprises of measuring and monitoring indicators selected in the previous step. Monitoring the behaviour of indicators over time is essential when evaluating sustainability, a concept that focuses on the behaviour of a system over time. Depending on the evaluation teams and their available economic resources and time constraints, several techniques can be used for measuring and monitoring indicators such as surveys and interviews, field measurements and models.

269

270 Results obtained by monitoring indicators are synthesised and integrated in step 5. Since 271 the indicators used are highly diverse and expressed in both qualitative and quantitative 272 ways, this is not an easy task. An technique that has proven very useful for graphically 273 integrating different indicators and which is promoted by MESMIS is the AMOEBA

diagram (Brink Ten et al., 1991; Gomiero and Giampietro, 2005). This diagram shows
in a snapshot to what extent indicator values of the reference and alternative systems
reflect optimum indicator values.

277

In the last step of the cycle, results of the previous steps are recalled, and system's sustainability is analysed. With use of the AMOEBA diagram different features of the system in terms of sustainability are discussed between the evaluation team and stakeholders and recommendations made. With the recommendations of this last step the first evaluation cycle is finished, initiating, at the same time, the first step of a new evaluation cycle.

284

285

Figure 2

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287 *Case studies*

288 From the more than forty MESMIS case studies, twenty-eight were selected to undergo 289 a comprehensive analysis; the selection of case studies was based on the detail and 290 quality of available information of the case studies and came from internal reports, 291 articles and book publications. The majority of case studies originated from Mexico, the 292 country in which the MESMIS framework was developed. The remainder of case 293 studies came from countries in South America, i.e. Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil and Peru; 294 Table 1 shows the locations, evaluation teams, evaluated systems and references to all 295 case studies.

- 297 **Table 1**
- 298

299 The type of systems analysed ranged from cropping systems and forest systems to more 300 complex agro-silvo-pastoral systems. Agro-silvo-pastoral systems formed the biggest 301 group of analysed systems with 36% of all analysed systems, followed by cropping 302 systems (32%) and cropping-cattle systems (18%) (Figure 3-A). The main objective for 303 little more than half of the systems studied were production for subsistence; 32% were 304 recognised as being commercial systems, whereas the remainder were producing for 305 subsistence and commercial objectives in equal amounts (Figure 3-B). Organisations 306 that initiated and carried out the various MESMIS case studies consisted for the greater 307 part of Universities or Research Institutes (61%) mainly in the form of MSc and PhD 308 researches.

The main participatory approach used in the analysed case studies was 'consultative research' as defined by Lilja and Ashby (1999), in which evaluation teams make decisions with organized communication with other stakeholders. Stakeholders included in the evaluations were mainly farmers. However, also case studies were seen in which all decisions were made by the evaluation teams with little or no input from other stakeholders; in almost half of the cases no participants were included in the research at all.

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Figure 3

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In order to make recommendations for the improvement of the MESMIS framework and its implementation in the future, the main findings of the case studies and the way in which the methodological steps of the MESMIS were implemented were qualitatively and quantitatively analysed.

324 **Results and Discussion**

325 The MESMIS case studies contained a great diversity of evaluated systems, mainly 326 systems in which numerous activities were performed and multiple goals pursued, 327 coinciding with the type of systems the framework is aiming for, namely peasant 328 NRMS characterised by small-scale mainly subsistence farmers carrying out a wide 329 range of activities. Furthermore, the large quantity of case studies initiated and driven 330 by Universities and Research Institutes shows the academic popularity of the subject of 331 sustainability evaluation in complex NRMS and the relevance of the framework in this 332 context.

333 The MESMIS framework promotes a participatory research approach, in order to 334 increase the success rate of designed alternatives, as has been recognized by many 335 authors e.g. Biggs, 1990; Lilja and Ashby, 1999; Sumberg et al., 2003. The type of 336 participation is left open to be chosen by the users of the framework. As stated earlier, 337 little participation was seen in the case studies; stakeholders included in the evaluations 338 were mainly farmers. The MESMIS and the case studies focus hereby only on one scale 339 of analysis, mainly farm scale, which leaves out other stakeholders of peasant NRMS at 340 other scales, such as researchers, consumers groups, decision-makers at regional or 341 municipality scale including environmental and agricultural officers. A reason for the 342 absence of participants could be found in the purpose for which case studies were 343 carried out; in many cases it was solely an academic exercise. However, also in the 344 context of an academic exercise the participation of different NRMS stakeholders is 345 crucial in the evaluation process as in the academic learning process. More information 346 on different participatory approaches and how to apply them would increase the

347 awareness of MESMIS users of the necessity of these tools in the process of348 sustainability evaluation.

349

350 In the first step of the cycle, the systems under research were defined. As explained 351 earlier, a distinction can be made between comparing systems at the same time 352 (transversal evaluation) or over time (longitudinal evaluation). The large majority of the 353 case studies studied were transversal comparisons. This could be the result of the 354 difficulty to assess long-term data and to capture the dynamic aspect of peasant NRMS. 355 However, a temporal scale larger than the present one is inherent to concepts as 356 sustainability and system's attributes like stability, reliability, resilience and adaptability 357 and thereby of great importance within sustainability evaluation. Computer simulation 358 models could assist on this aspect to simulate system's behaviour on a longer term. The 359 greater part of the case studies assessed and compared sustainability of 2 systems, but 360 the number of systems evaluated ranged from 1 to 6. The case study of Nuevo San Juan 361 Parangaricutiro, Mexico (case study no. 13 in Table 1) assessed sustainability of one 362 system in comparison to optimal indicator values rather than comparing sustainability of 363 two or more systems. Flowcharts clearly illustrated the different subsystems of the 364 NRMS and indicated flows (i.e. product, money and labour flows) between the 365 (sub)systems in the various case studies. This method, as advised by MESMIS, was 366 implemented by all case studies and helped to visualise and increase the understanding 367 of the system as well for stakeholders as for the evaluation teams; an example of such a 368 flowchart is shown in figure 4 of the case study in Chullpakasa, Bolivia (case study no. 369 4 in Table 1). Most flowcharts showed similar features such as subsystems and input-370 output flows common to peasant NRMS. A few flowcharts stood out by including an 371 unusual subsystem or by including critical points of the system in the flowchart.

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Figure 4

375 Step 2, the identification of system's critical points, was applied by all but 5 case 376 studies. These 5 case studies left out the identification of critical points and proceeded 377 straight to the identification of indicators. A striking feature within the group of 378 identified critical points was that, even tough these characteristics could be either 379 debilitating or enhancing sustainability, most identified points were negative points that 380 constrained system's sustainability. This is coherent with the fact that the general 381 objective of the MESMIS framework is to improve sustainability; therefore it is 382 commonsense to look for points that constrain sustainability and that can be improved. 383 However, the identification of positive critical points of systems is of equal importance 384 as to acknowledge the strengths of a system and maintain these features in the design of 385 alternatives.

386

387 During the third step of the MESMIS, strategic indicators reflecting diagnostic criteria 388 and system's attributes were identified in the case studies. In two case studies newly 389 defined attributes were found. In the case of Xohuayán-Mexico (case study no. 25 in 390 Table 1), the attribute 'collective identity and social welfare' was added to the seven 391 pre-defined attributes; in this indigenous Maya community much weight was attached to 392 the role of the community. The attribute 'adoptability' was included in the case study of 393 Sureste de Mexico-Mexico (case study no. 18 in Table 1), as to emphasise the 394 importance and evaluation of the adoptability of innovations. Evaluation teams in a 395 slight majority of case studies were not able to link their identified indicators to all 396 seven attributes; some case studies even did not connect their indicators to the attributes

397 at all. An explanation for this could be found in the fact that the description of attributes 398 is somewhat vague and difficult to conceptualise, where as evaluation teams are more 399 accustomed to the use of concrete indicators. Almost twice as many indicators were 400 linked to the attribute 'productivity' in comparison to the other attributes. This shows 401 the relative simplicity to quantify this attribute using indicators as well as the strong 402 interest in this attribute amongst NRMS stakeholders and the importance of peasant 403 NRMS in the context of food production and the role these systems take on in earning a 404 livelihood as stated by Chambers (1994) and Rosset (2001).

405 The evaluation teams selected a great variety of both quantitative and qualitative 406 indicators reflecting the different aspects of the sustainability of their systems. 407 Indicators were clustered according to their main focus for instance indicators e.g. 408 'maize yield' and 'wood yield' were grouped into 'output' linked with the attribute 409 productivity; Table 2 shows indicators per attribute frequently used in the case studies. 410 Indicators most widely defined throughout the case studies reflected the 'output' and 411 '(agro)biodiversity' status of a system; another group of indicators often used focused 412 on the 'soil properties' of a system. The larger quantity of defined indicators reflecting a 413 system's environmental aspects in comparison to 'social' indicators indicates the 414 interest of stakeholders and evaluation teams, but at the same time it could be the result 415 of a better understanding of these parts of the system as the majority of the evaluation 416 teams had a background in environmental of biological studies.

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Table 2

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420 Many different ways to measure and monitor indicators were seen in the case studies421 during step 4 of the framework. Measuring methods included direct measurements in

422 the field, literature review, surveys, simulation models, technical coefficient matrixes, 423 semi-structured and open-ended interviews. The type of required data was the 424 determining factor for the measuring method used; it was seen that for obtaining socio-425 economic data mainly surveys and interview techniques were used. For data of 426 environmental indicators people mainly relied on direct measurements or literature. 427 Only a few case studies used simulation models. The possibilities of this option for 428 longitudinal evaluation of systems deserves more exploration, as it gives the 429 opportunity to assess management effects on indicators and system's attributes on 430 longer term, greatly improving the understanding of system's dynamics concerning 431 attributes. In a study done by Speelman (2004), stakeholders responded enthusiastic to 432 the insight knowledge gained from long term model output, showing the effects of 433 different management options on system's attributes. Within the MESMIS, more 434 emphasis on the different available simulation models, their application and their role in 435 sustainability evaluation would improve the guidance given to MESMIS users.

436

437 The main technique used for the integration of results, step 5 of the framework, was the 438 AMOEBA-diagram. This diagram presented an easy and yet comprehensive integrated 439 presentation of the performance of the analysed systems in relation to an optimum for 440 the various indicators originating from different dimensions of sustainability (e.g. 441 environmental, economic and social). This technique allowed thereby a comparison 442 between the analysed systems and the way they reflect the optimum indicator values; an 443 illustration of this is shown in Figure 5 of the study in Valle de Toluca, Mexico (case 444 study no. 26 in Table 1). Indicator values of the analysed systems are situated along the 445 axes of the radial AMOEBA diagram that has a standard scale running from 0 to 100,

446 corresponding to the worst (0) and best (100) indicator values; the outer ring of the447 diagram thereby represents the optimum values of all indicators.

448 In 5 case studies, conclusions and recommendations were directly drawn from indicator 449 values without integration and thereby leaving out important features of step 5. In some 450 cases, a table was used to integrate or accompany the AMOEBA-diagram. Exploring 451 and adding information on relatively new tools developed for the integration of 452 indicators such as the multi-scale multiple goal linear programming model developed by 453 López-Ridaura (2005) to the MESMIS, would create new opportunities for 454 understanding and assisting stakeholders in sustainability issues in NRMS. Hardly any 455 further research into relationships (synergies and trade-offs) between attributes or 456 between indicators was executed in the case studies; leaving open a large field of 457 opportunities to gain more in depth knowledge on system's sustainability. As shown in 458 Speelman et al. (2006), further research into these relationships, even more so into 459 trade-offs, can add valuable information to the decision-making process in peasant 460 NRMS, as it can identify the level in which alternative management will (negatively) 461 affect other indicators to an for stakeholders acceptable level. For example, a proposed 462 management change to improve soil properties is most likely to influence other 463 indicators such as labour properties and income; performing a trade-off analysis can 464 show to which extent the proposed management can be executed while keeping the 465 level of income and labour at an for the stakeholder acceptable level. These insights are 466 especially interesting when evaluating several management options with the goal of 467 implementing one, as is the case with MESMIS, and can assist farmers in their decision-468 making of alternative management of their systems to a larger extent. Hence, more 469 information on trade-offs and synergies will help users of MESMIS in better 470 understanding consequences of alternative management.

471 It was seen that the majority of the case studies did not present or discuss their results
472 with stakeholders, showing a low level of participation and involvement of
473 stakeholders. This issue, as addressed earlier, requires more investigation and assistance
474 for MESMIS users.

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Figure 5

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478 In the last step of the cycle, conclusions were drawn and recommendations were made. 479 Conclusions focused on the compared sustainability of the researched systems and on 480 describing specific factors that debilitated or enhanced their sustainability. It was seen 481 that most systems had indicators for which they performed well and indicators for 482 which they performed less well. This helped case studies to note the complexity and 483 multi-dimensionality of sustainability and of their systems and the trade-offs involved in 484 making changes to their existing systems as can be seen for example from Brunett Pérez 485 et al. (2005) (case study no. 26 in Table 1; Figure 5). Results of their evaluation of a 486 conventional and a modified cattle system showed that the modified system resulted in 487 increased milk yields and higher nitrogen and energy efficiencies, but consequently it 488 also revealed lower maize yields and poorer soil properties. Main factors considered to 489 debilitate system's sustainability in the case studies were: a) high dependency on 490 external resources, b) degradation of local resources, c) low production, d) low level of 491 organisation and/or participation of producers and e) low grade of (agro-)biodiversity. 492 Factors enhancing system's sustainability were also pointed out. These factors mainly 493 reflected the opposite of the factors mentioned to negatively affect sustainability of a 494 system, namely high production, independence of external resources, conservation of 495 local resources, high diversity, and high level of organisation and/or participation.

496 Depending on stakeholders' interest for a specific indicator recommendations were 497 made, as indicators used in the evaluation refer to non-commensurable criteria and 498 attributes and the visualisation of the analysed systems in a AMOEBA diagram allows 499 comparison between the systems and the optimum value per indicator, but does not give 500 information on the relative importance of specific indicators to the stakeholders 501 (Gomiero and Giampietro, 2005). Recommendations uttered in the various case studies 502 could roughly be categorised into three main groups, namely (i) recommendations 503 aimed at a modification in management strategies of a specific resource, (ii) 504 recommendations aimed at designing an alternative system and (iii) recommendations 505 aimed at initiating more research by the institute involved. Little information was 506 available on the implementation of the conclusions and recommendations of the studies. 507 However, 80% of these case studies implemented recommendations made during the 508 MESMIS evaluation cycle.

509

510 With recommendations made in step 6 of the framework, the MESMIS cycle is 511 completed as at the same time by implementing these recommendations the new 512 evaluation cycle is initiated. Through the cyclic structure of the evaluation framework a 513 continuous process of evaluating and design is aspired. Nevertheless, after defining 514 recommendations for a new management system, time is required for the 515 implementation of recommendations, the so-called design-action-design cycle, and for 516 the reviewing of effects of changes to the system as a result of the implemented 517 recommendations; making the continuous cycle a lengthy process. This can also be seen 518 from the case studies; only the first MESMIS case study executed by GIRA A.C. has 519 reached a second evaluation cycle. This shows the particularly importance of making 520 long term investigations into sustainability of peasant NRMS, as not only concepts as

sustainability and systems attributes imply and require a long temporal scale of analysis,
but also the design-action-design cycle of the sustainability evaluation process requires
long term investments.

524

525 Conclusions and Recommendations

In this paper, twenty-eight case studies of the sustainability evaluation framework,
MESMIS, were analysed to find trends in its application and space for improvements
within the framework.

529 The six steps of the framework showed to be a good structure applicable in a flexible 530 manner. However, in step 4 and 5 of the framework some important opportunities to 531 increase insights in system's sustainability and improve sustainability evaluation were 532 left open in most cases. Incorporation of information on the role of simulation models 533 and guidance for its use in step 4 of the framework, the phase in which indicators are 534 measured and monitored, would greatly assist MESMIS users in the evaluation of their 535 systems. More emphasise should be put on insights gained from simulation tools, as 536 seen from Speelman (2004), to improve longitudinal evaluation and assess behaviour of 537 system's attributes and indicators on long term; especially, as a long-term temporal 538 scale is inherent to concepts as sustainability and system's attributes stability, reliability, 539 resilience and adaptability.

540 During step 5 of the framework, it was seen from the case studies that hardly any further 541 research into relationships between attributes and between indicators was performed. 542 Knowledge on these relationships and in particular on trade-offs will provide valuable 543 information on consequences of management and on the level in which a management 544 change can be implemented with maintaining other indicators and system's attributes at 545 a for the stakeholders acceptable levels as shown in a study by Speelman et al. (2006).

546 Furthermore, more awareness to other tools developed to assist the integration of 547 indicators such as the multi-scale multiple-goal linear programming as developed by 548 López-Ridaura (2005) should be encouraged. Including more assistance in the use of 549 these methods will enhance the sustainability evaluation of MESMIS.

550

551 The degree to which evaluation is an effective tool to increase system's sustainability 552 depends to the larger extent on the type of participatory application of this tool and the 553 type of stakeholders included, originating from one scale or multi-scales. More 554 information and guidance concerning participatory approaches, the involvement of 555 stakeholders and the purpose this serves within sustainability evaluation is 556 recommended to be included in the framework in order to go beyond the scale of 557 gaining knowledge of the sustainability of systems to designing applicable alternatives. 558 As stated in one of the four main premises on which MESMIS is based, involvement 559 from different stakeholders is essential for increasing the likelihood of designing 560 successful alternatives. Learning from and incorporating existing knowledge on the 561 integration of multi-scale stakeholders in the MESMIS evaluation process will greatly 562 complement the existing (re)design of alternative systems.

563

564 During the ten years since its development, the MESMIS framework, being one of the 565 pioneers for approaching sustainability of complex peasant NRMS in a integrated multi-566 disciplinary approach, has proven to be a useful tool for an integral evaluation of current 567 and alternative systems and the identification of their advantages and disadvantages 568 concerning their sustainability greatly assisting the decision making process in 569 sustainability evaluation; making it a significant tool for sustainability evaluation in 570 complex NRMS. The case study experiences analysed in this paper show the great

diversity of biophysical and socio-economic conditions in which the MESMIS has been applied. Similarly, the evaluation teams also showed a great diversity, ranging from peasant organisations to Universities and Research Institutes (Table 1); all engaged in the development of alternatives for more sustainable peasant NRMS. Moreover, in three case studies the evaluation was driven by an organisational mixed evaluation team, showing the strength of the MESMIS in bringing together different stakeholders (i.e. peasants, researchers, NGO's) in the evaluation of more sustainable alternatives.

578

579 Systems evaluated were largely complex peasant NRMS, such complexity derives from 580 the fact that several objectives are being simultaneously satisfied by NRMS such as the 581 production of food for securing food self-sufficiency, the production of marketable 582 products for income generation, the satisfaction of cooking energy needs, risk 583 minimization and resource conservation. The MESMIS, suggesting a systems approach 584 and an interdisciplinary perspective, has showed to be appealing for evaluation teams to 585 capture such complexity of NRMS (Figure 3).

586

The systematic application, documentation and analysing of MESMIS case studies and reviewing the lessons to be learned from these case studies, highlighting the frameworks main strengths and weaknesses, as done in this study, is essential for the frameworks further development, as well as critical for allowing MESMIS users to learn from other evaluation experiences.

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831 FIGURES AND TABLES TITLES:

832

Figure 1: Overview of the MESMIS structure showing the relationship betweenAttributes, Diagnostic Criteria and Indicators.

835

836 **Figure 2:** The MESMIS evaluation cycle (López-Ridaura et al., 2002).

837

838 **Figure 3:** Main characteristics of case studies showing both percentages and absolute

839 numbers of type of systems (A), main objective for production (B) and organisation

840 initiated case studies (C).

841

842 **Figure 4:** Flowchart showing the reference system of the case study Chullpakasa,

843 Bolivia, no. 4. (SOURCE: Modified from Delgadillo and Delgado, 2005).

844

Figure 5: AMOEBA-diagram showing the cattle system evaluated in the case study of

846 Valle de Toluca, Mexico, no.26 (SOURCE: Modified from Brunett Pérez et al., 2005).

847

848 **Table 1:** Main features of the case studies included in this study, showing location, 849 organisations initiated the case study, the type of system analysed and reference.

850

851 Table 2: Indicators most frequently used in the case studies, clustered according to their
852 main focus; illustrated with concrete indicators used in the case studies.

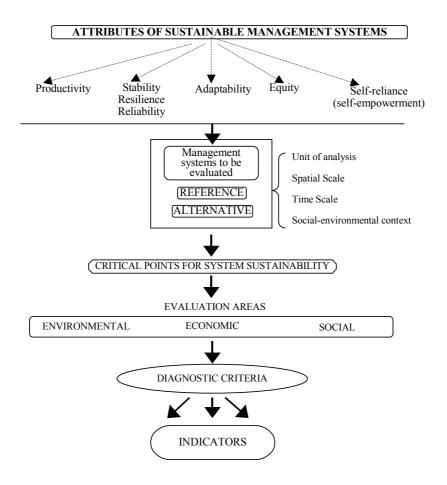


Figure 1: Overview of the MESMIS structure showing the relationship betweenAttributes, Diagnostic Criteria and Indicators.

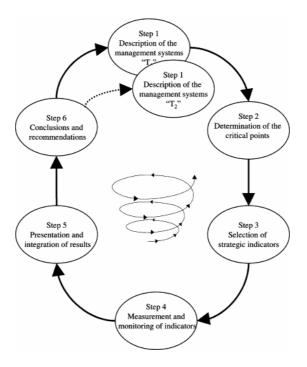
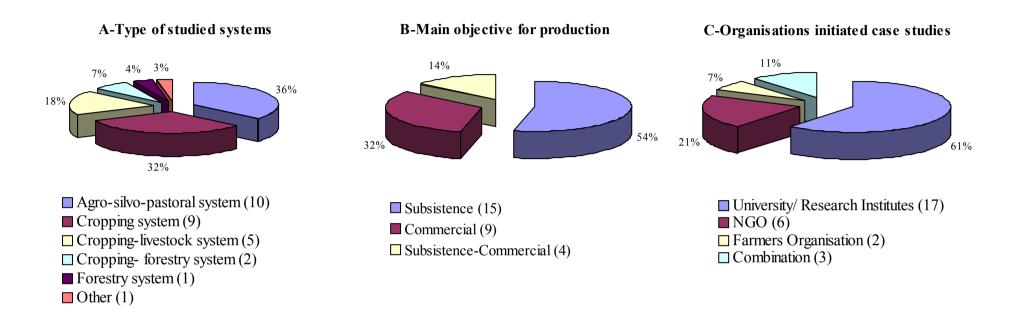
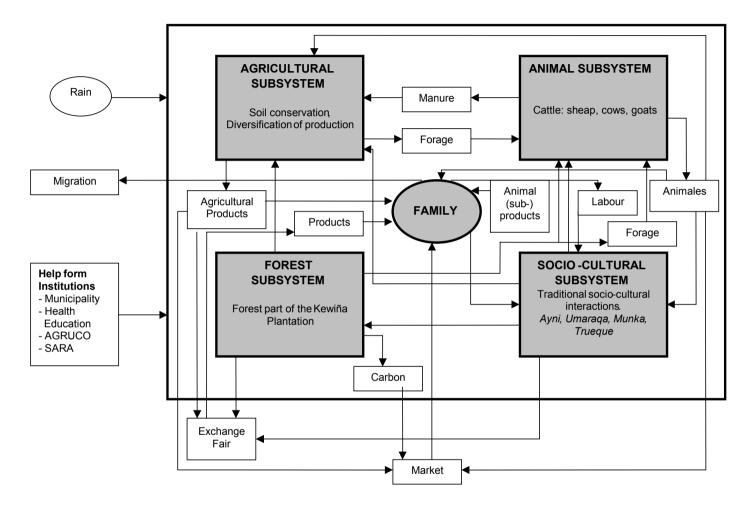




Figure 2: The MESMIS evaluation cycle (López-Ridaura et al., 2002).



- 859 Figure 3: Main characteristics of case studies showing both percentages and absolute numbers of type of systems (A), main objective for
- 860 production (B) and organisation initiated case studies (C).



862 Figure 4: Flowchart showing the reference system of the case study Chullpakasa, Bolivia, no. 4. (SOURCE: Modified from Delgadillo and

863 Delgado, 2005).

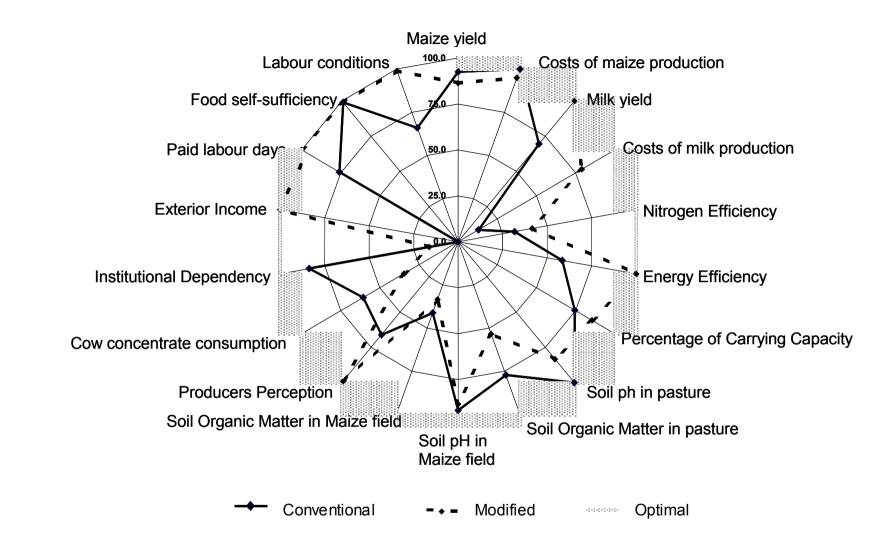


Figure 5: AMOEBA-diagram showing the cattle system evaluated in the case study of Valle de Toluca, Mexico, no. 26 (SOURCE: Modified

866 from Brunett Pérez et al., 2005).

- **Table 1:** Main features of the case studies included in this study, showing location, organisations initiated the case study, the type of system
- 868 analysed and reference.

Case	Location	Organisation	Systems evaluated	Reference
1	Misiones, Argentina	UIA ¹⁾	6 different management systems for small-	Rosenfeld (1998)
			scale agro-silvo-pastoral farming	
2	Colónia Güemes, Argentina	UNLP ¹⁾	Five different tobacco systems	Sarandón (2001)
3	Comunidad Tres Cruces,	AGRUCO ¹⁾	Traditional agro-silvo-pastoral system vs.	Frías and Delgado (2003)
	Bolivia		Modified agro-silvo-pastoral system based	
			on agro-ecological principles	
4	Comunidad Chullpakasa,	AGRUCO ¹⁾	Cropping system with traditional soil	Delgadillo P. and Delgado B.
	Bolivia		conservation methods vs. Cropping system	(2003); Delgadillo and Delgado
			with improved soil conservation methods	Burgoa (2005)
5	Remígio, Brazil	AS-PTA ²⁾	Traditional agro-silvo-pastoral system vs.	Gomes de Almeida et al. (2002)
			Modernised agro-silvo-pastoral system based	
			on agro-ecological principles	
6	São Mateus do Sul, Brazil	AS-PTA ²⁾	Traditional cropping-forestry system vs.	Gomes de Almeida and Bianconi
			Modernised cropping-forestry system based	Fernandes (2003 and 2005)
			on agro-ecological principles	
7	Municipio San Juan	UACh ¹⁾	Three different maize management systems	Narváez (1996)

Guichicovi, Mexico			
Municipio San Juan	UACh ¹⁾	Large agro-silvo-pastoral system vs. Small	Narváez (1996)
Guichicovi, Mexico		agro-silvo-pastoral systems	
Municipio San Juan	UACh ¹⁾	Agro-silvo-pastoral system with good soils	Narváez (1996)
Guichicovi, Mexico		vs. Agro-silvo-pastoral system with poor	
		soils	
Álvaro Obregón, Mexico	UMSNH ¹⁾	Conventional wheat system vs. Alternative	Hernández and Rodriíguez (1998)
		wheat system including a cover crop	
San Pedro Pareo (Cuenca lago	UMSNH ¹⁾	Conventional vegetable system vs. Organic	Cruz Jiménez et al. (1998)
Pátzcuaro), Mexico		vegetable system	
Valle Morelia-Queréndaro,	UMSNH ¹⁾	Different agro-silvo-pastoral management	Hernández (1999)
Mexico		systems	
Nuevo San Juan	UMSNH ¹⁾	Traditional indigenous agro-silvo-pastoral	Pulido Secundino (2000)
Parangaricutiro, Mexico		system	
Jalisco, Mexico	UL ¹⁾	Leased land agro-silvo-pastoral system vs.	Rodriguez i Toha, (2000)
		Self-owned agro-silvo-pastoral system	
Los Altos de Chiapas, Mexico	Unión de Ejidos	Organic coffee system vs. Conventional	Pérez-Grovas Garza (2000)
	Majomut ³⁾	coffee system	
Zona Maya de Quintana Roo,	OEPFZM ³⁾	Forest system before 1985 vs. forest system	Negreros-Castillo et al. (2000)
Mexico		after 1985	
	Guichicovi, Mexico Municipio San Juan Guichicovi, Mexico Álvaro Obregón, Mexico San Pedro Pareo (Cuenca Iago Pátzcuaro), Mexico Valle Morelia-Queréndaro, Mexico Nuevo San Juan Parangaricutiro, Mexico Jalisco, Mexico Los Altos de Chiapas, Mexico Zona Maya de Quintana Roo,	Image: Guichicovi, MexicoUACh1)Municipio San JuanUACh1)Guichicovi, MexicoUMSNH1)Álvaro Obregón, MexicoUMSNH1)San Pedro Pareo (Cuenca IagoUMSNH1)Pátzcuaro), MexicoUMSNH1)Valle Morelia-Queréndaro,UMSNH1)MexicoUMSNH1)Nuevo San JuanUMSNH1)Parangaricutiro, MexicoUL1)Jalisco, MexicoUL1)Los Altos de Chiapas, MexicoUnión de Ejidos Majomut3)Zona Maya de Quintana Roo,OEPFZM3)	Guichicovi, MexicouACh1)Agro-silvo-pastoral systemsMunicipio San Juan Guichicovi, MexicoUACh1)Agro-silvo-pastoral system with good soils vs. Agro-silvo-pastoral system with poor soilsÁlvaro Obregón, MexicoUMSNH1)Conventional wheat system vs. Alternative wheat system including a cover cropSan Pedro Pareo (Cuenca lago Pátzcuaro), MexicoUMSNH1)Conventional vegetable system vs. Organic vegetable systemValle Morelia-Queréndaro, MexicoUMSNH1)Different agro-silvo-pastoral management systemsNuevo San Juan Parangaricutiro, MexicoUMSNH1)Traditional indigenous agro-silvo-pastoral systemsJalisco, MexicoUL1)Leased land agro-silvo-pastoral system vs. Self-owned agro-silvo-pastoral systemLos Altos de Chiapas, MexicoUnión de Ejidos Majomut3)Organic coffee system vs. forest systemZona Maya de Quintana Roo,OEPFZM3)Forest system before 1985 vs. forest system

17	Región Sur de Sinaloa, Mexico	CESSI'INIFAP ¹⁾ ,	Extensive agro-silvo-pastoral system vs.	Perales Rivas et al. (2000)
		UACh ¹⁾	Alternative system using forage	
18	Sureste de México, Mexico	Proyecto Pachuca ^{1) 2)}	Traditional maize system vs. Alternative	Guevara et al. (2000)
			maize system using rotation maize-'macuna'	
19	Cuenca alta del lago de	GIRA A.C. ²⁾	Traditional maize system vs. Commercial	Astier et al. (2000)
	Zirahuén, Mexico		maize system	
20	Norte del Valle de Toluca,	UAE M ¹⁾	Extensive agro-cattle system vs. Intensive	Hernández (2001)
	Mexico		agro-cattle system	
21	Zona alta del Mezquital,	UACh ¹⁾	Cropping-forestry system without water	Sánchez (2001)
	Mexico		harvesting system vs. Cropping-forestry	
			system with water harvesting system	
22	Tenango del Valle, Mexico	UAE M ¹⁾	Vegetable system vs. Vegetable-milk system	Villa Mendez (2002)
23	Cuenca alta del lago de	GIRA A.C. ²⁾	Traditional maize-bean system vs.	Astier et al. (2003 and 2005)
	Zirahuén, Mexico		Diversified system	
24	Los Altos de Chiapas, Mexico	ECOSUR ¹⁾	Extensive agro-silvo-pastoral system vs.	Alemán Santilán et al. (2003 and
			Intensive agro-silvo-pastoral system	2005)
25	Xohuayán, Mexico	$EDUCE^{2}$, MAC^{2} , K-	Traditional maize system vs. Modified maize	Moya García et al. (2003 and
		ET XIIMBAL ²⁾ ,	system with diversified crop and	2005)
		ME'HIMAAC S.C. ^{3),} ,	conservation measures	
		UAY ¹⁾ , INAH ¹⁾ ,		

		UACh ¹⁾		
26	Valle de Toluca, Mexico	CICA ¹⁾ , UAE M ¹⁾	Conventional agro-cattle system vs.	Brunett Pérez et al. (2005)
			Modified agro-cattle system including	
			technical innovations and intensive grazing	
27	Capachica, Peru	CIED ²⁾	Resilient agro-cattle system vs. Non-resilient	Claverías (2000)
			agro-cattle system	
28	Solo and San Miguel de Sisa,	RAAA ²⁾	Traditional cotton production vs. Organic	Gomero Osorio and Velásquez
	Peru		cotton production	Alcántara (2003 and 2005)

869 ¹⁾University/ Research Institutes

870 ²⁾NGO

871 ³⁾ Peasant Group/ Organisation

Table 2: Indicators most frequently used in the case studies, clustered according to their main focus; illustrated with concrete indicators used in

the case studies.

Attribute	Frequently used indicators	
Productivity	 Output e.g. maize yield (kg yr⁻¹; kg ha⁻¹), wood yield (g yr⁻¹) Income e.g. net income (\$ yr⁻¹), net income per subsystem (\$ yr⁻¹) Efficiency e.g. cost/benefit ratio (-) 	
Stability, Resilience and Reliability	 (Agro)biodiversity e.g. number of species, type of biodiversity conservation management Soil properties e.g. soil organic mater content ([OM]), nutrient contents ([N], [P],[K]) Erosion e.g. type soil conservation management, soil loss (Mg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) Use of agrochemicals e.g. fertiliser (kg⁻¹ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), pesticides (kg⁻¹ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) 	
Adaptability	 Innovation adoption e.g. number of farmers adopted innovations, capacity to adopt to changes Knowledge of innovation e.g. access to education, mechanisms to diffuse knowledge 	
Equity	 Stakeholder involvement e.g. participation of women, ratio participation men/women number of beneficiaries, distribution of benefits 	
Self-Reliance	 Organisational issues e.g. level of participation in decision-making, organisation structure Dependency on external input e.g. use of external input, costs of external input (\$ yr⁻¹), level of dependency on external input Financing issues e.g. level of auto-financing (-), access to credit 	