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International Outlook for Privately Protected Areas

Country Report: MONGOLIA

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Introduction:

This country profile is part of a study by the International Land Conservation Network (ILCN) and United Nations Development Program (UNDP) summarizing the **legal, policy, and institutional mechanisms used to establish and incentivize privately protected areas (PPAs) in 30 understudied countries.**

PPAs contribute to the achievement of global conservation goals and biodiversity targets by contributing to landscape-scale conservation, connectivity and ecological-representativeness of protected areas.

For the purposes of this profile, an area is considered a PPA if it conforms to the definition agreed upon by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN). Generally speaking, a PPA's protection must be recognized and durable (with long term conservation intent); it must be governed by a private or non-governmental entity; and it must be governed and managed to meet the general conservation standards of a protected area (PA) as laid out by the IUCN.^{1,2} **Note: Alongside currently existing mechanisms in these countries, this study also references mechanisms that represent *potential opportunities for the creation of PPAs.***

The data in this profile is based on a 2018 desk review of law and policy documents, government reports, publications by multi-lateral organizations, scholarly literature, and other sources. For 28 of the 30 country profiles, data was reviewed by a volunteer in-country expert. We are grateful to these experts, whose names and the profiles they reviewed are listed in the appendix to the [International Outlook for Privately Protected Areas summary report](#).

Finally, this profile is intended to be a living document, which will be updated periodically as more information is submitted and time and resources allow. If you have a contribution, please contact the authors at landconservation@lincolninst.edu.

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¹ Mitchell, B.A., Stolton, S., Bezaury-Creel, J., Bingham, H.C., Cumming, T.L., Dudley, N., Fitzsimons, J.A., Malleret-King, D., Redford, K.H. and Solano, P. (2018). *Guidelines for privately protected areas*. Best Practice Protected Area Guidelines Series No. 29. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN. xii + 100pp.

² Dudley, N. (ed.) (2008). *Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN. x + 86pp. WITH Stolton, S., Shadie, P. and Dudley, N. (2013). *IUCN WCPA Best Practice Guidance on Recognising Protected Areas and Assigning Management Categories and Governance Types*, Best Practice Protected Area Guidelines Series No. 21. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN

MONGOLIA (Монгол Улс)

Outlook for Privately Protected Areas

The ILCN and UNDP would like the following volunteer for reviewing this document for accuracy to the best of his ability.

1. Nathan Conaboy, former Country Coordinator 2011- 2017, Zoological Society of London, Mongolia

I. Country Overview

Land Area

Mongolia is a Central Asian country where the Siberian taiga forest, Central Asian steppe, Altai Mountains and Gobi Desert meet. Mongolia is divided into six natural belts and zones, consisting of the high mountain alpine belt, mountain taiga belt, mountain forest steppe, rolling steppe, and semi-desert and desert zones.³

According to Mongolia's National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP) 2015-2025, at the end of 2013: 115,361.3 thous. ha or 73.76 per cent of the total area of Mongolia is utilized for agricultural production including pastoral land use and crop production, 699.5 thous. ha or 0.45 per cent of the area is utilized for city, town or any other urban area, 437.8 thous. ha or 0.28 per cent land for road and other linear construction, 14,295.4 thous. ha or 9.14 per cent of land is forested or under forest fund area, 686.6 thous. ha area forms Mongolia's water bodies and 24,931.1 thous. ha or 15.94 per cent of land area is allocated for special needs (National Statistical Yearbook, 2013).⁴

Mongolia's total population is just over three million, almost half of whom reside in the capital, Ulaanbaatar. The population density of Mongolia is the lowest among all independent nations, with about two people per km sq.⁵

Land ownership and land tenure

The 1992 Constitution and the 1994 Civil Code provide the overall legislative framework for land management and administration in Mongolia. The right to own property is a basic right recognized and

³ The Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity. Mongolia - Country Profile. Status and trends of biodiversity, including benefits from biodiversity and ecosystem services. Accessed online in December 2018 at <https://www.cbd.int/countries/profile/default.shtml?country=mn#facts>

⁴ National Biodiversity Program 2015-2025. Accessed online at <https://www.cbd.int/doc/world/mn/mn-nbsap-v2-en.pdf>. P. 8

⁵ The World Bank. Data. Population density (people per sq. km of land area). Accessed online in October 2017 at <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/EN.POP.DNST>

guaranteed by the Constitution under Article 6 and Article 16.⁶ Although the Constitution provides for the private ownership of non-pastoral land, in practice all land has continued to be owned by the State.⁷

A *Law on Land* adopted in 1994 set out the parameters for pastoral land relations. This law allowed for the leasing of winter and spring campsites to individual herders, which began in 1998.⁸ It did not provide for a transition to outright private ownership of land. The dissolution of the *negdels* (herding collectives) has been accompanied by a decrease in seasonal movements.⁹

A second *Law on Land*, adopted in 2003, retained most of the prior law's features. The 2003 law did allow private ownership of land in fee simple, but was intended to affect only urban areas (0.9 per cent of Mongolia's land area at the time) and was permitted only for Mongolian citizens.¹⁰ The 2002 *Law on Allocation of Land to Mongolian Citizens for Ownership* specified the process and parameters for privatization, including the maximum private lot size of 0.7 ha in Ulaanbaatar and only 0.3 ha in rural town centers.¹¹ This change led to the rapid and near-total privatization of residences in Ulaanbaatar, but had minimal effect on pastureland.¹²

Private ownership of land in rural areas of Mongolia still remains challenging. Furthermore, though the presiding *Law on Land* defined new use-right arrangements, these were however implemented to varying degrees and in different ways from region to region.¹³

Outside Ulaanbaatar, mobility is culturally and architecturally ingrained. Many pastoralist Mongols have mobile residences, including the traditional *ger*, which they hold as private property and erect on State land in their grazing sequence. This situation presents special challenges for private land conservation: rural land has not been privatized, but it no longer belongs to clearly identifiable, legal collectives. The sum of these factors is that individual accountability for any given area is difficult to assign, monitor, and reward.

Protected Areas in Mongolia

The history of protected areas in Mongolia begins with the Mongol emperor Chinggis Khan, who established Mongolia's first formal hunting preserve eight centuries ago. One of the longest continuously-

⁶ The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank. Mongolia Environment Monitor 2003. *Land Resources and their Management*. Accessed online at:

<http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/268141468773957241/pdf/408720PAPER0MG0Env0Monitor0200301PUBLIC1.pdf>

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ Fernandez-Gimenez, Maria E. 2006. *Land use and land tenure in Mongolia: A brief history and current issues*. In: Bedunah, Donald J., McArthur, E. Durant, and Fernandez-Gimenez, Maria, comps. 2006. *Rangelands of Central Asia: Proceedings of the Conference on Transformations, Issues, and Future Challenges*. 2004 January 27; Salt Lake City, UT. Proceeding RMRS-P-39. Fort Collins, CO: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station. Accessed online in October 2017 at <https://www.fs.usda.gov/treesearch/pubs/22866>. P. 30-36.

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Endicott, Elizabeth. 2012. *A History of Land-Use in Mongolia: The Thirteenth Century to the Present*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. P. 88-89

¹¹ Government of Mongolia. 2002. *Law on allocation of land to Mongolian citizens for ownership*. Accessed online at www.fao.org/faolex/results/details/en/c/LEX-FAOC042187/

¹² Ibid.

¹³ M. Fernandez-Gimenez and B. Batbuyan. 2004. "Law and Disorder: Local Implementation of Mongolia's Land Law." *Development and Change*. 35 (1). P. 141-166.

protected areas on the planet is the Bogd Khan Mountain Strictly Protected Area overlooking Ulaanbaatar, established in 1778.

The 1991 *Bylaw on Protected Areas* and the 1995 *Law on Protected Areas of Mongolia* established four categories of protected area, all owned and managed by the federal government:

- *Strictly Protected Areas* are areas of relatively-pristine wilderness.
- *National Conservation Parks Areas* combine biodiversity protection with public access.
- *Nature Reserves* are for the conservation and restoration of natural resources.
- *National Monuments* protect areas designated as natural, historical, and cultural monuments.

Mongolia has made major increases in its protected areas network over the last decade, and has now protected nearly one-fifth of its land mass. According to the World Database on Protected Areas, 27,113,664 ha (or 17.32 per cent) of the land area is protected by the national protected areas system.¹⁴ From 2008 to 2014, Mongolia's protected areas increased in area by over 5 million ha.¹⁵ In 2010, 29 per cent of officially-designated forest lands (termed *forest fund*) were covered by the national protected areas network.¹⁶

In the most recent National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP) submitted by Mongolia to the Convention on Biological Diversity, the country set new targets for long term conservation. Goal 5 of the 2014 NBSAP calls for “at least 30 per cent of each representative of main ecosystems, all patch and vulnerable to climate change ecosystems [to be] included into the National Protected Area network and their management [to be] improved.”¹⁷

Conservation Challenges

Pastoralism has been a key contributor to the maintenance of an open steppe in Mongolia over the Country's history. In recent decades, overgrazing has become a widespread issue. Protection of these rangelands in Mongolia is thus made more important by the relative under-protection of temperate grassland habitats worldwide. Pastoralists generally ally with conservationists in Mongolia, as their practical aims tend to overlap. Disagreements have tended to arise when the formation of a new protected area decreases available grazing areas.¹⁸

¹⁴ World Database of Protected Areas. "Mongolia." Accessed online in October 2017 at <https://www.protectedplanet.net/country/MN>

¹⁵ Mongolia Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism. 2014. *National Biodiversity Program 2015-2025*. P. 9.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, 10.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸ Richard P. Reading, Donald J. Bedunah, and Sukhiin Amgalanbaatar. *Conserving Biodiversity on Mongolian Rangelands: Implications for Protected Area Development and Pastoral Uses* in Bedunah, Donald J., McArthur, E. Durant, and Fernandez-Gimenez, Maria 2006. *Rangelands of Central Asia: Proceedings of the Conference on Transformations, Issues, and Future Challenges*. Proceeding RMRS-P-39. Fort Collins, CO: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station. Accessed online at <https://www.fs.usda.gov/treearch/pubs/22856>

Mongolia's ecosystems are additionally threatened by a boom in leases for mineral exploitation. A 2009 law meant to mitigate environmental hazards from the mines, entitled *Law of the Prohibition of Mining Operations in the Headwaters of Rivers, Protected Zones of Water Reservoirs and Forested Areas*, led to the repeal of more than 200 mining licenses in sensitive areas within the first five years.¹⁹

Statistical data from 2013 demonstrates that in total nine million hectares of land is degraded in Mongolia, of which 97.7 percent is pasture and hay making land, 0.43 per cent is croplands, 1.7 per cent is forest lands and 0.12 per cent of land is degraded due to road construction and mining operations (National statistical bulletin, 2013).²⁰

II. Law and Policy for Private Protected Areas

Privately-owned Protected Areas

The *Environmental Protection Law of Mongolia, 1995* enshrines the right and responsibility of Mongolian citizens and institutions to protect the environment.²¹ However, given the lack of private property rights in non-urban areas necessary for the creation of private protected areas (PPAs), the Mongolian government does not officially recognize PPAs, nor does the government or any other organization collect data on the location or extent of PPAs.

The 1997 *Law on Buffer Zones of Protected Area* sets out restrictions for areas surrounding protected areas, of an extent determined in each case by the Protected Area Administration. The Buffer zone is then managed by a council including local citizens and staff of the Protected Areas Administration, to ensure that land-use compliments the function of the protected area.

Local Protected Areas

In addition to national protected areas network, the Mongolian government allows land to be protected at a local scale, by districts and municipalities. These areas are governed by the *Hural*, or local representative body, of each *soum* (district) or *duureg* (municipal district), and have permanent status under local laws.

By 2007, 911 such *conservation districts* had been created by local governments in this way, covering an additional 16,311,358.2 ha (10.3 per cent) of Mongolia's land area.²² A UNDP study found that in September 2014, 2,187 areas covering approximately 64,600,000 ha (about 57 per cent of the national land area) had been designated by district representatives.²³ However, the study also found that only

¹⁹ Stern, Rachel. January 4, 2014. *Mongolia's Mining Boom Raises Environment Concerns*. Deutsche Welle. Accessed online at www.dw.com/en/mongolias-mining-boom-raises-environment-concerns/a-17534285

²⁰ Mongolia Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism. 2014. National Biodiversity Program 2015-2025. P. 33.

²¹ Mongolia Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism. 2014. National Biodiversity Program 2015-2025.

²² Agency of Land Affairs and Geodesy, WWF. 2008. Report on GIS finding with inclusion of local protected areas. Accessed online at assets.panda.org/downloads/local_pas_20071231_eng.pdf

²³ United Nations Development Program. UNDP. Project Brief : Mongolia's Network of managed resource protected areas (MRPA). Accessed online at www.mn.undp.org/content/mongolia/en/home/operations/projects/environment_and_energy/MRPA.html

about 2,500,000 ha were under effective management, with the full sanction of the national protected areas network.

Local protected areas (LPAs) are loosely governed by a range of laws. A 2000 Regulation on “Designation of Areas for Local Protection” serves as the basis for some, while others are Community Managed Areas under the Environmental Protection Law, or Community Forest Areas (see below).²⁴ Land placed under a protected area contract are generally state-owned, but may be allocated to local citizens and organizations, who must abide by the management plan prohibiting actions that would harm the long-term viability of the ecosystem.²⁵ Some are managed by community-based organizations; others are managed by NGOs.²⁶

LPAs may have been established for reasons other than their biological diversity, such as preventing mining operations from occurring in the area. These areas have few management activities, and few, if any, receive the financial or human resources necessary to achieve conservation objectives. They are also largely inhabited areas. Although some local PAs cover critically under-represented ecosystems and habitats, these LPAs are not officially considered as a part of the National PA system. Opportunities exist to operationalize these PAs, through up scaling them as a new type of PA, which is co-managed by local authorities, communities and other stakeholders such as the private sector, with the explicit dual objectives of biodiversity conservation and livelihood enhancement.²⁷

Community Forest Management

To reverse trends of deforestation that have accelerated since the shift to a market economy, Mongolia has adopted a policy of local forest management.²⁸ Forest user groups (FUG) create sustainable management plans and monitor the forests for illegal logging. According to Mongolia’s most recent NBSAP, as of 2014, 3,074,744 ha of forest areas were under the protection of 1,179 FUGs.²⁹ These groups require the support of local governments for funding. Under the definition of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), these are likely to be considered Indigenous and Community Conservation Areas (ICCAs) rather than PPAs.

²⁴ United Nations Development Program. UNDP. Project Document: Mongolia's Network of managed resource protected areas (MRPA). Accessed online at <http://www.undp.org/content/dam/mongolia/Publications/prodocs/env/SPAN%20Prodoc%20-%20Web%20version%20-%2010%20MAR%20011.pdf>. P. 9

²⁵ Agency of Land Affairs and Geodesy, WWF. 2008. Report on GIS finding with inclusion of local protected areas. Accessed online at assets.panda.org/downloads/local_pas_20071231_eng.pdf

²⁶ United Nations Development Program. UNDP. Project Document : Mongolia's Network of managed resource protected areas (MRPA). P. 9. Accessed online at <http://www.undp.org/content/dam/mongolia/Publications/prodocs/env/SPAN%20Prodoc%20-%20Web%20version%20-%2010%20MAR%20011.pdf>

²⁷ United Nations Development Program. UNDP. Project Identification Form: Mongolia's Network of managed resource protected areas (MRPA). Accessed online at https://www.thegef.org/sites/default/files/project_documents/7-25-11%2520-%2520Revised%2520PIF%2520doc.pdf P. 4

²⁸ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. “To save forests, Mongolia devolves forestry management to locals. *Stories from the Field*. Accessed online at www.fao.org/3/a-as699e.pdf

²⁹ Mongolia Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism. 2014. National Biodiversity Program 2015-2025. P. 27

Hunting

As in many Central Asian countries, hunting is considered a priority use for much of Mongolia's land. Until recently, all rangeland in the country outside of the protected areas system was open for hunting, but the 2000 *Law on Hunting* restricted hunting to 62 specified game reserves.³⁰ The government of Mongolia has since been engaged with local users of these hunting areas to establish management cooperatives.

The Law on Hunting was then superseded by the Law on Fauna in 2012³¹. Mongolia's Law on Fauna is the primary law addressing wildlife take and trade and has broad relevance to the management of wildlife. The Law contains a number of articles that relate to hunting quotas and government resolutions that are made on an annual basis. These resolutions and quotas relate to specific species at the regional level for a given year. Thus, the specified fixed game reserves no longer strictly apply because the right to hunt in a given area is decided annually. In practice this may not change much year on year but in theory the government can easily impose bans and restrictions that undermine a right to hunt in any area.

According to Mongolia's most recent NBSAP, 25 communities and 18 local NGOs and other entities were cooperating on hunting range management.³²

III. Financial Incentives for Privately Protected Areas

The Mongolian government has committed to incentivizing environmental protection actions undertaken by local citizens and the civic sector. Article 34 of the *Environmental Protection Law of Mongolia* declares that:

*The State shall reward citizens, business entities and organisations for the introduction of modern non-polluting and non-waste technology, progressive methods for environmental protection, the use and restoration of natural resources, and the reduction of adverse environmental impacts.*³³

Tax-based Incentives for Private Land

Land taxation in Mongolia is conducted only on land in urban areas, as only these areas are subject to private ownership. Taxes and fees for land are governed by the 1997 *Law on Land Fees*.³⁴ Given the limited scope of private land taxation, property taxes are not a primary mechanism for incentivizing conservation.

³⁰ Government of Mongolia. 2000. Law on Fauna. Accessed online at extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/mon77263E.pdf

³¹ Wingard, J., Pascual, M., Rude, A., Houle, A., Gombobaatar, S., Bhattacharya, G., Munkhjargal, M., Conaboy, N., Myagmarsuren, S., Khaliun, T., Batsugar, T., Bold, T. 2018. Wildlife Trade Crisis, Ten Years Later. Zoological Society of London, London UK, Legal Atlas and IRIM.

³² Mongolia Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism. 2014. National Biodiversity Program 2015-2025. P. 27

³³ Government of Mongolia. 1995. Environmental Protection Law of Mongolia. Article 34.

³⁴ Government of Mongolia. Law on Land Fees. 1997. Accessible online at www.fao.org/faolex/results/details/en/c/LEX-FAOC042188/

Payments for Ecosystem Services

Payments for Ecosystem Services (PES) is increasingly-recognized as an effective funding mechanism for conservation with recognized potential in Mongolia. PES entails an arrangement in which a party who benefits from the functions and products of an ecosystem—for example, clean water or carbon sequestration—pays for performance-based protection of the service-providing land area.

PES was first incorporated in Mongolia's official policy in the national Green Development Strategy.³⁵ Mongolia's single longest-standing and fully-functioning PES program is called Snow Leopard Enterprises (SLE). Since 1998, SLE has rewarded herders who protect snow leopards in priority habitat areas. Herders sign a contract to protect the snow leopard from poaching in their grazing area. If the Department of Protected Area Management finds that the conservation goals have been met, the herders are supported year after year in processing their wool into products to sell at a higher price and receive other monetary rewards in exchange.³⁶

A 2014 study by the Asia Development Bank found five PES programs in early stages of development, including one project for the Upper Tuul Ecosystem, which provisions much of Ulaanbaatar's drinking water.³⁷ The study also found one other active program on PES: the Oyu Tolgoi Biodiversity Offset Program [see case study] to redirect funds from local mining hazards to conservation activities in neighboring districts. This was slated to be fully functional by 2020. Other examples include a project funded by the UK's Department for Environment and Rural Affairs (DEFRA), run by a team at the University of Leicester between 2012-2015 to establish PES at four sites in central Mongolia.³⁸

There may be other independent projects which have not been captured in this review as there is no central database housing such information.

IV. Organizations involved in Privately Protected Areas

Governmental

- The Department of Protected Areas Management is part of the Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism which has been tasked with maintaining Mongolia's PA network.

³⁵ D. Dagvadorj. 2012. Mongolia's Perspective on Green Development. Presentation to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development—Global Green Growth Institute Workshop on Green Growth Development Paths for a Better Future. Paris. 22 November. Accessed online at <http://www.oecd.org/greengrowth/jointoecd-gggiworkshopgreengrowthdevelopmentpathsforabetterfuture.htm>.

³⁶ Asian Development Bank. 2014. Making Grasslands Sustainable in Mongolia International Experiences with Payments for Environmental Services in Grazing Lands and Other Rangelands. Accessed online on October 2017 at <http://www.unique-forst.de/images/publications/vereinheitlicht/MakingGrasslandsSustainableinMongoliaInternationalExperienceswithPaymentsforEnvironmentalServicesinGrazingLandsandOtherRangelands.pdf> P. 30

³⁷ *Ibid.*, 31.

³⁸ University of Leicester. 2015. Values and Valuation: New approaches to Conservation in Mongolia. Accessed online at <https://www2.le.ac.uk/departments/geography/redundant-content/research/old-research-folder/projects/darwin>

- The Mongolian Ministry of Nature, Environment and Tourism (MNET) is the main governmental body responsible for environmental protection, and includes the Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism.³⁹
- The Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Light Industry influences many of the land-use decisions made by government in Mongolia.⁴⁰
- The Ministry of Finance plays an important role in relations between MNET, national and international NGOs, and multilateral organizations.

Non-governmental

- The Mongolian Nature and Environmental Consortium (MNEC) was founded in 2000 as an alliance of 14 civic-sector conservation organizations in Mongolia, funded by 11 donor governments and intergovernmental organizations. Based in Ulaanbaatar, the organization produces Mongolia's national reports to the Convention on Biological Diversity, and undertakes programs for the greening of educational institutions, urban and rural tree planting, and biodiversity conservation.⁴¹
- The Nature Conservancy (TNC) partners with the Government of Mongolia on an array of conservation projects in the region. They lend the expertise of a major conservation NGO to sustaining the ecological balance between the land and pastoral practices.⁴²
- Asian Development Bank (ADB) partners with the Peoples Republic of China and the Government of Mongolia to promote sustainable management of degraded grasslands.⁴³
- Global Environmental Facility (GEF), has provided numerous grants to support sustainable pastoral livelihoods through the UNDP Small Grants Program.⁴⁴
- United Nations Development Program (UNDP) has funded and partnered on several additional participatory conservation programs in Mongolia. Since 2005, UNDP has worked with the Ministry of Environment and local herders on the Altai Sayan Ecoregion Project. UNDP also supported SPAN Program (Strengthening the Protected Areas Network) in Mongolia from 2010 to 2015.
- Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) has been engaged for over a decade with pastureland and cropland remediation. The Green Gold Pasture Ecosystem Management Project has helped to organize farmers around overgrazing controls.⁴⁵
- Dutch Foundation for the Preservation and Protection of the Przewalski Horse helped to reintroduced *takhi* on the Mongolian steppes, in cooperation with the Mongolian government, which established in the 50,620 ha Khustai National Park in 1997 to support the *takhi*.

³⁹ Ministry of Nature, Environment, and Tourism. Accessed online in December 2018 <http://www.mne.mn>.

⁴⁰ Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Light Industry. Accessed online at <http://www.mmre.energy.mn>.

⁴¹ The World Bank. The Baikal Basin Information Centre. Mongolian nature and environmental consortium. Accessed online at <http://bic.iwlearn.org/en/friends/mongolian-nature-and-environmental-consortium-mongolia>.

⁴² The Nature Conservancy in Mongolia. Accessed online at <https://www.nature.org/en-us/about-us/where-we-work/asia-pacific/mongolia/>.

⁴³ Asian Development Bank. 2014. Making Grasslands Sustainable in Mongolia International Experiences with Payments for Environmental Services in Grazing Lands and Other Rangelands. Accessed online at <http://www.unique-forst.de/images/publications/vereinheitlicht/MakingGrasslandsSustainableinMongoliaInternationalExperienceswithPaymentsforEnvironmentalServicesinGrazingLandsandOtherRangelands.pdf>

⁴⁴ Endicott, Elizabeth. 2012. *A History of Land-Use in Mongolia: The Thirteenth Century to the Present*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. P 154

⁴⁵ Ibid. P. 156.

- The Union for Environmental Conservation Organization is a Mongolian NGO, based in Ulaanbaatar, dedicated to a range of nature conservation activities, particularly forestation in urban, arid, and degraded areas.⁴⁶
- The Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS) is a major conservation NGO supporting the planning and implementation of wildlife corridors in Mongolia.⁴⁷
- The Zoological Society of London is a global conservation organization that has been operating in Mongolia for over 15 years. Its projects span wildlife monitoring, capacity building, rural livelihood development and reducing illegal trade in wildlife in partnership with MNET.
- World Wildlife Fund is another global organization that has worked in Mongolia on biodiversity gap analyses, protected areas management plans, integrated river-basin management plans and a number of conservation projects on target species and education.

V. Case Studies

Gulzat Initiative

The Gulzat Initiative assembles seven NGOs to protect the Gulzat Local Protected Area (LPA) in the mountainous Altai-Sayan ecoregion. The area was protected in March of 2008, through Citizen's Representative Khural Decision No. 36, an act of local government, and extended in 2014 to its current size of 126,772 ha.⁴⁸ NGOs and community members have developed and enforce hunting limits to protect the Argali Sheep, Mongolian Marmots, Black-Tailed Gazelles, living on the high-elevation range. The Gulzat Initiative was nominated for the Equator Prize in 2015, and has also benefitted from the funding and project support of the UNDP.⁴⁹

⁴⁶ The World Bank. The Baikal Basin Information Centre. Union for environmental conservation organization. Accessed online at <http://bic.iwlearn.org/en/friends/union-for-environmental-conservation-organization-ngo-mongolia>.

⁴⁷ Wildlife Conservation Society. Accessed online at <https://programs.wcs.org/mongolia/>.

⁴⁸ Ministry of Environment, Green Development, and Tourism. 2015. Introduction: Gulzat Local Protected Area. Accessed online at nokhorlol.mne.gov.mn/pdf/Annex.18.Introduction_Gulzat_LPA_eng.pdf

⁴⁹ United Nations Development Program. Project Document: Mongolia's Network of managed resource protected areas (MRPA). Accessed online at www.mn.undp.org/content/mongolia/en/home/operations/projects/environment_and_energy/MRPA.html. P. 2.