



International Outlook for Privately Protected Areas: Summary Report

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Convention on Biological Diversity

The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), which entered into force in December 1993, is an international treaty for the conservation of biodiversity, the sustainable use of the components of biodiversity and the equitable sharing of the benefits derived from the use of genetic resources. With 196 Parties, the Convention has near universal participation among countries. The Convention seeks to address all threats to biodiversity and ecosystem services through scientific assessments, the development of tools, incentives and processes, the transfer of technologies and good practices, and the full and active involvement of relevant stakeholders including indigenous and local communities, youth, NGOs, women and the business community. The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety and the Nagoya Protocol on Access and Benefit Sharing are supplementary agreements to the Convention. The Cartagena Protocol, which entered into force on 11 September 2003, seeks to protect biological diversity from the potential risks posed by living modified organisms resulting from modern biotechnology. To date, 171 Parties have ratified the Cartagena Protocol. The Nagoya Protocol aims at sharing the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources in a fair and equitable way, including by appropriate access to genetic resources and by appropriate transfer of relevant technologies. It entered into force on 12 October 2014 and to date has been ratified by 118 Parties. www.cdp.int

Acknowledgments

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The data in this report comes from a 2018 desk review of legal, policy, and institutional mechanisms that exist to establish or incentivize PPAs in 30 countries. For 28 of the 30 country profiles, data was reviewed by one or more volunteer in-country experts. We are grateful to these experts, whose names are listed in Appendix B and in the country profiles that they reviewed.

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Abbreviations

Aichi Biodiversity Targets	ABT
Bonobo Conservation Initiative	BCI
Conference of Parties	COP
Convention on Biological Diversity	CBD
Democratic Republic of the Congo	DRC
Fauna & Flora International	FFI
International Institute for Sustainable Development	IISD
International Land Conservation Network	ILCN
International Union for the Conservation of Nature	IUCN
National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan	NBSAP
Non-governmental organizations	NGOs
Other Effective Area-Based Conservation Measures	OECMs
Payments for Ecosystem Services	PES
Privately Protected Area	PPA
Programme of Work on Protected Areas	PoWPA
Protected Area	PA
South African National Biodiversity Institute	SANBI
Sustainable Development Goals	SDGs
The Nature Conservancy	TNC
The United Nations Programme on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation	UN-REDD
UN Environment Programme - World Conservation Monitoring Centre	UNEP-WCMC
United Kingdom	UK
United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification	UNCCD
United Nations Development Programme	UNDP
United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change	UNFCCC
United States of America	USA
Wildlife Conservation Society	WCS
World Commission on Protected Areas	WCPA
World Database on Protected Areas	WDPA
World Wide Fund for Nature or World Wildlife Fund (U.S.A and Canada)	WWF

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Executive Summary

Well-managed protected areas are key for biodiversity conservation, climate change mitigation and adaptation, and sustainable development. Protected areas provide essential ecological, social, and economic services, and, therefore, are an essential component of the goals of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 and its Aichi Biodiversity Targets (ABT); the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs); and other international commitments, such as the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD). According to the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA), nearly 15 per cent of the world's terrestrial surface is protected.¹

Although there is an increasing number of areas under protection, the world has yet to reach the 17 per cent goal set by Aichi Biodiversity Target 11, which states: "By 2020, at least 17 per cent of terrestrial and inland water, and 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, especially areas of particular importance for biodiversity and ecosystem services, are conserved through effectively and equitably managed, ecologically representative and well connected systems of protected areas and other effective area-based conservation measures, and integrated into the wider landscapes and seascapes."

Reaching Aichi Target 11 and other global biodiversity and protected area targets will require more than state-run protected areas. Privately protected areas (PPAs), including protected areas governed by entities such as individuals and groups of individuals, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), corporations, for-profit owners, research entities, or religious entities,²

have enormous potential to contribute to these goals.

PPAs contribute to the achievement of global conservation goals by contributing to landscape-level conservation, connectivity and ecological-representativeness. PPAs constitute an important part of the conservation landscape, as part of a continuum of governance types for protected areas. PPAs also involve additional stakeholders from the private and civic sectors in conservation initiatives.

For the purposes of this report, an area is considered a PPA if it conforms to the definition agreed upon by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), but may or may not be included in the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA). To be considered as a PPA, 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.

This report provides an overview of the status of PPAs in 30 countries throughout Latin America, Asia, the Pacific, and Sub-Saharan Africa. It summarizes the legal, policy, and institutional mechanisms used in these countries to establish and incentivize PPAs. Alongside the mechanisms currently existing in these 30 countries, this study references mechanisms that represent potential opportunities for the recognition or creation of PPAs. Individual profiles for each country under study are available on the ILCN website: <https://www.landconservationnetwork.org/>

Land law and environmental law in these countries

1. UN Environment World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC), International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), and National Geographic Society (NGS). 2018. Protected Planet Report 2018. UNEP-WCMC, IUCN and NGS: Cambridge UK; Gland, Switzerland; and Washington, D.C., USA.

2. 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.

allow for a range of mechanisms that can be, and are, used to create PPAs. In 24 of the countries under study in this report which allow for private land ownership and tenure, the strongest and most widespread mechanisms for PPA creation are outright fee ownership of land and the contracting of conservation easements (also known as covenants or restrictions). Such protection is often accomplished through support of an NGO or non-profit. These same mechanisms are also used by a large and growing number of PPAs in North America, Latin America, Europe, and Australia which meet the IUCN definition.

In countries with civil code legal systems, with insecure land tenure, or with communal or state ownership of land, easements and outright fee simple ownership may be difficult or inappropriate mechanisms. In these countries, other mechanisms are or can be used to create PAs managed by private entities. These include conservation leases or concessions, strong private and civic-sector involvement in state PAs, enforceable stewardship contracts, and community conservation areas that use a corporate structure to hold and manage land. While such mechanisms do not always create PAs that meet the IUCN definition for PPAs, they often play the same role that PPAs play in other nations' PA networks.

Likewise, a variety of incentives support PPA creation in the countries under study. Some countries offer tax incentives for landowners who formally protect their land. Others are part of national or international incentive schemes not based in taxation, such as the use of PPAs to create and sell carbon credits, or programs that reward landowners with payments for ecosystem services (PES). Many PPAs are catalyzed and/or entirely funded by eco-tourism programs in the conserved areas, or by private philanthropy (either by individuals or more commonly by the contributions of membership to conservation NGOs).

Of the 30 countries under study in this report:

- 13 (43 per cent) have identified PPAs in recent National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans;
- 10 (33 per cent) have defined PPAs as part of their PA network or PA legislation;
- 12 (40 per cent) have formally defined PPAs in national or provincial legislation on PAs and have established and recognized formal PPAs;
- 9 (30 per cent) offer a structured tax incentive for landowners who enter into voluntary agreements to conserve their land.

Countries with a high number and coverage of PPAs tend to be those that have enabled the creation and recognition of PPAs at a legal and organizational level. These countries tend to have at least one formal definition for a PPA, by this or another name. In these countries, national or regional networks exist to connect PPAs to resources and to collect data about the extent and function of these PPAs. About half of our studied countries had independent PPA networks, and one-sixth had government tracking of PPAs. However, more than half of the countries under study have yet to formalize the status of PPAs within their larger protected areas system, to define PPAs, or to see a PPA network form.

As this study was underway, the IUCN Specialist Group on Privately Protected Areas and Nature Stewardship was developing and has now published its Guidelines for Privately Protected Areas.³ The new Guidelines provide a comprehensive survey of the establishment and management of PPAs and provide relevant case studies. This summary report and the individual country profiles build upon the work of numerous groups and individuals, and seek to add to the breadth of knowledge about PPAs so that their efforts can be recognized and scaled up worldwide.

3. In addition to the Guidelines for Privately Protected Areas, the IUCN-WDPA's task force on Other Effective Area-Based Conservation Measures (OECMs) has agreed upon a refined definition for OECMs to help eliminate some of the grey areas between PPAs and OECMs. As of August 2018, OECMs are defined as "a geographically defined area other than a Protected Area, which is governed and managed in ways that achieve positive and sustained long-term outcomes for the in situ conservation of biodiversity, with associated ecosystem functions and services and where applicable, cultural, spiritual, socio-economic, and other locally relevant values." Further information is available at the following link: <https://www.iucn.org/commissions/world-commission-protected-areas/our-work/oecms>

Introduction

Well-managed protected areas are key for biodiversity conservation, climate change mitigation and adaptation, and sustainable development. Protected areas provide essential ecological, social, and economic services, and, therefore, are an essential component of the goals of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 and its Aichi Biodiversity Targets (ABT); the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs); and other international commitments, such as the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD).

While there has been an increase in the number of areas under protection in the past several years, the world has yet to reach the 17 per cent goal set by Aichi Biodiversity Target 11, which states:

“By 2020, at least 17 per cent of terrestrial and inland water, and 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, especially areas of particular importance for biodiversity and ecosystem services, are conserved through effectively and equitably managed, ecologically representative and well connected systems of protected areas and other effective area-based conservation measures, and integrated into the wider landscapes and seascapes.”

**- Convention on Biological Diversity,
Aichi Target 11**

According to the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA), nearly 15 per cent of the world’s terrestrial surface is protected.⁴ Reaching the ABT 11 and other global biodiversity and protected area targets will require more than state-run protected areas. Privately protected areas (PPAs) represent an alternate governance type that can contribute to the achievement of ABT 11 and the SDGs, among other global goals. This report arose from broad demand in the international conservation community to better understand the creation and extent of PPAs around the world.

Previous reports have made progress in filling this information gap and serve as our point of departure. The IUCN’s seminal 2014 publication, *The Futures of Privately Protected Areas*,⁵ profiled PPAs in 17 countries and highlighted the growing role PPAs play in global terrestrial conservation efforts. That publication, in addition to the IUCN Guidelines for Privately Protected Areas released in 2018 as well as regional studies, have shown that approaches to PPAs vary widely in accordance with differing legal systems, policy frameworks, institutional and financial resources, and other elements of individual country contexts.

International interest in the role of PPAs in fulfilling national and international biodiversity conservation and protected area goals is markedly increasing. In 2016, the IUCN Member’s Assembly at the World Conservation Congress approved a resolution to expand reporting on PPAs, advance research on the legal and financial incentives supporting expansion of PPAs, and track the extent of PPAs worldwide.⁶ The Convention on Biological Diversity Programme of Work

4. UN Environment World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC), International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), and National Geographic Society (NGS). 2018. *Protected Planet Report 2018*. UNEP-WCMC, IUCN and NGS: Cambridge UK; Gland, Switzerland; and Washington, D.C., USA.

5. Stolton, S., Redford, K. and Dudley, N.. 2014. *The Futures of Privately Protected Areas*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

6. International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN). 2016. *WCC-2016-Res-036-EN Supporting privately protected areas*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

on Protected Areas (CBD PoWPA), in decision VII/28,⁷ also underscored the importance of private governance as one of the governance types in the ecosystem approach of protected areas. In subsequent decisions IX/18⁸ and X/31,⁹ CBD PoWPA called on countries to provide national legislation to integrate PPAs into national protected area systems.

Despite the increasing recognition of the importance of PPAs worldwide, the existing legal, policy, and institutional mechanisms that support their establishment have not been widely documented. An improved understanding of such mechanisms is critical for scaling up and replicating best practices for establishing PPAs at the national, regional and international level.

To address this issue—and as a step toward a broader picture of PPAs globally—this study aims to provide up-to-date information on PPAs in 30 countries, including two countries profiled in the IUCN’s 2014 report which have seen changes to their enabling conditions for PPAs in recent years. In each country profile, the authors have compiled data on the current extent of PPAs, on existing mechanisms or conditions which support the creation of PPAs, and on the institutional context through which PPAs are established, funded, and managed.

This report aims to contribute to a more thorough understanding of the global progress on PPAs and support exchange of relevant mechanisms and practices among countries.

Defining PPAs

To maintain consistency with the IUCN, the definition of a protected area (PA) established in the IUCN Guidelines for Protected Area Management Categories is used throughout this report.¹⁰ According to the IUCN, a PA is:

A clearly defined geographical space, recognized, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values.

-Dudley 2008

A PPA must meet the above definition and principles for applying the definition laid out in IUCN’s 2008 Guidelines¹¹; above all, it must be under private governance and must be established with the primary objective of conserving nature.¹² A PPA should also be established with long-term conservation intent, as a measure of durability. According to the IUCN definition, a PPA must also be formally recognized, through “legal or other effective means.”¹³ This study includes some areas where strong legal frameworks for establishing PPAs do not exist, but all other conditions for a PPA are met. Such areas, which may or may not be considered PPAs, are included in the discussion alongside those PPAs that have been legally recognized.

7. Convention on Biological Diversity. 2004. COP 7 Decision VII/28. Seventh Meeting of the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia 9 - 20 February 2004.
8. Convention on Biological Diversity. 2008. COP 9 Decision IX/18. Ninth meeting of the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity Bonn, Germany 19 - 30 May 2008.
9. Convention on Biological Diversity. 2010. COP 10 Decision X/31. Tenth meeting of the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity Nagoya, Japan 18 - 29 October 2010.
10. 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.
11. All criteria in the IUCN definition are detailed in the IUCN – 2008 Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories, which includes associated principles for its application.
12. Any area-based conservation measure not established with the primary objective of conserving nature does not qualify as a PA under the IUCN definition, and therefore does not qualify as a PPA. This is emphasized by the principle that “For IUCN, only those areas where the main objective is conserving nature can be considered protected areas; this can include many areas with other goals as well, at the same level, but in the case of conflict, nature conservation will be the priority.” Dudley, 2008: p. 6.
13. An additional category for Other Effective Area-Based Conservation Measures (OECMs) accommodates non-PA conservation areas, where management results in conservation but does not make conservation its primary purpose. For more information on differentiating OECMs from PPAs, see Mitchell, B.A., Fitzsimons, J., Stevens, C., and Wright, D. 2018. “PPA or OECM? Differentiating between privately protected areas and other effective area-based conservation measures on private land.” *Parks* 24, 49-60. DOI: 10.2305/IUCN.CH.2018.PARKS-24-SIBAM.en

Private governance includes governance by individuals and groups of individuals; non-governmental organizations (NGOs); corporations; for-profit owners; research entities (universities and field stations, among others); or religious entities.¹⁴ Among PAs, the IUCN distinguishes PAs under private governance (PPAs) from three other PA types: governance by government (i.e. national/state governance); shared governance; and governance by a local/indigenous community.

TABLE 1: Summary of criteria which distinguish PPAs from PAs under other governance types (Adapted from Mitchell et al., 2018)

PPA Criterion	Sub-criteria
Protected area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area is legally designated and managed in accordance with the IUCN protected area definition and associated principles. <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area is managed in accordance with the IUCN protected area definition and associated principles, and, though not legally designated, is recognized as a PPA.
Private entities involved	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Individual or a group of individuals, NGO, corporation, for-profit owner, research entity or religious entity.
Governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area is dedicated primarily to the purpose of nature conservation. <p>AND</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> PPA landholders are aware of any rights of use which are not in their control and efforts should be made to ensure that such use does not impact the overall conservation objectives.
Permanence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Area is legally designated for permanent protection of nature conservation (e.g. Act of Parliament/legislation). <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Designation to nature conservation is made through a permanent agreement (e.g. conservation covenant or easement). <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Designation to nature conservation is made by a renewable agreement with the aim of permanence (e.g. time-limited conservation covenant or easement). <p>OR</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The intent for long term/permanence is clearly stated in contracts, articles of association, memorandums of understanding, area objectives and plans and is reflected in the landholder's policy and financial mechanism.

14. 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. 5.

Countries Under Study

The countries profiled in this report reflect a broad range, and include many countries that have received only modest previous PPA-related attention in literature related to PAs. Exceptions to this within the countries under study include South Africa and a number of countries in South and Central America.

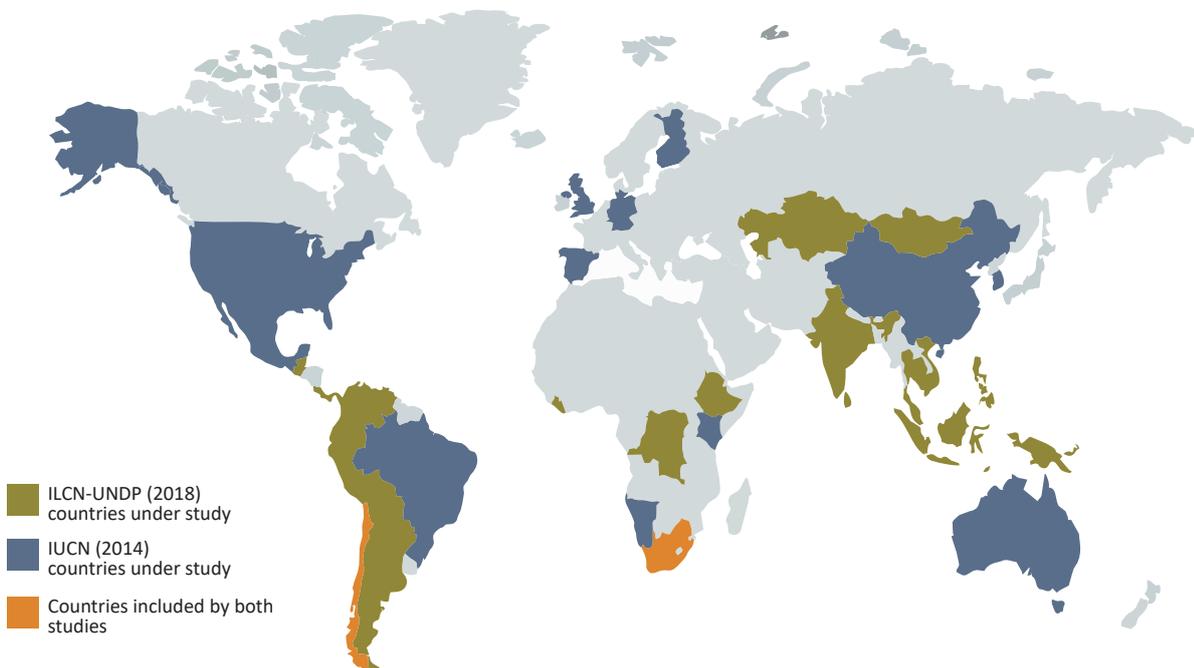
Country selection for this study was based on several criteria:

- Countries that have submitted their Post-2010 National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP) to the CBD and that have aligned their national targets and actions to the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020, including the Aichi Biodiversity Targets.

- Countries with regions of high conservation value, characterized by high forest cover and significant levels of biodiversity. The majority overlap with major biodiversity hotspots¹⁵ and have significant forest cover (15 per cent or higher of total land area).
- Countries representing a broad geographic diversity.

This study is not intended as a regional review, although countries are grouped by region in Table 2.

MAP 1: Countries included in IUCN (2014) and ILCN-UNDP (2018) PPA studies



The designations employed and the presentation of material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the Nations or UNDP concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

15. Myers, N., Mittermeier, R. A., Mittermeier, C. G., da Fonseca, and Kent, J. 2000. "Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities." *Nature* 403, 853–858. DOI: 10.1038/35002501

TABLE 2: Countries included in this study

LATIN AMERICA	NEAR EAST AND CENTRAL ASIA	SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	SOUTH ASIA, SOUTH-EAST ASIA & OCEANIA
Argentina	Lebanon	Democratic Republic of Congo	Cambodia
Belize	Kazakhstan	Ethiopia	Fiji
Bolivia	Mongolia	Liberia	India
Chile		South Africa	Indonesia
Colombia			Malaysia
Costa Rica			Nepal
Ecuador			Papua New Guinea
Guatemala			Philippines
Panama			Sri Lanka
Paraguay			Thailand
Peru			Vietnam
Venezuela			

Methodology

A unique country profile was developed for each country in this study. Each profile began with a desk review of existing studies on the country’s PPAs and private land conservation history. This includes national legislation for PAs, national land and resource-related laws, and a range of country-specific policy sources, including post-2010 NBSAPs submitted by each country to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD).

For certain countries - particularly those in Latin America - substantial literature already exists on this topic, and findings from some of this previous work have been incorporated in each profile where relevant. To fill in the gaps in existing literature, or for countries where such literature was unavailable, primary sources were used to provide up-to-date information. These sources included national strategy and policy documents, reports by NGOs, national and regional PPA networks or organizations, individual PPA managers, and PPA funders.

The same template was used to create all 30 country profiles, based on responses to the country profile questionnaire in Appendix A. Four main components comprise the template: **a land use and land tenure overview**; a summary of **law and policy for PPAs**; a brief review of **incentives for creating PPAs**; and a review of **governmental and non-governmental organizations involved** in the creation of PPAs.

Upon completion of preliminary profiles for each country, each template was sent to volunteers with in-country knowledge and expertise on protected areas. These experts were identified through colleagues within the ILCN, UNDP, IUCN’s World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA), CBD, or International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) networks. Where possible, these in-country experts reviewed the relevant country profiles to ensure that the information therein could be confirmed as accurate to the best of their knowledge.¹⁶ Revisions were incorporated to produce a series of reviewed profiles, which in turn inform the findings of this summary report.

16. For two of the countries under study (Sri Lanka and Indonesia) comments from an in-country expert have not been received, and all data is based on a desk review. For these countries, feedback is invited through the means described in this report’s conclusion.

A Review of 30 Country Profiles

For each of 30 countries, profiles describe **what legal, policy, and institutional mechanisms and incentives exist to support the establishment and recognition of PPAs**. Each country features unique approaches to private land conservation; rather than drawing general conclusions from a disparate set of contexts and mechanisms, this report highlights those that may be of interest for their novelty or potential for transfer to other countries.

Land-Use and Land Tenure Overview

A critical factor related to the extent and formality of PPAs is the security and form of **land tenure** within a given country. Secure title to land is a key enabling factor for *long-term* and *clearly-defined* decision-making power over land. The mechanisms used to create PPAs differ in countries with low tenure security from those with a secure land tenure. PPAs

are currently most widespread and best supported in countries with secure private land ownership. In such countries, PPAs are more likely to be robust, and are more easily supported by financial incentives.

In six of the countries under study (the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Cambodia, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea, and Vietnam), private land ownership is prohibited or limited. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ethiopia, and Vietnam, land cannot be privately owned under any circumstance. In Mongolia and Papua New Guinea, land outside of urban areas cannot be privately owned, limiting private ownership of land that may have high conservation value. None of these six countries have formal definitions, policy, or incentives for PPAs. Overall, PPAs are less common in countries or jurisdictions where government and/or indigenous land ownership predominate.

CHART 1: Private land ownership and formal status for PPAs



The chart above illustrates that most of the countries under study (24 out of 30) allow for the private ownership of land outside of urban areas, and that this attribute corresponds to a higher likelihood that PPAs have formal legal and policy standing in the country. Countries in this study that do not allow private ownership of non-urban land do not have law or policy in place to support the creation of PPAs.

PPAs in Policy and Planning

PPAs are an important alternate governance type for *in-situ* biodiversity conservation. PPAs are increasingly being recognized in national conservation strategies and targets, such as National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plans (NBSAPs), as a means to augment national PA networks.

NBSAPs are the principal instruments for implementing the CBD at the national level (Article 6). Since CBD COP decision X/2, Parties are revising their NBSAPs to align with the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 and its ABTs. The 2030 Agenda is consistent with the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011-2020 - the implementation of one contributes to the achievement of the other. NBSAPs are a ready pathway towards accelerated implementation of ABTs and UN SDGs.¹⁷

Of the countries under study, 13 (43 per cent) have identified PPAs in their recent NBSAPs. Of these 13 countries, 10 have also defined PPAs as part of their PA network or PA legislation. Several other countries have addressed and encouraged private and civic-sector conservation within their NBSAPs, or incentivized private land conservation efforts (for example, as outlined in the following South Africa case study).

Clarifying the governance status of PAs at a national and local level ensures that PPAs are *clearly-defined*. For example, the distinction between PPAs and Other Effective Area-Based Conservation Measures (OECMs) has not always been clear. A more complete exploration of these differences is available in the Parks Journal article cited in the References section of this report.

CASE STUDY:

PPAs discussed in South Africa's NBSAP 2015-2025

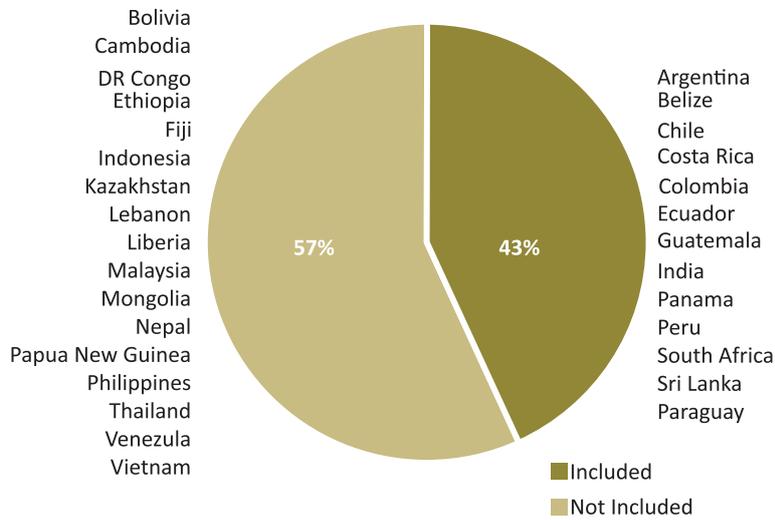
South Africa's latest NBSAP iterates that conservation areas and protected areas in South Africa constitute the broader conservation estate, and can be owned and managed by government, communal or private landowners.

NBSAP Strategic Objective One, which calls for enhanced management of biodiversity assets, seeks to: expand the network of conservation areas through legal and informal mechanisms (Activity 1.1.2); and strengthen the institutional capacity of biodiversity stewardship programs for enhanced contribution to conservation area expansion (Activity 1.1.3)

NBSAP Strategic Objective Three, which calls for mainstreaming biodiversity into sectoral policies, strategies and practices, seeks to: develop and strengthen economic incentives to encourage private sector investment in biodiversity management and conservation, such as tax incentives, among others (Activity 3.5.6).

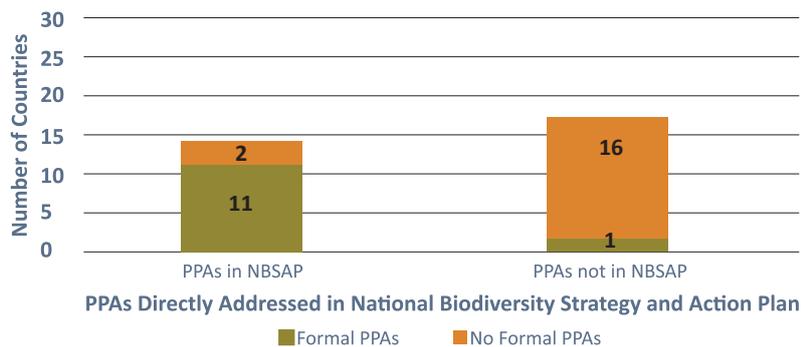
17. Dr. Jamison Ervin, UNDP. Personal communication.

CHART 2: Inclusion of PPAs in NBSAPs



The pie chart above indicates that 43 per cent of the countries under study (those listed on the right) planned, in a recent NBSAP, to address PPAs or create analogous means of applying PA status to privately-governed land.

CHART 3: Inclusion of PPAs in NBSAPS and formal PPA designations



The chart above shows that 13 of the countries under study address PPAs or reference analogous means of applying PA status to privately-governed land in their NBSAPs.

Legal Mechanisms Supporting PPAs

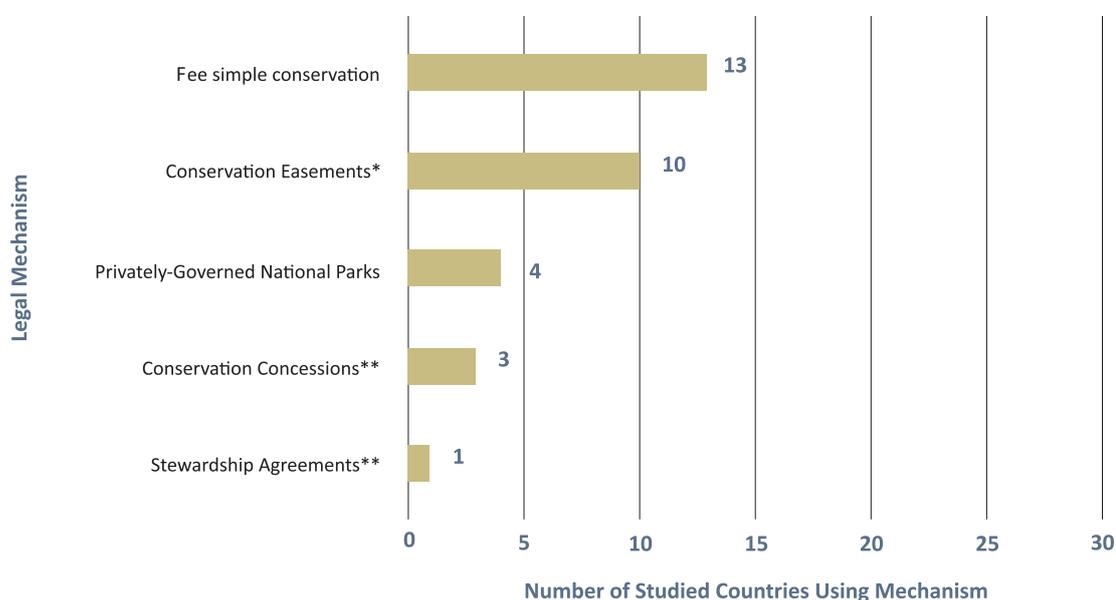
Legal mechanisms are means of establishing and/or recognizing PPAs through national or provincial legislation. In many of the countries profiled, where legal mechanisms for the establishment of PPAs exist, they have led to the creation of PPAs. Of the 30 countries under study, 12 (40 per cent) formally defined PPAs (using various definitions and terminology) in national or provincial legislation on PAs. All 12 of these countries have established and recognized formal PPAs. At least three additional countries have PA legislation that could lead to the creation of PAs under other governance types that are entirely or partly on private land.

Land law, environmental law, and PA law create the basic conditions for the establishment of PPAs, through

a range of means including by registering property as a PPA, placing an easement on the property, or entering into another kind of legally binding agreement. Specific legislation and mechanisms vary from country to country. Several of the most common are displayed below (Chart 4).

One of the most common mechanisms found in this study is **fee simple conservation**, which occurs when a landowner has outright ownership of land and voluntarily and formally commits to conserving a parcel(s) of land. In some countries, landowners can formally register their land as a PPA by this or another name (e.g. private reserve). In others, NGOs purchase land for conservation purposes. Fee simple ownership is permitted for non-urban land in 83 per cent of the countries under study.

CHART 4: Legal mechanisms used to create PPAs



The graph above illustrates the number of countries under study that use different legal mechanisms to establish and govern PPAs.

* Easements are used to create PPAs in 10 of the countries under study. In addition, five other countries have legislation enabling this mechanism; however, they are yet to have a PPA established through a conservation easement.

**These two mechanisms may lead either to the creation of a PPA, another form of PA, or a privately-governed OECM, depending on the terms and the intent of the agreements.

In 10 (33 per cent) of the countries under study, private landowners and NGOs are using one of the most effective and common legal mechanisms for the creation of PPAs: the conservation easement, also known as a covenant or servitude. In most common law countries and some civil code countries, easements are used to conserve privately-owned land in the long term without transferring ownership of the land. Easements are usually possible in those countries where individuals, groups, or organizations can own land in fee simple, or under a secure long-term lease.

An easement is a voluntary but binding agreement undertaken by a landowner and the easement-holder—often a NGO (sometimes called a “land trust”) or a government agency—in which the landowner voluntarily restricts the development rights and/or other uses of their property. Conservation easements have been employed in nearly all of the countries of Latin America that were included in this study. In the Philippines, Liberia, Fiji, and elsewhere, easements have a basis in the legislation, but they are not presently used for conservation.

By contrast, conservation concessions are most used in countries where governments have established practices for selling temporary rights on public land to natural resource extractors. A concession is different from a lease in that a concession does not require that the full bundle of rights associated with a land area be leased. Instead, only a particular set of rights are leased. When this set of rights is related to the conservation of nature the effective result is the conservation of the concession area.

Conservation groups have worked to re-purpose the concession process to protect land in three (10 per cent) of the countries under study. In Indonesia, Cambodia, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), NGOs worked with governments to establish conservation as a legitimate purpose for a concession during the 2000s. NGOs in the DRC produced a formal PPA through this process, while Cambodian efforts led to the creation of a national PA. NGOs in Indonesia have used conservation concessions to create OECMs.

CASE STUDY:

Conservation Concessions by the Bonobo Conservation Initiative, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC)

The DRC’s *Forest Code of 2002* allows private entities to create conservation concessions (CCs) using the same concession model used by logging companies. This approach to conservation was embraced as part of the DRC’s NBSAP, the latest version of which calls to “promote the creation of forest conservation concessions.”

Taking advantage of the *Forest Code of 2002* and more recent enabling legislation, and in cooperation with Conservation International and other organizations, the Bonobo Conservation Initiative (BCI) has pioneered the conservation concession model in the DRC. BCI manages three neighboring conservation concessions of forest in the Équateur province of central DRC, with a total area of 603,470 ha. The previous concessionaires were logging companies. Managed by BCI, these PPAs contribute to a larger network of community forest concessions and community-managed nature reserves, protecting crucial habitat for the endangered bonobo (*Pan paniscus*).

Another mechanism that has supported the creation of PPAs is the **private governance of national parks**. Four (13 per cent) of the countries under study featured PAs on state land that were governed by private entities, and at least three more have enabling legislation for such an arrangement. National parks and other PAs on state land generally fall under the category of PAs governed by governments. In other cases, private and civic-sector actors co-manage PAs with government, which creates PAs under shared governance. In extreme cases, national governments have almost no role in the management of a state-owned PA and have contracted the operations of the park entirely to a domestic or international NGO. Whether this qualifies the area as a PPA depends on which entity dictates the PA’s operational objectives and holds final decision-making power.

CASE STUDY:

Privately-governed National Parks in Nepal

In Nepal, the NGO King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation was created by an act of government in 1982 expressly for the purpose of independently governing a PA called the Annapurna Conservation Area Project. The Trust has since become involved in more than 200 conservation projects and manages three other PPAs on government-owned land.

In South Africa, for example, national parks may be privately-owned and are considered PPAs.¹⁸ In the DRC, two national parks are governed by NGOs. Despite state ownership, for those cases in which the governance of a PA falls entirely to an NGO or other private entity, the area could be considered a PPA under the IUCN definition.

One less common but potentially effective measure for private land conservation is a **stewardship agreement**. Within the countries under study, South Africa is notable in that it has a tiered system of stewardship agreements (called biodiversity stewardship agreements) that offers landowners different levels of commitment to conservation, and through which the government and NGOs provide institutional support to conservation on privately-owned land. Depending on the terms and durability, a stewardship agreement may result in the creation of a PPA.

Other measures exist to establish and formally recognize PPAs in many of the countries under study. Among those means not highlighted here are the largely Latin American model of **formal reserves**, whereby a landowner may petition the government to obtain durable protected status for their land. Sufficiently durable **land leases** for conservation purposes may be considered PPAs and have been experimented with in at

least one country in every region under study. Another mechanism that has been used in combination with fee simple ownership by NGOs is the **debt-for-nature swap**, as orchestrated between Belize and the USA with the assistance of The Nature Conservancy. There are also PPAs that take shape through clauses in land law that allow **religious institutions** to manage land of high biodiversity value. Examples include Lebanon and Ethiopia, where the Mennonite Church and Ethiopian Orthodox Church, respectively, govern several forests for the primary purpose of conservation. Landowning communities in Papua New Guinea have established NGOs expressly for the purpose of governing protected areas. These and other tools are discussed in the country profiles.

Incentive Measures for PPAs

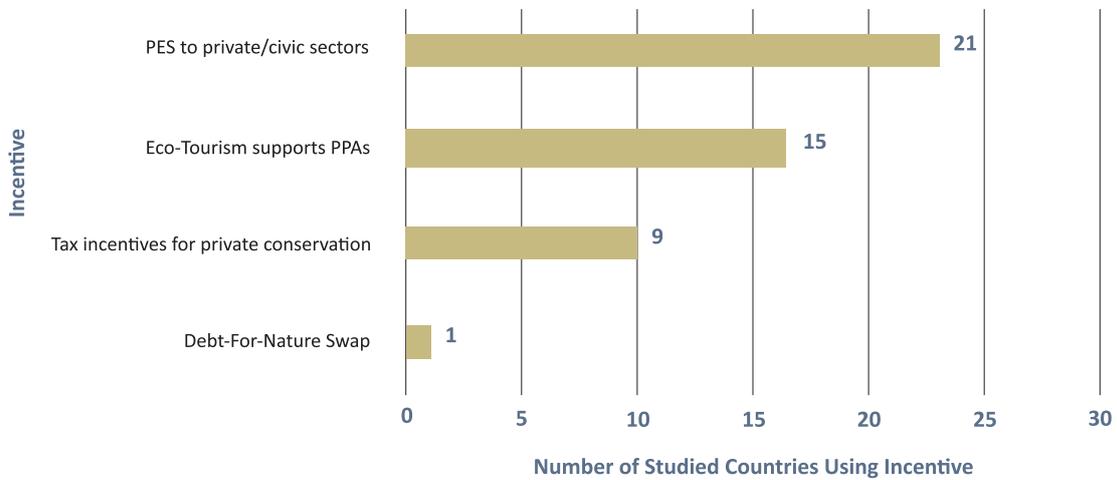
An incentive is a tool, structured either by a government, an NGO, or a supra-national entity, that offers benefits or compensation, usually financial, for the creation of PPAs. A range of incentives are in use by the countries under study.

Tax incentives are effective and popular tools to encourage landowners to establish PPAs in areas where private land ownership is common and secure. By offsetting the forgone property value incurred by the creation of a conserved area, tax incentives make conservation a more viable financial decision for landowners. Of the 30 countries under study, nine (30 per cent) offered a structured tax incentive for landowners who enter into voluntary agreements to conserve their land. Of these countries, eight are located in Latin America, with South Africa being the only other country under study with a structured tax incentive for PPAs.

For tax incentives to be an effective catalyst for PPAs, certain conditions are required: private ownership of land must be secure, and ownership must be associated with taxes for which the landowner can seek relief on the grounds that they have conserved their land. It is unsurprising that countries like Mongolia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Papua New Guinea, where almost no non-urban land is privately

18. Bingham, H., Fitzsimons, J., Redford, K. H., Mitchell, B., Bezaury-Creel, J., and Cumming, T. 2017. "Privately protected areas: Advances and challenges in guidance, policy and documentation." *Parks*. 23(1): 13-28. DOI: 10.2305/IUCN.CH.2017.PARKS-23-1HB.en

CHART 5: Incentives used to support PPAs



The chart above illustrates that a range of incentives have been utilized in many countries to incentivize the creation of PPAs.

owned, do not offer tax incentives for private land conservation.

Payments for ecosystem services (PES) programs contribute to the creation and financing of many PPAs and can be structured in different ways. Generally, a landowner (or other legal steward) within an ecosystem that provides natural services (i.e. water quality and quantity) to other individuals receives a payment for their contribution to the protection of that ecosystem. Payments are usually evaluated in terms of alternative land-uses (such as intensive exploitation) that might generate revenue for the landowner, and they are usually made by the entity(ies) that benefits from the ecosystem services, which are often national governments.

Beyond these primary incentive mechanisms, numerous other financial tools support the establishment and management of PPAs. Though this study focuses on incentives rather than ongoing funding sources, we describe a pair of financing measures below because both are integral catalysts for PPAs, and both represent means by which private and civic-sector entities contribute to land conservation in the countries under study in this report.

CASE STUDY:

Payments for Ecosystem Services with UN-REDD/REDD+

Among the most well-known PES programs is the United Nations Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation (UN-REDD) or REDD+ program. Through this UN-administered program, developing countries where forest resources are under threat may accept payments for the advancement of programs that avoid deforestation. These include the valuation of carbon sequestration services provided by forests and the creation of markets to sell carbon credits representing sequestration as a function of land area. REDD+ also supports sustainable development projects that reduce the reliance of agrarian and forest-dependent communities on the illicit harvesting of forest products. This program is active in many countries under study.

CASE STUDY:

Payments for Ecosystem Services in La Amistad, San Rafael, Paraguay

Paraguay has developed legislation that attempts to promote private lands conservation through the establishment of payments for ecosystem services. The Environmental Secretary (SEAM) implemented a system of fixed prices for environmental certificates, which vary in price based on the region of their origin, ranging from \$154 to \$885 per hectare. This has encouraged landowners to participate in private land conservation.

For example, in the San Rafael region of the Atlantic Forest, Guyra Paraguay, with the support of World Land Trust and financial contributions from a private company, developed and implemented a project to incentivize farmers from the community of La Amistad to voluntarily conserve sections of forest on their land. In exchange for land conserved, landowners receive ecosystem services certificates that grant them 75 per cent of the land value, while reserving 25 per cent of the land value to support landowners' efforts to secure legal title to their land.

Private philanthropy is a significant and flexible source of support for PPAs, as it is generally not contingent on land tenure, legal system, or PA policy. Private philanthropy can take many forms, including donations of monetary assets and of real property (i.e. land). In Chile, for example, some national parks have their origins in large purchases by private actors interested in conservation. In other countries, international philanthropies support domestic private and civic-sector organizations involved in land conservation. All 30 recent NBSAPs for the countries under study in this report noted a growing trend toward public-private partnerships and private conservation financing.

All 30 recent NBSAPs also noted the importance of tourism—and in many cases, **eco-tourism**—revenue as a source of financing for private conservation activities.

Eco-tourism can be differentiated from other forms of tourism by its emphasis on the natural environment as the main attraction bringing tourists to the location. For this reason, eco-tourism often pairs with some form of PA.

Many private eco-tourism companies operate lodges or activities on privately-owned land with high conservation value, including on PPAs. Sometimes, the eco-tourism venture itself is the landowner. In these cases, the land may be managed for conservation, whether or not it is considered a formal PPA.

Others operate in close tandem with PAs on public land, run by state/provincial or national governments. These for-profit eco-tourism ventures serve as the basis for private-sector involvement in government managed PAs. Several national governments, such as Thailand, have passed laws expressly permitting the leasing of small areas within government PAs in order to encourage private ecotourism.

CASE STUDY:

Eco-tourism PPAs in Southeast Asia

In many countries, particularly those of Southeast Asia, private eco-tourism projects have led to the creation of some of the only PPAs in a given country. In Vietnam, the Whale Island Resort is effectively a marine protected area managed by a hotel within the conserved area. In Thailand, eco-tourism, research, and species-based conservation efforts have been combined at several elephant sanctuaries, including the Nam Kham Nature Reserve and Koh Talu Island Reserve. In the Philippines, the Secret Paradise Resort and Turtle Sanctuary operates entirely on eco-tourism revenue and has incrementally protected several bays on the island of Palawan. To encourage such conservation efforts, the Philippines established a National Ecotourism Development Council in 1999.

Institutions and Networks for Private Land Conservation

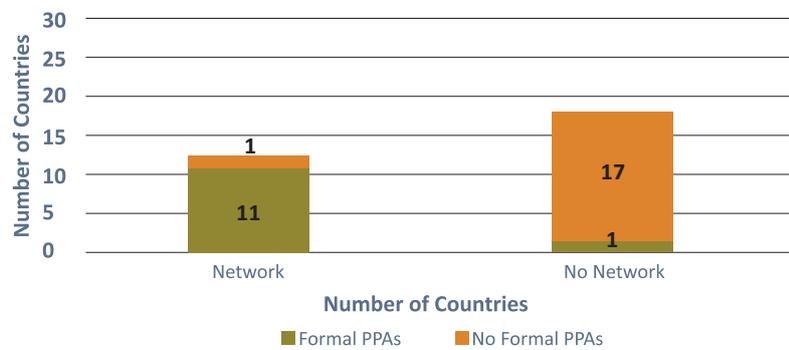
Countries with high numbers and high coverage of PPAs tend to have non-governmental networks and/or strong national or sub-national policy to support private land conservation. Of the four countries under study with more than one per cent of their land area covered by PPAs (Belize, Chile, Costa Rica, and Guatemala), all had non-governmental networks of PPAs, all had current or past PES programs, and three offered tax incentives to PPA owners.

The role of governments in establishing PPAs varies by country. **National governments** administer national PA networks, and/or delegate the management of PAs to regional or local governments. Thus, governments are responsible for the formal recognition of PPAs and determine the role of PPAs in protected area legislation.

Although some effective private land conservation can take place without policy support, governments can enable the creation of PPAs by implementing policy to accommodate such elements as PPA establishment, funding, management support, and education.

National and regional PPA networks also contribute to the spread and security of PPAs in a given country. Networks of private landowners and/or NGOs who have created and manage PPAs have emerged in many countries over the past three decades, oftentimes organized and managed by an NGO. Sometimes, these networks are the product of institutionalization of PPAs on a national scale; at other times, they have formed as a bottom-up response to the lack of institutional support for PPAs within governments.¹⁹

CHART 6: PPA legislation and non-governmental networks supporting PPAs



The chart above shows that 12 of the countries under study have at least one network supporting PPAs. The chart also indicates that those countries with a network supporting PPAs are generally also those with formal legal status and/or recognition for PPAs.

19. See also 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, 53-58.

All 12 of the Latin American countries under study have non-governmental networks that connect PPA managers (organizations and/or landowners), provide them with technical support, and collect data on their extent and management. In some countries, networks are diverse and numerous. For example, some 39 local and regional PPA networks operate in Colombia. By contrast, none of the Asian countries under study had non-governmental networks to support PPA managers or collect data, with the exception of Lebanon, where the national chapter of BirdLife International plays this role. South Africa was alone among the four African countries under study to feature such a network. That group, the quasi-governmental South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI), has been instrumental in the advancement of PPAs in the country. There is a strong connection between robust PPA systems and PPA networks across all 30 countries.

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) play a vital role in the creation and management of PPAs in each of the countries under study that have at least one PPA. Broadly, conservation NGOs can be divided into two main categories: domestic, or local, non-profits, and international NGOs. Often, these two types of NGO operate in partnership on a given PPA project, with the international NGO providing technical assistance and institutional support to a domestic non-profit that takes the lead in forming in-country relationships.

National or local non-profits have diverse origins, and they are often effective in PPA governance where other organizations or government efforts struggle to meet conservation objectives. Some national non-profits are members of international organizations, such as BirdLife International, which has a federated structure. Most, however, have their roots in specific conservation projects and have since grown to expand their scope and pass on their expertise. This role for national or local non-profits and NGOs is of great importance in countries where property law restricts foreign nationals and multi-national corporations from owning land.

There are also several **international conservation NGOs** that are often important sources of technical assistance and that act as conduits for the transfer of knowledge and conservation strategies. The Nature Conservancy (TNC), the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), the World Land Trust, the Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS), BirdLife International, Conservation International (CI), and Fauna & Flora International (FFI) have all supported PPAs on multiple continents, often working with national or local non-profits, governments, and indigenous communities to meet the specific needs of each project. These organizations are active in more than a third of the countries under study.

Frequently, local, national, and international organizations work in **partnerships and coalitions**, such that a given PPA may have multiple private- or civic-sector entities involved in its governance. These partnerships have led to the creation of many successful PPAs and tend to benefit from both strong local roots and the transfer of knowledge and lessons learned from elsewhere. Another vital aspect of institutions and networks revolves around data.

Collecting data on the existence, location, and extent of PPAs is an important exercise for the international conservation community and is of tactical importance to conservation interests within a given landscape. Tracking of PPAs varies widely across the countries studied. In some cases, the governments collect data on PPAs, in others a non-governmental network tracks PPAs, tracking may be done by both in tandem, or tracking may not occur at all. As PPAs are increasingly viewed as a recognized component of the wider PA landscape, data on their size and location is needed to form a clear picture of the global PA network and remaining gaps.²⁰

The World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA) is the most comprehensive global database on terrestrial and marine PAs. WDPA reports on all IUCN management categories and governance types and is working towards

20. See generally 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, 50-52.

improving the reporting system to broaden the number of data providers.²¹ Information in the WDPA is used to report progress on global commitments, such as ABT 11 and UN SDG 15. According to the 2018 Protected Planet Report, only 4.5 per cent of the protected areas reported to WDPA have private governance.²² It is widely understood that this figure under-reports the reality of PPA coverage on the ground.

There are persistent barriers to building a comprehensive database of PPAs. Most importantly, many countries that do not recognize PPAs as legitimate forms of PAs do not collect data on their location or extent. In addition, given that the international conservation community has only recently established a firm definition for PPAs, and given the unsettled questions as to what constitutes a PPA, even governments that attempt to collect this data may not do so in a way that is consistent with other countries. Thus, for the purposes of this study, several examples that aren't formally-recognized PPAs, or that are recognized PPAs but are not recorded by the WDPA, are included in country profiles. In these cases, both the WDPA figures and additional figures for PPA coverage are included.

Reporting of PPAs to the WDPA

To address under-reporting of PPAs, the United Nations Environment Programme World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC) has revised its protocols to accept data directly from non-government sources. These include: individuals, NGOs, businesses, and academics who are involved in PPA governance. Such data is verified by members of the World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA), and is tagged as 'expert verified' in the WDPA. The tag helps users to differentiate between data from government and non-government sources.

- Bingham et al. 2017

21. Implementing WCC resolution on PPAs - WCC-2016-Res-036

22. UN Environment World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC), International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), and National Geographic Society (NGS). 2018. Protected Planet Report 2018. UNEP-WCMC, IUCN and NGS: Cambridge UK; Gland, Switzerland; and Washington, D.C., USA.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This report compiles a range of information describing the legal, policy, and institutional mechanisms supporting the establishment and recognition of PPAs in 30 countries. Though recent decades have seen a more systematic approach to PPAs in the international conservation community, the questions involved in creating and governing PPAs will continue to be answered in new ways. Among the issues raised by this report, one of the most obvious is the need to facilitate the application of the IUCN definition of PPAs so that PPAs are included in global PA counts and are consistently reported by national governments in order to contribute to global targets. That task will be on-going through the efforts of national governments, international NGOs and conservation bodies, UNEP-WCMC through the WDPA, and the Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity. Additional studies such as this one are necessary to help clarify the complexity and variation that currently exists so that consistency, where appropriate, can be achieved.

The work of compiling profiles for the countries under study in this report has confirmed that the progress of PPAs is strongly associated with a range of underlying factors that shape the character, extent, and integrity of PPAs from country to country. Those factors include, most notably:

- o the laws and policies of governments toward protected areas and land-use more broadly,
- o the actions of non-governmental entities and their networking capacity, and

- o the availability of incentives that support PPA establishment.

These factors can themselves be shaped over time to encourage the effective and equitable establishment of PPAs wherever they are appropriate. Therefore, the following recommendations are offered to countries looking to begin or expand their PPA network:

- formalize PPAs in laws and policies so that there is official recognition of PPAs in the country's overall approach to protected areas,
- encourage steps that provide more certainty to land tenure systems, such as digitizing land cadasters,
- share learning, best practices and tools across geographies so that the development and support of PPAs might be accelerated,
- increase financial incentives for PPAs,
- encourage more accurate and regular reporting of PPAs to the WDPA,²³ and
- support strong NGOs and the creation of institutional frameworks and networks that build capacity for PPAs.

This summary report highlights only the major trends in an increasingly complex topic area. Detailed information is available in the individual country profiles, which will be updated and amended based on ongoing feedback and review to maintain its accuracy as time and resources allow. Questions, feedback, or comments can be directed to the email address of the International Land Conservation Network:

ilcn@lincolinst.edu.

23. Note that guidance on reporting is available from WCPA. See Bingham et al. 2017. For challenges related to reporting, see also Clements, H.S., Selinske, M.J., Archibald, C.L., Cooke, B., Fitzsimons, J.A., Groce, J.E., Torabi, N., and Hardy, M.J. 2018. "Fairness and Transparency Are Required for the Inclusion of Privately Protected Areas in Publicly Accessible Conservation Databases." *Land* 7(3): 96. DOI: 10.3390/land7030096.

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Appendix A: Country Profile Questionnaire

The following questionnaire served as the basis for each of the 30 country reports in this study. This framework was used to align the content of reports compiled separately by seven of the lead authors on this study.

Section I. Country Overview

1. What is the existing land cover in the country (if possible, please list percentages)?
2. What are the predominant land ownership types in the country (ex. government ownership, private ownership, community ownership)?
 - a. Do private landowners have legal title to their land?
 - b. What is the percentage of public and private ownership in the country?
3. How much land (in acres or hectares) is conserved in the country?
 - a. Share how much land is conserved in total (specify ownership of the protected land).
 - b. If possible, share how much land is conserved through PPAs in the country, and/or how many PPAs are there in the country.
 - i. Specify, if possible, the ownership and/or management type(s) of the PPAs.
4. Are PPAs addressed in the country's national action plans or NBSAPs?
 - a. Is there any estimation of the contribution of the private protected areas to the national conservation goals?

Section II. Law and Policy for Private Land Use

Please focus on national-level legislation, with the exception countries where regional/provincial/state policies may be the dominant ones in this area

1. How, if at all, is a PPA defined in the country (including ownership, management, objectives, and permanence)?
2. Is there formal legislation that allows for voluntary creation of PPAs? Does that legislation afford enforceable legal protection?

Formal legislations may be related to, for example, designation of private reserves, conservation easements/covenants/servitudes, donation of private property to NGOs or the state for conservation purposes, binding conservation agreements, etc.

3. Are there any informal mechanisms to create PPAs?
This may include existing policies or traditional laws that have been adapted to support conservation objectives, or a culture of private landowners managing land for conservation, in the absence of legal agreements.

4. Are there legal tools currently under consideration that, if accepted/passed, would support the creation of PPAs?

Section III. Financial Incentives for Privately Protected Areas

1. What kinds of financial tools are in place to facilitate land conservation directly? For example, is there:
 - a. A tax incentive to the landowner to lower the tax base of his/her land if it is converted to permanent conservation use through a binding (long-term or permanent) conservation agreement (for example, resulting in a lowered tax rate or deduction over one or multiple years)?
 - b. A tax incentive to landowners who donate land for conservation purposes (to an NGO or the government, for example)?
 - c. A tax incentive to people who donate money to charitable organizations?
 - d. Any other incentives for managing private land for conservation, such as through payments for ecosystem services or REDD+?
2. Are there financial tools currently under consideration that, if accepted/passed, would support the creation of PPAs?

Section IV. Organization

1. Are there any national or regional organizations and/or networks dedicated to supporting the creation and/or management of PPAs?
2. Is there an entity currently collecting information on the status of PPAs in the country? If so, please provide contact information, if possible.

Section V. Best Practices/Case Studies

Share examples of how these laws/policies and/or financial incentives play out in a country.

Briefly include the following details (300 words per section and share the link of source):

1. Project title
2. Problem/challenge
3. Action taken: legal and/or financial tool used
4. Result/Impact
5. Key weblinks for more information on this case

Appendix B: Reviews of Country Profiles

Most country profiles in this study were reviewed by at least one volunteer in-country expert on PPAs. Two of the 30 country profiles (Sri Lanka and Indonesia) were not reviewed, and the authors continue to solicit experts on PAs in those countries to review these profiles in the future.

The table below lists the names of experts who contributed, and the profiles to which their contributions can be ascribed. Reviewers did not review country profiles other than those for which their names are listed.

Country Under Study	Name of Reviewer of Report
Argentina	Javier Beltran, Working Landscapes Coordinator, The Nature Conservancy Argentina Florencia Morales, Executive Coordinator, Red Argentina de Reservas Naturales Privadas
Belize	Celia Mahung, Executive Director, Toledo Institute for Development and Environment (TIDE)
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	Maria Teresa Vargas, Executive Director, Fundación Natura Bolivia
Cambodia	Bou Vorsak, Cambodia Programme Manager, BirdLife International Cambodia Programme
Chile	Victoria Alonso, Co-Founder, Templado; President, Tierra Austral Land Trust
Colombia	Dexter B. Dombro, Founder and Conservationist, Corporación Ambiental La Pedregoza, Reserva Natural La Pedregoza Marcela Santamaría, Technical coordinator Resnatur (Colombian Network of Civil Society Natural Reserves) Clara Matallana, Research Humboldt Institute
Congo, Democratic Republic of the	Dr. Jeminiwa Samuel, Chief Research Fellow, Forestry Research Institute of Nigeria
Costa Rica	Tania Villegas, Subsecretary of Natural Heritage, Costa Rican Ministry of Environment

Ecuador	<p>Elisa Cañizalez Parra, MSc., Biologist Lawyer</p> <p>Renzo Paladines, Executive Director of Latin America, Naturaleza y Cultura Internacional</p> <p>Martin Schaefer, Executive Director, Fundación de Conservación Jocotoco</p> <p>Tarsicio Granizo, Senior Manager on Markets and Bioeconomy, WWF-Ecuador</p>
Ethiopia	<p>Dr. Jeminiwa Samuel, Chief Research Fellow, Forestry Research Institute of Nigeria</p> <p>Tarsicio Granizo, Senior Manager on Markets and Bioeconomy, WWF-Ecuador</p>
Fiji	<p>Kelly S. Bricker, Professor and Director, Parks, Recreation, and Tourism</p> <p>Senilolia Tuiwawa, Mangrove and Plant System Specialist, Conservation International Fiji</p>
Guatemala	<p>Tarsicio Granizo, Senior Manager on Markets and Bioeconomy, WWF-Ecuador</p>
India	<p>Ruchi Pant, Head, Natural Resource Management, UNDP India</p> <p>Tarun Kathula, Director, Ministry of Environment, Forests and Climate Change, Government of India</p> <p>Lakshmi G., Research scholar, School of Environmental Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology</p>
Indonesia	n/a
Kazakhstan	<p>Vera Voronova, CEO of the Association for the Conservation Biodiversity of Kazakhstan</p>
Lebanon	<p>Dr. Sulafa Al shaalan, International environmental law professor, Al qadissya University, Law College</p> <p>Association for the Protection of Jabal Moussa (APJM)</p> <p>Ziad Samaha, IUCN</p>
Liberia	<p>Michael F. Garbo, Executive Director, Society for the Conservation of Nature of Liberia (SCNL), Liberia</p>
Malaysia	<p>Dr. Sivanathan Elagupillay, Protected Areas and Tiger Specialist, Hon. Member, Global Tiger Forum</p> <p>Surin Suksuwan, Southeast Asia Regional Director, Proforest</p> <p>Justine Vaz, General Manager, The Habitat Foundation; and President, Kota Damansara Community Forest Society</p>
Mongolia	<p>Nathan Conaboy, former Country Coordinator 2011-2017, Zoological Society of London, Mongolia</p>
Nepal	<p>Marcus Cotton, Tiger Mountain Nepal, ITNC, UKTNCN</p> <p>Sishir Gautam, Research Scientist, Hegyi Geomatics International Inc.</p>
Panama	<p>Tania Villegas, Subsecretary of Natural Heritage, Costa Rican Ministry of Environment</p>

Papua New Guinea	<p>Dr. Valentina Dinica, Associate Professor in Sustainability and Public Policy, Convener of the New Zealand Environment Policy and Politics Network of the Political Science Association, School of Government, Victoria Business School (Faculty), Wellington.</p> <p>Mark Nizette, MBE, Kokoda Initiative Strategic Advisor, Conservation and Environment Protection Authority, Papua New Guinea</p> <p>Nate Peterson, GIS and Conservation Information Manager Pacific Division, The Nature Conservancy Asia Pacific Resource Center</p>
Paraguay	Dr. A. Alberto Yanosky F., Executive Director, Guyra Paraguay; BioCentro, Parque Ecológico Asunción Verde
Peru	<p>Silvana Baldovino, Sociedad Peruana de Derecho Ambiental (SPDA)</p> <p>Bruno Monteferri, Sociedad Peruana de Derecho Ambiental (SPDA)</p> <p>Mara Brcic, Sociedad Peruana de Derecho Ambiental (SPDA)</p> <p>Christel Scheske, Sociedad Peruana de Derecho Ambiental (SPDA)</p> <p>Carolina Butrich, Sociedad Peruana de Derecho Ambiental (SPDA)</p> <p>Benjamin Lau Chiong, Director de Desarrollo Estratégico, El Servicio Nacional de Áreas Naturales Protegidas por el Estado (SERNANP)</p> <p>Walter Oscanoa Osuquibamba, Especialista en Áreas Naturales Protegidas II, El Servicio Nacional de Áreas Naturales Protegidas por el Estado (SERNANP)</p>
Philippines	Gabriel Caballero, Landscape Architect & World Heritage Specialist PALA, SILA-LAAD, MLI, M ICOMOS
South Africa	<p>Candice Stevens, Policy & Advocacy Programme Manager and Tax Specialist, BirdLife South Africa</p> <p>Greg Martindale, Director, Conservation Outcomes, BirdLife South Africa</p> <p>Natasha Wilson, Advisor: Biodiversity Stewardship, South African National Biodiversity Institute (SANBI)</p> <p>Pamela Kershaw, Deputy Director: Biodiversity Planning, Department of Environmental Affairs</p>
Sri Lanka	n/a
Thailand	Dr. Robert Mather, Technical Assistance Team Leader, Biodiversity Conservation and Management of Protected Areas Project, ASEAN Centre for Biodiversity Petch Manopawitr, Independent Conservation Scientist, former Deputy of SE Asia Group for IUCN

Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	<p>Alberto Blanco-Davila, Advisor of Hato Garza</p> <p>Ernesto Boede, Scientific advisor of Hato Masaguaral</p> <p>Elisa Cañizalez Parra, MSc,. Biologist Lawyer</p> <p>Juan Elías García-Pérez, Biol., UNELLEZ-Guanare, Venezuela</p> <p>Edgard Yerena, Department of Environmental Studies, Universidad Simón Bolívar. Chair of Protected Areas Commission, Venezuelan Society of Natural Sciences</p>
Viet Nam	<p>Pham Tuan Anh, President and Deputy Director, Viet Nature Conservation Centre</p>

Appendix C: Data Summary for 30 Countries

	Formal PPAs	PPAs in Recent NBSAP	PPA Network
Argentina	✓	✓	✓
Belize	✓	✓	✓
Bolivia	✗	✗	✗
Cambodia	✓	✗	✗
Chile	✓	✓	✓
Colombia	✓	✓	✓
Costa Rica	✗	✓	✓
Democratic Republic of Congo	✓	✗	✗
Ecuador	✓	✓	✓
Ethiopia	✗	✗	✗
Fiji	✗	✗	✗
Guatemala	✓	✓	✓
India	✗	✗	✗
Indonesia	✗	✓	✗
Kazakhstan	✗	✗	✗
Lebanon	✗	✗	✗
Liberia	✗	✗	✗
Malaysia	✗	✗	✗
Mongolia	✗	✗	✗
Nepal	✗	✗	✗
Panama	✓	✓	✓
Papua New Guinea	✗	✗	✗
Paraguay	✓	✓	✓
Peru	✓	✓	✓
Philippines	✗	✗	✗
South Africa	✓	✓	✓
Sri Lanka	✗	✓	✗
Thailand	✗	✗	✗
Venezuela	✗	✗	✓
Vietnam	✗	✗	✗