A Review of the Impact of IUCN Resolutions on International Conservation Efforts
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Previous IUCN Congresses and Members’ Assemblies

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<td>2000</td>
<td>Amman, Jordan</td>
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<td>1996</td>
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World Conservation Congresses began in 1996 in Montreal. Previous to that IUCN assembled its Members in General or Members’ Assemblies.
INTRODUCTION

UCN’s Members have issued over 1000 resolutions since the organization’s founding in 1948. These have been the Union’s most effective means of influencing conservation policy, at species, site, national and global levels. They have helped set the international conservation agenda, for example through supporting the preparation of the World Conservation Strategy and contributing to environmental treaties such as CITES, Ramsar, World Heritage and the Convention on Biological Diversity. Through its resolutions, IUCN has been a steadfast supporter of indigenous peoples, gender issues and the recognition of conservation as part of human rights. It has also focused attention on conserving endangered species and protected areas, helping to design effective approaches that are now global standards. The resolutions process has helped IUCN to be a leader in promoting sustainable relationships between people and nature.

As the world’s leading association of conservation agencies, including 87 States, 120 government agencies, and 998 non-governmental organizations, IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature) is in a unique position to reflect and promote the priorities of the global conservation community. It is the only environmental organization with Observer status at the United Nations General Assembly, enabling IUCN to deliver the policy perspectives of its Members at the highest international level of diplomacy. These policies are developed through an open consultative process involving the full IUCN Membership.

Since IUCN’s founding in 1948, its Members have convened every two to four years to debate and agree major policy issues and approve the organization’s programme and budget for the subsequent several years. It held 19 General Assemblies between 1948 and 1994, typically with an accompanying Technical Meeting that addressed on-the-ground conservation issues. Beginning in 1996, the General Assembly and Technical Meeting components were combined and re-labeled as the World Conservation Congress. Four such congresses have now been held, in Montreal, Amman, Bangkok and Barcelona. The next Congress will be held in Jeju, Republic of Korea, from 6–15 September 2012.

As IUCN’s mission is to “influence, encourage and assist society”, its policy work is key to its ability to have an impact on world conservation. A significant result of each of these 23 convenings of IUCN Members, the experts participating in IUCN’s Commissions, and invited partner organizations, has been the policy recommendations from the Members, dealing with the most significant policy measures as identified and elaborated by them. IUCN Congress “Resolutions” are aimed primarily at IUCN itself and “Recommendations” are directed to other agencies or the world at large, though this distinction is sometimes a difficult one to draw. For ease of communication, these will both be called “resolutions” throughout this document. Over 1000 such resolutions have been adopted to date; the full text of all can be found at: www.iucn.org/about/work/programmes/global_policy/gpu_resources/gpu_res_recs.

This paper briefly highlights some of the major impacts and influences that these resolutions have had on conservation. It is not meant to be comprehensive, but rather to focus attention on some of the most significant issues that the IUCN Membership has addressed, working together with IUCN’s six Commissions (on Species, Protected Areas, Environmental Law, Ecosystem Management, Communications and Education, and Environmental, Economic and Social Policy) and supported by IUCN’s Secretariat. It will go into more depth on the resolutions issued by the most recent World Conservation Congress, held in Barcelona, Spain, on 5–14 October 2008.

Members may find this paper useful in preparing effective Resolutions for the upcoming World Conservation Congresses.
IUCN's Members are all independent agencies, well able to set their own agendas. But by working together toward a common global agenda, the Membership, Secretariat and Commissions can have a far greater impact than by working alone. As one outstanding example, the Members agreed at the 1978 General Assembly, in Ashkhabad, USSR, to proceed with producing what became the World Conservation Strategy (WCS). It was published in 1980 and given strong support by the first resolution of the 1981 General Assembly, in Christchurch, New Zealand. The World Conservation Strategy gave strong legitimacy to linking conservation with development, and was the first document to put the phrase “sustainable development” into the international vocabulary. This phrase has now entered the mainstream of development thinking and has had a profound influence on the design and operation of conservation and development practice throughout the world.

But the foundations for the WCS were built much earlier, including at the Edinburgh General Assembly in 1956, which called for landscape planning based on ecological research as the starting point for development projects, the call for environmental impact assessments in Athens in 1958, and the promotion of ecological principles for economic development in Banff in 1972. Following the adoption of the World Conservation Strategy, IUCN resolutions continued to encourage governments to direct their development assistance in more environmentally-friendly directions (for example, the 1984 Madrid General Assembly called for development assistance agencies to implement the World Conservation Strategy and provided guidelines for doing so, and in San José in 1988 Members called for the preparation of national conservation strategies, of which dozens were subsequently prepared, often with IUCN technical assistance). The impacts of these resolutions have helped to put conservation in the mainstream of development.

Thanks at least partly to IUCN’s early adoption of the principle of sustainable development, it is now widely recognized that people are essential partners and key beneficiaries for all conservation action. But this has not always been the case. Indigenous peoples have especially felt that they have been ignored by the conservation community, and indeed have sometimes been forced off their land so that protected areas could be established. But IUCN has long been a champion for the concept of people as part of nature. As early as the 1952 General Assembly in Caracas, Members recognized the importance of cooperation among public agencies, rural people and the private sector. Other resolutions recognizing the importance of local communities and traditional ways of life were agreed in Athens in 1958, Kinshasa in 1975, Christchurch in 1981 (which called for heads of governments and others to “take into account the still existing very large reservoir of traditional knowledge and experience within local cultures which must provide a significant basis for the evolution of future management policies and planning actions…”), Buenos Aires in 1994, when a resolution on IUCN action on indigenous people and sustainable use of natural resources led to the permanent inclusion of an indigenous representative on the IUCN Council, Montreal in 1996 (with resolutions on indigenous people, intellectual property rights and biodiversity;
indigenous peoples, mineral and oil extraction, infrastructure and development works; and indigenous peoples and protected areas), Amman in 2000 (on impacts of military activities on the communities of indigenous peoples in the Arctic, and on indigenous peoples, sustainable use of natural resources and international trade), and Bangkok in 2004 (on indigenous peoples, protected areas and the CBD Programme of Work, and on protection for indigenous peoples living in voluntary isolation).

The 2008 Barcelona Congress was a major breakthrough, with no less than 10 resolutions dealing with local and indigenous peoples, including on empowering local communities to conserve and manage natural resources in Africa, supporting indigenous conservation territories and other indigenous peoples’ and community conserved areas, implementing the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, and integrating culture and cultural diversity into IUCN’s policy and programme. All of this helped lead to a high-level dialogue, called “Sharing Power”, held in Whakatane, New Zealand, in January 2011 and attended by the Chairs of IUCN’s six Commissions and representatives of indigenous peoples. The dialogue called for renewed efforts to implement the Barcelona resolutions relevant to indigenous peoples.

Through this effort of several decades, IUCN has made a major contribution to ensuring that the world’s cultural diversity is included as part of the mainstream of conservation concerns.

IUCN has also been a leader in applying conservation principles to address issues of poverty and gender. For example, in San José (1988), Members called for increased efforts to enhance and support women’s participation in conservation and sustainable development strategies, and in Bangkok (2004), resolutions covered poverty reduction, food security and conservation, conserving nature and reducing poverty by linking human rights and the environment, and the role of conservation organizations in poverty reduction and development. The 2008 Congress in Barcelona called for mainstreaming gender equity and equality within the Union and addressed conservation and poverty reduction. These issues are now standard operating procedure for IUCN, indicating a strong impact on the design and implementation of conservation interventions. They also form the basis for IUCN partnerships with various United Nations organizations and government agencies.

IUCN resolutions have also led to the establishment and support of many international programmes and institutions, including support for the International Whaling Commission (Lucerne, 1966), calling for the establishment of conservation departments at the national level (New Delhi, 1969), supporting the UNESCO Man and Biosphere Programme (Banff, 1972), calling for the establishment of ICIMOD (International Center for Integrated Mountain Development) (Ashkhabad, 1977), the establishment of the Botanical Gardens Conservation Secretariat (San José, 1988), the establishment of the World Conservation Monitoring Centre (San José, 1988), establishment and supporting of the Global Biodiversity Forum (Buenos Aires, 1994), and active participation in the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (Amman, 2000 and Bangkok, 2004). Each of these initiatives has played an important role in spreading IUCN’s mission across numerous sectors and all parts of the world. While IUCN was not acting alone in these initiatives, its impact helped to accelerate the establishment and effective functioning of them.
2. SUPPORTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL CONSERVATION LAW

While law is the responsibility of governments, IUCN has performed a key function in developing much of the international legislation that today governs the relationships among governments in the field of conservation. IUCN’s Environmental Law Centre and the IUCN Commission on Environmental Law were well placed to support the development of such legislation, and have played active parts in doing so. As early as 1954 (long before Rachel Carson’s 1962 classic book, Silent Spring, popularized the concern), IUCN identified the importance of dealing with the effects of pesticides on mammals, birds and insects, further strengthened in 1981 in Christchurch and in Buenos Aires in 1994; these ultimately led to the Basel Convention on Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal and the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants, and governments throughout the world enacted national legislation on pollution control, often with the advice of the Environmental Law Centre. The impact has been a significant reduction in at least some forms of pollution.

At the 1958 General Assembly in Athens, IUCN laid the groundwork for the World Heritage Convention, and has continued to play an important role in its implementation; IUCN remains responsible for the formal evaluation of natural sites nominated for inclusion on the World Heritage list, thereby sustaining its impact on the international efforts to conserve natural areas of outstanding universal value. The subsequent General Assembly, in Warsaw in 1960, built the foundations for the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES), another convention to which IUCN has made substantial and continuing contributions, drawing especially on the expertise of the Species Survival Commission. At the 1972 General Assembly, in Banff, Canada, the support to the World Heritage Convention was further strengthened, and the Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (which IUCN helped to draft) was strongly supported through IUCN offering to host the Secretariat (an arrangement that has lasted until the present).

The main elements of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) were identified at the Christchurch General Assembly in 1981, which called for IUCN’s Secretariat to analyze the technical, legal, and economic and financial matters relating to the conservation, accessibility and use of genetic resources with a view to providing the basis for an

Landmark developments in the history of IUCN

- The World Heritage Convention, 1968
- The Ramsar Convention, 1971
- The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES), 1974
- The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), 1992
- The Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity & Ecosystem Services (IPBES), 2010
international arrangement and for rules to implement it. Numerous subsequent resolutions added further support to the emerging Convention on Biological Diversity, which has become a heartland issue for many IUCN Members, and for the organization as a whole (for example, resolutions in Madrid on wild genetic resources and in San José on endangered species habitat protection and on development of international environmental law, both contain details on elements of what eventually evolved into the CBD). Once the CBD entered into force, IUCN Members also supported its Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety (Bangkok, 2004), which IUCN helped to draft. The CBD is now the leading international instrument for addressing the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity, promoting equitable sharing of the benefits from trade in genetic resources, and ensuring that any trade in genetically modified organisms is subject to the appropriate oversight.

Also at the Christchurch General Assembly, IUCN further promoted the Law of the Sea, with numerous other resolutions dealing with specific aspects of marine conservation. These included deep sea mining and establishment of protected areas of the deep sea, Antarctica Environment and the Southern Ocean, the environmental law of the sea, the Polar Bear Convention (Banff, 1972, and for which IUCN’s Polar Bear Specialist Group is the technical advisor), and many others. The support for legal protection of the oceans has continued to grow, with the Barcelona Congress issuing several marine-related resolutions with legal implications, such as achieving conservation of marine biodiversity in areas beyond national jurisdictions. However, much remains to be done in the field of marine conservation, requiring unprecedented cooperation among Members, Commissions and IUCN’s Global Marine and Polar Programme.

Back on land, IUCN supported the African Charter for Protection and Conservation of Nature (Nairobi, 1963), the World Charter for Nature (Kinshasa, 1975 and Madrid, 1984), the establishment of an international database on environmental law (Banff, 1972 and Barcelona, 2008), the ASEAN Agreement on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (Montreal, 1996), and the International Covenant on Environment and Development (Montreal, 1996 and Barcelona, 2008). IUCN’s Environmental Law Centre contributed to the drafting of many of these, typically with support and inspiration from the Commission on Environmental Law. The actual impact of these initiatives has been mixed, but they remain available when the conditions are conducive to their full implementation.

In summary, the impact of IUCN on establishing the international legal framework for conservation has been substantial, and this framework has helped establish IUCN’s own priorities for action.
Chapter 3: Identifying Emerging Issues in Conservation

Conservation is a constantly evolving field, and the IUCN meetings of Members provide an excellent opportunity to identify emerging issues that may not have yet appeared on the global conservation agenda, the consciousness of the public, or even the attention of governments. Resolutions provide an opportunity to identify such issues and at least begin to generate the necessary actions. Notable among such issues are:

- Phasing out the concept of maximum sustainable yield of individual species and replacing it with ecosystem management (Kinshasa, 1975);
- Addressing energy and conservation, including greater emphasis on renewable forms of energy (Kinshasa, 1975, long before alternative forms of energy became an urgent priority);
- Pointing out that renewable energy may not always be benign in its effects on nature (Christchurch, 1981), an issue that is now receiving increasing attention;
- Recognizing the watershed as a particularly useful scale for conservation management (Caracas, 1952);
- Calling attention to climate change and its impact on conservation (Warsaw, 1960) several decades before this was generally recognized as a major issue, with subsequent assemblies dealing with the issue in more detail; Barcelona, 2008, for example, addressed reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation, climate change and overexploitation of natural resources, climate change mitigation targets and actions for biodiversity conservation, climate change and human rights, and mobilizing action to build resilience and assist adaptation to climate change of coral reefs and marine ecosystems and people that depend on them;
- Calling for conservation of marine resources, including krill (Banff, 1972 – note that the loss of krill is only now becoming a major international concern);
- Promoting protection of mangroves (Christchurch, 1981), now recognized as a major concern in terms of the multiple ecosystem services these forests provide;
- Identifying some of the environmental consequences of nuclear war (San José, 1988);
- Providing guidelines regarding research and scientific collecting of threatened species (Barcelona, 2008);

IUCN at a glance

- The world’s oldest and largest global conservation network
- A unique democratic union with more than 1,200 State and NGO member organizations in some 160 countries
- Almost 11,000 expert volunteers generating scientific and legal knowledge, and developing standards for the conservation community
- Over 1,000 staff in 45 offices worldwide
- Hundreds of partners in governments, NGOs and scientific, business and local communities
- Publishes vital knowledge products such as the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species™, the world’s leading resource on the conservation status of plant and animal species
- Thousands of field projects and activities around the world, combining the best available science with the traditional knowledge of local communities
- Official observer status at the United Nations General Assembly
- Funded by governments, bilateral and multilateral agencies, member organizations and corporations
- Total annual revenue (2010) CHF 113 million
expanding conservation action to the landscape scale (Barcelona, 2008, addressing the European Green Belt Initiative, ecological connectivity in the alpine region, and enhancing ecological networks and connectivity between conservation areas);

- recognizing the growing importance of the private sector in supporting conservation (for example, Montreal, 1996, on a productive relationship between IUCN and the private sector and Barcelona, 2008, addressing issues such as guidelines for conservation organizations wishing to work with the private sector, impacts of infrastructure and extractive industries on protected areas, and citizens’ advisory councils for large-scale extractive industry projects);

- identifying the importance of addressing conservation and international trade (Buenos Aires, 1994);

- converting military bases into conservation areas (Buenos Aires, 1994);

- reducing undersea noise pollution (Bangkok, 2004); and

- promoting conservation in cities (Bangkok, 2004).

Resolutions have also supported issues that were already well recognized, but receiving inadequate attention. An outstanding example at the Barcelona Congress was marine conservation, which was the subject of no less than 24 resolutions, covering topics like fisheries management, species in need of conservation, conservation of marine biodiversity in areas beyond national jurisdictions, establishing marine protected areas, and conservation of mangroves and coral reefs. These resolutions have helped place IUCN in the middle of the growing international effort to conserve the world’s oceans and their biological riches.

The actual impacts of these resolutions have varied, but many of them helped to mobilize broad support among the IUCN Membership for new approaches to conservation action (many of which are now in the mainstream) and emerging issues that required the greater attention they are now receiving.
4. Mobilizing Specific Actions on Species and Protected Areas

IUCN has long been recognized as a leader in the conservation of species and protected areas, with especially strong Commissions of volunteers in these fields and numerous Members as well as strong Secretariat teams dealing with them. Resolutions have offered Members an opportunity to bring attention to principles of wildlife management, such as:

- standards for captive management (Kinshasa, 1975);
- numerous resolutions on species affected by trade, such as the CITES ivory quota system (San José, 1988);
- control of invasive alien species (for example, on carnivorous snails for biological control, San José, 1988);
- sustainable use of wild living resources (Buenos Aires, 1994, Montreal, 1996, Amman, 2000, Bangkok, 2004 and Barcelona, 2008);
- elimination of the illegal use of poisoned bait as a method for controlling predators in the European Union (Barcelona, 2008); and
- introduction, translocation and re-introduction of wild species (Buenos Aires, 1994).

Plants, too, have received considerable attention, for example at the 2000 Amman World Conservation Congress, which supported IUCN’s preparation of a Global Programme for Plant Conservation, which was subsequently the basis for the Global Strategy on Plant Conservation adopted by the Convention on Biological Diversity in 2002 and a revised version supported by IUCN that was adopted by the CBD in 2010. In terms of impacts, many of these principles, such as sustainable use and standards for introduction and translocation, are now standard operating procedures for many countries.

Numerous resolutions have also addressed individual species needing conservation action. These are too many to list, but examples, among many that could be cited, include: kouprey (Caracas, 1952); lowland gorillas (Warsaw, 1960); orangutans, spotted cats, marine turtles, birds of paradise, blue whales and red colobus monkeys, all at the Nairobi General Assembly in 1963; giant panda (San José, 1988); and the Australian population of salt water crocodiles (Madrid, 1984, a population that has now strongly recovered). Tigers were singled out at the New Delhi General Assembly in 1969, which helped lead to India’s Project Tiger, which was launched in 1972 and has been credited with saving the Bengal tiger. More recently, IUCN responded to the rapid die-off of vultures in South Asia (Bangkok, 2004) and was instrumental in calling the world’s attention to the amphibian crisis and how to address it (Barcelona, 2008), making this a top global conservation priority.

In the field of protected areas, it was early recognized by IUCN Members that international cooperation could provide essential support for the national agencies that were seeking to establish such areas. At the 1958 Athens General Assembly, Members agreed that IUCN should promote the establishment of a United Nations List of National Parks and Equivalent Reserves, and take responsibility for compiling the list: it is now known as the World Database on Protected Areas, and includes over 100,000 sites. IUCN’s Protected Areas Programme works with UNEP’s World Conservation Monitoring Centre in maintaining and promoting this list, which is freely available at www.wdpa.org.

Many fundamental principles that are now broadly accepted in protected area management were brought to public attention by IUCN resolutions, including:

- using ecological criteria for establishing boundaries of protected areas (Banff, 1972);
- establishing categories of different types of protected areas (New Delhi, 1969, updated at Bangkok, 2004);
- recognizing private protected area systems (San José, 1988);
- providing best practice protected area guidelines for ecological restoration (Barcelona, 2008);
- recognizing the value of community conserved areas (Bangkok, 2004) and municipal protected areas (Barcelona, 2008);
- promoting transboundary protected areas (Bangkok, 2004); and
- recognizing and conserving sacred natural sites in protected areas (Barcelona, 2008).
Among the many individual protected areas or protected area systems where IUCN resolutions have provided support are: Killarney National Park, Ireland (Edinburgh, 1956); Japan’s national parks (Warsaw, 1960); the national parks of Ecuador, Indonesia, Jordan, Kenya, South Africa and Sabah (all at the 1963 General Assembly in Nairobi, which also passed resolutions on individual protected areas such as Abruzzo, Gran Paradiso and Gombe Stream); Kahuzi-Biega National Park (Lucerne, 1966, now a World Heritage Site); Volcanoes National Park, Rwanda (New Delhi, 1969); the Great Barrier Reef (now a World Heritage Site) and the Firth of Thames, New Zealand (now named a Ramsar Site – both from Christchurch, 1981); and tropical rainforest in Queensland (Madrid, 1984, now a World Heritage Site).

Of particular interest was a resolution at the Banff General Assembly (1972) which proposed a transboundary protected area between the US and Canada, leading to the Kluane/Wrangell-St. Elias/Glacier Bay/Tatshenshin-Alsek transboundary World Heritage Site, the world’s largest such protected area and an important example of connecting individual protected areas to create much larger contiguous areas that can support wide-ranging species and potentially adapt to changing climatic conditions. Many subsequent resolutions promoted transboundary protected areas and conservation corridors, with an outstanding example being the Barcelona resolution on the Great Ecological Connectivity Corridor that would include the Cantabric Range, the Pyrenees, the Massif Central and the Western Alps of western Europe. The impact of IUCN on protected area establishment and effective management can be indicated by the rapid growth of protected areas in virtually all countries of the world, often based on the principles indicated above.

While this short paper has given only a small taste of the impact of IUCN’s resolutions, it has also demonstrated that IUCN has long been in the forefront of the conservation movement, indicating important new ways of finding progress in an increasingly complicated world, seeking international cooperation through environmental conventions, and recommending effective approaches to seeking a healthy environment that can enhance human well-being.