



Compilation and revision of the laws and regulations of protected areas in accordance with international conventions and obligations

Atefeh Mahdi ¹, Dariush Karimi ^{1*}, Parvin Farshchi ², Mostafa Panahi ³

¹ Department of Environmental Law, Faculty of Natural Resources and Environment, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, IRAN

² Department of Environmental Pollution, Faculty of Natural Resources and Environment, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, IRAN

³ Department of Environmental Economics, Faculty of Natural Resources and Environment, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, IRAN

*Corresponding author: dkaimi1@gmail.com

Abstract

Iran is a country with a rich diversity and unique biodiversity. But the importance of protecting biodiversity, both in terms of animal life and plant life, is not well understood and considered by governments and organizations that are involved with it, as it is worthwhile. For this reason, the destruction process has begun in the distant past and over the past decades, and its biodiversity has been severely endangered. It should be noted that the quaternary areas (National Park, Protected Areas, National Natural Reserve, and Wildlife Refuge) are considered among the most valuable natural heritage of the country, according to accepted standards among all nations of the world. In recent decades, the reflection of the perceived suspicion of the responsible authorities about the irreparable and multi-faceted values of these regions has provoked a lot of disregard for their protection and even jeopardized their existence and survival. Studies show that the protected patterns, along with the intensification of the destruction process throughout the country, and the weakness of the environmental protection agency in the management, control and monitoring of destructive human activities, on the other hand, have greatly changed, and as a result of significant features and values, In recent decades, they have gradually lost their indissoluble assets and have gradually moved away from their desirable past. According to the research, there are certain rules and criteria for protecting protected areas in international and domestic law, and most of the legal and national standards for protecting areas are in line with international standards. However, there is also a need for review, because increasing compliance with legal rules and national obligations with international rules and regulations will make it more effective to protected areas. In this descriptive-analytical study, we will try to review and revise the laws and regulations of protected areas according to international conventions and obligations.

Keywords: convention, obligations, international, national, review, protected areas

Mahdi A, Karimi D, Farshchi P, Panahi M (2019) Compilation and revision of the laws and regulations of protected areas in accordance with international conventions and obligations. Eurasia J Biosci 13: 349-357.

© 2019 Mahdi et al.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License.

INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, several factors, such as population growth, uncontrolled harvesting of natural resources, habitat degradation and pristine ecosystems, climate change, the entry of invasive alien species into ecosystems have threatened protected areas. Protected areas are considered as important tools for the conservation and preservation of biodiversity in all its aspects (diversity of species, genes and ecosystems) and have economic, social and cultural values (including educational and research aspects, visual attractiveness). Therefore, effective national, international regional laws are important to ensure the security of such areas. Global experiences have shown

that no protected area in the world, without a legal framework and having strong supportive policies, are not capable of survival and they are rapidly undergoing human interference. Hence, the existence of a legal framework based on international rules and obligations reflects the fundamental principles, guidelines, and coherent legal provisions necessary to ensure the conservation and management of such areas. In this descriptive-analytical study, we try to study the national legal standards for protected areas and to review them

Received: November 2018

Accepted: April 2019

Printed: May 2019

in accordance with international conventions and obligations.

PROTECTED AREA

Protected area is one of the natural resources of the country, including forest and rangelands, plains, water and mountains, which are of particular importance in terms of the necessity of preserving and propagating the wildlife, or preserving or restoring plants and their natural condition. It is under protection. The destruction process in these areas is growing and rarely have favorable conditions. The average size of these areas is close to 120 thousand hectares and is often influenced by destructive human activities (Harati et al. 2013: 28).

INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS ON PROTECTED AREAS

World Heritage Convention (WHC)

This committee has been established to protect the world's cultural and natural heritage, which has an exceptional value in the world, and each of the committed States should, as far as possible, list a list of all the cultural and natural heritage property in its territory that is relevant to this. The committee will deliver the necessary documents regarding the location, location and importance of the property in question. This list is not considered comprehensive, as a result of which the committee is responsible for the following tasks:

- The preparation, completion and publication of the World Heritage List and the list of World Heritage Sites, which require major operations to save them.
- The Committee will examine the application for international assistance received by the states parties to the convention, and publish the list of assets provided by them internally. The purpose of this request may be the protection, identification or revival of the property.
- The committee will decide on using the resources of the fund and will provide means to increase the resources of the fund, and in this case will take all useful measures.
- The committee cooperates with international, national, governmental and non-governmental organizations that have similar objectives for the purposes of the convention. These organizations include the international study center for the protection and restoration of cultural Property¹, the international council for buildings and landmarks², and the international union for the conservation of nature and its resources³.
- The committee also has other tasks, such as the formulation of executive directives, the internal

committee rules, and the organization of meetings and the presentation of the report at the general meeting of the state's parties to the treaty.

In accordance with article 15, paragraph 1, of the 1972 UNESCO Treaty, a fund for the protection of the cultural and natural heritage of the world, called the World Heritage Fund, is set up in accordance with the provisions of the UNESCO's Financial Regulations, which it includes compulsory and voluntary quotas for member States of the Commission (Dabiri et al. 2014).

Human and Residential Plan (MAB)

Despite having strong regional components, humans and the planet are international primary documents. They are legacies that began in the mid-1960s when an international biological program was proposed to examine a series of protected areas of the system from a protected site from a genetic source. This idea was developed in 1968 at the intergovernmental conference at UNESCO in conjunction with the need to protect genetically modified resources⁴, habitats and ecosystems, from scientifically based experts for rational use and discussion of the resources of the planet, and the word spheres earth (biosphere) entered the international vocabulary. In the same year, another UNESCO conference argued that the goal of dialogue should not be to manage resources⁵. In the following year, UNESCO argued that parks were known as a biosphere reserve network for a globally harmonized network of national parks, bio reserves and other protected areas that could be used for multiple purposes such as scientific research in the 1970s.⁶ The human and the planet met the international coordinating council for the first time in 1971 and included the idea of a wider global network of protected areas.

Although the strong principle of humankind and the biosphere program was a slow process. At a formal congress in 1982 (in Minsk) was re-examined. The part of the congressional outcomes was an independent appraisal of the concept of earth reserves. The reassessment came to the conclusion that the core of the earth's reserves, which, unlike other forms of protected areas, has three central functions on the planet. These are the conservation of the genetic resources of an international network for local sustainable monitoring and development. This reappraisal was eventually approved by the seventh conference of the United Nations in 1995 in the framework of the law on reserves of the planet. In 2002, parts of humankind and the planet proposed to strengthen the rule of law through the design of a legally binding instrument, they preferred to keep it flexible. In

¹ ICCROM

² ICOMOS

³ IUCN

⁴ Biosphere Resources (UNESCO Natural Resources Research)

⁵ UNESCO (1968) Use and conservation of biosphere

⁶ UNESCO (1970) Long-term plan for intergovernmental and interdisciplinary programs for humans and the biosphere

2006, there were 507 human and bio-sites in 102 countries.

Convention on International Importance of Wetlands, Particularly Aquatic Bird Habitat

Wetlands are one of the most important natural habitats in the world and life-saving systems, which are among the most productive environments in the world, which have always been threatened, degraded and endangered throughout the history of human life. As technology and industry grow in the early twentieth century, and the attention of governments and nations to the issue of environment and wildlife, government representatives are motivated to become familiar with this rich ecosystem and to participate globally in the protection of wetlands and to use them as tremendous capitals of countries. The convention created "internationally important wetlands, especially as aquatic birds habitats", which became known as the place where it was held, Ramsar. The unique feature of the convention on the important international wetlands of Ramsar that it is the first modern treaty between nations to protect natural resources. One of the major goals of the Ramsar Convention is to prevent global degradation of wetlands and to protect the remaining wetlands through the use of reasonable natural resources, which will be possible through international cooperation, appropriate policy-making, capacity building and technology transfer (Mohammadi and Najafi 2017)

The objectives of the Convention are mainly to prevent the destruction of wetlands, to ensure their conservation, and to pay attention to their economic, cultural, scientific and tourism values and to prevent them from drying as habitats of animals, especially aquatic birds and aquatic animals, and to make reasonable use retention is focused on future generations. The Wetlands Convention came into force after the adoption in 1971 of the seventh instrument of acceptance or approval by UNESCO (the Constitutional Maintenance Authority). Subsequently, the text of the convention was amended by the "Paris Protocol" in 1982 on the increase of Article 10 of the convention and the "Regina Reforma" in 1987 in relation to a series of amendments, in particular on Articles 6 and 7 of the convention on the functioning of the convention, the mandate of the convention, the Strengthening of the role The conference of the Parties, the creation of a standing committee and permanent secretary-general. The Secretariat of the Ramsar convention is located in gland, Switzerland, and its second branch in Slim Bridge, England. The Permanent Committee, as the main pillar

of the Ramsar Convention, is the executive director of the Convention. The scientific and technical appeals committee is another important body of the convention that plays an essential role in advancing the objectives of the Convention (Karamkhani 2003: 153, Muharram-Nezhad 2006: 121).

Antarctica

Antarctica is partly about the discussion of unconventional protected areas. The need for greater conservation of Antarctic animals was discussed at the first international conference of Parks in 1962. Two years later, members of the council responded to agreed measures to create a method, including protected areas, in particular (mineral springs). However, progress in these areas was very slow in two areas of coverage and a real list of protected areas.⁷ In spite of the second world congress in national parks, the need to increase the establishment of protected areas in the polar regions was emphasized and the debate on the design of the Antarctic and the surrounding seas as the world's first park (UN-sponsored)⁸ to protect plants and animals effectively. The agenda for the Antarctic Treaty was 1981. The theme was re-launched next year at the third world conference in National Parks. To everyone's attention, the prospect of exploration of minerals before the due date with the cost of the environment of Antarctica. As a negotiation with the goals of government development and then solving before the Madrid Agreement, a complex system has been developed to protect outstanding or high-value areas. These developments covered 8 different types of protected areas⁹. This system (including a simplified nationwide program) was combined with the Madrid 1991 agreement and annex V was documented. Despite the new government, protected areas backed by the Madrid agreement were still under the 1964 agreement. Finally, it is important to note that, with regard to marine protected areas (effectively protected areas for their scientific value), the registration process has been carried out in conjunction with the convention on the conservation of Antarctic marine living resources (CCAMLR), which created areas that they allow them as part of their protective measures. In 2006, 45 states that had entered into an Antarctic Treaty, and 29 states from these states were advisory parties.

United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS)

The United Nations Convention on the law of the sea, adopted on December 10, 1982, was adopted on November 16, 1994, and provides a comprehensive dietary regime for the world's seas and oceans for all

⁷ Recommendation3: Protection from the Arctic and ecosystem in Eliot. The Second National Conference of the National Park (1972 Lausanne)

⁸ Proposition5: Creation of Antarctica as a World Park in the United Nations in Eliot

⁹ Specially Protected Areas of Marine Sites Scientific Interest and Historical Sites, Particularly the Conservation Areas and Use of Special Programs for Tourism and Monitoring of Environmental Protection Sites

possible uses of their waters and resources. The convention covers the traditional rules related to the use of seas, while introducing new regimes and legal concepts and introducing new issues. The convention covers a framework for the development and evolution of specific areas of the law of the sea.

There are a number of agreements in the regional maritime area that have specific agreements to increase the establishment of regional marine protected areas. However, most of the seas (with the exception of the somewhat unique and semi-closed Mediterranean Sea) are clear that their laws are local and they are not applied to the Free Seas. Accordingly, the overall belief and practice is MPAs (marine protected areas)¹⁰

In the Free Seas, it should be constructed through an international channel. The international channel is suitable for UNCLOS. However, despite the imposition of coercion on all parties, through Article 192 of the Association, they helped protect and maintain the marine environment.

The United Nations consultative organization for ocean affairs and maritime affairs began its work in 1999, and in 2000 the United Nations decided to convene the first UNIPOLOS meeting to facilitate the review of the oceans. The meeting included a review of 13 different topics. Given the repeated recognition of the MPA master's degree, the plan was supported by the WSSD (World Summit on Sustainable Development) and the insistence of the MPA (a global agreement to address all aspects of the biodiversity), which made this important. The issue will be identified. Given the fact that UNICPOLOS (the organization) emphasizes the efforts of developing countries and facilitates the use of marine protected areas in accordance with international law, it has not yet succeeded in developing a clear platform and method for its development.

International Maritime Organization (IMO)

Marine Environment Protection Committee, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) has conducted its studies on issues related to sensitive marine areas (PSSAs) in response to one of the resolutions of the international conference on the safety of oil ships and the prevention of pollution that it was held in 1978. Negotiations on the issue of acceptance of the guide for the determination of particularly sensitive sea areas continued from 1986 to 1991, and peaked in 1991 with the approval of (17) 720 A. By following continuous efforts to develop clear and understandable concepts in the guide, the assembly passed (88) 215 885 A and (22) 927 A (MEPC / IMO, 2006).

The purpose of this document is to explain the method of identifying and introducing sensitive areas and adopting special conservation regulations.

Definition of particularly sensitive sea areas is presented as follows:

"A particularly sensitive marine area is a region that, due to the importance of its recognized scientific, socio-economic or ecological characteristics, requires special protection measures through IMO activities, otherwise the characteristic The unique nature of these areas can be damaged by international shipping activities" (Detjen 2006: p. 445)

The guidelines for identifying and designating areas of particular marine importance are as follows:

1. Provide guidance for drafting an application for the designation of member states (IMO) of especially sensitive sea areas;

2. Ensure the full attention of all beneficiaries, including coastal states, flag states and shipping associations and the environment during the course of the work, on the basis of the scientific, technical, economic and environmental information related to the areas for which activities shipping is vulnerable to injury and requires special protective measures, in particular to prevent, reduce or eliminate these hazards;

3. Developing a guide for the assessment of applications for the introduction of specially sensitive marine regions by the IMO,

Following the issue of protecting marine areas and the importance of these areas, many of the coastal countries of the world have identified and identified the sensitive coastal areas of the sea based on IMO criteria.

Specific Species Conventions

In the particular species approach, diversity exists in such a way that, in order to protect a particular species, an international legal document is introduced that either controls or completely prohibits the referred species. Accordingly, an optional seasonal restriction and restriction may be imposed that can be located around the species and surrounding residential areas. These types of options and policies are particularly significant in relation to birds and all types of fishing. Secondly, these policies can clearly be seen in at least 16 bilateral and multilateral agreements between 1940 and 1850.

After World War II, the possibility of seasonal restrictions in most international fisheries agreements has become easier. Also, the conversion of policies fully endorsed by a number of associations, including the global consultation on fisheries in Rome, and FAQ standards have also become easier. For example, the most known type of seasonal restriction is the international whaling convention. The principle of this limitation goes back to the 1937 convention, which it regulates the whaling. The convention specifies the main areas of whaling. The 1938 protocol has created a constraint on this convention; and in similar cases, it has been inserted in paragraph 5 of the 1946 convention. According to this viewpoint, it can be said that at various times, the commission may amend the provisions of the law by adopting regulations regarding the conservation

¹⁰ Marine protected areas

and exploitation of whale resources, as well as repairing or opening and closing or determining shelters.

Regional Conventions Relating to Protected Areas

There are a number of significant agreements for protected areas, including the creation of a protected area, including the 1940 treaty on the conservation of nature and the conservation of wildlife in the hemisphere, the 1976 convention on the conservation of nature in the South Pacific, and the 1985 agreement Specifically, protecting nature and natural resources. Also, the European and African Convention and some developments under the marine program of the region, which they have been developed with respect to protected areas.

Regional maritime conventions

The United Nations environment program UNEP began with the regional maritime program in 1974, and an increasing effort has been made to synchronize it, since the twentieth century. There is also a significant overlap in the approach in the regional treaties that lead them towards better management of each of the seas of the region.

A total of 13 regional conventions and their sub programs led to the wider coverage of the Caribbean, the west and central Africa, East Africa, the Mediterranean (with the Barcelona Convention), the Red Sea, the Gulf of Aden and the South East Ocean, It will be quiet.

In some areas, there is no regional convention (executive plan) such as the East Asian Sea and Northwest Peace. Other marine programs in the region include rebuilding plans that include the North Atlantic Ocean, the Baltic Sea, the Black Sea, and the Caspian Sea. All regional meetings, including extensive commitments to protect the marine environment, have been designed based on a number of protocols attached to them, which should be addressed to address all issues, such as oil spills and pollution.

In spite of the large number of regional agreements that they have been made in the marine discussion on recommendations for critical areas or MPAS, only a small agreement from the provisions of the special area protocol or its policies directly concerns the conservation of the marine region and it includes the 1990 Protocol, which deals with issues specific to protected areas and more widely to the wildlife and the Caribbean Marine Environment Protection and Development Convention (Caribbean Protocol). Also in 1995, the protocol on protected areas and biodiversity in the Mediterranean (the Mediterranean Protocol) and the protocol for the protection, management and conservation of the Sea and the coastal region of the pacific in the southeast, as well as the existence of a specific plan for the Helsinki Convention and the OSPAR, were approved. Secondly, although MPAS has not been developed under a

specific document, it has provided clear and precise mechanisms for the development and implementation of MPAS.

For example, Appendix 5 to the OSPAR Convention requires its signatories to establish methods in accordance with international law to institutionalize conservation and remedial measures in specific areas or specific species and habitats. These include marine and coastal protection in east Africa and the northwest Pacific action plan and regional and Saudi programs.

The situation in Africa

There are always four regional agreements for the creation of protected areas in Africa, with the exception of the most recent most recent treaties that were previously approved theoretically: 1900, 1933, 1968, and 2003. Since 2007, when the 2003 treaty was not yet enforced, the scope of the treaties was limited to African lands. Although implemented in 1900 and 1933 by colonial powers.

In 2003, only the adherence of African and autonomous African states to the African pact was emphasized. Despite the long history of treaties in Africa, all of the above conventions, including protected areas, were only raised as a subset of environmental justifications. Except for this, in 1985, a protocol was passed on protected areas of wildlife in the east African region, and was the only tool to create African protected areas. However, it was only practiced in some eastern states in Africa which it has been signed by all members of the African Union, contrary to the 2003 African Convention.

European context

The first regional project to create protected areas in Europe began with the creation of a European certificate in 1965. Although (strongly in Europe) both are updated and continue in the 21st century. The protected areas of the special European regions and its primary tool are the Bern convention for the conservation of habitats and wildlife in Europe. The convention is primarily about the wildlife and habitats of its various states and invites them to observe its provisions. The Bern convention was completed in full force with the 1992 guidelines. This recipe has been formed by a member of the convention, from the habitats of Europe. In order to establish its obligations (obligations under the convention), in particular with regard to the protection of the environment and habitats, they established guidelines for it, and then put forward the design of natural networks.

The Berne convention and habitat directives are a complete agreement for achieving the objectives. The two legal instruments of the region are aimed at protecting wild plants, animals and their natural habitats. Their main difference is in their territory, the circulars clearly and explicitly relate to the conservation of their natural habitat. This is a blueprint for implementing,

improving and strengthening the Berne convention program in the European community. Bern convention and environmental directives with European certificates and Emerald Natural Networks were completed in 2000. The environmental obligations of both conventions, Bern's and biological directives can be found through the design of the nature sites.

2000 network sites are also known as sites in the Emerald network. The Emerald network was established under the Berne convention in 1996. The type and quality of the agreement in 1998 was based on the same principles of 2000. The Emerald network indicates the expansion of non-aligned countries based on the 2000 model. The starting phase of the Emerald network includes:

Experimental projects in 17 countries from central and eastern Europe (Albania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Georgia, Hungary, Lithuania, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovakia, Slovakia, Macedonia and Ukraine) and three The non-aligned state of the western states, Cyprus, Malta and Turkey began. Iceland and Switzerland also joined the Emerald project and their financial resources were used in this project.

The number of members outside of the non-committed participants reaches 19. Including 14 members in central and Eastern Europe also includes a number of African states, such as Tunisia, Morocco, Senegal, and Burkina Faso, which has been added. With the inclusion of several states, the Emerald Network was able to act as a tool to help the East and the center of European countries and non-aligned countries that want to establish a Berne convention. (Of course, with the efforts of the central and eastern countries to implement this convention) for other governments, this is also a vision for setting up important standards.

From ancient times humans created rules for the protection of the environment, and continue until the 21st century. These goals and issues are regional and transnational (international) levels. So far, thousands of times laws and legal instruments have been put in place. The most significant international organizations that can

actually establish protected areas are WHC (MAB), (IMO), Ramsar, and the Antarctic Treaty. International organizations with a strong structure complementing this international organization. Particularly their European and African positions are noteworthy, which have somehow completed regional agreements in some of the seas. Although there is still a clear gap in the system, it is definitely underway in the international community and systematically identifies all areas that need protection.

INTERNATIONAL OBLIGATIONS REGARDING PROTECTED AREAS

Commitment to the Establishment of Protected Areas

The current international plans are not to increase the number and type of protected areas and improve their status and management within countries, regional and international. For example, the 1933 Convention of Africa (and its annexes of 1968¹¹ and 2003¹²) obliged the parties to "consider the possibility of establishing national parks and natural resources in their territories".¹³ The purpose of this was especially to exploit endangered species¹⁴. The Hemisphere convention of the West in 1940 was a very similar undertaking¹⁵. This commitment is valid both in general and in particular for long periods of time.

Commitment to Creation of Marine Protected Areas

A good example of a growing commitment to protect protected areas is the protected sea area (MPAs). International recognition this commitment can be recalled at the first world conference on National Parks in 1962, where all states were invited by maritime borders. To investigate as a matter of urgency, the possibility of creating marine parks or reserves for protecting underwater areas in all types is of particular importance.

The need for direct human action in this regard was repeated at the world congress. Protected areas were completed in 1972¹⁶, 1982¹⁷, and 1994, and received significant and powerful¹⁸ recommendations from the

¹¹ London Convention 1933. Article 7 (2).

¹² This approach was aimed at preventing the danger due to the purpose of the 1933 London Convention: "the permanent extinction or damage to a number of plant and animal species in certain parts of the world, and especially in Africa." London Convention, 1933. Introduction. Paragraph (1).

¹³ The convention obliges contracting states to "review [as soon as possible] or" as far as the conditions allow "the 1940 Hemisphere Convention. Introduction, Article II (I) and II (2).

¹⁴ Look at: Close the public meeting. "In Adams, A. (ED). The First World Conference is in the National Park. (Interior Ministry, Washington). 382. Recommendation No. 15.

¹⁵ Close the public meeting. "In Adams, A. (ED). The First World Conference is in the National Park. (Interior Ministry, Washington). 382. Recommendation No. 15.

¹⁶ All the relevant governments will be left out of the proper sea areas as national parks Reserves and the expansion of the boundaries of existing national parks and reserves include advising the representative ecosystems' National Marine

¹⁷ Parks. In Elliott, H. (ED). The second international conference is in the National Park. (1972, IUCN, Lausanne). 443

¹⁸ The third congress in 1982, called for, is to protect its territorial sea or other areas of jurisdiction from maritime and coastal areas, including in the Free Seas. Recommendation. Marine and coastal protected maps. National Recommendations for the Park Parks. In McNeely, J. (ED). National Parks, Conservation and Development. (Smithsonian, Washington). 765

National and international commission on international law¹⁹ on international law and a large number of agreements covering sea areas, including the Mediterranean sea, the Caribbean, the east Africa, South East Pacific and North²⁰. Against this background, the fifth world congress of the congress in 2002 proposed targets for the region²¹ and the CBD, and after long recognition of the MPAs²² for the establishment and maintenance of comprehensive offshore areas, in 2012, the effective management of the environment represented the systems national and regional protected areas through a global network to achieve the three conventions, and in 2010 the goal was to significantly reduce current rates of biodiversity²³. This objective was proposed with the suggestion that such coverage should include marine ecosystems beyond national competence²⁴ areas for international implementation. This decision was a CBD compatible with the WSSD²⁵ objectives, although clear support²⁶ and tacit support for them in the CBD are less, protection in this area is achieved precisely in the MPAS free seas.

Commitment to the Establishment of Transboundary Protected Areas

The second example is the success of the conservation of protected areas, the transboundary protected areas (TBPAs). By 2003, there were 169 TBPAs, including 666 protected areas in 113 countries²⁷. This site represents at least 10% of all protected areas in the world²⁸. These numbers do not indicate the speed of development. Instead, they have been showing the peak of more than seventy years of international cooperation, starting at 1,932²⁹ from the start point and the TBPAs tool, and consistently supporting the congress³⁰, the world of parks and a number of international laws³¹ on international environmental law and by the CBD, and also with the design of a number of international regimes. It should be noted that the MAB, WHC³² (which actively encourages TBPAs, with the exception of cooperation between future parties)³³ and Ramsar³⁴ (also leading the parties

¹⁹ Agenda 21. Chapter 17.7 and 17.85. The Global Plan of Action to Protect the Marine Environment from Ground Activities. Section 152 (D). UNEP (OCA)/LBA/IG.2/7. December 5, 1995. Finally, see the FAO Code for Behavioral Affairs. Section 6.8

²⁰ View the Protocol on Protected Areas of Wildlife and Wildlife in East Africa. Reprint in Austen, A. (ED). Legal Document on International Welfare of Animals and Conservation of Wildlife (Clover, London). Article 8. In 1989, the Protocol for the Conservation and Management of Maritime Protection and Coastal Area of the Eastern Pacific Ocean. Article. Caribbean Protocol. Articles 3 and 4 of this Mediterranean Protocol. Both of these are also in Austen at 160 and 165. Also see the OSPAR 2003/3 Recommendation on a marine protected area network. Sections 2 and 3.

²¹ IUCN 5 Congress of World Parks (2003, Durban). Recommendation 5.22: Creating a Global System for Marine and Coastal Network Protection

²² CBD Decision VII / 5 Maritime and Coastal Biodiversity. Section 20. CBD Decision II / 10. Paragraph 11. Annex to decision II / 10. Part IV. Also see CBD. Decision VII / 28.

²³ CBD Decision VII / 28. Protected areas. Section 18 and Purpose 1.1.

²⁴ See also Decision VII / 28. Appendix. 1.1.3

²⁵ IUCN, WCPA, WWF. (2003). Towards a Strategy for Free Seas.(IUCN, Tuber). 2. IUCN 5 Congress of World Parks (2003, Durban). Recommendation 5.22: Conservation of marine biodiversity and ecosystem trends through protected marine areas beyond national jurisdiction. Paragraph 2 CBD Decision VII / 28. Protected areas. Clause 29. Appendix I. Para 3. Objective 1.3. Para 1.3.2.cbd. Decision VII / 5 Maritime and Coastal Biodiversity. Section 30

²⁶ Report from the World Summit on Sustainable Development. A / Conference 199/20. WSSD Paragraph 32

²⁷ The UNICPOLOS report is at its fourth session. A / 58/95. (June 2003, June 26). Paragraph 22

²⁸ Zbiez, D. (2000). Transfrontier Transfer of ecosystems and internationally to neighboring areas of conservation. Available from the World Conservation Monitoring Center (IUCN). (2003) Transboundary Protected Areas for Peace and Cooperation (IUCN, Geneva). VII. Global Network supports the development of transboundary conservation initiatives. (IUCN 5th Congress of World parks).

²⁹ The first TBPA was created in 1932, when Poland and Czechoslovakia announced that they had shared their interest in reserving the nature. In the same year, the Waterton-Peace International Refrigerator, connecting the mountainous areas to the common borders between the United States and Canada.

³⁰ in 1972, the Second World Congress in National Parks, named after the government, "closely linked the planning and management of adjacent or national parks. Recommendation 6. International Park. In Elliott, H. (ED). Second World Conference on National Parks. (1972, IUCN, Lausanne). 444. See also Recommendation 5.11. A Global Network supports the development of transnational protection initiatives. (Fifth IUCN Park of the World Congress).

³¹ Seville Strategies. I.2 Goal and IV.2. UNESCO (2002). Biosphere Reserve: Places for People and Nature. (UNESCO, Paris). 136-140. for a complete study of these five transboundary reserves of the biosphere, see MAB. (2003). Five transboundary biosphere reserves are in Europe. (UNESCO, Paris).

³² Operating Procedures. 2002 EDN. Paragraphs 16 and 20

³³ Guinea, Liberia and Côte d'Ivoire with a half-natured reservation. The fifth session (1981) of the WHC. At 4. 26th session (2002) of WHC in 19. Belarus and Poland, with Belovezhskaya National Park. 16 sessions (1992) from WHC in 30. Colombia and Panama, with Les Katios Park. 18 sessions (1995) from WHC at 40. Talamanca booked reservations range in Costa Rica and Panama. Meeting 7 (1984) of the WHC, at 5th session (1990) of the WHC, at 5. India and Bhutan, with the Manas site. Meeting (2001) from WHC at 40-41. 26 sessions (2002) from WHC at 20. Zambia and Zimbabwe, with the Victoria Falls. The 13th session (1989) of WHC, at 12; and Bulgaria and Srebarna it's site. 27th meeting (2003) of WHC, on 16th.

³⁴ Including the postponed forests of Borneo, Indonesian forests. View decision 30 COM 8B.23. Ramsar. Article 5. (1971). Resolution 4.4. Implementation of Article 5. (1990, Montréal). Resolution 7.19. International cooperation. (1999, San Jose). Attachment Guidelines for International Cooperation under the Ramsar Convention. Resolution 8.25. Ramsar Strategic Plan. (2002, Valencia). Attachment Operational objective 12. Resolution 8.26. Implementation of the Strategic Plan 2003-2008. (2002, Valencia). Attachment to the universal implementation of the objectives for the Convention.

to cooperate in this field) have been working on this issue.³⁵

Even the global facility³⁶ (with 29 TBPA's under it)³⁷, and the international trade organization (ITTO) in this regard, despite the lack of clear objectives in most protected areas, is significant. However, the ITTO Conversion has actively supported a number of TBPA's involved in forest areas³⁸. Therefore, as a result of ongoing efforts by some international regimes over time, protected areas have increased.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Iran is a country with a rich diversity and unique biodiversity. But the importance of protecting biodiversity, both in terms of animal life and plant life, has not been understood and considered by governments and organizations that are involved with it, as it is worthwhile. For this reason, the destruction process has begun in the distant past and over the past decades, and its biodiversity has been severely endangered. The four areas (national park, protected areas, national natural effect, and wildlife refuge) are considered among the most valuable natural heritage of the country, according to accepted criteria among all nations of the world. In spite of the pursuit of monopolistic goals and tensions imposed in the pre-revolutionary years, it should be remembered that the objective of protecting these areas was not consistent with the goals of the government's decision-makers with predetermined and narrow objectives. Protecting these patterns of valuable, and sometimes unique, diversity of natural systems in the country has gradually changed in the evolutionary process of the society and has been shown to be more correct and at least as a safeguard as a prerequisite for the achievement of multilateral protection objectives.

Nevertheless, their stability and superiority in various aspects have been indisputable to their current situation. In recent decades, the reflection of the perceived suspicion of the responsible authorities about the irreparable and multi-faceted values of these regions has provoked a lot of disregard for their protection and even jeopardized their existence and survival. Studies

show that protected patterns, along with the intensification of the destruction process throughout the country and the weakness of the environmental protection agency in the management, control and monitoring of human destructive activities, on the other hand, have been highly transformed and, as a result of distinctive features and irreplaceable values In recent decades, they have gradually lost their status and are undeniably deprived of their desirable status. If the destruction continues, the quaternary areas on the one hand will be affected by the disturbing factors of their peripheral environment and, on the other hand, will be destroyed due to some technical failures of their formation and incompatible activities with their internal management. In such a situation, achieving the minimum conservation objectives is not only impossible, but these areas are not even able to maintain their existence and values in the short term and will soon become fragile and fragile systems. In this way, all the efforts and investments made in the last few decades will be wasted and, as a result, future generations will be deprived of the biological riches of their land.

It can be said that there are certain rules and standards for protecting protected areas in international and domestic law, and most of the legal and national standards related to protecting protected areas comply with international standards, which increase the compliance of legal rules and national obligations with international rules and regulations, it helps to protect protected areas.

SUGGESTIONS

1. Protection of all aquatic habitats of the country under the names of four regions
2. Expand areas
3. Evaluating the sensitivity of parks and areas (intrinsic factors and external threat factors)
4. Evaluation of the areas for their selection as a national park
5. Promote the level of support for areas
6. Introducing species again
7. Determination of specific biological areas

³⁵ Resolution 9.8. Simplified implementation of the Strategic Plan of the 2003-2008 Convention (2005, Kampala). Strategy 2.5. View Peru and Bolivia, according to Lake Ticacaca. Recommendation 6.17. Ramsar site in special countries. (1996, Brisbane); Austria, Czech Republic and Slovakia, Recommendation 6.17. Ramsar site in special countries. (1996, Brisbane); countries sharing high ecosystems, resolution 8.39. Anand Wetland as a Strategic Ecosystem. (2002, Valencia); and Greece and Turkey due to transfrontier wetland transfer of Orus / MERIC Delta. Recommendation 5.1.1. Greek Ramsar sites. (1993, Kochiro). Note, at the last stage, Turkey was certainly in favor of Luke. This suggestion, even insisting on reservation, explains Ramsar's international cooperation guidelines explicitly identified as a binding legal document. Clarity. International cooperation. (1999, San Jose).

³⁶ UNESCO (2004). ICC from the MAB program. SC-04 / CONF.204 / 14. P. 5. GEF (2005). GEF in action: conservation of desert areas. (GEF, Washington). 2-3. GEF (2005). Making a visible difference in our world. (GEF, Washington).

³⁷ UNESCO (2004). ICC from the MAB program. SC-04 / CONF.204 / 14. P. 5. GEF (2005). GEF in action: conservation of desert areas. (GEF, Washington). 2-3. GEF (2005). Making a visible difference in our world. (GEF, Washington)

³⁸ The TBPA's sponsored by ITTO include Pulong Tau National Park in Malaysia, in the Sabah and Saravak border region of Mengame-Minkebe, Faramarzor Goril, shelter at the Cameron border of Gabon; Betung-Kerihun National Park in Indonesia; the system of protected natural areas between Peru and Bolivia; Shahrokh Range between Ecuador and Peru; And Phatam Forest Conservation between Thailand, Cambodia and Laos. See ITTO. (2004). "Incredible Shahrokh. ITTO Tropical Forests Update. 14 (4).

REFERENCES

- Dabiri F, et al. (2014) Review of the Convention on the Protection of Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972) and the selection of several examples of national natural phenomena in Iran, and to comply with the criteria of the abovementioned Convention for the registration of World Heritage List. *Journal of Science and Technology Environment*, 16(1) (in Persian).
- Detjen M (2006) The Western European PSSA Testing a unique international concept to protect imperiled marine ecosystems. *Marine Policy*, 30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2005.04.002>
- EPC/IMO (2006) Revised Guidelines for the Identification and Designation Of Particularly Sensitive Sea Areas, International Maritime Organization.
- Herati J, et al. (2013) Investigating the relationship between the severity of pollution, trade and sustainable growth in Iran: A Simplified Equation System Model, *Quarterly Journal of Energy Economics*, No. 36 (in Persian).
- Karamkhani M (2003) Introducing the Ramsar Convention. *Journal of Environmental Protection*, No. 34 (in Persian).
- Mohammad Nejad N (2006) *Environmental Management and Planning*. Publication of the author (in Persian).
- Mohammadi M, Najafi V (2017) Protection of wetlands in international law, in the light of the Ramsar Convention. *Legal research*, 16(31) (in Persian).

www.ejobios.org