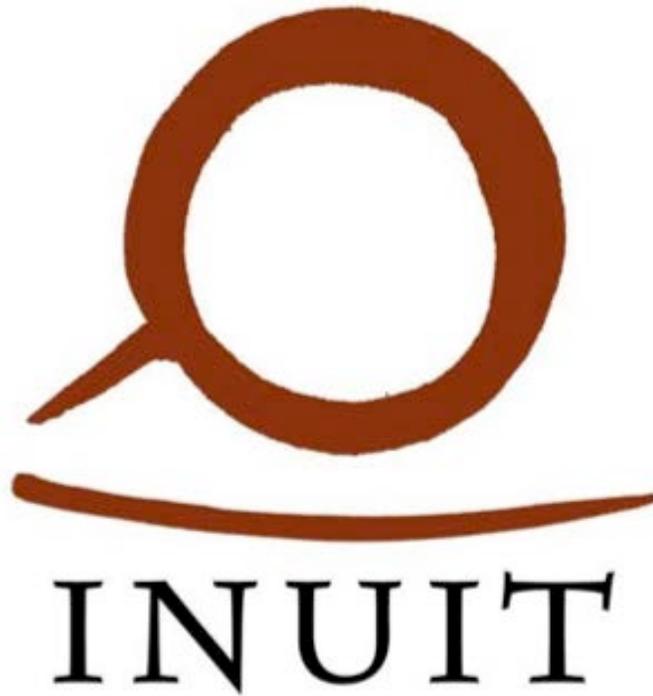


Management Options in the LIA For Consideration and Comment by Inuit



June 2014

For Discussion Purposes Only

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Executive Summary

The Last Ice Area (LIA) is a project by the WWF Arctic Programme which is looking to help safeguard the increasingly scarce Arctic summer sea ice habitat and ecology in Greenland and Nunavut. The summer sea ice is of great importance to Inuit communities and to Arctic wildlife, creating a potential confluence of interests in preserving the ecology of this cultural landscape between the WWF and the Inuit. With the LIA project the WWF Arctic Programme is interested in helping to sustain the Inuit traditional and modern economic and cultural uses of the summer sea ice as well as ensuring that the unique Arctic ecology can itself endure into the future, allowing future generations to live within it. WWF seeks to do this by setting up a specially designated area which will recognize and safeguard what may one day be the only Arctic summer sea ice habitat. The purpose of this report is to present and examine land use management models for protecting an Arctic summer sea ice environment in the context of how each model would affect Inuit governance and development in both Nunavut and Greenland. Nunavut and Greenland are both situated within very unique jurisdictional and legislative contexts, for example, the Nunavut Land Claims Agreement has very specific requirements, especially land use management and must be paid careful attention when looking at ecological conservation models. Further, both Nunavut and Greenland are facing great impetuses to grow economically, Nunavut having a fast growing and young population and Greenland slowly having its support from Denmark phased out, making a model which is compatible with sustainable economic development crucial. Generally, there were 4 models examined within this report, each being analyzed based upon how they would impact Inuit governance and influence economic development. The Models are as follows:

1. UNESCO World Heritage Site
2. National Parks (and Territorial Parks)
3. IUCN Designated Conservation area (wildlife refuge, migratory bird sanctuary, national marine conservation areas)
4. UNESCO Man and Biosphere Reserve

This report also examines how these models have affected governance of land by Indigenous peoples in other parts of the Arctic, specifically the Sámi within Norway and Sweden. A multinational transboundary site is likely a highly desirable option if the LIA project is deemed acceptable by the Inuit as this will allow for a stronger and more integral site which is thereby better able to safeguard the ice. Specifically, this would make the protection of both summer sea ice in northern Greenland and northern Canada possible in tandem. A transboundary site also limits options because some sites cannot cross boundaries and maintain the same governance institution (such as territorial parks). Of the remaining viable options, a UNESCO World Heritage Site may have the highest potential. It requires no changes to legislation or policy, prefers co-management governance, is supportive of modern and traditional sustainable cultural and economic practices by Indigenous peoples, recognizes cultural landscapes and is an excellent tool for tourism marketing. Further, Quttinirpaaq National Park at the northern tip of Ellesmere Island is already on the tentative list of World Heritage Sites for Canada and includes part of the LIA within its bounds. The modification of this World Heritage Site application would include a focus in recognizing the great importance of Arctic summer sea ice to the entire Arctic and the rest of the world. See report “Management Options in the LIA for Consideration and Comment by Inuit” for details.

A Changing Climate: Projected changes in sea ice extent

There has been a consistent and continuous loss of Arctic sea ice extent and volume over the last 60 years, incrementally changing the ecology of the Arctic. Although this loss cannot be attributed entirely to climate change, the IPCC's AR5 has reported that it is very likely that climatic forcing as a result of anthropogenic factors have at least contributed to the observed decline in Arctic sea ice extent (IPCC 2014, chapter 10.5). On average, the decline in ice extent observed in the period starting from 1979 (when regular satellite imagery capture began) to 2006 has been 9.1% per decade (Stroeve et al. 2007). Loss of sea ice has also been reported to be consistent over every successive season and decade since 1979 (IPCC 2014 chapter 4). This change in ice extent has not been even, as ice extent and volume have been impacted differently by season, by age and by region. Of particular note is the loss of multi-year and summer sea ice which, according to the IPCC, have declined an average 13.5% and 11.5% in extent respectively, higher than the average decline in sea ice extent (IPCC 2014 chapter 4). There are also indications that this decrease in sea ice extent is accelerating, (Comiso et al. 2008) reported an increase in the decline of entire ice cover from 2.2 and 3.0% per decade in 1979–1996 to about 10.1 and 10.7% per decade in the period between 1996 and 2006. Looking to the future, models for Arctic summer sea ice commonly forecast an essentially ice free summer Arctic by the mid to late 21st century (Wettstein and Deser 2014). Studies that have included traditional knowledge from Inuit support a change in Arctic sea ice not seen within memory as well as increasing temperatures, more variable weather and thinner sea ice (Government of Nunavut, 2005).

This large decline as well as projected continued decline in summer sea ice presents a significant challenge to Arctic wildlife and Arctic societies as ecologies which are based upon the existence of summer sea ice, and cultures which depend on these ecologies come under increased strain.

Why is the LIA important?

The Arctic ecosystem and the LIA

Arctic sea ice drives a unique ecosystem, the base of which is ice algae, whose productivity is affected by seasonal differences in light and nutrient availability (Bluhm and Gradinger 2008). In the spring, this ice algae blooms, feeding zooplankton such as amphipods which feeds diving birds and Arctic cod (*Boreogadus saida*) (Marz 2010). The Arctic cod is important to other birds, seals (which are eaten by polar bears), and beluga whales (Marz 2010). Further, as the ice melts in the summer, organic material from the ice algae falls to the ocean floor feeding pelagic and benthic energy ecologies (Marz 2010). Beyond merely the loss in ice extent, the age of the ice has a strong impact on ice algae densities, with first year ice having fewer species of ice algae than multi-year ice (Melnikov 2008). The total contribution of ice algae to primary productivity in the central Arctic was found to be 50%, however this is thought to be dropping due to mass reductions in both ice extent and multi-year ice (Marz 2010). Pelagic phytoplankton activity is increasing as the amount of open water increases, however it is not known what impact this will have on the higher trophic levels and whether the phenology and spatial occurrence of these organisms will align with those in other parts of the food web (Marz 2010). This makes the LIA highly important in the

future as those areas which retain summer sea ice represent structures which support the very base of the Arctic food chain.

Inuit and the LIA

The traditional way of life, dependence on the land, as well as the availability of country foods¹ in the Arctic are a strong part of Inuit culture and identity (ICC 2014). Despite southern culture making its way into Inuit communities, there remains a strong connection to the land for physical and cultural nourishment (ICC 2014). The sea ice is critical to this way of life as it not only gives access to country foods, but also to materials required for traditional art, tools, and clothing as well as access to the act itself as the practice of cultural heritage (ICC 2014). Movement between communities also takes place over the ice (ICC 2014). In the northern portions of Nunavut and Greenland within proximity of the LIA there are few permanent human settlements; Qanaaq (pop. 656) and Siorapaluk (pop. 68) in Greenland, and Ajuittuq/ Grise fiord (pop. 130) in Nunavut. The eastern and more southerly portion of the Arctic Archipelago has 26 Inuit communities in both Nunavut and Greenland and provides a rich environment for a host of marine species, mammals and birds.

Within the communities in proximity to the LIA, residents depend upon the sea ice and the ecosystem it supports directly (ICC 2014). Residents of Grise Fiord and Resolute Bay hunt and fish over a vast area year round, including the Lancaster Sound and part of the North Water polynya, which is an area of high biological productivity and diversity (Riewe, 1992). Winter and spring caribou and polar bear hunts are also undertaken by Grise Fiord hunters within the LIA, while Resolute Bay hunters use areas within the LIA in the spring for polar bear (ICC 2014). Within the Greenlandic portion of the area in direct proximity to the LIA lies the community of Qanaaq. Although its economy is becoming more greatly mixed with tourism and art, it retains a strong hunting tradition (ICC 2014). The community continues to rely upon sled dogs and kayaks for travelling, hunting, and whaling in part as it only receives supplies twice each summer, but also to meet cultural and nutritional needs (ICC 2014). Aside from the direct use of areas within the LIA, a massive number of different species (such as beluga, narwhal, seals, polar bear, bowhead, killer whales, snow goose, eiders, sandpipers, Arctic char, Arctic cod) harvested by Inuit migrate to and from the LIA, making the LIA significant to the whole of the Arctic region both culturally and ecologically (ICC 2014).

Report Purpose

This report is for the purpose of presenting information on potential governance and management models for the LIA. This information will form part of a discussion package that will be used to inform Inuit about possible options on establishing a governance regime for the LIA. The purpose is to find a path forward that is amendable to Inuit visions for the areas and in keeping with existing land use mechanisms and rights. It will do this by looking at governance and management models in place in other Arctic countries and the impact they have had on

¹“country foods” is a term Inuit use to describe traditional foods. <http://icor.ottawainuitchildrens.com/node/19>

governance and management there. The report will also review legislation relevant to cultural usage, land use planning and management and conservation within the two countries which are considered a potential part of the LIA.

Recommendations will then be made based on how each model reviewed within the context of how they:

1. Fit within legislation and land claims agreements
2. Affect traditional and current cultural land use
3. Provide economic opportunities
4. Affect the Inuit *de jure* and *de facto* power

Legislation and Policy

In order to properly understand how any given model will fit the context of the LIA, the policy and legislation of the political jurisdictions in which the LIA is set must be thoroughly understood.

Nunavut

Nunavut Land Claims Agreement (NLCA)

The Nunavut Land Claims Agreement (NLCA) is an extensive piece of legislation which dictates the proper nature of all activity occurring within Nunavut, therefore including both land use planning and conservation. Thus any potential model for the LIA must fit within the NLCA, making a thorough understanding of the NLCA imperative.

If the LIA were to be recognized/designated as a marine area, it must pay careful attention to article 15 (Marine Areas) of the NLCA given that there is current and traditional use of these areas by Inuit and that many of the marine areas covered by the LIA are vital for the wildlife which migrates throughout the Arctic. Inuit have legal rights to the use of these areas. Thus any model must not infringe upon or impede the use of marine resources by Inuit. In addition, marine areas fall under articles 5 (Wildlife), 6 (Wildlife Compensation), 8 (Parks), 9 (Conservation Areas), 11 (Land Use Planning), 12 (Development Impact), 23 (Inuit Employment Within the Government), 24 (Government Contracts), 25 (Resource Royalty Sharing), 27 (Natural Resource Development), 33 (Archaeology) and 34 (Ethnographic Objects and Archival Materials). Further, if the LIA is to extend beyond the bounds of any marine areas, as a Conservation Area it would further fall under article 9 and therefore would also fall under articles 13 (Water Management) and 20 (Inuit Water Rights). As a park it would fall under article 8, and would therefore not fall under any further articles.

Any conservation model implemented within Nunavut must negotiate an Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement, which is discussed in greater detail in the territorial park section of this report.

Nunavut Land Use Plan (NLUP)

The Nunavut Land Use Plan is a central planning document created by the Government of Nunavut under the jurisdiction provided by the NLCA. The document identifies that due to Nunavut's relative remoteness it has undergone limited amounts of development and that with the youngest, fastest growing population in Canada, combined with a high rate of unemployment it is seeking to develop economically in a context appropriate manner. The document also outlines the conservation and environmental priorities of Nunavut, detailing how they also link to cultural and economic priorities.

Economic development priorities

The NLUP identifies 3 central activities for sustainable economic development; mineral exploration and production, oil and gas exploration and production, and commercial fisheries (Nunavut Planning Commission 2012). In addition, sustainable tourism, outfitting, art materials and the harvest of terrestrial animals are also identified as economic development objectives (Nunavut Planning Commission 2012). Within this document there is a very explicit communication of an interest in sustainable and balanced economic development that is in line with a great respect for the land, which is important to keep in mind in regards to how conservation models align with the interests of Nunavut.

Conservation and environmental priorities

1. There are 6 priorities that the NLUP outlines in regards to conservation and the environment. Key bird habitat sites; sites which support at least 1% of the population of a species, subspecies or flyway population for any portion of the year. It is known that the LIA is highly important to many bird species and a confluence between key bird habitat sites and the LIA areas should be identified.
2. Caribou habitat; calving areas and migration routes have been identified as highly important areas for the conservation of Caribou. Of relevance to the LIA, there is a confluence of interest around migration routes, which are often over sea ice. With sea ice extent changing it may become important to protect summer sea ice which supports the movement of caribou (ICC 2014)
3. Atlantic Cod lakes; there are 3 known landlocked Atlantic cod lakes which are identified as being a high priority for conservation.
4. Climate Change; it has been set as an objective by the planning commission to “control and minimize greenhouse gas emissions, monitor climate change impact, encourage the development and adoption of adaptation strategies, and considers issues relating to changes in the landscapes due to climate change, such as the loss of glaciated terrain and permanent snow”. This priority has great overlap with the LIA as a conservation zone encompassing the LIA and could provide important research on climate change, perhaps also providing information on the impact of melting sea ice on community infrastructures and economies within Nunavut. Research on the LIA also directly addresses this priority

as it would aid in informing management strategies relating to the changes in the landscape due to climate change, given the at least partial role of climate change in the changing sea ice conditions (IPCC)

5. Cumulative impacts; the objective of the planning commission in this regard is to “address the cumulative social, cultural, economic and environmental impacts of a broad range of land use activities (including transboundary impacts) on the environment, wildlife and wildlife habitat”.
6. Transboundary Considerations; “to encourage the inter-jurisdictional management of land, air, and water resources; including both marine and fresh water.

The NLUP also identifies the following conservation models as being conducive to conservation land usage within Nunavut:

- National Parks Awaiting Full Establishment;
- Proposed National Parks;
- Proposed National Marine Conservation Areas (NMCAs);
- Thelon Wildlife Sanctuary;
- Migratory Bird Sanctuaries (MBSs);
- National Wildlife Areas (NWAs);
- Historic Sites; and
- Heritage Rivers

Greenland

Greenland land use policy:

Act of Inatsisartut No 17 of 17 November 2010 on planning and land use

Within Greenland the Municipalities are given charge of creating land use plans for their jurisdiction. Included within each of these plans is an account of the spatial, natural and economic resources, demographics and the private and public sector planning. The plan also includes projections and targets for municipal development, an inventory of urban and rural infrastructure, and a detailed zoning plan. All of this however, must be done in accordance with national planning directives laid out by the Naalakkersuisut (the appointed administrative portion of the Greenlandic Home Rule government). Municipal plans are then submitted to the Naalakkersuisut for review. The Naalakkersuisut can deem that modifications to a municipal plan are necessary, which, if it does so, will request that the local council have it modified in the requested manner within a period defined by the Minister. If this is not complied with in the defined length of time, the Naalakkersuisut has the power to change the plan itself to correspond with modifications at the expense of the local council. This illustrates that although the municipalities are directly in charge of forming land use plans, all plans must be approved by the Naalakkersuisut through conforming with national directives, giving the Naalakkersuisut and Inatsisartut (the elected Greenlandic Home Rule government Parliament) a significant amount of power in dictating land usage.

The Act also identifies national priorities in regards to nature and environmental protection. In regards to environmental protection it notes that “to protect the environment, planning and execution of activities, such as establishment of buildings and facilities, are to pay maximum attention to the environment and nature.” Further it dictates that, “National and international conservation of land areas is to be safeguarded in accordance with the Protection of Nature Act, existing Executive Order, administration plans as well as international agreements and conventions, such as RAMSAR areas and UNESCO areas.”

National Tourism Strategy

Tourism was estimated to account for 10% of all foreign exchange earnings in Greenland- approx. DKK 100 million. According to the Government of Greenland’s publication the “2012-2015 National Tourism Strategy”, Home Rule government seeks that income from tourism to make up a more significant share of export revenue by 2020. In the next 4 years the Naalakkersuisut seeks an increase in the number of cruise tourists by 5%, and 10% in land-based tourists, a growth in the number of employees in tourism by 5% and an increase in earnings by 5%. These priorities could align well with new conservation areas within Greenland.

Current Arctic Conservation Land Use Management Models

There are a wide variety of different models used to structure the governance of land which has been purposed for the conservation of cultural and/or natural values. However, there are largely four categorizations of management strategies by which Arctic land use could be designated in regards to conservation:

1. Jurisdiction under local institutions (municipal or autonomous region);
2. Jurisdiction under national or sub-national level government (e.g. as a national park);
3. Designation by the UN (e.g. as an UNESCO World Heritage site) or;
4. Managed privately as or supported by a commercial entity (e.g. Eco-tourism business).

The following section will look at how these models have been applied in other parts of the Arctic in circumstances of enough similarity to provide relevant case studies to the LIA.

Model: UNESCO Man and Biosphere Programme (MaB)

The MaB, launched in the 1970’s, is an initiative to forward research and capacity building around the improvement of the relationship between people and the environment globally. The programme is centred on the establishment of biosphere reserves, which are areas proposed by their inhabitants to demonstrate innovative ways of working and living within a landscape. Biosphere reserves are considered “living laboratories” for the purpose of demonstrating and researching integrated management of land, water and biodiversity (Pollock 2009). They also tend to embody the cultural heritage as well as embrace the current identity of a place as a cultural landscape that sustains traditional and contemporary lifestyles (Pollock 2009). Through this

structure the MaB programme seeks to target the ecological, social and economic dimensions of biodiversity loss and, by doing so, reduce this loss (Pollock 2009).

Man and Biosphere reserve are typically made up of protected core areas, buffer areas and a transition zone; core areas must be protected legally as a conservation area, buffer areas may have activities occurring within it which are highly sustainable (e.g research, sustainable resource use, eco-tourism), while the transition zone will have human settlement as well as cooperative resource development under a co-management model (Pollock 2009). Designation as an MaB reserve has no associated binding legislation or regulation, however designation must go under periodic review and designation can be removed from the site if criteria are not being met. This allows for the freedom to find context appropriate solutions to meeting the criteria of the MaB, while also ensuring that parties involved in the designated area meet a certain standard.

Case Study: Georgian Bay Littoral Biosphere Reserve

The Georgian Bay Littoral Biosphere Reserve is a MaB reserve in Ontario, designated in 2004, which is set within a multi-jurisdictional context with federal, provincial, First Nation and municipal governments all having a part in the governance of this biosphere reserve. The biosphere reserve spans 200 km of the eastern shoreline of Georgian Bay, stretching from the Severn River in the South to the French River in the North. There are 6 core areas within this reserve; one National Park, three Provincial Parks, and two provincial Nature Reserves, and 15 areas making up the buffer zone; 13 Conservation Reserves and two Enhanced Management Areas, all administered by the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources (OMNR) (Pollock 2009). Overall, land area within the GBBR is roughly split into 44% core and buffer areas (~22% core and ~22% buffer), 24% First Nation Reserves (among 7 First Nations), and the rest being made up of crown land and private property in 6 different municipalities (Pollock 2009).

The administration of GBBR activities is done by the proponent established GBBR inc., a non-profit organization whose board of directors is made up of the four key stakeholder groups; cottagers, boaters, Aboriginal communities, and permanent residents (Pollock 2009). The two main directions of the GBBR Inc. have been focussed around coordinating conservation activities and supporting sustainable tourism planning (Pollock 2009). There has been no change in the jurisdiction of governance on any of the land within the biosphere reserve, the parks remain managed by their respective park agencies, First Nation reserves maintain their governance structure, etc.

Conclusions

Of greatest relevance within this case study is the illustration of how the MaB reserve acted as a focal point for cooperation between parties. It did not impinge upon the area with any additional regulation, but provided a desirable goal for many parties and thus a focus around which the area

could be managed successfully despite the large number of different jurisdictional levels and parties involved.

In summary:

- Given the focus of the Man and Biosphere program on seeing people as inhabiting cultural landscapes, this model becomes an excellent reflection of the principles outlined in article 5 and 6 of the NLCA, e.g. implicitly ensuring and holding up the objective of providing “Inuit with wildlife harvesting rights and rights to participate in decision- making concerning wildlife harvesting.”
- As shown in the case study, the model is open and highly conducive to the type of co-management boards required under the NLCA
- The value added with a biosphere reserve is *de facto* power for the inhabitants of that landscape through international recognition of a significant cultural landscape. It lends *de facto* power as it creates a rallying point for inhabitants of the region, facilitating and empowering any resistance to development which is found unacceptable to the inhabitants of the region. As well, the additional recognition of the legitimacy of local governance only lends itself further to empowering this.
- The MaB model is highly open to tourism opportunities as it seeks to integrate and showcase the innovative ways in which humans have integrated their economy into nature. Designation may also create a unique tourism draw for Nunavut as there has not been a site designated as a UNESCO MaB in the Canadian North (see figure 2).
- The area in Greenland which is proposed to be included is already within a MaB reserve, thus it fits within legislation in place in Greenland.
- Designation as a transboundary MaB site could be a realistic goal for the LIA as there several potential core areas set up in both Greenland and Nunavut (Quttinirpaaq and the north east Greenland National Park, plus the Lancaster Sound NMCA).

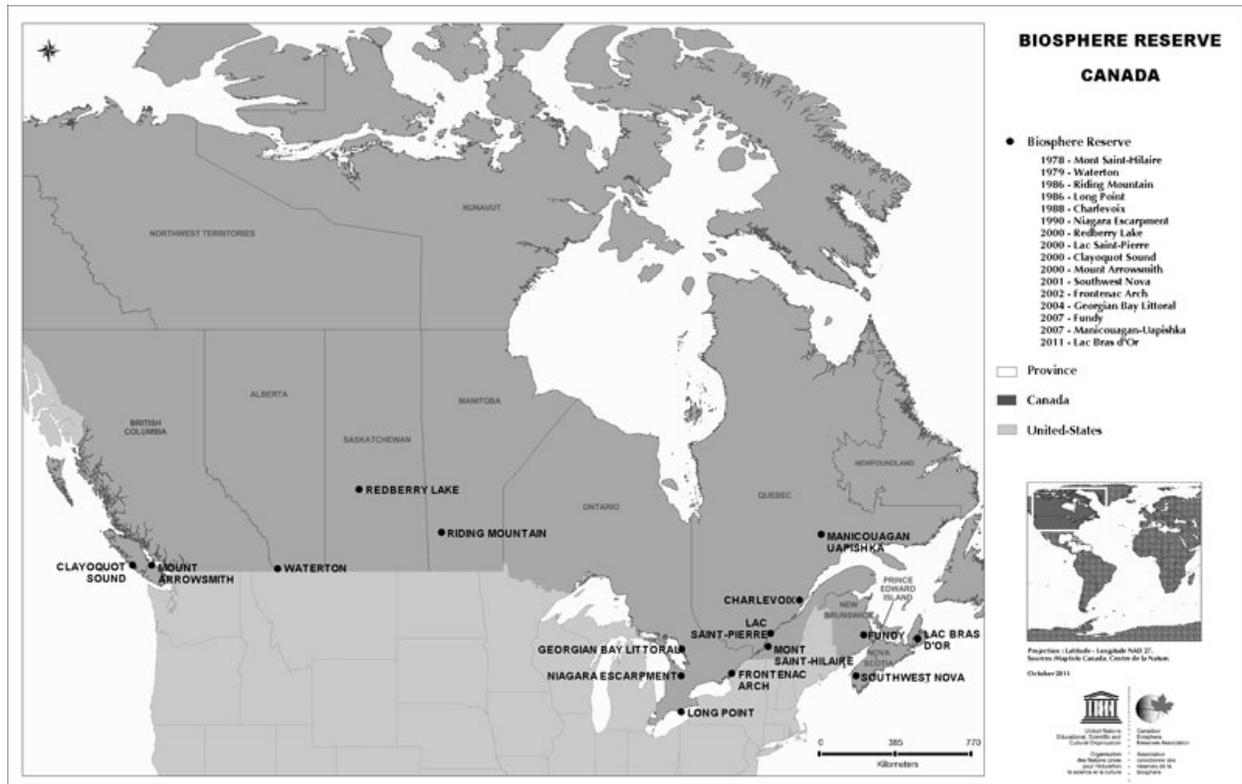


Figure 2: The locations of UNESCO MaB biosphere reserves in Canada (UNESCO 2014).

The Designation Process

The designation process for UNESCO Man and Biosphere programme follows the Statutory Framework of the World Network of Biosphere Reserves (UNESCO 1996). This document dictates that, the process of designation begins with states forwarding nominations with all requisite documentation to the secretariat, which will then check for the completeness of the nomination before passing it to the Advisory Committee for Biosphere Reserves, who will then decide whether to recommend it to the International Co-ordinating Council for a decision on designation. Nominations are compared against the 7 acceptance criteria at all stages, of which it must meet all criteria as follows;

1. It should encompass a mosaic of ecological systems representative of major biogeographic regions, including a graduation of human interventions
2. It should be of significance for biological diversity conservation
3. It should provide an opportunity to explore and demonstrate approaches to sustainable development on a regional scale
4. It should have an appropriate size to serve the three functions of biosphere reserves
5. It should include these functions through appropriate zonation, recognizing;
 - a legally constituted core area or areas devoted to long-term protection, according to the conservation objectives of the biosphere reserve, and of sufficient size to meet these objectives

- a buffer zone or zones clearly identified and surrounding or contiguous to the core area or areas, where only activities compatible with the conservation objectives can take place
 - an outer transition area where sustainable resource management practices are promoted and developed
6. Organizational arrangements should be provided for the involvement and participation of a suitable range of *inter alia* public authorities, local communities and private interests in the design and carrying out the functions of a biosphere reserve.
 7. In addition, provisions should be made for:
 - mechanisms to manage human use and activities in the buffer zone or zones
 - a management policy or plan for the area as a biosphere reserve
 - a designated authority or mechanism to implement this policy or plan
 - programmes for research, monitoring, education and training

Upon designation, extensions can be made to the reserve, following the same process of nomination.

Model: International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Protected Areas

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature is an environmental NGO which conducts both scientific and policy research, and leads efforts in conservation worldwide. Parts of its apparatus is the Protected Areas Categories System, which is an initiative which helps states designate and categorize conservation areas around the world. IUCN protected area designation is extremely open to a wide range of models for governance and levels of human usage of an area. The IUCN recognizes 4 different governance types for protected areas; Government, Shared, Private, and Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities. The Protected Areas Categories System is broken into 6 categories (with category 1 being further broken into 2 sub-categories), they are as follows;

Categories of IUCN Protected Areas

Category Ia: Strict Nature Reserve; are strictly protected areas set aside to protect biodiversity and also possibly geological/geomorphological features, where human visitation, use and impacts are strictly controlled and limited to ensure protection of the conservation values. Such protected areas can serve as indispensable reference areas for scientific research and monitoring.

Category Ib; Wilderness Area; protected areas are usually large unmodified or slightly modified areas, retaining their natural character and influence, without permanent or significant human habitation, which are protected and managed so as to preserve their natural condition

Category II: National Park; protected areas are large natural or near natural areas set aside to protect large scale ecological processes, along with the complement of species and ecosystems

characteristic of the area, which also provide a foundation for environmentally and culturally compatible spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and visitor opportunities

Category III: Natural Monument or Feature protected areas are set aside to protect a specific natural monument, which can be a landform, sea mount, submarine cavern, geological feature such as a cave or even a living feature such as an ancient grove. They are generally quite small protected areas and often have high visitor value.

Category IV: Habitat/Species Management Area; protected areas aim to protect particular species or habitats and management reflects this priority. Many category IV protected areas will need regular, active interventions to address the requirements of particular species or to maintain habitats, but this is not a requirement of the category

Category V: Protected Landscape/Seascape; A protected area where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant ecological, biological, cultural and scenic value: and where safeguarding the integrity of this interaction is vital to protecting and sustaining the area and its associated nature conservation and other values.

Category VI: Protected Area with Sustainable Use of Natural Resources; protected areas conserve ecosystems and habitats, together with associated cultural values and traditional natural resource management systems. They are generally large, with most of the area in a natural condition, where a proportion is under sustainable natural resource management and where low-level non-industrial use of natural resources compatible with nature conservation is seen as one of the main aims of the area.

Designation Process, Implications for Governance and Economic Development

The IUCN Protected Areas Categories System is voluntary in that it is a system which states can join and use to categorize their own protected areas, thus there is no external approval process as designation is done by the state itself. In addition, although there are no additional regulations and legislation associated with designation as an IUCN protected area nor any particular model which must be adopted for governance, categorizations are adopted seriously and the particular requirements for the category chosen for a site are usually met. Reporting to the IUCN is also voluntary, however certain UN resolutions and policies do request it is done regularly. Certain designations are more limiting in regards to the type of economic development allowed to occur within protected areas. Although access would be allowed for all Inuit under all categories to conduct traditional cultural and economic activities such as hunting and carving stone collection, category 1 sites would severely limit the development of any tourism activities, a priority identified in the Nunavut's economic development plan.

There are 13 IUCN protected areas within Nunavut, broken down into 5 national wildlife areas and 8 migratory bird sanctuaries (see Figure 3). Interestingly, one of the National Wildlife Areas, Polar Bear Pass National Wildlife Area, is categorized as a 1a strict nature reserve, however Nunavut Beneficiaries of the NLCA are allowed to hunt wildlife within this area for economic, social and cultural needs. As per the conservation areas IIBA and the NLCA, the area is co-managed by Environment Canada and the regional Co-management Committee of Resolute Bay.

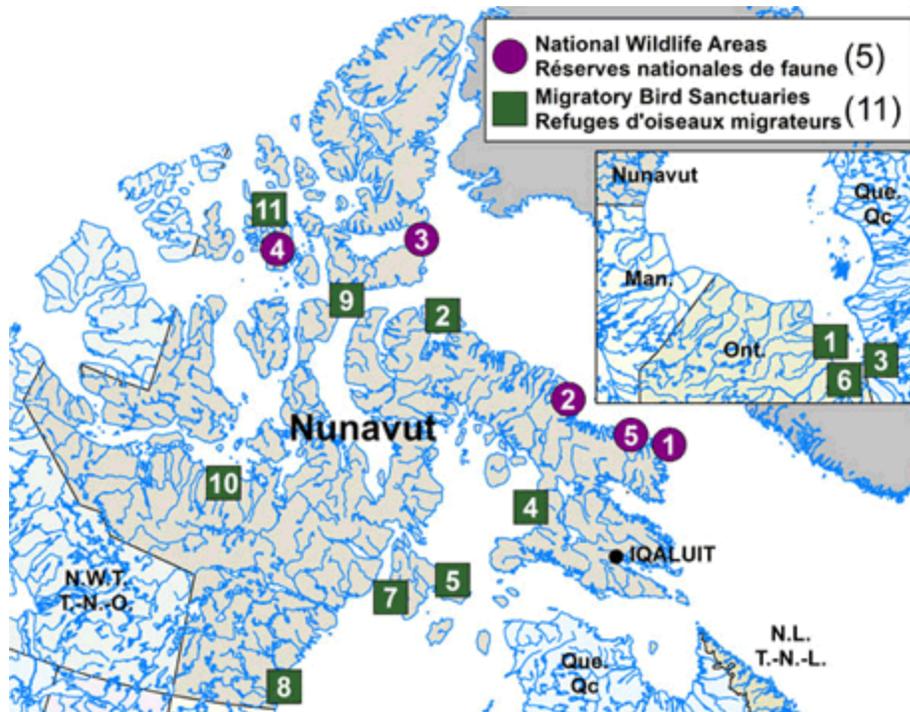


Figure 3: National wildlife areas and migratory bird sanctuaries in Nunavut (Environment Canada 2013)

Greenland

There are 9 IUCN protected areas within Greenland, including several marine sites which might provide a relevant comparison to the LIA. Melville Bay is one of those Marine Protected Areas covered by the IUCN, it is a category 1 site designated in 1977 covering roughly 8000 km² in Northwestern Greenland north of the Upernavik archipelago (Nutall 2012). The bay is typically frozen from mid October till late July and during this period traditional hunting and dog sledging for transportation occur within the area to a certain degree, however all other uses such as research, tourism and sport occur only with special permission (Nutall 2012). As an IUCN categorized protected area, it falls under the Nature Conservation Act for Greenland (1980) and is thus managed at a national level by the Ministry of the Environment and Nature.

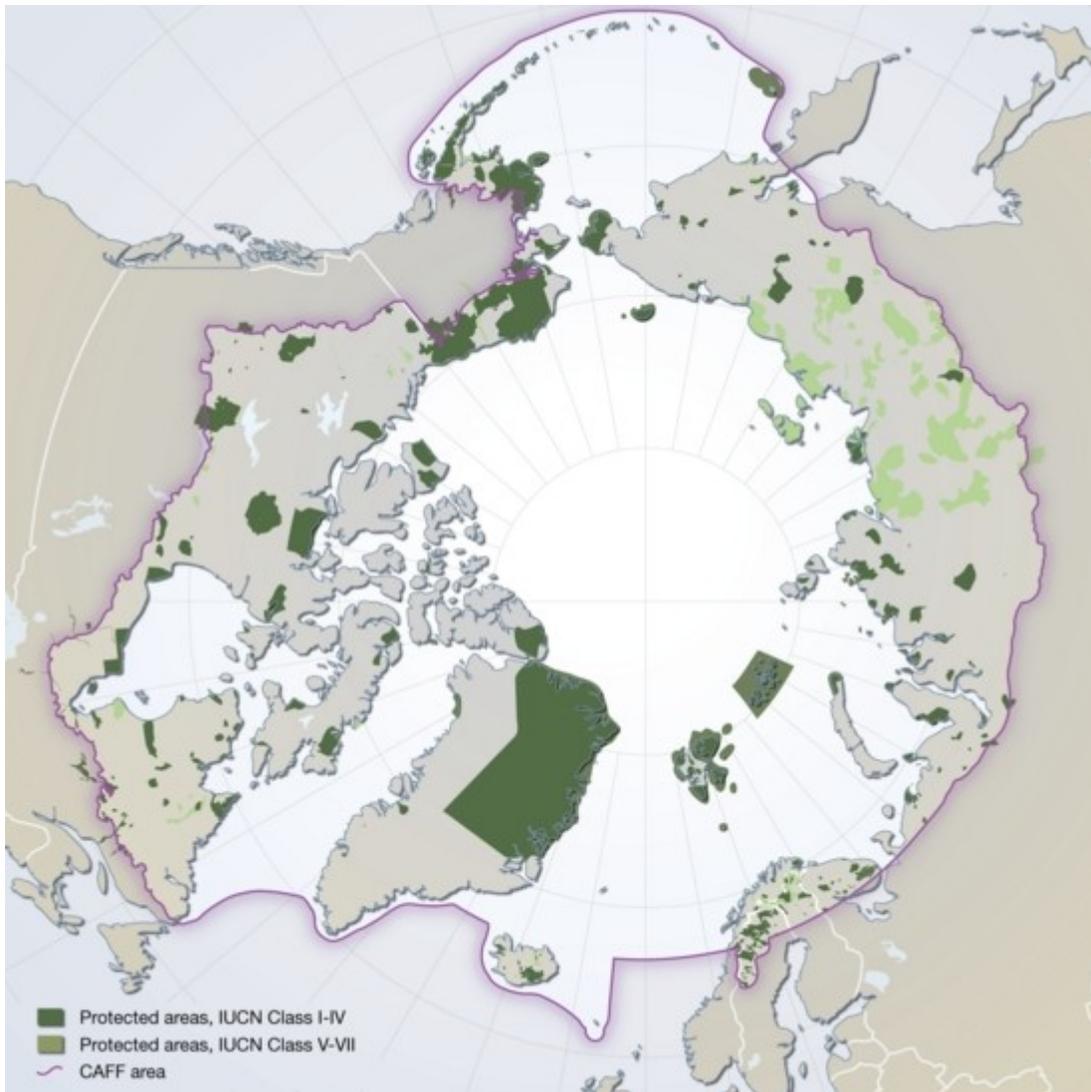


Figure 4: Map of IUCN protected areas within the Arctic (Ahlenius 2010)

Recommendations

IUCN Protected Areas are open to a shared governance between the Designated Inuit Organization and either territorial or federal government, as required under article 9.3.2 of the NLCA. There are working examples of even the most stringent designation (category 1a) of IUCN Protected Area categorization within Nunavut in the form of both National Wildlife Reserves and Migratory Bird Sanctuaries and Greenland's Melville Bay Protected Area. Use of this model of designation for the LIA would require the establishment of a National Marine Conservation Area in Canada, and a conservation area similar to that of Melville Bay in Greenland. These protected areas could further become part of a serial transboundary World Heritage Site or Man and Biosphere Reserve in the future.

Model: UNESCO World Heritage Sites

Governance and *De Facto* and *De Jure* Power

The governance of World Heritage Sites has typically followed local co-management models, which are familiar to Inuit in both Greenland and Nunavut. In both of the case studies covered above, UNESCO designation has led to greater *de facto* and *de jure* power in governance for Arctic Indigenous peoples and local communities. In terms of ramifications in the way of legislation, there already exists a model for how this local governance of the UNESCO World Heritage Site can fit within the Greenlandic governance structure, as seen at the Ilulissat Icefiord. With regard to Nunavut, the NLCA is likely to be of great benefit to the project within an application to UNESCO if it is to seek designation, especially if it were to seek a mixed site designation, since it would be seen as the enshrining of the very principles of how a cultural landscape should be interacted with within legislation.

Economic Development

Tourism

UNESCO World Heritage Sites are a brand in themselves and can significantly increase tourism revenue within an area as well as attract capital for investment (Ryan and Silvanto 2010). Additionally, there is significant evidence to support that World Heritage listing significantly increases the number of international visitors as compared to national or sub-national level parks, one study of US parks found that those with World Heritage designation saw visitation increase 9.2% over a 5 year period as compared to 4.2% for those parks without designation (Buckley 2004). Given the relative scarcity of World Heritage Sites in the Arctic (the only other within relative proximity to the LIA being the Ilulissat Icefiord), UNESCO World Heritage designation may represent a diversification in advertisement tools available for bringing tourists to the Arctic, especially given its strong brand (Ryan and Silvanto 2010).

Traditional Cultural and Economic practices

World Heritage designation does not require that any traditional cultural and economic practices such as carving stone collection, ceremony, hunting or fishing cease or be impeded in any manner whatsoever, and are especially encouraged if it is a mixed cultural/natural World Heritage Site. Thus this conservation model fits well with the requirements of the NLCA in this regard as well as with the interests of communities in northern Greenland, such as Qaanaaq (ICC 2014).

Tentative lists of nations within the LIA

Denmark (Greenland technically still being represented by Denmark in the Convention) has 11 sites on its tentative list, 2 of which are within Greenland. Canada has 7 sites on its tentative list, one of which is in Nunavut. This site in Nunavut is of particular interest and relevance to the LIA

as the site in question is Quttinirpaaq National Park. Quttinirpaaq covers the northern portion of Ellesmere Island, and with 2375 km² of marine area within the proposed site, it directly overlaps part of the LIA. It is currently on the tentative list as a mixed heritage site, which is likely the most appropriate option for the LIA, given its enormous importance to the wildlife which support significant cultural practices within Nunavut and Greenland.

Recommendation

The UNESCO World Heritage Designation is a highly amenable model to the interests of both the Inuit and the WWF. It provides excellent branding for stimulating tourism, a model which fits well within the Nunavut Land Claims Agreement as well as Greenlandic governance structures, no requirement to inhibit cultural land use practices, *de jure* and *de facto* power to protect those cultural land uses in an internationally recognised affirmation of the universal value of that place as a cultural landscape, as well as a management structure which allows local communities and Indigenous peoples legitimate and significant power in governing the area.

Summary of recommendations

- Extend and modify the application of Quttinirpaaq National Park to be
 - serial and transboundary including the north coast of the north-east Greenland national park and an extended marine area.
 - Focussed on the cultural and natural significance of the LIA to better meet the priorities of the NLUP
- Another national or territorial park may not bring in any additional economic development opportunities overall as it may only disperse visitors rather than attract new ones
- Private conservation is infeasible in both Nunavut and Greenland, especially in marine areas due to the requirement for special exemption to create private property in Greenland and federal jurisdiction over marine areas in Canada.
- Man and Biosphere reserves and IUCN Protected Area designation may not bring the tourism potential of a World Heritage Site
- Man and Biosphere, National and Territorial Parks. IUCN Protected Areas and UNESCO World Heritage Sites are all capable of working well with the type of co-management model required within the NLCA.

Parliament is a publicly elected body and a state authority with elections being held every four years (Labba 2014). The Sámi are collectively represented within the Arctic Council as Permanent Participants and at the UN through the non-government organization, the Saami Council. The central priority of the Saami Council is "... the promotion of Saami rights and interests in the four countries where the Saami are living, to consolidate the feeling of affinity among the Saami people, to attain recognition for the Saami as a nation and to maintain the economic, social and cultural rights of the Saami in the legislation of the four states. (Norway, Sweden, Russia and Finland). This objective can be achieved through agreements between these states and the bodies representing the Saami people, the Saami parliaments." (Arctic Council 2011).

Sweden - The Laponian Area UNESCO World Heritage Site cultural landscapes

The mixed natural/cultural World Heritage site, the Laponian Area in Sweden provides an interesting and highly relevant case study to the LIA (Green 2009). What is known as the Laponian Area consists of 4 national parks, 2 nature reserves and 9 Sámi samebys (economic and geographical association within which members may engage in reindeer husbandry, entitlement to this practice is founded in ancient claims based in the use of the land by the Sámi since time immemorial) (Green 2009)(Labba 2014).

The area was appointed a World Heritage site in December 1996 however there had been a long history of wilderness preservation by the Swedish in this area as two of the national parks had been in place since 1909, as well as an even longer history of conservation by the Sámi through reindeer herding since time immemorial (Green 2009). The motivations for seeking designation as a World Heritage site varied between actors in the project, however two of the initial major proponents, the county and municipalities, were interested in the designation to attract tourists but also to increase *de facto* power of the county and municipalities in environmental protection (Green 2009).

Initially, one of the nature reserves which is currently included within The Laponian Area was nominated by the nation of Sweden in the 1980's as a Natural World Heritage feature, but was rejected due to its lack of exceptionality (Dahlström 2003). From this point the government decided to extend the application geographically, remaining with the idea of a natural World Heritage site (Green 2009). However, the Swedish Sámi parliament was uncomfortable with the ideas proposed for the extended area as they felt it did not recognise the area as the cultural landscape of the Sámi and that a Natural World Heritage site might lead to stricter regulations around and prevent the future development of reindeer herding in the area (Green 2009). As the plan developed the Swedish National Heritage Board acted to try to arrange the application for cultural designation for the site as well, and eventually a mixed natural/cultural application was created (Green 2009). This was important for the Sámi, as part of meeting the criteria of the World Heritage Convention for a "mixed" site or cultural landscape is that the continuous cultural use of the land is seen as a prerequisite for good maintenance of the landscape (Green 2009).

However, there were problems with the arrangement, the largest of which was in regards to governance at the site (Green 2009). There was a lack of a mandatory management plan and

structure at inception (UNESCO has since changed their regulations, now requiring a management plan in the application) which created feuding between the 3 central actors within the extended application; the Sámi of the samebys involved, the County Administration of Norrbotten and the municipal governments (Green 2009). The conflict was largely over who would sit on the management board of the heritage site and how the management would be organized, specifically, they demanded that they have a majority of the seats on the management board. Although the application was accepted by UNESCO in 1996, an agreement on the fundamentals of a management plan did not occur until 10 years later in 2006, with the Sámi eventually succeeding in acquiring the majority seating on the board of management (Green 2009).

Thus, although originally seeking designation as a Natural World Heritage site to boost tourism, the outcome of the process has inadvertently been greater recognition of what is now known as “The Laponian Area” as a cultural landscape inhabited since time immemorial by the Sámi (Green 2009). What the designation has also done is give greater power to the Sámi in managing the lands that make up the Laponian Area with the Sámi majority which was agreed to for the board of management for the World Heritage Site (Green 2009).

Taking from this case study a larger view of World Heritage sites and their implications for governance, we see that there could be large benefits from a site designated as a cultural landscape or mixed natural/cultural World Heritage site (Green 2009). Firstly that it gives greater autonomy to the people of the land through the requirement that the land be maintained through cultural interaction and use, and that it gives *de facto* power to those who value the land through international recognition as a site of great importance to all of humanity (Green 2009).

Norway - National Parks

There have been 10 national parks set up to manage land for conservation within the portion of Norway which falls within the Arctic Circle (Miljø Direktoratet 2014). Further, the area of Norway which falls within the Arctic Circle also falls entirely within the cultural region of Sapmi, the traditional home of the Sámi. Within Sapmi, the Sámi maintain large reindeer herds which migrate over large areas, a practice which has made up one of the central focuses within a traditional Sámi way of life (Riseth 2007). Reindeer herding is legally protected within Norway under the Reindeer Husbandry Act of 1978, which assures right to grazing pasture and movement between pastures (Nutall 2012). The establishment of national parks has generally been well received by reindeer herders, with reindeer husbandry practiced within two thirds of Norway’s national parks (Riseth 2007). Indeed, in a survey of Sámi reindeer herders found that those in districts with a park in their winter area reported that the advantages outweighed the drawbacks (Jystad 2007). However, the governance structure of the national parks is such that though environmental authorities may not prohibit reindeer herding in national parks, they can restrict the degree to which it occurs significantly (Riseth 2007). This power structure which enables environmental authorities to decide how the governance of national parks is dictated has meant that, although Sámi herders in most areas receive national parks well, problems have arisen for Sámi herders in other areas (Riseth 2007). In 2006, when Norway instituted two new national

parks, Lierne and Blåfjella-Skjækerfjella, the South Sámi boycotted the participation in the management of the park despite the parks being part of an intensive reindeer management area (Riseth 2007). The Sámi perceived a problem in this case for 3 reasons; firstly, the exclusionary model of the park and the centralization of power made negotiating more difficult as, rather than interact with non-Sámi neighbours to find solutions to keep migration paths open, the Sámi had to go through the bureaucracy of a national or regional government (Riseth 2007). Secondly, the institution of the national parks interfered with Indigenous land rights as it removed the possibility of accessing any new resources or old resources to be used in new ways which the Sámi have traditional right to since the park would largely prevent resource use within its boundaries (Riseth 2007). Thirdly, it was felt that the park put the continued Traditional Ecological Knowledge of the Sámi at risk, which is imperative to the survival of the Sámi (Riseth 2007).

The problem with the park also extended beyond the Sámi. While the management plan for the park was in the process of being developed there was an extremely strong and consistent call by both rural Sámi and non-Sámi for greater local control because it was felt that the national government was managing the process in too much of a “top down” fashion (Riseth 2007). The government made concessions by making the park smaller and excluding some of the local farms from the area within the park, while also creating a local management board for the park with power divided between local authorities (Riseth 2007). This was still problematic to the Sámi reindeer herders as the land which was to be turned into national park was land which had been under their total control in use and preservation management before its institution, which they would now have limited power to control under the new arrangements given the shared power with the municipalities and NGO’s who would outnumber them on the management board of the park (Riseth 2007).

The Norwegian national park model has largely been seen as favourable by Indigenous people in Norway who require access to cultural landscapes for their livelihood, however there is a fine balance here (Riseth 2007). National parks in Norway can determine their own management regime and when these arrangements support and promote the self determination of the Sámi as well as other land users through meaningful access to power through governance mechanisms, politically acceptable solutions seem to be found (Riseth 2007). Conversely, unfavourable outcomes were created when the Sámi felt that they would be unable to engage in their cultural landscapes in a meaningful manner.

The conservation of nature is important to the Sámi, however the fundamental understanding of how that occurs differs to an extent from the current national park model in Norway. The Indigenous view is that conservation occurs in both use and protection, which is not inherent in the idea of setting land aside for conservation, as conservation occurs in the ethic of usage (Riseth 2007).

Conservation in the regions in question

Greenland

In Greenland there have been a broad variety of policy instruments and designations used as part of the conservation of large Arctic areas.

National Park

Greenland has one national park, which was established in 1974 as a “generous contribution from Greenland and the Danish realm to the preservation of original and virginal environments. It forms a wildlife sanctuary and a biological bank, the interest of which might be accrue to the adjoining hunting communities.” The park covers a vast portion of the area with the Arctic Circle, roughly 5% (972 000 km²) of the entire surface of the Arctic Circle (IUCN 1992). The most northerly portion of this area borders directly onto the portion of the LIA in north-eastern Greenland (See figure 1). There are no permanent human inhabitants within the park and hunting and fishing does not occur within the park as these are generally prohibited, but these activities are carried out at sea and on the sea ice within the boundary by people from the settlement of Ittoqqortoormiit (IUCN 1992).

The park system is managed at a national level by the Ministry of the Environment and Nature according to the Nature conservation act for Greenland (1980) (IUCN 1992). The administration of the park is under the jurisdiction the Premier of Greenland who is advised by the board of the park consisting of four members of the Greenland Assembly, four scientists and a chairperson (IUCN 1992). Management and administration at the site of the park is completed by the Danish military’s Sirius Sledge Patrol (IUCN 1992).

The park was also designated an UNESCO Man and Biosphere reserve in 1977. Biosphere reserves are considered “living laboratories” for the purpose of demonstrating and researching integrated management of land, water and biodiversity (Pollock 2009). They also tend to embody the cultural heritage as well as embrace the current identity of a place as a cultural landscape that sustains traditional and contemporary lifestyles (Pollock 2009). Man and Biosphere reserves are typically made up of protected core areas, a buffer area and a transition zone, core areas must be protected legally, the buffer area may have activities occurring within it which are highly sustainable (e.g. research, sustainable resource use, eco-tourism), while the transition zone will have human settlement as well as cooperative resource development under a co-management model (Pollock 2009). The North Eastern Greenland National Park has been the focus of a significant research effort as part of this programme and research conducted here has contributed greatly to subjects ranging from Arctic plants to climate change (UNESCO 2014 website). However there is limited information on the impact of a MaB reserve on governance to be extracted from this case study due to the lack of permanent residents within the bounds of this MaB reserve.

Private Conservation

Within Greenland all land is held in common unless a designation is made otherwise, this then largely precludes the possibility of private conservation becoming an option in the Greenland

portion of the LIA due to the unprecedented ceding of land which would be required in order to go this route effectively (World Conservation Monitoring Centre 1992).

UNESCO World Heritage Site: Ilulissat Icefjord

This is a UNESCO Natural World Heritage site whose designation was given in 2004. It received nomination for its geological significance, uniqueness (given that in 2004 there was only 1 other world heritage site in the Arctic circle, the Laponian Area in Sweden) and importance to scientific research. The criterion which it was accepted under to become a UNESCO Natural World Heritage site were criterion i (Earth's History and Geological Features) and criterion iii (Superlative natural phenomena, scenic beauty) (UNESCO 2004).

Governance

The management board of the site is comprised of representatives of the Municipality of Ilulissat and the Greenland ministry of Environment and Nature (UNESCO 2004). The municipal government is responsible for daily operations, however the game rangers who manage the hunting and fishing within Greenland are also involved on a part time basis. Extensive hunting and fishing occur within the site, which was noted within the nomination (UNESCO 2004). However, concerns were raised in regards to over-harvesting at the site and it was recommended that local management authorities ensure that this occurs sustainably in the future (UNESCO 2004). However, this is not binding and thus has no *de jure* influence on governance or hunting and fishing activities at the site.

Economic activities

Ilulissat hosts a broad array of economic activities including commercial fishing, hunting and tourism. The fiord has seen a long history of commercial fishing, with several innovations in commercial ice fishing coming from this area specifically (Mikkelsen and Ingerlev 2002). The icefiord has also hosted hunting since time immemorial, continuing into modernity as an important economic activity and occupation in Ilulissat (Mikkelsen and Ingerlev 2002). World Heritage site designation did not impose restrictions upon fishing or hunting activities within the icefiord. This site has also been a strong part of the economic resilience of the municipality of Ilulissat through the tourism industry, which developed around the site in the 1990's after the municipality went into an economic slump due to difficulties in hunting and fishing (Mikkelsen and Ingerlev 2002).

Integrity

Part of the prerequisites for designation is the assurance that the integrity or authenticity of a site is capable of being maintained. The Ilulissat Icefiord site was seen as having and being capable of maintaining integrity through sufficiently strong legislation in the form of the 1980 Nature Conservation Act for Greenland, a Greenland Home Rule Executive Order of March, 2003 and the management plan adopted by the Municipal Council which assured relatively strong boundaries and buffer zones with surrounding development (UNESCO 2004).

Canada

There are several types of models which are specific to Canada/Nunavut. Of those covered in this report there are two distinct types of parks (within Nunavut); Territorial and National, the former being governed by territorial government designates, the latter by Federal Government Agencies. Secondly, there are National Marine Conservation Areas, which are part of a programme managed by Parks Canada.

National Marine Conservation Areas

Marine Conservation Areas are established for "... the purpose of protecting and conserving representative marine areas for the benefit, education and enjoyment of the people of Canada and the world." This is a recent program guided by the Canada National Marine Conservation Areas Act of 2002 and there have been 4 NMCA's fully established with 3 more in various stages of being established (Parks Canada 2014) (see figure 6). Of relevance to the LIA, an NMCA is in the process of being set up in Lancaster sound, a key portion of the LIA in Nunavut (see figure 6).

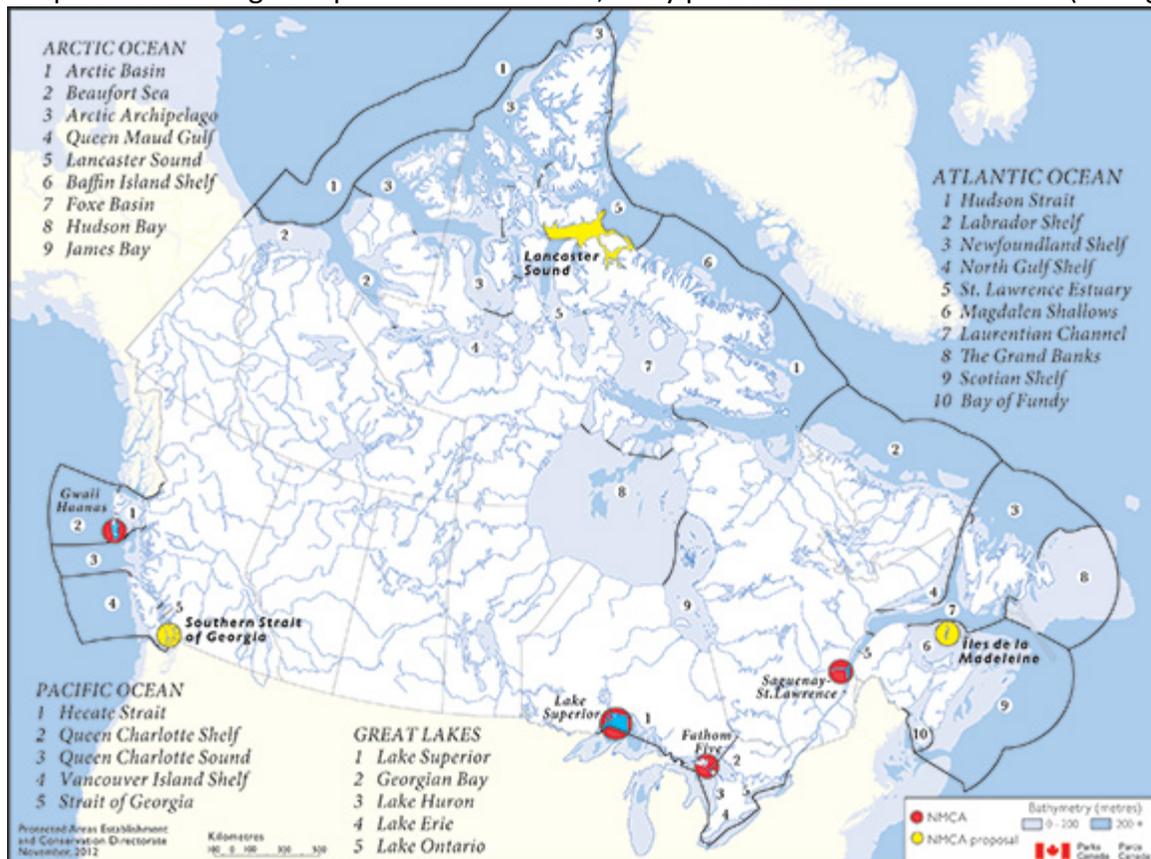


Figure 6: the locations of NMCA's in Canada (Parks Canada 2014)

Governance

According to the Canada National Marine Conservation Areas Act (S.C. 2002, c. 18) the Minister is responsible for the administration, management and control of Marine Conservation Areas and lands in Marine Conservation Areas where there is no conflict between the jurisdiction assigned to other federal Ministers. However, agreements may be made between the Minister and other federal and provincial Ministers and agencies, local and Aboriginal governments, bodies established under land claims agreements and other persons and organizations for carrying out the purposes of this Act. Further, if a Marine Conservation Area is within an area which is part of a land claims agreement, the management plan must conform to the arrangements laid out in the land claims agreement.

Economic development

NMCA's are open to conforming to the requirements of the NLCA in regards to traditional economic and cultural activities, as well as the development of tourism. However, Article 13 of the NMCA Act dictates that exploration and exploitation of hydrocarbons, minerals, aggregates and any other inorganic matter is prohibited within a Marine Conservation Area.

Conclusions

Given that the governance of an NMCA must conform to the NLCA, governance would be similar to that of a national or territorial park in that a co-management board would dictate decision making in regard to management of the conservation area. There is potential to attempt to establish conservation recognition of the LIA within the proposed Lancaster Sound NMCA, which could be meaningful protection given the protection it will receive from Article 13 of the NMCA Act.

Territorial Parks

There are currently 13 territorial parks and 7 special places within Nunavut, distinct from national parks, there is an important fundamental understanding of the nature of territorial parks, as detailed in Article 8 of the NLCA. This is that they are special cultural landscapes which are instituted to protect and preserve the natural environment, provide opportunities for outdoor recreational activities, tourism and economic development, protect and commemorate historic and archaeological sites and provide for the benefit, education and enjoyment of residents of and visitors to Nunavut (Nunavut Parks 2002)(NLCA).

When an area of interest is identified and a territorial park proposed through a research report, planning document or community communication the Nunavut Parks agency will begin to collect and pool information in a preliminary park resource file which is presented to communities in and around the proposed area for discussion and other related ideas (Nunavut Parks 2014). If there is potential for a park and the communities approve the park concept then a Parks Advisory Committee (PAC) will be created, which will oversee the completion of a feasibility study by Nunavut Parks which includes an initial inventory and overview of area resources including cultural and archaeological sites, wildlife, habitat, and vegetation, landscape and geological

information, preliminary mineral assessment, place names, other area values, economic development needs and opportunities, tourism and recreation opportunities, and determines the potential for various park scenarios (Nunavut Parks 2014). Comments and concerns are also collected through a wide variety of mechanisms such as radio shows, open houses and newsletters (Nunavut Parks 2014). The product of the feasibility study is a recommendation of the park concept, which must take into account any Inuit owned lands and federally managed lands (such as water and coastline) within its proximity (Nunavut Parks 2014). Lands are then asked to be withdrawn in the interim. Once the PSA has been initiated, the Community Joint Planning and Management Committee (CJMPC) is established (see paragraph on governance) and Nunavut Parks works with the CJMPC and other interested parties to complete an inventory of the following in the context of the IIBA;

- archaeological and Culturally Significant sites;
- cultural heritage, including oral histories and other historical information;
- Inuktitut place names for the park and for locations of interest within the park;
- wildlife populations, vegetation and important wildlife areas that may require special protection or management efforts; and
- geological and mineral resources.

Governance

The Umbrella Inuit Impact and Benefit Agreement for Territorial Parks is the document which details the nature of the governance and management structure for territorial parks. Specifically, it requires that a joint local and territorial management structure be created, the details of which are formed into a Park Specific Appendix (PSA) which is added to the IIBA for territorial parks (Nunavut Parks 2014). The PSA must consider a wide range of cultural uses of the park including access to carving stone, outpost camps, cabin, archaeology, research, wildlife resources, other cultural and heritage resources, business and employment benefits (Nunavut Parks 2014). However the creation of a new PSA may not be necessary if it is felt that it can be added to an existent PSA of another park (Nunavut Parks 2014).

The IIBA specifies that the park planning and management process must be strongly based in Inuit Qaujimajatuqangit (commonly called and understood as Inuit traditional knowledge in the English language). In terms of parties involved in governance, the IIBA details that while a Nunavut-wide joint parks and planning committee (NJPMC) is appropriate to develop Nunavut wide park initiatives, Inuit and local residents must be involved in the planning and management of territorial parks and it must be community-based joint parks planning and management committees (CJPMC's) which plan and manage specific parks (Nunavut Parks 2014). These CJPMC's provide advice to the Nunavut government and the NJPMC on all aspects of territorial parks and consist of 6 members of communities affected by the park who have demonstrable interest, experience and knowledge in tourism, parks or Inuit heritage and culture. The community Regional Inuit Association appoints 3 of these members and the relevant Minister appoints 3 members (Nunavut Parks 2014).

Once the planning has been completed and the Minister (department of the environment) has approved the management plan for the park, the Minister will apply to the Government of Canada to transfer management responsibility of any crown lands within the park boundaries to the Government of Nunavut (Nunavut Parks 2014). In addition the Nunavut Parks Act requires that parks continue to be managed in partnership with communities and that communities see benefit from the establishment of the park (Nunavut Parks 2014).

Recommendations;

A territorial park could be an inherently acceptable solution in regards to conforming to the NLCA, and it may have a higher likelihood of being accepted by the inhabitants of Nunavut given its extensive requirements to consult, jointly manage with and find benefits for local communities. However, in regards to economic development, it is doubtful that the addition of another territorial park will bring additional revenue on the whole due to the relative isolation of the proposed area and lack of additional marketing potential in order to bring people to Nunavut parks (there are 13 territorial parks already).

Federal Park System

There are currently 5 national parks within Nunavut, one of which is Quttinirpaaq that extends into marine areas encompassing parts of the LIA. Just as territorial parks, national parks fall under the IIBA and the NLCA, however regulations are slightly different, particularly insofar as the land is under the jurisdiction of the government of Canada rather than Nunavut.

Case study: Quttinirpaaq national park

Quttinirpaaq National Park is located on the northern portion of Ellesmere island in the High Arctic, it covers 37 775 km² and encompasses a great diversity of different ecosystems, including a thermal oasis in the form of a freshwater lake. It is also the site of significant archeological interest as it has hosted many different historical Arctic cultures.

Governance

The Park is managed cooperatively by both Parks Canada and Inuit through the Joint Park Management Committee, which directly advises Parks Canada, the federal Minister responsible, the Nunavut Wildlife Management Board and other agencies in affairs related to park management. Committee members and the committee as a whole are expected to act impartially in the public interest and for the public good, with the committee being made up of an equal number of representatives appointed by each the Government of Canada and the Qikiqtani Inuit Association (currently 3 each).

Of particular relevance to this report, it should be noted that in 2004 Quttinirpaaq National Park was listed on Canada's UNESCO World Heritage tentative list of properties with key reasons for inclusion being;

1. The cultural resource values related to the earliest and successive habitation of the Canadian Eastern Arctic by early Palaeo-Eskimo and subsequent cultural traditions;
2. The exceptional natural and scenic beauty and superlative natural phenomena, including mountains, polar desert, and a thermal oasis;
3. The geological processes connected with high-latitude glaciation and ice shelves that represent major stages of the earth's history; and
4. The diversity of High Arctic wildlife species.

Economic development

Quttinirpaaq National Park receives between 50 and 200 visitors annually, which has proven to be an important source of income for the inhabitants of Resolute Bay, which is the point from which tours are organized. There are significant challenges to economic development in this region insofar as attracting a market for tourism due to the cost and challenges to access the area and relatively small market for adventure tourism. However the impact of even a few visitors to this region is highly significant due to the relatively few inhabitants of this region.

Gwaii haanas National Park

Gwaii haanas National Park is an interesting example of a co-management agreement within the Canadian parks system outside of Nunavut.

Governance

Gwaii Haanas National Park is managed by a management board made up of an equal number, currently 3, of representatives of the Government of Canada and representatives of the Council of the Haida Nation (Lee 2012). The guiding document for decision making in regards to management of the park is the Gwaii Haanas Agreement which was signed by both the Haida Nation and the Government of Canada as a promise that the Park would be co-managed in a manner similar to other co-management regimes in the north (Lee 2012). The first clause of the purposes sections of the agreement states that

“The parties agree that the Archipelago will be maintained and made use of so as to leave it unimpaired for the benefit, education and enjoyment of future generations. More specifically, all actions related to the planning, operation and management of the Archipelago will respect the protection and preservation of the environment, the Haida culture, and the maintenance of a benchmark for science and human understanding. “

This clearly acknowledges a cultural landscape, which is highly important for the Inuit, showing that there is potential to mold an agreement within the national parks model which has a cultural rather than wilderness landscape as its central focus (Lee 2012). This is by no means new, this

agreement was completed in 1993 and it has been affirmed consistently throughout years following, for example, in a report by the Subcommittee on Aboriginal Economic Development in relation to Northern National Parks of the Standing Senate Committee on Aboriginal Peoples in 2001 (Parliament of Canada 2001), the following was noted;

While the emphasis on conservation is prudent and required for parks in southern Canada, the Subcommittee heard from witnesses that it is unlikely current and projected levels of visitation to northern National Parks threaten to have similar impacts on their ecological integrity. Although there is a need to balance economic development and tourism with conservation, clearly Aboriginal groups view the establishment of National Parks as not only a means of protecting these special places, but also as a means of encouraging economic development in their settlement regions. Moreover, Aboriginal people see themselves as an integral part of the park ecology. Parks, on this view, are considered working spaces and not exclusively natural preserves. The location of these parks and the shortness of the season is such that even with the development of some facilities, the visitation potential is still only a few hundred people a year. Such a small number of visitors can be easily managed to avoid harm to wildlife and habitat, but would have substantial benefit to the local economy, creating employment and other economic opportunities...The Subcommittee would agree that this issue, if left unaddressed, risks damaging other facets of the relationship between Parks Canada officials and Aboriginal groups in the north. In particular, members were made aware that the tendency toward the uniform application of parks policy undermined the substantial economic commitments and cooperative management processes negotiated in the land claim agreements...[t]he Inuvialuit Final Agreement is a constitutionally-protected land claim agreement and it is time for Parks Canada to pay proper respect to the Inuvialuit economic and cultural interests, not just to take advantage of the Inuvialuit dedication to conservation as sustainable development and advance a southern philosophy to National Parks.

Thus, a national park model for land use management may be conducive to the Canadian and Nunavut context at least in order to protect parts of the LIA if there is some portion which includes coastal or land area, if not another model may be more appropriate such as an National Marine Conservation Area.

Recommendations

A transboundary site for the LIA is a priority for the WWF in order to make clear both the regional (Arctic) and international significance of the LIA. This limits potential options for a single governance structure as models such as territorial parks and NMCA's are not as conducive to transboundary governance structures as might be a UNESCO World Heritage Site or a Man and Biosphere Reserve. UNESCO World Heritage site designation is perhaps the most appropriate option with the highest potential for economic development. Just as the other models, it will fit well within the NLCA as it requires no changes in legislation or policy, and will be able to function

well with a co-management governance style, thereby not impinging upon Inuit self-governance. Designation as a Natural World Heritage site does not infringe upon traditional and modern cultural and economic practices, as seen at the Ilulissat Icefjord and recognition as a cultural landscape or mixed site is truly an affirmation of the relationship between people and their use of the land. Indeed, World Heritage site designation can lend strong *de facto* power to local inhabitants of the land as status is not given lightly on the grounds that the site has universal value to all humanity and the earth, putting the site on the same level as places like the Grand Canyon and the Great Barrier Reef. In regards to economic development, the strong branding power of World Heritage designation may be a great tool for advertising Nunavut's tourism and as a way of showing that capital investments in Nunavut's tourism industry are less risky (Ryan and Silvano 2010). This may be especially significant when compared to other models as, an additional national or territorial park may not provide the additional advertising power, and Man and Biosphere reserve designation may not be as well known, thus either may merely disperse visitors rather than attract new ones. The practicalities of assembling the necessary documentation are facilitated by the existing application of Quttinirpaaq National Park for World Heritage site status. Indeed, there are several areas already set up within northern Greenland and Nunavut, namely North- East Greenland National Park and Quttinirpaaq National Park which might act as core areas for a potential World Heritage site (see figure 7).

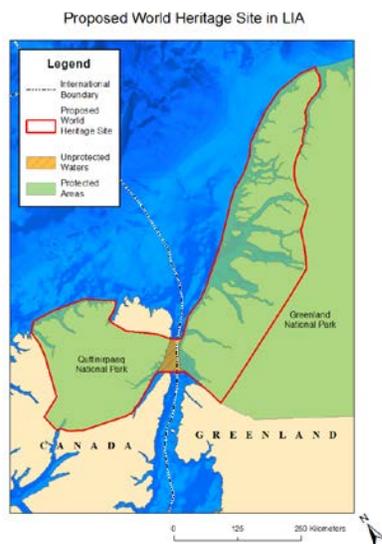


Figure 7: Proposed World Heritage Site in the LIA

What questions should the Inuit be asking?

- How will decisions be made for the site? Who will make those decisions?
- Which agencies will be involved in managing the site?
- How does this recognise and affirm the identity of this place as a cultural landscape?
- What difference does this make to the future of our relationship with the land? How will it impact hunting, fishing, cultural supply availability, access to special places, agency to move within the landscape?

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