



**HAL**  
open science

## **Assessments of expected MPA outcomes can inform and improve biodiversity conservation: Case studies using The MPA Guide**

Jenna Sullivan-Stack, Gabby Ahmadia, Dominic Andradi-Brown, Alexandra Barron, Cassandra Brooks, Joachim Claudet, Barbara Horta E Costa, E. Estradivari, Laurel Field, Sylvaine Giakoumi, et al.

### ► To cite this version:

Jenna Sullivan-Stack, Gabby Ahmadia, Dominic Andradi-Brown, Alexandra Barron, Cassandra Brooks, et al.. Assessments of expected MPA outcomes can inform and improve biodiversity conservation: Case studies using The MPA Guide. *Marine Policy*, 2024, 170, pp.106364. 10.1016/j.marpol.2024.106364 . hal-04691961

**HAL Id: hal-04691961**

**<https://hal.science/hal-04691961v1>**

Submitted on 9 Sep 2024

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

**Assessments of expected MPA outcomes can inform and improve biodiversity  
conservation: Case studies using *The MPA Guide***

Jenna Sullivan-Stack<sup>1</sup>, Gabby N. Ahmadi<sup>2</sup>, Dominic A. Andradi-Brown<sup>2</sup>, Alexandra Barron<sup>3</sup>, Cassandra M. Brooks<sup>4</sup>, Joachim Claudet<sup>5</sup>, Barbara Horta e Costa<sup>6</sup>, Estradivari<sup>7</sup>, Laurel C. Field<sup>8,1</sup>, Sylvaine Giakoumi<sup>9</sup>, Emanuel Gonçalves<sup>10,11,12</sup>, Natalie Groulx<sup>3</sup>, Jean Harris<sup>13</sup>, Sabine Jessen<sup>3</sup>, Steven Mana'oakamai Johnson<sup>15</sup>, Jessica M.C. MacCarthy<sup>14</sup>, Guilherme Maricato<sup>16</sup>, Lance Morgan<sup>14</sup>, Katharine Bear Nalven<sup>1</sup>, Emily S. Nocito<sup>4</sup>, Elizabeth P. Pike<sup>14</sup>, Enric Sala<sup>10</sup>, Rodrigo Tardin<sup>16</sup>, Angelo Villagomez<sup>17</sup>, Kendyl Wright<sup>13</sup>, and Kirsten Grorud-Colvert<sup>1</sup>

1. Department of Integrative Biology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR, USA
2. Ocean Conservation, World Wildlife Fund, 1250 24th St NW, Washington, D.C., USA 20037
3. Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society, Ottawa, ON, Canada
4. Department of Environmental Studies, University of Colorado Boulder, Boulder, CO, USA
5. National Center for Scientific Research, PSL Université Paris, CRIOBE, CNRS-EPHE-UPVD, Maison de l'Océan, 195 rue Saint-Jacques 75005 Paris, France
6. Center of Marine Sciences, CCMAR, University of Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, Faro, 8005-139, Portugal.
7. Ecology Department, Leibniz Center for Tropical Marine Research (ZMT), Bremen, Germany
8. Department of Biological Science, Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL, USA
9. Sicily Marine Centre, Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn, Lungomare Cristoforo Colombo 90149 Palermo, Italy
10. Pristine Seas, National Geographic Society, Washington, DC 20036, USA.
11. Marine and Environmental Sciences Centre (MARE), ISPA–Instituto Universitário, 1149-041 Lisbon, Portugal.
12. Oceano Azul Foundation, Oceanário de Lisboa, Esplanada D. Carlos I, 1990-005 Lisbon, Portugal.
13. Wildlands Conservation Trust, PO Box 21450, Mayors Walk, Pietermaritzburg 3208, South Africa
14. Marine Conservation Institute, Seattle, WA United States
15. Department of Natural Resources and the Environment, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, USA
16. Ecology and Marine Conservation Lab, Department of Ecology, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil
17. Center for American Progress, Washington, DC, USA

**Abstract.** Global, regional, and national targets have been set to protect and conserve at least 30% of the ocean by 2030, in recognition of the important benefits of healthy ocean ecosystems, including for human well-being. Many of these targets recognize the importance of the quality, not just quantity, of areas that are included in the 30%, including marine protected areas (MPAs). For example, the Convention on Biological Diversity’s Global Biodiversity Framework Target 3 calls for areas to be effectively conserved and managed, ecologically representative, well-connected, and equitably governed. Protecting a percent area is not the sole goal – protection must be effective and equitable. To better understand the quality of biodiversity conservation afforded in addition to the quantity of area protected, we looked at MPAs across 13 studies that used *The MPA Guide* and related tools to track Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection as measures of expected biodiversity conservation outcomes across diverse locations, scales, and cultural, political, and conservation contexts. We show that standardized assessments of MPA quality can help to (1) evaluate and improve existing MPAs; (2) plan new MPAs; (3) compare the quality of MPA protection across various scales; (4) track MPA quality, including progress towards coverage targets; (5) enable clear communication and collaboration, and (6) inform actions needed to achieve policy targets and their underlying environmental and social goals, among others. We share common opportunities, challenges, and recommendations for tracking MPA quality at various scales, and using these quality assessments to measure progress towards global targets.

**Keywords:** marine protected area quality, biodiversity conservation, global biodiversity framework target 3, MPA assessment, MPA effectiveness, level of protection

## 1. Introduction.

The ocean faces urgent challenges, which undermine its ability to support healthy and biodiverse ecosystems, regulate climate, and provide associated cultural, economic, nutritional, and other benefits to people (IPBES, 2019; Jouffray et al., 2020). In recognition of the need to improve ocean health, many countries and regions around the world have set percentage targets for area-based ocean conservation. Different targets have been set in different contexts, but many align with Target 3 in the Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework (GBF), adopted in December 2022, which calls for effectively conserving and managing at least 30% of coastal and marine areas by 2030 via marine protected areas (MPAs) and other effective area-based conservation measures (OECMs), recognizing and respecting the rights of Indigenous peoples and local communities including over their traditional territories (Convention on Biological Diversity, 2022). These targets are not exclusively quantitative. Target 3 and many other targets in the GBF include the need for important qualitative aspects such as effective conservation and management, equitable governance, representativeness, and connectivity.

MPAs are a key area-based tool for making progress towards conservation targets, yet there are many different types of MPAs that provide vastly different conservation outcomes based on their regulations, management, and other enabling conditions (Sciberras et al., 2015; Zupan et al., 2018; Turnbull et al., 2021). To gauge progress towards biodiversity conservation targets, it is crucial to assess not only the quantity of MPA coverage, but also the quality of MPAs therein (Visconti et al., 2019): e.g., what type of protection exists? Are these MPAs formally established and being effectively implemented? What are the expected conservation outcomes, including

benefits for both people and the environment? Qualitative assessments of MPAs aim to answer these questions. These assessments may have diverse objectives, including to (1) evaluate and improve existing MPAs, with clear expectations grounded in science and reality; (2) plan new MPAs designed from the beginning to achieve their goals; (3) compare expected outcomes of protection for MPAs across local, national, regional, or global scales; (4) track MPA effectiveness, including progress towards protected area coverage targets; (5) enable clear communication and collaboration; and (6) inform the actions still needed to achieve policy targets and their underlying environmental and social goals, among others.

There are many existing tools for qualitative assessments of MPAs, along with different ways to understand and use the results. One such tool, *The MPA Guide*, is a science-based, clarifying framework for better understanding MPAs (Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021) that can be used to support the above objectives and outcomes. It provides unique information on the *expected* conservation outcomes of an MPA or zone, using decades of scientific findings and traditional knowledge to summarize the impact MPA design and management have on conservation outcomes.

*The MPA Guide* framework is composed of four elements: Stage of Establishment, Level of Protection, Enabling Conditions, and Expected Outcomes. The first three elements combine to define different types of MPAs according to key features: an MPA's management status (Stage of Establishment); the activities and impacts that are, or are not, occurring in the MPA or MPA zone [Level of Protection; modified from the Regulations-Based Classification System (RBCS) by Horta e Costa et al., 2016]; and the presence of social and ecological conditions for MPA effectiveness (Enabling Conditions). These three elements link to specific, research-based Expected Outcomes from different types of MPAs (see Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021 for full definitions). When underpinned by key Enabling Conditions, MPAs that are at the Actively Managed Stage and the Fully or Highly Protected Level are expected to have the greatest biodiversity conservation outcomes, because these areas are more likely to protect and restore species and habitats, support ecosystem functioning and resilience (i.e., ability to recover after a disturbance), contribute to fisheries via larval supply and spillover (Di Lorenzo et al., 2020; Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021), and support human wellbeing with healthy ocean ecosystems (Ban et al., 2019). Without key Enabling Conditions in place, MPAs cannot achieve their goals. Minimally or Lightly Protected MPAs are expected to deliver fewer benefits of lower magnitude, and MPAs that are only at the Proposed/Committed Stage or Designated Stage cannot accrue biodiversity benefits until they are Implemented (Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021).

Since it was published in 2021, *The MPA Guide* has been used in a growing list of countries and regions around the world to build understanding of the biodiversity outcomes that can be expected from certain MPAs (Figure 1). Here, we highlight examples and lessons learned from completed assessments that use *The MPA Guide* (10 studies representing more than 800 MPAs), with additional insights from three studies that use the earlier-developed RBCS to measure protection level based on current regulations. These studies illustrate various ways in which standardized assessments of the quality of MPAs in a given area have had different results and different implications for conservation action (see Figure 3 for an example *MPA Guide* assessment process). Examples of opportunities and lessons learned from these assessments are given in the following sections.

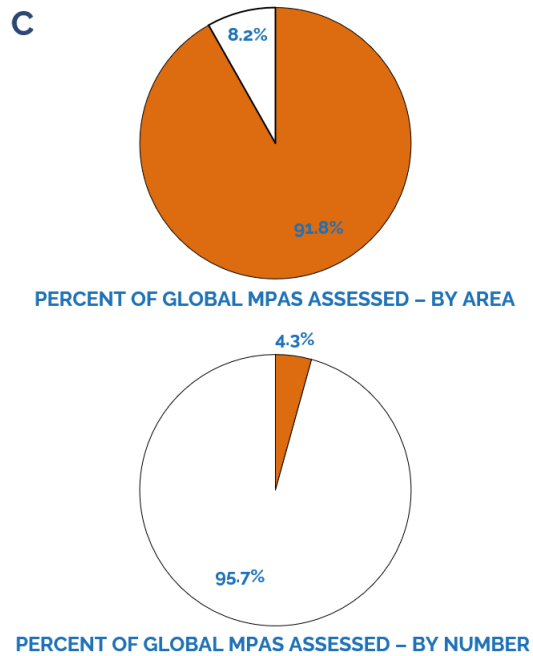
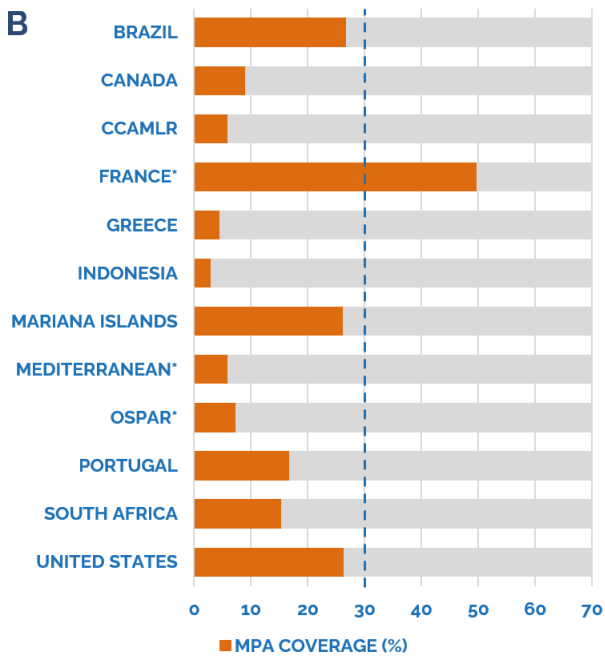
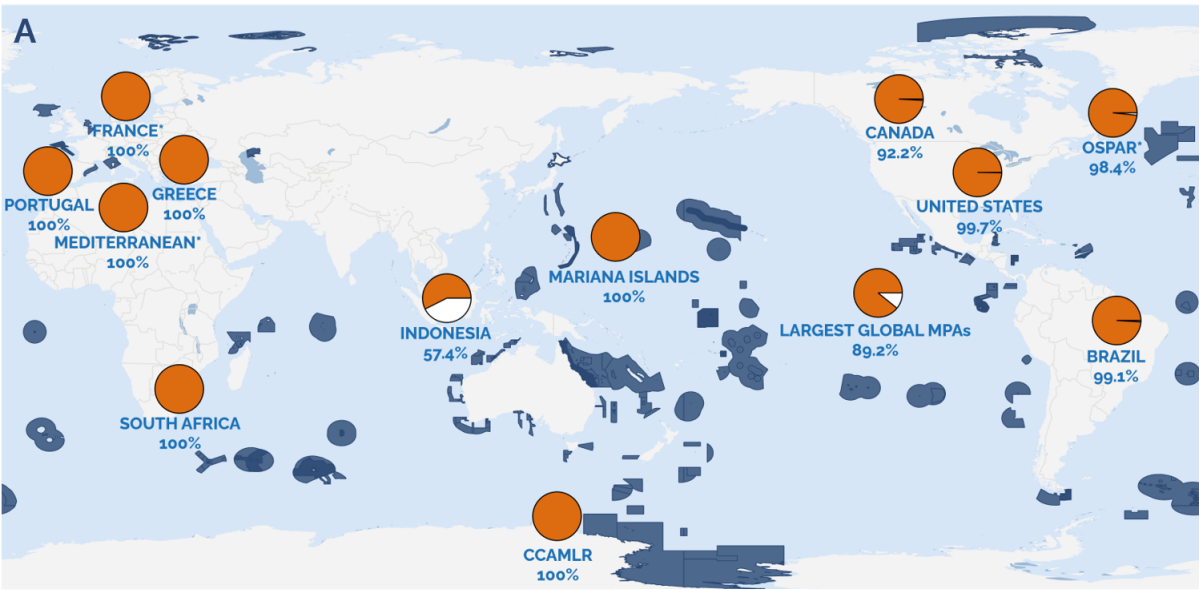


Figure 1. (A) Map of the location of case studies of MPA quality assessments using *The MPA Guide* or the Regulation Based Classification System (RBCS; indicated with an asterisk). Pie charts denote the proportion of total MPA area in a country or region that was assessed according to Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection (for *The MPA Guide* assessments) or Level of Protection (for RBCS assessments). The boundaries of the 100 largest MPAs globally, assessed in Pike et al. (*in revision*), are shown in dark blue. (B) Total MPA coverage in each case study country or region, as reported to the World Database of Protected Areas. (C) Percent of global MPAs assessed using *The MPA Guide* for Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection, by area (top pie chart) and number of MPAs out of the total 18,638 MPAs currently reported to the World Database on Protected Areas (bottom pie chart).

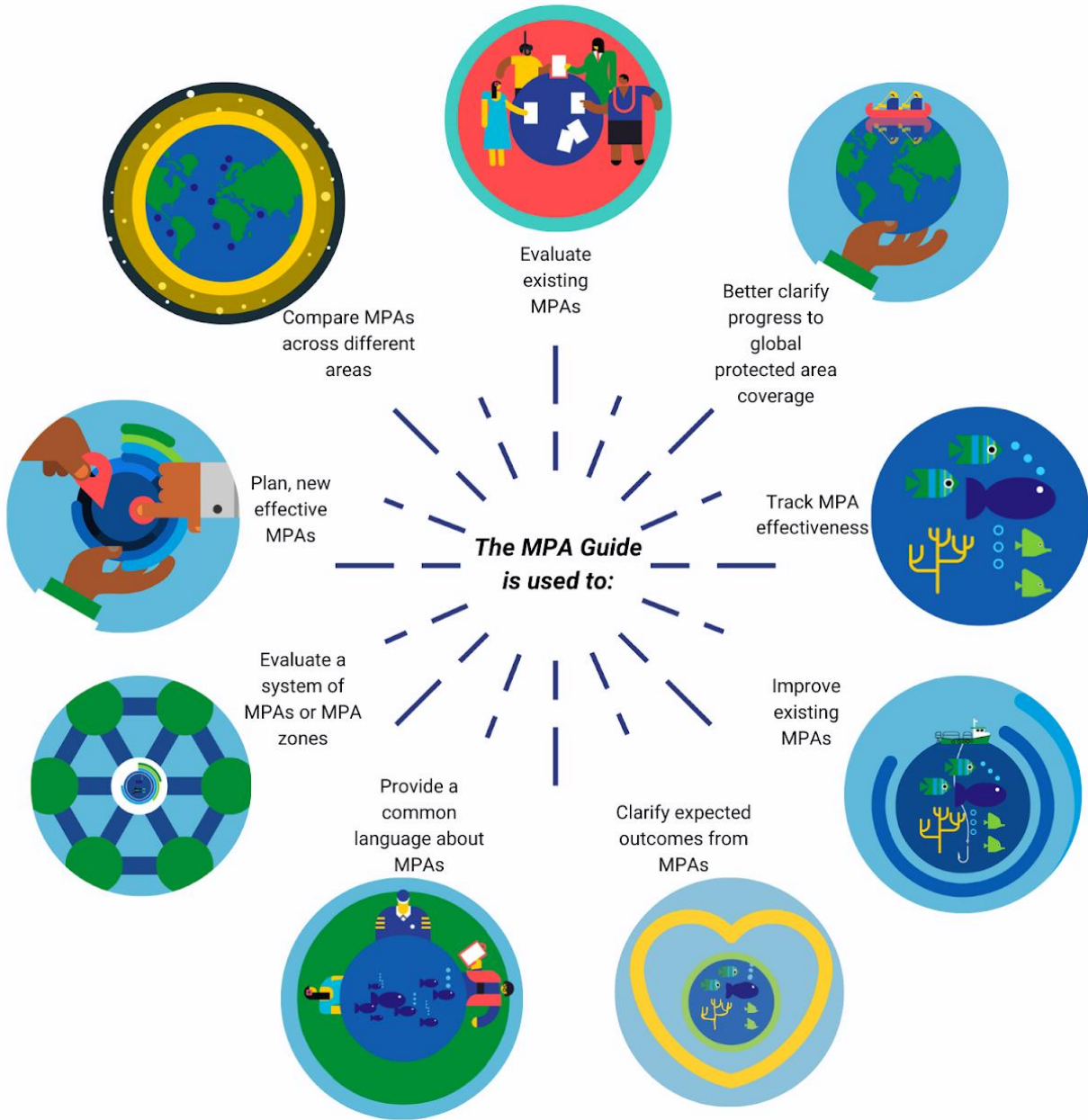


Figure 2. Examples of uses for MPA quality assessments presented in this paper.

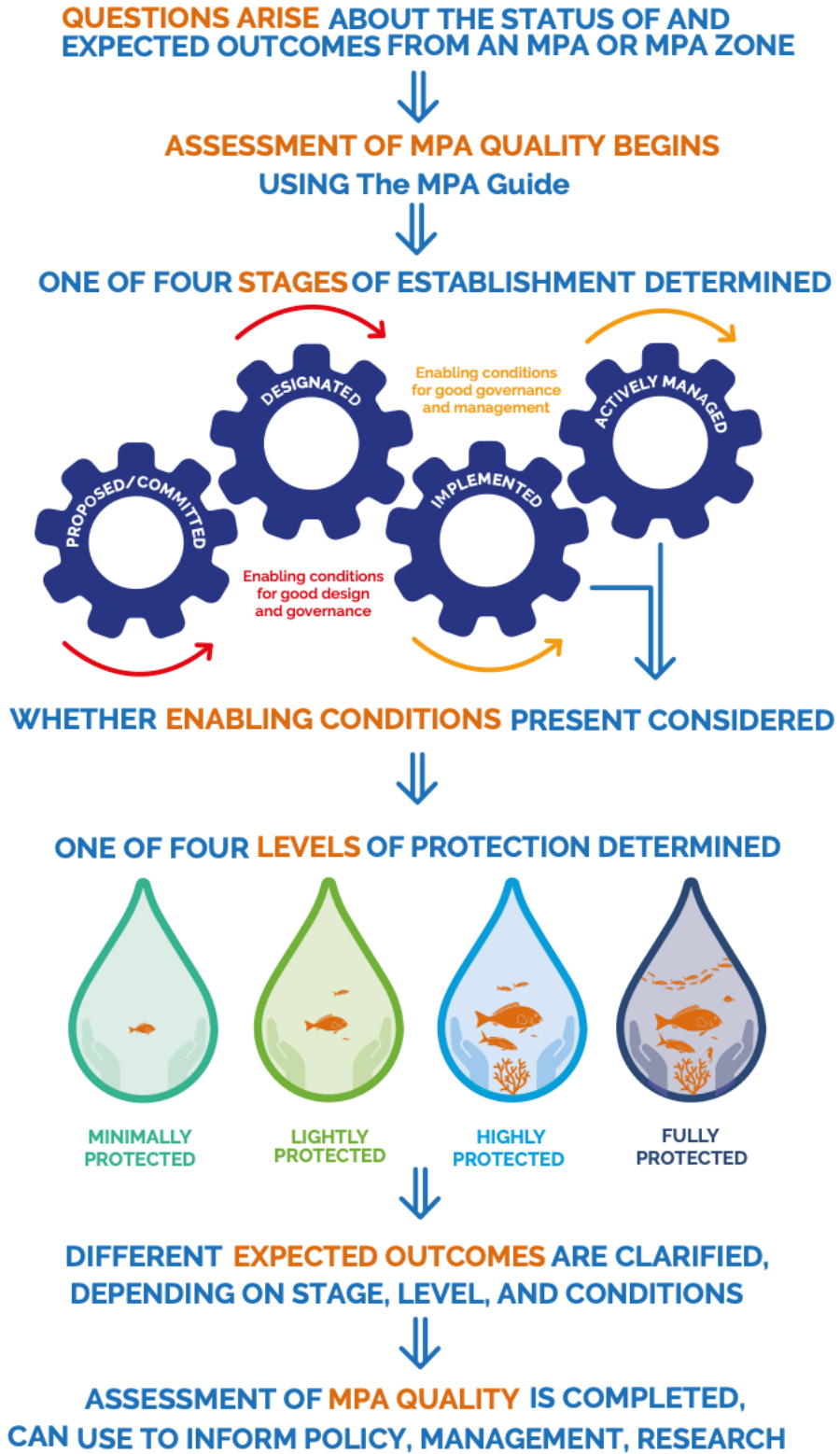


Figure 3. Example of the process involved when undertaking an assessment of MPA quality using *The MPA Guide*. These assessments may be motivated by diverse questions – for examples, see Figure 2.

Table 1. Summary details of Level of Protection and Stage of Establishment for countries' MPAs included in these analyses. Assessments with an asterisk used the Regulation-Based Classification System, and thus did not report by Stage of Establishment.

<b>Assessment</b>	<b>Number MPAs assessed</b>	<b>MPA area assessed (km<sup>2</sup>)</b>	<b>% MPA area</b>		<b>Reference</b>
			<b>Implemented + Actively Managed</b>	<b>Fully + Highly Protected</b>	
<i>100 Largest MPAs globally</i>	100	26,382,926	74.6%	35.7%	Pike et al., <i>in revision</i>
<i>Brazil</i>	203	962,910	96.8%	12.8%	Tardin et al., <i>in prep</i>
<i>Canada-Federal MPAs</i>	18	475,900	4.4%	5.3%	Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society, 2021
<i>Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR) MPAs</i>	2	2,136,047	100%	79.6%	Nocito et al., 2022
<i>France*</i>	524	3,435,052	N/A	1.6%	Claudet et al., 2021
<i>Greece</i>	160	22,885.55	15.3%	1.9%	Giakoumi et al., 2023
<i>Indonesia</i>	148	208,650	55.4%	3.1%	Andradi-Brown et al., 2020
<i>Mariana Islands - all federal and</i>	18	247,313	0.02%	17.2%	Johnson and



<i>territorial managed MPAs</i>					Villagomez, 2022
<i>Mediterranean*</i>	1,062	150,851	N/A	0.23%	Claudet et al., 2020
<i>OSPAR*</i>	551	100,823	N/A	0.03%	Roessger et al., 2022
<i>Portugal</i>	71 + 2 zones in the Extended Continental Shelf	250,623 (Territorial Seas + Exclusive Economic Zone + Extended Continental Shelf)	3.6%	1.5%	Horta e Costa et al., <i>in prep</i> , building on Horta e Costa et al., 2019*
<i>South Africa</i>	41 Continental MPAs	57,833	100%	85%	Field et al., <i>in prep</i>
<i>United States - 50 Largest MPAs</i>	50	3,177,840	100% (Includes Marianas Trench Marine National Monument (MNM) and Pacific Remote Islands MNM, which are undergoing management planning)	96.9% (includes the benthic-only protections in Marianas Trench MNM)	Sullivan-Stack et al., 2022

## 2. Gauging real progress towards international or national targets

In the rush to meet percentage targets, there is a risk of “counting” MPAs towards a target when they are unjust and not designed or implemented to deliver tangible conservation outcomes that benefit biodiversity and human well-being (Gurney et al., 2021). Qualitative assessments of

MPAs are key to understanding the current status of ocean conservation, informing what should “count” towards these targets, and what types of areas are still needed.

In recent years, reported global MPA coverage reported to the World Database on Protected Areas has rapidly increased from <1% to >8% in an effort to meet the quantitative goals of global targets, such as the CBD’s Aichi Target 11, United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 14, and the CBD’s GBF Target 3. A recent study evaluated the quality of MPA protection globally to provide standardized baseline information and an understanding of meaningful progress towards meeting GBF Target 3. Pike et al. (*in revision*) assess the Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection for the world’s largest 100 MPAs by area, which together encompass nearly 90% of reported global MPA coverage (and 7.3% of the global ocean by area). One quarter of the assessed MPA area is not yet Implemented, and one-third is subject to high-impact human activities that are Incompatible with the conservation of nature. Including these areas in accounting toward conservation goals results in an overestimate of progress. Fully and Highly Protected MPAs that are Implemented or Actively Managed account for one-third of the assessed area, but they are unevenly distributed across ecoregions, in part because some nations have designated large, Highly Protected MPAs in their overseas or remote territories (as described above). This work highlights important actions needed to ensure that the global system of MPAs is representative and at an appropriate quality to deliver the biodiversity conservation and human well-being benefits called for in the GBF. Suggestions include strengthening the regulations of existing MPAs (particularly prohibiting highly destructive activities such as industrial-scale commercial fishing), dedicating sufficient resources to MPAs for active management, and strategically locating and designing new MPAs in poorly represented ecoregions and the high seas.

South Africa provides a useful example at a national scale. National targets are currently undergoing reassessment to align with Target 3 following South Africa’s agreement to the GBF. In the meantime, South Africa is making strides towards achieving its current protection targets outlined in the National Protected Areas Expansion Strategy, including protecting 10% of the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) in MPAs by 2036 and a longer-term target of protecting 20% of the EEZ in MPAs, with no target date given (DEA, 2018). Currently, 5.4% of the continental EEZ (~1,068,000km<sup>2</sup>; excluding the remote and isolated Prince Edward Islands MPA in the Southern Ocean) is protected in MPAs, including 20 new MPAs established in 2019 as part of Operation Phakisa (Sink et al., 2023). The country plans to invest further resources in expanding the system of MPAs to protect more area. The recent *MPA Guide* assessment of Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection by Field et al. (*in prep*) can help assess progress towards existing targets and inform the approach to meeting future (see section 3).

Measures of protected area quality are also being used in conservation policy via “two-tier” targets. Under the 2030 European Biodiversity Strategy, countries have committed to increasing protection in EU waters both in protected area coverage—by achieving at least 30% with MPAs by 2030—but also in protected area quality, by committing to 10% of EU waters under ‘strict protection’. In the Azores, the regional government has announced that, of the 30% of its EEZ it plans to protect by 2023, at least 15% will be in Fully Protected MPAs, with effectiveness of these areas supported by appropriate funding and procedures (Horta e Costa et al., 2022). However the definition of “what counts” towards these targets is not yet clear. Currently,

countries have been asked to identify and submit sites to convert to, or designate as, ‘strict protection’. Most countries have not yet submitted their pledges (<https://europe.wetlands.org/news/eu-member-states-missed-the-extended-deadline-for-biodiversity-pledges/>). A common definition of ‘strict protection’ is key to guide these pledges and the overall effort to improve the effectiveness of European MPAs. The recent guidelines released by the European Commission (SWD (2022) 23 final) mention: "The concept of strict protection is also present in the IUCN Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories, and it is often associated with the definitions of categories Ia, strict nature reserve, Ib, wilderness area, and II, national park". However, the IUCN Management Categories indicate management objectives, not conservation outcomes, and do not directly correspond to Level of Protection (see below section 7). Some European scientists and practitioners are asking that *The MPA Guide* be better used for standardized language, including protection level, to support this conservation policy target (Claudet 2019).

National and international conservation targets not only include components of area percentage and effectiveness for biodiversity conservation, but also underlying requirements for equity and human rights-based approaches. In the United States, a national conservation target is outlined via the America the Beautiful initiative, which President Biden implemented via an Executive Order (Conserving and Restoring America the Beautiful, 2021). One of the America The Beautiful targets calls for conserving at least 30% of United States lands and waters by 2030 to achieve the triple goals of biodiversity conservation, climate resilience, and equitable access to nature. However, despite progress in achieving MPA quantity by area, there has been less progress towards the goals for climate, biodiversity, and equity (see description in section 5; Sullivan-Stack et al., 2022). For example, according to a report by the Center for American Progress, only 10% of the United States coast and Great Lakes have strong legal frameworks in place to ensure equitable public access (<https://www.americanprogress.org/article/how-to-fix-americans-diminishing-access-to-the-coasts/>). In conjunction with the ATB initiative, the Biden administration launched the Justice40 Initiative, which mandates that 40% of the overall benefits of certain Federal investments flow to disadvantaged communities that are marginalized, underserved, and overburdened by pollution and other stressors, including impacts caused by climate change. The vast majority of the United States MPA area, including Fully or Highly Protected area, is in the western and central Pacific Ocean (Sullivan-Stack et al., 2022). Resident communities and Indigenous people of the western and central Pacific are amongst some of the most socioeconomically and politically disenfranchised populations in the United States (e.g., Villagomez, 2021), and proportionate amount of resources for establishing, monitoring, and actively managing MPAs is warranted. While a formal accounting of funding challenges and opportunities is beyond the scope of this paper, there is a need for increased social justice research programs in the United States and globally.

An application of *The MPA Guide* in Canada highlights a mismatch between the desire to “count” sites toward political commitments and the reality that some sites do not provide meaningful long-term protection (CPAWS 2021; see below section 4). Between 2015 and 2019, Canada went from less than 1% of its ocean protected to 13.8% in an ambitious push to protect 10% of coastal and marine areas by 2020 under the Aichi Biodiversity Targets. Canada counts over 900 sites (including some zones and overlapping designations) under 30 different designations (CPCAD 2023). The *MPA Guide* analysis of 18 sites established under the most

comprehensive legal tools showed a strong tendency towards large MPAs at lower Levels of Protection, and much smaller MPAs at higher Levels of Protection (CPAWS 2021). Of the sites assessed, one site (Tallurutiup Imanga) is proposed, and one site (Tuvaijuittuq) has interim protection. Together, the two sites comprise 7.4% of Canada’s reporting and are part of an ongoing Inuit-led, regional, and integrated conservation approach in the Arctic (Qikiqtani Inuit Association, 2022). In the case of Tallurutiup Imanga, the site is not yet listed under Canada’s National Marine Conservation Areas Act. However, there is an agreement in place with the Inuit to protect the site and funding attached to this agreement has been used to support Indigenous guardian programs that support “Active Management” of the area. The site has been counted towards Canada’s Marine Protection Targets since 2019. As the recognition and advancement of Indigenous-led conservation and Indigenous Protected and Conserved Areas increases in Canada, we anticipate changes in the establishment process from the current linear, sequential process of protected area designation under colonial legal systems and management by bureaucratic institutions, to non-linear and context specific processes that are focused more on “Active Management” through Indigenous law than designation under colonial law. However, in these cases, safeguards are needed to secure Indigenous Peoples and Governments’ long term rights, for example to enforce opposition to development and extraction in their territories.

### **3. Showcasing investments in MPA quality**

Single-number metrics, such as percentage targets for conservation, can obscure progress and investments in effectiveness (Barnes et al., 2018; Gurney et al., 2023). Assessments of MPA quality can shine a spotlight on not just the largest areas, but also MPAs that are in force in the water and actively managed, at a sufficiently high level of protection to meet conservation objectives, with attention to equity and other key social and ecological enabling conditions.

An assessment using *The MPA Guide* in South Africa revealed high Levels of Protection and advanced Stages of Establishment among the 41 existing MPAs (Table 1). In fact, 85% of South Africa’s MPAs are either Fully or Highly Protected, and only one MPA zone is Minimally Protected (Field et al., *in prep*). Further, all South African MPAs are either Implemented or Actively Managed, indicating that regulations are active in the water and in many cases where there is active management, local communities are engaged and periodic management evaluations support adaptive management to better achieve conservation goals, although funding and personnel shortages may compromise expected conservation outcomes (Field et al. *in prep*). The assessment indicates that high Levels of Protection and resource use are not mutually exclusive in multi-zone MPAs, as many areas allow low-impact human uses in certain zones. Historically, MPA evaluation in South Africa has focused on extent and management effectiveness; this approach leaves out the impact of human activities and thus the expected conservation outcomes that are associated with level of protection.

A recent study of the Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection of 148 MPAs in Indonesia showed that 39% of MPA area is Actively Managed, highlighting which MPAs have the greatest potential to achieve conservation goals (Andradi-Brown et al., 2020). The assessment also highlighted that, although less than 5% of Indonesia’s MPA extent was Fully or Highly Protected, newly Proposed and Designated MPAs are incorporating more Fully and Highly Protected zones (Andradi-Brown et al., 2020). Disaggregating data beyond a single percent area

brings more information to the accounting of MPAs, which in Indonesia is divided between multiple government ministries and has historically focused more on MPA extent than measures of quality (Amkieltiela et al., 2022). The *MPA Guide* assessment provided useful insight for the Government of Indonesia and partners to identify case studies of well-performing MPAs to learn from as part of a 2030 visioning exercise, which informed priorities and pathways to improve both the number and quality of Indonesia’s MPAs (MMAF, 2020).

#### **4. Improving MPA alignment with conservation goals**

Beyond highlighting success stories, an understanding of MPA quality can help reveal mismatches between desired conservation outcomes and the management and activities that are taking place in a given area. Often, an MPA’s Level of Protection is too low to achieve stated conservation goals, or the protection is ineffective as it is not yet in force. Many of these examples exist in different contexts, including in countries that have committed to achieving a “30x30” target that provides effective conservation by recovering and sustaining biodiversity (see Table 1).

For example, the importance of protecting Canada’s ocean for generations to come is emphasized in official statements, including those which recently announced minimum protection standards for all federal MPAs to prohibit trawling, oil and gas activities, mining, and dumping (Government of Canada, 2023). In 2021, the Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society (CPAWS) used *The MPA Guide* to conduct a pilot assessment of 18 federally established MPAs (Table 1; Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society, 2021), covering 8.3% of Canada’s ocean estate (475,900 km<sup>2</sup>) and ranging in size from 2km<sup>2</sup> to 320,000km<sup>2</sup>. Of the total area assessed, 6.9% was Fully or Highly Protected, while 88.7% was Lightly or Minimally Protected and 4.4 % was considered Incompatible with the conservation of nature, as defined by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (Day et al., 2019). The experience of applying *The MPA Guide* in Canada underscored the challenges of interpreting the patchwork of overlapping jurisdictions, opaque legislation, and selective regulations, aligned with long-standing concerns about the protection standards of Canadian MPAs (Jessen et al., 2017). MPA legislation in Canada often delegated authority over activities like fishing and shipping to other legal tools, and only a few MPAs had detailed management plans that provided a summary of allowable and prohibited activities (CPAWS 2021). *The MPA Guide* assessment, particularly if expanded to include all of Canada’s MPAs, shows the limited positive outcomes expected across Canada’s current federal MPA estate if protection levels remain low. This information can inform dialogue about necessary changes to better achieve long-term conservation goals.

Similarly, in Brazil, the vast majority of the EEZ area in MPAs (27% of the 3.6 million km<sup>2</sup> EEZ) is assessed as Incompatible with the conservation of nature (22.1% of EEZ) based on the large impact of extractive or destructive activities occurring inside certain MPAs. The two largest Brazilian MPAs, which were created in 2018 and represent 81.8% of Brazil’s MPA area, are subject to highly destructive fishing activities (and mining activities in one of them, the Área de Proteção Ambiental do Arquipélago de Trindade e Martim Vaz). These MPAs have had their effectiveness criticized, including as a result of poor design, lack of regulations for high-impact activities, and top-down governance without adequate participation in the planning process (Giglio et al., 2018; Magris and Pressey, 2018). Only just over 3% of Brazil’s EEZ is Fully or

Highly Protected (Tardin et al., *in prep*; Table 1). The regions that concentrate the highest cumulative human impacts (Magris et al., 2021) are covered only by 0.17% of Fully or Highly Protected MPAs (Tardin et al., *in prep*). Despite these challenges, Brazil has indicated a commitment to achieving a 30% target. Clear understanding of the biodiversity outcomes that can be expected, or not, from Brazilian MPAs can inform conservation actions to increase effectiveness in existing, as well as new, protected areas.

Analyses have shown effective biodiversity conservation expected in certain areas of MPA management and opportunity for improvement in others. In Indonesia, approximately 40% of the MPA area is Actively Managed, as mentioned above, but much of this area is Minimally Protected (59% of national MPA extent) or Lightly Protected (36%) (Andradi-Brown et al., 2020). Along with the other 60% that is not yet Actively Managed, these areas likely have low conservation benefit (Andradi-Brown et al., 2020) and are focal points for increasing investments. Many of Indonesia's MPAs are designed to promote sustainable fisheries in addition to biodiversity conservation, based on local contexts and equity for all stakeholders. Yet, low Levels of Protection in Indonesian MPAs indicate that allowed activities may compromise biodiversity conservation outcomes, jeopardizing fisheries sustainability. The *MPA Guide* assessment highlights areas and activities that may be reassessed to facilitate adaptive management and achieve conservation goals where desired outcomes from MPAs are not occurring (Andradi-Brown et al., 2020).

In some countries, there is a tendency towards large, offshore MPAs, many of which are not Implemented and still require investments to reach Active Management (Pike et al, *in revision*). For example, in Portugal, most MPA coverage is Minimally Protected, due to very large offshore MPAs that are not yet Implemented *de facto* and have weak protection measures in the water column (Horta e Costa et al., *in prep*). In these areas, regulations are not only decided by Portugal but also the EU Common Fisheries Policy (in the EEZ) and to the ocean law applicable to extended continental zones, which has jurisdiction only in the bottom and sub-bottom. Further, only 1.5% of the area covered by Portuguese MPAs is Fully (~1%) or Highly (~0.5%) Protected (Table 1). Most of this area is in small zones of nearshore MPAs (Horta e Costa et al., *in prep*) and the remote Selvagens Islands MPA, which is Actively Managed and was recently expanded to become the largest Fully Protected area in the North Atlantic (Alves et al., 2022). MPA quality, and the resources needed to achieve that quality, can vary across jurisdictions within a single region – these assessments are relevant to guide decision-makers in prioritizing management and/or protection levels, depending on the jurisdiction.

Similar trends were found in an assessment of MPAs in the United States' Territory of Guam and the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands in the western Pacific (Johnson and Villagomez, 2022). This analysis shows a discrepancy in the Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection between large, offshore, federally managed MPAs (covering 25.4% of the total EEZ) and the smaller MPAs in territorially managed waters up to 12 nautical miles from shore (covering 0.83% of Guam and 0.07% of Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, excluding area in the federally managed Mariana Trench MNM). The Marianas Trench MNM lacks a management plan, which has been under development since 2009 and is currently in review. Many of the territorially managed MPAs are smaller in size, but all have been Actively Managed over a longer time period. Some of these smaller coastal MPAs are Lightly Protected,

due to high impact from tourist activity or species-specific management that does not provide a high level of comprehensive biodiversity conservation. The authors concluded that investments are required, but should be nuanced according to jurisdictional context. For example, investments in Stage of Establishment are needed to finalize a management plan for the Mariana Trench MNM and actively manage the MPA, including both the benthos and the water column. Similarly, investments in increasing Level of Protection are needed for some territorially managed MPAs, for example via increasing protection of Lightly Protected MPAs, e.g., to align with socioeconomic objectives from the tourist sector.

Lack of implementation also exists in MPAs close to shore and near population centers. For example, the majority of the Natura 2000 sites throughout Europe currently lack management plans and need investments at the national scale to be implemented and accrue biodiversity benefits (Mazaris et al., 2018). In Greece, over 150 MPAs have been designated, but less than 10% of these have official regulations and even fewer are Implemented or Actively Managed (Giakoumi et al., 2023; Table 1). Less than 2% of Greece's MPAs are Fully or Highly Protected, and 88% are Incompatible with the conservation of nature, primarily because unregulated, high-impact fishing occurs within these areas. In his speech at the IUCN World Conservation Congress in Marseille in 2021, Greece's Prime Minister Kyriakos Mitsotakis committed to the goal of protecting 30% of the Mediterranean Sea by 2030. Moreover, he stated: "And beyond the ambition to protect 30% of marine and coastal areas, we must work... to ensure that marine protected areas or MPAs are no longer paper parks. We must aim for effectively managed networks of MPAs, with defined conservation measures" (IUCN, 2022). *The MPA Guide* assessment of Greek MPAs provides a pathway to achieve this ambition (Giakoumi et al., 2023). A report to the Prime Minister outlines results, conclusions, and suggestions on how Greece could benefit (both in ecological and socio-economic terms) from increased effective protection. The authors conclude that a first step is to increase the Level of Protection and change the Stage of Establishment from designated to actively managed for MPAs in Greek seas (Giakoumi et al., 2023).

Finally, the process of planning new or expanding MPAs can also use information from existing assessments of MPA quality in a site or a region. In France, the RBCS assessment of French MPAs facilitated an understanding of the positive outcomes of Fully and Highly Protected areas, and the conservation investment in their establishment. Consequently, when discussion started to expand the Cerbère-Banyuls MPA, care was given to ensure that enough new Fully protected zones were proposed to maintain the relative proportions of these Levels of Protection in the MPA and the benefits provided by those higher Levels of Protection.

## **5. Improving national or regional representativeness in effective MPAs**

Assessments of the expected conservation outcomes from MPAs across a country or region can also highlight places where MPA protection is unevenly distributed, without ecosystem representation or equitable access for communities. For example, Sullivan-Stack et al. (2022) assessed the Level of Protection and Stage of Establishment of the 50 largest MPAs in the United States, which comprise 99.7% of the total MPA area in the United States (Table 1). The United States ocean estate encompasses a broad spectrum of biodiversity and habitats across diverse ocean ecosystems spanning the Arctic to the Caribbean to the tropical central and western

Pacific. However, this study revealed that 99% of the Fully or Highly Protected United States MPA area is in the central and western Pacific ocean, and only 1.9% of marine area outside this region is protected in any kind of MPA, with most area Lightly or Minimally Protected (Sullivan-Stack et al., 2022). These results highlight that the United States system of MPAs is not representative or equitable, leaving many important species and habitat types unprotected by MPAs while concentrating the vast majority of the conservation burden of achieving effective MPAs on communities and governance structures in one region of the US.

Similar results were found in three studies that used the RBCS. Claudet et al. (2021) used the RBCS to assess the regulations in France's 524 MPAs, both in continental waters and overseas territories. The authors showed that France's MPA area, including that which is Fully or Highly Protected, is unevenly distributed across territories and ecosystem types. Although 31.8% of France's EEZ is covered by an MPA, regulations are not stronger inside the MPA than outside for 12.5% of these areas. Only 1.6% of the EEZ is Fully or Highly Protected, and 97.4% of this full and high protection is concentrated in the uninhabited French Austral and Antarctic territories and some remote reefs of New Caledonia (Claudet et al., 2021). In Portugal, MPA area is 9.4 times higher when including the extended continental shelf, as compared to only national waters (EEZ and territorial seas), but all MPA area in the extended continental shelf is Designated with management plans in development and high-impact activities occurring (Horta e Costa et al., 2019). In the Mediterranean Sea, 72% of the 1,062 MPAs lack regulations that reduce human impacts on biodiversity, and the most effective levels of protection in the RBCS (similar to Highly and Fully Protected) represent only 0.23% of the basin and are unevenly distributed across ecoregions (Claudet et al., 2020). Those results were used in a report by the European Court of Auditors (2020) criticizing European marine environment protection.

Throughout these examples, the authors conclude that increased Level of Protection and more representative distribution of MPAs across political boundaries and ecoregions would be more effective in delivering tangible benefits for biodiversity conservation, and more equitable distribution of MPA costs and benefits to local communities.

## **6. Providing guidance for effective MPA protection in the high seas**

The newly adopted High Seas Treaty (United Nations, 2023), which provides a framework for establishing MPAs in areas beyond national jurisdiction, alongside GBF Target 3, provides a unique opportunity to provide meaningful protection for the high seas. However, there is also a risk that MPAs will be designated opportunistically in areas of low economic importance given strong lobbying against reducing commercial activities that compromise biodiversity conservation in specific areas (Devillers et al., 2015). Further, given that the High Seas Treaty (per Article 4) will likely rely on coordination with current legal frameworks for resource extraction (e.g., Regional Fisheries Management Organizations, the International Seabed Authority), there is a risk that high seas MPAs will be multi-use areas with destructive activities that are Incompatible with the conservation of nature (Claudet et al., 2023).

Two governance regimes have established MPAs in international waters and can provide insights. The first is through the Oslo and Paris (OSPAR) Commission, which has created a network of MPAs in the high seas of the Northeast Atlantic. Currently, these high seas MPAs



rely on a Memorandum of Understanding with the North-East Atlantic Fisheries Commission, and although some areas ban bottom fishing gears and impose management measures to fishing members, they generally allow various uses, which in such distant areas are typically at industrial scales and thus Incompatible with the conservation of nature per the IUCN. Additionally, the management of the OSPAR MPAs is fragmented, with various bodies managing the wide array of current and emerging activities (Nocito, 2023). An assessment of 476 of the 551 MPAs in the OSPAR database using the RBCS showed that only 0.03% of the network is Fully or Highly Protected, and approximately 70% allow high impact and damaging activities to an extent that would be considered Minimally Protected or Incompatible with the conservation of nature in *The MPA Guide* (Roessger et al., 2022). Similarly, although not all in the high seas, many of the largest 100 MPAs included in the assessment by Pike et al. (*in revision*) are in remote, offshore areas. Human activities occurring in these areas tend to be industrial scale, i.e. requiring large vessels, by IUCN's definition (International Union for the Conservation of Nature, 2020), because these areas are otherwise difficult and unsafe to access, and thus Incompatible with biodiversity conservation, undermining the effectiveness of the areas that contribute the majority of area towards global targets (Relano et al., 2021).

Another example of international MPAs is through the Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR). CCAMLR has established two MPAs to date: the South Orkney Islands Southern Shelf MPA, which is Highly Protected; and the Ross Sea region MPA, which is ~80% Highly Protected and ~20% Lightly Protected (Nocito et al., 2022). This showcases CCAMLR's commitment to implement meaningful MPAs with strong conservation targets. However, the governance of activities in the Southern Ocean is also fragmented to some degree, relying on several different bodies for comprehensive protection across different activity types (Nocito et al., 2022). Further, CCAMLR has allowances for research fishing within all MPAs. While research fishing is strictly regulated, it supports commercial fishing rather than ecological research – the research is focused on assessing the stock and is conducted from commercial vessels, and the catch is commercially sold. If not constrained, this research fishing could compromise the conservation value of the MPA. This fragmentation and allowance for research also highlights that the protection status may not be permanent. Additionally, management bodies such as CCAMLR did not meet key social and ecological Enabling Conditions for MPA effectiveness outlined in *The MPA Guide* – such as transparency, accountability, and sustainable financing (Nocito et al., 2022).

## **7. Complementing, leveraging, and expanding the scale of existing assessment systems**

Many countries already use the IUCN Categories for Management Objectives and Governance Types of an MPA (Day et al., 2019). The IUCN categories and *The MPA Guide* are complementary frameworks that provide different information (Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021). The IUCN categories group MPAs based on their management objectives (Day et al., 2019), whereas *The MPA Guide* provides an understanding of expected outcomes (Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021). An understanding of both of these aspects – a site's objectives and the outcomes it is likely to achieve – can help managers and other decision-makers understand if goals are likely to be met and what actions should be taken to improve MPA effectiveness. Indeed, analyses have shown that IUCN categories do not map onto the *MPA Guide* Level of Protection in a one-to-one comparison. In a recent analysis of the largest 100 MPAs globally, only about one-third of MPA

coverage reported as category Ia (strict nature reserve), Ib (wilderness area), or II (national park) was Fully or Highly Protected (Pike et al., *in revision*). In Brazil, 57.9% of MPAs in the EEZ are considered IUCN Category VI, “Protected area with sustainable use of natural resources”; however, using *The MPA Guide* framework, several of these MPAs are considered Incompatible with conservation of nature based on highly destructive activities that are happening therein (Tardin et al., *in prep*). Understanding the management objectives of an area via the IUCN categories is not replaced, but complemented, by an understanding of the quality of protection via an *MPA Guide* assessment.

There are many different assessment systems and tools for understanding the management and effectiveness of MPAs [e.g., the Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool (Stolton et al., 2020), the IUCN Green List (<https://www.iucn.org/resources/conservation-tool/iucn-green-list-protected-and-conserved-areas>)]. These vary in purpose and in information requirements, and when used disjointedly can create confusion. However, using complementary assessment systems can help clearly outline goals, resources needed, and outcomes of protections. Many assessments require monitoring data that take many years to compile to provide evidence of conservation benefits from MPAs. As a complement to more data-intensive assessment tools, *The MPA Guide* provides “expected” conservation outcomes, grounded in evidence from scientific studies and summarized in Grorud-Colvert et al. (2021) but without extensive resources or time requirements. For that reason, it can be coupled with more time and resource-intensive tools and used as a first step, to identify areas where tangible conservation benefits are likely to be recorded through monitoring data, areas where additional capacity is needed to achieve effectiveness, or areas where dialogue about updating MPA design and management practices could bring improvements. While global resources such as the Global Database on Protected Area Management Effectiveness (GD-PAME; <https://www.protectedplanet.net/en/thematic-areas/protected-areas-management-effectiveness-pame>) compile information about whether effectiveness assessments have been undertaken, most of the 18,000+ MPAs globally have not been assessed. Complementing these with *MPA Guide* mid-level assessments, categorizing by Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection to indicate expected effectiveness of biodiversity conservation, can identify areas where additional capacity could be shared to activate resource-intensive approaches to then verify effectiveness based on monitoring data or other sources of in-the-water evidence.

In some cases, it is possible to leverage existing information from datasets used for national- or regional-level assessment tools and facilitate an even faster assessment using *The MPA Guide*. For example, research in Indonesia (described in Sections 3 and 4) integrated nationally collected management effectiveness datasets, including METT findings, with *The MPA Guide* – demonstrating the feasibility of this method to expedite evaluations (Andradi-Brown et al., 2020). This study also showed that *The MPA Guide* assessment provided a unique means of recognizing marine portions of protected areas designated with terrestrial protected area legal instruments, which are often overlooked in regular reporting due to their official classification as ‘terrestrial’ protected areas (Amkieltiela et al., 2022). In Indonesia, several ‘terrestrial’ protected areas encompass both land and sea, resulting in a substantial expanse of ocean under active management (Amkieltiela et al., 2022).

For countries and regions without an assessment system in place, *The MPA Guide* can be a useful tool. For example, the Government of the Hellenic Republic of Greece, like other EU states, is required to submit a list of its protected areas every year to the European Environmental Agency, but there is no assessment of the Level of Protection of these areas. To use the Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection for this official reporting, *The MPA Guide* framework would need to be adopted by the EU and requested by member States. This is true in other contexts as well; for example, the United States American Conservation and Stewardship Atlas, currently under development to support the America the Beautiful commitment to conserve 30% of US waters by 2030 (Conserving and Restoring America the Beautiful 2021), could incorporate Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection in its tracking.

## **8. Facilitating clear communication and collaboration**

Assessments using *The MPA Guide* have brought people and organizations together using the same language to navigate complex conversations about MPAs, from meeting global targets to meeting the conservation needs of a specific place. This common language around MPA quality can continue to serve as a valuable tool to guide effective protection of biodiversity and meet local and global marine conservation targets.

As described in the case studies above, assessments of MPA quality using *The MPA Guide* allow comparison of MPAs across different contexts and geographies. Data from assessments facilitate clear comparison across different jurisdictions that use different terminology, languages, legal instruments, and national assessment frameworks as our analyses show. These standardized data demonstrate that not all MPAs are the same in terms of expected outcomes for biodiversity and human wellbeing, and provide a shared understanding and vocabulary for the different ways MPAs can be used to reach conservation goals.

Following the Mariana Islands *MPA Guide* assessment (Johnson and Villagomez, 2022), the authors held a public seminar and interviews on local radio and television networks. MPAs remain contentious with opposition from local fishing communities and apprehension from Indigenous rights groups who view MPAs as an extension of ongoing colonialism that restricts access to marine resources. The authors found that *The MPA Guide* assessment provided a simple, useful framing for distilling the comprehensive and often complex science of MPAs. Many community members have a view that all MPAs are Fully Protected, with no fishing allowed based on assumptions of what “protected” means when an area is called an MPA. While Fully Protected areas are most likely to lead to the strongest positive biodiversity conservation outcomes (Sala and Giakoumi, 2018), they are not the only type of MPAs and are not the most common, a detail that has historically been poorly communicated by the conservation community. Clear language and definitions around partial protection can inform previously contentious interactions that operated with undefined and generalized terms. In the context of the Mariana Islands, *The MPA Guide* assessment helped showcase that better collaboration across jurisdictional authority would assist with moving MPAs from the designated to implemented Stage, informing a conversation about government agencies taking responsibility for active management.

A similar case played out in Indonesia where MPAs are managed by two distinct ministries – the Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries and the Ministry of Environment and Forestry (Amkieltiela et al., 2022). While both ministries share a common primary objective of safeguarding marine biodiversity through MPAs, variations exist in the mechanisms and implementation strategies employed, including different approaches to evaluating MPAs (Amkieltiela et al., 2022). This poses a significant challenge in assessing the progress and outcomes of MPAs nationally and facilitating mutual learning among different regions/MPAs. *The MPA Guide* assessment in Indonesia was conducted by a group of scientists in collaboration with policymakers from the Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries using available data provided by each MPA manager (Andradi-Brown et al., 2020). The findings proved valuable in capturing the attention of policymakers and stakeholders, stimulating discussions regarding the overall progress of MPAs across the nation, and highlighting the need and priorities for future investment, ultimately influencing discussions about the 2030 MPA vision of the Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries (MMAF, 2020).

## 9. Discussion: Lessons learned and recommendations

There is real momentum and urgency across the globe to protect the ocean, driven by diverse motivations such as percentage targets, renewed commitments in countries and organizations to social and environmental justice, a desire to mitigate and adapt to climate change using ocean-based solutions, and increasing understanding of the risk that the biodiversity crisis poses for the future of humanity (IPBES, 2019). However, many MPAs are not designed or managed to produce these positive outcomes. We found that assessments that focus on MPA quality and outcomes, such as those using *The MPA Guide*, can inform planning, design, and evaluation of MPAs and help optimize decision making to achieve scientific, societal, and policy priorities. A single number reporting MPA coverage omits valuable information and can be a perverse incentive to achieve target numbers without investment in communities and effective management. Although each of the assessments presented here had different results and implications for decision making, they each provide clear, consistent, and actionable information on the extent of protections provided by MPAs in an area, helping to inform adaptive management actions.

Many of these case studies address multiple different types of uses (Figure 2); for example, understanding the Level of Protection and Stage of Establishment of the 100 largest MPAs globally (Pike et al., *in revision*) not only helps to better understand progress towards global area coverage targets, but also to track effectiveness and clarify the expected outcomes from the global system of MPAs. Decision makers can consider places where these MPAs may be improved to better deliver conservation outcomes, as well identify areas where new MPAs are needed. Another important use highlighted by the breadth of these case studies is the ability to compare MPAs across different countries or areas in a standardized approach. Examples given here illustrate how metrics of quality are useful when applied and compared across contexts, to identify what is consistent and what varies according to country, region, or other scale.

Vital to all assessments of MPA quality and effectiveness is not only an understanding of *what* is happening in an MPA, but *how* management is carried out and *who* that MPA is affecting. These include social principles such as recognition of pre-existing rights, tenure, and resource use, and

attention to just impact- and benefits-sharing, as well as ecological guidance on size, spacing, location, connectivity, and representation. The presence of key Enabling Conditions is fundamental to the effectiveness of MPAs and a key element of *The MPA Guide* (Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021), yet these remain difficult to assess systematically. The vast majority of the *MPA Guide* assessments described above have focused on Stage of Establishment and Level of Protection, but have not yet used a standardized methodology to comprehensively assess and identify key Enabling Conditions. This information is crucial for effectiveness, and represents an important step for improving assessments (Ban et al., 2023; Nowakowski et al., 2023). Certain completed assessments have used government funding appropriations as a proxy for portions of Enabling Conditions (e.g., dollars dedicated to coral reef conservation in the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands; Johnson and Villagomez, 2022). Nocito et al. (2022) indicated the presence or absence of Enabling Conditions in the CCAMLR MPAs, but this context differs from other national, regional, and local contexts which may have more diverse and numerous rights holders, resource users, and other interested parties relevant to the MPA.

It is also important to consider who is undertaking these assessments. The existing *MPA Guide* assessments described in this paper cross-cut large geographic areas, completed by various types of groups including academics, non-governmental organizations, and national-level government agencies. In all MPA assessments regardless of the tool used, and especially when led by a party that is external to the MPA, it is crucial to consider the activities actually happening in an area, not just those outlined as allowed or prohibited in regulations and management plans. Further, it is important to ensure the assessments are communicated respectfully back to the governing bodies and relevant management groups so assessing MPAs is not done in isolation as an academic exercise. *The MPA Guide* was designed to be used by, or in close collaboration with, experts that are intimately familiar with a given focal MPA, such as local managers or members of the surrounding communities, with a firm understanding of local use and priorities.

As we have shown here, conducting assessments of MPA quality at national, regional, and global scales can offer improved understanding of the potential outcomes and benefits associated with MPAs, and thus the global progress towards a biodiverse and productive ocean. This approach surpasses the narrow focus on a single percentage area or a target, measured in a single number of millions of hectares or km<sup>2</sup>, and instead emphasizes the holistic examination of an MPA system to improve decision making and achieve intended biodiversity conservation goals. We suggest that it is important to broaden the use of assessments of MPA quality, and incorporate these metrics as indicators of progress toward global conservation targets.

*Summary Box: lessons learned and new understanding from assessments of MPA quality*

- 1. Embed quality assessments in a broader policy, management, and social context.** Assessments of MPA quality, such as via *The MPA Guide*, are most useful when they consider and are relevant to the broader policy, management, social, and other context in an area. As noted below, assessments that are led by local leaders, that provide insight into questions that could improve MPA effectiveness for biodiversity and human well-being, are most effective and useful.
- 2. Use this established system to provide definitions, metrics, and indicators towards existing conservation goals and priorities.** For example:

- a. The Level of Protection and Stage of Establishment according to *The MPA Guide* could be added as component indicators to the GBF monitoring framework towards achieving Target 3.
  - b. The quality-related “second tier” of two-tier area-based conservation targets (e.g., the EU Biodiversity Strategy) must be defined and could be based on *The MPA Guide* – for example, a target of 10% “strictly protected” within the overall 30% target could correspond to Fully and Highly Protected areas that are Actively Managed and have key Enabling Conditions in place.
  - c. Assessments of quality could be incorporated as indicators in accounting towards national-level targets, such as the Conservation and Stewardship Atlas in the United States.
3. **Rely on local expertise to understand expected MPA effectiveness.** Assessments that are purely academic and do not incorporate understanding from local knowledge holders are unlikely to provide an accurate assessment of the impacts in a given area. Further, it is important to connect with people who are charged with making decisions around management in a given protected area or region (see #4 below).
  4. **Highlight the primacy of key Enabling Conditions.** Investing in understanding and supporting monitoring of Enabling Conditions can provide managers with the detailed information needed to improve MPA performance. This may facilitate addressing ineffective and inequitable practices in MPAs, such as inadequate staffing, misappropriated funding, lack of transparency regarding management activities, etc. These processes have important implications not only for social goals but also for ecological goals for biodiversity conservation. In fact, in a recent review of the impact of management processes on fish populations, staff and budget capacity were identified as the strongest predictors of conservation outcomes (Gill et al., 2017).
  5. **Communicate findings clearly and inclusively.** Beyond the typical methods of disseminating scientific findings, it is important to consider the ways in which assessments of MPA quality, and the insights and recommendations that arise, can be most clearly communicated to those who can use them. For example, the report on the quality of Greece’s MPAs directly to the Prime Minister of Greece will enable results to be most useful for informing Greece’s conservation priorities and actions (Giakoumi et al., 2023). Following the publication of the assessment of the 50 largest MPAs in the United States, co-authors spoke to key government decision makers to share the results of the assessment and recommendations for improving the United States system of MPAs to achieve the United States’ stated goals. More examples are given above in section 8, including from the Mariana Islands.

## Funding

JC acknowledges funding from Biodiversa (METRODIVER and MOVE) and Fondation de France (MultiNet). CMB acknowledges funding from NASA, NSF and the Pew Charitable Trusts. The work of SG and ES was funded by National Geographic Pristine Seas. BHC. was supported by national funds through FCT - Foundation for Science and Technology, I.P. (Portugal), in agreement with the University of Algarve, in the scope of Norma Transitória with the research contract DL57/2016/CP1361/CT0038 and by the Portuguese FCT through the

strategic projects UIDB/04326/2020, UIDP/04326/2020 and LA/P/0101/2020 (to CCMAR). J.S-S. was supported by the Kingfisher Foundation. K.G-C. was supported by the Ocean Science Innovation Fund at Oregon State University.

### Author Contributions

Conceptualization: J.S-S., K.G-C.; Visualization: J.M.C.M., J.S-S.; Writing – original draft: J.S-S., D.A.A-B., A.B., C.M.B., J.C., B.H.C., E. L.C.F., S.G., E.G., N.G., S.J., S.M.J., J.M.C.M., G.M., E.S.N., E.P.P., R.T., A.V., K.W., K. G-C. ; Writing – review and editing: all co-authors.

### References:

- Alves, F., Monteiro, J. G., Oliveira, P., and Canning-Clode, J. (2022). Portugal leads with Europe's largest marine reserve. *Nature* 601, 318–318. doi: 10.1038/d41586-022-00093-8.
- Amkieltiela, Handayani, C. N., Andradi-Brown, D. A., Estradivari, Ford, A. K., Begger, M., et al. (2022). The rapid expansion of Indonesia's marine protected area requires improvement in management effectiveness. *Mar. Policy* 146, 105257. doi: 10.1016/j.marpol.2022.105257.
- Andradi-Brown, D. A., Estradivari, Amkieltiela, Fauzi, M. N., Lazuardi, M. E., Grorud-Colvert, K., et al. (2020). "Applying The MPA Guide to Indonesia's Marine Protected Area Network," in *Management of Marine Protected Areas in Indonesia: Status and Challenges* (Jakarta, Indonesia: Kementerian Kelautan dan Perikanan and Yayasan WWF Indonesia.). doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.13341476.v1
- Ban, N. C., Darling, E. S., Gurney, G. G., Friedman, W., Jupiter, S. D., Lestari, W. P., et al. (2023). Effects of management objectives and rules on marine conservation outcomes. *Conserv. Biol.* n/a, e14156. doi: 10.1111/cobi.14156.
- Ban, N., Gurney, G. G., Marshall, N. A., Whitney, C. K., Mills, M., Gelcich, S., et al. (2019). Well-being outcomes of marine protected areas. *Nat. Sustain.* 2, 524–532. doi: 10.1038/s41893-019-0306-2.
- Barnes, M. D., Glew, L., Wyborn, C., and Craigie, I. D. (2018). Prevent perverse outcomes from global protected area policy. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* 2, 759–762. doi: 10.1038/s41559-018-0501-y.
- Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society (2021). MPA Monitor: Assessing Canada's Marine Protected Areas. Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society Available at: <https://cpaws.org/our-work/ocean/oceanreport/>.
- Claudet, J., Brooks, C. M., and Blasiak, R. (2023). Making protected areas in the high seas count. *Science* 380, 353–354. doi: 10.1126/science.adh4924.
- Claudet, J., Loiseau, C., and Pebayle, A. (2021). Critical gaps in the protection of the second largest exclusive economic zone in the world. *Mar. Policy* 124, 104379. doi: 10.1016/j.marpol.2020.104379.

- Claudet, J., Loiseau, C., Sostres, M., and Zupan, M. (2020). Underprotected Marine Protected Areas in a Global Biodiversity Hotspot. *One Earth* 2, 380–384. doi: 10.1016/j.oneear.2020.03.008.
- Conserving and Restoring America the Beautiful 2021 (2021). U.S. Department of the Interior, U.S. Department of Agriculture, U.S. Department of Commerce, Council on Environmental Quality Available at: <https://www.doi.gov/sites/doi.gov/files/report-conserving-and-restoring-america-the-beautiful-2021.pdf>.
- Convention on Biological Diversity (2022). Decision 15/4 Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework. <https://www.cbd.int/doc/decisions/cop-15/cop-15-dec-04-en.pdf>
- Day, J. C., Dudley, N., Hockings, M., Holmes, G., Laffoley, D., Stolton, S., et al. (2019). Guidelines for applying the IUCN protected area management categories to marine protected areas. Second edition. Gland, Switzerland.: IUCN Available at: <https://www.iucn.org/content/guidelines-applying-iucn-protected-area-management-categories-marine-protected-areas-0>.
- DEA (2018). National Protected Areas Expansion Strategy for South Africa. Pretoria, South Africa: Department of Environmental Affairs.
- Devillers, R., Pressey, R. L., Grech, A., Kittinger, J. N., Edgar, G. J., Ward, T., et al. (2015). Reinventing residual reserves in the sea: are we favouring ease of establishment over need for protection? *Aquat. Conserv. Mar. Freshw. Ecosyst.* 25, 480–504. doi: 10.1002/aqc.2445.
- Di Lorenzo, M., Guidetti, P., Franco, A. D., Calò, A., and Claudet, J. (2020). Assessing spillover from marine protected areas and its drivers: A meta-analytical approach. *Fish Fish.* 21, 906–915. doi: 10.1111/faf.12469.
- European Court of Auditors (2020). Marine environment: EU protection is wide but not deep. Available at: <https://www.eca.europa.eu/en/publications?did=57066>.
- Giakoumi, S., Aburto-Oropeza, O., Favoretto, F., Paravas, V., and Sala, E. (2023). Increasing protection of the Greek Seas: Report to Prime Minister K. Mitsotakis. National Geographic - Pristine Seas. pp 48.
- Giglio, V. J., Pinheiro, H. T., Bender, M. G., Bonaldo, R. M., Costa-Lotufo, L. V., Ferreira, C. E. L., et al. (2018). Large and remote marine protected areas in the South Atlantic Ocean are flawed and raise concerns: Comments on Soares and Lucas (2018). *Mar. Policy* 96, 13–17. doi: 10.1016/j.marpol.2018.07.017.
- Government of Canada (2023). Available at: <https://www.dfo-mpo.gc.ca/oceans/mpa-zpm/protection-standard-norme-protection-eng.html>.
- Grorud-Colvert, K., Sullivan-Stack, J., Roberts, C., Constant, V., Horta e Costa, B., Pike, E., et al. (2021). The MPA Guide: A framework to achieve global goals for the ocean. *Science* 373. doi: 10.1126/science.abf0861.
- Guidelines for applying the IUCN protected area management categories to marine protected areas. Second edition. (2019). Gland, Switzerland.: IUCN Available at:



<https://www.iucn.org/content/guidelines-applying-iucn-protected-area-management-categories-marine-protected-areas-0>.

- Gurney, G. G., Adams, V. M., Álvarez-Romero, J. G., and Claudet, J. (2023). Area-based conservation: Taking stock and looking ahead. *One Earth* 6, 98–104. doi: 10.1016/j.oneear.2023.01.012.
- Gurney, G. G., Darling, E. S., Ahmadi, G. N., Agostini, V. N., Ban, N. C., Blythe, J., et al. (2021). Biodiversity needs every tool in the box: use OECMs. *Nature* 595, 646–649. doi: 10.1038/d41586-021-02041-4.
- Horta e Costa, B., Claudet, J., Franco, G., Erzini, K., Caro, A., and Gonçalves, E. J. (2016). A regulation-based classification system for Marine Protected Areas (MPAs). *Mar. Policy* 72, 192–198. doi: 10.1016/j.marpol.2016.06.021.
- Horta e Costa, B., Gonçalves, J. M. dos S., Franco, G., Erzini, K., Furtado, R., Mateus, C., et al. (2019). Categorizing ocean conservation targets to avoid a potential false sense of protection to society: Portugal as a case-study. *Mar. Policy* 108, 103553. doi: 10.1016/j.marpol.2019.103553.
- International Union for the Conservation of Nature (2020). WCC-2020-Res-055-EN - Guidance to identify industrial fishing incompatible with protected areas.
- IPBES (2019). Global assessment report on biodiversity and ecosystem services of the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services. IPBES secretariat, Bonn, Germany: E. S. Brondizio, J. Settele, S. Díaz, and H. T. Ngo (editors).
- IUCN (2022). Proceedings of the Members' Assembly: World Conservation Congress, Marseille, France, 3–10 September 2021. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.
- Jessen, S., Morgan, L. E., Bezaury-Creel, J. E., Barron, A., Govender, R., Pike, E. P., et al. (2017). Measuring MPAs in Continental North America: How Well Protected Are the Ocean Estates of Canada, Mexico, and the USA? *Front. Mar. Sci.* 4. Available at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmars.2017.00279>.
- Johnson, S. M., and Villagomez, A. O. (2022). Assessing the quantity and quality of marine protected areas in the Mariana Islands. *Front. Mar. Sci.* 9. Available at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmars.2022.1012815>.
- Jouffray, J.-B., Blasiak, R., Norström, A. V., Österblom, H., and Nyström, M. (2020). The blue acceleration: The trajectory of human expansion into the ocean. *One Earth* 2, 43–54. doi: 10.1016/j.oneear.2019.12.016.
- Magris, R. A., Costa, M. D. P., Ferreira, C. E. L., Vilar, C. C., Joyeux, J.-C., Creed, J. C., et al. (2021). A blueprint for securing Brazil's marine biodiversity and supporting the achievement of global conservation goals. *Divers. Distrib.* 27, 198–215. doi: 10.1111/ddi.13183.
- Magris, R. A., and Pressey, R. L. (2018). Marine protected areas: Just for show? *Science* 360, 723–724. doi: 10.1126/science.aat6215.

- Mazaris, A. D., Almpnidou, V., Giakoumi, S., and Katsanevakis, S. (2018). Gaps and challenges of the European network of protected sites in the marine realm. *ICES J. Mar. Sci.* 75, 190–198. doi: 10.1093/icesjms/fsx125.
- MMAF (2020). MPA Vision 2030 and Roadmap to MPA Management: Securing 10% of marine waters in Indonesia towards biodiversity protection and sustainable use. Republic of Indonesia: Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries.
- Nocito, E. S. (2023). Protecting the unfathomable: Marine conservation in the high seas (Publication No. 30421472). [Doctoral dissertation, University of Colorado Boulder]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.
- Nocito, E. S., Sullivan-Stack, J., Pike, E. P., Gjerde, K. M., and Brooks, C. M. (2022). Applying Marine Protected Area Frameworks to Areas beyond National Jurisdiction. *Sustainability* 14, 5971. doi: 10.3390/su14105971.
- Nowakowski, A. J., Canty, S. W. J., Bennett, N. J., Cox, C. E., Valdivia, A., Deichmann, J. L., et al. (2023). Co-benefits of marine protected areas for nature and people. *Nat. Sustain.* 6, 1210–1218. doi: 10.1038/s41893-023-01150-4.
- Relano, V., Palomares, M. L. D., and Pauly, D. (2021). Comparing the Performance of Four Very Large Marine Protected Areas with Different Levels of Protection. *Sustainability* 13, 9572. doi: 10.3390/su13179572.
- Roessger, J., Claudet, J., and Horta e Costa, B. (2022). Turning the tide on protection illusions: The underprotected MPAs of the 'OSPAR Regional Sea Convention.' *Mar. Policy* 142, 105109. doi: 10.1016/j.marpol.2022.105109.
- Sala, E., and Giakoumi, S. (2018). No-take marine reserves are the most effective protected areas in the ocean. *ICES J. Mar. Sci.* 75, 1166–1168. doi: 10.1093/icesjms/fsx059.
- Sciberras, M., Jenkins, S. R., Mant, R., Kaiser, M. J., Hawkins, S. J., and Pullin, A. S. (2015). Evaluating the relative conservation value of fully and partially protected marine areas. *Fish Fish.* 16, 58–77. doi: 10.1111/faf.12044.
- Sink, K. J., Lombard, A. T., Attwood, C. G., Livingstone, T.-C., Grantham, H., and Holness, S. D. (2023). Integrated systematic planning and adaptive stakeholder process support a 10-fold increase in South Africa's Marine Protected Area estate. *Conserv. Lett.* 16, e12954. doi: 10.1111/conl.12954.
- Stolton, S., Hockings, M., and Dudley, N. (2020). Management Effectiveness Tracking Tool. Reporting Progress at Protected Area Sites: Fourth Edition. Excel workbook and Guidance. Available at: <https://www.protectedplanet.net/en/thematic-areas/protected-areas-management-effectiveness-pame>.
- Sullivan-Stack, J., Aburto-Oropeza, O., Brooks, C. M., Cabral, R. B., Caselle, J. E., Chan, F., et al. (2022). A Scientific Synthesis of Marine Protected Areas in the United States: Status and Recommendations. *Front. Mar. Sci.* 9. Available at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmars.2022.849927>.

- Turnbull, J. W., Johnston, E. L., and Clark, G. F. (2021). Evaluating the social and ecological effectiveness of partially protected marine areas. *Conserv. Biol. J. Soc. Conserv. Biol.* 35, 921–932. doi: 10.1111/cobi.13677.
- United Nations (2023). Draft Agreement Under the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea on the Conservation and Sustainable Use of Marine Biological Diversity of Areas Beyond National Jurisdiction.
- Villagomez, A. (2021). Social equity and the need to decolonize marine conservation in the Pacific Islands. Available at: <https://www.shackletontrust.org/social-equity-and-the-need-to-decolonize-marine-conservation-in-the-pacific-islands>.
- Visconti, P., Butchart, S. H. M., Brooks, T. M., Langhammer, P. F., Marnewick, D., Vergara, S., et al. (2019). Protected area targets post-2020. *Science* 364, 239–241. doi: 10.1126/science.aav6886.
- Zupan, M., Fragkopoulou, E., Claudet, J., Erzini, K., Costa, B. H. e, and Gonçalves, E. J. (2018). Marine partially protected areas: drivers of ecological effectiveness. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* 16, 381–387. doi: 10.1002/fee.1934.