

RECOGNITION AND SUPPORT OF ICCAs IN BOLIVIA

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Case study for:
RECOGNISING AND SUPPORTING
TERRITORIES AND AREAS CONSERVED BY INDIGENOUS PEOPLES
AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES
Global Overview and National Case Studies

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List of acronyms

ACI	International Cooperation Agencies
CDC	Data Centre for Conservation
CEESP	Commission on Environmental, Economic and Social Policy
CEJIS	Centre for Legal and Social Studies
CENDA	Andean Development Centre
CICDA	Centre for Legal and Social Studies
CIDEBENI	Research and Documentation Centre of Beni
CIDH	Inter-American Commission of Human Rights
CIDOB	Indigenous Confederation of Eastern Bolivia
CIPCA	Research Centre for the Farmers Support
CPE	Constitution of the State
ICCA	Indigenous Peoples and Local Community Conserved Territories and Areas
IIRSA	South American Regional Infrastructure Initiative
INE	National Statistics Institute
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISLAP	Social Research and Legal Advice Potosi
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
FAN	Friends of Nature Foundation
GTI	Indigenous Land Management processes
LIDEMA	League of Environmental Defence
MAS	Movement Towards Socialism (current government's political party)
NGO	Non-governmental organization
PGTI	Indigenous Land Management Plan
SNAP	National System of Protected Areas of Bolivia
SNV	Service Dutch Development Cooperation
TCO	Communal lands (<i>Tierras Comunitarias de Origen</i>)
TIOCs	Peasant/indigenous territories (<i>Territorios Indígenas Originarios Campesinos</i>)
TIPNIS	National Park and Indigenous Territory Isiboro-Secure
VSF	Veterinaries without Frontiers (<i>Vétérinaires Sans Frontières</i>)

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Summary

Bolivia is one of the 13 megadiverse countries in the world. Much of this is due to the diversity of ecological regions and ecosystems that the country has, as well as the large area covered by ecosystems still in good conditions. Millennia of human occupation of the territory that is now Bolivia, have resulted in a mosaic of cultures, social identities and socio-productive systems that maintain a large heritage of traditional knowledge and practices, which form a unique cultural diversity, and which also maintain high levels of biodiversity, especially in the lowlands.

The concept of ICCA is not completely adapted to the Bolivian reality. However, there are in the country a large number and diversity of indigenous territories under the concept of *Tierras Comunitarias de Origen – TCO* ('communal lands'), legally recognized as a form of agrarian land ownership in the 1994 State Constitution reform. In the new 2009 Bolivian Constitution, this concept was extended, in order to recognize as well the public administrative rights of the territory, under the concept of *Territorios Indígenas Originarios Campesinos – TIOC* ('peasant/indigenous territories'). These territories officially becoming an administrative territorial entity of the State, this new law expanded indigenous peoples' power to exercise autonomous administrative functions. Both these legal categories can be used to manage and develop the administration of indigenous territories and natural resources more efficiently. Some TIOCs have achieved the recognition of their territory over land already declared as protected areas.

Indigenous people of the lowlands have been fighting for legal recognition of their territories from the founding of the CIDOB in 1983 and have acquired a national political recognition and dignity from the first march through the territory in 1990. The territory has been a unifying factor of social and ethnic identity, mobilizations and struggles, both local and in national scenarios. Since the enactment of Law No. 1715 in 1996, indigenous people have achieved recognition and certification of 190 indigenous territories or communal lands (TCOs) with an area of 20.7 million hectares, of which 54 TCOs are in the east, Chaco and Amazonia, an area entitled to 12 million hectares. Almost all of these lowlands TOCs are aware of the enormous value of biodiversity conservation, community life and the traditional use of natural resources.

Meanwhile, the indigenous territories in the Bolivian highlands support larger population groups due to their long history of occupation and use. These are threatened by mining activities and are incorporated into intensive production systems generating benefits to the market. These activities have resulted in an intensive and unsustainable use of the land, significant biodiversity loss and high levels of erosion and soil degradation. Most upland TIOCs are very impacted by the overuse of natural resources and have lost most of their biodiversity and ecological functions, so they do not meet the third feature that identifies an ICCA.

All the indigenous peoples and territories in Bolivia are legally recognized by the state and are supported by an extensive legal and constitutional framework. Until now, the progress in the recognition of TIOCs, and the explicit vision for TIOCs into the Constitution of the State (CPE) that are based on the TIOCs boundaries, are processes very advanced and innovative,

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in terms of legal rights. This kind of recognition is the most advanced in the Americas and these forms of legal recognition are innovative, with a dynamic evolution, searching to expand their reach in terms of autonomy levels.

Although the Bolivian Constitution offer guarantees for human rights and rights of indigenous peoples; difficulties still arise in:

- The policy for transformation of ownership and transformation structure for land access. The political transformation of the agrarian structure, has strongly promoted the distribution of fiscal land including lands only suitable for forest management, for new settlements.
- The threats to their territorial rights by the interference of oil and mining projects, road construction linked to the IIRSA Regional Strategy, the advance of agriculture, the expansion of coca cultivation, the incursion of others searching for game and fish, and piracy of timber.
- The laws of constitutional development – such as the autonomy framework law – try to reduce the rights of indigenous peoples – recognized legally – under certain technical criteria by introducing requirements on population size, territorial continuity, and manageability; three aspects that greatly hinder the ability to achieve autonomy in TIOCs (because the characteristic of the indigenous people is to live in small and scattered population centres within large territories).
- Prior and informed consent for policies and projects implemented by the government, affecting indigenous territories and rights, since several such projects are developed without respecting this constitutional mandate.
- Expanding agricultural frontier, which promotes colonization and occupation of forestland, protected areas and indigenous territories.
- The government delivering a discourse in defence of ‘mother earth’, but in practice promoting an extractive development model, with many consequences and risks:
 - Relaxation of environmental regulations;
 - Facilitating the activities of multinational corporations;
 - Generating high social and environmental costs;
 - Unprecedented change of land use, promoting the rapid transformation of forest ecosystems on poor soils in areas of agro-industrial production.

The present debate on the legal ground concerns three topics that are very important for the management of indigenous territories: a new Law on Land, in which the main topic will be the TIOCs; the Law concerning Prior Informed Consent of Indigenous People; and the new Forestry Law. In this context, the key issues that indigenous peoples and civil society organizations interested in defending human rights and the environment need to consider, in order to consolidate the environmental governance of TIOCs, are:

- Defend and ensure implementation the State Constitution;
- Search for recognition and implementation of indigenous autonomy in the TIOCs;
- Influence the national debate on the three above laws;
- Continue the development and implementation of Indigenous Land Management Plans (PGTI).

1. Country description and context

1.2. Main features of Bolivia

(i) Location, size and major geographical features

Bolivia, with an area of 1,098,581 km², is located in the centre of South America, landlocked between latitudes 30° and 23°, and longitudes 70° and 57°. It is situated in a complex intersection of geological, geographical and climatic regimes in the South American continent with great physiographic contrasts – confluence of the Andean, Amazonian, Chaco and Brazilian *Cerrado* – which contributes to its high level of ecological complexity. The altitudinal range lies between 130 and 6452 meters.

The presence of the Andes mountain range that crosses the country from south to northeast is the fundamental component in the configuration of the territory and the distribution of the landscape formations, resulting in a vast area of highlands and plateaux, flanked by the walls of the Andes with remaining ice fields (glaciers) to the northeast and southwest. The eastern part of Bolivia consists of the lowlands of the Amazon and Chaco Regions, which are defined by Quaternary sediments and the geotectonic control of the Precambrian ancient shield. It becomes evident in the southeast in the *Serranías Chiquitanas* system ('Chiquitanas mountain range') with a mineralogical composition attractive for mining.

The Amazon basin is the most important, with four large rivers flowing large amounts of water into the Madeira basin. The second important basin is the Plata or Parana, which flows southward. Bolivia also has an endorheic basin in the plateau where the great *puna* highland lakes are located.

(ii) Characteristics of the population

Bolivia is a country with small population in relation to its ground area. The census conducted in 2001 showed a total population of 8,274,325 inhabitants. This census and the latest estimates and projections from the National Statistics Institute (INE) show a provisional figure for 2010 of 10,227,000 inhabitants, which is less than 20% population growth, and a population density of about 9.3 inhabitants per km².

The population is concentrated in major large and medium cities close to the highway grid in the departments³ of La Paz, Cochabamba and Santa Cruz, where also the largest supply of basic services are concentrated. Vast regions have very low population densities of less than one inhabitant per km². Many rural regions have become net exporters of population, due to the lack of services and economic opportunities. Currently, 72% of Bolivia's population is urban, and on the rise as the population in the three major cities (La Paz, Cochabamba and Santa Cruz) now exceed 7 million inhabitants.

³ The Bolivian territory is organized in: departments, provinces, municipalities, and indigenous autonomies.

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Bolivia is a country of great cultural and natural diversity, with 36 indigenous nations⁴ whose pre-columbian roots go back several centuries ago; times in which extensive knowledge and practices regarding the use of natural resources have been gathered.

This knowledge has contributed to the domestication of an enormous diversity of species that form the staple of the local population. To cope with the great diversity, a complex and heterogeneous society has developed, in which social inequalities and unsustainable management of natural resources are major challenges for the wellbeing of all in the social and environmental agenda of the country.

(iii) Economic characteristics

Bolivia is among the low-income countries, with an average GDP over the last ten years of over 20,000 million dollars, while Annual per capita GDP (constant prices) is approximately \$ 1,839.75 for 2010⁵. The per capita income is \$ 2,800, compared with an average of \$ 8,200 for Latin America and \$ 42,000 for the United States (IMF 2005). Nearly 64% of the population lives below the poverty line.

Official figures on Bolivia's international reserves were 10 billion dollars by 2010, while government spending was about 15 billion dollars for the same year. By 2010 it was reported that public investment had been concentrated in transportation, public works (36.8%) hydrocarbons and mining (25.1%), while health, education, sanitation and environment together comprise less than 18%. The National General Budget for the year 2011 allocated only 5.31% for the environment and water issue, compared to 58% for defence, government, department and public works.

(iv) Administrative structure

Bolivia is a plurinational state, based on the new Constitution of the State (CPE) of 2009. The country is organized into departments, provinces, municipalities and peasant & indigenous territories. It has nine departments ruled by governors and departmental assemblies.

The condition of Bolivia as a multinational country has a strong connotation of historical change, because of the decolonization policies being promoted by the current government. The governmental model, however, has not changed and is guided at its highest point by the President and the Vice-President; the latter being the head of the legislative power, now called the 'Plurinational Legislative Assembly'.

1.2. Brief history of conservation, state- and community-based

Bolivia is one of the 13 megadiverse countries in the world (see Box 1). Much of this is due to the diversity of ecologic regions and ecosystems that the country has, as well as the large area covered by ecosystems still in good conditions, such as the mountain forests of *Yungas* and the Amazon region. As an illustrative data, Bolivia has registered more than 1,400 bird species, 396 mammals and 25,000 species of vascular plants. Preliminary data indicates that

⁴The Census of 2001 shows various percentages of 'indigenous population': according to the indicator of self-identification, the indigenous population was 62.5%; according to identification with the language they speak, this percentage drops to 49.95 %.

⁵Data from the World Economic Outlook 2010. In IMF, the GDP per capita is 4584,22 US dollars.

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Bolivia comprise – in terms of species – 14.3% of the world's birds, 8.98% of the world's reptiles and 7.5% of the world's mammals. Of all the plants and vertebrates recorded in Bolivia, more than 70% would be found in the National System of Protected Areas.

Box 1: Megadiverse countries

In February 2002, with an impulse by the Mexican Government, a ministerial meeting of megadiverse countries took place in Cancun, Mexico, to elaborate a common agenda for the conservation and sustainable use of natural resources. The focus was put on access to genetic resources and benefit-sharing, and the respect and protection for traditional knowledge. Through the adoption of the Cancun Declaration, the Group of Like-Minded Megadiverse Countries was created as a consultative and cooperative mechanism to promote common interests and priorities regarding the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity. The initial 12 countries were Brazil, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Mexico, Peru, Philippines, South Africa, and Venezuela. Later on, other countries joined the initiative and the yearly meetings now also include Bolivia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ecuador, Madagascar, and Malaysia; that is currently 17 countries (Wikipedia).

The diagnostic for the National Conservation strategy in Bolivia meanwhile states that “ *It is currently impossible to provide a description of all the elements of the country's biodiversity. Unfortunately, the knowledge is incomplete, and further study is required to fully inventory the plants and animals. Bolivia is amongst the less biologically surveyed countries in the world. Nevertheless, with the data already available, it is possible to estimate that Bolivia must rank between the 10 or 15 most biodiverse countries.*” (Ibich and Merida 2003)

This biodiversity is intimately related to cultural diversity, the indigenous relationship models – territory –of resource management and use of space. Millennia of human occupation of the territory that is now Bolivia have resulted in a mosaic of cultures, social identities and socio-productive systems that maintain a large heritage of traditional knowledge and practices, which form a unique cultural diversity, and which also maintain high levels of biodiversity especially in the lowlands. This relationship is today one of the most important topics in the process of building environmental and development policies.

Since the 1930's, many national parks and other categories of formal or official protected areas have been created in Bolivia, by the effort of different local government institutions and the civil society. The first efforts towards the administration of the protected areas began in the middle 80's, by academic institutions like the National Academy of Sciences of Bolivia, the Institute of Ecology of the Universidad Mayor de San Andrés, the biology department of the Gabriel René Moreno University, the Noel Kempff Mercado Museum of Natural History, NGOs such as Friends of Nature Foundation (FAN), the Data Centre for Conservation (CDC) and the League of Environmental Defence (LIDEMA). The outcome of all this work was the formulation of the National System of Protected Areas of Bolivia (SNAP) in 1989 and the beginning of their organization. The SNAP system is the youngest protected areas system in Latin America.

Since the 1990's, many official programs were initiated in order to preserve the biodiversity, as well as assisting the operation of the SNAP. The 24th of September 1990, the Supreme Decrees 22609, 22610 and 22611 – as a result of the ‘First Indigenous March for Territory and Dignity’ – recognized the indigenous territories as TCOs in the Department of Beni, assigning 1,236,296 hectares to Moxeños, Chimanes and Yuracaré people in the Isiboro-

Secure region; 53,000 hectares to Siriono people in the Ibiato area; 800,000 hectares to Chimane people in the Chimane Forest, overlapping in part with the area of the Beni Biosphere Reserve.

In view of the territorial, ethnical, political, cultural and organizational complexities, the management of large protected areas under the SNAP has since 1992 been the result of intensive construction, negotiation and learning processes among the government administration, farming communities, indigenous people and other local actors, external donors and civil environmentalist society, although this has not meant a formal consultation.

In the context that protected areas and their surroundings are densely populated areas, a central theme was, and still remains, the social acceptance and appropriateness of their management. During the existence of Protected Areas in the country, various models for participation and rights have emerged, with the challenge of finding solutions to ensure on one hand the conservation of biodiversity and the local population existence, and on the other hand improving the quality of life of the local population living within or adjacent to the protected areas.

2.Features of ICCAs

2.1. Range, diversity and extent of ICCAs

(i) Indigenous territories

Indigenous land claims open great debates about their outcomes and contents. In the Bolivian case, there are different appreciations of the territory, which go from the agrarian property, to the land property within which the group or community can exercise power and administration autonomously. Another important difference is that some define territory from a historical and cultural perspective, known as ‘traditional or ancestral territory’, opposite to those who consider the indigenous territory as the area effectively possessed or ‘territory in possession’⁶.

The 169 ILO Convention – ratified by the Bolivian Government⁷ – merges the terms ‘land’ and ‘territory’, and within the concept of territory includes everything that is the indigenous peoples’ habitat. It provides rights not only for the physically occupied lands but also for the lands that the indigenous peoples use for their traditional subsistence activities⁸.

For CIDOB (Indigenous Confederation of Eastern Bolivia), the territory is the geographical area over which the indigenous peoples exercise cultural influence and the natural resources over which they hold political control and ownership. For these reasons, the territory is the basis of their livelihood and their management ensures the survival of their indigenous societies and cultures⁹.

The CIDOB concept of ‘Territory’ unifies two aspects:

⁶The basic difference is that the ancestral territory is understood as the territory of pre-colonial occupation and the territory under possession is the area currently occupied, recognizing the property rights acquired by third parties, under national legislation.

⁷ Law 1257, 11th of June 1991.

⁸ International Labour Organization –ILO – Convention 169, art.13.

⁹ CIDOB, Law proposal for the Indigenous people of Eastern Bolivia’s Chaco and Amazonia.

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- Political control, power and administration;
- The right to exercise their property rights and the use of the renewable natural resources therein.

The first aspect deals with public administration of territories, whose ruling bodies are established by law with assigned jurisdiction and powers (departments, provinces, municipalities, and indigenous autonomies). The concept of Indigenous territory has been recognized in the Constitution of the State¹⁰ as ‘indigenous autonomy’ (Articles 2, 30 inc. 4, 269, 289, 290 et seq.).

The second aspect deals with property rights, access, use and exploitation of land and renewable natural resources located within that territory.

The claim of the territory, in that sense of ownership, has generated major protests and legal disputes, such as the historical march of the ‘Territory and Dignity’ by the indigenous people of Beni in 1990. This march of over 750 km – from the Department of Beni to the city of La Paz – achieved to obtain early recognition of indigenous territories. Another major outcome is that it awakened national awareness about the existence of the indigenous peoples and their territorial rights.

Later, in the 1994 Constitution of the State, the rights of indigenous people to their communal lands were legally recognized, and incorporated in the INRA law (Law 1715 of October 1996), accepting and defining the legal scope of the indigenous peoples’ communal lands (see Box 2).

Box 2: Law 1715, Article 3, Inc.III recognizing TCOs

“It guarantees the rights of people and indigenous and native communities to their communal lands of origin, taking into account their economic, social and cultural rights, and sustainable use of renewable natural resources in accordance with the provisions of Article 171° of the Constitution of the State. The designation of original community lands understand the concept of indigenous territory, in accordance with the definition set out in Part II of Convention 169 of the International Labour Organization, ratified by Law 1257 of July 11, 1991.

The titles of community lands granted in favour of indigenous people and communities and native ownership of their lands, recognizing their right to participate in the use and sustainable use of renewable natural resources in them. The use and exploitation of non-renewable natural resources on communal lands of origin is governed by the provisions of the Constitution of the State and the special rules that regulate them.

Communal lands of origin and collectively titled lands will not be reversed, transferred, encumbered seized, or acquired by prescription. The distribution and redistribution to the use and individual and family within the community lands of origin and collectively titled community is governed by the rules of the community, according to its rules and customs. ”

In the application of land laws and regulations, in relation to indigenous and native people, their customs or customary law should be considered, provided they are not inconsistent with the national legal system.”

Finally, the new Constitution of 2009 recognized indigenous lands and determined their scope in more specific terms (see Box 3).

¹⁰ Political Constitution of the State, February 2009.

Box 3: Bolivian Constitution 2009, Article 403 recognizing TIOCs

“I. The integrity of Peasant Indigenous Territory is acknowledged, incorporating the right to the land, its exclusive use and exploitation of renewable natural resources following the conditions defined by law; the right to prior and informed consultation as well as the right to benefit economically from the exploitation of non-renewable natural resources found within their territories; the power to apply their own rules administrated by their own organizational structures and the right to define their own development plans according to their cultural standards and principles of harmonious coexistence with nature. The Peasant Indigenous Territories may be constituted by communities.

II. The territory includes native indigenous peasant production areas, harvesting areas, conservation of natural resources and places of reproduction, social, cultural and spiritual. The law establishes the procedure for recognition of these rights.”

(ii) *The concept of ICCAs in Bolivia: TOCs and TIOCs*

Box 4: ICCA definition

The IUCN defines ICCAs as “*natural and/or modified ecosystems containing significant biodiversity values, ecological functions and benefits, and cultural values **voluntarily conserved by indigenous peoples and local communities** – both sedentary and mobile – **through customary laws or other effective means**. As a rule of thumb, **three features** identify an ICCA:*

- *A well-defined indigenous people or local community possesses a **close and profound relation** with a well-defined site (territory, area, or species’ habitat);*
- *The people or community is the major player in decision-making regarding the site and has the **de facto and/or de jure capacity to enforce regulations**;*
- *The people’s or community’s **decisions and efforts lead to the conservation of biodiversity, ecological functions and benefits, and associated cultural values, regardless of original or primary motivations.**”*

Source: IUCN/CEESP 2010.

Drawing from the IUCN definition, we can observe that the concept of ICCAs is not completely adapted to the Bolivian reality¹¹. However, there are in the country a large number and diversity of indigenous territories under the concept of *Tierras Comunitarias de Origen–TCO* (‘communal lands’), legally recognized as a form of agrarian land ownership in the 1994 State Constitution reform (see Box 2 above).

The new 2009 Bolivian Constitution extended the definition of TCO, reiterating the right to land provided in the INRA Law, but also providing the rights to the exclusive use of renewable natural resources, to prior and informed consultation and to benefit-sharing for the exploitation of non-renewable natural resources, to apply their own rules, and to administrate their territory through their own indigenous institutions (see Box 3 above). Public administrative rights over the territory were in this way also legally recognized, under the

¹¹ Drawing from the CIDOB concept of territory (section 2.1.i), our understanding is that the TIOCs definition is much broader than ICCAs definition, because a TIOC involves political control, power and administration, exercises rights and use of natural resources, and also involves indigenous autonomies.

concept of *Territorios Indígenas Originarios Campesinos* – TIOCs (‘peasant/indigenous territories’)¹². These territories officially becoming an administrative territorial entity of the State, this new law expanded indigenous peoples’ power to exercise autonomous administrative functions.

Both these legal categories can be used to manage and develop the administration of indigenous territories and natural resources more efficiently. Some TIOCs have achieved the recognition of their territory over land already declared as protected areas (TIPNIS, Pilon Lajas, EBB, Madidi, San Matías, Otuquis, etc.) and others have used this as a strategy for territorial consolidation, while having their ancestral land areas included within the category of protected areas (PN ANMI Kaalya). In some cases, a particular territory is left with both categories: protect areas and indigenous territory.

All TIOCs in the lowlands of the country preserve important ecosystems including significant biodiversity, ecological and cultural values and matching the three generic features that define an ICCA. On the contrary, most upland TIOCs are very impacted by the overuse of natural resources and have lost most of their biodiversity and ecological functions, therefore not meeting the third feature that identifies an ICCA.

(iii) Extension of the TIOCs and ICCAs

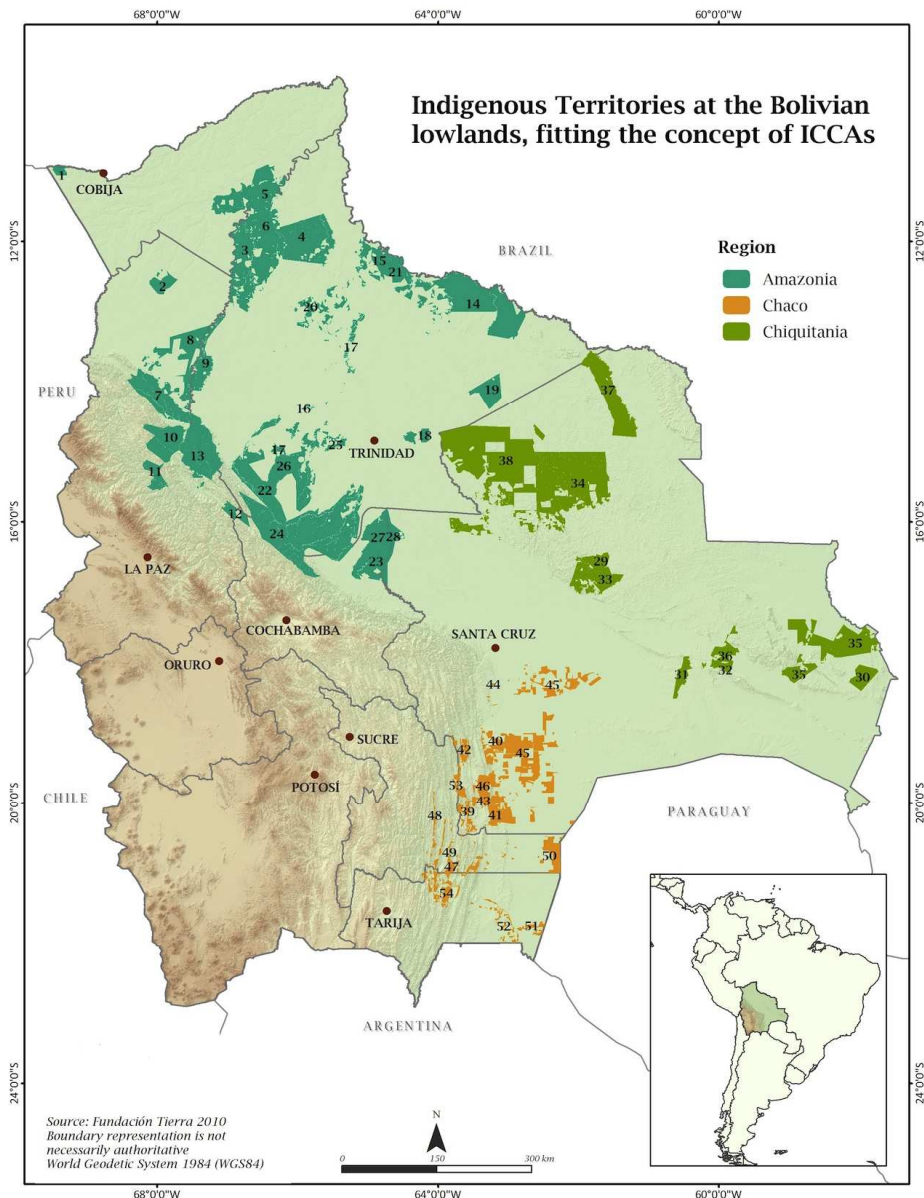
Bolivia has now a total of 190 TIOCs legally recognized, reaching 20.7 million of hectares. Only 54 of them adjust their reality to the definition of ICCAs¹³. They are all located in the Bolivian lowlands, with a total area of 12 million hectares. Almost all of these TIOCs are aware of the enormous value of biodiversity conservation, community life and the traditional use of natural resources.

Map 1 – and the table in Annex 1 – shows the TIOCs in the lowlands that fit the definition of ICCAs in Bolivia.

¹²The seventh transitory disposition of the new Constitution establishes that the TCO category will be subject to an administrative conversion process into TIOC. In December 2010, it was established – through Supreme Decree 727 – that the existing TCOs would be denominated TIOCs from then on, and that the future TCOs would acquire the same denomination. This is why we are using both terms without distinction in this case study.

¹³ We consider only the TIOCs of the lowlands, because the uplands TIOCs are very degraded and do not meet the third feature that identifies an ICCA.

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Map1: Indigenous territories in the Bolivian lowlands that fit the ICCA definition
(Source: Fundación Tierra)

Tables as well as map in Annex 2 display some details of the ICCAs from the Bolivian lowlands, notably their ecological values.

There are also TCOs located in the Andean highlands. However, the indigenous territories in the Andean region support larger population groups due to their long history of occupation and use. They are threatened by mining activities and are incorporated into intensive production systems generating benefits to the market. These activities have resulted in an intensive and unsustainable use of the land, significant biodiversity loss and high levels of erosion and soil degradation.

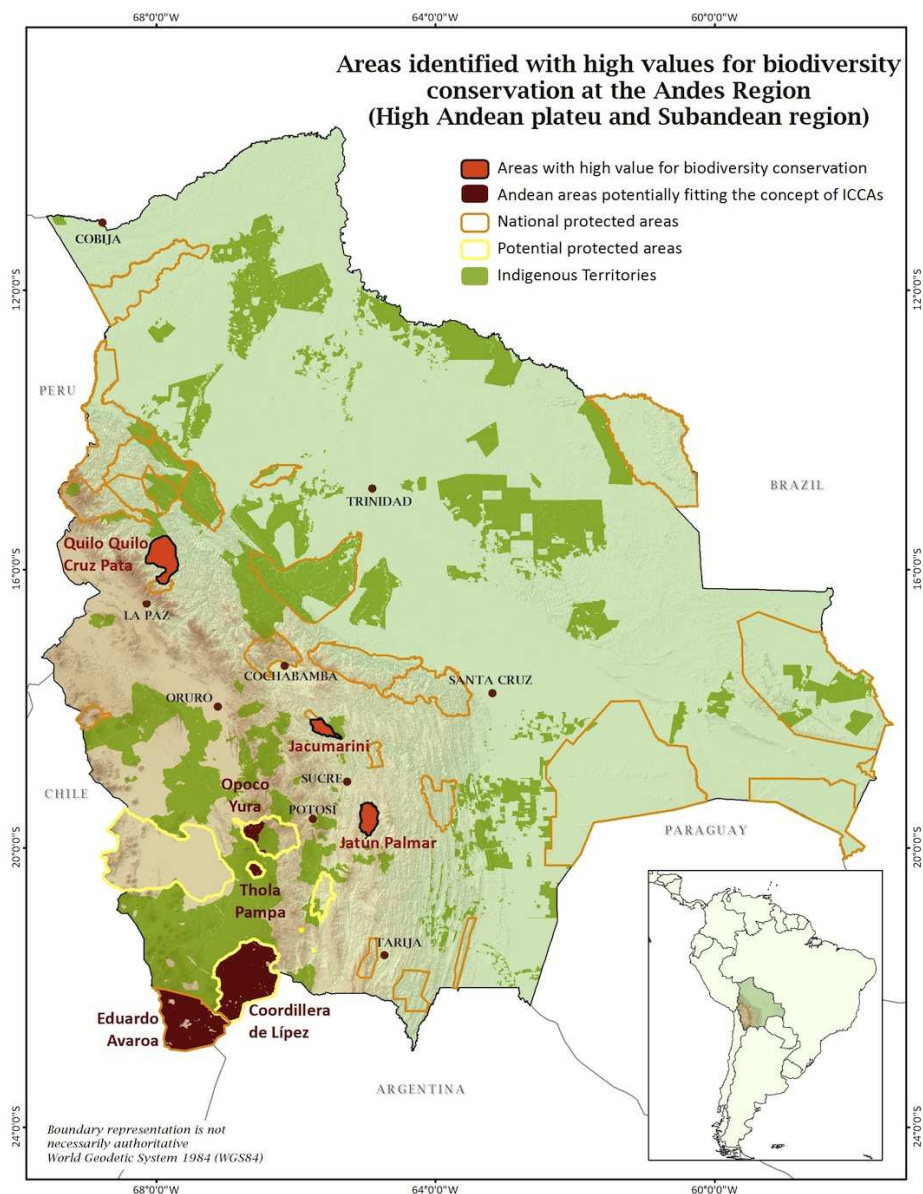
Despite this context of severe transformation of land use and environmental degradation, an assessment in 2005 (Miranda and Espinosa 2005) shows that some of the areas identified with high values of biodiversity overlap with recognized TCOs (South Lipez, where is the area identified as the Lipez Mountain Range; part of the Ayllus Tauka Aranzaya and Qhasa Urinsaya are within the area identified as Opoco Yura; part of the Tauka Grande and Chicoca

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Ayllus are located within the area identified in the study as Thola Pampa; part of the Ayllu Jatun Tulla is located within the area identified as Los Chichas).

The same study, and another evaluation in the sub-Andean zone (Ribera 2011) identified three areas with high biodiversity value: Jatun Palmar, Jucumarini and Quilo Quilo Cruz Pata. Although these three areas are not claimed nor recognized as TCOs, there are Quechua communities strongly linked to them. Further field evaluations with those local communities are needed, and thereafter a process to promote the formal establishment of ICCAs:

Map 2 shows areas identified with high values for biodiversity conservation in the Andean region.



Map 2: Areas identified with high values for biodiversity conservation in the Andes region – high Andean plateau and sub-Andean region
(Source: Fundación Tierra y SAVIA)

2.2.Key ecological, cultural, socio-economic, and political values of ICCAs

(i) Values from a legal perspective

The indigenous territories in the lowlands (TCOs) are lands where a large amount of natural resources are found, in which indigenous people apply their property rights and whose ownership is exercised by the legally accredited organization. It has a set of important juridical characteristics: 1) the collective property of a defined group of indigenous people; 2) cannot be divided; 3) cannot be enhanced; 4) cannot be sold; 5) the State cannot confiscate; 6) does not prescribe in time¹⁴; 7) on these lands indigenous people use the right of property and their exclusive rights to access, use and exploitation of all natural resources that are inside the territory; 8) the distribution and redistribution of the communal land for the use and benefit of individuals and families, is governed by the local customary laws (Law N. 1715, Art.3, inc.III).

In the case of non-renewable natural resources – like minerals and oil – within the TCO, these are still considered state property; however, indigenous people have the right to prior consultation and information concerning any public work or project being planned, that would affect their livelihoods and their right to autonomous territorial management. Indeed, Article 30, inc.17 of the Constitution states “*in the autonomous indigenous territorial management, and the use and exclusive benefit of the existent renewable natural resources in their territories, without prejudice to the legitimately acquired rights by third parties*”¹⁵.

However, it is important to remember that we are dealing with a territory shared among households, communities and inter-communal groups, so any intervention or project must consider the various levels of existing rights allocated to them.

(ii) Values from an environmental perspective

The TIOCs are extensions of territory, made up of large natural areas that conserve important biodiversity values, ecological and cultural values. For the indigenous people of the lowlands, the idea of territory was from the beginning related to the wise and sustainable management of nature in its entirety, not just the possession of land, providing all resources required for satisfying their basic needs; not only through production, but through diversification of the resource use; not only through the development of monocultures or single products, but through the cultural appropriation of integrated spaces (land, natural resources, water, game, sacred places); not participating in the market economy; and with the communal control to ensure sustainability. All this has resulted in territorial control and integrated spatial management.

¹⁴ The TIOCS are established in perpetuity, and not for a limited time.

¹⁵ This means that indigenous peoples must respect the rights previously granted by the State to others.

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Leco of Apolo TCO landscape, La Paz, Bolivia

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Threatened by the advance of the ‘settlers’ or ‘Western civilization’, these lands have been preserved because they were the areas of refuge for the indigenous population, illustrated in some cases by launching large mythical religious demonstrations, searching for the *Loma Santa* (the ‘Sacred Hill’ for the indigenous from TIPNIS) or the *Tierra sin Mal* (‘Land Without Evil’). There are also many examples of occupation and sustainable use of resources and spaces. For instance: “*The mechanisms of renewal of productivity of the Amazon forests only work properly if the use of the resources is managed under low pressure and adjusted to diverse, vulnerable, dispersed, seasonal, interdependent and complementary products of the forests*” (Garcia 2009).

Another important element for the conservation of these areas is that the majority of towns have not been incorporated into the agro-exporting production systems and prefer to maintain the self-subsistence production systems, producing for consumption, not for the market.



Moxeño mother and children fishing in Secure River, San Lorenzo - TIPNIS, Beni, Bolivia

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(iii) Values from the cultural perspective

We understand ‘culture’ as a set of skills and expertise that each group has and needs in order to survive in its environment. Every society has a culture that has been formed through generations and presents the conglomeration of answers to solve problems they have encountered through their history (Amodio 1988). From the tools to work the land to the basic implements, they all are products of their culture. Likewise, the way of life, work, land use, use and exploitation of natural resources, what is produced and how they produce, are part of the culture.

But the relationship between the indigenous people and their territory is not limited to the occupation and use of land and its resources; there is a spiritual relationship, where values and beliefs of the people are related to their physical environment. The territory, the forests and mountains, rivers and lakes are inhabited by gods, spirits and the world of the dead, with whom they coexists and respect.

These values are manifested in their forms of organization, systems of property, work, authority, relationships, values of the family, the relationship between social group members and those with nature and with other external stakeholders. These constitute the worldview of each people.



Four generations of women at the Isoso TCO, Santa Cruz, Bolivia
© Verónica Villaseñor

(iv) Values from the perspective of Human Rights

Inter-American Commission for Human Rights confirms that indigenous and tribal people have unique life forms and their worldview is based on their close relationship with the land. *“The lands traditionally used and occupied by them are a major factor in their physical, cultural and spiritual vitality”* (Inter-American Commissions for Human Rights 2009). The International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention 169 establishes that *“the terminology ‘land’ must include the concept of territories, which embraces the entire habitat of the areas which the people concerned occupy or use in one way or another.”* (Art 13, inc. 2).

There are some examples of legal cases concerning the recognition and protection of indigenous peoples’ rights and relationship over the territory and the state's obligation to

provide sufficient protection for these rights to be honoured. In the case concerning Sawhoyamaxa Indigenous Community vs. the State of Paraguay, the Commission noted in its ruling, that *“the unique relationship between the people and the traditional territory can be expressed in different ways, depending on the particular tribe involved and their specific circumstances, and may include the use or traditional activities, the preservation of sacred places or ceremonial sites, settlements or sporadic cultivation, seasonal or nomadic harvesting, hunting and fishing, the customary use of natural resources or other characteristics of the culture of indigenous or tribal people”* (Inter-American Commissions for Human Rights 2006). In terms of the Commission's (CIDH) definition: indigenous land is not merely a matter of possession and production, but a material and spiritual element which they must fully enjoy, even to preserve their cultural legacy and transmit to future generations.

Protecting the rights of indigenous peoples to land is a key issue for the international system for human rights, because the limited knowledge and violation of rights is concerned with the rights of a community that bases its economic, social and cultural development in a close relationship with the land and nature, but also because its denial involves the deprivation of a set of fundamental rights, as the right to identity, life, housing, employment, property, dignity, among the most important.



Guarayo TCO Landscape, Santa Cruz, Bolivia
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2.3. Main threats to ICCAs

The main threats to ICCAs are resulting from the expansion of the agricultural frontier, the demand for new agricultural land by peasants in the Andean region and the expansion of extractive development and agro-export model.

(i) The land used in the electoral campaigns

One of the main promises in the electoral campaign of the Movement Towards Socialism (MAS) in 2005 and 2009, was ‘handing over of land’: free land titles were offered to the peasants, intercultural (settlers from the Andean region), indigenous and Bolivians living abroad (Argentina, Chile and Peru) who would like to return. The promises of new land

redistributions were attached to the idea that large farms would be reduced to 5.000 hectares and the remaining land would revert to the State for redistribution.

This policy of land redistribution was attempted to be implemented through the ‘agrarian revolution’ in 2007, however this did not gain support other than political speeches. In the second term of President Evo Morales, this promise disappeared and was replaced by the call ‘productive revolution’ in 2011. The change from the ‘agrarian revolution’ to the ‘productive revolution’ implies a change of priorities by the government, now emphasizing the agro-industrial production capacity of the land.

Faced with the failure of the agrarian revolution and the unfulfilled promise of land distribution, the rural bases and Bolivians returned from Argentina and Chile increased their pressure on the government for the delivery of land. Because of this pressure and the government's own political vision, the government is now authorizing new settlements on public lands, mostly forestlands, which eventually will change land use from forest to agriculture. Another manifestation of this phenomenon is the unauthorised occupation of land by peasants (from the Andean region) in protected areas of different categories, forest reserves and indigenous territories.

(ii) The land is for the ones who work it

Farmers and settlers – the ‘sons’ of the land reform of 1953 - believe in the vision that ‘the land belongs to the one who works it’. This agrarian vision of land tenure and the mentality to produce to obtain surplus for the market remains the way of thinking and ideological vision that was born with the Bolivian peasants fighting against the big landlords¹⁶.

From this perspective, these peasants – and their influence over the present government – have questioned and classified the new TCOs as unproductive areas (large extensions land with low productivity, too much land shared by too few people), in all concluding that these territories are useless and poorly managed and should belong to the ones that will work it. The peasants and settlers are questioning the usefulness of the TIOCs as they believe them not to be productive, but mainly for the purpose of being allowed to occupy a part of them. Peasant organizations are working on a proposal for a new land law and have achieved a commitment from the government that it would be approved. The new law aims to review the areas allocated legally to the TIOCs, which constitutes a huge threat to the legally recognized indigenous territories.

On the other hand, as we have seen, the indigenous people see their territories as their universe, ‘the big house’. The territory is their historical reference, their location in the world, where a convergence of gods and men, past and future, the world of the living and the dead take place, and is the foundation of the existence and freedom as indigenous people. Therefore, the territory cannot be claimed as a productive agrarian entity and is not intended as a food factory, but their universe.

(iii) Denial of the right to self-determination

‘The majority decides’ is a fundamental principle forming the concept of liberal democracy, and is understood as the principle of popular sovereignty; the sovereign is the people and the

¹⁶ Although it has to be acknowledged that agrarian reform was one of the most important historical facts of republican life, and helped to overcome forms of semi-serfdom and slavery, joined the indigenous population to economic and political life of the country, consolidated the occupation of the country and promoted the self-sufficiency.

majority expressing the same idea decides and the minority accepts the decision. This principle is fully valid in a single nation/state; however, the concept is relative in a Plurinational State¹⁷, where the majority decides, but within each community or nation (not to be overruled by the majority of the whole country), in a manner that respects the right to self-determination¹⁸.

While the lowland indigenous peoples – most of them living in small towns – demand respect for their right to self-determination within their territory, the peasants and the government argues the principle that it is the general population who decides, based on the national majorities. While the indigenous peoples demand that the enquiries are taken to the level of their villages and communities, the government proposes a referendum at municipal or departmental level. The difference is clear, while indigenous people demand to be consulted to decide development projects within their territories, the government consult the entire population of the municipality or department to decide on the development projects within the indigenous territories.

(iv) Extractive development model

The current government of Bolivia promotes the paradigm ‘living well’ as their main proposal for achieving a set of structural changes in the matter of participation of the national population, decision-making and distribution of the benefits. However, the national productive sector is still ruled by the primary export model, promoted by the Ministries of production, mainly in the Mining, Oil and Rural Development.

In this context, Bolivian government answers to global economic policies by promoting large-scale programs such as IIRSA (South American Regional Infrastructure Initiative), mega energy projects, mining, industrial expansion of soybean projects, extractive biofuel development, processes of extraction of strategic energy resources, mineral extraction and others.

Among many consequences and risks observed in this model are:

- Relaxation of environmental regulations and social limits with a clear tendency to ignore the rules;
- Tendency to facilitate the actions of multinational and transnational corporations;
- Generation of high social and environmental costs of such a distribution to the most vulnerable and least advantaged;
- Promotion and facilitation of the exaggerated prominence of certain sectors related to the extractive industry (mining, oil, soybean);
- Creation of a logic where the state gives some sort of payment and subsidies to many regions, generating asymmetry in the distribution of benefits;
- Oligarchic structures allowed to continue international business such as mining;
- Side-lining of the environmental sector.

¹⁷ “Bolivia is a unitary state Plurinational Communitarian Law Social, free, independent, sovereign, democratic, intercultural, decentralized and autonomous. Bolivia is based on the plurality and political, economic, legal, cultural and linguistic integration process with in the country.” (Art. 1 CPE).

¹⁸ “Given the pre-colonial existence of nations and peoples and peasant indigenous ancestral domain over their territories, ensuring self-determination within the framework of the unity of the state, which is their right to autonomy, self-government, their culture, in recognition of their institutions and the consolidation of its territorial units, according to this Constitution and the law.” (Art. 2CPE).

These sets of threats are the main risks for ICCAs.



Growth of the agro-industrial expansion inside the TCO Isoso
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3. Governance and management of ICCAs

3.1. How are ICCAs governed and managed?

(i) Self-authority systems

All indigenous people inhabiting the Bolivian territory have their own system of authorities that have been maintained over time. These forms of institutional arrangements have, in some cases, created innovative arrangements that allow them to be linked to state structures of power, keeping by one hand the traditional authority embedded in the ancient culture and the created administrative framework that allow them to relate to the state institutions. These systems of authority and customary law are constitutionally recognized.

(ii) Customs and other community regulations adapted to management

In general, the regulations that govern the life of the indigenous communities are unwritten community norms, based on practices and habits orally transmitted from generation to generation. These laws regulate the access to land, the use and profit of the natural resources; they also establish the obligations of the community. This regulatory system originates in local traditions, is dynamic, and is recreated and developed based on social agreements that mandate their new realities and where transgression is a grave offense that is punished by the social group.

Communal laws can be considered good tools for the sustainable use of the natural resources, because they are enforced by the communities' organization in which the members contribute to the mutual and equitable benefit of all. The organization is structured as an institution in which the members contribute and participate actively and equally excluding the need to establish monetary agreements for the use of renewable natural resources.

(iii) Cultural practices

Indigenous people of the lowland ICCAs of Bolivia have a number of cultural practices associated with the use and management of natural resources. Among these practices some basic characteristics can be identified:

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- Cosmogony;
- High mobility, transhumance and itinerancy;
- Health, nutrition, quality of life;
- Itinerant and mobile agriculture in small cultivation areas;
- Fallow agriculture;
- Use of natural calendars and indicators through nature observations;
- Agrarian forestry management;
- Traditional forestry;
- Collection and extraction of the natural forest products;
- Pharmacology and traditional herbal medicine;
- Use of forest plants for shamanic ritual purposes;
- Hunting controlled by myths and taboos;
- Livestock and domestication of wildlife;
- Fishing;
- All uses of natural resources subject to regulation and controlled by myths and taboos.

(iv) The Governance in the ICCAs that are Protected Areas

The basic legal framework for the management of protected areas – established in the 1992 Environmental Law – explicitly recognizes the rights of the local people in the protected areas management. In its 15-year history – and despite ongoing institutional and political instability in Bolivia – the management of the National Protected Areas System (SNAP) has been consistent with these Law principles.

This interaction with local stakeholders has been shaping the outlook on conservation and therefore the policy applied to SNAP. From the beginning of the National Protected Areas System, a protected local area management committee was established. Later on, co-management mechanisms allowed the participation of local actors in the management of protected areas. In most cases, participatory processes were well received; indeed, there were cases where locally developed regulations were more restrictive than the provisions given by the national regulations. This led to a series of experiences based on specific cases that have gradually influenced concepts and practices of deeper involvement, with greater responsibility and social commitment as a result.

Following the political and social transformations driven by the national government since early 2006, these participatory processes have found political support for the project as a broader model of ‘co-management’, in which the main local actors assume greater levels of responsibility. This results in public authorities, including the National Protected Areas Service (SERNAP), sharing with local and national organizations strategic decisions for management. Meanwhile, supporting agencies such as NGOs or the international cooperation will assume a more definite supporting role in the technical, financial and facilitation processes. This new relationship between state and civil society sectors is the main axis for ‘Our Agenda for Change’ that is guiding the development of the System now.

The large number of social actors in the management of protected areas reflects the Bolivian state’s recognition of the rights of indigenous people, native and peasant to live in their ancestors’ lands, and to use the natural resources sustainably. The governmental discourse recognizes the rights for these social groups, which historically have been excluded and have had limitations for achieving their fair levels of development. In this case, access to land and natural resources and their sustainable management in protected areas is seen as a viable alternative that should be developed as adaptive, systematic, accountable and participatory. But practice shows that the application of this discourse is far from the true intention of the

governmental authorities¹⁹. Until 2005, there was significant progress in co-management of Protected Areas established in indigenous ancestral lands, both by the official authorities and indigenous organizations. During this government, from 2006 up to date, the trend is to consolidate a central administration by the governmental authorities, opposing the official discourse.

3.2. Key issues faced in governing and managing ICCAs

While Plurinational State Constitution recognizes and expands the powers for the full development of indigenous autonomy, the text of the Autonomy Framework Law – which outlines the mechanisms and procedures for the establishment of subnational governments (departmental governments, municipal governments and Indigenous autonomies) – extremely limits the possibility for exerting those rights to autonomy within the TIOCs. By introducing requirements on population size, territorial continuity, and manageability, it greatly hinders the ability to achieve autonomy in TIOCs, because – as noted earlier – the characteristic of the indigenous people is to live in small and scattered population centres within the large territories (see Annex 3). The current government clearly demonstrates an attitude of concentrating power, refusing to share it, to apply the prior informed consent (mandate of the CPE), and to share the administration and use of the natural resources; even though there are currently 258 TCO claims on an area of approximately 40 million hectares, of which 190 actually holds their titles, over an area of 20.7 million hectares.

Another key issue of importance for the management of TIOCs is the policy for transformation of ownership and transformation structure for land access. The government is contemplating three things: recognition and titling of TIOCs; a plan to redistribute land and human settlements; and the regrouping of land in smallholder areas (National Agricultural Development Plan). With this approach the government has reckoned to fulfil the qualification for the titling of TIOCs in the 20.7 million hectares, and there is an attitude of rejection of the claims pending to create new TIOCs (for example, the demand for San Rafael TCO of nearly 165,000 hectares is justified by a socio-economic and cultural spatial needs assessment, but the study approved by the government proposed to give them only 5,000 has, based on their agrarian logic of 50 ha. per family). Furthermore, the political transformation of the agrarian structure has strongly promoted the distribution of fiscal land²⁰, including lands only suitable for forest management to new settlements.

It is also important to mention the current debate on the legal ground regarding three topics that are very important for the management of indigenous territories: a new Law on Land, in which the main topic will be the TIOCs; the Law concerning Prior Informed Consultation with Indigenous People; and the new Forestry Law. In this context, the key issues that indigenous peoples and civil society organizations interested in defending human rights and the environment need to consider – in order to consolidate the environmental governance of

¹⁹As an example of this is that the government has issued a ‘Mother Earth’ law (N. 071, December 2010), which recognizes Mother Earth as a living, dynamic and sacred system with intrinsic rights, and its pertaining requirements of care and respect from society and government. Among the mechanisms and principles for the implementation of this law are the non-commercialization, the collective good, harmony, etc. Unfortunately, against this speech, the practice of government is to encourage a model of primary export that promotes an unprecedented destruction of natural ecosystems.

²⁰ Fiscal land: marginal lands, far from market centres, with very limited road access. These lands maintain natural ecological landscapes and have no individual or private owners; therefore the law considers this land as property of the Bolivian state. The current government has defined these areas as lands for colonization.

TIOCs– are the following:

- Defend and ensure application of the State Constitution;
- Search for recognition and implementation of indigenous autonomy in the TIOCs;
- Influence the national debate on the three above-mentioned laws, which seems crucial to the future of the TIOCs, the survival of indigenous peoples and the conservation of nature;
- Continue the development and implementation of the Indigenous Land Management Plans (PGTI)²¹.

4. Recognition and support to ICCAs

4.1. Government recognition and support to ICCAs

Through TCOs, indigenous peoples' territories are supported by an important legal framework, which recognizes collective ownership and contemplates that the territory is "*indivisible; non-transferable; non-confiscationable; and essential*". On these lands, indigenous people have rights of ownership and exclusive rights to access, use and exploit all renewable natural resources.

It is important to note that Indigenous Territory recognition is not confined or limited to the TCO, as illustrated by Article 30 of the Constitution of the State that, among other rights, states: "*self-determination and territoriality*" (inc.4) and "*collective title to lands and territories*" (inc.6). The right to self-determination and territoriality occupies a large portion of the Part III of the Constitution, in the seventh chapter on "*Rural indigenous autonomy*". Indigenous peoples have authority and public administration in indigenous territory and territorial space. The Part IV of the Constitution, in the chapter on "*Land and Territory*", has a specific treatment for the right to collective ownership of their lands and territories. The indigenous territory as agrarian property and the control of natural resources exist there.

Indigenous people of the lowlands have been fighting for legal recognition of their territories since the founding of the CIDOB in 1983, and have acquired a national political recognition and dignity through the first march through the territory in 1990. The territory has been a reviving factor of social and ethnic identity, mobilizations and struggles, both local and national. Since the enactment of Law No. 1715²² in 1996, indigenous people have achieved recognition and certification of 190 indigenous territories as communal lands (TCOs), covering an area of 20.7 million hectares, of which 54 TCOs are in the east, Chaco and Amazonia²³, totalling to 12 million hectares (see Table 1).

²¹ The *Gestión Territorial Indígena* – GTI ('Indigenous Land Management') has been defined by the CIDOB as: "*Management: the ability to decide what the indigenous people want to do and to carry forward what has been decided to do; Territorial: the physical space management is done in this case the Territories in the form of TCO titled and communities collectively titled land; Indigenous: the indigenous People, the owners of the territories and those who manage from their culture and with the participation and consensus of the community through the organization.*" To date, there are several plans of GTI prepared. Some of them are named *Plan de Vida* ('Life Plan').

²² Best known as the Law of Agrarian Reform Institute (INRA).

²³ Classification using CIDOB referring to the location of their affiliates indigenous people.

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Table 1: Report of the TIOCs in 2010

(Source: Fundación Tierra 2010)

No	Region	Sub-regions	No. TIOC	Area in hectares		Holders	
				Surface with title	%	Population	%
1	Andes	Altiplano	34	6,566,811.8	31.7	108,087	24.4
2	Andes	Inter-andean valleys	101	2,202,271.2	10.6	260,572	49.1
3	Amazonia	North Amazonia	6	1,739,150.1	8.4	8,927	1.7
4	Amazonia	South Amazonia	7	1,516,501.9	7.3	17,501	3.3
5	Amazonia	Itenez – Mamore	8	1,403,043.6	6.8	15,026	2.8
6	Amazonia	Chapare – Moxos	7	1,262,697.5	10.9	26,028	4.9
7	East	Chiquitanía	10	3,572,625.1	17.3	43,911	8.3
8	Chaco	Chaco	17	1,452,849.0	7.0	50,280	9.5
		TOTAL	190	20,715,950.3	100.0	530,332	100.0

Until now, the progress in the recognition of TIOCs and the explicit vision for them in the Constitution of the State (CPE) – which are based on the TIOCs boundaries – are processes very advanced and innovative, in terms of legal rights. This kind of recognition is the most advanced in the Americas. During the last 15 years, the recognition of TIOCs has been the highest recognition in terms of land ownership in the 170-year history of the Republic of Bolivia. This form of legal recognition is innovative, with a dynamic evolution, searching to expand its reach in terms of autonomy levels. However, despite the fact that Bolivia has a very strong legal recognition, the TIOCs management faces serious conflicts (as explained in section 3.2 of this case study).

4.2. Civil Society recognition and support to ICCAs

The recognition of indigenous peoples as a social subject, political entity, and as owners of their territories is also expressed in broad sectors of Bolivian society, particularly non-governmental organizations, which have become a permanent ally in the recognition and certification (as property) of indigenous territories first, and later in support of indigenous territorial management.

(i) Support from Bolivian NGOs to recognition and titling of TIOCs

From the vindication of indigenous territories, their recognition in the national legislation and especially in the legalization of the land tenure process, different NGOs have been supportive. The following Bolivian NGOs have provided the most help through by technical support and legal recognition of indigenous territories:

- Centro de Estudios Jurídicos y Sociales – CEJIS (Centre for Legal and Social Studies), with offices in Santa Cruz, Trinidad, Cobija, La Paz and Riberalta cities. Its main support was to the people of Monte Verde and Lomerio – Chiquitanos people in the multiethnic indigenous territories in the Amazon region.
- Centro para la Investigación y Promoción del Campesinado – CIPCA (Research Centre for the Farmers Support), with advice to reorganization in Pando, Riberalta and the Chaco region. Its main support was to the Guarani people.
- Centro de Investigación y Documentación del Beni – CIDEBENI (Research and Documentation Center of Beni), with offices in the city of Trinidad. Its main support has been the land tenure legalization of the TCO Sirionó.

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- Centro de Desarrollo Andino – CENDA (Andean Development Center), with offices in Cochabamba. Supported the land tenure legalization of Pampa Raqay TCO in Ayopaya.

(ii) Support from some International Cooperation Agencies– ACI – to recognition and titling of TIOCs

It is important to note that international cooperation agencies have played an important role in the agrarian process for the last 15 years, allowing a wide recognition of indigenous territories. ACIs have also negotiated and agreed directly with the government on the creation and titling of some TIOCs; e.g. the World Bank, Embassy of Denmark, Embassy of the Netherlands, IDB, and IFAD.

(iii) The promotion of Indigenous Land Management processes (GTI)

In indigenous territories already recognized and with land title, GTI are being implemented, with the aim of strengthening the capacities of indigenous peoples' organizations, which exercise ownership rights and manage authority over the territory. The GTI can be understood in different ways, some arguing that even if it is not possible to see the Indigenous Land Management as a concept, it has to be seen as a political process of administration and governance in Indigenous Territory.

Non-governmental organizations working with indigenous and peasant communities have made an important conceptual work on the subject; in particular *Agronomes et Vétérinaires Sans Frontières* (VSF-CICDA), the Centre for Legal and Social Studies (CEJIS), the Andean Development Centre (CENDA), the Research Centre for the Farmers Support (CIPCA), the Service Dutch Development Cooperation (SNV) and Social Research and Legal Advice Potosí (ISALP) (Peres and Vadillo 2008).

According to Camacho (2007), in general the NGOs vision about the definition of Indigenous Land Management imply the consolidation of the territorial rights through the development and implementation of production and resource management plans, which are based on the inherent power structures within each indigenous territory and their dynamic articulation with their culture and their perceptions of the development.

From the perspectives of ICCAs, Indigenous Land Management is of strategic importance because it is built on four core elements:

- The indigenous territory, which in the case of Bolivia acquires the dimension of communal lands where there are a set of natural resources on which indigenous people enjoy the administration and determine the use;
- Cultural values of indigenous people, which determine the management of its territory as a driving force of the relationships within it;
- Environmental values: all the indigenous territories at the lowlands conserve great environmental values, rich biodiversity in good status of conservation, giving many environmental services;
- The system of organization and authority: each indigenous people existing in each TCO exercises local power and determines the relationship with different levels of administration (TCO, area, community, family) and external stakeholders.

These four aspects form the Indigenous Land Management Plan (PGTI) that, among other things, allows for advance in land use: the definition of development strategies; territorial control; the definition of standards and/or criteria that govern access and use to natural

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resources in the TCO (which belong to everyone) for private gain (or working groups, communities of families).

(iv) Support of some environmental NGOs

Some NGOs are working with TIOCs that have a double status (Protected Areas), developing activities to support natural resource management, land use planning, training in conflict resolution, research and monitoring of endangered species.

(v) Support of the urban population

A very important support to TIOCs took place in October 2011, when nearly one million inhabitants from La Paz welcomed—in an unprecedented concentration – the arrival of the 8th Indigenous March for the Territory and Dignity (to defend the TIPNIS, opposing the construction of a road through this TCO/PA).



Massive support of the urban population during the arrival to La Paz city of the 9th Indigenous March, July 2012

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4.3. Key issues for the recognition and support to ICCAs

As we mentioned, Bolivia has the most advanced Constitution regarding guarantees on human rights and rights of indigenous peoples throughout the Americas. Nevertheless, difficulties arise in:

- The policy for transformation of ownership and transformation structure for land access: the political transformation of the agrarian structure has strongly promoted the distribution of fiscal land including lands only suitable for forest management to new settlements.
- The threats to indigenous territorial rights, by the interference of oil and mining projects, road construction linked to the IIRSA Regional Strategy, advance of agriculture, expansion of coca cultivation, incursion of poachers searching for game and fish, and piracy of timber.
- The laws of constitutional development – such as the Autonomy Framework Law – aiming at reducing the rights of indigenous peoples – although recognized legally – under certain technical criteria.
- Lack of prior and informed consent regarding policies and projects implemented by the government affecting indigenous territories and rights, ignoring the mandate of the new

Constitution.

- Expanding agricultural frontier, which promotes colonization and occupation of forestland, protected areas and indigenous territories.
- Inconsistency between the government's speech in defence of 'mother earth' and its promoting in practice of an extractive development model, with many consequences and risks:
 - Relaxation of environmental regulations;
 - Facilitation of multinational corporations' activities;
 - Generation of high social and environmental costs;
 - Unprecedented change of land use, promoting the rapid transformation of forest ecosystems on poor soils in areas of agro-industrial production.

5. The Future

Recommendations

Given the growing difficult context in which TIOCs operate in Bolivia today and in the coming months (as described above), we reiterate our recommendations to address key issues for recognition and support:

- ✓ Strongly defend and implement the State Constitution;
- ✓ Search for recognition and implementation of indigenous autonomy in the TIOCs, because the text of the Autonomy Framework Law – which outlines the mechanisms and procedures for the establishment of subnational governments (including the Indigenous autonomies) – limits the possibility for exerting the rights to TIOC's autonomy;
- ✓ Influence the national debate on the three key laws (a new Law on Land, in which the main topic will be the TIOCs; the Law concerning Prior Informed Consultation with Indigenous People; and the new Forestry Law) that seem crucial for the future of the TIOCs, the survival of indigenous people and the conservation of nature;
- ✓ Continue the development and implementation of the Indigenous Land Management Plans (PGTI), also promoting monitoring of the implementation, exchange of experiences, and channelizing economic resources for specific projects of management;
- ✓ Continue the research to identify potential ICCAs on the highlands of Bolivia.

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Aurelio Taceó showing the zoning map and the Indigenous Land Management Plan for Turubó East TCO, Santa Cruz, Bolivia

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It is important to promote in Bolivia the larger debate – initiated by various social organizations and indigenous and peasant communities in Latin America – on the promotion of another Model of Natural Resources Management, which:

- Enables to reverse the primary production model;
- Mobilizes the community's cultural roots;
- Searches to strengthen a society based on collective responsibility and community management towards rational use of natural resources;
- Allows the people to directly decide the fate of natural wealth according to their organizational structures, own rules and procedures, and own vision of integrated management of their territories (as evidenced by experiences of ICCAs in other latitudes); in other terms, self-determination.

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Annex 1: Indigenous territories in the Bolivian lowlands, fitting the concept of ICCA

No.	Region	TCO	Indigenous People	Ha
1	Amazonia	Yaminagua /Machineri	Yaminagua &Machineri	24,671.3
2	Amazonia	Araona	Araona	77,714.7
3	Amazonia	Cavineño	Cavineño	471,862.3
4	Amazonia	Multietnico I	Chacobo &Pacaguara	485,260.1
5	Amazonia	Multietnico II		408,592.3
6	Amazonia	Takana – Cavineño	Takana & Cavineño	271,049.5
7	Amazonia	Chupiamonas	San José de Chupiamonas	210,055.9
8	Amazonia	Takana I	Takana	388,341.3
9	Amazonia	Takana III	Takana	146,266.9
10	Amazonia	Leco de Apolo	Leco	238,162.0
11	Amazonia	Leco de Larecaja	Leco	86,718.2
12	Amazonia	Moseten	Moseten	100,831.0
13	Amazonia	Pilon Lajas	T'simane Moseten	346,126.6
14	Amazonia	Itonama	Itonama	713,864.8
15	Amazonia	More	More	60,753.2
16	Amazonia	Movima	Movima	6,095.2
17	Amazonia	Movima II	Movima	60,995.8
18	Amazonia	Siriono	Siriono	52,286.7
19	Amazonia	Baure	Baure	135,417.0
20	Amazonia	Cayubaba	Cayubaba	156,142.1
21	Amazonia	Joaquiniano	Moxeño	217,488.7
22	Amazonia	T'simane	T'simane	330,196.5
23	Amazonia	Yuqui	Yuqui	115,924.9
24	Amazonia	TIPNIS	Moxeño, Yuracare & T'simane	1,092,050.7
25	Amazonia	Ignaciano	Moxeño	47,113.1
26	Amazonia	Multietnico (TIM)	Moxeño, Yuracare & T'simane	357,586.4
27	Amazonia	Coniyura	Yuracare	241,170.5
28	Amazonia	El Pallar	Yuracare & Moxeño	78,655.5
29	Chiquitania	Zapoco	Ayoreode	43,324.4
30	Chiquitania	Rincon del Tigre	Ayoreode	97,742.9
31	Chiquitania	Santa Teresita	Ayoreode	77,545.2
32	Chiquitania	Tobite	Ayoreode	26,104.1
33	Chiquitania	Lomerio	Chiquitano	259,188.6
34	Chiquitania	Monte Verde	Chiquitano	947,440.8
35	Chiquitania	Pantanal	Chiquitano	494,626.9
36	Chiquitania	Turubó	Chiquitano	101,278.6
37	Chiquitania	GuarasugWe bajo Paragua	Chiquitano	374,151.4
38	Chiquitania	Guarayo	Guarayo	1,151,222.0
39	Chaco	Alto Parapeti	Guaraní	67,650.6

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40	Chaco	Charagua Norte	Guaraní	109,206.6
41	Chaco	Charagua Sur	Guaraní	137,606.8
42	Chaco	Iupaguasu	Guaraní	38,229.0
43	Chaco	Kaami	Guaraní	35,160.9
44	Chaco	Takobo Mora	Guaraní	4,197.0
45	Chaco	Isoso	Guaraní	554,093.5
46	Chaco	Kaipependi Keroaicho	Guaraní	63,607.9
47	Chaco	Tentayapi	Guaraní	21,587.0
48	Chaco	Huacareta	Guaraní	27,678.5
49	Chaco	Ingre	Guaraní	21,622.1
50	Chaco	Machareti	Guaraní	126,735.7
51	Chaco	Tapieti	Tapieti	24,840.0
52	Chaco	Weenhayek	Weenhayek	42,581.8
53	Chaco	Itikaparirenda	Guaraní	18,547.6
54	Chaco	Itika Guasu	Guaraní	90,539.9
	TOTAL			11,877,903

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Annex 2: Details on the Indigenous territories in the Bolivian lowlands, fitting the concept of ICCA

MANAGEMENT AND THREATS							
No.	ICCA	PGTI		Autonomy			Principal threats
		Yes	No	No	Yes	Form	
1	Yaminagua /Machineri			No			Illegal forest extraction; IIRSA road projects; Illegal hunting.
2	Araona			No			Illegal forest extraction.
3	Cavineño	Yes		No			Illegal forest extraction; Military presence; Flood risk by building large dams on the Madeira River.
4	Multietnico I	Yes		No			Illegal forest extraction; IIRSA road projects; Illegal hunting.
5	Multietnico II			No			Illegal forest extraction; Flood risk by building large dams on the Madeira River; IIRSA road projects; Illegal hunting.
6	Takana - Cavineño			No			Illegal forest extraction; Flood risk by building large dams on the Madeira River; IIRSA road projects; Illegal hunting.
7	Chupiamonas	Yes		No			Invasive colonization; Illegal hunting.
8	Takana I	Yes		No			Invasive colonization; Illegal hunting.
9	Takana III			No			Invasive colonization.
10	Leco de Apolo			No			Invasive colonization.
11	Leco de Larecaja			No			Invasive colonization.
12	Moseten	Yes		No			Invasive colonization; Oil extraction
13	Pilon Lajas	Yes			Yes		Invasive colonization; Oil extraction, invasive colonization; IIRSA road projects; programs of industrial development; Illegal hunting.
14	Itonama			No			Livestock expansion; Flood risk by building large dams on the Madeira River.
15	More			No			Flood risk by building large dams on the Madeira River.
16	Movima			No			Livestock expansion.
17	Movima II			No			Livestock expansion; Flood risk by building large dams on the Madeira River.
18	Siriono	Yes		No			Invasive colonization; Livestock expansion.
19	Baure	Yes		No			Livestock expansion.
20	Cayubaba			No			Livestock expansion.
21	Joaquiniano			No			Livestock expansion; Flood risk by

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MANAGEMENT AND THREATS							
No.	ICCA	PGTI		Autonomy			Principal threats
		Yes	No	No	Yes	Form	
							building large dams on the Madeira River.
22	T'simane			No			Illegal forest extraction; Invasive colonization; IIRSA road projects.
23	Yuqui			No			Invasive colonization.
24	TIPNIS			No			Invasive colonization; Oil extraction, expansion of the agricultural industry; IIRSA road projects.
25	Ignaciano			No			Livestock expansion.
26	Territorio Indígena Multietnico (TIM)			No			Livestock expansion; Illegal forest extraction; Invasive colonization; IIRSA road projects.
27	Coniyura	Yes		No			Invasive colonization.
28	El Pallar			No			Invasive colonization.
29	Zapoco			No			Livestock expansion.
30	Rincon del Tigre			No			Livestock expansion.
31	Santa Teresita			No			Livestock expansion.
32	Tobite			No			Livestock expansion.
33	Lomerio	Yes			Yes	GM	Livestock expansion; Mining invasive.
34	Monte Verde	Yes		No			Livestock expansion; Invasive colonization.
35	Pantanal			No			
36	Turubó	Yes		No			Livestock expansion; Illegal forest extraction.
37	GuarasugWe del bajo Paragua	Si		No			Invasive colonization.
38	Guarayo			No			Invasive colonization; Livestock expansion; expansion of the agricultural industry; IIRSA road projects.
39	Alto Parapeti	Yes			Yes	AI	Contamination of water sources.
40	Charagua Norte	Yes			Yes	AI	Expansion of the agricultural frontier; Ecosystem degradation; Contamination of water sources.
41	Charagua Sur	Yes			Yes	AI	Expansion of the agricultural frontier; Ecosystem degradation; Contamination of water sources.
42	Iupaguasu						Oil extraction.
43	Kaami			No			
44	Takobo Mora			No			Oil extraction.
45	Isoso	Yes			Yes	AI	Expansion of the agricultural industry; Ecosystem degradation.
46	Kaipependi Keroaicho			No			Invasive colonization.

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MANAGEMENT AND THREATS							
No.	ICCA	PGTI		Autonomy			Principal threats
		Yes	No	No	Yes	Form	
47	Tentayapi			No			Livestock expansion; Ecosystem degradation.
48	Huacareta			No			Livestock expansion; Ecosystem degradation.
49	Ingre			No			Livestock expansion; Ecosystem degradation.
50	Machareti	Yes			Yes	GM	
51	Tapieti						
52	Weenhayek			No			Livestock expansion; Ecosystem degradation; Contamination of water sources.
53	Itikaparirenda			No			
54	Itika Guasu			No			Livestock expansion; Ecosystem degradation; Oil extraction.

PGTI: Plan de Gestion Territorial Indígena (Indigenous management plan); AI: Indigenous Autonomy; GM: Indigenous Autonomy at a municipal level.

ECOLOGICAL VALUES			
	ICCA	Main ecoregions	Fauna red list
1	Yaminagua /Machineri	Amazonian forest with <i>Hevea brasiliensis</i> , <i>Bertholletia excelsa</i> .	<i>Saguinus imperator</i> , <i>Callimico goeldii</i> , <i>Pithecia irrorata</i> , <i>Ateles chamek</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , <i>Primolius couloni</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
2	Araona	Amazonian forest with <i>Hevea brasiliensis</i> , <i>Bertholletia excelsa</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Trinectes nicefori</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> .
3	Cavineño	Amazonian forest with <i>Hevea brasiliensis</i> , <i>Bertholletia excelsa</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
4	Multietnico I	Amazonian forest with <i>Hevea brasiliensis</i> , <i>Bertholletia excelsa</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
5	Multietnico II	Amazonian forest with <i>Hevea brasiliensis</i> , <i>Bertholletia excelsa</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Hylopezus auricularis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> .
6	Takana - Cavineño	Amazonian forest and <i>Varzea</i> forest.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Priodontes</i>

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ECOLOGICAL VALUES			
	ICCA	Main ecoregions	Fauna red list
			<i>maximus</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> , <i>Dinomys branickii</i> .
7	Chupiamonas	Intra-mountain floodplainforests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Atelopus tricolor</i> , <i>Hyloscirtus armatus</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Asthenes urubambensis</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , <i>Phyllomyias weedeni</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> , <i>Dinomys branickii</i> .
8	Takana I	<i>Varzea</i> forests, and open <i>sabanas</i> (natural grasslands).	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Atelopus tricolor</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> , <i>Dinomys branickii</i> .
9	Takana III	Floodplain humid forests, <i>Varzea</i> forests and open <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Dinomys branickii</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Atelopus tricolor</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Crax globulosa</i> , <i>Callicebus modestus</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
10	Leco de Apolo	Humid forests from <i>Yungas</i> and sub-andean perhumid forests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Atelopus tricolor</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> .
11	Leco de Larecaja	Humid forests from <i>Yungas</i> and sub-andean perhumid forests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> .
12	Moseten	Intra-mountain floodplainforests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Atractus balzani</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Atractus boettgeri</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
13	Pilon Lajas	Sub-andean perhumid forests, <i>Varzea</i> forests and cloudy rainforests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Atelopus tricolor</i> , <i>Allobates mcdiarmidi</i> , <i>Hyloscirtus armatus</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Eunectes beniensis</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , <i>Phyllomyias weedeni</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Trinycteris nicefori</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> , <i>Dinomys branickii</i> .
14	Itonama	Forests over the pre-cambrian shield, open <i>sabanas</i> , and Riparan	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , ,

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ECOLOGICAL VALUES			
	ICCA	Main ecoregions	Fauna red list
		forests.	<i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> , <i>Ozotoceros bezoarticus</i> .
15	More	Isolated <i>sabanas</i> , forests over the pre-cambrian shield and <i>Varzea</i> forests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Trinysteris nicefori</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> .
16	Movima	<i>Varzea</i> forests, floodplain humid forests, and Moxos <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Ara glaucogularis</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
17	Movima II	Floodplain humid forests and Moxos <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> , <i>Ozotoceros bezoarticus</i> .
18	Siriono	Floodplain humid forests and Moxos <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Ara glaucogularis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Vampirum spectrum</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
19	Baure	Forests over the pre-cambrian shield, open <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Leopardus colocolo</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> , <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> .
20	Cayubaba	Beni northeast <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Ozotoceros bezoarticus</i> .
21	Joaquiniano	Forests over the pre-cambrian shield, open <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> .
22	T'simane	Floodplain humid forests, <i>Varzea</i> forests and Moxos <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Harpyhaliaetus coronatus</i> , <i>Caprimulgus candicans</i> , <i>Primolius couloni</i> , <i>Vampirum spectrum</i> , <i>Leopardus colocolo</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
23	Yuqui	Floodplain humid forests, rainforests, and <i>Varzea</i> forest.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Gastrotheca laururicae</i> , <i>Rhinella amboroensis</i> , <i>Rhinella quechua</i> , <i>Rhinella justiniano</i> , <i>Hyloscirtus armatus</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Atractus boettgeri</i> , <i>Pauxi unicornis</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> , <i>Dinomys branickii</i> .
24	TIPNIS	Floodplain humid forests, perhumid sub-	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Atelopus tricolor</i> , <i>Rhinella</i>

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ECOLOGICAL VALUES			
	ICCA	Main ecoregions	Fauna red list
		andean rainforests, sub-mountain rainforests, Moxos <i>sabanas</i> and Yungas rainforests.	<i>justiniano</i> , <i>Hyloscirtus armatus</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Eunectes beniensis</i> , <i>Pauxi unicornis</i> , <i>Ara glaucogularis</i> , <i>Phyllomyias weedeni</i> , <i>Vampirum spectrum</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> , <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> , <i>Dinomys branickii</i> .
25	Ignaciano	Moxos <i>sabanas</i> .	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Ara glaucogularis</i> .
26	Territorio Indígena Multietnico (TIM)	Beni floodplain humid forests, and sub-mountain rainforests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Vampirum spectrum</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
27	Coniyura	<i>Varzea</i> forests and Beni floodplain humid forests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> .
28	El Pallar	<i>Varzea</i> forests and Beni floodplain humid forests.	<i>Colossomaa macropomum</i> , <i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Melanosuchus niger</i> .
29	Zapoco	<i>Cerrado sabanas</i> and Chiquitano dry and sub-humid forests.	<i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> .
30	Rincon del Tigre	<i>Cerrado sabanas</i> and Chiquitano dry and sub-humid forests.	<i>Zungaru jahu</i> , <i>Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus</i> , , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Vampirum spectrum</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> , <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> .
31	Santa Teresita	Xeromorphic <i>sabanas</i> and Chaco <i>cerrado</i> .	<i>Harpyhaliaetus coronatus</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
32	Tobite	Chiquitano dry and sub-humid forests.	<i>Harpyhaliaetus coronatus</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
33	Lomerio	Chiquitano dry and sub-humid forests and <i>Cerrado sabanas</i> .	<i>Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
34	Monte Verde	Chiquitano dry and sub-humid forests, forests over the pre-cambrian shield and Riparian forests.	<i>Atractus taeniatus</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Ozotoceros bezoarticus</i> .
35	Pantanal	Chiquitano dry and sub-humid forests and <i>Cerrado sabanas</i> .	<i>Zungaru jahu</i> , <i>Harpyhaliaetus coronatus</i> , <i>Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus</i> , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Leopardus colocolo</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestres</i> , <i>Blastocerus dichotomus</i> .
36	Turubó	Xeromorphic <i>sabanas</i> and Chaco <i>cerrado</i> .	<i>Harpyhaliaetus coronatus</i> , <i>Priodontes maximus</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Speothos</i>

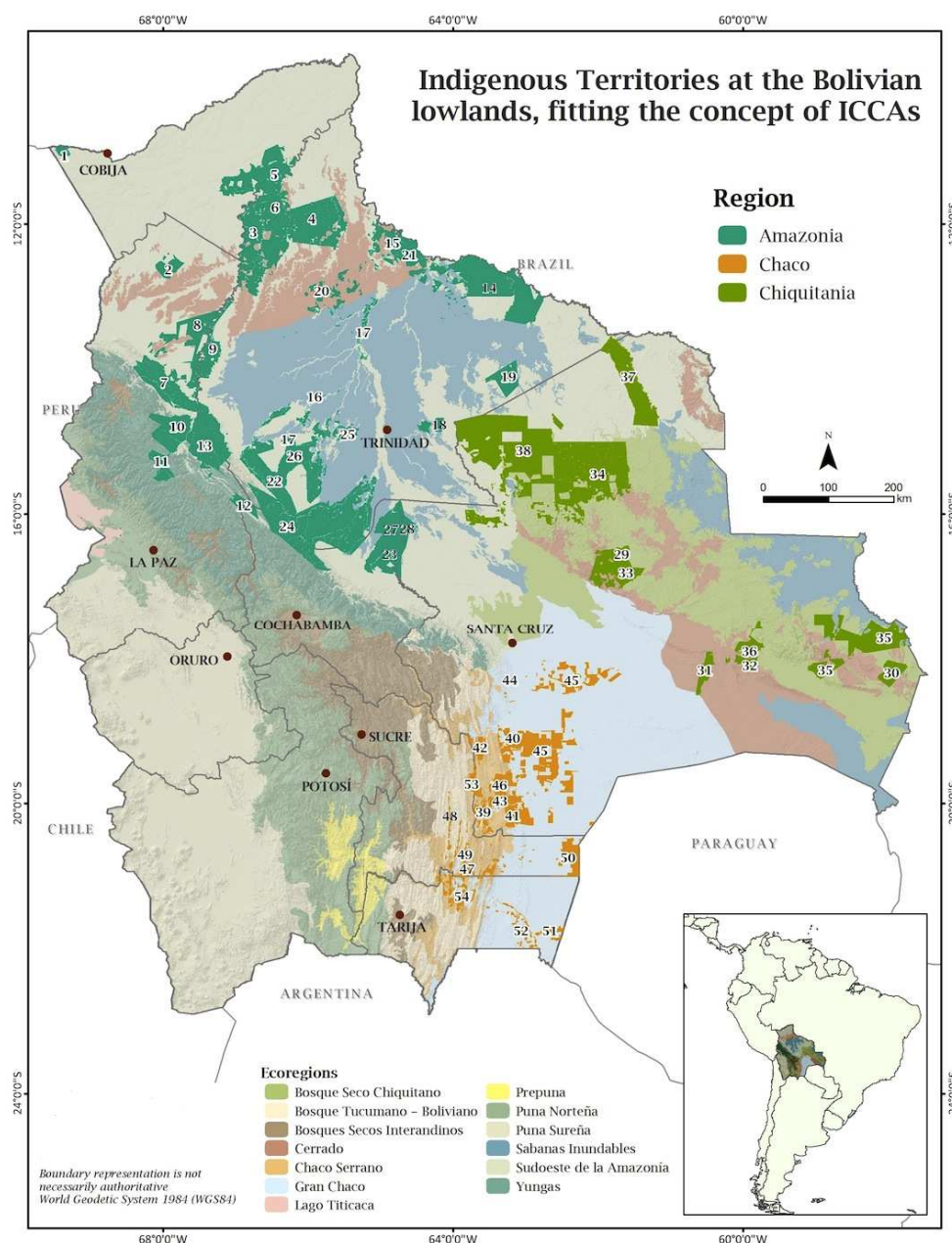
RECOGNITION AND SUPPORT OF ICCAs IN BOLIVIA

ECOLOGICAL VALUES			
	ICCA	Main ecoregions	Fauna red list
			<i>venaticus</i> .
37	GuarasugWe del bajo Paragua	Forests over the pre-cambrian shield and <i>Cerrado sabanas</i> .	<i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Phreatobius sanguijuela Fernandez</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , <i>Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus</i> , , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Vampirum spectrum</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> .
38	Guarayo	Riparian forests, forests over the pre-cambrian shield.	<i>Brachyplatystoma rousseauxii</i> , <i>Podocnemis expansa</i> , <i>Podocnemis unifilis</i> , <i>Harpia harpyja</i> , , <i>Pteronura brasiliensis</i> , <i>Speothos venaticus</i> .
39	Alto Parapeti	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests and forest <i>Tucumano boliviano</i> .	<i>Acrobrycon tarijae</i> .
40	Charagua Norte	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests, dry forests of the great plain of the Chacobasal.	<i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> .
41	Charagua Sur	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests.	<i>Apostolepis multicincta</i> .
42	Iupaguasu	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests.	<i>Apostolepis multicincta</i> .
43	Kaami	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests.	
44	Takobo Mora	Dry forests of the great plain of the Chacobasal.	
45	Isoso	Dry forests of the great plain of the Chacobasal.	<i>Pleurodema guayapae</i> , <i>Harpyhaliaetus coronatus</i> , <i>Catagonus wagneri</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> .
46	Kaipependi Keroaicho	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests and <i>Yungas Tucumano boliviano</i> forests.	<i>Apostolepis multicincta</i> .
47	Tentayapi	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests.	<i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> .
48	Huacareta	<i>Yungas Tucumano boliviano</i> forests and cloudy rainforests.	<i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> .
49	Ingre	Chaco <i>serrano</i> dry forests.	
50	Machareti	Dry forests of the great plain of the Chacobasal.	<i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Tapirus terrestris</i> .
51	Tapieti	Dry forests of the great plain of the Chacobasal.	<i>Catagonus wagneri</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> .
52	Weenhayek	Dry forests of the great	<i>Zungaru jahu</i> , <i>Catagonus wagneri</i> , <i>Tolypeutes</i>

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ECOLOGICAL VALUES			
	ICCA	Main ecoregions	Fauna red list
		plain of the Chaco basal.	<i>matacus</i> , <i>Pantera onca</i> .
53	Itikaparirenda	<i>Yungas Tucumano boliviano</i> forests.	
54	Itika Guasu	<i>Yungas Tucumano boliviano</i> forests and Chaco serrano dry forests.	<i>Zungaru jahu</i> , <i>Tolypeutes matacus</i> , <i>Tremarctos ornatus</i> .

Map: Indigenous territories at the Bolivian lowlands fitting the concept of ICCAs, by ecoregion
(Source: Fundación Tierra y SAVIA)



Annex 3: Definition of population and indigenous people in Bolivia

1 - Indigenous population

The distinction between who is indigenous and who is not is one of the axes along which the history of Bolivia has unfolded, from the conquest until today. Defining who is indigenous is not a finished work, but a social process in permanent recreation, which, according to times, will show new faces of the same problems.

Contributing to this is the diversity of definitions that the indigenous and non indigenous people themselves have about the identity and the meaning of the concepts of 'indigenous and non indigenous'.²⁴

The Census used three statistical indicators for identifying operational indigenous and non-indigenous: i) self-identification or membership or non-declaration of one of the indigenous peoples of the population of fifteen or more years; ii) language people declared to speak, present in most of the Census; iii) statement of persons from 4 or more years about the language that they learned to speak.

In summary, we present here after official data published by the National Statistics Institute (INE) on the size and distribution of indigenous population.

Total population	%	URBAN	%	RURAL	%
8,274,325	100.00	5,165,230	62.42	3,109,095	37.58

(Source: INE, Census 2011).

Regarding the language people claim to speak:

Identifying the indigenous languages spoken

POPULATION	%	PEOPLE
4,135,138	49.95%	Speak one or more native languages
2,281,198	34.25%	Quechua
1,525,321	22.90%	Aymara
62,575	0.94%	Guaraní
49,432	0.74%	Other native languages

Regarding the question of self-belonging (or not) to an indigenous people, of the population over 15 years of age – that is a total of 5,064,992 people – 3,142,637 (62.05%) reported belonging to one of the villages indigenous people. Of these, 55.57% reside in urban areas and 44.43% live in rural areas (INE 2003: 68).

²⁴Several of these aspects are taken from the following works: Molina Barrios, R., 2005, *Socio-demographic characteristics of the indigenous people of Bolivia*, ECLAC-IDB, Santiago, Chile; Molina Barrios, R., unpublished paper, *Towards a new dialogue between agencies and indigenous organizations*, SNV, HIVOS, IBIS, OXFAM, La Paz.

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Of all the people who identified themselves as indigenous, 49.50% identify themselves as Quechua, 40.66% as Aymara, 2.49% as Guaraní, 3.57% as Chiquitano, 1.38% as Mojeño, and 2.39% as belonging to their tribes (INE 2003: 68).

Self-identification of belonging to an indigenous people

INDIGENOUS POPULATION %		URBAN %	RURAL %
3,142,637	62,05	55,57	44,43%

The table below shows the population aged 15 and older who reported belonging or not to some indigenous people:

Indigenous population over 15 years of self-declaration area and belonging to an indigenous or native people (in absolute numbers)

Indigenous people	Population (15 years and more)	Urban area	Rural area
TOTAL	5,064,982	3,268,660	1,796,332
Quechua	1,555,641	790,436	765,205
Aymara	1,277,881	761,712	516,169
Guaraní	81,011	45,541	35,470
Chiquitano	112,218	76,808	35,410
Araona	92	21	71
Ayoreo	860	196	664
Baure	496	165	331
Canichana	213	95	118
Cavineño	852	76	776
Cayubaba	328	67	261
Chácobo	255	47	208
Chimán, Tsimane	4,331	923	3,408
Esse ejja, Chama	409	119	290
Guarasugwe	9	--	9
Guarayo	6,010	3,923	2,087
Itonama	1,492	649	843
Joaquiniano	169	81	88
Leco	2,443	698	1,745
Machineri	15	2	13
Mosetén	813	89	724
Movima	6,183	3,265	2,918
Moxeño	46,336	34,028	12,308
Pacahuara	32	26	6
Reyesano, Maropa	2,741	1,705	1,036
Sirionó	134	20	114
Tacana	3,580	1,020	2,560
Tapiete	19	1	18
Urus	1,210	197	1,013
Weenhayek (Mataco)	1,022	382	640
Yaminawa	45	19	26
Yuqui	112	19	93
Yurakare	1,399	55	1,344
Not specify indigenous people	34,242	24,036	10,206

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belonging			
They do not belong to any Indigenous group	1,922,355	1,522,231	400,124

(Source: INE, Census 2001).

These data show three important elements to consider:

- The indigenous population constitutes the majority of the population(62.05%);
- Most of the indigenous population lives in urban areas(55.57%);
- The ethnic and cultural diversity, the number of people by people, their historical experiences of organization, forms of production and lifestyle, among others, are so different that they cannot be ‘standardized’ under the concept of peasant indigenous peoples. This concept unifies rights, not culture.

2 - Indigenous people

The establishment of the Confederation of Indigenous Peoples of Bolivia – CIDOB –in 1982 generated an interesting debate on the concept of ‘indigenous people’, which became then relevant to national policy and advocacy since 1990, in the context of the 500 years of the colonization of America and the indigenous march for the ‘Territory and Dignity’ carried out by the indigenous peoples of Beni.

The indigenous and peasant organizations were central actors in the debate on the concept of indigenous and original peoples, but it also involved the political and academic world. The ILO Convention 169, ratified by Bolivia²⁵, played an important role in orienting the debate and subsequent legal development.

The new State Constitution defines in its Article 30 nationwide Peasant and Indigenous Peoples: “*Nation's peasant indigenous people through out the human community that shares cultural identity, language, historical tradition, institutions, territory and world view, whose existence predates the Spanish colonial invasion.*”

From this definition we can identify three constitutional elements that are essential requirements for a community to be considered a ‘peasant indigenous people’: (i) cultural identity, language, tradition, worldview, etc.; (ii) territorial, historical relationship with the land ownership; and (iii) the temporary nature of their existence that is prior to the Spanish colonial invasion.

Article 5 of the Political Constitution of Bolivia establishes the official languages and the 36 nations and peasant indigenous peoples constitutionally recognized, thereby closing the debate about who are indigenous peoples in Bolivia: “*The official languages of the Castilian state and all the languages of nations and peasant indigenous peoples, who are aymara, araona, baure, bésiro, canichana, cavineño, cayubaba, chácobo, chimán, ese ejja, guaraní, guarasu'we, guarayu, itonama, leco, machajuyai-kallawaya, machineri, maropa, mojeño-trinitario, mojeño-ignaciano, moré, mosetén, movima, pacawara, puquina, quechua, sirionó, tacana, tapiete, toromona, uru-chipaya, weenhayek, yaminawa, yuki, yuracaré and zamuco.*”

²⁵ Law 1257, June 11, 1991.

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Another important element is that – along with the concept of indigenous peoples – the Constitution introduced the term ‘original indigenous peasant nation’, without differentiation, without dots (.) or comma (,), so that the subject legally and politically recognized is the ‘nation peasant and Indigenous Peoples’, thus linking different categories and concepts into one, with the danger of an homogenizing concept.