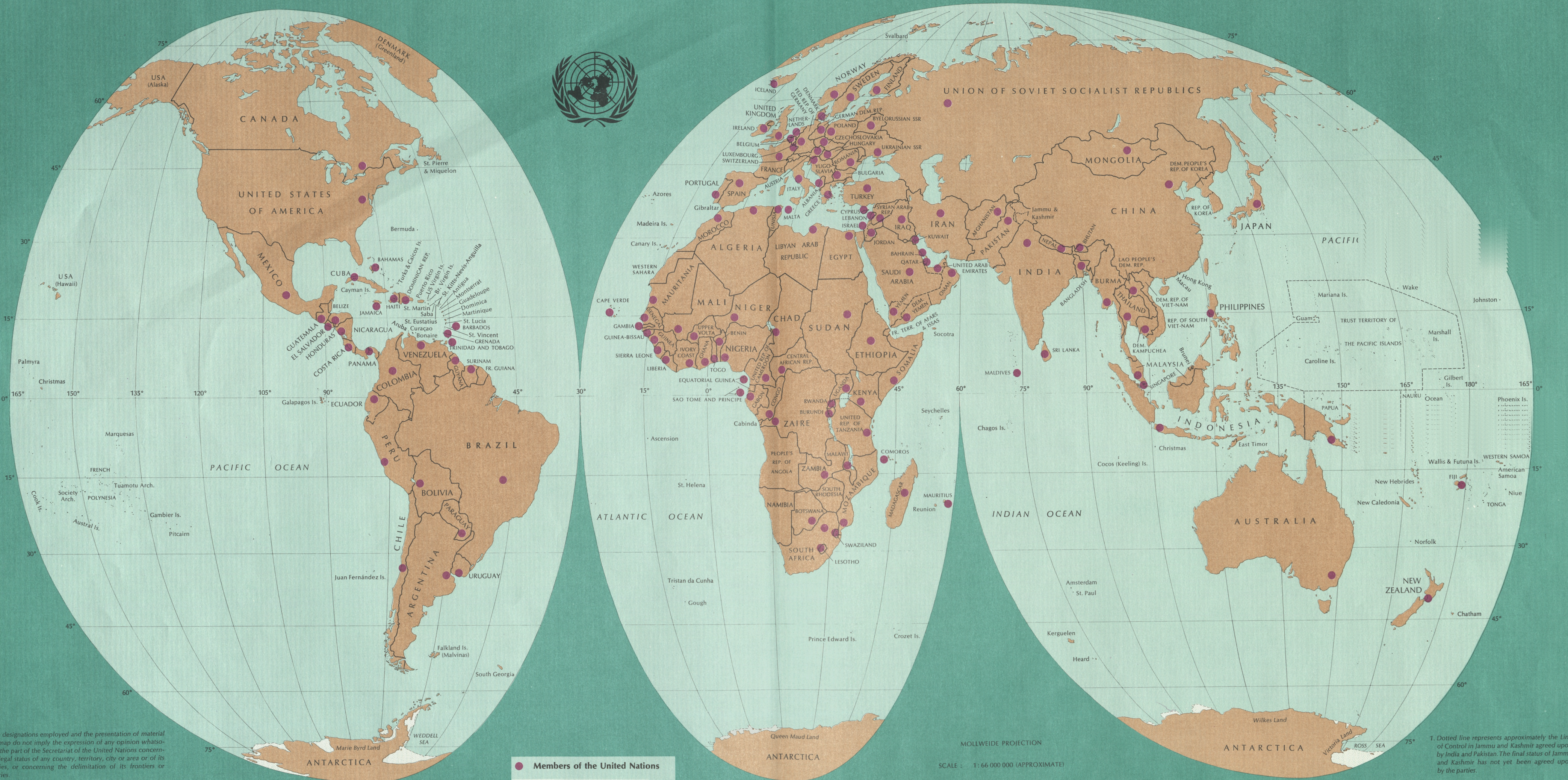


A STUDENT MAP OF THE UNITED NATIONS



The designations employed and the presentation of material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

1. Dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties.

MAP NO. 2753 REV. 2 UNITED NATIONS MAY 1976

MEMBERS OF THE UNITED NATIONS — DATE OF MEMBERSHIP, AREA AND POPULATION

Name of country	Date of UN Membership	Total area (square kilometres)	Estimated population (midyear 1975)	Name of country	Date of UN Membership	Total area (square kilometres)	Estimated population (midyear 1975)	Name of country	Date of UN Membership	Total area (square kilometres)	Estimated population (midyear 1975)	Name of country	Date of UN Membership	Total area (square kilometres)	Estimated population (midyear 1975)
Afghanistan	19 Nov. 1946	647 497	19 280 000 ^a	China	24 Oct. 1945	9 596 961	838 803 000 ^a	Greece	25 Oct. 1945	131 944	8 962 023 ^b	Lebanon	24 Oct. 1945	10 400	2 869 000 ^a
Albania	14 Dec. 1955	28 748	2 482 000 ^a	Colombia	5 Nov. 1945	1 138 914	24 717 300	Grenada	17 Sep. 1974	344	96 000 ^a	Lesotho	17 Oct. 1966	30 355	1 038 500 ^a
Algeria	8 Oct. 1962	2 381 741	16 776 300	Comoros	12 Nov. 1975	2 171	306 000 ^a	Guatemala	21 Nov. 1945	108 889	6 129 000 ^a	Liberia	2 Nov. 1945	111 369	1 708 000 ^a
Argentina	24 Oct. 1945	2 766 889	25 384 000 ^a	Congo	20 Sep. 1960	342 000	1 345 000 ^a	Guinea	12 Dec. 1958	245 957	4 416 000 ^a	Libyan Arab Republic	14 Dec. 1955	1 759 540	2 444 000
Australia	1 Nov. 1945	7 686 848	13 506 800	Costa Rica	2 Nov. 1945	50 700	1 968 438	Guinea-Bissau	17 Sep. 1974	36 125	525 000 ^a	Luxembourg	24 Oct. 1945	2 586	357 000
Austria	14 Dec. 1955	83 849	7 522 800	Cuba	24 Oct. 1945	114 524	9 089 888 ^b	Guyana	20 Sep. 1966	214 969	791 000 ^a	Madagascar	24 Oct. 1945	587 041	8 020 000 ^a
Bahamas	18 Sep. 1973	13 935	203 946	Cyprus	20 Sep. 1960	9 251	639 000	Haiti	24 Oct. 1945	27 750	4 583 800	Malawi	1 Dec. 1964	118 484	5 044 000
Bahrain	21 Sep. 1971	622	255 881	Czechoslovakia	24 Oct. 1945	127 869	14 802 000	Honduras	17 Dec. 1945	112 088	3 037 000 ^a	Malaysia	17 Dec. 1957	329 749	11 900 000
Bangladesh	17 Sep. 1974	143 998	76 815 091	Democratic Kampuchea	14 Dec. 1955	181 035	8 110 000 ^a	Hungary	14 Dec. 1955	93 030	10 539 000	Maldives	21 Sep. 1965	298	119 000 ^a
Barbados	9 Dec. 1966	431	245 000 ^a	Democratic Yemen	14 Dec. 1967	332 968	1 656 728	Iceland	19 Nov. 1946	103 000	216 000 ^a	Mali	14 Dec. 1955	1 240 000	5 697 000 ^a
Belgium	27 Dec. 1945	30 513	9 796 124	Denmark	24 Oct. 1945	43 069	5 045 297 ^b	India	30 Oct. 1945	3 129 316 ^c	598 097 000 ^c	Malta	1 Dec. 1964	316	327 704
Benin	20 Sep. 1960	112 622	3 112 000	Dominican Republic	24 Oct. 1945	48 734	4 696 793	Indonesia	28 Sep. 1950	1 491 564	130 597 000	Mauritania	27 Oct. 1961	1 030 700	1 318 000 ^a
Bhutan	21 Sep. 1971	47 000	1 173 000 ^a	Ecuador	21 Dec. 1945	283 561	6 732 900	Iran	24 Oct. 1945	1 648 000	33 005 953	Mauritius	24 Apr. 1968	2 045	899 000 ^a
Bolivia	14 Nov. 1945	1 098 581	5 633 800	Egypt	24 Oct. 1945	1 001 449	37 233 000	Iraq	21 Dec. 1945	434 924	11 124 253	Mexico	7 Nov. 1945	1 972 546	60 145 258
Botswana	17 Oct. 1966	600 372	677 000	El Salvador	24 Oct. 1945	21 393	4 006 794	Ireland	24 Dec. 1955	70 283	3 127 000	Mongolia	27 Oct. 1961	1 565 000	1 446 000 ^a
Brazil	24 Oct. 1945	8 511 965	107 145 168	Equatorial Guinea	12 Nov. 1968	28 051	310 000 ^a	Israel	11 May 1949	20 700	3 371 100	Morocco	12 Nov. 1956	446 550	17 504 000 ^a
Bulgaria	14 Dec. 1955	110 912	8 721 900	Ethiopia	13 Nov. 1945	1 221 900	27 946 000	Italy	14 Dec. 1955	301 225	55 810 000	Mozambique	12 Sep. 1975	783 030	9 239 000 ^a
Burma	19 Apr. 1948	676 552	31 240 000 ^a	Fiji	13 Oct. 1970	18 272	577 000 ^a	Ivory Coast	20 Sep. 1960	322 463	4 885 000 ^a	Nepal	14 Dec. 1955	140 797	12 572 000 ^a
Burundi	18 Sep. 1962	27 834	3 765 000 ^a	Finland	14 Dec. 1955	337 009	4 706 900	Jamaica	18 Sep. 1962	10 962	2 029 000 ^a	Netherlands	10 Dec. 1945	40 844	13 653 438
Byelorussian SSR	24 Oct. 1945	207 600	...	France	24 Oct. 1945	547 026	52 913 000 ^a	Japan	18 Dec. 1956	372 313	110 953 412	New Zealand	24 Oct. 1945	268 676	3 086 900
Canada	9 Nov. 1945	9 976 139	22 831 000	Gabon	20 Sep. 1960	267 667	526 000 ^a	Jordan	14 Dec. 1955	97 740	2 688 000 ^a	Nicaragua	24 Oct. 1945	130 000	2 155 000
Cape Verde	19 Sep. 1975	4 033	294 132	Gambia	21 Sep. 1965	11 295	523 716	Kenya	16 Dec. 1963	582 644	13 399 000	Niger	20 Sep. 1960	1 267 000	4 599 785
Central African Republic	20 Sep. 1960	622 984	...	German Democratic Republic	18 Sep. 1973	108 178	16 850 125	Kuwait	14 May 1963	17 818	996 000	Nigeria	7 Oct. 1960	923 768	62 925 000 ^a
Chad	20 Sep. 1960	1 284 000	4 030 000	Germany, Federal Republic of	18 Sep. 1973	248 577	61 832 000	Lao People's Democratic Republic	14 Dec. 1955	236 800	3 303 000 ^a	Norway	27 Nov. 1945	324 219	4 007 000
Chile	24 Oct. 1945	756 945	10 253 014	Ghana	8 Mar. 1957	238 537	9 866 000					Oman	7 Oct. 1971	212 457	766 000 ^a

Thailand	16 Dec. 1946	514 000	41 869 000	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	24 Oct. 1945	22 402 200 ^d	254 300 000 ^d
Togo	20 Sep. 1960	56 000	2 222 000	United Arab Emirates	9 Dec. 1971	83 600	222 000 ^a
Trinidad and Tobago	18 Sep. 1962	5 128	1 065 850	United Kingdom	24 Oct. 1945	244 046	55 962 000
Tunisia	12 Nov. 1956	163 610	5 772 450	United Republic of Cameroon	20 Sep. 1960	475 442	6 398 000 ^a
Turkey	24 Oct. 1945	780 576	39 180 100	United Republic of Tanzania	14 Dec. 1961	945 087	15 155 000
Uganda	25 Oct. 1962	236 036	11 549 368	United States of America	24 Oct. 1945	9 363 123	213 631 000 ^a
Ukrainian SSR	24 Oct. 1945	603 700	...	Upper Volta	20 Sep. 1960	274 200	6 032 000 ^a
				Uruguay	18 Dec. 1945	177 508	3 064 200
				Venezuela	15 Nov. 1945	912 050	11 993 000
				Yemen	30 Sep. 1947	25 471 000	6 668 000 ^a
				Yugoslavia	24 Oct. 1945	255 804	21 325 000
				Zaire	20 Sep. 1960	2 345 409	24 902 472
				Zambia	1 Dec. 1964	752 614	4 896 000

^a				^b				^c				^d			
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A000/10/1976

TO THE TEACHER

Suggestions for Teaching About THE UNITED NATIONS AND THE SEA

This guide suggests a few simple ways in which teaching about the United Nations can be approached through a single topic—the Sea. It describes the appeal of the subject to young people, the major themes and where these fit into the primary and secondary school curriculums, and affective approaches and methods. We hope that these examples will stimulate your own ideas on ways to help your students understand the significance of United Nations work.

WHY “The Sea” Offers an Effective Approach to Teaching about the United Nations

The United Nations might appear complicated, static and remote to students when they study only its organizational structure. If, however, they explore United Nations work in an area of interest to them, like the sea and its use, they can appreciate the Organization's central role in the major issues concerning the subject, and its relevance to themselves and to all mankind, now and in the future.

WHAT are the Basic Themes

In teaching about any aspect of United Nations work, it is helpful to concentrate on three themes:

- the ideal:** the equal right of each person to a full life
- the reality:** inequities due to individual drives for power and economic gain
- action for change:** the ways individuals and nations can work together to better the lives of all people

In the case of the Sea, Students can perceive that:

- the Sea relates to everyone's basic needs and consequently is the concern of all people
- a few countries have dominated the Sea
- through the United Nations, ways are being sought to conserve, develop, and share the Sea's resources

WHEN to Teach About the United Nations and the Sea

The United Nations and the Sea can be introduced at various levels in many subject areas.

The Arts (literature, fine arts, music): what does the Sea mean to artists in different cultures, and to the students themselves.

Geography: how does the Sea affect the lives of people in different areas? *How livelihoods are interconnected by the Sea (fishing, sailing, ship building, tourism etc.).* How does the geographical position of different countries (land-locked islands, archipelagos, affect their approaches to United Nations debates?

History or Social Studies: how has the Sea contributed to the development of a world community? *Using the basic themes described above, students could examine the factors which have led to the proposed international régime for the deep-sea-bed and the United Nations possible roles in the future.*

Science: how can science and technology help conserve and develop resources of the Sea? *Students can find out what the United Nations has done to increase the amount of food harvested from the Sea and to control pollution and over-fishing. They can research recent discoveries which show possible new ways in which the Sea might be used.*

Mathematics: how can statistics help people to deal with global needs? *Interesting mathematical problems can be constructed from totals of world food catches and marine transport, navigation and mineral resources. Students can assess the*

importance of United Nations Sea-related statistics in understanding the current world situation and in planning for future needs.

Civics: how can people work together to develop world resources? *Students may examine systems of social organization when communities must share and develop basic resources. Which is given greater importance in United Nations agreements and programmes relating to the Sea: the desire of individuals to take what each can get or the needs of the world community as a whole to preserve resources and use them rationally?*

Resources. This leaflet lists some recent work of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies engaged in maritime programmes. Other up-to-date examples, useful in the classroom, may be found in free or inexpensive publications available from the Office of Public Information, UNITED NATIONS, N.Y. or the nearest United Nations Information Centre.

HOW to Relate the United Nations and the Sea to Students' Lives

The Problem Approach. In simple ways appropriate to their age levels, students could research their own and other countries' relation to the Sea and then identify concerns common to people in different parts of the world. They could explore inter-connexions between freedom of the sea, defence, trade, oil exploitation and pollution and then note how these also touch upon the needs of rising populations, the consumption of resources by industrialized economies and other areas of United Nations work.

Active Methods. Affective learning situations can spring spontaneously from happenings in the lives of students. Also activities such as the following can be planned:

Economic interrelationships: an inquiry in the local area. What food and other products in daily use come out of the Sea? are brought via the Sea? by whom? What would life be like without them? What can be done internationally to insure that all people benefit from the Sea?

Environmental responsibilities: monitoring local pollution. Research signs of increasing water pollution in your community. What can be done locally to prevent this? Are others outside the community responsible? Which international agreements and programmes deal with this? How do these relate to the problem of pollution of the Sea?

Social relationships: using the classroom as a microcosm of the world community. The classroom can be used to show how the behaviour of individuals must be modified when all share a single living space, and that harmony must be sought through discussion and joint action. The class might then consider a Sea-related question, such as “how far out in the Sea can a State claim exclusive fishing rights?”

Through this exercise, students should discover that:

- different people in different situations have different approaches to problems
- agreements require time, skill, flexibility and willingness to put the needs of the community ahead of self-interest.



1976 - The Law of the Sea



Dear Student,

Never before in the long story of man's association with the sea has he had greater reason to consider it with so much anxiety and so much hope.

Half the world's people now live within 200 miles of the seacoast, with that proportion constantly growing. Twenty-five years from now our numbers will have grown so vastly that we must look to the sea more and more for food, and we should therefore protect its living resources and use them wisely. We must manage, with justice to all, the great mineral wealth which modern technology can now wrest from the ocean floor and from deep beneath its bed. With the same regard for justice, we must concern ourselves with rules to govern navigation of the seas, the air traffic above them and the conduct of scientific investigation in and around them.

In this leaflet you will read about these issues, and about others related to them, with which the United Nations has

been concerned for several years; for among the many tasks of the United Nations to ensure world peace for future generations is the establishment of a law governing the use of the sea in all its aspects, a law which all the nations of the world would respect. The great fundamental principle is that the sea which surrounds us all must be used for the benefit of all.

I hope this leaflet will help you appreciate both the nature of the challenge and its immense importance to you.

Kurt WALDHEIM
Secretary-General of the United Nations

UNITED NATIONS DAY

24 OCTOBER

The United Nations and the Law of the Sea

WHY a law of the sea?

Because no borders mark the sea, it is necessary to frame a law that would ensure that the sea and its vast resources are used and developed fairly, rationally and peacefully for the benefit of all mankind. Such a convention must reconcile many conflicting interests. Here are some of the main issues.

How far can a country's sovereignty extend over an expanse of sea?

How far out may a State proclaim exclusive rights over resources, including fishing?

The area beyond national jurisdiction has been designated the common heritage of mankind. How should this area be exploited?

How can developing countries benefit from deep-sea exploration if developed countries control the necessary technology and capital?

How can marine pollution be prevented?

How can marine life be protected against extinction?

How should disputes arising from use of the sea be settled?

HOW has the United Nations helped to develop a law of the sea?

Framing a law governing all aspects of the use of the sea is bound to be a long and difficult undertaking. Consequently, delegates to recent United Nations discussions of the subject have agreed not to vote on each issue that arose but to work on the basis of a general agreement before a vote can even be considered.

So far the United Nations has organized three Conferences on the Law of the Sea which have dealt progressively with the different questions.

The First Conference, 1958, adopted **four conventions**. Briefly, they dealt with the territorial sea and the contiguous zone, the high seas, fishing and the conservation of the living resources of the high seas, and the continental shelf. This Conference, as well as **The Second Conference, 1960**, failed to define the limits of the territorial sea and fishing zone.

Between the Second Conference and the Third Conference (1974), there were important developments:

—In 1967 the General Assembly established an *Ad Hoc* Committee. Its sessions saw wide recognition of the sea-bed and ocean floor beyond the boundaries of national jurisdiction as an area to be used exclusively for peaceful purposes. Also several delegations felt that a new set of rules defining the limits of national jurisdiction was crucial to the whole situation.

—In 1968 the General Assembly established the **Committee on the Peaceful Uses of the Sea-bed and the Ocean Floor beyond the Limits of National Jurisdiction**. The work of this Committee resulted

—in 1970 in the adoption by the General Assembly of the **Declaration of Principles Governing the Sea-bed and the Ocean Floor**.

The Third Conference held sessions in New York and Caracas (1974), Geneva (1975) and New York (1976). It set

up three main committees to deal respectively with the international régime; the territorial sea, the economic zone, islands, archipelagos, geographically disadvantaged countries and the continental shelf; and marine pollution and the transfer of technology.

WHAT provisions might a law of the sea include?

The Single Revised Negotiating Text. *At the end of the Session, held in New York from 15 March to 7 May 1976, the Third Conference received a Revised Single Negotiating Text to be used as the basis for further negotiations on the final convention. This text is in four parts:*

Part I sets out general principles to implement the basic concept that the **resources of the international sea-bed area** beyond the limits of national jurisdiction are a "common heritage of mankind". The text would establish an **International Sea-bed Authority** empowered to exploit the ocean bottom for its mineral wealth and to contract with outside utilities, including States and corporations, to permit them to engage in mining under the authority's control.

Part II contains provisions on **States' rights and duties** in a 12-mile territorial sea, a contiguous zone extending up to 24 miles from shore, a 200-mile exclusive economic zone, the continental shelf underlying these areas, archipelagic waters (within States which consist of archipelagos), and the high seas.

The provisions on the economic zone represent a new concept in international law. They would give coastal States sovereign rights over the fish and other living and non-living resources of that zone while reserving freedom of navigation and certain other freedoms to all States.

There are also provisions for a revenue-sharing system, and the granting of rights, subject to bilateral and regional agreements, to land-locked and geographically disadvantaged States to fish in the economic zone of neighbouring States.

Part III deals with **marine environment and scientific research**. Subject to certain safeguards relative to the consent of a coastal State or States, the text calls for provision of foreign States to conduct research in the economic zones of other States, as well as on the high seas.

On the marine environment, States would have different powers to enforce anti-pollution regulations, depending upon a number of relevant factors. Other provisions call for action to promote the development and transfer of marine technology.

Part IV, prepared by the President of the Conference, Ambassador H. S. Amerasinghe of Sri Lanka, proposes a system for the compulsory **settlement of disputes**, by means freely chosen by the parties. The choices include reference to a proposed Law of the Sea Tribunal, resort to the International Court of Justice, arbitral tribunals, conciliation commissions and a new type of committee for handling technical disputes over fisheries, pollution, scientific research and navigation.

Another session of the Third Conference was scheduled for 2 August to 17 September 1976.

The United Nations Specialized Agencies and the Sea

While the United Nations is pursuing the all-important business of drawing up an acceptable international legal instrument governing the use of the sea, scores of sea-related programmes and activities are being carried out or being planned by other parts of the United Nations system, for example, the Specialized Agencies which operate independently or in co-operation with other Specialized Agencies, other United Nations bodies and non-United Nations international organizations. The following partial list will indicate the range and importance of these activities.



Rational Use and Conservation of Living Resources

FAO — Food and Agriculture Organization

First phase of International Indian Ocean Fishery Survey and Development Programme completed. The programme concentrates on state of certain stocks like tuna and demersal (bottom-dwelling) fish.

First phases of similar projects being developed for Eastern Central Atlantic and South China Sea.

Executes more than 90 UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) projects.

Navigation and Overflight

IMCO — Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization

Developed more than 70 traffic separation schemes for congested shipping areas throughout the world. These include, for example, a code for construction and equipment of ships carrying dangerous chemicals in bulk.

ICAO — International Civil Aviation Organization

Contributing to development of regulations pertaining to seaplanes for IMCO Conference on Revision of International Regulations for Preventing Collisions at Sea (1972).

ILO — International Labour Organisation

Protection of seafarers, fishermen and dock-workers: establishment and updating of international minimum standards concerning various maritime labour questions such as recruitment (including minimum age, medical exams and articles of agreement), repatriation, decasualization of employment, vocational training, certificates of competency, occupational safety and health, crew accommodation, labour problems owing to technological change, wages, hours of work and manning, holidays with pay, social security, health and welfare facilities, maritime industrial relations.

Research into collection, analyses and publication of information on economic, technical, labour and social developments in maritime industry both ashore and afloat.

IAEA — International Atomic Energy Agency

Recommendations on safe transport of radio-active materials. Safety evaluation of design, construction, operation and inspection of nuclear merchant ships.

ITU — International Telecommunications Union

Management of frequency spectrum including bands allocated to radio-communications from Mobile Maritime Service (including communications via satellite) and to maritime radio-navigation (including radio-navigation via satellite).

Updating radio regulations in maritime radio-communications; improvements in performance of radio-telephone circuits in maritime bands.

Oceanography—Meteorology

WMO — World Meteorological Organization

Developed and is now co-ordinating World Weather Watch (WWW), which consists of:

(1) global observing system utilizing ships, fixed or mobile ocean stations, automatic weather stations, meteorological satellites.

(2) global telecommunication system for transmittal of data through world, regional and national meteorological centres.

(3) global data processing system for deriving operational information (such as forecasts).

Marine Pollution

WHO — World Health Organization

Studies polluting effects of domestic sewage in coastal waters (viruses, bacteria, parasites).

Review of sewage and industrial waste management.

IMCO — Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization

Developed and adopted international instruments for prevention of pollution dealing with:

- (a) deliberate or operational discharge of oil from ships
- (b) intentional pollution by oil, noxious substances other than oil carried in bulk and packaged form, sewage and garbage
- (c) civil liability for oil pollution damage
- (d) establishment of International Compensation Fund
- (e) civil liability in the field of maritime carriage of nuclear material.

Training and Technical Assistance

UNESCO — United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Professional training courses for students from developing countries by experts or visiting professors on: marine biology, in Denmark; marine chemistry, in Spain; oceanography for participants from Latin America; acquisition and utilization of ocean data, in USA, to assist developing countries in strengthening their data management capabilities and make better use of other capabilities.

Provision of fellowships in oceanographic institutes of advanced countries and shipboard fellowships allowing participation in expeditions.

Establishment of marine biological centres in Singapore, Mexico and Indian Ocean region.