Chapter II

Genesis of UNEP
A Brief History of Global Environmental Co-operation

It is very important to remember that when the possibilities for life are over, the possibilities for survival start.¹

The concern for the survival of mankind has initiated intergovernmental co-operation in the field of environment. This chapter briefly discusses the main currents in the evolution of the global concern for environment. The purpose of this discussion is to seek out the broad patterns of intergovernmental co-operation in order to understand its impact on the creation of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and also on the evolving discourse on the protection of environment. The discussion also highlights the fact that almost all intergovernmental arrangements before the decade of fifties were essentially in or between developed countries. This is not surprising owing to the colonial domination of developing countries by developed countries.

The study deals with the environmental politics within UNEP- a body of the United Nation (UN) composed of sovereign nation state. Therefore, this chapter confines itself to the history of inter-state co-operation. The emphasis on the states’ co-operation is due to the fact that sovereign nation states are the basic and most important pillars of contemporary international system and hence, their role and position are of chief importance in the issues related to environment. States through their membership of international organisations (with inputs provided from the individuals and groups), to a large extent decide which issues are considered by the

global community. They also enter into bargaining on the international legal instruments creating global environmental regimes. Besides in a complex web of environmental protection, only the states have the power to implement the rules and treaties on environment.

For analytical purposes, the history of intergovernmental initiatives in the field of environment has been classified in three major phases\(^2\) (see Table II (b) at the end of this chapter for phase-wise classification of major environmental treaties and conventions on environment).

I

The Beginning

The concern for the protection of environment did not evolve overnight. Its roots although not in the modern sense, lie as far back as the beginning of human civilisation when man lived in harmony with nature and feared the nature. This is symbolised in nature worship, protection of certain birds and animals such as cows in India and Falcons in Egypt, which though religious in intentions, can also be viewed as man’s attempt to conserve nature. The interaction between man and nature over the years has reinforced the point that human actions could harm their natural habitat to their detriment. For example, civilisations in the Mediterranean area from Syria to Spain, in southern and central China, India and Central America perished due to excessive tree cutting, overgrazing and consequent soil erosion. The traditional wisdom made man develop certain practices to halt or prevent erosion of soil, maintain fertility of the soil through shifting cultivation and creation of forest reserves. In the ancient Roman and Greek writings, one finds methods of soil husbandry and land management. Writing in *Critias*, Plato termed soil erosion and

\(^2\) International environmental co-operation is a continuous process where many initiatives begun in the early phase continued in the next phase. The phases discussed here are thus in no way watertight. The purpose of this division is purely analytical.
deforestation as the negative sides of power. This was the beginning when mankind feared nature and worshipped its various forms or manifestations (such as trees, certain animals etc.) to escape its wrath.

The conservation of certain wildlife and plants constitute the earliest initiatives in the field of environmental protection. The beginning was probably made by man's natural instinct to preserve certain fascinating plants and animals. Some of the early examples of natural reserves for the protection of wildlife dates back to the 16th century. These included establishment of a reserve forest in Lithuania for the protection of European bison in 1541 and a Swiss Canton's initiative to protect the threatened chamois of the Karpfstock in 1569. One of the earliest known examples of government initiative in the bird protection was the decree issued by the states of Lippe-Detmold in the year 1777 and Saxe-Colburg in 1809 in Germany.

Some committed individuals championed the cause of nature in this phase. The idea of national parks is attributed to George Catlin in the early 1830s. William Bartram, John James Audubon, Chief Seattle and Theodore Roosevelt were some of the earliest exponents of the conservationist movement. These pioneering individuals were largely ornithologists, naturalists, scientists and geologists whose

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4 Creating protected areas and protection of wildlife has a long history in both European and Oriental civilisations. These incidences were sporadic and were largely dependent on the will of the ruling monarch. For example, Indian and Chinese kings were known to give protection to certain wild animals. Under the Han dynasty, the officers in charge of the preservation of wildlife were given higher salaries. Similarly, an emperor in Northern Wei asked the tributary states to stop the practice of birds and animals offerings due to which their number had depleted. Some of these earlier actions were taken for purely economic reasons. In the eleventh century Poland, King Boleslas prohibited hunting of beavers in order to maintain his monopoly over the species. Other aspects of environment also found occasional attention of the state. e.g. The first smoke abatement law was passed in Britain in 1273. There are also examples of various UK cities issuing ordinances against refuse dumping in streets and canals. It was in the sixteenth century though the governments took cognisance of the issue in a significant way.


studies initiated the debate on environment. For example Gilbert White in his study of the Selborne village in 1780 talked about the extinction and dwindling of certain species such as wood pigeon since 1740. Alexander von Humboldt in a study in 1800 linked decrease in the water level of Lake Valencia in Venezuela to the clearing of forests on the plains for indigo plantations. George Perkins Marsh's book entitled *Man and Nature* in 1864 was an important breakthrough in studying the role of human activities in altering the earth and its resources. During 1876-1894, E. Reclus in thirteen volumes of *Nouvelle Geographic Universelle* enumerated the existing information about the planet's surface. Charles Darwin's research on Beagle during 1831-35 and his book *The Evolution of Species* undertook systematic analysis of nature. It demonstrated the intertwining of plant and animal species in a complex web of relationship. The study of these complex webs came to be known as ecology, a term coined by German biologist Ernst Haeckel in 1866. This was the beginning of the concept of unity of biosphere and mutual interdependence of various elements although it took almost another century for it to become an accepted norm. Such scientific studies and observations paved the way for public awareness campaign. Thus, while growth in science and technology heralded the industrial revolution responsible for the unlimited plunder of natural resources (see chapter I), the scientific studies also reinforced the trend towards the protection of nature.

Action on environment during this phase was primarily an upper middle-class, elitist and colonial phenomenon. The pioneers were certain individuals who because of their love for nature and wildlife took certain initiatives to attract attention of their respective government. These individuals gradually formed groups to pursue their points of view. Individual actions of the early period were followed by formation of private organisations which on a number of occasions acted as pressure groups and initiated governmental action first unilateral, then bilateral and finally global. A number of Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) active in this field since the beginning of environmental protection movement constituted a major

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political force, directing and shaping the course of international environmental actions in number of issues such as protection of wildlife, ocean pollution, whaling, etc. (some of the prominent environmental NGOs are National Wildlife Fund, World-wide Fund for Nature/ World Wildlife Fund (WWF), Adubun Society, Sierra Club, World Resource Institute, International Institute for Environment and Development and Friends of Earth). These organisations "have served a critical function in identifying dangers and problems and in importuning governments and international agencies to action." Their role in creating public awareness through propaganda, campaign, sit-ins and demonstrations has catalysed the intergovernmental actions on various aspects of the protection of environment.

This phase thus, also marked the beginning of organisations devoted to nature's protection. The scope of these organisations was limited, often confining itself to a select field or species. This was also the age of empire and thus, most of these associations emerged in the colonial states (or through their initiatives in certain colonies). Some of these organisations survived the test of time, others disappeared and few others paved the way for modern day NGOs. Some of them due to their proximity to the centres of power and through their campaign were able to pursue their governments' entry into bilateral or multilateral agreements.

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9 Some of the early important private organisations on environment were: Commons, Open Spaces and Footpath Preservation Society (UK 1865); East Riding Association for the Protection of Sea Birds (UK 1867); Association for the Protection of British Birds (UK 1870); Fog and Smoke Committee (subsequently renamed National Smoke Abatement Institution in 1882) (UK, 1880); American Ornithologists Union (USA, 1883); Natal Game Protection Association (South Africa, 1883); Selborn Society (UK, 1885); Audubon Society (USA, 1886-89, revived in 1905); Royal Society for the Protection of Birds (UK, 1889), Society for the Protection of Birds (UK, 1891); Sierra Club (USA, 1892); National Trust (UK,1895); Massachusetts Audubon Society (USA,1896); Coal Smoke Abatement Society (UK, 1898, later renamed National Society for Clean Air); Society for the Preservation of Wildlife Fauna of the Empire (UK, 1903); National Association of Audubon Society (USA, 1905); Swiss League for the Protection of Nature (Switzerland, 1909); Swedish Society for the Protection of Nature (Sweden, 1909); Wildlife Preservation Society (Australia, 1909); Society for the Promotion of Nature reserves (UK, 1912); British Ecological Society (UK, 1913), John McCormick, Reclaiming Paradise: The Global Environmental Movement, Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1991, p.15.
Most of these early attempts at intergovernmental co-operation on the environmental issues were governed by national, economic and legal considerations rather than by ecological reasons. These initiatives sought to demarcate jurisdiction and administer uses of international waters particularly of boundary lakes and rivers among nations through forging environmental treaties and conventions. Besides instead of dealing with defence of environment as a whole these efforts concerned themselves with some aspect of this problem, for instance protection of wildlife, migratory birds, animals, forests, living resources in the seas, inland waters and mineral deposits. Nevertheless, they form an important backdrop to the present day environmental movement. These agreements and steps carried the germ of an idea that blossomed into the present day global environment consciousness and the resultant international environmental co-operation.

The earliest treaties in this field as noted earlier, were confined to the protection of migratory birds whose cross border movements required concerted intergovernmental actions. In 1872, Switzerland took the lead and proposed the creation of an international regulatory commission for the protection of migratory birds in Europe. This scheme of having an institutional arrangement failed to generate any positive response from other European states. Nevertheless, the matter was discussed at the International Ornithological Congress of 1873, 1891 and 1900. An International Ornithological Committee was established in Vienna in the year 1884. In 1887, the Italian and Austrian governments in a joint statement pledged a strict and comprehensive legislation for the protection of birds. This proposal however, never became operational. The issue of bird protection was also discussed at the two International Conferences held in Paris in the year 1895 and 1902 and culminated into the 1902 European Convention Concerning the Conservation of Birds Useful to Agriculture. It was signed by eleven nations (Britain was not a signatory) on 10 March 1902 at Paris. This treaty originated in the thirty-five years


11 Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, pp. 30-1.
old demand for international protection of birds and animals useful to agriculture by the Assembly of German Farmers and Foresters in 1868 to the Foreign Office of Austria-Hungary.  

In the North American continent, the 1916 Treaty for the Protection of Migratory Birds between Canada and the USA (known as Anglo-American Treaty because Britain represented Canada) is the earliest example of intergovernmental co-operation. However, the real motive of this treaty was to establish the authority of the federal government of the US in the field of environmental protection. In 1936 Mexico and USA signed the Treaty for the Protection of Migratory Birds and Game Mammals. It was followed by the 1937 Migratory Birds Treaty between Mexico and Canada. Subsequently in 1940, sponsored by Pan-American Union, Convention of Nature Protection and Wildlife Preservation in the Western Hemisphere was opened for signature and ratification by all the American nations. The convention "committed the signatories to establish parks, reserves, nature monuments, and wilderness areas; to safeguard wildlife habitats; and to 'adopt appropriate measures for the protection of migratory birds of economic and aesthetic value or to prevent the threatened extinction of any given species.'" Subsequent to the ratification by five of the twenty-one signatories, it came into force in May 1942. However, the convention fulfilled very little purpose because by the end of World War II, only 8 states had ratified it. Further on an Inter-American Conference on the Conservation of Renewable Resources was held in Denver, Colorado from 7-10 September 1948 which discussed the means to facilitate the implementation of this convention.

12 ibid., p. 32.
13 "A practical reason for the negotiation of this treaty ... was the apparent constitutional inability of the federal government of the United States to protect wildlife through statutory legislation. An international treaty carrying the full force of statutory law enabled the United States to enact implementing legislation that established a Migratory Bird Commission and began a system of permanent wildlife refuges ... ", Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, pp. 32-3.
14 Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, pp. 33.
16 Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, p. 33.
Although this convention was an important landmark in environment related cooperation, in the absence of any legal binding obligation\textsuperscript{18} and adequate administration it remained a rhetorical dictum with little practical value.\textsuperscript{19}

In the erstwhile Soviet Union\textsuperscript{20}, the concern for environment was given important consideration in the Marxian literature. Marx and Engels attributed environmental destruction to capitalism. According to Engels, “Man should not rejoice in his victories over nature. For each of his victories, nature takes his revenge. In addition to the foreseen consequences each victory brings with it other consequences which are entirely unforeseen.”\textsuperscript{21} Similarly, Marx declared that “if civilisation develops spontaneously and is not consciously directed, it will leave nothing but wilderness behind.”\textsuperscript{22} Lenin underlined the need for rational and scientific use of natural resources. Accordingly, certain laws and ordinances for safeguarding of the forests, parks, significant natural sites and wildlife followed the Revolution of 1917.\textsuperscript{23}

In India, the enactment of forest laws of 1878 and 1927 sparked off the Chipko movement\textsuperscript{24} in the Himalayan forests in Uttar Pradesh. More recent examples include opposition to the Tehri Dam and \textit{Narmada Bacho Andolan} (Save Narmada Movement). Most of the initial movements were people’s movements,
which unlike in the West were grassroots movements born out of the effects of environmental degradation on the day-to-day lives of the masses.

In the African continent, early steps towards protection of environment emanated out of Western naturalists’ concern about the excessive hunting and the resultant steep decline in the number of game animals. Responding to such concerns the British Prime Minister Lord Salisbury in a note to the German government emphasised the need to curb ivory exports from East Africa. Subsequently, at the initiative of Britain a conference was convened in 1900 which resulted in the Convention for Preservation of Animals, Birds and Fish in Africa. Signed by Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal and the Belgian Congo at London, this convention is referred to as the world’s first international environment agreement. The convention aimed at curbing trade in ivory, fish, animal skins and trophies and regulating hunting by suggesting closed seasons. Even though the convention was never implemented, it did serve as a guiding precedent for the subsequent international action in this field. 25

In 1903, Society for the Preservation of Wild Fauna of the Empire (SPWFE) was established to protect fauna i.e. birds and large mammals in the British colonies. Later after the First World War, concern about the impact of anti-tsetse operation in Africa (in which thousands of wild animals regarded as agricultural pests or carriers of the disease were killed between 1924-45 in Southern Rhodesia alone) resulted in the 1933 International Conference for the Protection of Fauna and Flora in London at the behest of the British Government. Subsequently, in 1933 Convention on the Preservation of Fauna and Flora in their Natural State was signed and ratified by almost all the colonial powers (this annulled the already defunct 1900 convention). This convention envisaged the protection of African Wildlife by creation of national parks and reserves 26 and represented an important leap forward in the international efforts at wildlife protection by promulgating more specific

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26 ibid., p. 18.
regulations on hunting and harassment of wildlife, protection of their habitat and endangered and rare species. Nevertheless, it remained quite ineffective since the states were not under any binding obligations to adhere to its provisions as well as because of the absence of follow up meetings and a monitoring mechanism.

The concern for wildlife was later extended to the conservation of marine environment in the intergovernmental co-operation. Unlike the efforts of the nation states in the field of wildlife protection, in the conservation of marine environment resources, a more serious effort was made to devise international institutional mechanism to sort out common environmental problems. The earliest initiative on the protection and management of marine fishes was the International Council for the Exploration of Sea (ICES). It was established in 1902 at Copenhagen subsequent to the organisational meetings at Stockholm in 1899 and at Christina (Oslo) in 1901. Its members were primarily Northwestern European states and were later joined by Portugal, Spain and Italy and by the USA, Canada and Japan as co-operative members. The activities of the council included collecting and publishing data on marine fisheries supplied to it by its members and research on different species of fishes and geographical area involved through its committees. This kind of research proved to be successful and it has served as a model for future research in this as well as other fields.

Another development in the inter-state co-operation in this field was the setting up of the International Commission for the Scientific Exploration of the Mediterranean Sea in 1919 supplemented by General Fisheries Council for the

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27 Caldwell, *International Environmental Policy*, No. 8, p. 34.

28 After independence of most of the African countries in the post-Second World War era, thirty-eight members of Organisation of African Unity (OAU) signed the African Convention for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources in the year 1968. The Convention, being broader in scope, represents advancement over the earlier preservationist approach to environmental protection. It nevertheless, failed to prevent the onslaught of predators on wildlife in the guise of poachers and hunters.


30 ibid., p. 38.
Mediterranean (GFCM) in the year 1949 which became operational in 1952 after receiving the required charter ratification by five governments.

The League of Nations for the first time conceived a world fisheries policy thereby representing a further advance in the international co-operative endeavours by proposing an international regime in very initial stage. It requested the ICES to set up a committee of jurists to look into the possibilities of framing international agreements on rules that would regulate the exploitation of the products of the sea.\textsuperscript{31}

The committee deliberated on the issue and submitted a Report on the Exploitation of the Products of the Sea on 10 January 1926. It "proposed international regulation of the Continental Shelf to a depth of 200 meters and provided for a rotation of zones of fishing to avoid over exploitation, for closed seasons for the protection of the young, for standardisation of methods of capture, and for the fullest possible use of animals taken."\textsuperscript{32} The report proved to be ineffective for it was never put to practice. However, under the committees of the League of Nations and ICES, it served as a forerunner to the Whaling Treaty of 1931.\textsuperscript{33} Similar objectives were proclaimed in the Convention on Northwest Fisheries, 1949. It created the North Atlantic Council on Fisheries Investigation. In the same year International Commission for the North West Atlantic was set up followed by the North Pacific Fisheries Commission in 1954.\textsuperscript{34}

The most successful example in this field is the Convention for the Preservation and Protection of Fur Seals. The convention was signed between the US, Canada, Russia and Japan on 7 July 1911. It sought the co-operation of the signatories to curb fur seal hunting and consequent threat of its extinction. Since then the treaty has been revised periodically (1957, 1976) and its objectives have been fulfilled, thereby saving the fur seal from extinction.

\textsuperscript{31} ibid., pp.38-9.
\textsuperscript{32} ibid., pp.39-40.
\textsuperscript{33} ibid.
\textsuperscript{34} Detter de Lupis, ‘The Human Environment and its Follow up’, No. 10, p. 207.
In the case of whales, international co-operation was initiated in 1920 with the establishment of International Bureau for Whaling Statistics at Sandefjord, Norway following their declining number in the North Atlantic. The bureau envisaged only voluntary co-operation from the whaling nations and maintained an up-to-date data on their operations. Therefore, this effort did not bring about any tangible result in the protection of whales. The League of Nations attempted to forge a multi-party agreement on the conservation of whales and in September 1931, the Convention for the Regulation of Whaling was signed at Geneva. By the end of 1935, twenty-four countries had ratified or signed this Convention but since Soviet Union and Japan - major players in whaling operations - were not signatories, the treaty had little practical value, as it could not be comprehensively implemented. Therefore, in 1937 it was supplemented by an agreement signed by nine nations and by an amendment protocol of 1938. 35

After the end of Second World War, at the behest of the US government the International Whaling Conference was held in Washington and an International Whaling Commission (IWC) was set up in 1946. The IWC under its mandate was given the power to administer regulations concerning open and closed whaling periods; methods and intensity of whaling and deciding on the maximum catch in any one season. However, since the IWC had no authority for restricting the number of national or factory ships, whaling stations ashore or allocate specific quotas to nations, it failed in its primary objective to protect whales. Its primary weakness “as a protective agency was that its voting members representing in most instances the industry that it was intended to police. Moreover, it was established to regulate whaling, not to prevent the taking of whales.” 36

The above discussion highlights that in its initial phase, the intergovernmental co-operation for the protection of environment was confined to unilateral, bilateral and limited regional sphere. The initiatives were sporadic, half-

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36 ibid., 36-7.
hearted and ad-hoc. They were primarily governed by short-term economic interests and not by genuine long-term concern about environmental protection. These developments and agreements were narrow in both scope and geographic expanse. The environmental concerns in numerous cases were incidental. 37 Also it must be remembered that in the beginning the movement for protection of environment at the governmental level was confined primarily to the developed nations of Europe and North America. The world then was Euro-centric and the developing nations of today were part of the colonial empire. The emergence of these nations from the colonial domination into the independent sovereign states in the post second world war era brought about new dimensions to the international co-operative efforts on the protection of environment. This has been discussed in the subsequent sections of this chapter.

II

Evolution and Extension

The second phase of intergovernmental environmental co-operation saw the realisation of limits to growth and a crescendo of international concern for environment particularly beginning in the decade of sixties. This was the era when led by the UN and its specialised agencies, truly global efforts were initiated in this field.

(i) UN and Environment

The end of the Second World War saw unprecedented heights in the realm of international co-operation, which became institutionalised in the United Nations. In this phase it was realised that saving “succeeding generations from the scourge of

37 Examples of these are the Rhine Agreement, 1815; the Convention on the Danube, 1878; the Boundary Water Agreement between the USA and Canada, 1909; the Treaty on the Uses of the Waters of the Niagara River, 1950; the Treaty on Co-operative Development of Water Resources of the Columbia River Basin, 1961 and the Treaty between India and Pakistan on the Indus Waters, 1960.
“war” was not a guarantee to ensure stability. Hence, the UN charter further pledged to reaffirm faith in the fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small, and to establish conditions under which justice and respect for obligations arising from treaties and other sources of international law can be maintained, and to promote social progress and better standards of life and larger freedom.38

This broadened definition of international security and stability brought economic development, human rights, environment and a host of other international issues within the ambit of the United Nations. In the realm of environmental issues, the gradual realisation by all that damage and disruption to the human environment constitutes a serious hazard to human survival and well being, provided the much needed impetus to the concrete international co-operation on the environment front. In the period preceding the birth of the UN, the world had witnessed a high level of ineffectiveness and adhocism in instruments and efforts relating to environment. Therefore, an attempt was made to bring environmental issues within the auspices of almost universal world body – the United Nations.

Since its inception the UN and its specialised agencies are involved with different facets of the problems of conserving and preserving the environment. The specialised agencies actively involved in the related matters are Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), International Labour Organisation (ILO), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), World Health Organisation (WHO), United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO), Intergovernmental Maritime Consultative Organisation (IMCO), World Meteorological organisation (WMO), International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), International Bank of Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), International Maritime Organisation (IMO) and International Civil Aviation Organisation.

(ICAO).\(^39\) Apart from these specialised agencies, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) with the primary objective of promotion of economic and social development became involved with environmental question together with several other regional economic commissions.

The wide variety of United Nations economic and social efforts have included activities relating directly or indirectly to the environment: housing and community development, resource surveys, population studies and family planning services, projects ranging from the Lower Mekong River Development Project to Training and Research Programmes which may help developing countries avoid mistakes made by industrialised nations.\(^40\)

**Major International Conferences**

Various conferences held under the UN auspices provided an important forum for discussion and deliberations on various environmental issues of the day and together with scientific studies contributed to broadening the definition of environment. One of the early steps on environmental matters within the UN was taken in 1948 by UNESCO which in order to give concrete shape to the provisional establishment of International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) and its charter proposed by the Swiss League for the Protection of Nature (July 1947), called a conference at Fountainebleau from 1-7 October 1948.\(^41\) This led to the establishment of the International Union for the Protection of Nature (IUPN) (renamed IUCN in 1956). This body is a cross between non-

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\(^39\) FAO under its mandate of 'conservation of natural resources' is involved with soil conservation and forest management, food security and development of agriculture and fisheries since 1945. Similarly, WHO under its health programme deals with the sanitation and potable water because of its importance in disease control. WMO in its study of meteorological and hydrological phenomenon is contributing to the knowledge about environment. UNESCO too, under its International Biological Programme during 1964-1974, World Heritage Convention, 1972 and disseminating the environmental education has contributed to the cause of environment. Similarly, ILO has been developing standards to protect workers against occupational hazards in the working environment since 1920.


\(^41\) Caldwell, *International Environmental Policy*, No. 8, p. 41.
governmental and intergovernmental organisation and works in close liaison with the UN and its member nations on environmental issues. In 1949, UNESCO together with the IUCN held a conference at Lake Success, New York called the Conference on the Protection of Nature from 22 August-1 September 1949. Subsequently, this conference became a precursor to the Biosphere Conference organised by UNESCO in 1968.

Further, in 1949 Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) at the request of the US President Harry S. Truman convened the United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilisation of Resources (UNSCCUR) at Lake Success, New York between 7 August and 6 September. This conference was jointly organised by the WHO, FAO, ILO and UNESCO. The objectives of the conference were to discover means and ways of avoiding wastes, prevention and depletion of natural resources and to find alternative resources. 530 delegates representing 49 countries attended it but no concrete action was taken at the conference. Nevertheless, the importance of UNSCCUR lies in the fact that “it marked a breakthrough for conservation onto the agenda of intergovernmental business.”

Another important conference was the United Nations Technical Conference on Conservation of Living Resources of the Seas at Rome in 1955 which initiated the discussions on the rules governing the demarcation of national jurisdiction, pollution, fishing rights, etc. on the high seas. These issues were further deliberated upon at the first United Nations Conference on the Laws of the Seas (UNCLOS I) at Geneva in 1958 and later at UNCLOS II in 1960, which unleashed the process of codification of laws of the seas.

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42 McCormick, Reclaiming Paradise, No. 15, p. 35.
43 Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, p. 41.
45 UN, The Human Environment, No. 40, p. 5.
Among the other notable conferences in this period were the 1955, 1958, 1964 and 1972 Conferences on the Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy at Geneva. These conferences dealt with disposal of radioactive wastes, use of nuclear energy in desalination and control of radiation levels and subsequently since 1961, the potential uses of unconventional resources such as the sun, wind, tides, underground steam and hot water have been under study.47

In 1963, from 4-20 February (replicating the earlier Lake Success Conference’s objectives and issues with few notable changes) United Nations Conference on the Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of the Less Developed Areas was held at Geneva.48 The importance of the conference lies in the fact that for the first time it was implicitly acknowledged that developing countries required a different kind of treatment in such matters. Other significant conferences in this period were the European Conference on Water Pollution, 1961 under the aegis of Economic Commission for Europe and the various conferences on population starting in the year 1954.49

Another milestone which broadened the scope of international discussions on environment to include ecological considerations was the UNESCO sponsored Intergovernmental Conference of Experts on Scientific Bases for the Rational Use and Conservation of Resources of the Biosphere (Biosphere Conference) held in Paris in 1968. It proposed certain concrete recommendations on future course of action (unlike earlier conferences which limited themselves to exchange of views and knowledge). It adopted twenty recommendations, enumerating guidelines for regional and international structures for research and administration.”50 The most important achievement of the Biosphere Conference was that it recognised the implications of man’s relation to the natural world and emphasised upon the

48 Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, p. 44.
indivisible biophysical unity of Earth. This effort has an important bearing on the international environmental co-operation because “the logic of the biosphere is the universal participation of all responsible political jurisdiction in any effort or attempt to cope globally with man-environment relationships.”

Encompassing this concept and representing another leap forward in the international environmental co-operation was the International Geographical Year 1957-58. It demonstrated conclusively that global co-operation is the only solution to solve the world-wide environmental problems. Between 1964 and 1974, International Biological Programme (IBP) conducted a number of programmes on the issues of biological productivity and human welfare. Other related projects which contributed to much of the present day knowledge on environmental issues were Upper Mantle Project (1964-70) (It revealed extensive information about the nature of lithosphere), Global Atmospheric Research Programme (1970-80) sponsored by the WMO and International Council of Scientific Unions (ICSU) and the UNESCO programme on Man and Biosphere (MAB) beginning in the year 1970. In 1972, the UNESCO sponsored Conference on the Protection of World Culture and National Heritage also discussed some aspects of environmental protection.

All these conferences provided an important platform for discussion and deliberations and generated a better understanding of the problems and issues involved. These conferences also reflect a gradual expansion of the definition of environment. However, the achievements of the conferences were overshadowed by their strong “economic and technological bias . . . along with the uncritical optimism that generally prevailed [which] precluded any realistic assessment of the

51 ibid.
trends that were rapidly worsening the human environment and the prospects of the improvement." 54

**Major Environmental Treaties**

The discussion and deliberations on various aspects of environmental degradation in the above delineated conferences and meetings led to a number of conventions and treaties under the UN auspices. One of the earliest of these was the 1954 International Convention Limiting the Discharge of Oils from Ships which was designed to control pollution caused by ships, by restricting the quantities of oil they allowed to discharge en route and by regulating the way it should be done. 55 This convention was subsequently revised in the years 1962, 1969 and 1971. Later, three more conventions having their origin in United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS I) containing provisions of environmental protection on the High Seas came into force in 1962. The Convention on the High Seas required the "states to draw up regulations to prevent pollution of the seas by discharge of oil from ships or pipelines, dumping of radioactive waste, or undersea exploration operation." 56

The Convention on the Continental Shelf which came into force in 1964 envisaged that "the exploration of the Continental Shelf and the exploitation of its natural resources must not result in any unjustifiable interference with navigation, fishing or the conservation of living resources at sea . . ." and cautioned the coastal states to take "all appropriate measures for the protection of living resources of the sea from harmful agents" in safety zones around offshore installations like oil wells, etc. 57

The Convention on Fishing and Conservation of Living Resources of the High Seas (which came into force in 1966), stressed upon the "need for

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54 Caldwell, *International Environmental Policy*, No. 8, p. 44.
56 ibid.
57 ibid.
international co-operation to prevent the danger of overfishing” and laid down “rules under which conservation measures of one nation may apply to other countries” and established “a procedure for the settlement of disputes by specific commission whose decisions are binding.”

With regard to the outer space environment, United Nations Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Uses of Outer Space including Moon and Other Celestial Bodies, 1967 was an important beginning. It envisaged arms control, the prohibition of placing nuclear weapons, resultant radioactive pollution or any other weapon of mass destruction in the outer space or moon. The treaty was ratified by seventy-one states but had a limited success as USA and former USSR who have the space technological capability did not sign it. In 1988 the two countries entered into bilateral agreement for Exploration and Co-operation in the Use of Outer Space for Peaceful Purposes but its purpose was undermined by the US plan to operationalise Strategic Defence Initiative making outer space a potential war zone.

The above discussion makes it apparent that the UN and its specialised agencies are involved in a big way in environmental and related issues. It is thus safe to conclude that in the realm of intergovernmental environmental co-operation the UN has played a very significant role in setting up standards, exchange of information, research and in broadening the scope of the discussions on environmental problems. It is partly due to the UN’s effort that the decade of sixties saw major international action on environment.

This phase of environmental protection movement, unlike the earlier attempts concerned itself not only with the protection of natural resources but the protection of biosphere as a whole. While “the earlier natural protection movement

58 ibid., pp. 5-6.
60 Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, p. 269.
was concerned with safeguarding certain natural resources against over-use or destructive change . . . the new environmental movement while including this went beyond it. It became concerned with a much wider range of environmental phenomena on the ground that the violation of ecological principles has reached the point where, at best, the quality of life was threatened and at worst the long term survival of humanity could be imperilled.  

(ii) Regional Initiatives

This phase also witnessed the spurt in regional initiatives on environment. At the regional level notable agreements on environment include 1967 Bonn Agreement between Nordic countries on marine pollution, North Sea Convention, 1969 between European countries, Oslo Convention 1971, London Convention of 1972, 1956 Convention on Canalisation of the Moselle followed by Protocol to Establish an International Commission for the Protection of Moselle against Pollution signed between France, Germany, and Luxembourg in January 1963. It led to the establishment of a five-nations International Commission for the Protection of the Rhine in April 1963. Further to the 1964 nine-member Niger River Commission, an Organisation for the Development of the Senegal River was set up in 1972 (between Mali, Mauritania and Senegal. Further, The establishment of Lake Chad Basin Commission (under the Treaty of Fort Lamy, 1964 between Chad, Niger and Nigeria envisaged an integrated planning of water resources.

At the regional organisational level the environmental issues were dealt with and certain positive actions were taken within the scope and jurisdiction of each organisation. In 1966, Council of Europe’s Committee of Ministers in order to prevent wastage, misuse and destruction of region's resources, initiated a plan to implement a programme entitled Inter-governmental Activities of the Council of Europe including Physical Environment and Resources. In the same decade

63 Caldwell, International Environmental Policy, No. 8, pp. 131-2.
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) instituted an Environmental Committee and a Directorate on Environmental Affairs where environmental matters were discussed.

In other parts of the globe, research-oriented Nordic Council and Nordforsk initiated environmental need assessment in 1968. Since 1968, even political organisations like Organisation of American States (OAS), having turned their attention on environmental issues, established a Committee on National Parks. Similarly, in 1968, 38 members of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) signed a Treaty for the Protection of African Wildlife. Responding to new environmental challenges, North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) also set up a committee on challenges to modern society in 1969 and the issue of pollution was deliberated at the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA). In 1977, it adopted an extensive environmental co-operation programme and embarked on co-operation with the Economic Commission for Europe on certain aspects of environment such as transboundary air pollution, conservation and management of water, protection of flora and fauna, and wastes reduction technology.

All these intergovernmental and multilateral co-operation on the environmental front (as discussed above), culminated in the convening of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (UNCHE) or Stockholm Conference in the year 1972 and establishment of UNEP in 1972 which marked the beginning of the third phase of inter-governmental environmental co-operation.

Expansion and Growth: Birth of UNEP

Before discussing the present phase of the international co-operation on environment, a brief discussion focuses on the genesis of UNEP in order to ascertain the trajectory of ideology which shaped its creation. Here it must also be noted that the early steps towards an international body on environment “lacked an international authority that might form the basis of a firm international network”\(^{66}\) and were limited in scope. The area of activity widened with the growing scope of the definition of environment. Also all these initiatives or groups were of western origin. The developing countries under the colonial domination had no inputs in the evolving nature of environmental groups. When the time came for the establishment of UNEP, developing countries were relatively novice in the institutional dynamics of an international environmental body in particular and environment in general. The form of UNEP thus followed the western trajectory and ideas. However, UNEP was based in a developing country i.e. Nairobi, Kenya and its mandate was responsive to developing countries’ needs (see chapter IV).

Genesis of UNEP: The Idea of an International Body for the Protection of Nature

The establishment of UNEP in 1972 signifies the institutional response of the international community’s concern for the protection of human environment. Its genesis lies in the developments of the previous decades and is part and parcel of the movement for the protection of environment. Parallel to the activities and co-operation on various environmental issues (as discussed in previous section) there was a movement to establish a world body on environmental protection backed by the authority of the governments or states. The idea of an institutional mechanism dates back to the 1872 (unsuccessful) Swiss proposal. The proposal sought an international regulatory commission for the protection of migratory bird in Europe

but was limited in scope. The setting up of an International Ornithological Committee in 1884 followed the lead provided by the Swiss proposal.\(^{67}\)

It was in the beginning of twentieth century that concrete steps towards establishing an international organisation for nature protection were conceived. A significant leap towards an international body on the environment was initiated at the 1909 International Congress for the Protection of Nature at Paris, which proposed the establishment of an international institution for the protection of nature. A serious but unsuccessful initiative for global environmental management was made by Theodore Roosevelt in the same year by convening a World Conference for Natural Resource Conservation at the Hague.\(^{68}\)

Although nothing significant came out of these proposals, the idea remained dormant until the founder of Switzerland National Park – with the support of Swiss Federal Council – tendered this scheme to the governments of Austria, Argentina, Belgium, Britain, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Rumania, Russia, Spain, Sweden and the USA. Barring Japan and Rumania all the states approved the plan. Subsequently in 1913, seventeen European states signed an Act of Foundation of a Consultative Commission for the International Protection of Nature at Berne. The objective of the commission under Article VI were “(1) Collecting, classifying and publishing of every item dealing with international protection of nature; (2) Propaganda for the international protection of Nature.”\(^{69}\) Towards fulfilling its mandate, the commission proposed an international conference to deliberate on the environmental concerns of the day such as whaling, transborder trade in skin features and protection of migratory birds.\(^{70}\) The outbreak of World War I scuttled the commission in its infancy. Although it retained its legal status in the inter-war period, for all practical

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\(^{67}\) Caldwell, *International Environmental Policy*, No. 8, p. 32.

\(^{68}\) Caroline Thomas, *The Environment in International Relations*, London: Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1992, p. 22.

\(^{69}\) Boardman, *International Organisation*, No. 5, p. 29.

purposes, it was defunct. Nevertheless, the commission owes the credit for being the "first intergovernmental agency established for the comprehensive protection of nature."\(^{71}\) After the war, attempts to revive it were termed impractical in the political situation of the day.\(^{72}\)

During the inter-war period, attempts in this field were not very encouraging from the governments' side and remained confined to the efforts of certain committed individuals or nature-enthusiasts. The International Committee for Bird Protection (ICBP) (later renamed International Council for Bird Preservation) set up in 1922 provided an important lead to the shaping of an international organisation. The aim of this body was "co-ordinating and encouraging the preservation of birds."\(^{73}\) It was followed by the establishment of Netherlands Committee for International Nature Protection in 1925 followed by Nature Protection Body in France and Belgium in 1925-1926. Subsequently, primarily due to the efforts of Van Tienhoven.\(^{74}\) An International co-ordinating body called Office International de Documentation et de Correlation pour la Protection de la Nature was established in 1928. It was supported by the government of the Netherlands since the year 1929 and was reconstituted in 1934 as the International Office for the Protection of Nature (IOPN).\(^{75}\)

The underlining theme of all these initiatives was co-ordination of the environmental activities, together with an emphasis on research and development of

\(^{71}\) Caldwell, *International Environmental Policy*, No. 8, p. 41.


\(^{73}\) ibid., pp. 30-1.

\(^{74}\) P. G. van Tienhoven (who visualised the creation of an international network or institution to replace or rejuvenate the defunct 1913 Consultative Commission) spearheaded the moves to form an international federation of environmental groups by establishing central institutions linking the respective national groups. Belgium and France followed suit with their respective committees but British conservationists in 1927 thwarted the expansion of this network in their country though a British Committee for the Protection of Nature was already in operation since 1923 under the Society for the Preservation of Wild Fauna of the Empire (SPWFE). The reason given for this was that the projected federation was premature because only few countries had central co-ordinating bodies on the protection of nature.

\(^{75}\) McCormick, *Reclaiming Paradise*, No. 15, p. 23.
the environmental database and knowledge. Subsequently, the principle of co-
ordination became the foundation stone of many international organisations. UNEP
as a co-ordination body of the UN system owes the genesis of the idea to this era.
Instituted in the year 1972\textsuperscript{76}, UNEP thus represents the culmination of the earlier
attempts towards this cause.

Table II (a)
A Comparison of the Goals of IOPN and UNEP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IOPN Goals</th>
<th>UNEP Goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To work internationally for the progress of nature protection</td>
<td>&quot;(a) To promote international co-operation in the environment field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;(1) by centralising, by classifying, by publishing and by distributing to</td>
<td>and to recommend ... policies to this end;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>governments, institutions and persons interested in nature protection,</td>
<td>(b) to provide ... co-ordination of environmental programmes within</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>documents, legislative texts, scientific studies, information and data of</td>
<td>the UN system ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any one kind regarding nature protection and especially the conservation</td>
<td>(c) to review and receive the periodic report ... on the environmental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of fauna, flora, and natural scenery in a primitive stage;</td>
<td>programme within the United Nations system ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) by encouraging and facilitating international co-operation between</td>
<td>(d) to keep under review the world environmental situation in order to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>institutions, and persons interested in questions;</td>
<td>ensure ... appropriate and adequate consideration by Governments;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) by making studies and technical investigations in the domain of</td>
<td>(e) to promote the contribution of the relevant international scientific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nature protection;</td>
<td>and other professional communities to the acquisition, assessment and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) by organising the propaganda for nature protection especially from</td>
<td>exchange of environmental knowledge and information and, as appropriate,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an international standpoint.&quot;\textsuperscript{77}</td>
<td>to the technical aspects of the formulation and implementation of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>environmental programmes within the UN system ...&quot;\textsuperscript{78}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{76} General Assembly resolution 2997 (XXVII) of 15th December 1972 established UNEP and the GA resolution 3004 (XXVII) dated 15th December 1972 decided to locate the secretariat of UNEP in a developing country – Nairobi, Kenya – which was established in October 1973.

\textsuperscript{77} Boardman, \textit{International Organisation}, No. 5, p. 32.
The mandate of UNEP closely resembles the goals set out for IOPN though the scope of the former is much broader. UNEP is entrusted with the task of co-ordinating and catalysing the environmental activities within and among the UN agencies and other intergovernmental bodies. A comparison of some of the aims of UNEP with that of the IOPN\(^7^9\) is given in Table II (a).

UNEP has been assigned the catalytic and co-ordinating role within the United Nations System in the field of environment, to monitor and review significant changes in environmental practices and to collect, assimilate and exchange environmental knowledge. The programme consists of a Governing Council (GC), which is the chief policy-making organ composed of 58 member nations elected by the General Assembly; a Secretariat headed by the Executive-Director; and an Environment Fund to finance the environmental programmes.\(^8^0\) The activities of the Programme primarily revolves around Earthwatch, which includes Global Environmental Monitoring System (GEMS), International Referral System for Environment Information (INFOTERRA) and International Register of Potentially Toxic Chemicals (IRPTC). The Earthwatch network of the programme is engaged in monitoring, surveillance and exchange of environmental information which facilitates

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\(^7^9\) After the establishment of the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) in November 1948, the functions of IOPN merged with the new organisation. IUCN which was renamed so in 1956 (before that it was IUPN), is a hybrid between non-governmental and intergovernmental organisation. It works closely with the governments, NGOs, the UN and intergovernmental organisations on the issue of preservation of natural environment resources and facilitates the co-ordination between the parties involved.

\(^8^0\) Until 1977, there was an additional body called The Environment Co-ordination Board (ECB) whose task was to ensure co-operation among all the UN bodies which are engaged in environmental activities. It consisted of members of relevant UN bodies. The ECB functioned under the auspices and within the framework of the UN’s Administrative Committee on Co-ordination (ACC), and under the chairmanship of the Executive-Director of UNEP. It reported annually to the Governing Council of UNEP. In 1977, its functions were assumed by the ACC which subsequently established a Committee of Designated Officials for Environmental Matters (DOEM). DOEM meetings do not have a fixed membership but almost all the UN agencies have designated one of their senior officials to attend its meetings. The meetings are chaired by the Deputy Executive-Director of UNEP and supported by the Secretariat. Traditionally, DOEM holds three meetings every year.
early warning of significant environmental risks to ensure pre-emptive or corrective measures at the national and international decision-making level.

A New Dawn

The year 1972 was the culmination of century-long concerns for environment and was a landmark in the history of intergovernmental efforts towards the conservation and preservation of environment. The United Nations Conference on the Human Environment of 1972 initiated a systematic and thorough examination of the existing environmental scenario and the establishment of UNEP in 1972 (as a follow up of the institutional arrangements of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment – UNCHE or Stockholm Conference) was a symbol of growing importance of the issue in the international forums. The impetus for UNEP was also provided by a renewed spirit of international co-operation due to the onset of détente during the seventies when political rivalries and ideological conflicts took a back seat to more important questions of the survival of mankind.

The preparation for the Stockholm Conference also brought about new subjects on to the ongoing debate on the human environment. The respective and different environmental priorities of the North and the South also became pronounced. This phase thus opened a new area of conflict for bitter and acrimonious debate between developed and developing countries. The discussions and deliberations before and during the UNCHE added another issue – those of poverty, development and economic emancipation – to the international environmental deliberations (see chapter III). It is significant that while most of the earlier issues such as pollution, population, etc. were raised by developed countries,

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81 The USSR and eastern bloc actively participated in the run-up to the Stockholm Conference. The question of recognition of the GDR often cropped up during the discussions. Thereafter, the whole of Soviet bloc boycotted the conference over the issue of non-recognition of GDR.

82 During détente a constructive dialogue between the USA and USSR on disarmament was initiated as a result of which a Treaty on the Limitation of Anti-ballistic Missile Systems (ABM Treaty) was signed and an Interim Agreement on the Limitation of Strategic Offensive Arms (SALT I) was finalised between the two superpowers on 26 May 1972. In May 1979 SALT II was signed. The period of détente ended in December 1979 when Soviet invasion into Afghanistan fuelled the cold war rivalries yet again.
the poverty and developmental issues were raised by developing countries. As a result, the link between poverty and environmental degradation was recognised and economic development with due regard to the environmental resources was given precedence.

Subsequently, in the decades of 1980s, this thinking converged to form the concept of sustainable development. The basic principle behind the concept of sustainable development is fairness for the future, to leave for the next generation a similar or better endowment of environmental resources than which we have inherited. It was the Brundtland Commission Report which placed the concept of sustainable development on the agenda of international action (and chalked out the future course of international environmental action by identifying the major environmental problems). According to it, “sustainable development is that which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs.”

The ebbing of cold war in mid 1980s and the end of cold war in 1989 also provided a new opportunity in this field. The leaders of the Group of Seven (G-7) in 1985 at the Bonn Summit in a joint statement called for “new approaches and strengthened international co-operation . . . to anticipate and prevent damages to the environment.” Subsequently, The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) or the Rio Conference of 1992 sought to adopt new approach and strengthen the intergovernmental co-operation on environment. Like the Stockholm Conference of 1972, Rio Conference also was the culmination of major international initiative on the environment during the preceding years.

This phase thus saw expansion and growth in the intergovernmental negotiations on environment. The establishment of UNEP exclusively devoted to co-

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ordinating environmental activities underlined the international community's commitment to the cause. In this phase major international co-operation on environmental assessment, data analysis and law were undertaken where UNEP as a co-ordinating agency played a significant role. Since UNEP and developing countries is the principal focus of this study, the intergovernmental co-operation on environment during this phase has been discussed in subsequent chapters as a part of the overall analysis of the role of developing countries in UNEP.
### Table II (b)

#### Major International Treaties & Conventions on Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Name of the Treaty/ Convention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Beginning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>Convention Concerning the Equitable Distribution of the Waters of the Rio Grande for Irrigation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909</td>
<td>Boundary Waters Treaty between Great Britain (on behalf of Canada) and the USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>Convention for the Protection and Preservation of Fur Seals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td>Convention for the Preservation of the Halibut Fishery of the Northern Pacific Ocean and the Bering Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931</td>
<td>Convention on the Regulation of Whaling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>Convention on Nature Protection and Wildlife Preservation in the Western Hemisphere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Evolution and Extension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Name of the Treaty/ Convention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1946</td>
<td>International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>International Plant Protection Convention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>Convention for the Prevention of Pollution of the Sea by Oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>Convention on Fishing and Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Seas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>Antarctic Treaty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>Treaty Banning Nuclear Weapons Tests in the Atmosphere, in Outer Space and Under Water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>Agreed Measures on the Conservation of Antarctic Fauna and Flora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space including the Moon and Other Celestial Bodies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>Convention on Wetlands of International Importance especially on Water Fowl Habitat (Ramsar Convention)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Expansion and Growth**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Name of the Treaty/ Convention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (World Heritage Convention)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>Protocol Concerning the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships with Annexes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (Bonn Convention)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>Convention on the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>UN Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS Convention)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Helsinki Protocol on the Reduction of Sulphur Emissions or their Transboundary Fluxes by at least 30 Per Cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Vienna Convention for Protection of the Ozone Layer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>Convention on Early Notification of a Nuclear Accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>Convention on Assistance in the Case of a Nuclear Accident or Radiological Emergency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Sofia Protocol Concerning the Control of Emissions of Nitrogen Oxides or their Transboundary Fluxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes (Basel Convention)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>International Convention on Oil Pollution Preparedness, Response and Co-operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Protocol to the Antarctic Treaty on Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>The Convention on Biological Diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>The Convention on Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Convention to Combat Desertification in those Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertification, particularly in Africa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>