Nissology: A Proposal for Consideration

Grant McCall

ABSTRACT: The paper opens with a discussion of Nissology, "The study of islands on their own terms", moving on to argue that islands can learn from one another. Eight characteristics of islands from a Nissological point of view are proposed. The paper surveys the political and academic organisations concerned with Nissology, and urges that Nissological knowledge be "multi-dimensional".

I want to describe in this paper the concept of "Nissology" and study of islands on their own terms; to discuss why we need not feel sorry for islands and Island states; to mention recent moves to network islands, ending with eight proposed characteristics of islands from a socio-cultural point of view, and a final comment how Nissological knowledge should be multi-dimensional in its approach and duties.

Thoughts on Islands

For the majority of the world's population, island residence seems to mean second best. It is as though there might be some ancient memory that the first islanders might have been those who fled the mainland for refuge, having lost a battle. Refuge has the double edged meaning of safety and comfort, but with an entailment of the bitterness of defeat and loss. This leads several writers about islands to regard those places as in need of saving; as places that must be improved and brought to dominant continental standards.

Joël Bonnemaison (1990–91:119) describes Michel Tournier as an insularophobe (fearer of islands). Bonnemaison quotes Tournier's observation on the nature of islands as follows: "Island is a prison, it is Cayenne, Devils Island or Réunion; an island functions like a closing over, not a privileged place." Where I conventionally carry out my fieldwork, Rapanui, as the people of Easter Island place call themselves and their land, the Chilean public officials employed there on short-term (ie 2–3 years) government contracts often speak of the place giving them "island-itis (Islitio)." That is, that they become fearful, irritable and find it difficult to carry out either their personal or professional lives. These public servants often use "island-itis" to explain unsatisfactory performance in their work (see McCall 1994).

People feel sorry for those who live on islands, yet islands have for continental dwellers a strong romantic appeal. Islands have attracted the love of poets and the admiration of philosophers for as long as we have literature. Pier Giovanni D'Ayala (1994:4) evokes James Hamilton's intriguing suggestion that "We human beings 'are born as islands'. Before birth we float happily in the amniotic fluid, in the ocean of the maternal womb".

Islands and, especially, Island nations have no reason to feel shame about their status, for throughout history, Island nations have been important and powerful. Ancient Greece, on which the entire edifice of Western thought is based, was largely island based; the English and their Celtic compatriots of the British Isles once ruled an empire on which the sun never set; and, today, another island nation, Japan, is the world's foremost economic power, and is poised to take on ever more important international roles in the next millennium.

Island nations are not "tiny dots on a sea of blue", as so often described by continental dwellers. Rather, they occupy a large proportion of the earth's surface. University of the South Pacific Professor Epeli Hau'ofa
(1993: 152–153) argues for the Pacific Islands, or Oceania, as he prefers:

There is a world of difference between viewing the Pacific as “islands in a far sea” and as “a sea of islands”. The first emphasises dry surfaces in a vast ocean far from the centers of power. Focusing in this way stresses the smallness and remoteness of the islands. The second is a more holistic perspective in which things are seen in the totality of their relationships.

Whilst Hau‘ofa seeks to make an ideological point about people’s perceptions, if one takes into account the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) surrounding island states and territories, their occupation of the earth’s surface is considerable (See Appendix C, Table 1). The economic and political reality of these claims is marked by the coming into force of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) on 16 November 1994, with a ceremonial session of the Assembly of the Sea Bed Authority being held in Kingston, Jamaica from that date until 18 November. Particularly in the incomplete Table 2, it is clear that the Pacific and Caribbean as island areas are obverse mirrors. The Pacific Islands’ vast EEZs are in the hands of a small population, whilst those much smaller EEZs of the Caribbean must support a relatively large population. The land contrast particularly is striking, with the same inverted relationship. Oceania has three times the land area, but only a sixth of the population of the Caribbean islands.

Because of these misunderstandings about islands and the lack of an organised body of knowledge suitable for islands, I propose the concept of “Nissology”, the study of islands on their own terms; the open and free inquiry into island-ness; and the promotion of international cooperation and networking amongst islands.

Some geographers have proposed all land features on the planet are islands of different sizes, reasoning that of the 510,000,000 km² total surface area of our globe, only 145,000,000 km² (28%) is dry land. In a kind of Nissological chauvinism, they begin their list of islands with the “World Island” made up of Europe, Asia and Africa, the second largest mass being “America”, before the Panama Canal, one imagines (Teulières 1970: 209). The list continues with more familiar entities, such as Antarctica and my own little Australia.

The Pacific basin is the most islanded region on earth, with more islands (and island states) and a greater variety of such geographical features than any other place on earth (See Appendix C below). The range of size of the Pacific islands is greater than in any region on the planet, from New Guinea, the third largest (after Australia and Greenland) island in the world at 777,000 km², to the smallest motu of few metres.

It is geographers who began the development of the concept of Nissology (e.g. Moles 1982; Depraetere 1990–91; 1992). And, perhaps from a kind of stereotypic point of view, it is an imaginative and theoretically-minded French geographer—anthropologist who has explored the theoretical, even philosophical, implications of the idea (Bonnemainson 1991).

The late A. A. Moles (1982:481) coined the term “Nissologie” as “the science of island space”. It was the psychological, even psychoanalytic, character of island space that drew Moles to his research. He (1982: 283) noted how islanders develop rituals of time with their neighbours, often around the arrivals and departures of supply ships, ferries and the like.

The size of the island and its topographical impact on its inhabitants depends upon their perceiving it as a closed space. Moles (1982:284) examined islands in terms of their distance, from a continent as well as island neighbours, and the quality and diversity of their contours. It is the essential perception (by the inhabitants themselves) of limited sameness of islands that produces island singularity, according to him. Whilst a valuable start, Moles took a decidedy continental view of islands and urged that they should be taken as smaller and more limited versions of continents.

Moreover, I am not convinced that there is such a direct relationship between the geography of a place and the personality of the inhabitants, which is the main thrust of Moles’ article. The subject of the impact of geography on consciousness is one in need of further study.

Depraetere (1990–91; 1992) employs the term “Nissologie” for the first time in French. Depraetere (1992) has compacted and detailed a larger area than the world. The presence provides the four what islands are, characteristics.

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Eight Propo...
(1992) has compiled a database which is a complete accounting and description of all islands of the world larger in area than 100 km². These number 1,085 in the world. The purpose of Depraetere’s database is to provide the foundation for a global understanding of what islands are, based upon their shared physical characteristics.

Nioology, in English, derives from the Greek root for Island (nisos) and Study of (logos). One rendering of this concept in Japanese would be the characters To (large island), Sho (small island) and Gaku (study of).  

Eight Proposed Island Characteristics

For island populations, particularly those constituted as states, there are at least eight characteristics that they share. I do not wish to suggest environmental or geographical determinism, but the physical nature of islands is going to have its social and cultural influence.

Ward (1990:1) writes that there are three key features of island countries: Small scale, isolation and boundedness, although he elsewhere declares: “None is an absolute characteristic. Scale is relative” (Ward 1993:20).

I suggest that there are eight clear characteristics of islands and islanders, based primarily upon Pacific island examples, but trusting in the essential representative character of, especially, the Polynesian places.

Firstly, the question of land borders for islands is usually clearer, the shore being a natural delimiter, especially in modern cases of sovereignty. Disputes do arise, though, with the composition of the archipelago, the most famous contemporary one being the position of Bougainville as a North Solomon island. Papua New Guinea, the current controllers, claim a political, not a cultural, domination of Bougainville and nearby Buka. The neighbouring Melanesian country, Solomon Islands, know well their cultural affinities with Bougainville and Buka, but have not tried to extend this to a political one, to preserve Melanesian unity (see Oliver 1991; but cf. Ogan and Wesley-Smith 1992).

Secondly, sea resources, in the EEZ (Exclusive Eco-
nomic Zone), become crucial to island states, usually consisting of more surface area than the land resources of the country. As far as I am aware, at least the extreme example of this is the Republic of Kiribati, a country of 33 low-lying coral atolls, stretching along both sides of the equator. The land area for its 67,000 people is 79 km², but the EEZ is a massive 5 million km², which represents 6000 times the size of its land area (See Langeveld 1990:76). Each outpost of land, no matter how small, has the potential to increase the EEZ of a country by 40,000 square miles (with the 200 nautical mile limit).

Thirdly, strategically, islands will have a tendency to be claimed by continental states. Continental dwellers see islands as an advance guard of protection, or an outpost of influence. Connell and Aldrich (1992) characterise the small island colonies retained by some European powers as being “windows on the world.” The fewer the islands in an archipelago, the more likely it is to be annexed by a continent. There is safety in numbers (e.g. Ward 1993:10).

So, in the Mediterranean, singular islands historically have been annexed to continental states, Greece being a good example. Lonely Cyprus, too, fell victim and is claimed by not one, but two continental masters. The more numerous Philippines and Japan, though, resist continental claims, however often reiterated.

Similarly, the more remote and singular an island, the more likely it is that it will be claimed by a continental power as an outpost of empire. Much of eastern Polynesia was acquired successively over the 19th century by France for various purposes (see Bard 1987), but the government in Paris refused to consider even a protectorate for Rapanui (Easter Island), it eventually being taken over by Chile in 1888.

Next, the perception of scarcity of land is mirrored in the scarcity of terrestrial (not marine!) resources, as distance from the continent increases. So, as Fosberg (1963) observed three decades ago, as one moved from the West (Asia) to the East, the number of species of flora and fauna decreases. Coping with this environmental constraint is a fundamental task of the Islander. John Connell (1991) observes how island states, in particular those low lying ones in the Pacific, could likely be effected by global warming, and sink alt-

...
A fifth, and most obvious trait, is that islands are bounded entities in a way that continental cultures are not. There is a clear ideological, if not practical division between an in-group and an out-group: us and them, for islanders.

On larger islands, there will be sub-divisions and, in fact, the larger the island, the more these sub-divisions will dominate over the sense of sharing a common terrestrial feature. New Guinea island is the outstanding example of this feature of islands, with smaller places such as Niue and Nauru demonstrating a nearly opposite tendency, although in both those places there is some claim to what Ward (1990a:vi) calls "sub-national" variation (See Loeb 1926 and Brander 1907, respectively).

Sixth, there is a sense of limitation stemming from this that is not physical, but echoes that ecology socially and culturally. There is, as Foster (1965; 1972) wrote of peasant communities, an "image of the limited good." That is, that the small size and scale, the boundedness precipitates a sense of limitation, when that small size is appreciated and understood (cf. Ward 1993:21). Islanders before they realise how small they are — that is, have someone or something else for comparison — need not have that sense of smallness, even inadequacy.

But, with our contemporary global media village and the availability of instant images, if one has the cash to purchase the technology, the tendency for that sense of smallness increases. When those islands are countries, they are subject to what Davies (1985) calls "small country blues," a concept he applied first to the world’s largest island state, Australia.

When a country suffers from that malaise, it develops an "illusion of completeness," whereby as a counter, the population imagines a kind of self-sufficiency in the face of self-doubt. This sense of "limited good" is more of a problem of modernity, perhaps even the fragmentation of post-modernity (e.g. Giddens 1990).

Islanders, as I mention below, have a sense of the sea as part of their lives, not an isolating barrier. With the carving up of the world into sovereign slices, this freedom of movement is less than it used to be; with the heavy impact of commercial fishing on the high seas, the sea provided less than it used to local Pacific Islanders. A sense of this continuity, though, continues within contemporary state boundaries, for residents of outer islands who if they do not have access to aircraft, or cannot afford it, still take to the sea if they feel the need to travel.

Seventh, is that in small places, perhaps more so in small island places, social relations are highly "particularistic," as Benedict (1967:31–2) discussed in one of the first explorations of smallness in the sociological literature. Rather than the Weberian bureaucratic rational-legal ideal under which people in complex continental societies live, islanders tend to know and, thus, treat differently the individuals with whom they come into contact (e.g. Ward 1990b:7).

People in small island places may not be personally known to one another, but they will have some ascribed characteristics by which to guide their social commerce, such as regional, ethnic, even kin characteristics.

Bureaucratic procedures, developed for populous continental places may simply fail to operate in small island places and officials who ought to be following universalist precepts, instead favour persons known to them, or who are from their areas. The wantok system in Papua New Guinea is an example of this sort of favouritism.

Finally, migration is a major preoccupation of island states, either as emigration or immigration. This is not to say that only Islanders migrate, for continental populations have moved about, sometimes extensively. Continental populations move across the seas as well as the land. Islands, particularly small ones, especially are prone to periodic migration, not as an option, but as a systemic imperative built into the nature of their ecological and social system; the consequences of their boundedness. Due to limited land area, periodic migration is a feature of most islands. The population expands, but the land does not.

When the environment has become degraded, the population grown or both, a part of the population must relocate either to a continent or another island. This may be done by custom, or by warfare, but leave some people must, for the rest to survive. It is the very "sustainability" of the island that creates the predisposition, indeed, the need for migration (Ward 1993: 19).
used to local Pacific\nity, though, continues\nities, for residents of\nance to aircraft the\nies, perhaps more so\nations are highly "par\nness in the sociologi\nian bureaucratic natio\nople in complex com\ntend to know and, thus,\nwhom they come 7).\nmay not be personally\nwill have some ascribed\ntheir social commerce\nkin characteristics.\nveloped for populous\nfail to operate in small\nought to be following\npersons known to us. The wantok system\nexample of this sort of\nreoccupation of is\n or immigration. This\nmigrate, for continental\nsometimes extensively\nas the seas as well as\nsmall ones, especially\nnot as an option, but\nto the nature of the\nsequences of their\n and area, periodic emi\nlands. The population\ndecome degraded, tha\nt the population must\nother island. This may\n, but leave some peo\npive. It is the very thi\n creates the predisp\n (Ward 1993: 19).

Giddens 1990), Islands might be said to be the original post-modern society. He (1990:18) writes in theoretical terms:

The advent of modernity increasingly tears space away from place by fostering relations between 'absent' others, locationally distant from any given situation of face-to-face interaction.

That same place elsewhere might be mythological (as Hawai'i in the Pacific) or historical as in the Caribbean, and for Mauritius. The homeland is usually storiied as superior to the island, it was larger and more bountiful, but people were banished or forced to flee for natural events or social ones, such as wars. It is a kind of mixture of migration story and the Biblical story of the fall from grace combined, for most island people, although the Original Sin rarely is specified.

This last characteristic, that of migration as an historical and contemporary fact, is a contribution factor, I think, to the ease with which Islanders do emigrate. Some people must always go and that is a clearly understandable practical reason for departure. And, of course, the option to return, ever held by the first generation of sojourners who may become settlers.

But, there is an affective aspect to islander emigration, for an Islander in some way is never at home. The Islander has come from somewhere else, stopping on the island for a while, even generations, before going on to another, although continental masses are the usual destination for immigrants.

Islanders can abandon their islands, if they no longer supply their needs and there are plenty of such places in Polynesia, notably Neckar and Pitcairn, where this happened in the past. The Cook Islands and Niue are contemporary examples of islands in the process of being abandoned. As an extreme and non-Oceanic example, in 1930, the entire Scottish island of St. Kilda abandoned its home, to settle as a group in Australia (Bonnemaisson 1990-91:124).

Organisations and Islands

There are government and academic organisations around the world concerned with the islands of particular regions. The Center for Pacific Islands Studies at the University of Hawai'i was one of the first founded, in 1950.

The first institution to dedicate itself to islands in general, though, was the Institute of Island Studies, founded at the University of Prince Edward Island in 1985. The Institute operates from its Canadian base a computer network called SINN, Small Islands Information Network, which connects scholars around the world. Our own Peter Meincke is the wizard behind that!
There have been two initiatives for small islands that have their birthplace within the United Nations system. INSULA published its first magazine in 1992, and that attractive publication continues to appear on a regular basis. INSULA the organisation today is a Non Government Non Profit Organisation, independent from UNESCO with an international constituency, holding conferences and sponsoring a variety of activities.

The other United Nations organisation derives from the Earth Summit of 1992 ("UNCED") and the associated Agenda 21 on world environmental concerns. AOSIS, the Alliance of Small Island States, is the political representation of the growing interest in Nissology (See Appendix A). AOSIS reached its first public appearance with its declaration of 12 June 1992 at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), although it was convened first during the Second World Climate Conference held in Geneva, from 5–7 November 1990.

Amongst the documents that AOSIS has produced, there is the "Symposium on Climate Change and the future of small island and low lying coastal developing countries", of 14 February, whose keynote address, by Mrs. Danielle de St. Jorre, Minister for Planning and External Relations, Republic of Seychelles, marks a major stage in thinking about islands, the environment and international politics.5

In just a short time, interest in AOSIS has grown from that core membership. At the United Nations sponsored "Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States", held in Bridgetown, Barbados from 25 April to 6 May 1994, delegations from 107 countries, ten Associate members of regional commissions, ten Specialised Agencies and twenty-one Inter governmental organisations presented their reports and discussed their common concerns (See Appendix B). AOSIS will continue to be the government, political focus for small islands.

Associate Professor Yoko Ogashawa (1994:9–12) provides an excellent analysis of the work of AOSIS, showing how it came to be and its current organisation.

ISISA, the "International Small Islands Studies Association", has been increasing in size since its first meeting on Vancouver Island in 1986 and, with the 1994 meetings in Okinawa, has become at last a functioning body; transformed from a loose network, to an international scholarly and educational organisation.

The Nature of Nissological Knowledge

Nissological knowledge should be "multi-dimensional", and involve all four dimensions of the world in which we live.

First, Nissological knowledge should operate in the dimension of HEIGHT, and its results be communicated to politicians and states-men (and women) both national and international, so that the benefits and information discovered can be implemented with political will;

Secondly, Nissological knowledge should operate in the dimension of WIDTH, communicating the meaning of its work through the wider society, the general public, through popular publications; these should be publications in print media, in the audio-visual mode and, for our next century, the various electronic media that flow around us everyday.

Thirdly, Nissological knowledge should operate in the dimension of DEPTH, investigating at the deepest and most basic level research questions, researchers unafraid of what they might find, in the true spirit of international science and in the best traditions of collaborative academic scholarship;

Finally, Nissological knowledge should operate in the fourth dimension of TIME, publishing and explaining its information for those of the future, as it is the children who will be the leaders and citizens of the twenty-first century.6

Nissology should be directed to producing, on a practical level, what Prem Saddul (1994) called "An Islander survival kit".

From the contacts that I have had with persons who study islands around the world, including at the Pacific Society, we Nissologists are like the islands that we study. We come in many shapes and sizes; we have different characteristics; we are scattered across our planet earth.

Bibliography


But, with the organisational progress of ISISA and INSULA, the political commitment of our leaders to AOSIS, and the research and network initiatives of the Institute of Island Studies, we researchers are spanning the seas and continents that might separate us, to join in our common pursuit of Nissology, the study of islands on their own terms.

Bibliography


Exeter: University of Exeter Press.


Footnotes

1 All translations, unless otherwise noted, are by Grant McCall from t

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Appendix A:

Founding Members of Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS)

The Permanent Mission of the Republic of Vanuatu to the United Nations produced a list of thirty-six states and territories who were part of AOSIS as members or observers:

Atlantic Ocean
- Cape Verde
- Sao Tome and Principe

Indian Ocean
- Comoros
- Maldives
- Mauritius
- Seychelles

Caribbean Sea
- Antigua and Barbuda
- Bahamas
- Barbados
- Belize
- Cuba
- Dominica
- Grenada
- Guyana
- Jamaica
- St. Kitts and Nevis
- St. Lucia
- St. Vincent and the Grenadines
- Trinidad and Tobago
- US Virgin Islands **

Mediterranean Sea
- Cyprus
- Malta

South China Sea
- Singapore

Oceania (Pacific Ocean)
- Cook Islands *
- Federated States of Micronesia
- Fiji
- Kiribati *
- Marshall Islands
- Nauru *
- Niue **
- Papua New Guinea
- Samoa
- Solomon Islands
- Tonga *
- Tuvalu *
- Vanuatu

* Non United Nations Members
** Observers
Appendix B:
Delegations at the Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States

Bridgetown, Barbados 8 25 April to 6 May 1994

Delegations

Afghanistan  
Algeria  
Antigua and Barbuda  
Argentina  
Australia  
Austria  
Bahamas  
Bahrain  
Barbados  
Belgique  
Belize  
Benin  
Bolivia  
Brunei Darussalam  
Burundi  
Cambodia  
Canada  
Cape Verde  
Chile  
China  
Colombia  
Comoros  
Congo  
Cook Islands  
Costa Rica  
Cote d'Ivoire  
Croatia  
Cuba  
Cyprus  
Denmark  
Dominica  
Dominican Republic  
Egypt  
Equatorial Guinea  
Fiji  
Finland  
France  
Gambia  
Germany  
Greece  
Grenada  
Guinea-Bissau  
Guyana  
Haiti  
Holy See  
Hungary  
Iceland  
India  
Indonesia  
Ireland  
Israel  
Italy  
Jamaica  
Japan  
Jordan  
Kiribati  
Lao People's Democratic Republic  
Madagascar  
Malawi  
Malaysia  
Maldives  
Mali  
Malta  
Marshall Islands  
Mauritania  
Mauritius  
Micronesia  
Namibia  
Nauru  
Nepal  
Netherlands  
New Zealand  
Niger  
Norway  
Pakistan  
Papua New Guinea  
Philippines  
Portugal  
Republic of Korea  
Romania  
Russian Federation  
Saint Kitts and Nevis  
Saint Lucia  
Saint Vincent  
Samoa  
Sao Tome and Principe  
Seychelles  
Sierra Leone  
Singapore  
Solomon Islands  
Spain  
Sri Lanka  
Sudan  
Suriname  

This list derives from document A/C
Associate Members of Regional Commissions

Aruba
British Virgin Islands
Guam
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles

Specialized Agencies

International Labour Organization
Food and Agriculture Organization
International Civil Aviation Organization
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
World Bank
International Monetary Fund
International Telecommunication Union

Intergovernmental Organizations

African Development Bank
Agence de Coopération Culturelle et Technique
Asian–African Legal Consultative Committee
Caribbean Centre for Development Administration
Caribbean Community Secretariat
Caribbean Meteorological Organization
Commission de l’Océan Indien
Commonwealth Secretariat
European Union
Inter–American Development Bank
Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission

This list derives from the "Provisional List of Delegations" produced by the United Nations as document A/CONF.167/INF/3/REV.1, 2 May 1994
Appendix C: Small Island States & Territories  
Population, Land Area and EEZ Area

Table 1: Population, Land Area & EEZ Area by State & Territory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atlantic Ocean Region</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Area (land km²)</th>
<th>Area (EEZ km²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
<td>325,000</td>
<td>4,033</td>
<td>789,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>255,000</td>
<td>102,820</td>
<td>866,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>3,523,000</td>
<td>68,895</td>
<td>380,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sao Tome and Principe</td>
<td>108,000</td>
<td>826</td>
<td>128,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Atlantic Ocean Regional Totals</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,211,000</strong></td>
<td><strong>176,574</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,164,800</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caribbean Sea Region</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Area (land km²)</th>
<th>Area (EEZ km²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antigua and Barbuda (32,100 nm²)</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>59,449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aruba (No EEZ indicated)</td>
<td>62,500</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>759,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>254,685</td>
<td>13,865</td>
<td>167,300</td>
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<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
<td>254,000</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>167,300</td>
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<tr>
<td>British Virgin Islands (No EEZ indicated)</td>
<td>13,000</td>
<td>153</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bonaire (No EEZ indicated)</td>
<td>10,797</td>
<td>288</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>10,617,000</td>
<td>114,525</td>
<td>362,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominica⁴</td>
<td>81,200</td>
<td>751</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>7,170,000</td>
<td>48,440</td>
<td>268,800</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grenada⁴</td>
<td>110,000</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>27,000</td>
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<td>Haiti</td>
<td>6,486,000</td>
<td>27,750</td>
<td>160,500</td>
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<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>2,420,000</td>
<td>11,425</td>
<td>297,600</td>
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<td>Montserrat (No EEZ indicated)</td>
<td>13,000</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands Antilles (No EEZ indicated)</td>
<td>192,866</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>6,111</td>
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<tr>
<td>St. Kitts–Nevis (3,300 nm²)</td>
<td>44,000</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>6,111</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Federated States of Micrones</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Caledonia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Northern Mariana Islands</td>
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<tr>
<td>Palau</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Vanuatu</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wallis and Futuna</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei Darussalam (No)</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Singapore⁴</td>
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<td>Area by State &amp;</td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Area (land km²)</td>
<td>Area (EEZ km²)</td>
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<td><strong>165,600</strong></td>
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<td>Area (EEZ km²)</td>
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<td><strong>614,452</strong></td>
<td><strong>28,723,800</strong></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Southeast Asia Region</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Area (land km²)</th>
<th>Area (EEZ km²)</th>
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<td><strong>6,381</strong></td>
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Table 2: Population, Land Area & EEZ Area by Region Totals and Percentages

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
<th>Area (land km²)</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
<th>Area (EEZ km²)</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
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<td>176,574</td>
<td>17.0</td>
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<td>66.3</td>
<td>227,208</td>
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<td>Indian Ocean</td>
<td>832,139</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2,562</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1,917,200</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<td>2.4</td>
<td>9,566</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>165,600</td>
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<td>59.0</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Sources:

Note
Unfortunately, there seems to be no source for the Caribbean territories above, so the final table cannot be fully completed. These data do demonstrate, though, the peculiar relationship between the Caribbean and the Pacific as Nissological areas.

Appendix D: Dictionary Entry

Nissology /ˈnɪsəlɒdʒi/ [mod.L form of F. Nissologie (Depraetere 1992), f. Gr. nisos, Island + LOGY. The study of islands on their own terms.]