



HUMAN RIGHTS APPLICATION STRATEGIES AND TOOLS

AMIT KUMAR
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Human Rights Application: Strategies & Tools

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Publishers & Distributors Pvt Ltd
New Delhi, INDIA



Knowledge is Our Business

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This edition published by Dominant Publishers And Distributors (P) Ltd
4378/4-B, Murarilal Street, Ansari Road, Daryaganj,
New Delhi-110002.

ISBN: 978-93-80642-62-8

Edition: 2022 (Revised)

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Registered Office: 4378/4-B, Murari Lal Street, Ansari Road,
Daryaganj, New Delhi - 110002.
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Production Office: "Dominant House", G - 316, Sector - 63, Noida,
National Capital Region - 201301.
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CHAPTER 1

EXPLORING THE HUMAN RIGHTS: EVOLUTION AND CONCEPT

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ABSTRACT:

Fundamental values known as human rights protect the intrinsic worth, equality, and liberties of every person. This abstract explores the idea and history of human rights, tracking their progression through time from the earliest civilizations to contemporary international norms. In this investigation, the idea of human rights is examined in all of its facets, which include civil, political, economic, social, and cultural rights. From prehistoric philosophical beliefs through the Magna Carta and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the abstract outlines significant turning points in the development of human rights. The importance of human rights in advancing justice, peace, and international collaboration is emphasized while simultaneously addressing the difficulties and objections raised by the idea that human rights are universal. This summary concludes by offering a perceptive assessment of the idea's dynamic development and its ongoing importance in creating a fair and equitable society. Although the idea of human rights has come a long way, there are still problems. The conflict between universality and cultural relativism is still a source of discussion, and problems with implementation often prevent the actualization of rights. However, the development of human rights shows how resilient people and society are in fighting for their rights despite hardship.

KEYWORDS:

Dignity, Equality, Human Right, Justice, Political.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of human rights implies basic, unalienable rights that are crucial to human existence. One is said to be unable to survive as a human being without human rights, which are considered basic. Relationships between people and hierarchical power institutions, particularly the State, are defined by human rights. Human rights restrict state authority but also requiring states to take proactive steps to create an environment where everyone may exercise their rights. The battle to forge such a setting has changed history over the last 250 years. The notion of human rights has inspired several revolutionary movements for empowerment and control over the wielders of power, governments in particular, starting with the French and American revolutions in the late eighteenth century.

Human rights serve as the foundation for legal entitlements and remedies in cases of non-fulfillment, and governments and other duty bearers have a responsibility to respect, preserve, and uphold these rights. In actuality, human rights are distinct from the tenets of ethical or religious value systems because they allow claimants to pursue their grievances and seek restitution. All facets of existence are protected by human rights. Their participation empowers both sexes to take charge of their own lives in a manner that upholds equality, liberty, and human dignity. Human rights include the collective rights of peoples to self-determination, equality, development, peace, and a healthy environment. They also include civil and political rights, social, economic, and cultural rights. The notion of human rights has become the most contentious topic since the term is open to many different interpretations.

The notion is defined by several philosophers and intellectuals according to their own perspectives. Human rights, for instance, are seen by Joel Feiberg as "moral claims based on primary human needs." Human rights are described as "universal, irrevocable elements in the administration of justice" by Tiber Macham. Human rights are "fundamental, basic, natural or common rights," [1], [2].

But according to law, human rights are "the sum of individual and collective rights recognised by sovereign States and enshrined in their constitutions and in international law." Let's examine two further definitions in addition to this one. One is provided by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), which was published in 1948, while the other expresses the opinion of Indian legal professors. Human rights are described in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as "rights derived from the inherent dignity of the human person." When these rights are protected by a written constitution, they are referred to as "Fundamental Rights" since a written constitution is the basic law of the state.

Human rights, according to Durga Das Basu, are the fundamental legal protections that each and every person is entitled to against the State or other public authorities just by virtue of being a part of the human race. The Protection of Human Rights Act of 1993, which applies exclusively to India, defines human rights as "the rights relating to life, liberty, equality and dignity of the individual guaranteed by the Constitution or embodied in the International Covenants and enforceable by courts in India." As far as the Indian Constitution is concerned, only the rights listed in Part III are enforceable.

Human Rights Principles or Characteristics

Human rights are often regarded to be the liberties that every person is born with. The idea of human rights recognises that every single person has the right to exercise such rights without restriction based on their race, colour, sex, language, religion, political opinion, country origin, socioeconomic position, or other characteristics. Human rights law provides legal protection for people and organisations against acts that violate basic freedoms and human dignity. They are outlined in treaties, sets of principles, customary international law, and other legal texts. Human rights legislation requires States to behave in a certain manner and forbids States from carrying out a number of certain actions. Human rights are not, however, established by legislation. Human rights are inalienable privileges that every individual is entitled to just by virtue of being a human. In general, treaties and other legal instruments help to legally safeguard people's rights against government acts that restrict their ability to exercise their human rights. You will learn about some of the most significant human rights concepts in the sections that follow.

Universal and inalienable human rights

Human rights are universal because they are founded on the inherent worth of every person, regardless of their colour, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, nationality, or any other distinguishing features. They apply equally and indiscriminately to everyone and are the same everywhere since they are recognised by all States and peoples. Human rights' universality has sometimes been questioned on the grounds that they are a Western idea and a component of the global neocolonial mindset. The deep aspirations behind human rights are consistent with concepts, such as justice, an individual's integrity and dignity, freedom from oppression and persecution, and individual participation in collective endeavours, according to a 1968 study by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). These concepts are present in all civilizations and historical periods. The majority of countries, representing the complete range of cultural, religious, and political traditions, have approved and ratified the key international human rights treaties today,

demonstrating the universality of human rights. Except in certain circumstances, no one may have their human rights violated. For instance, a person's right to freedom may be limited if they are found guilty of a crime by a court of law[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Human rights are universal, interconnected, and reliant on one another. Human rights are interconnected and indivisible. Each human right is dependent upon and involves other rights, thus when one of these rights is violated, it has an impact on how those other rights may be exercised. For instance, respect for the right to food and a sufficient level of living is a need for the right to life. The right to vote entails the ability to get a fundamental education. Freedom of speech, of assembly, and of association are prerequisites for the defending of economic and social rights. Economic, social, and cultural rights, in addition to civil and political rights, are thus complementary and equally crucial to preserving each individual's integrity and sense of worth. For peace and progress to last, all rights must be respected. At the 1993 Vienna World Conference on Human Rights, the international community reaffirmed the human rights concept as a whole. All human rights are indivisible, universal, interdependent, and tied to one another. The international community must regard human rights equally, fairly, and with the same focus across the world. It is the responsibility of States, regardless of their political, economic, and cultural systems, to promote and safeguard all human rights and basic freedoms, but also keeping in mind the relevance of national and regional particularities and varied historical, cultural, and religious backgrounds.

The Non-Discrimination Principle

Discrimination against certain groups has led to some of the worst abuses of human rights. Human rights are thus fundamentally based on the right to equality and the concept of non-discrimination, which are expressly stated in international and regional human rights treaties. The obligation to uphold human rights without discrimination on any grounds, including sex, race, colour, language, religion, political opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, membership in a national minority, property, birth, age, disability, sexual orientation, and social or other status, is a requirement of the right to equality. These traits are often the basis of the discriminating standards employed by States and non-State actors to deny certain groups the opportunity to fully exercise all or partial human rights. At the same time, it should be clear that not all differences amount to discrimination. It may be justified to make differences in fact or law based on rational and impartial standards. The onus of evidence is with the governments, who must demonstrate that any differences made are in fact justifiable and impartial.

The tenets of equality, universality, and non-discrimination do not prohibit the acceptance of the idea that some groups, the members of which need special protection, should also have access to special rights. This explains the large number of human rights laws created specifically to safeguard the rights of marginalised groups, including women, immigrants, stateless people, refugees, displaced people, minorities, indigenous peoples, children, and people with disabilities. However, group-specific human rights may only be supported by unique (objective) factors, such as the group's vulnerability or a history of discrimination against it, in order to be consistent with the concept of universality. If not, such privileges might be seen to be forms of discrimination against other groups. In addition, interim special measures like preferential treatment, targeted recruiting, and quotas may be deemed required to address the long-term impacts of prior discrimination.

Engagement and Inclusion

Everyone has the right to take part in decision-making processes that have an impact on their lives and well-being as well as access information about such procedures. Communities, civil society, minorities, women, young people, indigenous peoples, and other designated groups must actively participate in rights-based initiatives.

Human rights include both obligations and rights. Human rights include both duties and rights. Under international law, states are obligated to respect, defend, and uphold human rights. States are required to respect human rights by abstaining from interfering with or restricting the exercise of such rights. States are required under the duty to protect to defend persons and organisations against violations of human rights. States must take proactive measures to make it easier for people to exercise their fundamental human rights in order to satisfy their commitment. While we all have the right to exercise our human rights, we should also respect those of others.

A Development of The Idea

Human rights have been developed over a lengthy period of time via philosophical, political, legal, and social contemplation that is inextricably linked to social-democratic traditions. Since its inception in antiquity, the idea of human rights has travelled a long and difficult path. When the issue of the existence, maintenance, and perpetuation of the human species on Earth, the mutual cooperation, and the assertion of human ideas and general values, arose hard before humanity, this conception, which had previously been the political platform of the bourgeois revolutions, took on a new dimension.

The concepts and ideas of great thinkers throughout history, including Aristotle, Cicero, Grotius, Locke, Kant, Montesquieu, and eminent jurists, were reflected in numerous documents with institutional character that emphasised a well-considered conception of human rights and liberties, and much later, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which was adopted on December 10th, 1948 by the General Assembly of the United Nations Organisation, was established for the first time in history. The following paragraphs will explore how granting and upholding human rights has become a prerequisite for the functioning of the rule of law and for its admittance as a democratic state on the international stage[5], [6].

Human rights are a modern phenomenon that has its roots in antiquity. Human rights are a phenomenon in law that has its roots in the natural law concept, which is based on the premise that people everywhere have rights that come before and come before those that are granted by society and recognised by natural law. Natural law is the benchmark of higher-order morality against which all other laws are measured, and it has dominated Western political thinking for centuries. The idea that there is a natural moral code based on the recognition of certain basic and objectively verifiable human benefits forms the cornerstone of the natural law concept. One had to make an argument for the higher authority of God or natural law in order to challenge the unfairness of human-made law. The first mentions of this natural rule, however, date back to the early ages.

In his "Politics" treatise, Aristotle was the first to propose the concept of natural law. The Christian philosophers of the Middle Ages also tried to develop ideas about the condition of human equality starting from the Decalogue with the 10 commands, announcing in this way the fundamental individual rights characteristic for any human being. He says: "A person becomes slave or free only by law, human beings do not at all differ by the nature of mankind." The person is at the core of a just social and legal system, but the divine law takes

priority over the human law, according to Thomas Aquinas' doctrine. In his writings, he mentions that the Christian Church even established a hierarchy of different legal sources, giving priority to the divine law, placing the natural law in second place, and placing positive law only in the third position. Positive law only appears in this hierarchy after the primary (divine) and secondary (natural) legal sources, and it is nothing more than a set of socially accepted norms.

Hugo Grotius, the father of natural law science, and other proponents of the school of natural law in the 17th century demonstrated to modern society that man is by nature a sociable being who wishes to live peacefully with his fellows and is capable of deciding for himself what is good or bad for society. Natural rights eventually replaced the idea of natural law, reflecting a movement in focus from society to the individual. Natural rights allowed people to challenge the government while natural law served as a foundation for restraint of excessive governmental authority over society. This contemporary understanding of rights has its roots in the political thought of the Enlightenment and the drive to construct constrained kinds of representative democracy that would uphold the freedom of individual people, which was predominantly in England, France, and the United States.

The most famous proponent of this view was the philosopher John Locke, who in his *Second Treatise on Government* (1690), which was written before society was formed, envisioned a "state of nature" in which people managed their own affairs and protected their own interests. Each individual in this state was endowed with a set of natural rights, such as the right to life, liberty, and property. According to Locke, when people joined together in social groupings, their primary goal was to better effectively protect these rights. As a result, they granted "only the right to enforce these natural rights and not the rights themselves" to the governments they founded.

Locke's theory, often known as classical liberalism, contributed to a shift in how people see themselves, their governments, and the rights that unite them. Immanuel Kant, a German philosopher from the eighteenth century, also offers such an explanation. Many of the key ideas that Kant initially articulated in his moral philosophy are still heavily present in today's philosophical defences of human rights. The principles of equality and the moral autonomy of reasoned humans rank highest among them. Kant endows the ideal of a potentially global community of morally responsible persons making moral judgements on their own to provide the conditions for equality and autonomy on modern human rights theory. Kant offers a way to defend human rights as the foundation for self-determination based on the legitimacy of human reason. As opposed to, say, appealing to the idea of substantive human goods, Kant's moral philosophy is founded on an appeal to the formal rules of ethics. For Kant, the identification of any such goods does not provide the final method for establishing the right goals, or object, of human reason since it can only follow from a valid determination of the formal qualities of human reason[7], [8].

The overall Enlightenment movement, which was started in the 17th and 18th Centuries and whose repercussions were to be felt across the world and throughout the following centuries, has come to be identified with the intellectual views upheld by figures like Locke and Kant. Natural rights, moral autonomy, human dignity, and equality served as the normative foundation for attempts to reconstitute political systems, toppling previously despotic regimes in favour of authorities that could uphold and advance these new emancipatory ideals. These ideas sparked important, specific political revolutions during the 18th century and were later codified in writings like the French National Assembly's Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen and the United States Declaration of Independence. The issues of human rights were also addressed by a number of scholars in the 18th century, including J.J. Antoine and

Ch.L. by de Montesquieu. Laws, in the broadest sense, are required reports deriving from the nature of things, and in this sense, all works have their own laws.

This definition of law is provided by Montesquieu right at the beginning of his book, on the spirit of laws. However, beginning at the end of the 18th century, the issue of human rights passes to a new phase of development devotion of rights, even later, in international documents and became what we all admit today the contemporary system of international law of human fundamental rights and liberties. The problem of fundamental human rights and liberties is still a constant preoccupation of the great philosophers in the following decades.

Evolution of the legal tools for defending human rights

No free man could be arrested, imprisoned or deprived of his goods, declared against the law, exiled or injured in any matter," the Magna Carta Libertatum, which was issued in England by King John of England in 1215, states. "We will not be against him or send anyone against him without a loyal judgement of his equals or in conformity with the law of the country." the Petition of Rights on February 13, 1628, Habeas Corpus Act on May 26, 1679, and the Bill of Rights on February 13, 1689, "by which the parliamentary system of Great Britain, the right to free elections, the free press, and other fundamental liberties are guaranteed," are three significant documents pertaining to human rights that were published in England during this time period. It stated that "all people are born equal, free, and independent; they have inherent rights they cannot be deprived of or dispossessed of by any contract, when having social relations, meaning the right to enjoy life and freedom, with the possibility of purchasing and possessing goods, and the right to search for and obtain happiness." The Declaration of Rights from the state of Virginia was adopted on June 12, 1776, in the United States of America.

The UDHR is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Since the Second World War, the United Nations has taken a leading role in defining and advancing human rights, which up until that point had developed primarily within the nation-state. It played a crucial role in the codification of various international and regional treaties and instruments beginning with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), which was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 10th December 1948 and was explicitly motivated to prevent the future occupancies of the rights of others. From 1948, when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted and proclaimed, until 1976, when the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), entered into force the Universal Declaration stood alone as the international standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations. Today, the Universal Declaration, along with these two Covenants make-up the International Bill of Rights. Nearly all international human rights instruments adopted by the United Nations bodies since 1948 elaborate principles set out in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

The ICCPR states in its preamble "in accordance with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the ideal of free human beings enjoying freedom from fear and want can only be achieved if conditions are created whereby everyone may enjoy his or her economic, social and cultural rights, as well as his or her civil and political rights". The coming into force of the Covenants, by which State parties accepted legal as well as the moral obligation to promote and protect human rights and fundamental freedoms, has not diminished the widespread influence of the Universal Declaration[9], [10].

The 1984 Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment and the General Assembly's 1981 proclamation on the elimination of all forms of intolerance and of discrimination based on religion or belief both clearly define the nature

and scope of the principles of non-discrimination and equality, which have been incorporated into a number of significant international conventions and treaties. Judges of the International Court of Justice have invoked principles contained in the International Bill of Human Rights as a basis for their decisions. The Universal Declaration has informed the constitutions of nation-states. Its principles have been included or adopted by the Council of Europe, the Organisation of African Unity, and the American Convention on Human Rights, at Costa Rica, in 1969.

The Universal Declaration has come to be regarded as a historic document articulating a common definition of human dignity and values. In 1968, at the International Conference on Human Rights in Teheran, it was once again declared "a common understanding of the peoples of the world concerning the inalienable and inviolable rights of all members of the human family and constitutes an obligation for the members of the international community.

As you have studied so far, while the contemporary doctrine of Human Rights is highly indebted to the concept of natural rights for its origin, it may be remembered that it is not a mere expression of that concept but actually gone much beyond it in some highly significant respects. Scholars like James Nickel identify three specific ways in which the contemporary concept of human rights goes beyond that of natural rights.

Firstly, unlike the advocates of natural rights who believed in the refrain of the state from interfering in individual lives, contemporary human rights are far more concerned to view the realization of equality as requiring positive action by the state through the provision of welfare assistance. Secondly, while advocates of natural rights tended to conceive of human beings as mere individuals, veritable 'islands unto themselves', the advocacy of contemporary human rights is far more willing to recognize the importance of family and community in individuals' lives. Thirdly, contemporary concept of human rights is far more 'internationalist' in scope and orientation than it was typically found within arguments in support of natural rights. Essentially owing to this progress the protection and promotion of human rights in the contemporary times is increasingly seen as requiring international action and concern.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the idea of human rights and how they have developed show the extraordinary path taken by mankind in its pursuit of justice, equality, and dignity. The course of history demonstrates the ongoing battle to create and defend rights that cut beyond cultural, social, and political borders.

The development of human rights indicates a universal awareness of the underlying ideas that support each person's intrinsic value, from prehistoric philosophical speculations to modern international accords.

The idea of human rights serves as a compass for developing collaboration, comprehension, and empathy among varied groups as we navigate an increasingly linked globe. It underlines the need for governments, institutions, and people to uphold and defend everyone's rights in order to create a society where justice and respect are the norm. To create a more just and inclusive global society for future generations, it is imperative to maintain constant awareness, communication, and cooperation in light of the changing landscape of human rights.

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CHAPTER 2

UNDERLYING IDEAS AND IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN RIGHTS

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ABSTRACT:

The underlying ideas and importance of human rights are briefly summarized in this abstract. It examines the historical development of the human rights discourse and its present significance, including the ethical, legal, and sociological components. The abstract sheds light on the difficulties and controversies surrounding human rights by addressing the conflict between universality and cultural variation. It draws attention to how human rights provide a framework for tackling social problems and advancing justice while also admitting the difficulty in interpreting and putting them into practice in a multifaceted society. In the end, this summary summarizes the key ideas related to human rights, laying the groundwork for a thorough investigation of this important subject. Additionally, the conversation around human rights is not just limited to legal or intellectual discourse. It crosses over into social action and serves as a potent weapon for promoting equity, accountability, and justice. For both people and organizations, the language of human rights has made it possible to speak out against injustice, discrimination, and structural inequality. The dynamic interaction between theory and practice emphasizes how human rights have the power to positively influence society.

KEYWORDS:

Ethics, Human Rights, Justice, Political, Society.

INTRODUCTION

Human rights are a collection of standards that regulate how people and groups are treated by governments and non-state entities based on moral precepts pertaining to what society deems essential to a decent living. These standards are included in national and international legal frameworks, which define the steps to be taken to hold duty-bearers responsible and provide compensation to those who may have been the victims of human rights breaches. This essay will examine the tensions between human rights and state sovereignty, the challenges to the universality of human rights, the list of rights recognized by the international community, and the tools available to translate the lofty aspirations of human rights into practice after a brief discussion of the use of human rights in ethical, legal, and advocacy discourse and some historical background of the concept of human rights.

Human rights in social activity, law and ethics

There are many theoretical disagreements in political science, moral philosophy, and law on the beginnings, extent, and importance of human rights. Generally speaking, referring to "human rights" (also known as "human rights discourse" or "human rights talk") is based on moral considerations (legal/political discourse), socially sanctioned standards (ethical discourse), or social mobilisation (advocacy discourse).

In various situations, depending on who is using human rights discourse, to whom they are expressing their claims, and what they want to achieve, these three categories of speech are by no means complementary or sequential. The public reasoning based on ethical arguments

and social mobilisation based on advocacy agendas have an impact on legal norms, procedures, and institutions. As a result, all three modes of discourse help make human rights a part of social reality[1], [2].

Human rights as moral considerations

Human rights have a similar ethical concern for fair treatment, which is based on ethical principles such as empathy or compassion in human behavior as well as philosophical ideas of justice. Human rights can be seen as primarily ethical demands. Like other ethical claims that demand acceptance, there is an implicit presumption in making pronouncements on human rights that the underlying ethical claims will survive open and informed scrutiny. In moral reasoning, the expression "human rights" is frequently not distinguished from the more general concept of "rights," although in law a "right" refers to an ethical claim. Natural law, the social compact, justice as fairness, consequentialism, and other theories of justice may all be used to support the moral foundation of a right. A right is seen as an entitlement of people in all of these philosophical traditions, either because they are people or because they are citizens, or both. Law, on the other hand, defines a right as any legally protected interest, regardless of the social impact the exercise of a right may have on the welfare of people other than the right-holder (for example, the property right of a landlord to evict a tenant or the right of a firm to make profits). To avoid confusion, it is helpful to refer to a higher-order right that is authoritatively defined, carries the expectation that it has a peremptory character and thus prevails over other (ordinary) rights, and reflects the fundamental values of the society adopting it by using the term "human right" or its equivalent such as "fundamental right," "basic freedom," or "constitutional right".

What one is prepared to recognise as legitimately a human right is determined by their moral and religious beliefs. Similar to how they were in the past when discussing slavery and inequalities based on class, gender, or ethnicity, these concepts are often brought up in discussions about contemporary topics like abortion, same-sex marriage, the death penalty, and migration. The significance of the person was drawn by Enlightenment thinkers from their conceptions of the condition of nature. Social contractarians, particularly Jean-Jacques Rousseau, based the legitimacy of the state on its ability to ensure that natural rights, or rights that are inherent in every person regardless of birth or station, be fully enjoyed. Equally significant was the idea of the universalized individual ("the rights of Man"), which was reflected in the political thinking of Immanuel Kant, John Locke, Thomas Paine, and the signers of the American Declaration of Independence. He wrote that "it is plainly contrary to the law of nature...that the privileged few should gorge themselves with superfluities, while the starving multitude are in need of the bare necessities of life." For the West, the Enlightenment signifies the acceptance of the scientific method and the corresponding trust in human development, as well as the definition of human rights, which define the freedom and equality on which contemporary governments have since been assessed for their legitimacy. Karl Marx and a large portion of socialist thought challenged the "bourgeois" nature of a constrained understanding of individual human rights and placed an emphasis on group interests and egalitarian principles.

Human flourishing, dignity, obligations to family and community, natural rights, individual freedom, and social justice against exploitation based on sex, class, or caste have all been used to describe the ethical foundation of human rights. These moral justifications for human rights are all a part of ethical discussion. Since the dawn of the modern era, the philosophical and political ambiguity of human rights has included the conflict between political liberalism and democratic egalitarianism, between Locke and Rousseau, between liberty and equality, between civil and political rights and economic, social, and cultural rights. It is debatable

whether human rights rhetoric is fundamentally ethical and philosophical or, alternatively, fundamentally legal and political. Sen asserts that, "Even though human rights can, and often do, inspire legislation, this is a further fact, rather than a constitutive characteristic of human rights"³—implying that the idea of human rights has intrinsic worth, apart from what is enshrined in law. Legal positivists disagree and hold that human rights are not declared by law, but rather are established by it[3], [4].

Legal protections for human rights (tradition of positive law)

By formal norm-creating process, we mean an authoritative statement of the laws that govern a society (national or international). This is how "legal positivists" see human rights. While "natural rights" are unalienable, unchangeable, and absolute because they come from the natural order or from divine origin, "positive law" rights are recognised via a political and legal process that ends in a proclamation, legislation, treaty, or other normative document. Rather than establishing a rigid norm, they may change over time and be subject to exceptions or restrictions intended to maximise respect for human rights. When an authority body declares them to be part of the social order, they become more universal since almost every country participates in the process of generating norms, which is based on the law but takes into account compromise and historical changes. Consider the moral and legal validity of sexual and racial prejudice, enslavement, and torture over the majority of human history. Consequently, the results of what has withstood "open and informed scrutiny" (to use Sen's phrase) are frequently found not in journals and seminars on ethics and normative theory but rather at the conclusion of the political or legislative process leading to the adoption of laws and treaties relating to human rights, such as the relatively recent abolition of slavery, torture, and discrimination based on race or sex.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948 and two legally-binding treaties that were made available for signature in 1966, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights, collectively known as the "International Bill of Human Rights," serve as the main sources and points of reference for what is said about human rights.

DISCUSSION

Human rights often arise from complaints of individuals experiencing injustice before they are codified into legal documents. As a result, they are moral sentiments that are culturally defined by contextualised moral and religious belief systems. It has always been customary to rebel against oppression. Emile Zola's renowned "J'Accuse" essay, which was written in reaction to Captain Dreyfus' unfair accusation of being a German spy in 1894, is seen as a contemporary predecessor of societal mobilisation for human rights at the national level.", an ardent call to action that resulted in the founding of the Ligue française des droits de l'homme in 1897 and numerous other leagues of a similar nature. These leagues were federated into the International Federation of Leagues for the Rights of Man (now the International Federation for Human Rights) in 1922, and the International League for the Rights of Man, the US counterpart of which was founded in 1942 and is now active in New York as the International League for Human Rights. The more successful non-governmental organisations (NGOs) were Amnesty International (1961), the Moscow Human Rights Committee (1970), and Helsinki Watch. In the 1980s and 1990s, an incredible variety of human rights organizations were founded in Latin America, Africa, and Asia, and these organisations have multiplied since the Cold War ended. These NGOs were created as social movements in opposition to slavery, the caste system, colonialism, apartheid, and predatory globalisation, as well as indignation over the abuse of prisoners, labour exploitation, exclusion of women, children,

and people with disabilities. These social reform initiatives often use human rights as the cornerstone of their advocacy. They take action to change the theory and the legal formulations if the prevalent moral philosophies or the current human rights laws do not answer their concerns. In the second half of the 20th century, new norms regarding the self-determination of peoples, the prevention and punishment of torture, the protection of vulnerable groups, and, more recently, the equal treatment of sexual minorities emerged as a result of such social mobilisation. NGOs not only helped draught the UDHR but also helped abolish Apartheid,⁴ change the political and legal structure of East-Central Europe,⁵ and restore democracy in Latin America.

This advocacy discourse's appeal to human rights is just as valid as that of the legal and philosophical schools of thought, and it often serves as their model. Sen says it best when he says, the invoking of human rights tends to come mostly from those who are concerned with changing the world rather than interpreting it. The colossal appeal of the idea of human rights has provided comfort to those suffering] intense oppression or great misery, without having to wait for the theoretical air to clear[5], [6].

When he discovered that there was "room for optimism on two grounds," former British ambassador and law professor Philip Allott highlighted the transformational potential of human rights. (1) Once the concept of human rights has been considered, it cannot be abandoned. It won't be replaced until another concept emerges that both incorporates and outperforms it. He continues, "The idea of human rights should intimidate governments or it is worthless. (2) There are tenacious individuals and non-statal societies whose activity on behalf of the idea of human rights is not part of international relations but is part of a new process of international reality-forming. In conclusion, social movements that are motivated by human rights not only improve the notion of human rights but also help to change international society. If the idea of human rights reassures governments, it is worse than nothing.

Historical Turning Points

One may view the historical background of human rights from many different angles. I'll highlight four approaches to the history of human rights at the risk of oversimplifying. The first method links the deeper roots of compassion, altruism, justice, human value, and respect for all life to ancient religious and philosophical ideas found in Hinduism, Judaism, Buddhism, Confucianism, Christianity, and Islam. The ancient laws of Hammurabi in Babylon (about 1772 BCE), the Charter of Cyrus the Great in Persia (around 535 BCE), the edicts of Ashoka in India (around 250 BCE), and the norms and practises of pre-colonial Africa and pre-Columbian America all have human rights declaration precursors.

Others link the development of modern human rights to the development of natural law theories in Ancient Greece and Rome and Christian theology in the Middle Ages, which culminated in revolts in Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries, philosophers of the Enlightenment, and the Declarations that sparked the French and American revolutions, combined with the 19th-century abolitionist, workers' rights, and women's suffrage movements. A third trend is to trace the history of human rights to their inclusion in the United Nations Charter in 1945 as a response to the Holocaust, drawing on President Roosevelt's Four Freedoms as well as the influence of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights on later national constitutions, foreign policies, and international treaties and declarations. A fourth perspective is the relatively new revisionist history, which sees human rights as unimportant in the immediate post-World War II period and only important as a movement that started in the 1970s as a counter to the dominant ideologies. The

Enlightenment, the transformative impact of the French and American Revolutions of the 18th century, and the liberation of oppressed people from slavery and colonial domination in the 19th and 20th centuries are all cited as the foundations of modern human rights theory and practise, particularly in Europe and North America. In a piece titled "The Revolutionary Origins of Human Rights," Lynn Hunt states the following.

Most considerations of rights date back to the eighteenth century, and nowhere were these arguments more open, contentious, or significant than in revolutionary France in the 1790s. The majority of basic problems regarding rights that were addressed at the time were still pertinent throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen of 1789 served as the inspiration for the UN Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, with the word "human" replacing the more ambiguous "Man" throughout. Jürgen Habermas observed that the French Revolution broke with the past, creating "a new mentality, which was shaped by a new time consciousness, a new concept of political practise, and a new notion of legitimization". Although it took more than a century after the French Revolution for this new mentality to include women and slaves, the awareness that the "rights of man" should extend to all humans should have existed at the time. The determination of rights and obligations previously on the basis of hierarchy and position was broken by the value of every person via natural rights. In the 19th century, when capitalism and the industrial revolution revolutionised the world economy and produced enormous riches at the cost of colonised peoples and downtrodden workers, ideas of human development and human rights evolved. The advancement of human rights in Western nations was mostly for affluent males. Since the 19th century, advancements have been made in the human rights of ex-colonialized peoples, women, marginalised minorities, and workers; however, there is still a gap between the theory that everyone has the same set of human rights and the reality of inequality and discrimination[7], [8].

The Second World War served as a turning point in the expansion of human rights internationally. In 1940, H.G. Wells' *The Rights of Man or what We Fighting are for* was written by Wells. In his 1941 State of the Union address, Roosevelt proclaimed the "four freedoms" (freedoms of speech, worship, and from want and fear); in 1945, the UN Charter established an obligation for all members to respect and uphold human rights; in 1946, the Nuremberg Code codified these principles; and in 1945–1946, 24 of the most notorious criminals were tried at the Nuremberg Trials. Each of these World War II-related incidents has had a significant impact on modern human rights. The Genocide Convention and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights were both passed in 1948, followed by the Geneva Conventions on the protection of war victims in 1949, the International Covenants on Human Rights in 1966, and a plethora of other UN and regional human rights documents on topics like torture, children's rights, minorities' rights, discrimination against women, and disability rights. Following the Cold War's pause, individual criminal culpability for widespread human rights atrocities reappeared in the ad hoc tribunals on Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia, and ultimately in the International Criminal Court.

We need to ask (A) why governments accept the concept of human rights duties at all given that they are meant to be sovereign and can, therefore, do whatever they want within their territory in order to comprehend how human rights are part of the global agenda. Next, we'll look at (B) the list of recognised human rights in the present, after which we'll ask (C) whether these rights are consistent with universally held principles or are being imposed from without for ideological purposes. Finally, we will look at (D) and how they go from being spoken to being done, from being an ambition to a reality.

A state's decision to establish, interpret, and enforce its laws within its territorial jurisdiction cannot be interfered with by another state or an international organisation, according to the principle of state sovereignty. Does the rule that states should not interfere with their own affairs give them *carte blanche* to violate human rights? States that joined the UN have vowed to uphold the principle of non-intervention as well as "to take joint and separate action in co-operation with the Organisation for the achievement of the purposes set forth in Article 55," which include promoting "universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion."

Thus, state sovereignty is balanced with the international community's justifiable concern for the protection of human rights in all nations. Different theories of international relations have different interpretations of that balance. Only weak nations are under any pressure to permit international scrutiny of their human rights record, according to realists (a school of thought that emphasises governments as autonomous and sovereign actors in international affairs, pursuing their national interests through the projection of economic, military, and political power, without constraints of any superior authority or global government). Even if the international system is still founded on state sovereignty, the liberal internationalist believes that global institutions and principles, such as human rights, are more important. Functionalism theories place a high value on gradual political federation, starting with social and economic cooperation, particularly through regional organisations. International organisations increasingly wield sovereign authority as these networks of interdependence expand. According to the constructivist theory of international relations, concepts like human rights form the global order, which in turn defines the goals and identities of nations. Thus, rather than national security, societal standards such as human rights can influence and eventually affect foreign policy. The concept of "responsible sovereignty," which holds that sovereignty is conditional upon the state's verifiable adherence to minimum human rights norms and capacity to protect its inhabitants, has replaced the idea of absolute sovereignty, according to Richard Falk and others. Among the objectives of the UN, "international co-operation...in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights" is listed in the charter.

These theories, which fall under the categories of realism, liberal internationalism, functionalism, and constructivism, are arranged along a continuum from state-centric approaches at one end (where national interests take precedence over any invocation of universal human rights) to cosmopolitanism at the other (where identification with and support for equal rights for all people should restrain state sovereignty). Regardless of their motivations, states have accepted obligations to uphold and advance human rights under the UN Charter and numerous human rights treaties. As a result, a regime has emerged in which respecting and advancing human rights has gradually become a part of accepted standards of state behaviour, functioning somewhat successfully in some areas and less so in others. It is helpful to look at the present set of accepted human rights standards in order to comprehend this phenomenon.

It is acceptable to utilise philosophical justifications or activist goals to argue that any global social issue is a human right, but it is also helpful to know which rights are formally acknowledged as such. The International Bill of Human Rights, which lists roughly fifty normative premises on which other human rights agreements have been developed, is the most trustworthy source for the fundamental principles of international human rights. Numerous regional and UN accords have broadened the scope of accepted human rights, notably in specialised areas such the protection of workers, refugees and displaced people, people with disabilities, and victims of armed conflict.

Five group rights, twenty-four civil and political rights, and fourteen economic, social, and cultural rights are listed in the International Bill of Human Rights. It also lays forth seven guiding principles for how the rights ought to be used and interpreted. The International Bill of Human Rights lists three rights for ethnic, religious, and linguistic minorities (namely, the rights to enjoy one's own culture, to practise one's own religion, and to use one's own language) in addition to the two rights of peoples (self-determination and permanent sovereignty over natural resources).

Five of the civil and political rights (the right to life, the right to be free from torture, the right to be free from slavery, the right to be free from arbitrary arrest or imprisonment, and the right to humane treatment while detained) are related to maintaining one's physical integrity. The freedom of movement and residence, the right not to have aliens expelled, the right to freedom of thought, conscience, and religion, the freedom of expression, and the right to privacy are the other five rights that pertain to a person's autonomy of thought and action. Four other rights—non-incarceration for debt; a fair trial, for which sixteen more rights are listed; the right to personhood under the law; and the right to equality before the law—concern the administration of justice. Six additional civil and political rights (freedom of assembly, freedom of association, right to wed and start a family, rights of children, right to practise a religion, and as an exception to free speech—the prohibition of war propaganda and hate speech that constitutes incitement) are related to participation in civil society. The four rights related to political participation—the right to hold public office, the right to vote in free elections, the right to be elected to office, and the right to equitable access to public employment—make up the final subset of these rights [9], [10].

Four worker rights—the right to earn a living through work that is freely chosen and accepted; the right to just and favourable working conditions; the right to form and participate in trade unions; and the right to strike—are among the economic, social, and cultural rights reaffirmed in the International Bill of Human Rights. Social security, aid to the family, women, and children, a decent standard of life, including food, clothing, and shelter, as well as the best possible state of physical and mental health, are the other four issues that relate to social protection. The six remaining rights are those pertaining to education and culture, including the right to education geared towards the full development of the human personality, the availability of other educational levels, participation in cultural life, protection of the moral and material rights of those who create and transmit culture, and the right to benefit from advances in science. The final seven principles of application and interpretation are: (1) gradual realization of ESCR states must take meaningful steps towards full realization of these rights; (2) immediate implementation of CPR (states have obligations to respect and ensure respect for these rights); (3) non-discrimination applied to all rights; (4) an effective remedy for violation of CPR; and (5) equality of rights between men and women. In addition, the International Bill states that (6) human rights may be subject to restrictions and exceptions and (7) the rights guaranteed by the Covenants may not be used as an excuse to reduce a standard that already exists if a higher one is mandated by national law. ESCR stands for economic, social, and cultural rights.

- The right to choose and accept work as a means of subsistence
- Right to fair and beneficial working conditions
- Right to establish and join unions
- Right of attack
- Security benefits
- Help for the family, mothers, and kids
- Adequate living conditions, including access to food, clothing, and housing

- Right to the best possible level of physical and mental well-being
- Right to education for the full personality development of people
- Primary school is both free and required.
- Additional educational levels are accessible
- Involvement in cultural life
- Protection of the moral and material rights of cultural producers and communicators

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the idea of human rights serves as a pillar for contemporary frameworks in ethics, law, and society. Human rights have developed into a global set of principles intended to protect the inherent dignity and value of every person via a complex interaction of historical development and modern implementation. This succinct introduction has offered a look into the complexity of human rights, exploring its philosophical roots, legal basis, and use in social activity. In summary, this overview of human rights provides a window into a complicated and multidimensional environment. It emphasizes the linkages between activism, law, and philosophy while highlighting the continual quest for a society that is fairer and just. In order to make the world a more equitable, inclusive, and compassionate environment for everyone, it is crucial to recognize the importance of these values in determining the trajectory of human history as the journey of human rights continues to be lived out.

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CHAPTER 3

UNIVERSAL HUMAN RIGHTS IN A DIVERSE WORLD

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ABSTRACT:

The idea of universal human rights serves as the cornerstone of international ethical and legal systems, striving to guarantee the inherent dignity and equal rights of every person. Economic, social, and cultural rights (ESCR) and civil and political rights (CPR) are two common categories for these rights, each with its own qualities and difficulties. But there are many complicated factors to take into account when these rights are actually put into practise in various communities. This essay examines how universal human rights are formed, upheld, and contextualised in the context of a multicultural society. A complex process, including norm generation and enforcement measures, goes into the establishment of universal human rights standards. The development of norms is influenced by authoritative decision-making, resulting in global standards and conventions that handle anything from gender equality to torture. Various international and regional organisations develop and interpret these standards, and topic experts and rapporteurs conduct investigations, provide suggestions, and hold states responsible for transgressions. Courts, including the International Criminal Court and local human rights tribunals, are essential in deciding cases and enforcing these standards via the legal system.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural, Development, Human Rights, Political, Society.

INTRODUCTION

Human rights have seen both successes and setbacks along the way. While there has been substantial progress in the acknowledgement of fundamental rights and liberties throughout time, difficulties resulting from cultural variety and varying interpretations still exist. Critical problems regarding the nature of rights and their applicability in various countries are raised by the conflict between cultural relativism and universality. Human rights are an important idea, but like with every important idea, there are obstacles in the way of its actualization. Between acknowledgment and successful implementation, there are often many challenges along the way, from political restrictions to insufficient funding. The fact that people, groups, and organisations continue to fight for human rights, however, is proof of their continuing significance. A third category of "solidarity rights" or "third generation rights" is occasionally mentioned in addition to the two standard categories of human rights (CPR and ESCR), which include the rights to development, a clean environment, and humanitarian assistance. 20 For instance, it is frequently asserted that CPR are absolute and unchanging, but ESCR are relative and adaptable to changing conditions.

Human rights are universal, yet there are cultural and contextual differences that must be taken into account. Recognising national and regional particularities allows for the integration of human rights within local contexts, addressing the conflict between universal principles and various cultural norms. The prevalent values, historical contexts, and religious

convictions of each community are taken into consideration in this contextualization. In addition, the study emphasises the crucial role of political oversight and humanitarian aid in defending human rights, especially in situations of governmental coercion and humanitarian emergencies. Debatable techniques for enforcement are sparked by the intricate interaction between universal rights and regional realities. Political pressure, "naming and shaming," and even coercive tactics may be successful, but they also force us to consider what role governments and international organisations should play in defending fundamental rights. This paper argues that while human rights standards offer a normative framework for change and provide avenues for advocacy, realizing them demands addressing not only political and economic structures but also deep-rooted cultural norms[1], [2].

In order to advance equality, dignity, and justice, universal human rights act as a worldwide moral compass. Their application in a varied environment, however, requires a careful balancing act between overarching ideas and local circumstances. The development of human rights in many communities is shaped by the interaction of norm formulation, enforcement mechanisms, political involvement, and cultural sensitivity. The significance of human rights as a guiding principle is crucial to tackling the global complexity of the twenty-first century as civilizations struggle with problems including poverty, discrimination, and environmental concerns.

Although they were all announced with the hope that they would have endured worth, in reality, they all came into being when social pressures were powerful enough to alter power dynamics and broaden the list. Think about how widespread and accepted slavery was for centuries, how women were regarded like chattel in many countries, and how political rights for women were only granted in the last century, to name a few. As a result, these CPR have not been enduring aspects of society. It is also argued that while ESCR should be implemented gradually, in accordance with available resources, since they require state expenditure (so-called "positive rights") and are not suitable for lawsuits ("non-justiciable"), CPR should be implemented by states immediately, may be enforced through judicial remedies, and are relatively cost-free since they merely require the state to leave people alone. This is generally true, but many ESCR have been made "justiciable" (meaning that individuals can file a lawsuit against the state if they feel that the right has not been upheld), and many CPR are not simply passively attained but require a significant investment of time and money (for instance, to train law enforcement personnel or create an independent judiciary).

Another factor that separates them from one another is that while denouncing violations is frequently thought to be appropriate for CPR, it should be avoided for ESCR in favour of a more cooperative approach that encourages governments to take all necessary steps to realise these rights. However, there are other instances where an accusing strategy for handling CPR is ineffective and where mentioning ESCR infractions is appropriate. Therefore, these two categories which the UN views as interconnected and equally important are not irrefutable, and the assumptions that they are fundamentally distinct may be called into question. More so than the characteristics of the theoretical concept of rights, the context determines how resources, institutions, and approaches should be used in practise.

Human rights, according to the idea that they are universal, are the same for everyone since they are a part of who we are as humans and come from nature as a result (hence the phrase "natural rights"). The American Declaration of Independence states that "all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights," and the French Declaration of 1789 speaks of the "natural, unalienable, and sacred rights of man," all of which are referred to as the "foundation of freedom, justice, and peace in the world" in the

UDHR. The formal endorsement of human rights by nearly all nations that have accepted the UDHR or ratified human rights treaties is another justification for asserting that they are universal. Human rights, according to cultural relativists, are based on values that are determined culturally and differ from society to society, as opposed to being universal. There are various variations on this claim. One is the so-called “Asian values” argument, according to which human rights is a Western idea, which is at odds with the way in which leaders in Asian societies provide for the needs of their people without making the individual supreme, prioritizing instead the value of societal harmony and the good of the collective. A related view holds that the concept of human rights is a tool of Western imperialism used to disguise political, economic and military ambitions of Western nations against those in the developing world. A third is the “clash of civilizations” argument that only the liberal West, among the roughly seven civilizations in the world, is capable of realizing human rights since the other civilizations lack sufficient sense of the individual and the rule of law. This issue of compatibility of human rights with diverse belief systems and religions has special geopolitical repercussions in relation to Islam, for see, for example, Bilahari Kim Hee P.S. Kausikan, “An East Asian Approach to Human Rights,” example, on which views are divided²⁵ and has been of considerable interest since the “Arab Spring” of 2011, in which both Islamic and human rights values motivated peoples across the Middle East and North Africa to overthrow deeply entrenched dictatorships, with very mixed results, and the emergence of extremist terrorist organizations claiming to act according to their interpretation of Islam[3], [4].

The overall issue of balancing universal and cultural demands was addressed by the World Conference on Human Rights with the following compromise language: All human rights are universal, indivisible, and interdependent and linked. The international community must regard human rights equally, fairly, and with the same focus throughout the world. It is the responsibility of States, regardless of their political, economic, and cultural systems, to promote and safeguard all human rights and fundamental freedoms, while also taking into account the significance of national and regional particularities and varied historical, cultural, and religious backgrounds. This phrase nevertheless highlights a key aspect of modern human rights, namely that they are universal but must be implemented within the framework of each society's dominant values. We need to look at the processes and procedures by which globally acknowledged human rights are put into practice in order to fully comprehend the problem that such contextualization offers.

DISCUSSION

The classic methods for studying human rights in a global setting are (1) norm-creating processes, which produce international human rights standards, and (2) norm-enforcing procedures, which aim to turn admirable objectives into real-world actions. There are also (3) ongoing and fresh obstacles to this normative regime's effectiveness.

How norms are created

The process of developing norms is the consequence of authoritative decision-making that establishes certain rights and duties in a community and specifies what is required to implement those rights. A representative expressing concern about a social problem at a meeting of a political body and pushing for co-sponsors to a resolution that is ultimately accepted by that body are typical first steps in the process of adopting an international human rights standard. Once the matter is on the agenda, a political body may then commission a study, which finally results in the creation of a declaration, followed by the writing of a convention, which must be approved in order to take effect, and which may then be followed

by the approval of an optional protocol including complaint processes. All of the significant human rights concerns, including torture, women's rights, racial discrimination, missing persons cases, and the rights of children and people with disabilities, through these periods, which lasted for 10 to thirty years or more. Because of the International Bill of Human Rights and the subsequent influx of several hundred international and regional accords, the corpus of human rights standards has significantly grown since then. Other treaties that address crimes against humanity, such as war crimes and genocide, have mandated that those responsible be prosecuted in court.

There must be action done to guarantee that human rights are protected, promoted, and realised; just defining them is not sufficient. In the domestic legal system, the courts and the police use force to enforce the law's binding nature. The way that law is seen under the international human rights framework differs somewhat. For instance, the phrase "enforcement" relates to compelled compliance, which is uncommon, while most efforts concentrate on "implementation," which refers to a broad variety of supervision, monitoring, and general attempts to keep duty-holders responsible. Promotion (also known as preventative actions that aim to guarantee future respect for human rights) and protection (also known as responses to violations that have already happened or are now occurring) are additional divisions of implementation. The means and techniques of implementation may be categorised into three types of promotion and five types of protection.

By raising awareness, adopting and interpreting standards, and establishing national institutions, human rights are promoted. The transmission of knowledge (via publications, information campaigns, etc.) and human rights education at all levels enhance awareness of human rights, which is a prerequisite to enforcing them. The UN Commission on Human Rights, which was founded in 1946, played a key role in standard-setting and the development of human rights documents in the second category. The Human Rights Council took its position as the primary standard-setter in 2006, replacing the Commission. Other UN bodies, including the Commission on the Status of Women, UN Specialised Agencies (like the International Labour Organisation and UNESCO), as well as regional organisations (the Council of Europe, the Organisation of American States, the African Union, the League of Arab States, and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations), adopt and oversee other international human rights documents. The third preventative or promotion method of implementation is national institution building, which entails enhancing judicial and law enforcement structures as well as establishing specialised organisations such as national commissioners for human rights and offices of an ombudsman[5], [6].

A complex network of national and international institutions work together to preserve human rights by keeping an eye on, judging, pressuring, and coercing nations while also offering victims' aid. The reporting and complaint processes of the UN treaty organisations, regional human rights commissions, and courts are used to keep track of conformity with international norms. States are obligated to submit reports, and the monitoring body reviews them after receiving information from NGOs. It looks at issues and progress with the goal of helping the reporting nation improve. Irrespective of whether a treaty has been ratified, the Human Rights Council also conducts a Universal Periodic Review (UPR) of every nation. These bodies may be petitioned for a finding of infractions via a number of optional methods, which may sometimes accept requests from other states. The quasi-judicial authorities (such as the Human Rights Committee or the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights) use a variety of methods for gathering information and conducting investigations before releasing their findings and recommendations so that governments may take appropriate measures to uphold their human rights duties.

"Special procedures" refer to UN working groups, impartial experts, special rapporteurs, or representatives tasked with researching nations or issues, including taking on cases of alleged violations, visiting nations and institutions, reporting back on their findings, and requesting compensation from governments. Toxic waste, forced disappearances, summary executions, torture, and the rights to health, appropriate food, and shelter are just a few of the topics that the "thematic" rapporteurs are expressly required to research. The number of "thematic mandates" as of 2015 was about 41. In addition, there were 14 "country mandates" for Belarus, Cambodia, Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Eritrea, Haiti, Islamic Republic of Iran, Mali, Myanmar, Palestinian Territories, Somalia, Sudan, and Syrian Arab Republic.

The second means of protection is the adjudication of cases by fully empowered courts. The main international ones are the International Court of Justice (which only decides cases between states that agree to submit their dispute to the Court), the International Criminal Court (which can try individuals for genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes, and the crime of aggression), as well as the regional courts, namely the European Court of Human Rights (open to individuals) and the International Criminal Court (which can try individuals for genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes).

Political supervision refers to the deeds of powerful bodies made up of representatives of states, including resolutions critiquing the laws and customs of states. The Assembly of the Organization of American States, the UN Human Rights Council, the UN General Assembly, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, and the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe all adopted politically significant resolutions condemning governments for violating human rights and demanding that they make amends, often by paying compensation to the victims. Following up on their investigations, parliamentary commissions, national human rights commissions, as well as national and international NGOs, make strong, politically important requests for reform. This type of punishment might seem ineffective because it lacks coercive force, but in reality, many governments take the recommendations made by these organisations seriously and go to great lengths to avoid political "naming and shaming," among other things by enhancing their human rights record.

Humanitarian help or assistance is the seventh strategy for combating breaches of human rights. People who are relocated forcefully, sometimes as a consequence of widespread human rights abuses, benefit greatly from the provision of food, shelter, blankets, tents, medical care, sanitary help, and other sorts of relief. The UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), along with the International Committee of the Red Cross, the International Organisation for Migration, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the World Food Programme (WFP), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), and other organisations, provides protection for refugees and internally displaced people[7].

The UN Security Council is the only body with the authority to use coercion. It can do so by using its authority granted by Chapter VII of the UN Charter to impose sanctions, block communications, establish temporary criminal courts, permit the use of force by member states, or even send in UN troops, to end a threat to international peace and security, which it has occasionally interpreted to include human rights violations. Use of Chapter VII included taking into account human rights issues in places including Iraq, Bosnia, Somalia, Haiti, and Cambodia. As was the case with the 1990s' sanctions on Haiti and Iraq, this strenuous method of defending human rights is complicated and may have negative health effects. If used properly, Chapter VII action can serve as the foundation for enforcing the "Responsibility to Protect," a doctrine that was reaffirmed at the 2005 UN Summit and affirms the international

community's responsibility to prevent and end genocides, war crimes, ethnic cleansing, and crimes against humanity when a national government fails to do so. It is not sufficient to eradicate the root causes of human rights violations to adopt standards and put accountability systems into place. The most significant barriers to the effectiveness of human rights at the international level are the reliance on the state to take responsibility for changing its behaviour, structural problems with the global economy that favour profit maximisation in ways that human rights machinery has little or no influence over, and cultural conditions based on patriarchy, class, caste, and ethnicity that change slowly over time as power relations and mentalities change. Human rights are very political in all of these areas because, to the degree that they are really important to people's lives, they pose a threat to the political system, the economy, and cultural norms.

At the same time, they provide a normative framework for individuals and collectives to organise for change, ensuring that political economy is free from severe economic inequality and social injustice, and that cultural identity is preserved and valued in ways that are consistent with prevailing ideals of individual autonomy and freedom.

The international community and, in increasingly important and effective ways, networks of solidarity that have previously radically altered countries often support appeals to human rights in bringing about such change, at least rhetorically. Slavery, racism, colonialism, and exclusions of all kinds have all been significantly reduced as a result of this. Similar to how environmental degradation, poverty, terrorism, unrepresentative government, discrimination based on sexual orientation, and a growing number of other challenges in the 21st century will continue to test the value of human rights as a normative and institutional guide to policy and practice [7], [8].

Humanity's collective desire for a more fair and equitable society is reflected in the growth of human rights conventions, which has been characterised by authoritative decision-making, international standards, and the initiatives of dedicated people and organisations.

The fact that economic, social, and cultural rights coexist with civil and political rights emphasises the fact that human rights are comprehensive, covering not just the political and legal aspects of life but also the socioeconomic factors that influence it. Societies are forced to do a complex balancing act as a result of the conflict that exists between universal values and specific local circumstances. Human rights may be weaved into the fabric of many communities by respecting national and regional particularities while supporting universal principles. This contextualization emphasises the need for adaptable strategies that take into account cultural specifics while preserving basic rights.

A variety of tactics, including political oversight, judicial decision-making, and humanitarian aid, are used to enforce human rights. These procedures take into account how difficult it is to deal with infractions and safeguard people. They also draw attention to how closely connected the quest of justice, global collaboration, and political power are. The continual battle to integrate these components highlights the need of a comprehensive strategy that includes a variety of stakeholders. The importance of having universal human rights as a moral compass as we look to the future cannot be emphasised. These rights provide advocacy a common language, promoting coalitions that cross cultural, ideological, and geographic barriers. Yet the future demands ongoing conversation, sensitivity, and adaptability as our globe faces new possibilities and challenges. The pursuit of universal human rights is a never-ending commitment that must change to take into account the changing dynamics of power, identity, and technology.

CONCLUSION

The quest for universal human rights shines as a light of hope, promoting the safety and dignity of every person in the complex fabric of our planet. This investigation of the field of human rights within a multifaceted global setting has shown both the tenacity of these values and the difficulties in putting them into practise. The tale of universal human rights in a multifaceted world is ultimately one of tenacity, intricacy, and optimism. It is a tale of people standing up for their rights, of governments and organisations figuring out the complexities of compliance, and of a worldwide society striving to realise a shared goal: the realisation of human rights for all. We continue to weave the tapestry of human rights through continuing discussions, partnerships, and collective action a tapestry that symbolises our common humanity and our unshakable commitment to creating a world where dignity, justice, and equality thrive.

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CHAPTER 4

UNDERSTANDING ABOUT THEORIES OF HUMAN RIGHTS

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ABSTRACT:

This abstract examines the core ideas and import of human rights theories. As a cornerstone of ethical, legal, and social discourse, human rights have been explored from a variety of theoretical perspectives. The many viewpoints provided by the natural, legal, utilitarian, and Marxist conceptions of human rights are examined in depth in this investigation. It emphasises each theory's origins, reasons, and ramifications while demonstrating how they add to our knowledge of the human rights debate as a whole. Understanding these underlying concepts helps us better understand the rich intellectual environment that influences debates about human rights. This abstract emphasises how crucial it is to interact with these ideas in order to encourage sensible discussions and take appropriate action to safeguard and improve human dignity and wellbeing on a global scale.

KEYWORDS:

Human Rights, Legal, Moral, Philosophy, Society.

INTRODUCTION

Human rights and the concepts behind them were ingrained in people's everyday speech throughout the 20th century, particularly among those who had to fight against injustice and tyranny. Human rights are now a kind of moral standard that is used to assess how well a government treats its citizens. The actions of a State are evaluated in light of these international agreements that mandate certain protections and care for all people merely because they are people. Political arguments inside the countries often centre on the violation or denial of human rights. All around the world, there are several legal instruments protecting human rights. A country's institutional structures are being developed at different levels to keep track of the human rights status. Today's domestic human rights law serves as the localization of universal and unalienable rights that have gained recognition on a global scale. Human rights declarations' political repercussions are becoming worse nowadays, generating some doubts about these inalienable and natural rights. Even many who intended to support these rights had some concerns about the guiding principles of human rights.

These rights have faced philosophical criticism ever since they were originally put out. What is meant by human rights is one of the basic questions in any philosophical investigation. The query is not simple. Definition may be important, especially in the international domain when several cultures are present, positivist foundations are flimsy, and implementation methods are vulnerable. In fact, some philosophical systems hold that meaning is at the heart of philosophy's whole mission. Which rights are considered universal, which should be given priority, which can be trumped by other interests, which require international pressure, which can demand implementation programmes, and for which one will fight will all depend on how one interprets what human rights are[1], [2]. In contrast to the self-evident notion that

those who possess them are also human, this refers to the rights that people have simply because they are people, regardless of their unique social situations or levels of merit. Human rights are sometimes described as "important," "moral," and "universal" by academics. Although adding such qualities to human rights is consoling, these qualities themselves have some uncertainties. When one says a right is "important" enough to qualify as a human right, they may be referring to one or more of the following qualities: 1) intrinsic value; 2) instrumental value; 3) value to a scheme of rights; 4) importance in not being overshadowed by other factors; or 5) importance as a structural pillar of the good life system. Perhaps even more difficult to understand terms are "universal" and "moral". whether, why, and who determines whether rights are universal, moral, and significant? where did the idea of rights come from? The philosophy of human rights, which aims to investigate the conceptual underpinnings of the idea and critically examines its substance and validity, contains the solutions to such issues. Theoretical explanations for how and why the idea of human rights came to be have been put forward from many angles. You will learn about these theoretical reasons in the current lesson, particularly the Natural Rights, Legal, Utilitarian, and Marxist ones.

The Theory of Natural Rights

The idea that human rights are a result of a natural law, originating from various philosophical or theological causes, is one of the earliest Western conceptions of human rights. Human rights are based on "natural" orders that are moral, religious, or even biological, irrespective of ephemeral human laws or traditions. The Stoics are often held responsible for the transformation of this tradition of natural justice into one of natural law, and Thomas Aquinas' readings of Aristotle's works are a major source of support for this claim. Although Sophocles and Aristotle provided the foundation for natural law theory, it was the Greek Hellenistic and later Roman stoics who originally developed it. They held that natural law represented those fundamental rules of justice that were in line with right reason, that is, with nature, unchangeable, and everlasting. Thomas Aquinas and other Christian mediaeval thinkers placed a strong emphasis on natural law as granting people certain unchangeable rights as part of the rule of God. However, fundamental restrictions in the mediaeval conceptions that acknowledged serfdom and slavery left out the principles of freedom and equality.

Modern secular views of natural law emerged when feudalism faded, notably those put forward by Grotius and Pufendorf. They established the secular, rationalistic interpretation of contemporary natural law by separating it from religion via their philosophy of natural law. The want to live peacefully and harmoniously with others is, in Grotius' view, a fundamental trait of humans. Whatever reflected the nature of men and women as social, rational creatures was just and fair; anything that resisted this by upsetting the peace in society was unjust and evil. A "dictate of right reason" is how Grotius described natural law. He said that an act has a moral necessity or moral baseness depending on whether it is or is not in accordance with rational nature. You may recall that Grotius is regarded as the founder of contemporary international law. He believed that the law of nations included both rules drawn from the principles of the law of nature and laws with the will of man as their basis. Of course, this notion is crucial to the legitimacy of international law[3], [4].

The natural rights theory, which is most closely identified with contemporary human rights, was evolved from the natural law idea over many years. The most famous proponent of this viewpoint was the philosopher John Locke of the 17th century, in especially the justification he provided in his *Two Treatises of Government* (1688). The essential tenet of Locke's argument is that people have inherent rights, regardless of the political acknowledgment the

state accords them. These fundamental freedoms exist independently of and before the establishment of any political society. Natural rights, according to Locke, follow from natural law. Natural law is a creation of God. Our ability to accurately discern God's intention has given us a moral code that is ultimately supremely authoritative. Fundamentally, each of us owes God a responsibility of self-preservation. Each individual needed to be free from dangers to life and liberty in order to properly carry out this responsibility of self-preservation. They also needed what Locke regarded as the fundamental, constructive method for self-preservation: personal property. God owed us the responsibility of self-preservation, which required that the fundamental natural rights to life, liberty, and property exist. Locke continued to make the case that a sovereign state's political power was primarily invested for the purpose of ensuring and defending its citizens' fundamental natural rights.

DISCUSSION

The only purpose of government was to safeguard and advance peoples' inherent rights. The State's power and territory are clearly constrained by the basic rights to life, liberty, and property. States were portrayed as being there to protect the inherent rights and interests of the people, not those of a monarch or a ruling class. Locke even went so far as to contend that citizens are morally justified in using force against their government if the government consistently and willfully fails to uphold citizens' ownership of their fundamental rights. Studies of the historical forerunners of the modern conception of human rights often place a high value on Locke's contribution. Without a doubt, Locke established the pattern for basing legitimate governmental power on human rights.

The surge of opposition to absolutism in the late eighteenth century was sparked by natural rights doctrine. It may be seen in the US Declaration of Independence, the French Declaration of Human Rights, the constitutions of several post-colonial republics, as well as the key UN human rights texts. This notion has a significant impact on human rights. It provides a way to make an appeal from the reality of bare power to a higher power that is declared for the defence of human rights. It supports and upholds human freedom and equality, from which all other human rights logically follow. Additionally, it offers both locally and internationally a human rights system security and support. The benefit of Natural Rights Theory is that it serves as the foundation for a legal system that is purportedly superior to state law and to which one may appeal if it seems that the latter is unfair, capricious, or oppressive. The early revolutionary constitutional papers may even be considered inherent rights, according to some.

The key conceptual issue that the natural rights theory encountered was how to identify the rules that should be taken into account as being a part of the law of nature and, thus, inalienable or at least initially inalienable. Additionally, a number of opponents noted that the majority of the a priori components inferred by the norm setter are included in natural rights theories' norm setting. Briefly said, the main issue with natural law is that, depending on how each theorist views nature, different rights may be judged to be natural. Natural rights theory lost favour with legal experts and philosophers due to these issues and others. In its altered version, natural rights theory saw a revival in the years after World War II, which served as the foundation for the work done in the subject starting in the twentieth century. During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, criticism of natural law became more intense.

Natural Rights Theory was mostly criticised for lacking scientific validation. Conservatives rejected the natural rights doctrine as being overly egalitarian and disruptive. Because it supported excessive wealth disparity, several radicals objected. Edmund Burke did not, however, totally reject the idea of natural rights. He acknowledged that everyone had the

inherent right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, as well as the equal protection of the law and the exercise of one's conscience. Burke, who believed in natural law, disagreed with the idea of applying the notion of natural rights to everyone since it ignored regional and cultural differences. The distinction between the positivist and naturalist schools of law was initially made by David Hume. However, a theory known as legal positivism, which predominated legal thought for the majority of the nineteenth century and has significant support in the twenty-first, launched the most severe assault against natural law. So, in the part that follows, we examine what the pioneers of the legal theory of human rights had to say[5], [6].

Theory Of Legal Human Rights

A legal theory known as legal positivism emphasises how socially produced law is and how customary it is. Legal theorists from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, such as Jeremy Bentham and John Austin, are primarily credited with developing it. Legal positivism holds that the terms "law" and "positive norms," that is, "norms created by the legislator or regarded as common law or case law," are interchangeable. Social norms may be called law if they meet the formal requirements of origin, enforcement, and effectiveness. Legal positivism does not base law on human rights, reason, or divine mandates. In terms of history, positivism developed in contrast to the traditional natural law view, which holds that there must be moral restrictions on the substance of law.

Classical positivist thinkers reject the idea that rights have an inherent source and hold that all power comes from what the government and its representatives have ordained. Any effort to identify and formulate a concept of law that transcends the actual facts of current legal systems is rejected by this method. According to positivist philosophy, human rights can only be discovered through a system of laws that have been passed and have consequences associated with them. Opinions on what the law "should" be have no place in the legal system and are intellectually useless. The necessity to differentiate between law as it is and law as it should be with the greatest possible clarity is a problem that plagues positivist exponents. They criticized natural law philosophers for obfuscating this crucial difference. Positive thinking fundamentally rejects the moral philosophic foundation of human rights.

Positive law promotes the idea that the law must be followed, regardless of how immoral it may be or how it disregards the reality of the person, by separating a legal system from the ethical and moral pillars of society. Despite being contrary to moral law, Nazi anti-Semitic decrees were followed as if they were positive laws. The same may be said about the immoral apartheid policies that were in place for a long time in South Africa. Modern criticism of that concept has mostly focused on the way positivist philosophy has been used to defend adherence to unjust legislation. Positivism's detractors contend that unjust laws not only lack the ability to enforce fidelity but also do not merit the title of law due to their interior moral void.

Even if the objection were to be accepted as true, the positivist contribution may still be substantial. It is simpler to concentrate on the precise implementation required for the protection of a certain right if the state's procedures may be used to help defend such rights. In fact, positivist philosophers like Jeremy Bentham and John Austin often led the front in the fight for legal reform. A positivist system is always subject to human control and is adaptable to suit changing demands. The positivist jurists' approach to the technical construction of legal concepts is also practically helpful for creating a framework of rights under international law. For instance, the UN human rights treaties, which are laws drafted by sovereign nations and then incorporated into a body of international law, represent a sound set of rights. Although

many governments may disagree with the theoretical underpinnings of these regulations, the regulations still provide human rights protection a legal foundation. The emphasis positivists put on the primacy of national sovereignty without acknowledging the limiting impact of an inherent right above the state, on the other hand, threatens to weaken an international foundation for human rights. According to this viewpoint, international law is only a collection of moral guidelines that have been imposed by opinion rather than being a body of law. Furthermore, the positivist approach results in the idea that the person has no standing in international law since it emphasises the nation state's function as the source of law[7], [8].

Human Rights Utilitarian Theory

A maximising and collectivising philosophy known as utilitarianism calls for governments to maximise the net amount of all their constituents' happiness. Natural rights theory, which is a distributive and individualising concept that gives primacy to certain fundamental interests of each individual subject, contrasts with this idea. The most studied subset of this school is classical utilitarianism, which assesses the morality of choices based on how they would maximise happiness for all parties involved. In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, utilitarian theory has continued to have considerable influence on philosophy and political thought.

The proponent of classical utilitarianism, Jeremy Bentham, held that every action taken by a person is influenced by calculations of pleasure and suffering. Every political choice, in his opinion, should be based on the same calculation, which is to maximise the net benefit of pleasure over harm. Therefore, neither governments nor their bounds should be evaluated in terms of abstract individual rights but rather in terms of what contributes to increase the happiness of the largest number of people. Since everyone counts equally at the primary level, anybody may be required to make sacrifices if the advantages they provide to others are substantial enough to justify them. When most reformers used utilitarian terminology in the first half of the nineteenth century, Bentham's happiness principle was very well-liked and had a significant impact. However, Bentham's philosophy was not without its detractors. His "felicific calculus," which included calculating the highest net balance of happiness by adding and subtracting the pleasure and suffering units of various people, has come to be seen as a theoretical, if not a practical, impossibility.

Later utilitarian philosophers rephrased the tenet in terms of "revealed preferences". Here, economic considerations of universal welfare, which represent the highest satisfaction and minimal frustration of desires and preferences, would serve as the utilitarian compass for governmental behaviour instead of pleasure or enjoyment. Such reiterations of utilitarian theory have a clear attraction when it comes to making economic decisions. The ambiguities of the welfare concept, the character of the person whose welfare is being considered, the hazy basis of the individual preference of the person whose satisfaction is in question, as well as other issues inherent in the process of identifying the consequences of an act and in estimating the value of the consequences, continue to be conceptual and practical problems for utilitarian value theory.

There is an apparent appeal to approaching the issue of rights via conceptions of values. The teleological character of utilitarian theories allows them to define ideas of right only in terms of dispositions to advance predetermined objectives. Because values (such as equality, happiness, liberty, dignity, and respect) affect conduct and are not known in a metaphysical sense but rather are accepted and practised, an ontological commitment may not be required here at least, it is not so obvious. Utilitarianism is fundamentally criticised for failing to respect rights and recognise human liberty. Even in its most sophisticated forms,

utilitarianism maintains the fundamental tenet that the ultimate criteria of worth should be the maximisation of the sum of wants or universal welfare. Although utilitarianism views people as equals, it only does so in the sense of including them in the math problem and not in the sense of giving each person a value. One person's wishes or wellbeing may be sacrificed under the utilitarian equation as long as overall pleasure or happiness is enhanced. As a result, utilitarianism falls short of treating people equally since it essentially transforms moral individuals into utilitarian aggregates. In addition, if concerns of distribution and the value of the person are removed, the simple improvement in overall pleasure or welfare is neither a meaningful value or true moral objective.

Because of this, utilitarian philosophy has a dark side that makes it possible for the interests of the individual to be sacrificed for what are ostensibly larger purposes, and there is no safe haven for justice or right. As a result, the utilitarian concept puts liberty and rights at danger since they are susceptible to unforeseen events. The evil side of utilitarianism rendered the theory too dubious to be accepted as the dominant ideology at a time when inhumanity was the norm. In fact, the majority of contemporary moral theorists seem to have come to an anti-utilitarian agreement, at least in terms of seeing certain fundamental human rights as limitations on any concept that maximises aggregate value. Rights must "trump," in Ronald Dworkin's lovely word, opposing utilitarian considerations[9], [10].

Theory Of Human Rights Based on Marx

Natural law and Marxist theory both have an interest in human nature. Marxism, on the other hand, views men and women as "specie beings" rather than as autonomous persons with rights derived from either a divine or inherent nature. The word is drawn from Ludwig Feuerbach's theory, according to a remark from the young Marx in the Manuscripts of 1844, and it relates to both the character of each individual and of mankind as a whole. Marx, on the other hand, opposes the conventional view of "human nature" as a "species" that manifests itself in each person in the Sixth Thesis on Feuerbach (1845) in favour of a view in which "social relations" as a whole constitute human nature. Since the species-being is constantly determined in a particular social and historical formation, although certain parts are of course biological, the whole of human nature is not seen, as in classical idealist philosophy, as permanent and universal.

The law of nature approach to human rights, in Marx's opinion, is utopian and unhistorical. He did not see human rights as being organic or unalienable. Marx saw the idea of individual rights as a bourgeois delusion in a society where capitalists monopolise the means of production. Law, justice, morality, democracy, freedom, and other ideas were seen as historical categories, the substance of which was influenced by a people's social and economic circumstances. The substance of conceptions and ideas may vary as living circumstances change. Marxism views a person's essence as their capacity to make the most use of their skills and to meet their wants. Production in a capitalist society is monopolised by a select few. As a result, such a society is unable to provide those particular demands. The return of men and women to themselves as social beings, which takes place in a communist society free of class struggle, is a prerequisite for the actualization of potential. However, up to that point, the state serves as a social collectivity and the means by which society is transformed. Individual rights anchored in the natural state that exist before the state are incompatible with such a conception of society's nature. The only rights are those provided by the state, and they may only be exercised if duties to society and the state are met. The authoritarian political authority serves as the only source of moral direction under the Marxist system of rights, which has been characterised to as "parental" on several occasions. Such "specie being" development is a kind of paternalism that not only disregards transcendental

reason but also undermines individuality. Individual civil and political rights have really been systematically suppressed as a consequence of the Communist state's objectives reflecting the earlier demands of society. Marxist ideology was shown to be incompatible with a working universal system of human rights on a global scale. The earlier assertions of a communist society do not acknowledge international rules as superseding them. Although communist regimes acknowledged in theory that the international society had the authority to create transnational rules, they believed that local law alone had the only authority to apply such norms. Communist states frequently argued in international forums that their alleged violations of human rights fell under sole domestic jurisdiction. These arguments weren't just made to protect national sovereignty or avoid embarrassing international scrutiny; they also reflected communist theory, which holds that the state has an unrestricted right to determine what is best for the species as a whole.

Which rights are considered universal, which should be given priority, which can be subordinated to other interests, which require international pressure, which can demand implementation programmes, and for which one will fight will all depend on how one interprets what human rights are. We attempted to grasp in this lesson such issues as what makes human rights universal, moral, and significant, and who decides? where did the idea of rights come from? To address these issues, a number of theoretical perspectives have been offered to explain how and why the idea of human rights evolved through time, both historically and now. limiting oneself to the requirements of the lesson we have studied on the legal, utilitarian, and Marxist theoretical justifications of Natural Rights. With this theoretical knowledge, you may better comprehend how the natural rights idea was revived and found its embodiment in the different international instruments that were enacted in the 20th century and beyond to advance human rights in the lessons that follow.

CONCLUSION

In summary, exploring the many theories of human rights offers a detailed knowledge of the intricate pillars on which the idea of human rights is based. The origins, reasons, and consequences of human rights are examined from many angles by the natural, legal, utilitarian, and Marxist theories. Each theory clarifies how these rights are conceptualised, defended, and implemented in diverse settings, advancing understanding of the complex nature of human rights discourse. We may better understand the rich intellectual environment that supports the continuing debates and developments in the area of human rights by critically analysing these ideas. Additionally, acknowledging the benefits and drawbacks of each theory promotes a more comprehensive and well-rounded approach to the promotion, development, and implementation of human rights. Knowing these underlying concepts helps us be better prepared to participate in informed discussions that maintain and advance the dignity and well-being of all people as the world's knowledge of human rights continues to develop.

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CHAPTER 5

PUBLIC INTERNATIONAL LAW AND HUMAN RIGHTS

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ABSTRACT:

An important nexus in the international legal system where the concepts of sovereignty, state accountability, and individual rights collide is the junction between public international law and human rights. While human rights law focuses on defending the basic freedoms and rights of people everywhere, public international law comprises the norms and regulations regulating relationships between governments and international organisations. The preservation and promotion of human rights on a worldwide scale are shaped by international treaties, conventions, and societal norms, as explored in this abstract, which dives into the dynamic link between these two legal fields. In This learn about the efforts that were made to create human rights legislation throughout time in the form of treaties and conventions, as well as how human rights have come to be recognised as a part of international law, in this lesson. You will be able to: after finishing this session, understand how international law protects the fundamental and inalienable rights of Human Beings. Know the fundamental tenets of the conventions and treaties that make up international human rights law. Understand the national and local effects that the International Human Rights Law will have.

KEYWORDS:

Freedom, Human Rights, Legislation, Social, Universal.

INTRODUCTION

Human rights are often regarded to be the liberties that every person is born with. The corpus of international legislation created to advance and defend human rights at the national, regional, and international levels is known as international human rights law. It basically consists of a set of guidelines for how States should act towards people and, at its most basic level, calls on States to make sure that people may exercise their fundamental freedoms. world human rights treaties are covenants between States and the world community that require States to uphold certain rights inside their own borders, much like national constitutions, which are agreements between governments and their constituents.

States sign human rights treaties in order to ensure that people and organisations living under their jurisdictions may exercise certain rights while also agreeing not to violate such rights. Regional and international oversight organisations help States comply with the law and provide chances for accountability and restitution that may not exist or be ineffective at the national level. However, joining a treaty or consenting to monitoring by a supranational agency is often still an optional decision. Each State participates to a different extent in the global human rights framework. Therefore, the fundamental tenet of international human rights law is that, since States have the power to violate people's rights, it may be challenging to uphold such rights in the absence of international scrutiny and agreement. Therefore, the Treaties and other pieces of legislation that are the outcome of international agreement often help to explicitly safeguard the rights of people and organisations against government acts or inaction that would otherwise prevent them from enjoying their human rights.

History Of Worldwide Human Rights Law

The Ten Commandments, the Code of Hammurabi, and the Rights of Athenian Citizens all date back to antiquity and include references to human rights and human rights ideals. Although the history of human rights principles will not be covered in this session, it is crucial to realise that international human rights legislation has profound historical foundations. Early literature, both religious and secular, provide several instances of what is today recognised as international law. Examples include the elaborate peace agreements and alliances reached between the Jews and the Romans, the Syrians, and the Spartans. The law of nations, or just gentium, was known to the Romans. Gaius characterized it as a universal rule that might be administered by Roman courts to foreigners in cases when Roman law was irrelevant or not known to be applicable. Hugo Grotius (1583-1645), a Dutch jurist, believed that the law of nations also created legal norms that bound the sovereign states of Europe, which were then only emerging from mediaeval culture, in their interactions with one another later in the seventeenth century[1], [2].

To ban slavery and to better the lives of the ill and injured during times of war, however, the protection of individual rights and freedoms at the international level started in the nineteenth century. With the aim of granting particular protection for minorities, various treaties were also signed towards the close of the First World War with the allied or newly constituted States. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) was established in 1919 about the same time with the aim of improving working conditions. It was feared that unless the conditions of the growing number of workers were improved, the workers would spark social unrest, even revolution, upsetting the peace and harmony of the world. The ILO was founded for humanitarian reasons, but it also had political motivations.

The urgent need to uphold justice and peace for all people in the wake of the Second World War prompted a search for ways to strengthen international cooperation, including cooperation aimed at both defending people against the arbitrary use of State power and raising living standards. With the ratification of the United Nations Charter in San Francisco on June 26, 1945, the groundwork for a new system of international law based on certain basic goals and tenets was thus set. The confidence "in 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" is reaffirmed in the Preamble of the Charter. Additionally, it conveys the will "to advance social progress and higher standards of living in greater freedom." Furthermore, one of the four goals of the UN is to "achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion," as stated in Article 1(3) of the Charter.

The following Charter clauses also mention human rights: Articles 13(1)(b), 55(c), 62(2), 68, and 76(c). The legal obligation for United Nations Member States "to take joint and separate action in co-operation with the Organisation for the achievement of universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion" is stated in Articles 56 and 55(c), which should be read together. The Member States' involvement in the whole United Nations human rights project is subject to this significant legal obligation. The very limited references to "human rights and fundamental freedoms" in the Charter were given an official meaning with the ratification of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, 1948. Since it was adopted by a resolution of the General Assembly, the Universal Declaration which recognises civil, cultural, economic, political, and social rights is

not a legally binding document in and of itself, but the principles it contains are now regarded as having legal force against States as either customary international law, general principles of law, or fundamental principles of humanity[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Today, it is widely acknowledged that the cornerstone of international human rights legislation is The Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Since it was passed, the UDHR has served as a model for several legally binding international human rights accords. The fight against injustice, during wartime, in oppressed communities, and in the pursuit of establishing universal human rights enjoyment continue to draw inspiration from it.

Sources Of Human Rights International Law

Treaties and customary international law serve as the main sources of international law of human rights, much like other fields of law. Written agreements between two or more States, whether they are included in a single document or many connected instruments, are known as treaties. Every agreement that is now in effect is binding on the parties who signed it, and as such, must be carried out in accordance with its terms. If a treaty has to be ratified by the legislative arm of a State's government, it does not instantly take effect when it is signed. States may also express declarations, understandings, or reservations that restrict the applicability of a certain treaty or that they accept the treaty with reservations with respect to particular aspects.

Depending on whether domestic legislation must be passed for a treaty to be judicially enforceable, it may be self-executing or non-self-executing. Treaties that self-execute go into force right away without any further legislation. As a matter of internal law, non-self-executing treaties also take effect right away; nevertheless, they cannot be enforced in court by a private party without implementing legislation. Convention, protocol, covenant, and agreement are only a few of the titles given to treaties. The varied designations often denote a variation in protocol or a higher or lower level of formality. Regardless of their official titles, you should bear in mind that all of these instruments are regarded as treaties that are enforceable under international law.

Customs internationally

Certain international human rights have become part of customary international law as a result of widespread observance by governments, making them applicable to all nations regardless of whether they have given their explicit approval. The 1987 Restatement (Third) of the United States Foreign Relations Law holds that at least certain fundamental human rights are protected by customary international law. According to Section 702 of the Restatement, "A State violates International Law if, as a matter of state policy, it engages in, encourages, or condones (a) genocides; (b) slavery or the slave trade; (c) the killing of people or causing their disappearance; (d) torture or other cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment; (e) prolonged arbitrary detention; (f) systematic racial discrimination.

Additional International Documents

Although they are not legally binding on the states, other international instruments, such as international declarations, resolutions, and recommendations relating to human rights, have been adopted under the auspices of the UN. These instruments have established the widely recognised standards in connection with the human rights issues. Declaration of the Tehran Conference (1968), Vienna Conference (1993), and UNDHR (1948). Court rulings: The rulings of the different courts, including the International Court of Justice, the European

Court of Human Rights, and the Inter-American Court of Human Rights, are significant in determining the laws governing human rights concerns. In addition to court rulings, the views of the arbitral tribunals serve as a mediator in disputes over alleged breaches of human rights, as provided for by the different treaties, which also aid in determining these rights as they pertain to international human rights. Official Documentations: The UN and its satellite organisations have generated a substantial quantity of official material on human rights issues. In this context, the Human Rights Law Journal, Human Rights Review, and European Law Review are of great use[5], [6].

Essential Tenders of International Human Rights Law

The first step towards the gradual formulation of international human rights was the 1948 ratification of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Universal Declaration). The great aspirations preserved in the Declaration's guiding principles have proven ageless and lasting in the 68 years that have passed since that time. More than 100 human rights documents that collectively make up international human rights standards were motivated by these concepts. Some key International Humanitarian Law instruments are listed below. Other treaties and instruments have been enacted at regional levels reflecting the specific human rights problems of the area, even though the establishment of the United Nations offered an ideal platform for the formulation and approval of international human rights instruments. A State undertakes responsibilities and duties under international law to uphold and safeguard human rights and to abstain from specific actions when it ratifies an international human rights treaty.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The International Bill of Human Rights is a collection of the three most significant international documents dealing to human rights:

- The United Nations Declaration on Human Rights
- ICCPR, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
- International Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights Covenant (ICESCR)

The three instruments described above will only be briefly explained since you will have different lessons on each of them. You may go to the corresponding classes for a more in-depth explanation.

The Declaration of Human Rights, universal

The Preamble and 30 articles that make up the Universal Declaration of Human Rights outline the basic freedoms and human rights that all men and women are guaranteed without exception. The intrinsic worth of every member of the human family is acknowledged in the Universal Declaration as the cornerstone of global freedom, justice, and peace. It recognises fundamental rights, which are the inalienable rights of every human being. These rights include, among others, the right to life, liberty, and security of person; the right to a living wage; the right to apply for and be granted asylum from persecution in other countries; the right to freedom of expression; the right to an education; the right to be free from torture and other cruel or inhumane treatment; and the right to an adequate standard of living. All men, women, and children should be able to exercise these inalienable rights, as well as all social classes and groupings. Many people now believe that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is a component of accepted world law.

Convention on Civil and Political Rights

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights covers the State's customary obligations to uphold the rule of law and administer justice. The Covenant contains several sections that deal with the interaction between the person and the State. States are required to make sure that while carrying out these duties, both the accused's and the victim's human rights are upheld. The Covenant defines several civil and political rights, including the freedom from torture and other cruel or degrading treatment or punishment, the right to life, liberty, and security, the freedom of movement, including the freedom to choose a place of residence and the right to leave the country, the freedom of thought, conscience, religion, peaceful assembly, and association, the freedom from slavery, forced labour, or arbitrary arrest or detention, and the right to self-determination[7], [8].

Members of linguistic, religious, or ethnic minorities are additionally protected by other laws. All States Parties are required by Article 2 to uphold and ensure the rights outlined in the Covenant without regard to any type of distinction, including race, colour, sex, language, religion, political opinion, national or social origin, property, birth, or other status. There are two Optional Protocols to the Covenant. The first sets the process for handling messages (or complaints) from those alleging they have experienced infringement of any of the Covenant's rights.

The second calls for the death penalty to be abolished. The Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, in contrast to the Universal Declaration and the Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights, gives a state permission to derogate from, or in other words, restrict, the enjoyment of certain rights during times of a declared public emergency that endangers the survival of a country. Only those restrictions that are absolutely necessary under the circumstances are allowed, and they must be communicated to the UN. However, certain rights, including the right to life and the prohibitions against torture and slavery, may never be suspended. The Covenant also calls for the creation of a human rights committee to keep an eye on how States parties are carrying out its requirements.

Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights International Covenant

The ICESCR was approved by the General Assembly in 1966 and came into effect in January 1976 as the result of 20 years of drafting discussions. In many ways, social, economic, and cultural rights have received less international attention than civil and political rights. As a result, there is a false perception that economic, social, and cultural rights violations are not subject to the same level of legal scrutiny and corrective action. This viewpoint disregarded the fundamental ideas of human rights, such as how they are interconnected and indivisible, and how violating one right might very easily result in violating others.

In accordance with international law and the international community, economic, social, and cultural rights are receiving increasing attention. These rights are intended to safeguard individuals in the belief that they may concurrently enjoy their rights, freedoms, and social justice. The Covenant contains some of the most important international legal provisions establishing economic, social, and cultural rights, such as the right to work in fair and favourable conditions, the right to social protection, the right to an adequate standard of living, including clothing, food, and housing, the right to the best possible physical and mental health, the right to education, and the right to take advantage of advances in science and culture. It is significant because it specifies the legal responsibilities that States parties have under the Covenant. In order to ensure the gradual realisation of the rights recognised in the Covenant, States are expected to take effective measures to implement these rights to the fullest extent of their resources, including via the enactment of domestic legislation. The

Economic and Social Council had the duty of ensuring that the Covenant was being followed by States parties, and it outsourced this duty to a group of impartial specialists called the Committee on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights.

International human rights standards are thus collectively comprised of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Universal Declaration), which was adopted in 1948, as well as its subsequent covenants, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights, which were both adopted in 1966. These treaties outline a number of universal rights that are applicable to all people.

Regional agreements

As was previously said, several regional treaties and accords are included in international human rights law. The following list includes the most significant of these regional accords. European Convention for the Protection of Fundamental Freedoms and Human Rights 1950. The European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms 1950 (ECHR), which was signed by the Council of Europe's member states in Rome on November 4, 1950, and which took effect in 1953, was the first regional agreement pertaining to the protection of human rights. The ECHR went much beyond the UDHR by requiring the parties to establish efficient domestic remedies for a number of rights and by defining these rights more precisely. Additionally, it created the European Commission for Human Rights to investigate and document human rights abuses at the request of State Parties or, with the express prior consent of individual states, in response to a petition from any individual, NGO, or group of individuals under the control of that state. Additionally, a European Court of Human Rights with mandatory jurisdiction is established under the Convention. After eight nations agreed to its obligatory jurisdiction, this was established in 1959. The European Social Charter of 1961, which went into effect in 1965, came after the ECHR. The Social Charter addresses issues related to social, economic, and cultural rights, such as the right to social security, the right to a living wage, the right to collective bargaining, and the right to a fair wage. The Social Charter makes claims against States rather than placing them under constraints, and its enforcement mechanisms vary greatly from those established by the ECHR. The European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment 1987, which went into effect in 1989, was recently ratified by the Council of Europe's member states. The treaty creates a European Committee for the Prevention of Torture, which is tasked with overseeing how people who are deprived of their liberty are treated. It also provides a system of jail and other detention facility inspections. Instead of offering formal enforcement tools, the agreement seeks to promote respect of its terms. Article 3 of the ECHR already forbids torture and other humiliating or inhumane treatment. Other regional organisations have also ratified human rights-related treaties; they include:

a) The Protocol to the Charter of the Organisation of American States of 1967 established the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights as a principal organ of the OAS with the function of promoting respect for human rights. This followed the American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man of 1948, which was closely modelled after the UDHR. The Inter-American Convention on Human Rights 1969, which outlines the rights to be upheld and establishes an Inter-American Court of Human Rights, was accepted two years later[9], [10].

b) The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights of 1981 has been ratified by the Organization of African Unity. Rather than only being required to uphold the rights stated in the charter, state parties are also required to take action to give those rights effect. The

substantive clauses of this charter focus a lot more emphasis on peoples' rights than previous generic human rights accords. The African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights is established under the charter and charged with advancing these rights.

Other regional accords, such as those between the nations of the Arab League and the area of south Asia, have also been the subject of discussions. Some aspects of the Helsinki Declaration, adopted by the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe in 1975, are also important to note here. Part VII of the proclamation, despite the fact that it was explicitly stated that it was not intended to have legal force, vowed respect for basic liberties and human rights. Certain human rights are also included by other, more comprehensive accords, such as the Rome Treaty of 1957.

In order to summarise the topic, it should be noted that international human rights legislation fundamentally establishes duties that States are required to uphold. States take on responsibilities and duties under international law to respect, preserve, and uphold human rights when they ratify international treaties. States are required to respect human rights by abstaining from interfering with or restricting the exercise of such rights. States are required under the duty to protect to defend persons and organisations against violations of human rights. States must take proactive measures to make it easier for people to exercise their fundamental human rights in order to satisfy their commitment.

Governments commit to enacting domestic policies and laws that are consistent with their commitments and responsibilities under international human rights treaties by ratifying such accords. Therefore, the primary legal protection of human rights promised by international law is provided by the local legal system. There are mechanisms and procedures for individual and group complaints available at the regional and international levels to help ensure that international human rights standards are actually respected, put into practise, and enforced at the local level when domestic legal processes fall short of addressing human rights abuses.

CONCLUSION

The complex interplay between state interests and the defence of individual rights is emphasised throughout the abstract, demonstrating how public international law offers a framework for nations to cooperate on human rights challenges while defending their own sovereign rights. The continuous importance of this connection in a world that is becoming more connected, where the advancement of human rights is linked to the preservation of international peace, security, and collaboration, to comprehend the genesis, significance, and fundamental essence of international human rights law. Then, we made an effort to comprehend the fundamentals of the current International Human Rights Law. States are obligated to respect human rights and enact internal policies and laws that are consistent with their duty under the numerous regional and international treaties they have signed. This fundamental knowledge of how human rights are protected by international law will aid you in understanding national and local initiatives taken in our nation or any other nation for the protection of human rights, as well as the urgent work that still needs to be done.

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CHAPTER 6

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCEMENTS AND ITS APPLICATIONS IN INDUSTRIES

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ABSTRACT:

Modern society is being shaped by technological breakthroughs, which are revolutionising industries, economics, and societies. The complex effects of technology advancement and its many applications in a range of industries are explored in this abstract. Technology's effect is all-pervasive, from the growth of automation and artificial intelligence to the ubiquitous use of digital platforms.

This abstract explores the revolutionary potential of these developments while also discussing related issues including the digital gap, privacy problems, and ethical issues. This abstract explores how technology advancements are transforming human interaction, work dynamics, healthcare, communication, and education, and how these changes are influencing the course of our future via a review of recent research, case studies, and trends.

KEYWORDS:

Growth, Planet, Science, Satellite, Technology.

INTRODUCTION

Technology and science are now ingrained in everyday life for the average person. We are impacted by the progress that man has achieved in many aspects of life. Understanding the numerous scientific advancements has become crucial for us.

We now have a better understanding of the secrets of the universe and how man may profit from both outward and inward study of space thanks to the amazing advancements in space technology. Defence, healthcare, and entertainment are just a few of the industries that utilise laser technology. One must keep in mind that every technological progress aids the growth of other technologies.

Asteroid Technology

With the advancement of science and technology, space technology has matured. Artificial satellites and rocket launchers have made it feasible for man to fulfil his ambition of travelling to the moon and other planets. Beyond the solar system or the atmosphere of the Earth is what is meant by space. Space technology is the study of space outside of the atmosphere of the planet using human or unmanned spacecraft.

These include satellites and rockets. Space technology primarily focuses on (1) space exploration (2) space travel (3) artificial satellites (4) space probe (5) launch vehicles (6) space shuttles (7) manned space flights to the Moon, Venus, and Mars (8) global communications and broadcasting and (9) advancements in healthcare, education, disaster preparedness, weather forecasting, environmental protection, and natural resource management. Let's explore the advancements achieved in the area of space research before considering the advantages of space technology [1], [2].

Age of Space

Only with the development of rockets and artificial satellites was the space era made conceivable. When Russia launched Sputnik I in 1957, the contemporary space era was born. Space technology has made the earth smaller quickly, creating a global community. For the first time, man has access to technology that has no bounds.

Rockets

Robert H. Goddard was the first American scientist to construct and launch a modern rocket in 1926. By dispersing the weight of the fuel it burns, a rocket travels. It burns fuel under intense pressure. This is required so that the rocket may escape the pull of the earth's gravity. The Thumba Equatorial Rocket Launching Stations are run and maintained in India by ISRO, the Indian Space Research Organisation. By successfully launching the second Geosynchronous Satellite Launch Vehicle (GSLV-D2) on May 8, 2003, India advanced in the area of rockets. India advanced its launch capabilities to become the sixth country in the world. PSLV-C9, which was launched by India on April 26, 2008, is the most recent rocket. Within 20 minutes, 10 satellites were launched. India was the second nation to accomplish such a challenging achievement after Russia.

Anatomous Satellites

Artificial satellites are spacecraft that go in an orbit around the planet. Satellites travel up to 22,300 kilometres in orbit around the planet. A satellite travels 22,300 miles around the planet in precisely 24 hours.

The orbit will remain stationary over one location on the planet if it revolves around the equator. There are several uses for satellites. Currently, the most effective constellation for GPS has 24 satellites. Anything on Earth may be located precisely at any given moment. For communication, remote sensing, technology, and other purposes, India has launched satellites. INSAT-4A is the newest satellite that India has sent into orbit.

Space Technology Benefits

The advantages of space technology relate to both internal and external exploration.

External investigation

investigation of space: Russia launched the space satellite Sputnik, which marked the start of human space exploration. In 1969, a man visited the moon and went for a stroll on its surface. Then followed the "Skylab" and "Salyut" Space Stations. Man's ability to see far into the cosmos has been expanded thanks to the Hubble Space Telescope. With its amazing photos of the universe, including those of brand-new galaxies and the birth and death of stars, the Hubble Space Telescope has been contributing to the development of new sciences since April 1990. Space tourism is rapidly becoming reality. Vacations in space hotels, according to the renowned British industrialist David Ashford's Bristol firm, might be lucrative in 15 years. 400 asteroids are near to the planet and may be mined for minerals. Minerals like platinum, gold, and iron are abundant in these little planets. Exploitation of these mineral resources is planned.

Internal investigation

Remote sensing is used for internal exploration. Exploring inside has been considerably more advantageous for humanity.

Meteorology

One of the key jobs of satellites is weather forecasting. The INSAT family of Indian satellites perform a variety of tasks, including meteorological earth measurements.

Hydrology

Information from satellites may be used to estimate groundwater supplies. In light of the fact that India is primarily an agricultural nation, this assumes considerable importance.

Oceanography

The distribution of unusually warm marine regions has a significant impact on rainfall. Rainfall predictions may be made using remote sensing equipment. Plankton and fish are the most significant marine resources. It is now feasible to find enormous schools of fish by gathering data on ocean temperature.

Geological and mineral resources

Our planet's physical resources are quite scarce. This issue could be resolved with space travel. There are connections between certain geological characteristics, fuel resources, and concentration. Such characteristics are found using space satellites.

Communication

The internet revolution was made possible through satellite communication. In addition, satellite communication has proven crucial during natural catastrophes like earthquakes, floods, and cyclones.

Rich benefits from the space programme

The space programme may provide immeasurable benefits in the areas of trade, commerce, food and agriculture, industry, and manufacturing. To satisfy their defensive requirements several satellites have been launched into orbit by the USA and Russia. These satellites may be used to determine the location of tiny objects like cars. 24 satellites make up the highly developed Global Positioning System (GPS), a satellite constellation.

The Global Orbiting Navigating Satellite System (Glosass) is the name of the GPS equivalent in Russia. With GPS, a receiver may locate themselves at any time of day or night, anywhere in the globe.

Agriculture

The use of remote sensing technology is crucial in this industry. For the early diagnosis of plant diseases, they are highly helpful.

DISCUSSION

Light Amplification of Stimulated Emission of Radiation is referred to as laser. LASERS are light sources that employ light amplification to produce very strong coherent beams of light. It is a tool for creating a beam of light that is very powerful and precisely focused. The laser beam is very strong, intense, and has just one wavelength.

The sides of the narrow beam that laser light travels in remain nearly parallel. The first effective laser was the ruby laser, which Maiman demonstrated in 1960. It works on the premise that when atoms are reorganised, light energy may be produced.

Specifications Of Laser

These are a few characteristics of lasers:

- Laser light goes only in one direction and is very directed.
- The beam has a single frequency and is monochromatic.
- The beam has excellent coherence.

Based on the materials used as light amplifiers, there are three main categories of lasers. They are solid lasers, gas lasers, and liquid lasers, respectively. A substance utilised as an atom source that is either solid, liquid, or gaseous. A solid Ruby crystal was used in the first laser. This led to the name Ruby Laser. a source that pumps to energise or excite the atoms. Usually, this source is a beam of light. The atoms from the source are energised when this beam strikes them. This tube, known as an optical resonator, amplifies the laser beam by reflecting it back and forth. Therefore, the strong laser beam will escape from this tube.

India Laser Research

B.H.U. has successfully created a carbon dioxide laser for use in photochemistry. Nitrogen Kerala University, Cochin University, and IIT Mumbai have created laser for research purposes. BARC and the defence science laboratory have also created and tested a significant number of solid state lasers. Scientists have created a laser guiding system. It is placed within the Prithvi surface-to-air missile.

Laser Applications

There are several uses for laser beams in different industries. The following are a few examples of applications. There are many uses for laser beams. Industrial lasers are used to test textiles for faults, steer bulldozers, drill eyes into medical needles, and cut teeth in saws. In the realm of electronics and microelectronics, where precise welding of small wires is necessary, laser welding is utilised. Small electronics and innovative electronic products are printed using lasers. They are used to brand plastic, metal, and other materials. Laser printing is both quick and extremely good. Lasers are often used to cut materials including cardboard, fabric, metal, ceramic, and plastic. The carbon dioxide laser is the one that is most often utilized for this. They may also be used to vaporise substances. Nowadays, laser drilling is often used in place of traditional drilling methods to create holes in materials such as metals, jewels, and diamonds. Now, even the smallest holes may be effortlessly drilled through the toughest materials. In addition, laser scanners are used to read bar codes on consumer items, check precision parts in manufacturing facilities, and read text and other types of documents[3], [4].

In order to pinpoint the opponent with accuracy, all guided missiles employed in contemporary combat utilise laser beams as their guiding mechanism. By using a laser, it is made evident that the 1991 and 2003 Gulf Wars included aerial combat. Lasers were used to calculate distances and highlight missile targets. Laser weapons are accurate weaponry. Any moving item, such as an aeroplane or a rocket, may have its trajectory determined using a laser instrument. The accuracy of laser-guided aircraft bombing was shown during the Kargil War in May 1999.

In communication, range finding, aircraft, space exploration, and the employment of military weaponry, lasers are being employed more and more. Voice mail and TV signals can be sent via a laser. Compared to radio waves, a laser beam can carry a lot more information due to the high frequency of laser light. As a result, one of those beams may simultaneously broadcast several phone conversations and television shows. For instance, modern optical

fibre lines can transmit 32,000 simultaneous two-way phone conversations via a single laser beam. Other communication devices, such as quick photocopiers and printers, CD players, and certain videodisc players, also use laser technology.

Surveyors create maps by measuring distances using a laser range. The kind and amount of contaminants may be determined by reflecting laser beams off the air. For environmental monitoring, the method known as lidar (light detection and ranging) is used. The laser has successfully tracked volcanic ash from Mount St. Helena and recorded wind speeds around airports as well as the hole in the ozone layer over Antarctica.

The use of lasers in medicine is widespread. The dental chair is no longer uncomfortable to sit in. Premier Laser device has created a laser device that allows a dentist to fill teeth painlessly and seal fractures in the teeth. Neither pain nor vibrations are felt by the sufferer. Laser treatment for cancer The Centre for Applied Technology has created a nitrogen laser that may be used to seal cavities in the lungs of TB patients. A laser beam might be used to remove an orange-sized tumour via a tiny coin-sized incision. Lasers that can "see" under the skin Blood flow may be measured using a laser called LDI (Laser Doppler Perfusion Imaging), which can "see" beneath the skin.

Laser for clogged arteries

The heart muscle often receives less blood than usual during angina and heart attacks. A Holmium laser system is used in a novel procedure known as PTMR (Percutaneous Transluminal Myocardial Revascularisation) to create holes directly in the heart muscle. Through this surgery, new blood vessels are formed inside the heart muscle.

Eye illness treatment

LASIK and ICR are the two methods that have garnered international interest. People might stop using their glasses or contact lenses thanks to the LASIK procedure. High intraocular pressure, or glaucoma, which may result in vision loss and the chance of blindness, is another condition that can be treated with laser.

Lasers are used in cosmetic surgery to aid with skin resurfacing. Laser technology in space: Laser technology is essential to satellite communication. A transportable laser device for remote sensing up to a height of 60 kilometres has been developed by the Vikram Sarabhai Space Centre.

Ruby laser is used in this system. In military operations, a laser beam may be used to measure the distance and speed of a target, such as an adversary ship or aircraft. Laser beams are used to direct some bomb and artillery shell types onto their intended targets.

The advancement of science and technology has made a quantum jump in the twenty-first century. However, certain technologies play a significant role because they are ground-breaking. Due to its developments, space technology has given humanity unprecedented opportunities. Space exploration might provide humanity solutions to the problem of limited resources.

The development of satellite and rocket technology has made it conceivable, nevertheless. Space investigations conducted internally have improved communication and contributed significantly to the creation of a global community. Aside from the defence industry, laser technology is used in every aspect of contemporary civilization, including consumer electronics, information technology, research, medical, industry, law enforcement, entertainment, and the military[3], [4].

New Technologies for Law and Practise in Human Rights

In the first chapter of our 2018 edited volume, we make the case that there are three main ways in which new technologies are affecting human rights law and practise: first, by ingraining unequal power relationships into the technology itself; second, by frustrating and undermining traditional efforts to hold duty bearers accountable; and third, by delegating ever-greater responsibility and authority to private actors, who are not typically bound by human rights law. A short description of each of these impact modes is given in this section.

Power and Unfairness

Technology is often seen as a way to weaken established hierarchies and power structures, or even, as one of us has suggested, as a chance to democratise human rights campaigning and fact-finding. The emancipatory potential of technology for human rights advocacy as a whole has not generally been realised in practise, despite the fact that the creation of open source investigations may play a significant role in accountability efforts. Although technology enables social movements to ramp up with incredible speed, this speed also limits their ability to mature in ways that would enable them to exert power and authority in the long run, as Tufekci explains in her work on the role of social media in the Arab Spring and Occupy Wall Street movements. The latest demonstrations in Hong Kong show that technology is definitely democratising society in many ways, but this does not eliminate the need for long-term advocacy for change[5], [6].

Technological advancements are more frequently than not inherently biased towards inequality, not towards democratising human rights practise. According to science and technology studies theory, "conventional science and innovation policies increase inequalities, unless they are specifically designed to do otherwise" This is a result of the privilege enjoyed by individuals who invent new technology and the structures that support its development and usage. Whether it's a system of intellectual property or the system of surveillance capitalism that powers our social media environment, innovation systems that reward invention via the market are fundamentally biased to develop things that benefit the wealthy. The claim made by cognitive scientist Abiba Birhane is that "technology is never either neutral or objective—it is like a mirror that reflects societal bias, unfairness, and injustice."

Our book's case studies show many ways in which power imbalances may be ingrained in technical systems. Deploying technology inevitably results in replicating and further entrenching existing inequality and power imbalances, from water metre systems that embed assumptions about the number of people living in a household to the way that new climate adaptation technology or data analysis tools are least affordable to those countries, organisations, and people who may need them the most.

Accountability

The influence that technology has on our capacity to hold responsibility bearers responsible for rights abuses is the second lens through which to view the link between technology and human rights. Technology isn't merely employed in positive or negative ways; in many situations, it actively works against transparency and accountability. Technology usage has the potential to undermine authority, dismantle accountability-promoting processes used by civil society organisations and human rights defenders. Due to technology's ability to conceal the identity of the perpetrator, it is considerably more difficult to hold obligation bearers responsible. Even when they are the result of choices that reflect and incorporate value judgements, actions taken by automation, for instance, may seem inevitable. Technology also

increases the visibility of infractions itself, normalising behaviour that could otherwise be seen to constitute an affirmative damage. For instance, installing water metres that demand payment before distributing water is often functionally equal to cutting off the water supply. In reality, these two water regulatory regimes are handled quite differently, with the later having legal safeguards against unwarranted deprivation while the former does not.

Furthermore, the attenuated nature of breaches caused by automated decision making also weakens systems that depend on respect for rights, such as shame or socialisation. Because they were not the direct source of the damage, those who just put the technology in action would feel less accountable for any following breaches. Furthermore, it is considerably more difficult to exert pressure on a municipality that installs water metres that might eventually result in shortages. When the water is really disconnected, there is no obvious offender to put in their place[7], [8].

Public Authority

New technical advancements often entail considerable private sector involvement in their development and implementation. These businesses influence our expressive behaviour, our relationships with others, and our access to knowledge. They are very potent gatekeepers for information and communication. In fact, these private firms are increasingly used as agents of governance and regulation in numerous fields. In particular, governments are giving private firms the power to control internet expression. The availability of evidence of human rights breaches posted to private platforms is often decided by commercial firms. Additionally, they develop and sell technology that allow for and hinder monitoring, comply with official orders to track activists or political dissidents, and provide algorithms and weaponry that may decide who lives or dies. Instead than being driven by concerns for the general welfare or human rights, these choices are instead driven by business interests.

However, the difference between public power exerted by the state and private authority exercised by a firm is the foundation of the existing system for addressing human rights damages caused by commercial enterprises. Therefore, actions that blur this line are subject to less favorable and most definitely less effective application of human rights legislation. For private technologies, public actors finance, acquire, and develop innovation systems. Do non-state actors truly only have a moral obligation to respect freedom of expression when they are required by governments to control the speech of their users? Is there any way that businesses that create AI systems that mimic racial or gender prejudices in the context of speech regulation may be held responsible for the damages to human rights they cause? Who is liable for the negative effects of a private company-built technology that the government uses to set bail or screen job candidates? The line between public and private is becoming more obsolete and diverts our attention from the more crucial issues of responsibility and correction.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, technological development has had a tremendous influence on many facets of human existence, ushering in a new age of opportunities and difficulties. The range and depth of uses for technology, from automation and artificial intelligence to digital platforms and the Internet of Things, demonstrate how disruptive it is. The way we connect, work, communicate, and learn has been revolutionised by these innovations, which have also changed industries, economies, and society. This quick technical development is not without its complications, however. The necessity for careful regulation and responsible innovation is highlighted by ethical challenges relating to the use of AI and automation as well as privacy concerns in the digital era. Questions about fair access to these technical advantages are

raised by the global digital gap, which is still present in many regions of the globe. Governments, businesses, and society must work together to maximise technology's potential for advancement while preserving individual freedoms, privacy, and inclusion. We can make sure that technical breakthroughs continue to improve our lives, encourage sustainability, and contribute to the improvement of society as a whole by adopting a human-centric perspective and encouraging ethical innovation.

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CHAPTER 7

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION IN HUMAN RIGHTS: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

The understanding that a healthy environment is necessary for the enjoyment of fundamental human rights has led to a considerable increase in the acknowledgement of the link between environmental preservation and human rights in recent years. The rising understanding that environmental protection must be included into legal and policy frameworks is highlighted in this abstract's exploration of the nexus between environmental issues and human rights concepts.

The abstract explores the potential and problems involved in guaranteeing environmental protection as a basic human right while highlighting significant international mechanisms and activities that represent this integration.

This abstract emphasises the significance of tackling environmental degradation as a vital part of human rights advocacy in an increasingly linked world by a thorough analysis of the literature, case studies, and international activities.

KEYWORDS:

Environment, Health, Management, Pollution, Protection.

INTRODUCTION

Continuous physical environment degradation is occurring. Human actions are to blame for this environmental deterioration. The major causes of environmental deterioration or pollution are household, industrial, and agricultural activity. These human activities together produce a staggering quantity of garbage. Environmental contamination results from the improper disposal of this waste and its addition to natural resources including soil, water, and air.

Thus, the primary contaminant of the physical environment is garbage produced by a variety of human activities. People's health is always impacted by the environment's pollution, making it harder for man to live and for the planet to support him.

Therefore, in order for man to survive on the planet in a healthy manner, the environment must be protected from further deterioration. There is no disputing the significance of environmental conservation.

Security Management

The 'waste' produced by primary (agricultural), secondary (industrial), tertiary (trading and marketing), and quaternary (service-oriented) activities is the largest contributor to environmental deterioration. Man must engage in these activities in order to meet his fundamental requirements, yet these activities also produce a variety of wastes that harm the environment.

Various wastes

Waste refers to pointless leftovers, residue, or waste from used or unused items. Man's household, industrial, and agricultural activities produce vast amounts of trash that are harmful to human health. Additionally, its improper disposal endangers both the natural environment and human health. Therefore, "Waste" harms human health. Understanding the many kinds of hazardous waste produced by human activity is important in this situation[1], [2]. The following are the primary garbage categories:

Organic and inorganic trash that might spread illness are referred to as infectious waste. For instance, bacteria, viruses, and solid and liquid waste produced by human activity infect people, animals, and plants. Waste that is toxic comprises harmful materials. Toxic materials have the potential to result in death, severe disease, injury, or infection. Some substances have a high toxicity.

Reactive waste

It often reacts vigorously with water and air. It contaminates the air and water. One kind of reactive waste is gunpowder and other explosives. Waste that corrodes other things is referred to as corrosive waste. Rust, acids, and bases are a few examples. Both the inorganic substances and the organic cells are destroyed by these waste products. Flammable trash is a term used to describe substances that burn quickly at low temperatures. Examples of flammable trash include fuel, kerosene, gasoline, and alcohol. Nuclear materials produced in nuclear reactors and atomic power facilities are referred to as radioactive waste. Radioactive waste includes, for example, uranium, thorium, and plutonium. These substances seriously pollute the environment.

Pollution of the environment and improper waste management

These many hazardous wastes all contaminate the land, water, and air. Both the surface water and the subsurface water get contaminated when these wastes are dumped into the ground. This contaminated water indirectly contaminates agricultural products as well. Again, whether used excessively to protect crops in the field or to increase agricultural productivity, pesticides, insecticides, and herbicides linger in the soil and pollute it. Additionally, these dangerous compounds get into people's bodies via food. When these chemicals are released into the air, it poisons the lungs and results in a variety of respiratory illnesses.

Ingesting heavy metals like lead, mercury, etc. leads to serious health issues. The function of red blood cells in the blood is impacted by lead. They live shorter lives. Additionally, it results in disorders of the brain and harms brain nerve cells. When humans are exposed to mercury, they get poisoned. The plastic is produced using a substance called vinyl chloride, which damages the bones and causes genetic abnormalities. It also causes issues with blood circulation, hearing, and vision. Therefore, improper waste management may cause serious health issues as well as physical environment pollution. Environmental protection is necessary owing to the potential for health issues caused by the addition of hazardous waste to the environment. By appropriately disposing of garbage, this may be accomplished.

Methods for Managing Waste

Waste must be disposed of by simply depositing it in an open area that is sufficiently far from residential areas. The garbage has to be buried well under the surface of the earth for disposal. Comparatively speaking, this is a better method of trash disposal than just dumping it outside. It is suitable for disposal in rivers and seas. Complete burning of the garbage is the greatest method for getting rid of it. It's referred to as incineration. Waste disposal using this

approach includes solid, liquid, and gaseous waste. Recycling the garbage is an additional option for disposal. Making useful items is another application for it. With these items, the issue of trash disposal may be simply resolved and they can be used and reused. Reducing trash creation at the source is another way to address the waste issue. For instance, by making the most of natural resources and utilising them wisely, the volume of trash may be significantly decreased. By promoting the use of reusable and biodegradable items while discouraging the use of non-disposable and non-biodegradable ones, waste creation may also be decreased. Even while it is impossible to totally stop environmental contamination brought on by incorrect trash disposal, it is feasible to significantly minimise its severity by correctly disposing of hazardous garbage[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Global warming is an issue that affects every nation on earth. The global temperature is increasing in an alarming manner. The ozone layer's loss and the amount of carbon in the atmosphere are the major causes of this. The greenhouse effect is so named because it kills the earth's green vegetation. Additionally, carbon is referred to as a greenhouse gas. An international conference known as "The Earth Summit" was held in 1992 in response to the seriousness of ecological issues such as ozone layer depletion, climate change, biodiversity loss, the greenhouse effect, global warming, snowmelt, rising ocean water levels, etc. It created the "Global Environment Facility (GEF)," a worldwide organisation that disburses funding and awards to address environmental problems across the world. Following the Earth Summit in 1997, a meeting was held in Kyoto, Japan. By lowering greenhouse gas emissions globally, it sought to address the issue of global warming. The Kyoto Protocol was signed by over 172 nations, and its goals include lowering emissions of greenhouse gases like carbon dioxide (CO₂). By substituting carbon-free businesses for those that now produce carbon, the emission of carbon may be decreased. An innovative market-based strategy was proposed for this goal. 'Carbon Trading' is the term used to describe it. It assumes that even carbon is a commodity that can be traded. It is exchangeable or marketable. And 'Carbon Bank' is required for trading it. A few nations have already established carbon banks. For instance, the United States' Carbon Bank is one of the top banks in the carbon trading industry. In large cities in nations like Britain, China, and India, there are carbon banks. The first carbon bank is Morgan Stanley Carbon Bank.

Carbon Trading as an illustration

Accounts may be opened in the carbon bank by businesses that manage industries. In the carbon bank, they have both carbon debit and credit accounts. These banks operate similarly to other banks. Let's use a specific instance to illustrate how carbon trading works. Let's say there are two businesses, A and B. They both own businesses that produce certain amounts of carbon emissions. The company's industrial facility is allowed to release certain carbon dioxide units by a centralised authority. However, in actuality, the plant could release either fewer or more carbon units than what is permitted by the central authority. For instance, if business A is permitted to release 100 units of carbon but only emits 75, the firm has decreased its emission by 25 units, and as a result, these 25 units of carbon will be added to the company's balance of carbon credits. However, if firm B is permitted to release 100 units of carbon but instead emits 125 units, the firm has raised its carbon output by 25, and these 25 units of carbon will be added to the company's carbon negative balance.

These two businesses' carbon units may be changed. Of course, the firm will have to pay money to company A. firm B will acquire 25 units of carbon from company A. By selling the extra carbon units in its carbon credit balance, firm A will profit. Due to this, both businesses

will work to lower their carbon emission levels. In an effort to get payment from other businesses, firm A will make an effort to lower carbon emissions. And firm B will make an effort to cut down on carbon emissions in order to avoid paying for carbon units out of pocket. 'Certified Emission Reduction' (CER) is the term used to describe this[5], [6].

Because carbon trading is a sustainable development strategy, it encourages both businesses to cut down on carbon emissions. Additionally, the physical environment will be shielded from the greenhouse effect, which is global warming brought on by carbon concentration. So, the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) includes carbon trading. Companies that invest in non-polluting solar, biodiesel, and biogas facilities gain greatly from carbon trading. By lowering carbon emissions, they can make a lot of money. Torrent Power, Chennai Petroleum, Gujrat Fluro Chemicals, Jaypee Associated, among other Indian businesses, are just a few examples. which use non-polluting energy sources. These Indian businesses will make money by selling carbon units to businesses abroad. Therefore, carbon trading is the most reliable method of lowering industrial carbon emissions. Additionally, the physical environment is guarded against carbon dioxide buildup and global warming.

India's major cities have carbon banks, which are primarily used to cut carbon dioxide emissions. Greenhouse gas concentrations, such as those of carbon dioxide, nitrous oxide, chlorofluorocarbon, and carbon monoxide, are an issue in India's metropolises. Therefore, carbon banks are necessary in major cities like Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata, and Delhi. It is important to mention that the Clinton Foundation revealed a strategy to lower carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions in 2007. Large banks support this strategy. In sixteen major cities throughout the globe, it will be utilised to lower the production of very hazardous greenhouse gases. Of them, Mumbai is one. Bank financing will be used for the installation of new energy-efficient technology. India intends to power a number of its cities using solar energy, which is clean and never runs out. The role of NGOs in responding to natural and human-induced catastrophes. Calamity is an occurrence that takes place abruptly and with little to no notice. Many people's lives are thrown off by it. It results in issues on the social, economic, ecological, and even emotional fronts. Therefore, mobilising efforts is necessary to find solutions to these issues. People who are afflicted by tragedies have little influence over the causes of them.

Different Calamities

Natural and man-made tragedies are the two primary categories of disasters. Natural calamities include things like earthquakes, volcano eruptions, floods, droughts, severe rains, cyclones, landslides, etc. Examples of man-made or human-induced calamities include road accidents, railway accidents, shipwrecks, aviation crashes, accidents in industries, nuclear power plants, chemical industries, oil leaks, oil spills, forest fires, etc. In actuality, human actions indirectly contribute to both natural and man-made tragedies. The primary causes of natural disasters include population growth, excessive industrialisation, urbanisation, exploitation of natural resources, deforestation, and a lack of environmental consciousness.

Disaster management

It is necessary to either avoid natural tragedies or disasters or to handle them effectively once they occur. 'Disaster Management' is a distinct branch of science. It is a science that crosses several fields. Disaster management requires the assistance of numerous disciplines. When dealing with a catastrophe or calamity, it focuses on the following.

- Early and accurate catastrophe predicting.
- Giving individuals a prompt warning.

- Effective message distribution to all parties involved.
- An impartial risk analysis.
- Removing people from the disaster area.
- Providing emergency victims with medical care as soon as possible.
- Engaging in repair and relief efforts.
- The Management of Natural Disasters by NGO's

Non-governmental organizations

NGOs assist individuals in this area. Numerous NGO organisations operate for the benefit of people on a local, national, and worldwide scale. Some of the well-known NGO's in India include the Chipko movement, Narmada Bachao Andolon, People's Union for Civil Liberties, Gandhi Peace Foundation, and Kerala Shashtra Sahitya Parishad. NGO's are essential to the handling of natural disasters[7], [8]. The following are some of the ways that these NGOs assist those impacted by disasters:

- NGOs can quickly begin rescue and relief efforts.
- These nonprofit organizations provide medical aid to those in need.
- They may also provide money for rehabilitation of individuals.
- These agencies may set up camps to teach those needed for rescue operations, as well as for first aid and rescue operations.
- NGO's may also organise conferences, workshops, and seminars to educate the public about environmental issues.
- NGO's are quite successful in gaining public support because of their grassroots activities. They are capable of organising massive environmental awareness campaigns.
- Public Interest Litigation (PIC) is a legal action that nonprofit groups may use to advocate for the protection of individuals' environmental rights.
- NGO's may exert pressure on the government to stop development projects that have a negative impact on the environment because of popular support.
- Naturally, NGOs may assist the government in addressing both natural and man-made disasters.

Effective management of natural calamitous substances

India's natural disasters. Natural disasters including earthquakes, cyclones, floods, droughts, landslides, and others may affect the Indian land. Earthquake literally refers to an abrupt trembling or shaking of the ground. Specifically, volcanic eruptions are to blame. Buildings, dams, highways, railway lines and tunnels all collapse because to it. It also causes landslides, floods, and tsunamis, all of which result in many fatalities. It is consequently regarded as the worst natural disaster. Earthquakes are more frequent in the Himalayan Mountain ranges. A cyclone results from low air pressure in a specific location. Around the core of the barometric pressure, the wind veers fiercely. Tropical regions are particularly vulnerable to cyclones because the tropics are low-pressure zones. India is a nation in the tropics. As a result, cyclones that occur in the Bay of Bengal, the Indian Ocean, or the Arabic Sea are extremely likely to affect India's eastern and western coastal strips. Heavy rain and flooding in the area that follow a cyclone harm both mobile and immovable property. Numerous lives are lost and thousands of people are forced to flee their homes.

A literal definition of a flood is an overflow or outpouring of water from rivers or the sea. Floods are more likely to occur in the subcontinent of India. Rains in India are brought by erratic monsoonal winds. Again, from June to September, India has its most precipitation. As

a result, during the monsoon season, large rivers like the Ganga and Brahmaputra get overflowed. Like every other natural disaster, floods result in hundreds of fatalities, the devastation of agricultural crops, and erosion. Long periods with no rain are referred to as a drought. It speaks of precipitation that is less than the norm. Droughts often affect a number of Indian states, including Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Gujarat, and Orissa. Agriculture productivity is reduced during droughts. People experience hunger. They also result in human and animal fatalities.

A land slide literally refers to a mound of earth moving down a steep slope. It also denotes the unexpected collapse of a massive rock formation. It happens as a result of changes in the vegetation and water composition. These changes occur as a result of both human activity and the destabilisation of natural forces.

Human-caused catastrophes

In India, manmade catastrophes are just as damaging as natural ones. Road accidents, railway accidents, shipwrecks, and air catastrophes are all on the rise due to the growing human population and the excessive strain it is placing on transportation infrastructure. Incidents including gas leaks, oil spills, fallout, and the discharge of radioactive materials into the atmosphere are also more prevalent in factories, mines, and nuclear power plants. These incidents result in fatalities and the destruction of immovable property. Other instances of human-caused catastrophes include fires in cities, factories, and forests, terrorist attacks, bomb explosions, the use of nuclear weapons, and biological warfare. Both before and after the occurrence of all the aforementioned natural and man-made tragedies, management is required. Pre-calamity measures are those that are implemented in order to avert all various kinds of disasters. Post-calamity measures are those actions made to address all catastrophes after they have occurred[9], [10].

Pre-Calamity Precautions

The pre-calamity methods for handling all the various disasters are listed below. Creating an extremely sophisticated system for predicting disasters. creating a thorough map of a disaster-prone area to help locate the disaster quickly. regular review of the plans put in place to handle both natural and man-made disasters. making plans to provide citizens and government officials with the training they need to face and manage the disaster. Organising workshops, conferences, and seminars to enlighten the public on the causes and effects of disasters as well as the many approaches that may be taken to combat them. creating a very effective warning system to help prepare people's minds for the disaster. Regularly schedule public awareness campaigns. encouraging individuals to get property and life insurance. The post-tragedy measures become crucial when all other preventative or pre-calamity measures are unsuccessful and the calamity actually happens.

Post-calamity Interventions

establishing the precise location of the disaster. Rescue efforts are starting right now. giving the victims of the disaster the First Aid and medical care, they need. putting up vaccination campaigns to stop the spread of pandemic illnesses. giving the displaced people food. putting plans in place to provide individual's immediate help. assisting individuals in obtaining from insurance companies the insured amount against their lives and property. individuals moving to a safer location. making plans for the displaced people's rehabilitation.

Waste from human activity is produced in enormous quantities. If garbage is not properly disposed of, the environment becomes polluted. By appropriately managing the trash, this

may be avoided. A cutting-edge strategy for defending the environment against greenhouse emissions is carbon trading. In order to address the issue of carbon concentration in Indian metropolises, carbon banks are also important. Disasters may be either natural or caused by people. Pre-calamity and post-calamity methods may be used to control and avoid both of these catastrophes.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the relationship between environmental preservation and human rights emphasises how crucial a healthy environment is to the happiness of both people and whole communities. An important movement in global awareness towards preserving the earth for present and future generations may be seen in the rising acknowledgment of environmental rights as basic human rights. The interconnectedness of human dignity and environmental integrity highlights the need of strong legal systems, international collaboration, and sustainable development techniques. Governments, international organizations, and civil society must work together to maintain a harmonic balance between environmental preservation and socioeconomic advancement as environmental degradation continues to pose serious threats to human rights. Respecting environmental rights as part of human rights guarantees not just each person's fundamental freedoms but also the planet's resiliency for everyone's prosperity.

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CHAPTER 8

A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW OF ENVIRONMENT AND HUMAN HEALTH

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ABSTRACT:

The word "health" is quite alluring. It is an idea that might vary. Health is seen as a kind of riches. Each and every one of us wants to be healthy. A person can only advance in life if they are in excellent health. The human body has a unique maintenance system. The body is capable of making ongoing adjustments and holding those changes. "Homeostasis" is the name of this mechanism. However, this process might malfunction for a variety of causes, which would have an impact on a person's health. There is a clear correlation between health and environment since someone is considered to be in good health if they can operate normally in a certain environment. The maintenance of community health is possible if the environment is protected and pollution-free. The state of the air, water, food, soil, and climate all affect one's health. A person will suffer if the land, water, air, or food are contaminated. For the preservation and development of good health, the natural environment's quality and the social environment's importance cannot be overstated. The term "social environment" mostly relates to a person's way of life, including their eating habits, alcohol use, fatty and oily diet, stress levels, and other factors.

KEYWORDS:

Ability, Development, Environment, Human Health, Social.

INTRODUCTION

Today, however, the environment's quality has declined, which is having an impact on community health. The physical, chemical, and biological conditions in which people live are referred to as their environment. Health has three dimensions: physical, mental, and social wellbeing. According to the WHO (World Health Organisation), health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social wellbeing, and not merely the absence of diseases or infirmity." Physical health refers to the ability of our body's organs and systems to function normally in a particular setting. Social well-being refers to our ability to get along with others and function well in society, whereas mental well-being refers to our ability to manage our emotions, actions, and thoughts appropriately. A person's condition of health is one of dynamic balance or adjustment with their surroundings.

The phrase "organised way of applying resources to achieve the greatest health for the greatest number of people" may be used to describe community health. The state of the environment affects community health. More individuals will become sick if there is poor environmental quality, pollution, or environmental deterioration. Sanitation and immunisation are two crucial aspects that affect community health. Sanitation entails maintaining both one's own cleanliness and the cleanliness of one's surroundings. The theory and practise of establishing a healthy and sanitary environment is known as sanitation. According to the World Health Organisation, it is the management of all factors that have a negative impact on a person's physical growth, health, and survival. The primary goal of sanitation is to preserve the essentials of life: air, water, food, and housing disease-free [1], [2].

The term "air sanitation" refers to the quality of the air. People tend to suffer when pollution levels are higher, and in these polluted locations respiratory illnesses including cough, colds, and asthma are prevalent. Disease rates drop when individuals have access to clean, sufficient water, but when water is contaminated, more disease-causing microbes thrive there, endangering human health. Concern about food quality and food sanitation. Food shouldn't come in contact with flies or germs. We need to wash our hands before eating any kind of food. Inadequate sanitary facilities may cause infections of the skin, ears, eyes, and other body parts. Sewage removal and sanitation can include garbage disposal. One of the biggest issues is how to dispose of human waste since it might result in a dangerous condition that endangers people's health. The most crucial necessity, however, is a central sewage disposal system, which is absent in the majority of big centres.

Vaccination: Microorganisms that might cause illnesses are all around us. Our body develops resistance to them when it comes into touch with them. We have immunity (fighting ability) against illnesses because of this resistance. It serves as a natural immunisation. Vaccination is still used today to offer artificial immunisation. Immunity to fight against certain illnesses may be built up with the aid of vaccinations. In our nation, the pulse polio immunisation programme is well-liked. Numerous illnesses, including cholera, typhoid, and hepatitis, may be avoided through immunisation. It is true that prevention is preferable than treatment.

Environmental and community health relationship

A disease is a change in the body's state brought on by external influences, including dietary, chemical, biological, and physiological ones. Environment and health are thus linked. Disease outbreaks in developing nations are correlated with unfavourable environmental conditions.

Infectious infections, which are mostly caused by unsuitable environments, are the leading cause of mortality. Children in developing nations are the main victims of illnesses like diarrhoea, cholera, and dysentery that are connected to the environment. The following significant factors have a major role in how the environment impacts human health.

Lack of natural resources

Natural resources including air, water, and other resources are necessary for meeting one's fundamental requirements. However, the absence of clean, pure air, restricted access to good drinking water, and contaminated food contribute to a number of health issues. A recent investigation found that genuine water shortages and unsanitary conditions are to blame for 7% of all deaths and illnesses worldwide.

Exposure to biological agents

Biological agents, such as bacteria, viruses, and parasites that cause a variety of illnesses, are included in the category of environmental dangers. All microorganisms do not pose a threat to human health. There are several things that are pathogenic organisms, or disease-carrying organisms.

Environmental effects of development

In both developed and developing nations, health issues may result from developmental strategies. The increase in malaria, fever, and other diseases has been linked to deforestation and dam construction. Health disasters often occur when development initiatives are designed without taking people into account. Poor people's health is particularly impacted by heavy air pollution, which is to blame for the rise in illness rates.

Pollution and health

Industrialization is regarded as the most crucial component in economic growth. However, it is also to blame for an increase in other types of pollution, such as soil, water, and air. Human health is further impacted by this. Environment has an impact on a person's health. A person's health will be impacted by poor environmental conditions and pollution in industrialised nations. The number of persons afflicted with illnesses is rising as a result of increased air, water, and noise pollution. Air pollution is a widespread issue in urban industrial societies. Fossil fuels like petrol, diesel, etc. are mostly to blame. Health issues including asthma, bronchitis, harm to the neurological system, headaches, nausea, etc. are brought on by air pollution. Blood pressure and hearing are impacted by noise pollution. The danger of cardiac problems is also increased[3], [4].

Climate changes

Automatic changes are occurring as a result of environmental changes. excessive weather, such as excessive cold or heat, is a sign of climatic change. Every conceivable health issue, such as cancer, heart disease, weariness, irritability, skin allergies, headache, nausea, nervous system damage, and water-borne infections, may be brought on by climate change.

DISCUSSION

The three most crucial elements for human existence are food, water, and air. The air they breathe, the water they drink, and the food they eat all have an impact on their health. However, entirely pollution-free air and water are uncommon in industrialised societies. There are waterborne illnesses, food borne diseases, and air borne diseases because when water becomes polluted, it serves as a breeding ground for disease production. Certain microorganisms transmit illnesses to people by acting as disease carriers. People in wealthy nations are beginning to get this illness. In the United States, there are around 40,000 instances of Salmonella poisoning each year. The true number of infections may be more than 30 times higher since many milder cases go undiagnosed or unreported. Salmonella bacteria, which are rod-shaped and flagellated and are known to spread disease in people, animals, and birds (particularly poultry) globally, are to blame for this illness. The annual death toll from acute salmonellosis is around 600.

The most typical symptoms are diarrhoea, fever, and stomach pains. Severe diarrhoea may need hospitalisation. Unless the person receives immediate antibiotic treatment, the Salmonella infection in these situations may spread from the intestines via the blood stream to other body regions, which may be fatal. Infections with salmonella often heal on their own in 5-7 days. If the person gets extremely dehydrated or the illness spreads via the blood, treatment is required. Salmonella is not preventable by vaccination. The measures listed below are advised for preventive. Before eating, make sure the ground beef, eggs, and chicken are well cooked. Foods containing raw eggs or raw, unpasteurized milk should not be consumed. Immediately after coming into touch with raw meat or poultry, wash hands, kitchen surfaces, and utensils with soap and water. Fruits should be well washed before eating. Peel off and discard any fruit or vegetable rinds or outer leaves. Maintain a cool and clean refrigerator. Wash your hands well before making meals and after using the loo or changing a baby's diaper. Salmonellosis patients should refrain from handling food or providing others with water until it has been shown that they are no longer harbouring the Salmonella bacteria. The most secure meal for young newborns is breast milk. Many additional health issues, including salmonella, are avoided by breastfeeding.

Seasonal Diseases

The most fundamental need for all life, including that of plants, animals, and people, is water. There are many different types of microorganisms in the contaminated water. Some of them are dangerous to humans because they spread illnesses including cholera, bacillary, dysentery, typhoid fever, and diarrhoea.

Diarrhoea

All across the globe, diarrhoea is a frequent cause of newborn mortality. According to UNICEF, diarrhoea is a contributing factor in 17% of child fatalities. The Times of India reported on 24 April 2009 that among the five diseases recorded at municipal clinics, diarrhoea is the most common throughout the city (Mumbai), with its main symptoms including persistent looseness of the bowels, malabsorption of fat, yellowish greasy stools, fever, and anaemia. Diarrhoea may result in severe dehydration, which is one of the causes of mortality. Water, electrolytes, significant salts, and other nutrients are lost during diarrhoea. Diarrhoea often follows gastroenteritis brought on by parasites, bacterial toxins, or viral diseases. Those who are lactose intolerant may also get diarrhoea if they consume too much lactose or a milk product. Diarrhoea symptoms are treated by having the patient drink enough water to make up for the lost fluids, ideally combined with electrolytes to replenish lost salts and certain minerals. Diarrhoea may cause dehydration in those who are malnourished and sick, and if this condition is not appropriately managed, it might be fatal.

Influenza typhoid

It is brought on by the salmonella typhi bacteria. Human carriers deposit bacteria in food or water sources where they are later discovered and transmitted to nearby residents. Egypt, Pakistan, and India are notorious for having high rates of contracting these illnesses. Typhoid fever kills more than 50,000 individuals each year and affects more than 13 million people worldwide. Through faeces, which has a high concentration of the germs, patients with severe illnesses may pollute the nearby water supply. Poor appetite, headaches, aches and pains all over, fever, lethargic behaviour, and diarrhoea are typical symptoms. Typhoid fever patients often have a long-lasting temperature of 103–104 degrees Fahrenheit. Many patients have stomach and chest pain, as well as chest congestion. Antibiotics are used to treat typhoid fever.

Cholera: This severe illness is characterised by profuse watery diarrhoea, vomiting, and leg cramps. Cholera is an acute diarrhoea brought on by an infection of the gut with the bacteria vibrio cholera. Diarrhoea causes body fluid loss, which may cause severe dehydration. Without medical care, death may happen within hours. Cholera may be acquired by drinking contaminated water or eating food that has been exposed to the cholera bacteria. In Eastern India, a cholera epidemic has struck the Rayagada, Koraput, and Kalahandi districts in the state of Orissa, where more than 2,000 people have been brought to hospitals, according to BBC news from August 29, 2007. The death toll from this sickness has grown to 115, according to officials, who also report that 35 people have died of it in three tribal regions in the last two days. Doctors blame polluted food and water for the pandemic.

The most crucial step in treating cholera is replacing lost fluids and salts as soon as possible. Oral rehydration solution, a prepackaged combination of sugar and salts that should be combined with water and consumed in sufficient quantities, may be used to treat patients. The treatment of diarrhoea with this solution is practised globally. In severe situations, intravenous fluid replacement is often necessary. Rehydration is more crucial than antibiotics, which just decrease the illness' duration and lessen its intensity. In areas where cholera is

present, anyone who have severe diarrhoea and vomiting should seek medical assistance very once. Although cholera may and can be fatal if untreated, the illness is often easy to avoid if basic sanitation procedures are followed. It has been noted that cholera offers a serious concern in those nations where sanitary practises are not followed[5], [6].

Hepatitis is an infection and inflammatory condition that affects the liver. Acute hepatitis is defined as lasting less than six months, whereas chronic hepatitis lasts longer. It is brought on by the hepatitis virus family. Hepatitis comes in a variety of forms, including hepatitis A, B, and C. Hepatitis A is less prevalent from them. The most contagious blood-borne illness is hepatitis B. The liver is the target of a viral infection that may lead to both acute and chronic illness. 350 million individuals worldwide have a chronic illness caused by the virus, which has infected around 2 billion people globally. According to estimates, 6,00,000 people every year pass away from the acute or chronic effects of hepatitis B.

When the hepatitis is moderate, there is no need for therapy; nevertheless, when the hepatitis is really severe, liver transplantation is necessary. Muscle and joint pains, fever, nausea or vomiting, diarrhoea, and headache are some of the first symptoms. Hepatitis primarily affects how the liver works, including how it purges unwanted chemicals, controls blood chemistry, and produces bile to aid with digesting. Acute and chronic hepatitis both have different symptoms. Whatever the underlying aetiology of acute hepatitis, frequent symptoms include anorexia, black urine, jaundice, and yellowing of the skin and eyes. Only 5 to 10 percent of persons with hepatitis B infection go on to have a chronic infection. We refer to them as chronic carriers. The illness may spread to others even if two thirds of these individuals do not become sick themselves. Hepatocellular carcinoma or liver cirrhosis, which is the hardening of the liver, may develop as a result of chronic hepatitis. Liver disorders are responsible for 15–25% of fatalities.

Treatment is not necessary for acute hepatitis since it normally resolves on its own. However, if the patient has vomiting or diarrhoea, a therapy must be administered to manage these symptoms. The correct medical treatment is necessary for chronic hepatitis. The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has officially authorised four drugs for the management of active hepatitis B infection. Vaccination campaigns have been the main focus of recent public health initiatives to fight the illness. Soil-born illnesses: Young children like playing in the dirt, which makes them vulnerable to such illnesses. The most prevalent of these illnesses is an intestinal parasitic infection brought on by worms. 35 million persons had worm infections, the WHO reported in 1996. Tetanus is another sickness spread via dirt. Both moms and newborns are affected by this condition. Anti-tetanus shots are used during pregnancy as a precaution.

Tuberculosis

TB is a common abbreviation for tuberculosis. It has a lengthy history. It was referred to as "Rajyaroga" in ancient India and is brought on by the mycobacterium TB. When persons with tuberculosis cough, sneeze, or spit, the illness is disseminated via the air. It is a lung condition. The central nervous system, the circulatory system, the epidermis, the joints, the bones, and even the lymphatic system are all susceptible to TB assault. People with compromised immune systems are more susceptible to contracting TB. It is simpler for a person to get TB if they have AIDS, HIV, or other immune-declining illnesses. Chest discomfort, a persistent cough lasting more than three weeks, coughing up blood, fever, chills, night sweats, lack of appetite, weight loss, pallor, and weariness are some TB symptoms. are able to be found with the use of chest x-rays. A tuberculin skin test, blood testing, microscopic inspection, and microbiological culture of body fluids are also performed

in addition to this. Tuberculosis treatment is challenging and requires lengthy courses of several medications. An effective course of therapy is crucial for TB. To live a long and healthy life, be patient. Bacillus Calmette Guérin (B.C.G.) vaccinations are available for children and are the mainstay of T.B. prevention. Unfortunately, there isn't a vaccination that can reliably protect adults. The TB infection has been exposed to approximately 2 billion individuals, or one-third of the world's population, according to the World Health Organisation (WHO). Around the globe, 8 million people get TB each year, and 2 million people die away from it. However, it has been shown that the issue is more serious in many Asian and African nations than it is in the US or other advanced nation[7], [8].

Diphtheria

A severe infectious illness, diphtheria. It is a disease that may be acquired by close personal contact. A painful throat, a mild temperature, and an adhering membrane (a pseudo membrane) on the tonsils, pharynx, and/or nasal cavity are all symptoms of the upper respiratory infection diphtheria. Diphtheria may be confined to the skin in a lesser form. Fever, weariness, a minor sore throat, and swallowing issues are all symptoms. Some children may not exhibit signs until the illness has advanced further, but those that are afflicted have symptoms including nausea, vomiting, chills, and a high fever. Patients with neck swelling, colloquially known as "bull neck," which occurs in 10% of cases, have a greater chance of dying. A potent toxin is sometimes also created, and it may harm the heart and nerves. The bacteria *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* is the cause. It has an impact on both the central and peripheral nervous systems' myelin sheaths.

The former USSR had an outbreak that resulted in 47,802 cases and 1,746 fatalities in 1994 and 1,500 deaths in 1995, despite the incidence being significantly decreased by vaccination. Since broad immunisations against this illness are now accessible, industrialised countries have essentially eliminated diphtheria. In the US, for instance, there were 52 documented cases between 1980 and 2000; between 2000 and 2007, there were just five occurrences. A diphtheria anti-toxin will be administered to patients with severe cases and they will be placed in an intensive care unit of a hospital. Patients also get antibiotics.

Influenza

The flu is the popular name for influenza. It is a contagious illness. Orthomyxoviridae viruses, which cause influenza, are acute respiratory viral infections that produce chills, fever, pharyngitis, muscular pains, severe headaches, coughing, nausea, vomiting, gastroenteritis, weakness, and overall discomfort. Pneumonia is a more dangerous complication of influenza. Coughing or sneezing may spread influenza via the air. Today, individuals in affluent nations often utilise influenza vaccinations. Trivalent influenza vaccination (TIV) is the name of this shot. Flu comes in a variety of forms. The so-called Spanish Flu pandemic (type A influenza, H1N1 subtype), which lasted from 1918 to 1919, was the most well-known and deadly epidemic. Between 20 and 100 million individuals have died as a result of this illness. Antiviral medications weren't accessible back then. Influenza patients are encouraged to rest completely. They should consume lots of liquids, such as water. The use of paracetamol may relieve bodily pains and fever. Additionally, antiviral medications are sometimes recommended.

The lung condition known as pneumonia. Before the development of antibiotics, one-third of those who had pneumonia went on to die. It is brought on by lungs-damaging chemicals, viruses, fungus, bacteria, and other organisms. Chest discomfort, a cough, a high temperature and chills, as well as trouble breathing, are typical signs of pneumonia. Doctor may diagnose it based on the patient's breathing pattern and chest condition, but for further confirmation he

uses a chest X-ray and pathological testing of the patient's sputum. Sputum analysis is often able to identify the bacteria or fungus, if they are the cause of the pneumonia. Different treatments are provided for various types of pneumonia; sometimes, a medication that works for one kind may not work for another. Antibiotics are used to treat the bacterial pneumonia. Rimantadine or amantadine may be used to treat viral pneumonia caused by influenza A, whereas oseltamivir or zanamivir may be used to treat viral pneumonia caused by influenza A or B.

Other Illnesses

Malaria

Mosquitoes are among the most hazardous insects, and their bites may result in a number of illnesses, including Dengue, Filariasis, Chikungunya, and malaria. The disease-carrying mosquitoes are spreading from one nation to another as a result of international travel, commerce, and migration. Around three million people die from malaria each year, which affects 350 to 500 million people worldwide. The parasite *Plasmodium*, which is spread by female *Anopheles* mosquitoes, is what causes malaria. Tropical regions including Africa, Central and South America, South East Asia, and the Pacific Islands are often affected by malaria. Malaria often causes headaches, aching muscles, tiredness, and weakness. Later, the headache worsens, the temperature rises along with the chills, there is nausea and vomiting, as well as a lack of appetite. A person's malaria will worsen in these circumstances if they have *P. falciparum* infection. Low blood pressure, jaundice, renal failure, etc. are all possible ailments. Even sometimes, severe malaria may be lethal to the brain and central nervous system.

Preventing mosquito bites, using mosquito nets, and spraying pesticides inside of homes and near standing water may all help to lower the risk. Specific anti-malarial medications are used in treatment, coupled with supporting measures. In September 2002, malaria became prevalent in Mumbai. Fever associated with malaria first comes and goes, leading to confusion with regular fever. Only after a blood test is malaria verified. The chlorquin pill is often given. If the patient has *plasmodium falciparum* malaria, hospitalisation may be necessary. Malaria is treated with anti-malarial medications and a few other methods. It is always preferable to avoid malaria. Indoor residual spraying (IRS) insecticides are particularly successful in preventing malaria in places that are afflicted by the disease. Use of mosquito nets, lotions to ward off mosquitoes, and pesticide vaporizers are some other protective strategies[9], [10].

Dengue

Dengue fever and dengue hemorrhagic fever (D.H.F.) are viral illnesses that are closely connected to one another. DHF is the most severe of these two. These viral infections are spread by mosquitoes, much like malaria. These illnesses afflict 40 million individuals each year. Delhi had a dengue outbreak in 1996 that resulted in 10,252 cases and 423 fatalities. Other states impacted were Haryana, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, and Tamil Nadu. Four different viruses that are spread by *Aedes aegypti* mosquitoes cause dengue and D.H.F. These disorders are characterised by abrupt onset of fever, severe headache, discomfort in the muscles and joints, and red rashes. In addition to stomach discomfort, nausea, vomiting, or diarrhoea, certain people may also have gastropathy.

Dehydration from dengue may occur, necessitating oral fluid intake or intravenous fluid supplementation. Paracetamol preparations are advised for treating dengue. Controlling mosquito populations is one of the greatest ways to avoid dengue. The primary source of

Aedes mosquito reproduction is water kept in artificial containers such plastic bottles, cups, tyres, etc. The number of mosquitoes may be decreased by routinely emptying these water collections. Use of mosquito netting or treatments for repelling mosquitoes are further strategies.

Chikungunya

This viral fever condition is known as chikungunya. In Tamilnadu, Karnataka, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, and certain areas of Maharashtra, chikungunya expanded widely in the 2006–2007 period. Thousands of instances were recorded in Rajasthan in August 2006. The chikungunya virus (CHIKV), which is what causes the disease, is spread by the bite of an infected Aedes aegypti mosquito. Typically, this mosquito breeds on clean, stored water. The signs of this illness include a high temperature that appears suddenly, as well as headaches, nausea, vomiting, stiffness in the joints, and sensitivity to light. The patient's limbs are immobile. Even after the fever and other symptoms of this illness have subsided, joint discomfort may last for weeks or even months.

There is no particular antiviral therapy for this illness. Ibuprofen is often taken together with painkillers like paracetamol to treat pain and other symptoms. It is suggested that patients rest completely. Avoid using aspirin. Chikungunya may be prevented in the same way as other mosquito-borne illnesses, i.e., by avoiding or removing water collection, covering appropriately stored water, spraying pesticides, thermal fogs, and eradicating mosquitoes from that region. Using mosquito netting on windows can keep mosquitoes out of the home.

Every year, new flu strains appear somewhere in the world and swiftly spread to other regions of the globe. In 1997, the avian flu virus was discovered for the first time in Hong Kong, from whence it quickly spread to other nations in Asia, Europe, and Africa. In addition to sometimes affecting humans, this sickness mostly affects living things like birds and animals. A particularly infectious illness called bird flu is now affecting both domestic and wild bird populations. Some domesticated birds, such chickens, ducks, and turkeys, may get very ill and die as a result of this illness.

Avian Influenza is another name for bird flu. The H5N1 virus, which is mostly found in birds, is what causes it. The Birbhum area of West Bengal has seen the most recent Bird Flu pandemic. Approximately 19,000 hens perished in the hamlet of Margram between January 8 and January 13, 2008, according to a Times of India story (dated January 15, 2008). The extensive occurrence of H5N1 in the poultry population might be dangerous for humans. If the bird flu virus spreads from poultry to people, it might cause very serious illness. Through direct touch with diseased chickens or contaminated objects, humans are susceptible to infection. Fever, cough, sore throat, muscular discomfort, conjunctivitis, and in extreme instances, breathing difficulties and pneumonia that might be lethal, are the symptoms that affect people. The person's immunity affects the disease's severity. Oseltamivir and zanamivir, two antiviral drugs, are likely useful for treating influenza brought on by the H5N1 virus, according to the CDC (Centre for disease control and prevention), but further research is required to confirm this. In locations where the avian flu is a problem, chicken products must be cooked properly to stop the virus from spreading. Consumers

The major symptom of conjunctivitis, an eye condition, is eye irritation. An allergic response or an infection (often bacterial, but sometimes viral) are the two main causes. In certain cases, irritants like shampoo, grime, smoking, or chlorine may be to blame. The primary signs and symptoms of conjunctivitis include swelling and redness around the eye, inflammation within the eye, and a thick, yellow or white discharge coming from the eye. In certain situations, there may also be itchiness in the eyes. Additionally, the patients lament their discomfort and

impaired eyesight. Medical treatment is required for conjunctivitis. The kind of treatment depends on what caused the issue. Cool compresses and fake tears might sometimes ease pain in moderate instances of allergy. Antihistamines and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs may be administered in more serious circumstances. Eye drops or ointments containing antibiotics that are effective against a variety of bacteria are often used to treat bacterial conjunctivitis. Similar to the common cold, viral conjunctivitis has no known treatment, although the symptoms may be eased with cool compresses and artificial tears (available at most pharmacies). Topical steroid drops may be used in the severe situations to ease inflammation-related pain. Within three weeks, viral conjunctivitis often goes away.

Leptospirosis is an infectious illness brought on by a specific bacterial species known as a spirochete. Rats, foxes, and other animals may spread leptospirosis to humans. People either consume contaminated food or drink or come into touch with polluted water or soil via damaged skin and mucous membranes (such as the eyes, nose, sinuses, and mouth). The bacteria that cause leptospirosis may get into the body via cuts and mucosal membranes. When a person drinks or eats tainted food, the germs may potentially get into their system. Once in the circulation, the germs may travel to any area of the body and produce illness-related symptoms. Similar to many other tropical illnesses, the majority of infected people get a mild to severe sickness. Fever, headache, chills, nausea, vomiting, eye irritation, and muscular pains are some of the symptoms. In more severe instances, the sickness may cause internal bleeding, renal failure, liver damage, and jaundice (yellowing of the skin and whites of the eyes). Hospitalisation is often required for leptospirosis patients who are critically unwell. Usually, 10 days after infection, symptoms appear. State health departments provide a specialised blood test for the diagnosis of leptospirosis. Antibiotics are effective in treating it. It is important to begin treatment as soon as possible. People who are really unwell may need intravenous antibiotic therapy and other forms of supportive care. By limiting contact with vegetation, dirt, and stagnant rainwater that may be tainted by sick animals' urine, particularly rats, this illness may be avoided.

CONCLUSION

The health of people and the environment are closely related. The kind and quality of the environment affect health. Individuals who live in clean, healthy environments with little pollution often enjoy excellent health, while individuals who live in dirty, polluted environments often get numerous ailments. The best possible level of health is every person's basic right, according to the WHO. Certain illnesses are spread by environmental factors including air, water, and food. They could spread certain viruses, parasites, and germs. In addition, certain insects, such as mosquitoes, may transmit illnesses including malaria, chikungunya, and dengue fever. Bird flu, swine flu, and other novel illnesses are caused by new strains of bacteria and viruses that emerge as a result of environmental change.

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CHAPTER 9

IMPACT OF DEVELOPMENTAL PROJECTS ON HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Economic and social development is greatly influenced by development projects, yet there are serious questions about how these initiatives affect human health and the environment. This article examines the complex effects of development initiatives on the environment and human health. It looks at how extensive infrastructure, industrialisation, and urbanisation projects may have a negative impact on people's health because of pollution, eviction, and a lack of access to healthcare. The article also explores the environmental effects of these initiatives, such as habitat damage, air and water pollution, deforestation, and so on. The debate emphasises the necessity for a well-rounded strategy that takes into account sustainable growth while preserving environmental and public health integrity. The research emphasises how crucial it is to include health and environmental impact assessments into project planning, policy formulation, and regulatory frameworks in order to make sure that developmental endeavours positively contribute to human well-being and environmental preservation. By implementing responsible and inclusive practices, that societal development initiatives favourably impact everyone's welfare while preserving people's health and the environment for present and future generations.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural, Development, Human Rights, Political, Society, Strategy.

INTRODUCTION

Any nation's economic growth depends on its development initiatives. Infrastructure provision for individuals depends on these initiatives. However, although development initiatives cannot be avoided, they also have a negative impact on the environment and human health. Therefore, an effort is made to discuss various aspects of developmental projects in this chapter, including the motivations behind such projects, their various forms, the variables to be taken into account before proposing any new project, and the effects of dams, nuclear power plants, and thermoelectric projects on the environment and human health.

Research Projects

Any nation's potential to expand its economy is dependent on two elements: the availability of natural resources and well-developed infrastructure. Natural resources are gifts from the environment. They can't be made bigger. Thus, it is important to utilise natural resources wisely. To the greatest extent possible, they should be used and preserved in order to further national development. Infrastructures are man-made modes of transportation. Examples include banking and insurance services, communication tools, and energy. The economy of India is diverse. In India, individuals own the means of production, while the government provides the infrastructure. The most essential infrastructure needed for a country to prosper is its energy supply. Infrastructures are to be made accessible to people in general and

industrialists in particular via development initiatives. Developmental projects are referred to as "the centres of national development" since they offer the infrastructure necessary for India's agricultural, economic, and industrial growth[1], [2].

Project types for development

Developmental initiatives are divided into two categories based on size: small and giant, micro or mega developmental projects. A small-scale development project is one that only affects a single hamlet, such as an irrigation project. The Sardar Sarovar project is a significant construction undertaking. Developmental projects are divided into two types based on their purposes: single-purpose and multi-purpose initiatives. Because the Dabhol power plant was started with the primary intent of producing energy, it is a single-purpose project. The Narmada Dam is a multi-purpose project since it was started with the intention of providing people with drinking water as well as water for cultivation and the production of electricity. The following five categories roughly classify development initiatives related to a nation's economic development:

- **Agricultural Projects:** These are initiatives made to advance agriculture in the nation. Projects like irrigation, as an example.
- **Industrial Projects:** These are initiatives made to promote industrial growth. Iron and steel projects, as an example.
- **Transport Projects:** These are carried out to provide people travel and transport services. Roads and railroads are two examples.
- **Projects involving communication** are carried out in order to provide communication services. Internet, telephone, and postal services are a few examples.
- **Electricity projects** are designed and carried out in order to generate energy or electricity. Nuclear power projects, for instance.

Issues resulting from development initiatives -

On the one hand, developmental projects are necessary for the nation's economic progress, but on the other, all of these initiatives also bring about a number of social, economic, and environmental issues. These initiatives have negative effects on both human health and the environment[3], [4]. The following are the primary issues that arise from developing projects:

People's land is taken from them to build projects on, which causes a great number of people to be uprooted. Mega-developmental initiatives force locals to lose their means of support and source of income. People are compelled to relocate because of development projects in order to find alternate sources of income. Additionally, people are compelled to alter their job patterns. For instance, farmers who lose their land end up working in factories. People who have been forced to relocate do not get timely compensation for the loss of their possessions and jobs. The most significant issue resulting from developmental initiatives is the issue of rehabilitation. Developmental initiatives can have a negative impact on human health and environmental quality. Locals begin to resist the projects as a result of these economic and ecological issues. Social agitations and tensions result from this.

Factors to take into account before submitting any new development project proposals

Developmental initiatives have highly negative effects on people's physical and emotional well-being. Therefore, while considering any new project, it is important to consider the social, economic, and ecological implications of development initiatives. The proposed project should be approved or rejected based on its respective strengths and demerits. The term "environmental impact assessment" (EIA) refers to such a procedure. This is crucial in

order to approve any new project. Rejecting the project will avoid difficulties better than dealing with issues that result from developing initiatives. It is thus suggested that every development project should undergo a thorough and critical assessment of the potential social, economic, and environmental issues that might result from it.

DISCUSSION

The effects of dams, nuclear power plants, and thermoelectric projects on the environment and public health will be covered in this chapter. All of these are energy or power generation initiatives. Dams are often built to collect rainwater and utilise it for things like irrigation, drinking, and other uses. Additionally, electricity or energy is produced from the stored water. Dams are thus multifunctional development initiatives. Energy may be found in water. Hydropower, often known as hydel power, is energy produced from water. It is very affordable, spotlessly clean, and pollution-free. Additionally, it is a renewable energy source. And therefore, compared to alternative power projects, hydropower dams are preferred by the majority of nations worldwide. The three largest multi-purpose and mega-developmental projects in India are Bhakra Nangal, Chambal Damodar Valley, and Sardar sarovar. All of them include building small, medium, and big storage dams in addition to generating plants.

Large dams must be built in order to store rainfall for use in massive hydroelectric power production. In order to fulfil the nation's escalating energy demands, this is crucial. The year-round generation of hydropower is necessary. And dams are built for this reason. Dams must be built for many social, economic, and ecological reasons, which makes them both inevitable and problematic. Dams harm both the natural environment and people's health.

Dams' effects on the environment

Dams result in the flooding of productive agricultural and forest areas. Forests are destroyed as a result of dam construction. Forests covering thousands of hectares are drowned. Dams disrupt the ecosystem as well. Aquatic and terrestrial species are both wiped off. The earth's biological variety is decreased as a result. Earthquakes might be brought on by the massive amount of water stored in the dams. Farmers and tribe members lose their land as a result of the submergence of agricultural and forested areas, and they are relocated. The rehabilitation of these displaced persons is also made much more difficult as a result. Floods that kill thousands of people may be brought on by dam overflows or the abrupt discharge of a large amount of water from them. Dam construction contributes to ecological imbalance, which is the main cause of health issues.

Health effects of dams on people

Dams can lead to severe health issues. They facilitate the spread of endemic, local, and epidemic illnesses by creating favourable circumstances. Diseases associated with the air and the water are brought on by environmental deterioration in the form of air and water pollution. The retention of water in dams fosters the hatching of mosquitoes that spread infectious illnesses like malaria and filarial, among others, and cause epidemics. Workers who build dams are exposed to disease agents and contract a variety of infectious illnesses. People in the area have respiratory conditions including cough, colds, and even asthma. Once again, when individuals move to another country, they bring these illnesses with them, and both the newcomers and the locals get infections and communicable diseases[5], [6].

Nuclear power plants' effects on the environment and human health. For the purpose of producing nuclear or atomic energy, nuclear power plants are built. Nuclear Fission and Nuclear Fusion are the two methods used to create nuclear energy. Atomic nuclei in the

former are divided, whilst those in the later are fused or united. Atomic mass is lost in both processes, and the lost mass is transformed into energy known as nuclear or atomic energy. Nuclear fission, which occurs when the atom bomb detonates, generates a massive amount of nuclear energy. Additionally, nuclear fusion causes a massive amount of nuclear to be produced when the hydrogen bomb detonates. The energy released upon the explosion of an atomic weapon is uncontrollable. Because of its immense strength, bomb blasts completely demolish everything in their path. This is the rationale behind why bombs are used as weapons in conflicts to cause damage. Nuclear energy created by nuclear fusion and nuclear fission processes may be managed. And nuclear reactors are built for this reason. Nuclear reactor energy may be utilised for peaceful purposes since it can be completely controlled.

Nuclear reactor types

Nuclear reactors are divided into three sorts based on the motivations for their construction: 1) production nuclear reactors, 2) research nuclear reactors, and 3) power nuclear reactors. Production nuclear reactors are designed to produce uranium from thorium or plutonium. Nuclear energy is produced using these fundamental components. The primary sources of nuclear energy, free neutrons and radioisotopes, are produced in research nuclear reactors. The heat is generated by power nuclear reactors and transformed into electrical and mechanical energy.

India's nuclear reactors

Nuclear reactors are used in India to create nuclear electricity. In India, the Atomic Energy Commission was founded in 1948. The commission was given Dr. H. J. Bhabha as its chairman. The three nuclear reactors Apsara, Circus, and Zernila were constructed under his astute leadership. In 1963, Tarapur saw the construction of the first nuclear power plant. Even the plutonium production facility was already up in 1965. At Pokharan, a nuclear weapon was detonated for peaceful reasons. Therefore, Dr. Bhabha deserves credit for India's nuclear progress. Right now, nuclear power is used in every nation. The usage of atomic energy is not the only option. However, the production of nuclear energy in nuclear reactors, its use for destructive purposes, the massive waste produced by nuclear power plants, and nuclear testing have a negative impact on both the natural world and people's health.

Environmental Effects of Nuclear Power Plants

Following are some environmental and ecological issues caused by nuclear power facilities. Uranium is required as a raw material in nuclear reactors. It is taken out using mines. Mining operations result in landslides, soil erosion, air pollution, and water contamination both above and below ground. Soil deterioration is the end effect in its entirety. Large amounts of water are needed for cooling in nuclear power facilities. The radioactive waste in this tremendously hot water from power plants. It contaminates the water in both rivers and seas when it is dumped there. Additionally, the environment's quality is impacted. Both mobile and immovable property is destroyed by the detonation of nuclear bombs, the use of nuclear weapons, and nuclear testing. The heat produced by the bomb burst is immense. Literally everything in its path is burned. Nuclear weapons usage releases radiation into the environment that stays there for centuries. The physical environment is polluted by nuclear waste. Fallout is the term for it. When nuclear waste is released into the environment, it pollutes the lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere the three primary parts of the ecosystem. Before being put to use, nuclear weapons must first undergo testing. Nuclear tests are tests carried out for this reason. Either the land, the water, or the atmosphere are used for these testing. The environment will unavoidably be impacted by these experiments. Nuclear testing may have both local and global repercussions. Near the test site, local impacts may be

felt. However, nuclear testing have global impacts that are felt all over the world. Tests conducted underground affect the local rock structure. This causes natural disasters like earthquakes and landslides, among others. The subsurface water becomes contaminated when radioactive waste from underground testing gets there. Surface water and soil may both be contaminated. The water in the ocean is contaminated by nuclear experiments, which kill a lot of aquatic life. Animals and birds are also killed by atmospheric nuclear testing. Nuclear tests therefore inevitably disrupt the ecosystem. Thus, the lithosphere, hydrosphere, atmosphere, and biosphere the four components of the eco-system are all disturbed by nuclear power plants, which generate vast amounts of radioactive waste [7], [8].

Human health effects of nuclear power plants

The physical environment that is harmed by nuclear waste has the following negative effects on human health. Plant and animal cells are quickly destroyed by neutron and gamma radiation. Additionally, it harms chromosomes and genes. Future generations are affected by genetic flaws and hereditary issues as a result. In live cells, nuclear radiation generates excitement. These cells suffer severe harm, and new, altered cells are created as a result. 'Biological Magnification' is the term used to describe this. It results in physical defects that parents are prone to pass on to their children. 'Radon', a radicalised gas, is produced during the mining and processing of uranium. Those who work in uranium mines are exposed to radiation and get deadly diseases like cancer. The water, land, and air around the uranium processing facilities are contaminated. The human thyroid is adversely affected by this. Large amounts of radioactive material are released during the manufacturing of plutonium and tritium in nuclear reactors, and the radiation induced by this material inevitably causes the development of lung cancer in employees. The water is contaminated by radioactive elements released by the reprocessing facilities. If animals consume the grass growing on this filthy water, their milk will be contaminated. The most horrible inherited abnormalities and illnesses, such as cancer and tuberculosis, are brought on by radiation from nuclear waste. Infertility and miscarriages in women are also caused by it.

Control of Nuclear Radiation's Negative Effects

Nuclear radiation has severely negative or lethal impacts on human health. People must consequently be shielded from the dangerous consequences of nuclear radiation. The following are some strategies for reducing nuclear radiation's negative effects. It is important to properly dispose of the nuclear waste. The nuclear waste should be transported through pipes. For the purpose of preventing the spread of radioactive waste into the atmosphere, nuclear power facilities should be coated with cement, concrete, etc.

The dangers of radiation and radioactive waste should be well-known to the public in advance. People should be relocated away from nuclear power facilities if required to a location that is safer. Controlling human exposure to very sensitive nuclear particles is crucial. People need to get immediate medical care. By enhancing human resilience, humans may be safeguarded from the harmful effects of nuclear radiation. Although the negative effects of nuclear radiation cannot be totally controlled, they may be greatly reduced.

Telethermal Electric Projects

In thermal generators, fossil fuels like coal and natural gas are often burned to generate thermal power. However, this energy is known as hydro-electric power when it is generated in hydro turbines by moving water. Water is heated in thermal power plants in order to turn it into steam. This steam powers the hydroelectric turbine that creates energy. After leaving the turbine, this steam is likewise compressed to turn it into water. This water is rather warm. It

has to be thrown away appropriately. The power produced by thermoelectric plants aids in addressing the issue of energy shortage. Thermoelectric projects have negative consequences on the environment and people's health, much as nuclear power plants do.

Environmental effects of thermoelectric projects

The following are ways that thermoelectric initiatives harm the natural world. Large amounts of water are needed by thermoelectric power plants for the many cooling processes that are part of them. However, the water itself becomes quite hot throughout these operations. Typically, it is dumped into rivers and seas. The oxygen in the water of rivers and seas is destroyed by this highly heated water. It is contaminated. Thermal pollution is the term for this. Deforestation results from the construction of thermoelectric plants. Animals and birds are destroyed as a result, and the environment is affected. The environment is negatively impacted by air pollution brought on by the thermoelectric plants' release of toxic chemicals and deadly gases into the atmosphere. The hydrosphere is disrupted when liquid waste from thermoelectric installations is improperly disposed of into clean water. Noise pollution is also a problem with thermoelectric installations. The major sources of noise are combustion turbine generators, compressors, condensers, and cooling towers. Solid waste is produced during thermoelectric power plant operations as well.

These solid waste products must be appropriately disposed of. Pollution of the land, water, and air results from incorrect disposal. Concentrations of carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, chlorfluorocarbon, etc. are also brought on by thermal power plants. One of the most important ecological issues is global warming, which has been brought on by this. Thermoelectric power plants are another source of acid rain. It results from the combustion of fossil fuels, which releases nitrous oxide and sulphur gas into the atmosphere.

Health effects of thermoelectric project

The physical environment's quality affects human health. The quality of the environment is negatively impacted by thermoelectric projects. And one of the main reasons for the overall decline in health is the contaminated environment.

The negative consequences of thermoelectric projects on health are listed below. When poured into rivers and seas, the very hot water discharged by thermoelectric projects lowers the amount of oxygen in the water.

Aquatic creatures need a high oxygen content in the water to survive in a healthy state, hence this has a negative impact on their health. Burning fossil fuels like coal and natural gas produces heat that is transformed into thermal energy.

These fuels are derived from mining operations. Coal mining involves a great deal of danger. As a result, greenhouse gases build up in the atmosphere. As a result, many who work in coal mines have respiratory problems. These employees also pass away too soon.

Uranium, plutonium, and other radioactive and hazardous substances are produced when coal is burned, which pollutes the atmosphere. Once again, these contaminants are harmful to both human and animal health. They are afflicted with various ailments.

Diseases connected to air, water, and food contamination are also brought on by nuclear waste from thermoelectric plants. Hereditary and physical illnesses are both brought on by the chemicals and toxins that thermoelectric projects release into the environment [9], [10].

Problems caused by thermoelectric projects: solutions

By appropriately disposing of the waste from thermoelectric projects, all of these health-related issues resulting from environmental pollution brought on by thermoelectric projects may be resolved. lowering the quantity of garbage these initiatives produce. limiting the environmental damage these initiatives produce. requesting that they refrain from coming into contact with hazardous, gaseous, and radioactive waste from the projects. enhancing a person's resistance or immunity. Developmental initiatives are carried out primarily to make infrastructures accessible to people. One of the fundamental infrastructures is energy. Power-generating projects are planned for development.

The primary power plants include dams, nuclear power plants, and thermoelectric projects. Despite being inevitable, they have a negative impact on the environment and human health. So, towards the conclusion of the chapter, remedies to the issues caused by developmental initiatives are given.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the effects of development initiatives on the environment and human health are complicated, interrelated issues that need to be carefully considered. These initiatives might boost economic development and raise living standards, but they could also have a negative impact on the environment and public health.

Poorly planned and managed projects may have a number of unfavourable effects, including the deterioration of air and water quality, the relocation of populations, the loss of biodiversity, and the disturbance of ecosystems. It is necessary to handle these problems holistically and sustainably, keeping in mind the welfare of both people and the environment. It is crucial to strike a balance between environmental protection and growth.

The incorporation of health and environmental impact evaluations into project design and decision-making processes must be given top priority by policymakers, planners, and stakeholders. Aside from that, encouraging community involvement, advancing openness, and putting into place efficient regulatory procedures are crucial steps in reducing the negative consequences of development projects.

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CHAPTER 10

NATURE OF ECOLOGY IN HUMAN RIGHTS: A REVIEW STUDY

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ABSTRACT:

Ecology is the study of organisms and their surroundings. The physical environment's state directly affects both the survival and existence of man. The elements of the eco-system or environment must be understood. Activities throughout the primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary periods are deteriorating the physical environment. Natural resources are being used by man for his own purposes. Degradation of the environment is another effect of this. Natural resources need to be sparingly used now while being preserved for future generations. Environmental ethics aids man in the use and preservation of natural resources in this area. For the sake of preventing the environment's destruction, this is crucial. Thus, this chapter's discussion of ecology, ecosystem components, environmental degradation brought on by human activity, and environmental ethics. Ecology is a distinct branch of study. It focuses on the study of organisms and the environment. Because of human activity, the physical environment is being deteriorated. Environmental degradation is brought on by excessive industrial activity as well as intensified agriculture. Environmental degradation makes it harder for humans to live and survive on the planet. It has to be stopped and managed. Natural resources must be used as effectively as possible for this goal, and they must also be protected. Environmental ethics also instructs people to safeguard environmental degradation.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural, Development, Ecology, Ethics, Environmental.

INTRODUCTION

German scientist Ernst Haeckel first used the word ecology in 1866. It is derived from the Greek words 'Oikos' and 'Logos'. Oikos and logos literally translate as "home" and "study," respectively. Therefore, etymologically speaking, ecology refers to the study of organisms in their natural habitat. Ecology is referred to as "the comprehensive science of the relationship of organisms to the environment". Modern ecologist Smith has added the definition "A multidisciplinary science which deals with organism and its place to live" to the definition of ecology. He specialises in ecological system research. Eugenics Warning, a Danish botanist, is regarded as the originator of contemporary ecology since he created a complete textbook on the subject. Ecology is often defined as the study of eco-systems, which in nature constitute a self-contained whole. A system of creatures that live in the physical environment is referred to as an eco-system. Thus, the biotic and abiotic components are the two primary parts of the eco-system.

The component that is abiotic. The non-living components make up the abiotic component. It alludes to the physical environment, which consists of things like dead plants, gases, water, minerals, metals, and elements. The Biotic Components, on the other hand, pertain to

creatures and living things. The eco-system is made up of both abiotic and biotic components. The lithosphere, hydrosphere, atmosphere, and biosphere make up the ecosystem. The topmost layer of the Earth is called the lithosphere. Oceans and continents are supported by it. Its thickness varies depending on the location. In the continental areas, it varies from 35 to 50 kilometres, while in the bottom of seas, it varies from 6 to 12 kilometres. At mountaintops, it is around 60 km. The term "hydrosphere" describes the area of the world covered by water. The water in lakes, rivers, glaciers, ice caps, and seas is included. It also encompasses subterranean water. The remaining 3% of water on earth is found in the various water systems, leaving around 97 percent of it in the oceans and seas[1], [2].

The term "atmosphere" describes the layer of gases that envelops the world. Because of the earth's gravitational pull, it is attached to the planet. It shields living things from the sun's most dangerous ultraviolet radiation. Ultraviolet rays are absorbed by the ozone layer in the atmosphere, shielding living things from them. It lessens the sun's heat's intensity. The best way to communicate is also via the environment. Atomic particles may be found in the atmosphere up to 50 km above the earth's surface. Gases including nitrogen, oxygen, argon, carbon dioxide, helium, neon, and methane, among others, are found in the atmosphere. Atomic oxygen, hydrogen, helium, and ozone are among the gases found in the atmosphere above 50 km. There is a certain amount of each of these gases in the atmosphere. Up to 12 kilometres (12 miles) above the surface of the planet, water is also present in the atmosphere as vapour. Water in the atmosphere is what gives the water on earth its freshness.

The term "biosphere" describes all of the earth's living things. Organisms or living things include birds, animals, and plants. They communicate with each other. They also interact with the lithosphere, hydrosphere, and atmosphere that make up the physical environment. The biological element. Producers, consumers, and decomposers are the three categories into which the biotic elements of the planet are divided. Green plants are classified as producers because they employ the process of photosynthesis to create their sustenance. Simple substances from the soil and air are absorbed by them, and with the aid of sunshine, they are transformed into food. Additionally, producers offer nourishment for every living thing in the eco system.

Animals, including birds and people, are referred to be consumers since they only eat the food that producers have prepared. They cannot independently manufacture food. For food, they must rely on producers. based on the kinds of foods they eat. The following four categories apply to consumers. Animals classified as primary consumers are those that solely ingest green vegetation. Good, Sheep, Cow, Ox, etc. are a few examples. The term "herbivore" also refers to primary consumers. Animals that consume herbivores are considered secondary consumers. For instance, foxes, owls, etc. They are referred to as carnivores. Animals that consume carnivores are referred to be tertiary consumers. For instance, a wolf, lion, or tiger. These also go by the name of carnivores. Animals that consume both green plants and animals are referred to as multi-level consumers. For instance, a guy, a dog, etc. They are referred to be omnivores. Small creatures called decomposers are responsible for deterioration and decomposition. Examples of decomposers include insects, bacteria, fungi, and more. These critters gain energy by consuming waste products, dead plants, and animals[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Ecology is the most complete branch of science, according to Haeckel. Nearly every facet of organisms and their surroundings are touched upon. As a result, there are many sections of ecology that are now growing as autonomous sciences.

Main divisions of ecology

The goal of global ecology is to comprehend the globe as a unified eco system. Eco-physiology is the study of how plants and animals respond to and adapt to their physical surroundings. The study of interactions between communities of various species in the environment is the focus of community ecology. This describes the development and spread of many species as well as the effects of variety on eco systems. It also goes by the name Gene Ecology. Population ecology is the study of how one type of creature interacts with its surroundings. It primarily addresses the expansion, dispersal, fluctuations, and eradication of populations of various species. It also goes by the name of autecology.

The fundamental focus of behavioural ecology is understanding how behaviour affects how organisms adapt to their surroundings. Ecosystem Ecology: This subject has a tight connection to biotechnology.

It investigates how matter and energy move through living things. The study of the fundamental concepts underlying the development of various kinds of organisms within an eco-system is the focus of the field of evolution ecology. Landscape ecology is the study of how changes in how land is used impact the eco system. Political ecology shows how creating environmentally friendly political and economic structures may help manage ecological issues.

The regions of interest may also be used to separate ecology. Consider the ecology of plants and animals. The local eco system serves as an additional foundation for dividing ecology. Polar and tropical ecology, for instance. Ecology is classified into four categories based on how it is applied: resource, conservation, restoration, and pollution ecology. As a result, ecology is both a theoretical and an applied science. People are guided by applied ecology in how to properly use, conserve, and restore the resources provided by nature. By doing this, ecological equilibrium is preserved.

Ecological Degradation

Ecological harmony in the surrounding physical environment determines the quality of the environment. In the past, the physical world was more ecologically balanced. Unfortunately, the natural equilibrium is becoming more and more disrupted daily. The environment's quality has been negatively impacted by this. Degradation of the environment is the outcome.

Environmental degradation explained

An undesirable and excessive addition of some substances to air, water, and soil which adversely affects and alters the original, natural quality of the environment is the definition of the phrase environmental degradation. The primary elements that make up the physical environment are air, water, and soil. Additionally, the quality of these fundamental elements of the environment is decreased by the excessive addition of toxic compounds to them. All of their parts deteriorate. Environmental degradation includes, for example, soil, water, and air pollutants.

Different Pollutants

Pollutants are substances that harm the environment. The physical environment's health suffers when certain toxins are too prevalent in the ecosystem. Pollutants are the byproducts of the goods we create, consume, and discard. The primary categories of pollutants are listed below. Solid waste is any hard trash that comes from homes, businesses, or agriculture. It is referred to as trash [5], [6].

Liquid

This category comprises industrial and domestic waste water.

Gaseous

Gaseous pollutants include, but are not limited to, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, sulphur dioxide, and others.

Toxins

Poisonous compounds like phosphate also poison the physical environment. Metals - Excess lead and mercury pollute the air.

Radioactive isotopes

The environment becomes contaminated when radioactive particles are introduced.

The most hazardous pollution is nuclear waste, according to fallout. Fallout is the term used to describe the environmental damage caused by nuclear waste.

Environmental degradation's causes

Environmental deterioration is brought on by a number of social, economic, and biological reasons. Below are a few of them:

Explosion of the human population

This phenomenon is ongoing. Natural resources do not, however, grow in proportion. Resources are under strain as a result of this. They are overly utilised, which damages the ecosystem.

A rise in gross consumption has coincided with an expansion in the human population. Agriculture is being emphasised to meet the fundamental demand of hunger. Too much land or soil is exploited. Environmental degradation results from declining soil quality. More living space is required because of the ongoing increase in the global human population. Trees are hacked down and forests are carelessly removed for this reason. Deforestation, soil erosion, and desertification result from this, which are the most obvious signs of environmental deterioration.

High waste material creation

The increase in gross consumption has resulted in the production of a lot of rubbish, sewage, and other solid and liquid waste. Waste disposal that is incomplete or inappropriate results in environmental deterioration. Increase in human population has led to an increase in the demand for industrial products. More industrial facilities were thus required as a result. businesses produce hazardous waste that contaminates the air, water, and land, and chemical industries in particular. Environmental deterioration begins with these three types of environmental pollutants.

Urbanization

Businesses often start up in the areas around towns and cities. This forces people to move to urban areas in pursuit of jobs; sometimes, villages close to industrial areas change into towns, cities, and megacities. It leads to urbanization. This places an excessive amount of strain on sanitary facilities as well as on city inhabitants' infrastructure. Additionally, this leads to ecological issues that worsen the state of the ecosystem[7], [8].

Cost of pollution control

By reducing pollutants, environmental damage may be stopped. But it is a highly expensive venture. Again, no pollutant is totally under control. There are occasions when the controls put in place to reduce environmental pollution itself generate pollution. Consequently, environmental deterioration persists.

Prevention strategies for environmental degradation

Although environmental deterioration cannot be totally stopped, it is possible to safeguard the ecosystem against further deterioration. By properly using natural resources, it may be exhibited and managed, preserving as much of the natural resources as you can, limiting soil, water, and air pollution.

Environmentally sound urban areas

It provide sufficient hygienic amenities, such as closed drainage systems, public latrines, and toilets. raising people's awareness of the environment. forming an environmentally conscious mindset defending and advancing ecological equilibrium.

Human Activities Causing the Degradation of The Environment

Particularly to blame for environmental destruction is man. In fact, the physical environment often helps to reestablish ecological equilibrium. But it is disturbed by human activity. Man must engage in a variety of activities to satisfy his survival demands. And there is no other option. However, if these activities are carried out in excess, the ecology will be damaged permanently. The four groups of human activities that cause environmental deterioration are listed below. Man engages in primary activities to acquire resources to meet his essential requirements. He must engage in activities like farming, fishing, etc. to achieve this. These are necessary for meeting the basic necessities of man. These activities are thus referred to as primary activities.

Secondary activities

Man cannot immediately meet his fundamental requirements using the means and resources earned via primary activities. Before being used, these materials need to be treated. Secondary activities are those carried out by humans to process the resources received from primary activities. Examples of secondary activities include industrial operations.

Tertiary activities

In order to make agricultural and industrial products that were acquired via primary and secondary activities accessible to consumers, they must be sold. From the point of production to the location of consumption, these items must also be transported. Tertiary activities refer to all such commerce and transportation operations.

Quaternary activities

People need the services of competent workers and technological specialists. To satisfy their various demands, for instance, individuals need the services of physicians, engineers, electricians, architects, etc. Quaternary activities refer to all such service-oriented activities.

Either directly or indirectly, the four forms of human activity mentioned above degrade the ecosystem. However, in reality, the major causes of environmental deterioration are industrial and agricultural practices. It is important to understand how industrial and agricultural practices harm the ecosystem.

Environmental damage brought on by agricultural practices

The main activity are those related to agriculture. Man engages in these to get the resources needed to state his hunger. The number of people on earth is constantly growing. As a result, total consumption has increased. Man strives to generate more agricultural items in order to feed the growing human population. He uses the limited land carelessly and excessively in an effort to generate more. He has created a number of improper farming techniques that unavoidably harm the environment in general and soil in particular. The primary poor agricultural practises are overharvesting, overgrazing, overirrigation, deforestation, excessive use of chemical fertilisers, and the use of pesticides, insecticides, and herbicides. All of these bad habits lead to environmental harm. All of the improper farming methods outlined above have negative consequences on the natural world. For instance, soil erosion is brought on by deforestation. Rainfall is decreased overall as a result.

It also exterminates natural life, including animals, birds, and plants. Animal species go extinct as a result of it. The nutrients in the soil are lost when soil is used excessively for farming. Soil's bioproductivity is decreased as a result. Soil salination or water logging are both effects of poor water availability. Soil becomes salinized when there is an appropriate water supply, while water logging occurs when there is an excessive water supply. Chemical fertilisers are used to increase agricultural output, while pesticides, insecticides, and herbicides are used to protect crops in the field. These practises not only contaminate the soil but also the water, the air, and the ecosystem as a whole. As a consequence, increased agricultural activity inevitably disturbs the ecological equilibrium, which leads to environmental deterioration[7], [8].

Degradation of the environment brought on by industrial activity. Industrial activities contribute to environmental deterioration just as agricultural ones do. Industrial operations, which fall under the category of secondary activities, are crucial for processing the resources produced from primary activities. Since the majority of the resources acquired from arming, finishing, etc. need to be processed and refined before being utilised by man to meet his fundamental requirements, these activities cannot be fully avoided. For instance, finishing is required for grains used as food, polishing is required for rice, and refining is required for groundnut oil and other agricultural products. Industries are set up for this reason. These agricultural sectors produce a lot of liquid and solid waste. And it pollutes the environment if it is not properly disposed of.

Again, certain industrial items are essential to our daily lives, such as paper, leather, clothing, paints, chemicals, and medications. The paper, leather, textile, chemical, and pharmaceutical sectors are consequently necessary. Man needs energy in a variety of kinds.

The construction of hydroelectric, thermoelectric, and atomic power plants, among other energy-generating facilities, is done in order to produce energy from various energy sources such as water, heat, and atoms.

These energy-generating initiatives are also really necessary. However, all of the aforementioned businesses and power facilities are responsible for environmental deterioration. Pollution of the earth, water, and air is brought on by the solid, liquid, poisonous, and gaseous waste produced by these companies and projects. And when the lithosphere, hydrosphere, and biosphere are disturbed, the physical environment suffers as a result. This obliterates natural life, including birds, animals, and vegetation. As a result of the disruption in all four sectors of the eco system, including the biosphere, the environment deteriorates.

Enviro-Ethics: Meaning and Purpose

The purpose and application of environmental ethics. A subfield of philosophy is ethics. It is a science of norms. It focuses on the examination of issues such, "What is moral or immoral?" What is proper or improper? Only lately has ethics become a distinct branch of science. It is now acknowledged as a separate branch of science. An area of ethics is environmental ethics. It examines the connections between people and other people, with animals, and with nature. Man has struggled with ethical issues related to the physical environment. For instance, is it moral to clear forests and chop down trees to meet human needs while ignoring the needs of animals and birds at their most basic? He does not have to protect the environment for future generations, right? All of these value-based issues are covered in environmental ethics. This conversation has altered how people see other people, animals, and nature. It clearly states that both people and animals have an equal right to use natural resources and to enjoy a clean environment. Therefore, anthropocentric or man-centered ecology is unethical from the perspective of environmental ethics. It fervently supports both a zoo-centric (animal-centered) and an eco-centric perspective on nature. Natural resources cannot be used at will by man alone. While utilising natural resources, one must consider other species. He has a moral obligation to protect natural resources for wildlife and birds. He has a responsibility to future generations to preserve the environment.

As a result, environmental ethics largely discusses the topic of human, animal, and avian environmental rights as well as the moral obligation of man to safeguard the environment. Every animal, like a human, has the right to life (and, of course, the right to a dignified existence) as well as the right to a clean environment. Man cannot thus use nature for his own purposes. He must consider the possibility that other species also have a right to exploit the resources provided by nature. He has to be reminded once again of the need of environmental health preservation for not only human life but also that of animals and birds. Giving up the human-centered perspective and developing an eco-centric perspective on nature are both required[9], [10].

The significance of studying environmental ethics. The aforementioned consideration of the definition, topic matter, and scope of environmental ethics makes it evident that more research is necessary for the following objectives. in order to distribute natural resources fairly. For the protection of people's, animals', and creatures' rights to a healthy environment and the preservation of natural resources for future generations. for the development of an eco-centric perspective on nature and the avoidance of future environmental destruction. for inspiring respect for people, animals, and all of creation.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the complex relationship between ecological and human rights emphasises the inescapable link between the protection of basic human rights and the health of the ecosystem. The severe effects of ecological degradation on vulnerable populations and the potential for breaches of rights to life, health, and a means of subsistence highlight the need for a coordinated strategy that takes both ecological sustainability and human dignity into account. A rising understanding of the interdependence between ecological and human rights is reflected in the development of legal frameworks to include environmental rights alongside conventional civil and political rights. It is crucial to approach environmental difficulties from the perspective of human rights because, as several real-world instances show, they have the potential to worsen already-existing inequities and disproportionately harm marginalised people. In the end, a comprehensive viewpoint that recognises the complicated links between environmental well-being, social equality, and the defence of individual rights

is required to comprehend the essence of ecology in human rights. By adopting this viewpoint, communities may work towards a cohabitation where human rights and ecological sustainability meet, laying the groundwork for a more equitable and sustainable future for everyone.

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CHAPTER 11

UNVEILING THE IMPACT OF NEW TECHNOLOGIES ON HUMAN RIGHTS

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ABSTRACT:

The interaction between technology and human rights has come under close scrutiny as the digital world develops. This essay explores the many impacts of modern technology in the area of human rights, focusing on three key areas. First, it investigates how technology might unintentionally reinforce power disparities and reinforce inequality via design and deployment. Second, it explores the complex relationship between technology and accountability, showing how the same technologies created to increase openness can make it more difficult to hold responsibility bearers accountable. Thirdly, the article explores the growing influence of private players in technology breakthroughs, raising concerns about the effects of giving major power to organisations beyond the purview of traditional human rights frameworks. This research highlights the complexity and difficulties that occur when technology changes the environment of human rights discourse and practise via a thorough investigation of these factors.

KEYWORDS:

Development, Human Right, Responsibility, Social, Technology.

INTRODUCTION

Technology is often seen as a way to weaken established hierarchies and power structures, or even, as one of us has suggested, as a chance to democratize human rights campaigning and fact-finding. The emancipatory potential of technology for human rights advocacy as a whole has not generally been realized in practice, despite the fact that the creation of open-source investigations may play a significant role in accountability efforts. Although technology enables social movements to ramp up with incredible speed, this speed also limits their ability to mature in ways that would enable them to exert power and authority in the long run, as Tufekci explains in her work on the role of social media in the Arab Spring and Occupy Wall Street movements. The latest demonstrations in Hong Kong show that technology is definitely democratising society in many ways, but this does not eliminate the need for long-term advocacy for change.

Technological advancements are more frequently than not inherently biased towards inequality, not towards democratising human rights practise. According to science and technology studies theory, "conventional science and innovation policies increase inequalities, unless they are specifically designed to do otherwise" This is a result of the privilege enjoyed by individuals who invent new technology and the structures that support its development and usage. Whether it's a system of intellectual property or the system of surveillance capitalism that powers our social media environment, innovation systems that reward invention via the market are fundamentally biased to develop things that benefit the wealthy. The claim made by cognitive scientist Abiba Birhane is that "technology is never either neutral or objective it is like a mirror that reflects societal bias, unfairness, and injustice[1], [2].

Our book's case studies show many ways in which power imbalances may be ingrained in technical systems. Deploying technology inevitably results in replicating and further entrenching existing inequality and power imbalances, from water metre systems that embed assumptions about the number of people living in a household to the way that new climate adaptation technology or data analysis tools are least affordable to those countries, organisations, and people who may need them the most[3], [4].

Accountability

The influence that technology has on our capacity to hold responsibility bearers responsible for rights abuses is the second lens through which to view the link between technology and human rights. Technology isn't merely employed in positive or negative ways; in many situations, it actively works against transparency and accountability. Technology usage has the potential to undermine authority, dismantle accountability-promoting processes used by civil society organisations and human rights defenders. Due to technology's ability to conceal the identity of the perpetrator, it is considerably more difficult to hold obligation bearers responsible. Even when they are the result of choices that reflect and incorporate value judgements, actions taken by automation, for instance, may seem inevitable. Technology also increases the visibility of infractions itself, normalising behaviour that could otherwise be seen to constitute an affirmative damage. For instance, installing water metres that demand payment before distributing water is often functionally equal to cutting off the water supply. In reality, these two water regulatory regimes are handled quite differently, with the later having legal safeguards against unwarranted deprivation while the former does not.

Furthermore, the attenuated nature of breaches caused by automated decision making also weakens systems that depend on respect for rights, such as shame or socialisation. Because they were not the direct source of the damage, those who just put the technology in action would feel less accountable for any following breaches. Furthermore, it is considerably more difficult to exert pressure on a municipality that installs water metres that might eventually result in shortages. When the water is really disconnected, there is no obvious offender to put in their place.

Public Authority

New technical advancements often entail considerable private sector involvement in their development and implementation. These businesses influence our expressive behaviour, our relationships with others, and our access to knowledge. They are very potent gatekeepers for information and communication. In fact, these private firms are increasingly used as agents of governance and regulation in numerous fields. In particular, governments are giving private firms the power to control internet expression. The availability of evidence of human rights breaches posted to private platforms is often decided by commercial firms. Additionally, they develop and sell technology that allow for and hinder monitoring, comply with official orders to track activists or political dissidents, and provide algorithms and weaponry that may decide who lives or dies. Instead than being driven by concerns for the general welfare or human rights, these choices are instead driven by business interests.

However, the difference between public power exerted by the state and private authority exercised by a firm is the foundation of the existing system for addressing human rights damages caused by commercial enterprises. Therefore, actions that blur this line are subject to less favorable and most definitely less effective application of human rights legislation. For private technologies, public actors finance, acquire, and develop innovation systems. Do non-state actors truly only have a moral obligation to respect freedom of expression when they are required by governments to control the speech of their users? Is there any way that businesses

that create AI systems that mimic racial or gender prejudices in the context of speech regulation may be held responsible for the damages to human rights they cause? Who is liable for the negative effects of a private company-built technology that the government uses to set bail or screen job candidates? The line between public and private is becoming more obsolete and diverts our attention from the more crucial issues of responsibility and correction.

DISCUSSION

An atom possesses a significant amount of energy, according to scientists. Atomic energy may be used to create both good and negative outcomes with regard to energy. Electricity and power are accessible, and they may be utilised destructively. The world has seen the catastrophic force of atomic bombs thanks to the explosions in Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Nuclear fusion and nuclear fission are the two ways that atomic energy may be produced. Nuclear fission is the breaking of a big nucleus into two smaller ones. Atomic fusion produces energy. In 1939, this method was discovered. In nuclear fusion, atomic elements fuse together. It takes a temperature of several million degrees to sustain a fusion process. When two light-weight (atom-element) models unite to produce a heavier nucleus, nuclear fusion takes place. The more common of these two techniques is nuclear fission. All currently operating power plants rely on the fission process. Nuclear Reactor is the term used to describe the apparatus that produces controlled nuclear fission. Production nuclear reactors and research nuclear reactors are two examples of the many kinds of nuclear reactors that are utilised for various purposes. Other types of reactors, such as the Boiling Water Reactor (BWR) and Pressurised Water Reactors (PWR), have also been constructed.

Thorium and other radioactive materials are primarily employed to release or liberate atomic energy. Atomic energy has the benefit of using relatively little raw material. One pound of uranium (U235) releases the same amount of energy as 1,600 tonnes of coal burned in one hour. Because uranium does not emit any greenhouse gases and does not create ash like fossil fuels, proponents of nuclear power assert that it is safer. Another benefit is that nuclear energy provides inexpensive electricity. However, in addition to these benefits, nuclear power has a lot of drawbacks. It may jeopardise the survival of humankind. The misuses of nuclear power are listed below.

Nuclear bombs

During the Second World War, America dropped three nuclear bombs on the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, and in 1945, over 2,40,000 people perished, or were burned alive and transformed into ashes by radioactive fire in both the cities of Nagasaki & Hiroshima. This was an example of the abuse of nuclear power. Almost everything in these two cities, including the houses and trees, had been obliterated by these two bombs. Even for those who managed to escape the assault, life became very difficult for them, and the bombing was blamed for more than 2000 cancer deaths in 1978. The world has not learnt a lesson as a result of Hiroshima and Nagasaki; on the contrary, nations are developing ever-more devastating atomic weapons. Nuclear weapons of today have several times more power than the bombs detonated on Hiroshima and Nagasaki[5], [6].

Nuclear Terrorism

Terrorist actions are on the rise nowadays all over the globe. Nuclear terrorism is a threat to all countries. There is concern that terrorists may target nuclear power stations and wreak havoc, use nuclear weapons, or develop nuclear weapons. The International Task Force on Prevention of Nuclear Terrorism said that the employment of more advanced weapons by

terrorists is the reason why nuclear terrorism is on the rise. There is also concern that terrorist organisations may find out how to make nuclear weapons and the materials needed to do so. There is a potential that a terrorist may get this substance from the facilities where it is utilised, processed, and stored. Another concern is the use of so-called "dirty bombs," or Radiation Dispersal Devices (RDD), which are ordinary explosives used to scatter radioactive material. Other risks associated with nuclear power in addition to abuse.

Accidents at power plants

There is a potential that a nuclear accident may result in calamity. Millions of people's lives or health might be at jeopardy from any reactor explosion or disaster. Even though many safety precautions are taken while developing nuclear power facilities, a tragedy might still occur if a little (minor) operating error occurs. On April 26, 1986, there was an accident at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant in Ukraine, which resulted in radioactive material being blasted into the air and starting a massive fire. It is expected that many more individuals would pass away from cancer in the next 50 years as a result of this disaster, which has already claimed many lives. Nuclear radioactive materials were released into the atmosphere at Three Mile Island in 1979.

Effects on the Environment

Hazardous radioactive compounds are released after an explosion or detonation that stay in the atmosphere for hundreds or even thousands of years and spread across large distances. Therefore, pollution also occurs there. 'Fallout' refers to the environmental damage brought on by nuclear weapon explosions. Nuclear power plants are entirely secure. The primary risk posed by nuclear reactors is the discharge of large quantities of radioactive materials into the atmosphere in the form of gases, steam, or radioactive water.

These radioactive materials contaminate the environment when they are combined with water and the air. Environmentally speaking, nuclear testing is not entirely safe. In atmospheric nuclear testing, explosions release a number of harmful radioactive materials, such as carbon 14, iodine 131, and others, which persist in the atmosphere for thousands of years and are also transported by the wind to distant locations hundreds of kilometres away, where they destroy the ecosystem.

The region's geological base weakens as a result of the environmental consequences of undersea nuclear testing, which take the form of earth quake-like shock waves. Radiation from subterranean explosions may contaminate soil and water by mixing with subsurface water sources or by reaching the surface. Since neither the colour nor the smell of radioactive water is altered, it cannot be readily distinguished. The plant and animal life that depends on that water is likewise impacted.

Radiation released during nuclear explosions has health effects. Gamma and beta rays, which are part of these radiations, are dangerous to human health. For instance, strontium 90 emits beta particles that may result in leukaemia, genetic damage, bone cancer, and life shortening. Radiation damages chromosomes and genes, and since the damaged genes are transmitted down to the next generation, the abnormalities that arise are passed on to them. Additionally, congenital malformations or abnormalities, miscarriages, stillbirths, mental retardation, and fatalities may all be brought on by radiation. Workers at uranium mines are also exposed to radioactivity. Radium 226 found in uranium ore produces radon, a radioactive gas. Workers who breathe this toxic gas get lung cancer as a consequence. Due to such radiation exposure, between 600 and 9,000 persons in East Germany passed away from lung cancer.

Nuclear waste

It causes a new issue. There are dangerous radioactive materials in nuclear waste. Uranium Corporation of India Limited buried the radioactive waste in the ponds of two villages in the East Singhbhum district of Jharkhand. Tribal members' health has been impacted by this. Many of them are afflicted with congenital defects, cancer, T.B., miscarriages, and infertility.

Preventing nuclear power abuse

Although it is hard to completely avoid nuclear power abuse, it may be curbed as a result of advancements made in the industry. A group of American scientists is constructing the S-Star, a little sealed portable autonomous reactor. This reactor's design may minimise material misuse since less material is utilised in it. When nuclear fuel is carried to the destination, it will be confined within a sealed, tamper-evident reactor vessel. The United Nations established the IAEA (International Atomic Energy Agency) in 1957 with the primary intention of attempting to disseminate knowledge of nuclear technology for peaceful reasons. It puts up certain requirements and standards in this area to stop the negative impacts of nuclear technology.

Online Crime

Computers are utilised for many different things these days. Everyone, from youngsters to adults, white collar crooks to terrorist groups, uses computers. There is a claim that computers are influencing the younger generation. It offers a number of benefits. The evolution of information technology has altered labour practises, commercial operations, communication networks, and other areas. However, there is a more sinister aspect to it, namely that as computers advance and become more widely used, cybercrimes also rise. Conventional crimes like forgery, extortion, abduction, etc. are now being done via computers.

In general, criminal conduct when a computer or network is the source, tool, target, or setting of a crime is referred to as computer crime, cyber crime, e-crime, hi-tech crime, or electronic crime. Computer crime has risen in importance as the usage of computers has increased. The world's largest provider of security software, Symantec, defines cybercrime as "any crime that is committed using a computer, network, or hardware device.

Unauthorised access to computer systems or networks is referred to as cybercrime. According to a definition in international law, "the term 'cyber crime' is used to include traditional crimes in which computers or networks are used to facilitate the illicit activity, even though the term is typically restricted to describing criminal activity in which the computer or network is an essential part of the crime. Unauthorised access, illegal interception (by technical means of private transmissions of computer data to, from, or within a computer system), data interference (unauthorised damaging, deletion, deterioration, alteration, or suppression of computer data), and systems interference (interfering with the operation of a computer system by inputting, transmitting, or otherwise altering data) are all examples of computer crime. Cybercrime may occur for a number of causes. The majority of cybercrimes are perpetrated by highly skilled, educated individuals.

Children and teens

A psychologist's research revealed that most teenagers who break into and hack into computer systems do so for amusement. They do not intend to hurt other people. The research shows that most children engaged in illicit online behaviour out of curiosity.

Disgruntled workers

They take part in cybercrime as well. These workers have either been fired by another worker or have been given the boot. So they could turn to cybercrime as a form of retaliation. Professional hackers are professionals when it comes to computer systems. Some individuals utilise their abilities and experience to get the necessary information or to hack into the computer system or website of competitors. These kind of actions are carried out by professional hackers for monetary gain[5], [6].

Business rival

According to Stig Kristofersen, a company with online business, whether it be sales of goods or services or anything else, can pay a few hundred dollars for a DDOS attack on the servers of their rivals if they are desperate enough to defeat them and are willing to cross legal boundaries. Here, the assistance of skilled hackers is used to succeed in the corporate battle. Sometimes a person who has been rejected by an ex-lover or ex-wife seeks vengeance by slandering the person online, such as an ex-boy buddy or a divorced spouse.

Organised hackers

There are some educated individuals with extensive computer skills. Some organised crime organisations utilise their expertise to achieve certain goals. In computer crimes, their expertise is used as a tool, and many of them work for organised networks.

Cybercrime types

All actions taken online with the intention of committing a crime are referred to as cybercrime. Three categories of cybercrime, according to V. Shivakumar, exist. Those that oppose people. Against commercial and nonprofit organisations. Government targets of crime. These are only a few of the offences; the list is not all-inclusive.

Data tampering

This felony is committed when someone knowingly or actively hides, destroys, or modifies any computer source code used in a computer, or intentionally or knowingly encourages another person to do the same. Data manipulation is one example of this kind of crime. Prior to being processed by a computer, this raw data has been manipulated. When the processing is finished, the same data is brought back (after it has been processed again).

Hacking

A hack is simply an unauthorised entry into a computer system or network. It involves breaking into a computer, often with the goal of changing or modifying current systems or networks. There is a phrase that is identical to "hacking," called "cracking," although from the standpoint of Indian law, there is no distinction between the terms. The goal of a hacker is often to wrongfully harm or lose someone by deleting, erasing, or changing the data that is stored on a computer. Some cybercriminals hack for their own financial advantage, such as by collecting credit card data, moving funds from other bank accounts to their own account, and then withdrawing the funds. They threaten to reveal the important information that has been taken by extorting money from a powerful company executive. Hacking is illegal. Anyone found guilty of hacking faces a sentence of up to three years in jail, a fine of up to Rs. 2 lakh, or both. A person has to use their password carefully in order to avoid identity theft. Because of the media attention that government websites get, they are often targeted by hackers. The media attention appeals to hackers.

Email bombing: In an email bombing, several emails are sent to different recipients, or organisations with the goal of bringing down their email server or account. There are two methods to send these emails. The server crashes as a consequence of 1) sending a high number of emails to the same email address and 2) signing the same email address up for several subscriptions. In this situation, the subscriptions must be manually cancelled. The Simla Housing Board's system failed as a result of one foreign person sending hundreds of emails over and over again. He committed this crime in an effort to get retribution.

Spamming is the practise of sending mass, unsolicited communications. Spam comes in many different forms, including spam via instant messaging, UseNet newsgroups, online search engines, and mobile phone messages. Spam emails are the most well-known kind. Unwanted texts or emails are received by the individual, which is a hallmark of all spam. The majority of businesses use spam to promote their products.

Email spoofing

A spoof email is one that was sent from one source but looks to have come from another. Spoofing refers to the illicit use of another person's identity by a hacker to log into a computer. The purpose of this conduct or crime is to pique the recipient's curiosity so that he or she would read the letter and reply to it. The originating source's identity or email address is concealed and another well-known name emerges.

Defamatory emails

These emails may sometimes be sent to harass the recipient. One employee of the firm began sending disparaging, defamatory, obscene, vulgar, and abusive emails to his bosses and to the many subsidiaries of the said company across India. These kinds of defamatory emails are particularly destructive to the persons who have been made victims. Threatening emails may reveal the sender's identity while they are being sent. Some people take advantage of this and use the internet to blackmail or send threatening emails to others.

Attacks By Salami

This assault is a crime that was perpetrated by making a few minor changes to the computer code. These assaults are conducted with the goal of making money. Changes in this are so minor that they go overlooked. For instance, A bank employee adds a programme that automatically withdraws a tiny sum of money (let's say Rs. 5 each month) from the customer's account. This unauthorised debit will likely go unnoticed by the account holder, but the bank employee will still get a large sum of money [7], [8].

A Denial-Of-Service Assault

The goal of this assault is to stop or disrupt a certain website's services or those delivered by prominent web servers, such as banks, credit card payment gateways, etc. The web server may crash or become very sluggish and useless as a consequence of this attack, which overloads computer resources with an excessive number of requests. This attack prevents unauthorised users from using the web server's services. Websites including Amazon, CNN, and Yahoo have been taken down by denial of service attacks.

Virus assaults

A computer virus is a programme that has the ability to 'infect' other valid programmes by altering them to contain a potentially 'evolved' version of itself. Without the users' knowledge or consent, viruses have the ability to propagate to possibly several programmes across numerous devices. The data or files kept on a computer may be harmed if they were deleted

or changed. A virus may show messages that urge users to do certain activities that might activate the virus, delete files, scramble hard drive data, cause abnormal screen behaviour, shut down a computer, or simply duplicate itself. A virus may spread quickly and extensively, causing significant harm. The harmful virus lovebug infected over 30 million PCs in 2000. Another virus by the name of Nimda infected both web servers and non-servers in 2001. The act of only seeing the infected website is enough to spread this virus. Another virus is a trojan horse. It is an unauthorised programme that poses as an authorised programme in order to passively take control of another person's system. It is often deployed by email.

Worms strike

Invading worms create their own commands once inside the computer. They replicate themselves until they take up all of the RAM of a computer. Software piracy is the theft of software via the unauthorised duplication of original programmes or the production and marketing of imitated goods. Retail revenue losses due to software piracy are rising globally. There are many methods to achieve it, including end-user copying, hard disc loading, forging, and unauthorised internet downloads.

Pornography

The use of computer networks for the creation and dissemination of child pornography has drawn more and more attention. These materials may now be imported at the speed of light across international boundaries. Section 67 of the Information Technology Act makes it illegal to publish or transmit any material in electronic form that is lascivious or appeals to the prurient interest. The more overt forms of internet child pornography involve a modest amount of organisation, as required by the infrastructure of IRC and WWW. Act -2000.

Phishing

The term "phishing" comes from the word "fishing" and refers to the act of persuading or tempting an unsuspecting client of a banking or financial institution to divulge sensitive information relating to their account.

Then, scammers use this information to steal money or carry out transactions that are charged to the original client. It is a method of tricking bank or financial institution account users into disclosing private information.

For instance, a financial institution's unwary internet banking customers might receive an email that appears to be from the institution warning them that their privileges will be suspended due to a prolonged period of inactivity unless they confirm their login name, password, date of birth, and other "security" details so that the same can be "updated" on the Institution's server. Tens of lakhs of these emails, purportedly from a reputable financial institution, are sent to the general public in an effort to snare some of the real, trusting clients of that financial organisation. The criminals separately gather a database of legitimate e-mail addresses over a period of weeks or months in preparation. Such an email provides a clickable URL or link that claims to direct the customer to the institution's Internet Banking interface. When an unwary buyer clicks on such a link, they are immediately sent to a website that the scammers have developed, known as a "spoofed" webpage. The malicious people then remotely enter into the accounts of these victims and deposit money into an account they made using falsified papers,

Cyberstalking

The offender pursues the victim by sending emails and regularly visiting chat rooms. Here, the criminal's motive is to torment the victim. False allegations, the dissemination of threats, identity theft, recruiting children for sexual activity, and information collection for harassment are all examples of cyber stoking[9], [10].

Prevention of Cybercrime

Computers are practically employed in every industry; people, groups, and businesses rely on them for data collecting, information transmission, and storage of critical information. Therefore, suitable precautions must be taken to safeguard computer systems and the data they contain. Therefore, one should install anti-virus software on their computer as a precaution. Another tool for enhancing computer security is the firewall. Organisations depend on the internet for their internal processes. This programme is known as firewall. It stops unapproved external connections from connecting to the network.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the complex interplay between emerging technologies and human rights emphasises the need of a sophisticated and flexible strategy for tackling the possibilities and problems they provide. The three areas of inquiry in this study highlight the importance of recognising potential power imbalances in technology design, the delicate balancing act between accountability and transparency in the digital age, and the changing role of private actors in influencing the human rights landscape. Human rights frameworks must develop concurrently as technology continues to change how people communicate, access information, and interact with the outside world. It is crucial to strike a balance between innovation and moral concerns, openness and accountability, and the private sector's participation with human rights ideals. Societies may use the potential of new technology to strengthen, rather than weaken, the core principles of human rights for a more equal and just future by continuously evaluating and adjusting to these consequences.

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CHAPTER 12

UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS: AN ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT:

A pillar of contemporary human rights debate is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). This historic resolution, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1948, lays forth a thorough foundation for preserving the inherent worth and rights of every person. This abstract examines the UDHR's historical setting, fundamental ideas, and long-lasting effects. It looks at how the declaration has influenced international human rights legislation, policy, and advocacy initiatives all across the globe. This summary highlights the UDHR's contribution to the advancement of a more fair and compassionate international society by examining its basic principles of equality, justice, and freedom. The UDHR's ongoing importance in conversations about rights, liberties, and duties now highlights how important it will always be as a source of inspiration for mankind. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) serves as a symbol of humanity's shared desire for a society based on the ideals of justice, equality, and dignity. The UDHR was adopted in 1948 in response to the urgent need for a worldwide norm to safeguard and preserve each person's fundamental rights after international wars and crimes. Its capacity to cut through ideological, political, and cultural divides has made it a lasting legacy that has been adopted by countries all over the globe.

KEYWORDS:

Country, Human Rights, Historic Resolution, UDHR.

INTRODUCTION

One of the major accomplishments of the UN is the development of a thorough corpus of human rights legislation, a universal and globally recognised standard to which all countries might aspire. A wide spectrum of widely acknowledged international rights, such as political, civil, and economic rights, have been defined by the Organisation. Additionally, it has put in place systems to support and safeguard these rights and help governments fulfil their obligations. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), which was ratified by the General Assembly in 1948 and 1945, and the United Nations Charter, which was established in 1945, serve as the cornerstones of this corpus of legislation. The United Nations Declaration of Human Rights is seen to be the most significant document produced in the 20th century and is recognised as the global standard for human rights. The UDHR is considered as a crucial cornerstone for creating a future in which all people may look forward to living in dignity and peace for millennia to come by drawing life-preserving lessons from the past. Since the UDHR was adopted, the UN has gradually expanded human rights law to include specific standards for women, children, people with disabilities, minorities, migrant workers, and other vulnerable groups. As a result, these groups now have rights that protect them from discriminatory practises that were previously widespread in many societies[1], [2].

History Of the Charter's and the undeclaration's Provisions

The word "human rights" was first used in a declaration that was signed by the United Nations in Washington in January of 1942. The Declaration's signatories promised to defend human rights both in their own countries and in those of other countries. However, the issue of human rights and basic freedoms received very little attention during the Dumbarton Oaks Conference, when the UN Charter's first working draught was created. While the issue of relations between major and small nations, as well as the rules controlling their representation and voting in the different governing bodies, received considerable attention during this Conference, the issue of human rights was largely avoided. The main justifications for this avoidance are the perceptions that including human rights in the Charter would make both the British and the Soviet Union fearful of interference in their internal affairs and cause serious problems for their colonial relations. However, a brief mention of the United Nations' obligation to advance respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms has been incorporated into the Charter, establishing the commitment of Big Powers to the protection and promotion of human rights as the arguments in favour of its mention spread among various groups.

However, a number of religious and other public organisations were quite upset with what Dumbarton Oaks had not been able to do. Some of them desired that the Charter include an International Bill of Rights as a fundamental component.

But it quickly became clear to these organisations that this was not something that could be accomplished in practise. Therefore, they made the decision to focus their efforts on getting the Charter to include a more clear commitment to promoting the observance of human rights as a fundamental duty of the Charter. As a consequence, the Charter's need for the creation of a commission to advance human rights has been fulfilled.

The United Nations Human Rights Commission was subsequently established during the first General Assembly session. A Declaration of Human Rights that was presented to the General Assembly was developed by the Human Rights Commission over the course of more than two years. As a result, the General Assembly formed a committee to spend months reviewing and amending this Declaration. The Assembly subsequently approved the Declaration as revised with just eight members abstaining. In order to achieve this, they suggested the formation of a Commission on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, whose first duty would be to draught a global definition and declaration of human rights.

It is notable that the Declaration made such an impelling appeal to the people of all nations that not a single nation dared to cast a vote against it. There is no treaty in the Declaration. The United Nations' members are not bound by it legally. But it is what is declared to be a universal Declaration of Rights, which the General Assembly declared to be a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, with the intention that every person and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration in constant mind, may strive to uphold these rights and freedoms through teaching and education, as well as through progressive measures, both national and international, to ensure their universal and effective recognition. The next sections discuss the human rights outlined in the UN Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in light of this context[3], [4].

UN Charter And Human Rights

Human rights clauses are included throughout the UN Charter and take up a large portion of the organization's history. While expressing its belief in the basic human rights, the value and dignity of every human being, and the equality of men and women's rights, the preamble of

the charter includes a number of provisions pertaining to the preservation and promotion of human rights in different articles of the charter. Six other references to human rights and basic freedoms appeared after this one in the UN Charter's operational provisions. Article 68 was further included. The creation of commissions in the economic and social and human rights domains was mandated by the Economic and Social Council. As a result, a Commission on Human Rights was established. As a result, the Commission is one of the very few institutions that derives its jurisdiction directly from the United Nations Charter.

DISCUSSION

- According to Article 1 of the UN Charter, one of the organization's goals is to achieve international cooperation in order to address global issues of an economic, cultural, social, or human nature, as well as to promote and encourage respect for fundamental freedoms and human rights for all people without regard to their race, sex, language, or religion.
- In accordance with Article 13B, the General Assembly is charged with starting research to ensure that everyone, without exception, is promoted to respect human rights and basic freedoms.
- The Economic and Social Council was charged with creating the commissions for the advancement of Human Rights in accordance with Article 68 of the charter.
- Article 76C of the Charter states that the basic system of Trusteeship (which is no longer in place since all of the territories attained statehood) shall be incorporated in order to promote respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion. It also aims to promote recognition of the interdependence of the peoples of the world.

The Corpses

Several organisations carry out the United Nations' human rights activity. However, a difference between human rights organisations based on charters and those based on treaties must be established while investigating human rights concerns, and in the context of the current lesson, it is crucial to talk about the charter-based bodies.

Bodies based on Charters

The organisations that have their foundation in the United Nations Charter are known as charter-based organisations. These organisations have wide authority over human rights, may speak to anybody, and act by majority vote. The Human Rights Council and the Commission on Human Rights, which it replaced, are referred to as "Charter-based" bodies since the UN's major institutions, whose power stems from the UN Charter, adopted resolutions establishing them. It is necessary to briefly examine the Human Rights Council before talking about the Commission on Human Rights, which was in existence from 1946 to 2006.

Human Rights Commission (1946–2006)

One of the first two functional commissions formed under the early UN framework, together with the Commission on the Status of Women, was the UNCHR, which was founded by ECOSOC in 1946. It was a body established in accordance with the UN Charter's provisions (particularly, Article 68), to which all UN member states have ratified. The Commission was made up of 53 member state representatives who had been chosen by the ECOSOC members at the time it was disbanded. There were no permanent members of the Commission; instead, every year (often in May), around one-third of the seats were up for election, with the representatives serving three-year terms.

Mandate

The commission's goal was to investigate, keep tabs on, and make public the human rights conditions in particular nations or large global human rights abuses. It is also anticipated that the UN's Human Rights division would preserve and defend the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Working

The body experienced two different stages. It adhered to a policy of absenteeism from 1947 to 1967, which stated that the Commission would prioritise advancing human rights and assisting governments in the development of treaties above pursuing or reprimanding offenders. It was a time when the sovereignty idea was strictly upheld. The Commission made interventionism its official doctrine in 1967. The decade was marked by the decolonization of Africa and Asia, and many African and Asian nations pushed for a more proactive UN approach to human rights concerns, particularly in light of the severe abuses committed by apartheid South Africa. According to the new policy, the Commission would also look into infractions and write reports about them. Other adjustments were made to enable better implementation of this new policy. The potential for regionally focused workgroups was developed in the 1970s. These organisations would focus their efforts on looking into transgressions in a particular area or even just one nation, as was the case with Chile. The 1980s saw the development of workgroups with a topic that would focus on certain abuses. However, none of these actions were able to provide the Commission the intended level of effectiveness, mostly due to the presence of human rights violators and the politicisation of the organisation. The UNCHR lost credibility with both activists and governments during the next years, leading to its demise. The Commission's last meeting was held in Geneva on March 27, 2006, and the United Nations Human Rights Council took its place that year[5], [6].

Human Rights Council and Human Rights Commission

Discussions over UN Reform have centred on the UN Human Rights Commission. The US and other nations made every effort to undermine the Commission. It received flak for being too bureaucratic, politicised, and ineffective. The Commission received the greatest criticism for allowing governments with a poor record of upholding human rights, such as Zimbabwe, Sudan, and Saudi Arabia, to join. These nations utilised the organisation as a defence from inspection and censure. The "High Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change" suggested that the Commission embrace universal membership and provide an annual report on the situation of human rights around the globe in its report on UN reform from December 2004. The "In Larger Freedom" report by Kofi Annan, published in March 2005, went considerably farther, advocating for the dissolution of the Commission and the creation of a more manageable Human Rights Council, whose membership would be limited to those that would uphold the highest human rights standards. After protracted discussions and a number of resolution draughts, the General Assembly unanimously decided in support of establishing a new Council. The Council continues to be big, with 47 members who are chosen by an absolute majority of the General Assembly and are allocated across the regions. States are urged by the resolution to consider a candidate's record on human rights. The majority of member nations and human rights organisations welcomed the approval of the revised resolution even if it did not go as far as they had wanted. The United States was one of just four members to vote against the text's approval. Human rights organisations applauded the establishment of the new Council and praised the reform of the Human Rights Commission.

The Council on Human Rights

Currently, the main international body of the United Nations in charge of human rights is the Human Rights Council. Under Article 22 of the U.N. Charter, the Council was established as a subsidiary organ of the General Assembly rather than a new major institution. It has 47 members and meets in Geneva, Switzerland, for at least three sessions each year. The Human Rights Council's secretariat is the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR).

Mandate

The Commission for Human Rights is replaced by the Human Rights Council (HRC), which also takes on all of its mandates, procedures, duties, and obligations. According to the mission, the HRC is in charge of promoting global respect for the defence of all basic freedoms and human rights for everyone, without difference of any sort and in a fair and equitable way. Additionally, it is tasked with examining instances of human rights breaches, especially egregious and persistent violations, and making recommendations in these cases. The effective coordination and mainstreaming of human rights inside the UN system should also be encouraged. It was also given the responsibility of carrying out a Universal Periodic Review, formulating recommendations with respect to the advancement and defence of human rights, and submitting a yearly report to the General Assembly.

The UDHR is the UN Declaration on Human Rights. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was approved and proclaimed by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, 1948, in accordance with the UN Charter. Following this action, the Assembly urged all signatory nations to make the text of the Declaration widely known and to arrange for it to be read, displayed, explained, and distributed primarily in schools and other educational facilities, without making any distinctions based on the political status of individual nations or territories. The following is the wording of the officially approved version[7], [8].

Introduction to the Declaration

The preamble of the Declaration emphasises that the disregard and contempt for human rights have led to barbaric acts that have outraged mankind's conscience while insisting that the recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family as the foundation of freedom, justice, and peace in the world. Additionally, it asserts that when human rights are upheld by the rule of law and the encouragement of amicable ties between countries, a world in which people may live without fear and express their beliefs freely will be feasible. The UN members promise to cooperate with the UN as part of their commitment to achieving such a world and promoting universal respect for and observance of human rights and basic freedoms.

Significance

The Universal Declaration was able to successfully navigate the convoluted and politically risky procedures of the United Nations to become its human rights flagship just before the start of the Cold War and the resulting slowing down of many positive advances. The communist and some Middle Eastern nations had not yet fully endorsed the Declaration, but at least they had not cast a vote against it at the moment. Despite the early challenges and opposition, the Declaration has undoubtedly grown to a status in the world that not even its most ardent supporters in 1948 could have predicted. First, it has gained acceptance as a powerful declaration of principles, even by nations that have reservations about the whole human rights movement (sometimes somewhat grudgingly, it is true). A significant political

and moral stature has been attained when nations like Burma, Argentina, China, and the former Yugoslavia feel compelled to defend themselves when they are accused of violating the UDHR.

Furthermore significant, the UDHR has essentially evolved into an addition to the UN Charter. Even though there are only a few paragraphs in the Charter that mention human rights and basic freedoms, it is now customary to refer to the UDHR as defining such rights and liberties. As a result, it has been incorporated into the UN's structure and is often cited in resolutions and discussions of the UN General Assembly, such as those pertaining to the 1960 Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples. The representatives of 84 nations unanimously declared that the UDHR states a common understanding of the inalienable rights of all people and constitutes an obligation for the members of the international community at the Teheran human rights conference in 1978 to commemorate the UDHR's 30th anniversary.

Third, it is quite likely that the majority, if not all, of the UDHR's provisions have been incorporated into international customary law. A rising number of international lawyers believe that practising (always a valuable source of international law) encompasses not only actions like adhering to maritime navigational regulations but also actions like casting votes for resolutions at United Nations meetings and other international forums. The two human rights Covenants have been ratified by a very large and growing number of countries, and the UDHR rights are now almost universally acknowledged as being well-founded in terms of morality and good behaviour, making the claim that they have been incorporated into international customary law virtually unassailable. This implies that all nations in the globe are tied, regardless of their individual viewpoints, unlike treaties, which only bind a country when it has accepted the treaty responsibilities. International customary law cannot be renounced by a nation as a contractual obligation may.

The Declaration of Independence is now a valid contract between a government and its citizens that is recognised all around the globe. It is the document that has been translated the most in the world, according to the Guinness Book of World Records. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights were formed from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights throughout time. The declaration's reference of human rights was expanded upon by these two Covenants. The General Assembly approved these covenants in 1966, and they became enforceable in 1976[7], [9].

Human rights are universal, as was taught in the earlier parts, and everyone in the world has a right to be treated with respect and equality. These fundamental liberties include the right to privacy, good health, life, liberty, and security, as well as a reasonable level of living. Governments have a responsibility to defend citizens against third-party violations of their human rights, but corporations also have a moral, legal, and financial obligation to become engaged.

The provisions outlined in the UN Charter and the ratification of the Universal Declaration continue to serve as the guiding principles for states and organisations all over the globe. The Universal Declaration continues to serve as a source for the various covenants, treaties, and compacts that have been signed over the past 60 years and as the compass for various initiatives taken by the states in the promotion of fundamental human rights to their people. This is true even though many organisations, commissions, and subcommittees have been established within the UN system to carry out the provisions spelt out in the Charter.

CONCLUSION

The UDHR's guiding principles have shaped international human rights legislation, serving as a cornerstone for the creation of treaties, conventions, and legal systems. Numerous people, activists, and organisations have been motivated by it to advance the cause of human rights, promoting social advancement and justice on a worldwide scale. The UDHR's presence acts as a continual reminder that the pursuit of human rights is a continuing endeavour that demands attention, advocacy, and dedication, even while difficulties still remain and abuses still take place. The UDHR's guiding principles are unwavering and still hold true as societies develop and struggle with difficult problems. They serve as a reminder that everyone deserves respect, safety, and the chance to live a life of dignity, regardless of their origins. The legacy of the UDHR is more than simply a historical relic; it also serves as a live example of how important it is for everyone to work together to guarantee that every person's well-being, freedom, and respect for human rights are protected throughout the world.

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