



Struggles for human freedoms

The history of human rights is the history of human struggles. Yes, people are born with an entitlement to certain basic rights. But neither the realization nor the enjoyment of these rights is automatic.

History tells us how people have had to fight for the rights due them. The cornerstone in this struggle has always been political activism and people's movements—national liberation movements, peasants movements, women's movements, movements for the rights of indigenous people. Often, the burning desire of people to be free and to enjoy their rights started the struggle. Then, building on the people's achievements, the formalization, legalization and institutionalization of those rights came much later.

Struggles for human freedoms have transformed the global landscape. At the beginning of the 20th century a scant 10% of the world's people lived in independent nations. By its end the great majority lived in freedom, making their own choices. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 was a breakthrough, ushering in a new era—with the world community taking on realization of human rights as a matter of common concern and a collective goal of humanity.

The global integration of nations and people has been a second breakthrough—as a global movement has entrenched universal human rights in the norms of the world's diverse cultures. Over the past half century an international system of human rights has emerged, with a rapid rise in commitments made to it in the past decade (see the annex). In 1990 only two conventions—the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination

Against Women (CEDAW)—had been ratified by more than 100 countries. Today five of the six major human rights covenants and conventions have each been ratified by more than 140 countries. (The exception is the Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.) Seven major labour rights conventions have been ratified by 62 countries—nearly a third of the world's countries (annex table A2.1).

Countries have joined together in regional groups to realize human rights, adopt regional charters and establish regional commissions and regional courts. The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, for example, recognizes collective rights and also highlights people's rights to struggle against colonial domination. At the national level, human rights commissions have been set up, 10 countries have formulated national human rights plans, and many more have instituted an ombudsman for human rights.

At the international level, there were two very significant developments in the 1990s. The first was the creation of a system of international justice, with international criminal tribunals for the former Yugoslavia (1993) and Rwanda (1994) for war crimes. The second was the 1998 Rome agreement on the creation of an International Criminal Court. The court, which can establish individual criminal responsibility, complements the existing system to review gross violations of human rights by governments. In addition, an optional protocol to CEDAW now enables individuals and groups to establish cases of gender discrimination.

The new debate on human rights emphasizes their relevance in all policy areas. A rights-based approach to development is making human rights an integral part of development

Struggles for human freedoms have transformed the global landscape

Human beings are the centre of concerns for sustainable development. They are entitled to health and productive life in harmony with nature.

—Rio Declaration,
United Nations Conference
on Environment
and Development, 1992

Human rights and fundamental freedoms are the birth rights of all human beings and should be treated as mutually reinforcing.

—Vienna Declaration,
World Conference
on Human Rights, 1993

The principles of gender equality and women's right to reproductive health are vital for human development.

—Cairo Declaration,
International Conference
on Population and Development, 1994

Eradicating poverty is an ethical, social, political and economic imperative of mankind.

—Copenhagen Declaration,
World Summit
for Social Development, 1995

policies and processes. At the national level, the importance of looking at development goals and policies from a human rights perspective is increasingly recognized. The human rights perspective is also assuming growing importance in development cooperation—bilateral and multilateral.

The centrality of human rights in people's lives was reiterated in international conferences in the 1990s. And the 1993 World Conference on Human Rights gave the human rights movement a renewed impetus by defining a comprehensive international agenda for the universal promotion and protection of human rights.

Advances in human development added to this progress. In developing countries today, compared with 1970:

- A newborn can expect to live 10 years longer.
- The infant mortality rate has been cut by more than two-fifths.
- Adult illiteracy is down by nearly half, and combined net primary and secondary enrolment has increased by nearly 50%.
- The share of rural people with safe water has risen more than fourfold, from 13% to about 71%.

Worldwide, 46 countries accounting for more than 1 billion people have achieved high human development. Every region of the world has made progress in human development—but the level and the pace of advance have not been uniform. Sub-Saharan Africa's infant mortality rate of 106 per 1,000 live births is more than three times Latin America and the Caribbean's of 32. And South-East Asia's adult literacy rate of more than 83% is way ahead of South Asia's rate of 54%.

THE STRUGGLE CONTINUES

Gross violations of human rights continue—both loud and silent. They are loud in Rwanda, where a million people died, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, with an estimated death toll of 150,000–250,000. Some of today's grossest violations of human rights are in internal conflicts—giving rise to a conflict between national sovereignty and international interven-

tion. In a major reversal of past practice, the international community has begun to intervene (see the special contribution by Kofi Annan).

There also are silent violations: about 790 million people not adequately nourished, 250 million children used as child labour, 1.2 million women and girls under 18 trafficked for prostitution each year, more than 130 million people living in income poverty in the OECD countries. The world is often aware of loud violations, but not necessarily of the silent.

The indivisibility of human rights has been accepted as a principle, overturning the cold war division of rights into two sets: the civil and political, and the economic, social and cultural. Yet a latent tension remains between some of these rights. And there are other tensions. There is tension between the universality of human rights and cultural specificity. Between national sovereignty and the international community's monitoring of human rights within countries. Between the indivisibility of human rights and the need to establish priorities because of resource constraints. Between the supremacy of international laws and that of national laws. Between international norms and the norms set by regional human rights systems. Between ratifying international treaties and enforcing them nationally.

Many people still see the promotion of human rights for some groups—women, ethnic minorities, immigrants, poor people—as a threat to their own values or interests. This divisiveness in values breeds opposition to human rights for all. Even in times of great prosperity, societies have failed to ensure a life of dignity for all their members—and often displayed indifference or outright hostility to members of other societies.

Serious human deprivations remain. In the developing world 1.2 billion people are income poor, about 1 billion adults illiterate, 1 billion without safe water and more than 2.4 billion without basic sanitation. In the OECD countries, even with an average life expectancy of 76 years, more than 10% of people born today are not expected to survive to age 60. And in some industrialized countries one person in five is functionally illiterate.

There have also been setbacks and reversals. Life expectancy rose steadily in almost all nations in the 1970s and 1980s, only to be slashed by HIV/AIDS in the 1990s. Every minute 11 more people are infected. More than 12 million Africans have died of AIDS, and by 2010 the continent will have 40 million orphans. In many African countries life expectancy has fallen by more than 10 years in the past decade. More than 30 countries accounting for more than half a billion people today have a per capita income lower than that two decades ago. The transition in Eastern Europe and the CIS has reversed some of the big gains in human development. Serious human development setbacks have also been reported in the East Asian countries, as a result of the financial crisis in 1997–98.

Today, with impressive achievements and a significant unfinished agenda in human rights and human development, the struggle continues for realizing and securing human freedoms in seven areas:

- Freedom from discrimination—for equality.
- Freedom from want—for a decent standard of living.
- Freedom for the realization of one’s human potential.
- Freedom from fear—with no threats to personal security.
- Freedom from injustice.
- Freedom of participation, expression and association.
- Freedom for decent work—without exploitation.

FREEDOM FROM DISCRIMINATION—FOR EQUALITY

The universalism of life claims demands that all people treat all others equally, without discrimination. This principle of equality has been the driving force for human rights. It is also one of the pillars of human development, which emphasizes equality in opportunity and choices.

SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION

Human rights and intervention in the 21st century

At the dawn of the 21st century the United Nations has become more central to the lives of more people than ever. Through our work in development, peacekeeping, the environment and health, we are helping nations and communities to build a better, freer, more prosperous future. Above all, however, we have committed ourselves to the idea that no individual—regardless of gender, ethnicity or race—shall have his or her human rights abused or ignored. This idea is enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. It is the source of our greatest inspiration and the impulse for our greatest efforts. Today, we know more than ever that without respect for the rights of the individual, no nation, no community, no society can be truly free. Whether it means advancing development, or emphasizing the importance of preventive action, or intervening—even across state boundaries—to stop gross and systematic violations of human rights, the individual has been the focus of our concerns.

The United Nations’ achievements in the area of human rights over the last 50 years are rooted in the universal acceptance of those

rights enumerated in the Universal Declaration and in the growing abhorrence of practices for which there can be no excuse, in any culture, under any circumstance. Emerging slowly, but I believe surely, is an international norm against the violent repression of any group or people that must and will take precedence over concerns of state sovereignty. Even though we are an organization of Member States, the rights and ideals the United Nations exists to protect are those of peoples. No government has the right to hide behind national sovereignty in order to violate the human rights or fundamental freedoms of its peoples. Whether a person belongs to the minority or the majority, that person’s human rights and fundamental freedoms are sacred.

Our reflections on these critical questions derive from a variety of challenges that confront us today. From Sierra Leone to the Sudan to Angola to the Balkans to Cambodia and to Afghanistan and East Timor, there are a great number of peoples who need more than just words of sympathy from the international community. They need a real and sustained commitment to help end their cycles of violence,

and launch them on a safe passage to prosperity. Just as we have learned that the world cannot stand aside when gross and systematic violations of human rights are taking place, so we have also learned that intervention must be based on legitimate and universal principles if it is to enjoy the sustained support of the world’s peoples.

Intervention, however, is not just a matter for states. Each one of us—whether as a worker in government, in intergovernmental or non-governmental organizations, in business, in the media, or simply as a human being—has an obligation to do whatever he or she can to defend the human rights of our fellow men and women when they are threatened. Each of us has a duty to halt—or, better, to prevent—the infliction of suffering. Nothing less is required if the noble ideals of our United Nations are to become a reality.



Kofi A. Annan
*Secretary-General
of the United Nations*

The 20th century's progress towards equality—regardless of gender, race, religion, ethnicity or age—was propelled by social movements. One of the most significant has been the movement for women's rights, with roots back over the centuries (box 2.1).

The struggle against discrimination has also led to civil rights and anti-racism movements the world over. Equality was a driving force in all the major national liberation movements fighting for self-determination in Asia, Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean. Peasants' struggles in Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean also demanded an end to discrimination. The civil rights movement in the United States in the 1950s and 1960s dismantled legal segregation of African Americans. In many cases struggles went beyond national boundaries to become global—as with women's and workers' movements.

All these propelled norms, values, institutions and legal standards towards greater equality and less discrimination. Tolerance of others is now valued more. Diversity is seen as a strength, not a weakness. People appreciate multiculturalism and human solidarity.

There have been institutional changes as well:

- At the international level, 165 countries have ratified CEDAW, and 155 the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination—thus more

than three-quarters of the world's countries have ratified each of these two conventions.

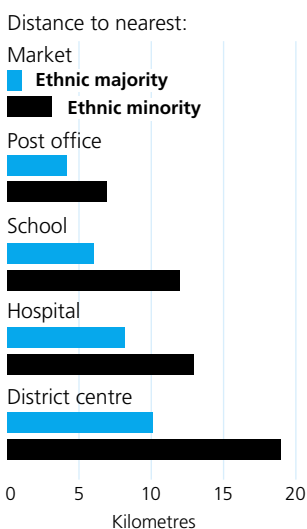
- National institutions and legal standards for affirmative action have emerged in Australia, Canada, India, New Zealand and the United States, where ethnic minorities and indigenous and tribal peoples form a significant part of the population.
- In India affirmative action in economic and political spheres benefit scheduled castes and tribes.
- In Australia and New Zealand there is increasing legal recognition of aboriginal and Maori people's rights.
- In Guatemala development programmes for the indigenous people have been formulated and integrated into the national plan.

Yet discrimination is still part of our lives. Why? Norms may have changed—but not fast enough and not in all important areas. Non-discrimination and equality may be formally recognized in laws, but there is still discrimination in policies, resource allocations and public provisioning of social services.

So, even with new norms, discrimination and inequality remain pervasive in almost all countries. Opportunities for equal wages, equal employment and equal political participation may be formally recognized, but without effective enforcement of laws, gaps remain in these areas for women, ethnic minorities, indigenous peoples and tribal peoples. Minorities everywhere—in democracies or dictatorships, in industrialized or developing countries—face discrimination in rights (figure 2.1).

That is why outcomes in human development are also mixed. In some areas the results are impressive. Between 1992 and 1998 in developing countries, the female adult literacy rate improved from 72% of the male rate to 80% and the share of rural households with access to safe water rose from 61% of the urban share to 78%. In the United States in 1960, the proportion of people finishing four years of high school was 43% for whites and 20% for African Americans—a gap of 23 percentage points. By 1998 the gap was 6 points, with an 82% completion rate for whites and 76% for African Americans. In Guatemala from 1995 to 1999—only four years—the child mortality

FIGURE 2.1
Ethnic discrimination—services are less accessible to minorities
Vietnam, 1992–93



Source: Van de Walle and Gunewardena 1999.

BOX 2.1

The long struggle for women's rights

In 1792 Mary Wollstonecraft published *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman*, arguing that it is not charity that is wanting in the world—it is justice. The book captures the essence of women's struggle for rights.

The struggle entered a new phase in the 1800s. India abolished *sati* (self-immolation of widows) and legalized intercaste marriage. England reformed laws governing marriage. France recognized women's right to divorce. China allowed women to hold office. New Zealand in 1893 became the first country to extend the right to vote to women.

In the first decade of the 20th century women's movements gathered strength in several countries, including China, Iran, Japan, Korea, the Philippines, Russia, Ceylon, Turkey and Viet Nam. In the first four decades women got the vote in countries ranging from Austria, Germany and the Netherlands to Ceylon, Turkey and Uruguay.

Around the same time Margaret Sanger in the United States, Ellen Key in Sweden and Shizue Ishimoto in Japan launched campaigns for women's right to reproductive health. They demanded that information on contraception be provided to all women.

Source: Human Development Report Office.

rate among Mayans declined by nearly a sixth, from 94 per 1,000 live births to 79.

In other areas the outcomes are deplorable. In Nepal untouchables have a life expectancy of 46 years—15 years less than the Brahmins. In Morocco the adult rural illiteracy rate of 75% is more than twice the urban rate of 37%. In South Africa more than 98% of whites live in formal houses, while more than 50% of Africans live in traditional dwellings and backyard shacks. In the developing world women’s economic activity rate is still two-thirds that of men. In the Republic of Korea, the female wage rate is only three-fifths the male rate. Girls in Madagascar, whether or not they go to school, spend three times as many hours as boys collecting water and doing other household chores. And in OECD countries women spend two-thirds of their time on non-market activities, nearly twice what men allocate to these tasks.

There are also disparities in access to services along income and rural-urban lines, perhaps reflecting discrimination in their provision (figures 2.2 and 2.3).

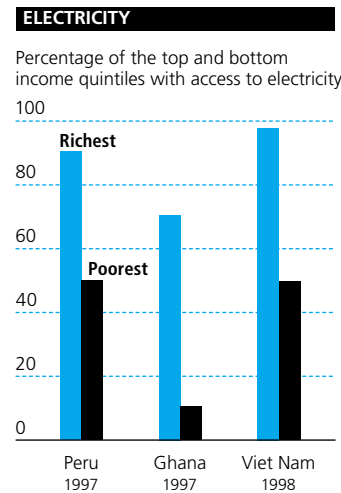
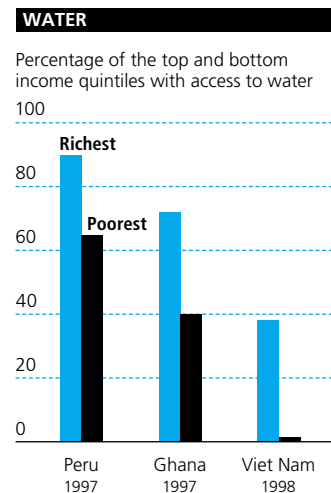
Indigenous peoples are still the most deprived in economic, social and cultural rights—in both developing countries such as India and industrialized countries such as Australia, Canada and the United States. In Canada in 1991, the life expectancy at birth of Inuit males was 58 years and that of registered Indian males 62 years, 17 and 13 years less than that for all Canadian males (figure 2.4). In India in the early 1990s, the adult literacy rate among women of scheduled tribes was 24%, compared with 39% for all Indian women. In Slovakia 80% of Roma children attended kindergarten in 1984, but only 15% do today. Indigenous peoples also are discriminated against in civil and political rights. In Malaysia only two Orang Asli in 10,000 have title to their land.

Discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation continues throughout the world. Civil and political rights of sexual minorities are violated in some countries where they are denied the right to organize into advocacy groups. Economic and social rights are violated where they are, for example, discriminated against in the workplace and in access to housing.

FREEDOM FROM WANT—FOR A DECENT STANDARD OF LIVING

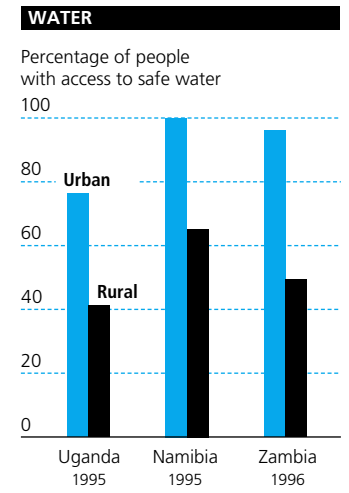
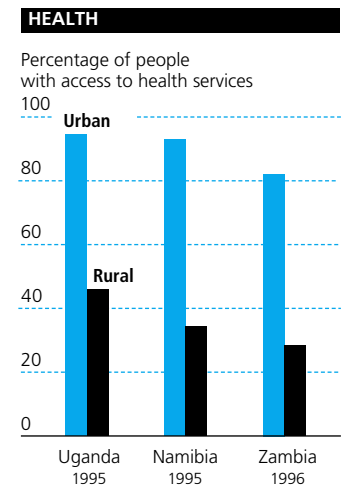
Human poverty is a major obstacle to attaining a decent standard of living and realizing human rights. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights recognized the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of a person and the right to education. Global conferences have identified poverty elimination as a major goal, reflected in national plans, policies and strategies. And 142 countries have ratified the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

FIGURE 2.2
Disparity by income—public services favour the rich



Source: World Bank 2000c.

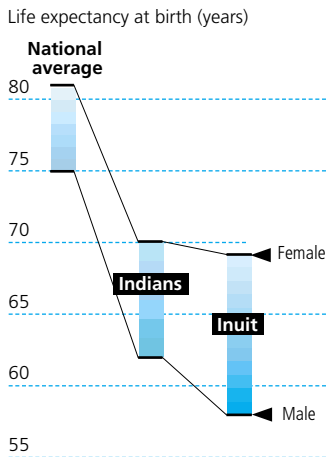
FIGURE 2.3
Urban-rural disparity—health services and safe water are less accessible in rural areas



Source: UNDP 1998d, 1998e; UNDP, FAO, UNESCO, UNFPA and UNICEF 1998.

FIGURE 2.4
Life expectancy varies by ethnicity

Canada, 1991

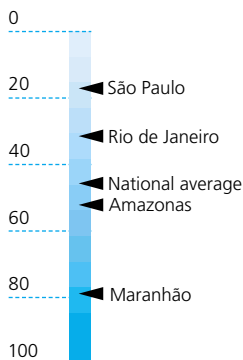


Source: First Nations and Inuit Regional Health Survey National Steering Committee 1999.

FIGURE 2.5
Income poverty varies by region

Brazil, 1991

Percentage of people below national poverty line



Source: Institute of Applied Economic Research and others 1998.

The world made much progress in reducing human poverty in the 1990s. In developing countries the percentage of people born today not expected to survive to age 40 declined from 20% to 14% between 1990 and 1998. The share of people without access to safe water fell from 32% to 28%. Adult illiteracy went down from 35% to 28%. The income poverty rate, even by the \$1 a day yardstick (1993 PPP US\$), declined from 29% to 24%. Income poverty is down in every developing region, though the decline ranged from 11 percentage points in East Asia to only 0.3 percentage points in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Some countries made spectacular progress. Malaysia reduced income poverty from 60% in 1960 to 14% in 1993, China from 33% in 1978 to 7% in 1994 and India from 54% in 1974 to 39% in 1994.

Yet widespread income poverty persists. By the \$1 a day standard (1993 PPP US\$), 1.2 billion people live in income poverty in developing countries, nearly half of them in South Asia. And poverty is no longer a phenomenon of just the South. It has become a Northern phenomenon as well (table 2.1). Even within countries, the incidence of income poverty varies among regions (figure 2.5).

Income inequality, in and across nations, is on the rise. In Brazil, Guatemala and Jamaica the top fifth's share in national income is more than 25 times the bottom fifth's. Poor people also bear a disproportionate burden in such areas as taxes. In Pakistan the combined burden of income taxes, tariffs, excise duties and sales taxes is 10% of income for those with a

monthly salary of less than \$12, and -4% for those with more than \$40.

Lack of housing is another problem. More than a billion people live in inadequate housing, and about 100 million are estimated to be homeless worldwide. Millions live in shanty towns—in Calcutta, Lagos, Mexico City and Mumbai. In Dublin, Ireland, about 7,000 people become homeless each year. And in the United States about 750,000 people are homeless on any given night.

Poor people lack access to productive resources, such as land and credit. In Zimbabwe the pattern of land distribution is highly skewed, with white farmers owning most of the 4,660 large-scale commercial farms, covering 11 million hectares of land, and 30% of all households practically landless. In Uganda nearly two-thirds of microcredit goes to urban areas, only a third to rural areas. In Kenya less than 5% of institutional credit goes to the informal sector.

FREEDOM FOR THE REALIZATION OF ONE'S HUMAN POTENTIAL

The rights to food, health, education and privacy—as rights to capability building—were fundamental building blocks of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, reiterated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, CEDAW and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. These rights were also highlighted by international conferences, such as Health for All in Alma-Ata in 1978 and Education for All in Jomtien in 1990.

Health, nutrition and education are now valued not only for their intrinsic worth but also for their positive impacts—direct and indirect—on human capital, productivity and capabilities for participation and social interaction. Consider the effects of education. Domestic violence is sensitive not to years of marriage, a woman's age, living arrangements, the husband's education—but to a woman's education. As has been observed in India, if a woman has more than a secondary education, the incidence of such violence falls by more than two-thirds. Yes, education empowers women. But it also changes the dynamics in households and thus changes norms.

TABLE 2.1
Income poverty in selected OECD countries

Country	Percentage of people living below the poverty line
United States (1997)	17
Italy (1995)	13
Australia (1994)	12
Canada (1994)	11
United Kingdom (1995)	11

Note: The poverty line is set at 50% of equivalent median disposable household income.

Source: Smeeding 2000.

Developing countries have achieved much in food and nutrition, health and education. Between 1980 and 1999 malnutrition was reduced: the proportion of underweight children fell in developing countries from 37% to 27% and that of stunted children from 47% to 33%. Over the same period the child mortality rate declined by more than two-fifths—from 168 per 1,000 live births to 93. Today primary enrolment in developing countries is about 86%, and secondary enrolment about 60%.

But these achievements should not mask the huge deprivations that remain in these areas—in both developing and industrialized countries. About a third of children under five suffer from malnutrition. Nearly 18 million people die every year from communicable diseases—nearly 30 million from non-communicable diseases, mostly in OECD countries. About 90 million children are out of primary school, and 232 million out of secondary.

And look at the disparities in outcomes. Infant mortality rates vary significantly by consumption level (figure 2.6). Literacy varies by language groups. In Namibia in 1998, the adult literacy rate for the German-speaking group was 99%, compared with 16% for the San-speaking group. And school enrolment varies by sex (figure 2.7).

Most of the setbacks in health and education have occurred in Africa and Eastern Europe and the CIS. The most devastating setback: AIDS. At the end of 1999 nearly 34 million people were infected with HIV, 23 million in Sub-Saharan Africa. The AIDS epidemic is also moving fast in Asia, with more than a million people newly infected in 1999 in South and South-East Asia and the Pacific alone.

In Eastern Europe and the CIS the transition to democracy has had costs in human development. The life expectancy of males in many countries is down by five years. Several countries face the unusual prospect of illiteracy—school enrolments are lower than in 1989 in many countries, and pockets of illiteracy may emerge. Serious decay in social services and social safety nets has left people without secure access to their entitlements.

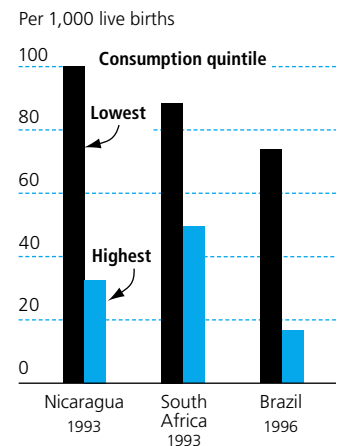
FREEDOM FROM FEAR—WITH NO THREATS TO PERSONAL SECURITY

People want to live without fear of others. No other aspect of human security is so vital as security from physical violence. But in poor nations and rich, people's lives are threatened by violence—in several forms:

- Threats from the state (physical torture, arbitrary arrest and detention).
- Threats from other states (war, support for oppressive regimes).
- Threats from other groups of people (ethnic conflicts, crime, street violence).
- Threats directed at women (rape, domestic violence).
- Threats directed at children (child abuse).

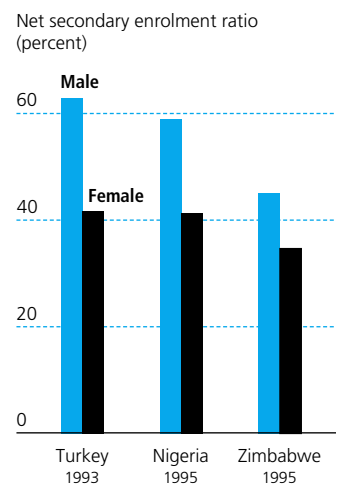
For years civil society movements have mobilized public opinion to eliminate such threats, and international groups have also contributed much. At the global level, the Conventions Against Torture, on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and on the Rights of the Child—ratified by 119, 165 and 191 countries—protect against torture and ensure the security of women and children. The appointment of a Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women has also contributed. The right of habeas corpus, vital as a tool against arbitrary detention, now prevails in many more countries. Laws relating to rape are stricter. In many countries in the mid-1990s, the average sentence served for rape was at least five years (table 2.2). In Brazil children's rights were legislated in 1986 through the Children's and Adolescents' Act, and the constitution now protects street children.

FIGURE 2.6
Infant mortality rate varies between rich and poor



Source: Wagstaff 2000.

FIGURE 2.7
School enrolment varies by sex



Source: UNDP 1996a, 1996b; UNDP, Poverty Reduction Forum, Institute of Development Studies and University of Zimbabwe 1998.

TABLE 2.2
Average sentence served for rape in selected countries, 1990–94

Country	Months
Kuwait	120
Mauritius	96
Samoa (Western)	84
Jamaica	64
Switzerland	64
United States	64

Note: Data refer to any year from 1990 to 1994.

Source: UNCJIN 1999.

Instruments of political oppression still threaten many thousands of people

Significant advances are being seen in respect for human rights and in freedom from fear. The incidence of torture is lower in many countries. In Honduras the number of torture cases reported to the Committee for the Defence of Human Rights, a major NGO, fell from 156 in 1991 to 7 in 1996. In 1993–96 the number of murders declined in Estonia, Latvia and the Netherlands, and drug-related crimes fell in Denmark and Sweden. Worldwide, the number of major armed conflicts declined by more than a third in 1990–98.

Yet the personal security of people all over the world is still under threat—from conflicts, political oppression, and, in some countries, increasing crime and violence. War and internal conflicts in the 1990s forced 50 million people to flee their homes—1 person of every 120 on earth. In the past decade civil wars have killed 5 million people worldwide. At the end of 1998 more than 10 million people were refugees, 5 million were internally displaced and another 5 million were returnees.

Instruments of political oppression still threaten many thousands of people. The number believed to be incarcerated without a fair trial is quite high in some countries. In many cases oppressive states use the police and military to repress people in their struggles for rights and freedoms. With global as well as regional military expenditures showing a downward trend, the military spending of low-income countries—those with per capita incomes of \$765 or less in 1998—rose from \$36 billion to \$43 billion (all expressed in 1995 constant dollars) in the three years from 1995 to

1998. The objectives of such expenditures need scrutiny by the people of these countries. Sometimes such increases in expenditures—and support to oppressive regimes—come from external sources.

In many countries in Eastern Europe and the CIS increases in such crimes as murder, robbery and theft have made people’s lives insecure. Worldwide, the circulation of an estimated 500 million small arms, 100 million of them assault rifles, has contributed to crime and violence. In the Bahamas there are more than 80 recorded homicides per 100,000 people annually, and in Colombia nearly 80. Annual recorded drug offenses are 574 per 100,000 people in Switzerland, 351 in Sweden and 301 in Denmark.

Among the worst personal threats are those to women. Rape has been used as a weapon of war, as in Yugoslavia and Rwanda. Trafficking of women and girls for prostitution has increased with globalization, with 500,000 women a year trafficked out of countries in Eastern Europe and the CIS. In Asia about 250,000 people, mostly women and children, are estimated to be trafficked every year. Between 85 million and 115 million girls and women have undergone some form of female genital mutilation and suffer from its adverse physiological and psychological effects. And every year an estimated 2 million more young girls undergo genital mutilation.

Domestic violence is a serious human rights threat to women in every society—rich and poor, developing and industrialized (table 2.3). Around the world on average, one in every three women has experienced violence in an intimate relationship. Women also face what is known as “honour” killings. In Pakistan the human rights commission reported that in 1999 more than 1,000 women were victims of honour killings, and in Jordan the Public Security Department reported 20 such killings in 1997.

The personal security of children is also at stake. Worldwide, about 100 million children live or work on the street—more than 15,000 in Mexico City, 5,000 in Guatemala City. In the 1990s more than 300,000 children were soldiers, and 6 million were injured in armed conflicts. And in sample surveys in the later part of the 1990s, children and teenagers reported sexual abuse—with nearly 20% of girls reporting

TABLE 2.3
Women physically assaulted by an intimate partner

Country	Percentage ever assaulted
Bangladesh (1992)	47
New Zealand (1994)	35
Barbados (1990)	30
Nicaragua (1997)	28
Switzerland (1994–96)	21
Colombia (1995)	19
Moldova, Rep. of (1997)	14
South Africa (1998)	13
Philippines (1993)	10

Source: Johns Hopkins University 1999a.

it in Switzerland, 17% in Oslo, Norway, and more than 14% in New Zealand.

Hate crimes threaten the personal security of ethnic, racial, religious and sexual minorities. The United States in 1998 had 7,755 reported hate crimes, 4,321 related to race. Assaults against non-heterosexual people increased from 11% of hate crimes in 1993 to 16% in 1998.

FREEDOM FROM INJUSTICE

The rule of law is deeply interconnected with freedom from fear and all other freedoms. Without the rule of law and fair administration of justice, human rights laws are no more than paper. Justice is something that people dearly value. As one poor farmer in Bangladesh put it, “I can tolerate poverty, but not to get justice in the eye of the law in my own country just because I am poor, that I cannot accept.”

There has been much progress on the legal front. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights inspired many constitutions in the newly independent countries of Asia and Africa during the 1950s and 1960s. And in recent times Cambodia, South Africa, Thailand and most countries in Eastern Europe and the CIS have incorporated its articles in their constitutions.

The outcome: first, recognition of human rights in their legal systems, and second, the rendering of international human rights standards and legal norms supreme over domestic laws. And the constitutions enshrine the separation of powers among the executive, the judiciary and the legislature. All these developments have led to various legal reforms. Egypt recently became the second of the Arab States, after Tunisia, to grant equal divorce rights to women. Some 66 countries have abolished the death penalty for all crimes.

To improve protection of women’s rights, many domestic laws have been changed. In doing so, legislatures have often drawn on CEDAW and overruled domestic laws in favour of international ones. In 1995 an amendment to the Citizenship Act in Botswana, citing the commitment of the government to CEDAW, granted the children of women married to foreigners the right to assume their mother’s citi-

zenship. In Thailand a new law ensures gender equality in obtaining citizenship.

There has also been progress in institutions. Human rights ombudsmen are working in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Hungary, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Poland, Romania and Slovenia. More people are taking recourse to their legal and constitutional rights. When a local government in South Africa cut a community’s water supply, the community, with the help of the Legal Resources Centre, an NGO, took the matter to court, citing the South African constitution. The local government had to concede that the community had a constitutional right to a water supply, and the community won the case. The judicial system in many countries has done much to protect human rights and freedoms. In India public interest litigation cases in education and environment have been important milestones in securing people’s economic and social rights.

But there is a long way to go. In some societies administration of justice remains elusive because of changing norms and inadequate institutional capacity. And although justice is supposed to be blind and absolute, in many societies money and power undermine the independence of the judicial system. In Bangladesh a national survey of corruption by the local chapter of Transparency International in the 1990s showed that 63% of those involved in litigation paid bribes to court officials. In the United Republic of Tanzania 32% of those surveyed in the 1990s reported payments to persons (supposedly) administering justice. Justice has become a commodity that often only the rich and powerful can afford.

The judicial system’s fairness is in question in many countries. Unfairness leads to discrimination in process and disparity in outcome. In some countries women still face discrimination in inheritance laws. In many countries the judiciary is little more than an extension of the executive, driving out people’s trust. In many others the executive interferes with the judiciary, sometimes arbitrarily dismissing judges, sometimes preventing due process. Not a framework to safeguard people’s basic rights.

The efficiency and adequacy of the judicial system are also in question in many societies.

In some societies administration of justice remains elusive because of changing norms and inadequate institutional capacity

People are demanding more transparency and accountability, and in many cases the legal framework and institution building are helping

Shortages of judges and overwhelming backlogs of cases strangle the rule of law in many countries. In India in 1996, there were more than 2,000 pending cases per judge, and in Bangladesh more than 5,000. In Indonesia and Zambia there are fewer than 2 judges per 100,000 people. In Panama 157 people per 100,000 await trial or adjudication, in Estonia 115 and in Madagascar 100. In 1994 the average custody while awaiting trial, for all offences, was 60 weeks in Mexico, 40 in Hungary and 30 in the Czech Republic. The poor salaries and inadequate legal training for judges, including in human rights law, are major constraints. So is the inadequacy of court facilities.

In many countries those responsible for administering justice are violators of law, not its guardians. Police are viewed with hostility because of their brutality, their involvement in the drug business, their mistreatment of prisoners and their failure to protect the people who need their protection most. Rapes by prison guards have been reported in many countries—in prisons and outside. Prison conditions are often inadequate. In Nicaragua in 1998, only \$3 was available per inmate per day to provide food and maintenance and cover the wages of prison officials.

FREEDOM OF PARTICIPATION, EXPRESSION AND ASSOCIATION

The 20th century's brutal militaries, fascist regimes and totalitarian one-party states committed some of the worst abuses of human rights. But thanks to impressive struggles, most of these ugly regimes have given way to democ-

racies (box 2.2). These struggles for more open societies—with full freedom of participation, expression and association—have created environments more conducive to advancing human rights. By 1975, 33 countries had ratified the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights—by 2000, 144 had.

People do not want to be passive participants, merely casting votes in elections. They want to have an active part in the decisions and events that shape their lives. An estimated one in five people participates in some form of civil society organization. The people's power at the Seattle meeting of the World Trade Organization recently shows their involvement in global issues.

People are demanding more transparency and accountability, and in many cases the legal framework and institution building are helping. Thailand's new constitution allows people to demand accountability from public officials for corruption and misdeeds, and 50,000 signatures against any parliamentarian triggers a review. In Brazil the Federal Audit Tribunal, linked to the legislative branch of the government, holds a mandate to audit all expenditures of the central government.

On the institutional side, there are now 50,000 NGOs in Hungary and 45,000 in Poland, unheard of in Soviet times. People are participating in national poverty hearings, peasants associations, indigenous peoples associations, and truth and reconciliation commissions in post-conflict situations—and at the local level, in tenants associations, school boards, water users associations and community policing. Press councils and journalists' wage boards have arisen in many countries to protect a free press and to look after the interests of people in the media. International networks—such as the French-based Reporters without Borders and the US-based Committee to Protect Journalists—play an important role in protecting journalists and advancing the freedom of speech.

The legal framework in many countries may be more conducive to freedom of participation, expression and association, but formidable restrictions remain. Political parties formed along ethnic lines were prohibited in Kazakhstan—they can register only as public

BOX 2.2

Democracy's advance

In 1900 no country had universal adult franchise. All countries excluded significant groups from the right to vote, notably women and minorities. In 2000 the majority of the world's countries have universal adult suffrage and multiparty elections. During 1974–99 multiparty electoral systems were introduced in 113 countries. The past 25 years have been dubbed by some as the “third wave” of democracy.

Democratization has travelled from region to region. First was Southern Europe in the mid-1970s, then Latin America and the Caribbean in the late 1970s and the late 1980s, then Eastern Europe and the former Soviet republics and East, South-East and South Asia and Central America in the late 1980s and 1990s.

Source: Human Development Report Office.

organizations and thus cannot take part in elections. The Bulgarian, Croatian and Romanian constitutions explicitly limit the right to use minority languages—this, despite these countries having signed the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages. Almost the entire Arab world bans strikes.

There is an increasing realization that laws are necessary to remove barriers to freedom of participation, expression and association, but that to implement them effectively will require resources. Thus ending press censorship is a necessary step towards freedom of expression, but the infrastructure for an effective system of free media must also be built.

Political activism has been important in winning rights. In Brazil, through the landless rural workers movement, more than 250,000 families won title to more than 15 million acres. In the United States poor and homeless people have mobilized themselves to fight for realization of their economic rights (box 2.3). NGOs are demanding more transparency and accountability, and public officials are responding. In India the Mazdoor Kisan Samiti holds regular public hearings on public resources, disbursements and development projects. People can demand copies of official documents on these issues at any time, and public officials must oblige.

What of political participation more broadly? In the past 25 years multiparty electoral systems were introduced in more than 100 countries. In all but a few countries women have the right to vote and to stand for election—a right unrecognized in 1970 even in Switzerland. Voter turnout varies, but it is difficult to identify the reasons why (indicator table 25).

In many formerly colonial countries the disturbing legacy of a district commissioner combining judicial and executive functions is giving way to participatory and elected grass-roots institutions. In India more than 1 million women have been elected in *panchayat* elections, reflecting the broad participation in local government.

Freedom of expression and association has also advanced. Today the state retains its monopoly on the media in only 5% of countries. Speech is now freer in the formerly one-

party states of Eastern Europe and the CIS—with independent newspapers, non-state television and radio stations and open access to the world media.

People also have more access to the tools of information and communication. East Asia had 158 television sets per 1,000 people in 1990—275 in 1996–98. The Arab States over the same period went from 35 telephone mainlines per 1,000 people to 65. And the world went from only 213 Internet host computers in 1981 to 36 million in 1998. Nearly 30,000 NGOs use the Internet. And there are more than 10 million Internet users in China.

All impressive testimony to the advance of freedom, but many setbacks and dangers need to be addressed. Today about 40 countries do not have a multiparty electoral system. Democracies remain fragile. In the 1990s several countries reverted to non-electoral regimes. The validity of many elections is in serious doubt, calling into question the legitimacy of the winners. In some countries non-governmental action is being restricted. As is evident from the gender empowerment measure, women still face discrimination in political and economic opportunities (indicator table 3). Women hold only about 14% of parliamentary seats—and in

There is an increasing realization that laws are necessary to remove barriers to freedom of participation, expression and association, but that to implement them effectively will require resources

BOX 2.3

Empowering poor people—political activism and people's mobilization

The Kensington Welfare Rights Union (KWRU), founded in the United States in April 1991 when six women began meeting weekly in the basement of the Kensington Congregational Church in Philadelphia, describes itself as a multiracial organization of, by and for poor and homeless people. About 4,000 people now see themselves as members of this growing movement for economic rights. Using the language of human rights in its fight against poverty, the KWRU has sparked activity all around the country, similar to the civil rights movement.

The union has developed five strategies based on its experience in organizing: teams of local organizers, a base of operations, lines of communication, mutual support networks and a core of people with commitment, understanding of strategy

and political education. It has also developed six tools: programme, protest, projects of survival, press work, political education and plans not personalities. And it has perfected the tool of establishing tent cities.

The KWRU believes that its main success has been the development of an estimated 3,000 leaders among the ranks of poor people. These leaders network with some 40 poor people's groups, and share experience with groups in Canada and Latin America. In 1997 the KWRU organized a "Freedom Bus", which travelled through 25 US states, getting the message out and mobilizing new leaders. The event, which involved thousands of people, culminated in New York at the United Nations. The union plans a summit on poverty in India in 2000.

Source: Hijab 2000.

the Arab States, as few as 4%. And many countries deny political participation to members of ethnic minorities and specific races.

In many parts of the world journalists have been harassed, arrested, beaten and even murdered for trying to uncover the truth. In 1999, according to the International Press Institute, 87 journalists and media people were killed while doing their job.

FREEDOM FOR DECENT WORK—WITHOUT EXPLOITATION

Productive and satisfying livelihoods give people the means to buy goods and services. They empower people socially by enhancing their dignity and self-esteem. And they can empower people politically by enabling them to influence decision-making in the workplace and beyond. In industrialized countries most workers are employed in the formal labour market—in developing countries most are outside the formal labour market.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights recognizes the right to work, to freely choose employment and to have just and favourable working conditions. All these rights are reiterated in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which also emphasizes the obligation of parties to the covenant to safeguard the right to work—so that everyone has the opportunity to earn a living.

International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions have been adopted to secure workers' rights and to ensure their safety and non-exploitation (table 2.4; annex table A2.2). Of the seven major labour rights conventions, all but the convention on minimum age have each been ratified by more than 125 countries. And of these, the conventions prohibiting forced labour or discrimination in employment and occupation have each been ratified by more than 140 countries.

Employment in the formal labour market has grown impressively in the past decade. In China in 1987–96, employment increased 2.2% a year—outpacing labour force growth at 1.5%. The corresponding rates in India were 2.4% and 2.2%. In OECD countries in 1987–97, employment and the labour force grew at the same pace, 1.1% a year. Labour productivity has increased in both OECD and developing countries. In 1990–95 labour productivity in Singapore increased 14% a year, in Chile nearly 10% a year. Employment opportunities in developing countries have broadened through expansion of informal sector enterprises, microfinance and NGO activities.

Even so, at least 150 million of the world's workers were unemployed at the end of 1998, and as many as 900 million were underemployed. About 35 million people were unemployed in OECD countries alone. Insecure jobs have become a fact of life in many countries. In the United Kingdom in 1997, 25% of all jobs were part time. Informal sector employment has become dominant in many countries. In the 1990s in Bolivia, it accounted for 57% of urban employment, in the United Republic of Tanzania 56%, in Thailand 48%. Much of this employment is low productivity, low wage and precarious. Unemployment varies among ethnic groups. In South Africa unemployment among African males in 1995 was 29%, more than seven times the 4% rate for their white counterparts.

Labour rights focus not only on ensuring a livelihood, but also on protecting against discrimination in work and benefits and against exploitation. Equal pay for equal work is spreading in principle, the result of a long

TABLE 2.4
Ratification of core International Labour Organization conventions
(as of 4 April 2000)

Principle	Conventions	Number of countries ratifying
Freedom of association and protection of the right to organize and collective bargaining	Convention 87 (1948)	128
	Convention 98 (1949)	146
Minimum working age	Convention 138 (1973)	88
Prohibition of forced labour	Convention 29 (1930)	152
	Convention 105 (1957)	144
Rights to equal remuneration and prohibition of discrimination in employment and occupation	Convention 100 (1951)	145
	Convention 111 (1958)	142

Source: ILO 2000.

struggle. So is recourse to the law. In October 1999, after a court case, the Canadian government agreed to pay \$1.8 billion in back salaries and interest to 230,000 past and current federal workers, overwhelmingly women, under the Equal Pay for Work of Equal Value Act.

The struggle against inhumane working conditions has taken different forms—revolutions to overturn an economic system or, more commonly, struggles to protect the rights of workers by securing better wages and other benefits, ensuring workers’ safety, providing acceptable working conditions and outlawing discrimination. Different institutions and events have shaped workers’ rights over time (box 2.4). People’s concerns about exploitation of workers are reflected in their support for ethical trading and insistence on codes of conduct for business. At the national level the tripartite system—government, employer and worker—has been effective in settling labour disputes.

Yet serious problems remain in labour rights and in the human rights of workers. With globalization and the pressure for a flexible labour market, workers’ incomes, rights and protections are being compromised. The social welfare system protecting workers is decaying. Trade union membership in the non-agricultural labour force has declined in many countries—both developing and OECD (figure 2.8). Of the 27 million workers in the world’s 845 export processing zones, many are not allowed to join unions, a clear violation of workers’ rights and human rights. In some cases female workers in garment industries are put under lock and key at the job, another clear violation—and when hundreds of women die in a fire because they cannot get out, a human tragedy. In many societies trade unions and union activities are often suppressed, to undermine workers’ struggles for their rights.

In recent years the industrialized world has attracted many migrants—in 1995 an estimated 26–30 million to Europe alone. In many cases migrant workers not only face discrimination in wages, they also live in poor conditions. In Germany Turkish migrant workers earn on average only 73% as much as German workers. In the Middle East and the Persian Gulf region 1.2 million women work as domes-

tic servants without labour protections, facing inhuman working hours, assaults and abuse and other discrimination. Malaysia, home of many migrant workers employed abroad as domestic servants, recently had a national soul-searching when these abuses were revealed.

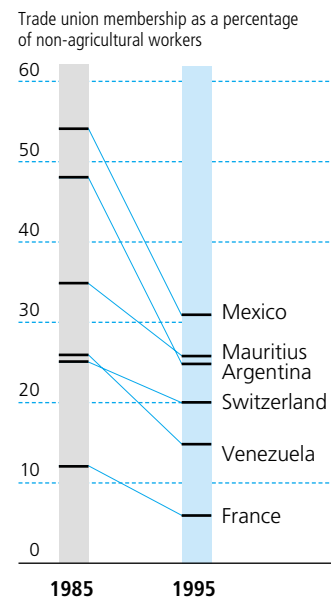
Worldwide, there are some 250 million child labourers—140 million boys, 110 million girls. Asia accounts for 153 million, Africa for 80 million. And millions of children are domestic workers—often suffering physical and psychological abuse (table 2.5).

TABLE 2.5
Child domestic workers in selected countries, 1990s

Country or city	Thousands
Philippines	766
Jakarta, Indonesia	700
Dhaka, Bangladesh	300
Haiti	250
Lima, Peru	150
Sri Lanka	100

Note: Data refer to the latest year available.
Source: UNICEF, International Child Development Centre, 1999.

FIGURE 2.8
Declining membership in trade unions



Source: ILO 1997c.

BOX 2.4

Evolution of international workers’ rights

Workers movements were established in Great Britain and the United States in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. The harsh working conditions in the industrial age gave rise to demands for international regulation to reduce the poverty of workers. Industrialists and governments feared losing out to competitors if they took unilateral protective action that raised the costs of production. That, too, led to calls for international regulation, through which protective measures could be adopted simultaneously by many countries.

The Welsh industrialist Robert Owen was the first to raise the idea of international action, proposing the creation of a labour commission in 1818. The initial proposals for international legislation came from an Englishman, Charles Hindley, a Belgian, Edouard Ducpétiaux, and three Frenchmen, J. A. Blanqui, Louis René Villarmé and, above all, the industrialist Daniel Le Grand. Le Grand issued a series of appeals beginning in 1844, and drafted proposals to “protect the working class from early and heavy labour” that he sent to various governments.

Source: Bartolomei de la Cruz, von Potobsky and Swepston 1996.

Proposals for international labour regulation were made in the French parliament and in Austria, Belgium and Germany, especially by the socialists and by Christian social movements. Germany convened an intergovernmental conference in Berlin in 1890, the first official forum to explore the possibility of adopting international labour legislation.

During the First World War trade union organizations from several countries agreed on the need for a mechanism for international legislation. A number of governments, especially France and Great Britain, proposed that international labour legislation be adopted at the peace conference.

During the negotiations for the Treaty of Versailles a decision was made to create the International Labour Organization, whose main duty would be to establish an international standard-setting mechanism. The Treaty of Versailles, finally adopted by the peace conference in 1919, included “workers’ clauses” to form the basic principles of international labour legislation.

EMERGING ISSUES IN HUMAN RIGHTS

We live in an era of dramatic change and transition. The world is being transformed by new rules, new tools and new actors into a vast global marketplace. Human freedoms face new threats from transition, conflicts, xenophobia, human trafficking and religious fundamentalism. And all over the world people with HIV/AIDS face serious threats to their human rights (box 2.5). Along with these new issues, persistent poverty and widening inequality are now treated as a denial of human rights and thus emerge as continuing human rights challenges.

- *Poverty and growing inequalities in income, human development and socio-economic opportunities.* Human poverty is pervasive, affecting a quarter of the people in the developing world. Worse, inequalities are

increasing in many instances—not only in income and wealth, but also in social services and productive resources. These growing inequalities threaten to erode hard-won gains in civil and political liberties, especially in Latin America and in the transition economies of Eastern Europe and the CIS. Poverty and inequality disempower people and open them to discrimination in many aspects of life and to additional violations of their rights (chapter 4).

- *Gross human rights violations in internal conflicts.* Conflicts are hotbeds of gross human rights violations, clearly illustrating the indivisibility and interdependence of all human rights. Past efforts to ensure respect for human rights even during war led to the four Geneva Conventions on the treatment of prisoners and the protection of civilians during international conflict. But most of today's wars are fought within national boundaries. True, Protocol II to the Geneva Conventions, ratified by 149 states, applies solely to non-international armed conflicts, and Common Article 3 of the conventions applies to internal conflicts. But some of today's grossest violations of human rights are in these situations, and an urgent challenge for the international community is to develop principles, institutions, standards and quicker responses for tackling these violations (chapter 6).

- *The transition to democracy and market economies.* The transition to democracy is fraught with fragility. The new formal democracies did not end discrimination against minorities or women—and in many instances such discrimination is growing. The transition in Eastern Europe and the CIS brought major reversals of economic and social rights—those of women to equality in employment, those of children to education and those of all to health care were seriously undermined. Institutions and norms are needed to prevent reversals. The democratic transition does not guarantee freedoms, nor is it sustainable without institutional and social capacity building.

What is needed is not elusive democracy but inclusive democracy, which best protects human rights (chapter 3).

- *Economic globalization and its new rules and actors.* Creating new patterns of interaction among people and states, globalization promises

BOX 2.5

Respecting human rights—crucial in dealing with HIV/AIDS

Protection and fulfilment of human rights is essential for an effective response to HIV/AIDS. Respect for human rights helps to reduce vulnerability to HIV/AIDS, to ensure that those living with or affected by HIV/AIDS live a life of dignity without discrimination and to alleviate the personal and societal impact of HIV infection. Conversely, violations of human rights are primary forces in the spread of HIV/AIDS.

Disrespect for civil and political rights makes society-wide mobilization against HIV/AIDS and open dialogue about prevention impossible. And poverty and deprivation contribute to the spread of HIV/AIDS. Where people lack access to information about the risks of HIV/AIDS and are denied adequate education, prevention efforts are bound to fail and the epidemic will spread more quickly. HIV/AIDS is also likely to spread more quickly in countries where the right to health is neglected. Marginalization and disempowerment of women make them more vulnerable to infection and exacerbate the effects of the epidemic. Discrimination against people affected by HIV/AIDS leads to shame, silence and denial, fuelling the epidemic.

In 1998 the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights and the

Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) together issued the *International Guidelines on HIV/AIDS and Human Rights*. The guidelines provide a framework for supporting both human rights and public health, emphasizing the synergy between the two, and offer concrete measures for protecting human rights in order to deal effectively with HIV/AIDS. They emphasize the government's responsibility for multisectoral coordination and accountability. They call for reforming laws and legal support services to help ensure non-discrimination, protect public health and improve the status of women, children and marginalized groups. And they recommend supporting increased private sector and community participation in the response to HIV/AIDS.

The United Nations Commission on Human Rights, at its session in 1999, passed a resolution asking governments to report on steps taken to promote and implement the guidelines for its 2001 session. South Africa has set a good example. Its human rights commission has endorsed the guidelines and recommended that the parliament adopt a charter on HIV/AIDS. Implementing a human rights approach is an essential step in dealing with this catastrophic threat to human development.

Source: Human Development Report Office; Mann and Tarantola 1996; UNHCR and UNAIDS 1998.

unprecedented opportunities for progress in larger freedoms. But it also threatens to compound many challenges for the international community. Developed in a state-centred world, the international system of human rights protection is suited to the post-war era, not the era of globalization. New actors—global corporations, multilateral organizations, global NGOs—wield great influence in social, economic, even political outcomes. What are the duties and obligations of these new actors? How should human rights be ensured in the World Trade Organization’s agenda of continuing trade liberalization? How can corporations be held accountable? What are the duties and obligations of the UN agencies, the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank (chapters 4 and 6)?

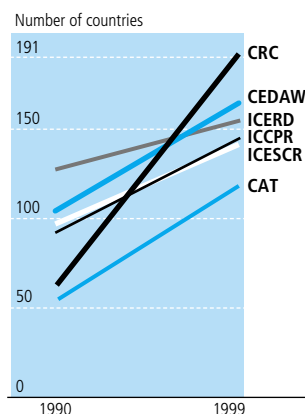
Dealing with human rights and human development—and with both old and emerging issues—requires a clear understanding of the mutually reinforcing links between the two (chapter 1). It also requires indicators that empower people to identify violations of human rights, assess progress and hold critical actors to account (chapter 5). Most important, it requires action—legal, political, social, economic. And that action must be on all fronts—local, national, regional, global. But enhancing human development and respecting human rights calls above all for one basic action—pursuing a human rights approach to development. And that requires a fundamental shift in development strategies at all levels (chapter 6).

Principal human rights instruments

Milestones in the adoption of major human rights instruments

1948	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
1965	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
1966	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
1966	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
1979	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
1984	Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
1989	Convention on the Rights of the Child

Countries ratifying the 6 major human rights conventions and covenants



Source: Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights.

International Bill of Rights

The International Bill of Rights consists of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and its two optional protocols and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights recognizes the indivisibility of human rights. Nevertheless, separate covenants evolved on civil and political rights and economic, social and cultural rights, reflecting the legacy of the cold war.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Building on the principles of the UN Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the United Nations on 10 December 1948, is the primary document proclaiming human rights standards and norms. The declaration recognizes the universality, indivisibility and inalienability of the rights of all people as the foundation of equality, freedom, justice and peace in the world.

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)

Adopted in 1966 and entered into force in 1976, the ICCPR defines a broad range of civil and political rights for all people. This major codification of human rights and fundamental freedoms in civil and political areas has been ratified by 144 states parties.

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)

Also adopted in 1966 and entered into force in 1976, the ICESCR defines the economic, social and cultural rights of people. It introduced a new way of looking at development, the rights-based perspective. There are 142 states parties to this covenant.

International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD)

The ICERD was adopted in 1965 and entered into force in 1969, in the aftermath of decolonization, a period characterized by apartheid and racial and ethnic conflicts. It deals with a particular form of discrimination—that based on race, colour, descent or national or ethnic origin. The convention has been ratified by 155 countries.

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)

Adopted in 1979 and entered into force in 1981, CEDAW represents the first comprehensive, legally binding international instrument prohibiting discrimination against women and obligating governments to take affirmative action to advance gender equality. The convention, ratified by 165 countries, is often referred to as the International Bill of Rights for Women.

Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT)

The CAT, adopted in 1984 and entered into force in 1989, added an important pillar to the international protection of human rights. The convention, which deals with the right not to be subjected to torture, lays out the steps to be taken by states to prevent torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. It has been ratified by 119 countries.

Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

Adopted in 1989 and entered into force in 1990, the CRC recognizes the need for specific attention to protecting and promoting the rights of children, to support their growth, development and becoming worthy citizens of the world. It has been ratified by 191 countries, making it almost universal.

The United Nations system for monitoring implementation of human rights

PROCEDURES BASED ON THE UN CHARTER

United Nations Human Rights Commission (1946)

Functions:

- Setting human rights standards.
- Holding an annual public debate on human rights violations.
- Appointing special rapporteurs, special representatives, experts and working groups to study themes or country situations. Today 16 country and more than 20 thematic procedures are in place.

PROCEDURES BASED ON THE SIX UN HUMAN RIGHTS TREATIES

Treaty bodies for monitoring the treaties

- Human Rights Committee (ICCPR).
- Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR).
- Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (ICERD).
- Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).
- Committee against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT).
- Committee on the Rights of the Child (CRC).

Functions:

- Receiving and discussing country reports on the status of human rights by engaging in constructive dialogue with states parties.
- Receiving shadow, or alternative, reports from civil society institutions.
- Providing concluding country observations on human rights in states parties.
- Providing general comments or recommendations on treaty rights.
- Providing procedures for hearing individual complaints.
- Providing inquiry procedures for gross or systemic human rights violations.
- Hearing complaints from one state party against another.

TRIPARTITE MECHANISM FOR ILO CONVENTION FOR THE PROTECTION OF WORKERS' RIGHTS

- Government, employers and trade unions.

OTHER BODIES

International Court of Justice (1946)

Functions:

- To settle in accordance with international law the legal disputes submitted to it by states.
- To give advisory opinions on legal questions referred to it by duly authorized international organs and agencies.

International Criminal Court

(agreement to set it up adopted in 1998; court has yet to come into existence)

Proposed functions:

- Bringing cases against individuals for war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity.
- Increasing state responsibility for infringement of human rights.
- Contributing to an international order that demands respect for human rights.

Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (1993)

Functions:

- Providing states with advisory services and technical assistance on request.
- Enhancing international cooperation in human rights.
- Engaging in dialogues with governments aimed at securing respect for all human rights.
- Supporting the existing UN human rights machinery.
- Promoting the effective implementation of human rights standards.

Ratification of treaties by states parties

Number of countries (as of 16 February 2000)

ICCPR

Ratification 144

Signature not followed by ratification 3

Not ratified and not signed 46

ICESCR

Ratification 142

Signature not followed by ratification 5

Not ratified and not signed 46

ICERD

Ratification 155

Signature not followed by ratification 5

Not ratified and not signed 33

CEDAW

Ratification 165

Signature not followed by ratification 3

Not ratified and not signed 25

CAT

Ratification 119

Signature not followed by ratification 9

Not ratified and not signed 65

CRC

Ratification 191

Signature not followed by ratification 1

Not ratified and not signed 1

Regional human rights instruments and institutions

INTER-AMERICAN HUMAN RIGHTS SYSTEM

The inter-American human rights system coexists with the UN treaty-based and non-treaty-based mechanisms.

Main instruments

American Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man (1948)

- Has a preamble explicitly linking rights and duties.
- Covers a roster of economic and social rights, most relating to labour, contained in a social charter.
- Links human rights and democracy.
- Is legally non-binding and thus has led to the adoption of the American Convention on Human Rights.

American Convention on Human Rights (1969)

- Is fundamentally a civil and political rights treaty.
- Provides progressive treatment of freedom of expression.
- Makes explicit the conditions under which guaranteed rights can be overridden in times of public danger.
- Has been ratified by 24 of the 35 members of the Organization of American States.

Other instruments

Inter-American Convention on Forced Disappearance (1994)

Inter-American Convention to Prevent and Punish Torture (1985)

Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women (1994)

Implementing institutions and mechanisms

Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (1959)

- Is made up of members elected by the General Assembly of the Organization of American States.
- Combines promotion and adjudication functions.
- Advises governments on legislation affecting human rights.

Inter-American Court of Human Rights (1979)

- Has two types of jurisdiction—advisory and contentious.
- Issues advisory opinions on correct interpretation of treaty obligations.
- Contentious jurisdiction encompasses cases submitted by the commission against states parties and vice versa.

EUROPEAN HUMAN RIGHTS SYSTEM

The European human rights system is by far the most developed of the regional systems. Distinguished by its preference for judicial approaches, it has gone the furthest in developing judicial processes. The European system also enjoys the highest rate of state compliance with its decisions.

Main instruments

European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (1950)

- Convention provides for collective enforcement of certain civil and political rights.
- European Court of Human Rights rules in cases alleging that individuals have been denied their human rights.
- Contracting states undertake to secure the rights defined by the convention for all.
- Subsequent protocols have extended the initial set of rights.
- Most countries that have ratified the convention have incorporated the provisions into their own national law.

European Social Charter (1961, revised in 1996)

- Guarantees a series of rights relating to conditions of employment and social cohesion.
- Has a system of supervision that includes the Committee of Independent Experts, the Governmental Committee and the Committee of Ministers.
- Provides for collective complaints.

Other instruments

European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1987)

Framework Convention on National Minorities (1995)

Implementing institutions and mechanisms

European Court of Human Rights (1959)

- Has as many judges as there are contracting states.
- Hears cases from individuals and contracting states.
- Uses a procedure that is adversarial and public.
- Issues advisory opinions on legal issues relating to conventions and protocols.

AFRICAN HUMAN RIGHTS SYSTEM

The African system of human rights is relatively recent. It prefers judicial and quasi-judicial approaches.

Instrument

African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (1981)

- Covers both civil and political and economic, social and cultural rights.
- Provides for collective rights and for state and individual duties.
- Includes claw-back clauses restricting human rights to the maximum extent allowed by domestic law.

Implementation institutions and mechanisms

African Human Rights Commission (1987)

- Serves more promotional and less protective functions.
- Examines state reports.
- Considers communications alleging violations.
- Expounds the African charter.

African Human Rights Court

(decision to establish it made in 1998; court has yet to start functioning)

- Consists of 11 judges appointed in their personal capacity.
- Complements the work of the African Human Rights Commission.
- Serves more protective and less promotional functions.
- Has a jurisdiction not limited to cases or disputes arising out of the African charter.

ARAB HUMAN RIGHTS SYSTEM

The Arab human rights system came into formal existence with the adoption in 1994 of the Arab Charter of Human Rights by the Arab League. The charter:

- Provides for a Committee of Human Rights Experts to examine reports submitted by the states parties and to report on them to the Permanent Commission of Human Rights of the Arab League.
- Prohibits denial of any of the fundamental human rights, but provides for limitations and restrictions on all rights for reasons of national security, the economy, public order, the rights of others and the like.
- Includes no requirements for a valid declaration of a state of emergency, and during a state of emergency provides for only a few rights, such as prohibition of torture and safeguards for a fair trial.
- Provides for no right to political organization and participation.

A2.1 Status of major international human rights instruments

	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 1965	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1966	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women 1979	Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment 1984	Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989
Afghanistan	●	●	●	○	●	●
Albania	●	●	●	●	●	●
Algeria	●	●	●	●	●	●
Andorra				●		●
Angola		●	●	●		●
Antigua and Barbuda	●			●	●	●
Argentina	●	●	●	●	●	●
Armenia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Australia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Austria	●	●	●	●	●	●
Azerbaijan	●	●	●	●	●	●
Bahamas	●			●		●
Bahrain	●				●	●
Bangladesh	●		●	●	●	●
Barbados	●	●	●	●		●
Belarus	●	●	●	●	●	●
Belgium	●	●	●	●	●	●
Belize		●		●	●	●
Benin	○	●	●	●	●	●
Bhutan	○			●		●
Bolivia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Bosnia and Herzegovina	●	●	●	●	●	●
Botswana	●			●		●
Brazil	●	●	●	●	●	●
Brunei Darussalam						●
Bulgaria	●	●	●	●	●	●
Burkina Faso	●	●	●	●	●	●
Burundi	●	●	●	●	●	●
Cambodia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Cameroon	●	●	●	●	●	●
Canada	●	●	●	●	●	●
Cape Verde	●	●	●	●	●	●
Central African Republic	●	●	●	●	●	●
Chad	●	●	●	●	●	●
Chile	●	●	●	●	●	●
China	●	○	○	●	●	●
Colombia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Comoros				●		●
Congo	●	●	●	●		●
Congo, Dem. Rep. of the	●	●	●	●	●	●
Cook Islands						●
Costa Rica	●	●	●	●	●	●
Côte d'Ivoire	●	●	●	●	●	●
Croatia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Cuba	●			●	●	●
Cyprus	●	●	●	●	●	●
Czech Republic	●	●	●	●	●	●
Denmark	●	●	●	●	●	●
Djibouti				●		●
Dominica		●	●	●		●

A2.1 Status of major international human rights instruments

	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 1965	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1966	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women 1979	Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment 1984	Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989
Dominican Republic	●	●	●	●	○	●
Ecuador	●	●	●	●	●	●
Egypt	●	●	●	●	●	●
El Salvador	●	●	●	●	●	●
Equatorial Guinea		●	●	●		●
Eritrea				●		●
Estonia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Ethiopia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Fiji	●			●		●
Finland	●	●	●	●	●	●
France	●	●	●	●	●	●
Gabon	●	●	●	●	○	●
Gambia	●	●	●	●	○	●
Georgia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Germany	●	●	●	●	●	●
Ghana	●			●		●
Greece	●	●	●	●	●	●
Grenada	○	●	●	●		●
Guatemala	●	●	●	●	●	●
Guinea	●	●	●	●	●	●
Guinea-Bissau			●	●		●
Guyana	●	●	●	●	●	●
Haiti	●	●		●		●
Holy See	●					●
Honduras		●	●	●	●	●
Hungary	●	●	●	●	●	●
Iceland	●	●	●	●	●	●
India	●	●	●	●	○	●
Indonesia	●			●	●	●
Iran, Islamic Rep. of	●	●	●			●
Iraq	●	●	●	●		●
Ireland	○	●	●	●	○	●
Israel	●	●	●	●	●	●
Italy	●	●	●	●	●	●
Jamaica	●	●	●	●		●
Japan	●	●	●	●	●	●
Jordan	●	●	●	●	●	●
Kazakhstan	●			●	●	●
Kenya		●	●	●	●	●
Kiribati						●
Korea, Dem. People's Rep. of		●	●			●
Korea, Rep. of	●	●	●	●	●	●
Kuwait	●	●	●	●	●	●
Kyrgyzstan	●	●	●	●	●	●
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	●			●		●
Latvia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Lebanon	●	●	●	●		●
Lesotho	●	●	●	●		●
Liberia	●	○	○	●		●
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	●	●	●	●	●	●

A2.1 Status of major international human rights instruments

	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 1965	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1966	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women 1979	Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment 1984	Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989
Liechtenstein		●	●	●	●	●
Lithuania	●	●	●	●	●	●
Luxembourg	●	●	●	●	●	●
Macedonia, TFYR	●	●	●	●	●	●
Madagascar	●	●	●	●		●
Malawi	●	●	●	●	●	●
Malaysia				●		●
Maldives	●			●		●
Mali	●	●	●	●	●	●
Malta	●	●	●	●	●	●
Marshall Islands						●
Mauritania	●					●
Mauritius	●	●	●	●	●	●
Mexico	●	●	●	●	●	●
Micronesia, Fed. Sts. of						●
Moldova, Rep. of	●	●	●	●	●	●
Monaco	●	●	●		●	●
Mongolia	●	●	●	●		●
Morocco	●	●	●	●	●	●
Mozambique	●	●		●	●	●
Myanmar				●		●
Namibia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Nauru						●
Nepal	●	●	●	●	●	●
Netherlands	●	●	●	●	●	●
New Zealand	●	●	●	●	●	●
Nicaragua	●	●	●	●	○	●
Niger	●	●	●	●	●	●
Nigeria	●	●	●	●	○	●
Niue						●
Norway	●	●	●	●	●	●
Oman						●
Pakistan	●			●		●
Palau						●
Panama	●	●	●	●	●	●
Papua New Guinea	●			●		●
Paraguay		●	●	●	●	●
Peru	●	●	●	●	●	●
Philippines	●	●	●	●	●	●
Poland	●	●	●	●	●	●
Portugal	●	●	●	●	●	●
Qatar	●				●	●
Romania	●	●	●	●	●	●
Russian Federation	●	●	●	●	●	●
Rwanda	●	●	●	●		●
Saint Kitts and Nevis				●		●
Saint Lucia	●			●		●
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	●	●	●	●		●
Samoa (Western)				●		●
San Marino		●	●			●

A2.1 Status of major international human rights instruments

	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination 1965	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights 1966	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1966	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women 1979	Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment 1984	Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989
São Tomé and Príncipe	●	○	○	○		●
Saudi Arabia	●				●	●
Senegal	●	●	●	●	●	●
Seychelles	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sierra Leone	●	●	●	●	○	●
Singapore				●		●
Slovakia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Slovenia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Solomon Islands	●		●			●
Somalia	●	●	●		●	
South Africa	●	●	○	●	●	●
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sri Lanka	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sudan	●	●	●		○	●
Suriname	●	●	●	●		●
Swaziland	●					●
Sweden	●	●	●	●	●	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	●	●	●
Syrian Arab Republic	●	●	●			●
Tajikistan	●	●	●	●	●	●
Tanzania, U. Rep. of	●	●	●	●		●
Thailand		●	●	●		●
Togo	●	●	●	●	●	●
Tonga	●					●
Trinidad and Tobago	●	●	●	●		●
Tunisia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Turkey	○			●	●	●
Turkmenistan	●	●	●	●	●	●
Tuvalu				●		●
Uganda	●	●	●	●	●	●
Ukraine	●	●	●	●	●	●
United Arab Emirates	●					●
United Kingdom	●	●	●	●	●	●
United States	●	●	○	○	●	○
Uruguay	●	●	●	●	●	●
Uzbekistan	●	●	●	●	●	●
Vanuatu				●		●
Venezuela	●	●	●	●	●	●
Viet Nam	●	●	●	●		●
Yemen	●	●	●	●	●	●
Yugoslavia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Zambia	●	●	●	●	●	●
Zimbabwe	●	●	●	●		●
Total states parties	155	144	142	165	119	191
Signatures not followed by ratification	5	3	5	3	9	1
States that have not ratified and signed	33	46	46	25	65	1

● Ratification, accession, approval, notification or succession, acceptance or definitive signature.

○ Signature not yet followed by ratification.

Note: Status as of 16 February 2000.

Source: UN 2000e.

A2.2 Status of fundamental labour rights conventions

	Freedom of association and collective bargaining		Elimination of forced and compulsory labour		Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation		Abolition of child labour	
	Convention 87 ^a	Convention 98 ^b	Convention 29 ^c	Convention 105 ^d	Convention 100 ^e	Convention 111 ^f	Convention 138 ^g	Convention 182 ^h
		●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Afghanistan				●	●	●		
Albania	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Algeria	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Angola		●	●	●	●	●		
Antigua and Barbuda	●	●	●	●		●	●	
Argentina	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Armenia					●	●		
Australia	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Austria	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Azerbaijan	●	●	●		●	●	●	
Bahamas		●	●	●				
Bahrain			●	●				
Bangladesh	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Barbados	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Belarus	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Belgium	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Belize	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Benin	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Bolivia	●	●		●	●	●	●	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	●	●	●		●	●	●	
Botswana	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Brazil		●	●	●	●	●		●
Bulgaria	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Burkina Faso	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Burundi	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Cambodia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Cameroon	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Canada	●			●	●	●		
Cape Verde	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Central African Republic	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Chad	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Chile	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
China					●	●	●	
Colombia	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Comoros	●	●	●	●	●			
Congo	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Congo, Dem. Rep. of the		●	●		●			
Costa Rica	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Côte d'Ivoire	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Croatia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Cuba	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Cyprus	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Czech Republic	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Denmark	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Djibouti	●	●	●	●	●			
Dominica	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Dominican Republic	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Ecuador	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Egypt	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
El Salvador			●	●		●	●	

A2.2 Status of fundamental labour rights conventions

	Freedom of association and collective bargaining		Elimination of forced and compulsory labour		Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation		Abolition of child labour	
	Convention 87 ^a	Convention 98 ^b	Convention 29 ^c	Convention 105 ^d	Convention 100 ^e	Convention 111 ^f	Convention 138 ^g	Convention 182 ^h
Equatorial Guinea					●		●	
Eritrea	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Estonia	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Ethiopia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Fiji		●	●	●				
Finland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
France	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Gabon	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Gambia								
Georgia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Germany	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Ghana	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Greece	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Grenada	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Guatemala	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Guinea	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Guinea-Bissau		●	●	●	●	●		
Guyana	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Haiti	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Honduras	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Hungary	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Iceland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
India			●	●	●	●		
Indonesia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Iran, Islamic Rep. of			●	●	●	●		
Iraq		●	●	●	●	●	●	
Ireland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Israel	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Italy	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Jamaica	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Japan	●	●	●		●			
Jordan		●	●	●	●	●	●	
Kazakhstan						●		
Kenya		●	●	●			●	
Korea, Rep. of					●	●	●	
Kuwait	●		●	●		●	●	
Kyrgyzstan	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Lao People's Dem. Rep.			●					
Latvia	●	●		●	●	●		
Lebanon		●	●	●	●	●		
Lesotho	●	●	●		●	●		
Liberia	●	●	●	●		●		
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya		●	●	●	●	●	●	
Lithuania	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Luxembourg	●	●	●	●	●		●	
Macedonia, TFYR	●	●	●		●	●	●	
Madagascar	●	●	●		●	●		
Malawi	●	●	●	●	●	●		●
Malaysia		●	●	■	●		●	
Mali	●	●	●	●	●	●		

A2.2 Status of fundamental labour rights conventions

	Freedom of association and collective bargaining		Elimination of forced and compulsory labour		Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation		Abolition of child labour	
	Convention 87 ^a	Convention 98 ^b	Convention 29 ^c	Convention 105 ^d	Convention 100 ^e	Convention 111 ^f	Convention 138 ^g	Convention 182 ^h
Malta	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Mauritania	●		●	●		●		
Mauritius		●	●	●			●	
Mexico	●		●	●	●	●		
Moldova, Rep. of	●	●		●		●		
Mongolia	●	●			●	●		
Morocco		●	●	●	●	●	●	
Mozambique	●	●		●	●	●		
Myanmar	●		●					
Namibia	●	●						
Nepal		●			●	●	●	
Netherlands	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
New Zealand			●	●	●	●		
Nicaragua	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Niger	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Nigeria	●	●	●	●	●			
Norway	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Oman			●					
Pakistan	●	●	●	●		●		
Panama	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Papua New Guinea		●	●	●				
Paraguay	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Peru	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Philippines	●	●		●	●	●	●	
Poland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Portugal	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Qatar			●			●		
Romania	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Russian Federation	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Rwanda	●	●		●	●	●	●	
Saint Kitts and Nevis								
Saint Lucia	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines		●	●	●				
San Marino	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
São Tomé and Príncipe	●	●			●	●		
Saudi Arabia			●	●	●	●		
Senegal	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Seychelles	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sierra Leone	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Singapore		●	●	■				
Slovakia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Slovenia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Solomon Islands			●					
Somalia			●	●		●		
South Africa	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Spain	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Sri Lanka	●	●	●		●	●		
Sudan		●	●	●	●	●		
Suriname	●	●	●	●				
Swaziland	●	●	●	●	●	●		

A2.2 Status of fundamental labour rights conventions

	Freedom of association and collective bargaining		Elimination of forced and compulsory labour		Elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation		Abolition of child labour	
	Convention 87 ^a	Convention 98 ^b	Convention 29 ^c	Convention 105 ^d	Convention 100 ^e	Convention 111 ^f	Convention 138 ^g	Convention 182 ^h
Sweden	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Switzerland	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Syrian Arab Republic	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Tajikistan	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Tanzania, U. Rep. of		●	●	●			●	
Thailand			●	●	●			
Togo	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Trinidad and Tobago	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Tunisia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Turkey	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Turkmenistan	●	●	●	●	●	●		
Uganda		●	●	●				
Ukraine	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
United Arab Emirates			●	●	●		●	
United Kingdom	●	●	●	●	●	●		●
United States				●				●
Uruguay	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Uzbekistan		●	●	●	●	●	●	
Venezuela	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Viet Nam					●	●		
Yemen	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Yugoslavia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Zambia	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
Zimbabwe		●	●	●	●	●	●	
Total of 174	128	146	152	144 ⁱ	145	142	88	13

● Ratification.

■ Ratification denounced.

Note: Status as of 4 April 2000.

a. Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention (1948). b. Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention (1949). c. Forced Labour Convention (1930). d. Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (1957). e. Equal Remuneration Convention (1951). f. Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (1958). g. Minimum Age Convention (1973). h. Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (1999). Has not yet entered into force. i. Excludes denounced ratifications.

Source: ILO 2000.