

**UNIVERSITY OF SPLIT
SCHOOL OF MEDICINE**

MEDICAL HUMANITIES II



Human Rights

Open Textbook – **working version**



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Disclaimer: This open textbook is a **work in progress**, and will be updated with appropriate references, and style changes, alongside additional text and clarifications in 2017. It is provided here only as a help to students of **2016/2017** generation.

Human Rights

Human rights are commonly understood as "*fundamental rights to which a person is inherently entitled simply because she or he is a human being.*"¹ Human rights are conceived as *universal* (applicable everywhere) and *egalitarian* (the same for everyone). However, today they most commonly exist as legal rights in national or international law, and are therefore guaranteed, enforced and protected differently around the globe.

Rights can be defined as entitlements (not) to perform certain actions, or (not) to be in certain states; or entitlements that others (not) perform certain actions or (not) be in certain state. They can be escribed within a legal system, social convention, or an ethical theory.² Societal and then legal rights, have a long human history, however many of the basic ideas that animated the human rights movement developed in the aftermath of the Second World War and the atrocities of The Holocaust, culminating in the adoption of the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights** in **1948**. However, as there was no body to guarantee the rights written in the Declaration, the **Council of Europe** member states drafted **The European Convention on Human Rights** in **1950**, and established the **European Court of Human Rights** (ECtHR) allowing any person who feels his or her rights have been violated to take the case to the Court. In 1969 The **American Convention on Human Rights**, also known as the **Pact of San José** (full text available [online](#)) was signed in the Americas, following which in the 1979 the **Inter-American Court of Human Rights** was established. In the same year, The **African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights** (also known as the Banjul Charter) was drafted, with the **African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights** in 1988.

Human rights can be classified and organized in a number of different ways, one of the most common being that in 3 generations:

- 1) **Civil and political rights** (1st generation) are a class of rights that protect individuals' freedom from infringement by governments, social organizations, and private individuals, and which ensure one's ability to participate in the civil and political life of the society and state without discrimination or repression.
- 2) **Economic, social and cultural rights** (2nd generation) such as the right to education, right to housing, right to adequate standard of living, right to health and the right to science and culture,
- 3) **Right to peace and clean environment** (3rd generation) are those rights that go beyond the mere civil and social, and include the so called "green" and self-determination rights, including sexual freedoms, and cultural heritage rights.

Short history of human rights

The ancient world did not possess the concept of universal human rights. Ancient societies had "elaborate systems of duties... conceptions of justice, political legitimacy, and human flourishing that sought to realize human dignity, or well-being entirely independent of human rights".³

In 539 B.C., the armies of **Cyrus the Great**, the **first king** of ancient **Persia**, conquered the city of Babylon. But it was his next actions that marked a major advance for mankind. He freed the slaves, declared that all people had the right to choose their own religion, and established racial equality. These and other decrees were recorded on a baked-clay cylinder in the Akkadian language with cuneiform script. Known today as the **Cyrus Cylinder**, this ancient record has now been recognized as the world's first charter of human rights. It is translated into all six official languages of the United Nations and its provisions parallel the first four Articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The full text of the Cylinder can be found [online](#).



Figure 1. Cyrus Cylinder - written in Akkadian cuneiform script, now within the British Museum.

From Babylon, the idea of human rights spread quickly to India, Greece and eventually to Rome. There the concept of "*natural law*" arose, in observation of the fact that people tended to follow certain unwritten laws in the course of their lives, with the Roman law being based on rational ideas derived from the nature of things. The most commonly held view is that concept of human rights evolved in the West, and that while earlier cultures had important ethical concepts, they generally lacked a concept of human rights. Additionally, there was no word for "right" in any language before 1400.

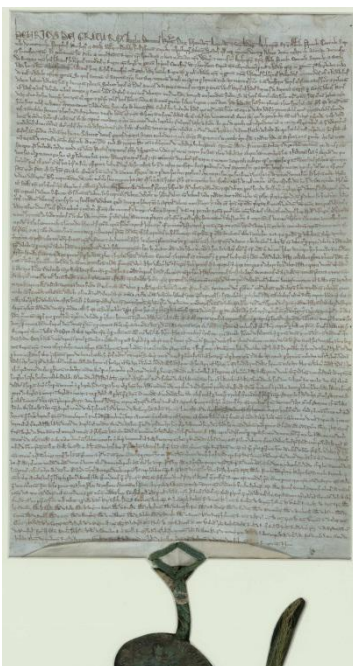


Figure 2 Magna Carta charter, held in the British Library

Medieval charters of liberty such as the English *Magna Carta* were not charters of human rights, rather they were a form of limited political and legal agreement to address specific political circumstances. Magna Carta, also called *Magna Carta Libertatum* or The Great Charter of the Liberties of England, was originally issued in Latin in the year **1215**, translated into French as early as 1219, and reissued later in the 13th century in modified versions. The later versions excluded the most direct challenges to the monarch's authority that had been present in the 1215 charter.

The 1215 charter required *King John of England* to proclaim certain liberties for having violated a number of ancient laws and customs by which England had been governed. These later came to be

thought of as human rights. Among them was the right of the church to be free from governmental interference, the rights of all free citizens to own and inherit property and to be protected from excessive taxes. It established the right of widows who owned property to choose not to remarry, and established principles of due process and equality before the law. It also contained provisions forbidding bribery and official misconduct. Magna Carta was the first document forced onto a King of England by a group of his subjects, the feudal barons, in an attempt to limit his powers by law and protect their privileges. The charter was an important part of the extensive historical process that led to the rule of constitutional law in the English speaking world. Magna Carta was also important in the colonization of American colonies as England's legal system was used as a model for many of the colonies when they were developing their own systems. The full text of the charter can be found [online](#).

In 1264 the *Statute of Kalisz* was issued by the Duke of Greater Poland, Boleslaus the Pious, giving privileges to the Jews in the Kingdom of Poland, including protection from discrimination and hate speech, exclusive jurisdiction over Jewish matters to Jewish courts, their status as free people, directly subject to the Duke and his jurisdiction, the protection of life and property, and the right to synagogues and cemeteries. It also regulated their business activity in trade, credit, and finances, and protected them from any wilful actions on the part of their Christian neighbours.⁴ The text of the Statute can found [online](#).

In 1525 following the religious controversy of Marthin Luther's *Disputation on the Power of Indulgences* (1517) and the shift of the power dynamic between peasants themselves, their serfdom status and current state leaderships, representatives of the Upper Swabian Peasants Groups, published their stance against the Swabian League, known today as the **Twelve Articles**. They are considered the first draft of human rights and civil liberties in continental Europe. The articles contained peasants' rights to choose their own pastors, relief from the lesser tithes, abolition of serfdom, the right to fish and hunt, restoration of inclosed common lands, abolition of death duties, impartiality of the courts, and restriction of the demands of landlords to their just feudal dues. Martin Luther, condemned the revolt, and some 100 000 peasants were defeated during the 2 year war, however the fundamental ideas in the articles were influential for a long time. The text of the Articles can found [online](#).

The next recorded milestone in the development of human rights was the *Petition of Right*, produced in 1628 by the English Parliament and sent to Charles I as a statement of civil liberties. It sets out specific liberties of the subject that the king is prohibited from infringing. Refusal by Parliament to finance the king's unpopular foreign policy had caused his government to exact forced loans and to quarter troops in subjects' houses as an economy measure. The Petition of Right, was based upon earlier statutes and charters and asserted four principles: (1) No taxes may be levied without consent of Parliament, (2) No subject may be imprisoned without cause shown (reaffirmation of the right of habeas corpus), (3) No soldiers may be quartered upon the citizenry,

and (4) Martial law may not be used in time of peace.⁵ Despite debates over its legal status, the Petition of Right was highly influential, and alongside Magna Carta, the Habeas Corpus Act of 1679 and The Bill of Rights of 1689 that sets out certain basic civil rights, is the basis of British constitution.

Overseas, on July 4, **1776**, the United States Congress approved the *Declaration of Independence*. Its primary author, Thomas Jefferson, wrote the Declaration as a formal explanation of why Congress had voted to declare independence from Great Britain, more than a year after the outbreak of the American Revolutionary War, and as a statement announcing that the thirteen American Colonies were no longer a part of the British Empire. Congress issued the Declaration of Independence in several forms. It was initially published as a printed broadsheet that was widely distributed and read to the public. Philosophically, the Declaration stressed two themes: individual rights and the right of revolution. These ideas became widely held by Americans and spread internationally as well, influencing in particular the French Revolution of 1789. The second sentence of the Declaration has become one of the best-known sentences in the English language and regarded as an important statement on human rights:

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.

The full text of the Declaration can be found [online](#). Interestingly though, America allowed slavery at the time, with Thomas Jefferson owning up to 600 during his lifetime. Abraham Lincoln, though, held that the Declaration of Independence expressed the highest principles of the American Revolution, and that the Founding Fathers had tolerated slavery with the expectation that it would ultimately wither away. In **1865** Lincoln pushed to have the **Thirteenth Amendment** added to the American Constitution abolishing slavery.

The **Constitution of the United States of America** was made in the summer of 1787 in Philadelphia. It is the fundamental law of the US federal system of government and the landmark document of the Western world. It is the oldest written national constitution in use and defines the principal organs of government and their jurisdictions and the basic rights of citizens. The first ten amendments to the Constitution—the **Bill of Rights**—came into effect on December 15, 1791, limiting the powers of the federal government of the United States and protecting the rights of all citizens, residents and visitors in American territory.

The Bill of Rights protects freedom of speech, freedom of religion, the right to keep and bear arms, the freedom of assembly and the freedom to petition. It also prohibits unreasonable search and seizure, cruel and unusual punishment and compelled self-incrimination. Among the legal protections it affords, the Bill of Rights prohibits Congress from making any law respecting establishment of religion and prohibits the federal government from depriving any person of life, liberty or property without due process of law. In federal criminal cases it requires indictment by a

grand jury for any capital offense, or infamous crime, guarantees a speedy public trial with an impartial jury in the district in which the crime occurred, and prohibits double jeopardy.

In 1870 **The Fifteenth Amendment** to the American constitution gave the right to vote to all citizens no matter "race, color, or previous condition of servitude", and **in 1920 the Nineteenth Amendment** gave women the right to vote. In 1971 Twenty-sixth Amendment allowed all those of 18 years of age to vote, removing the previous practice of requiring 21 years of age.

In **1789** the people of France brought about the abolishment of the absolute monarchy and set the stage for the establishment of the first French Republic. Just six weeks after the storming of the Bastille, and barely three weeks after the abolition of feudalism, the Declaration was adopted by the National Constituent Assembly as the first step toward writing a constitution for the Republic of France. The Declaration proclaims that all citizens are to be guaranteed the rights of "liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression." It argues that the need for law derives from the fact that "...the exercise of the natural rights of each man has only those borders which assure other members of the society the enjoyment of these same rights."

The Geneva Conventions

The Geneva Conventions came into being between 1864 and 1949 as a result of efforts by **Henry Dunant**, the founder of the International Committee of the Red Cross. In 1859 Henry Dunant, a Swiss citizen, witnessed the aftermath of the **Battle of Solferino** and was horrified by the sight of thousands of wounded soldiers lying helpless and abandoned with no one to care for them. This experience led him to suggest the setting up of voluntary relief societies who could be trained, during peacetime, to care for the wounded in time of war. He also called for an international agreement to be drawn up to protect the wounded, and those who looked after them, from further attack. In 1863 Henri Dunant arranged an unofficial international conference at which it was agreed that each country should form a relief organization capable of assisting the Army Medical Services in wartime. This was how the Red Cross began. In 1864 governments were invited to send representatives to a diplomatic conference. As a result 12 European nations signed a treaty stating that in future wars they would care for all sick and wounded military personnel, regardless of nationality. They would also recognise the neutrality of medical personnel, hospitals and ambulances identified by the emblem of a red cross on a white background. The treaty was called the Geneva Convention. This Convention was concerned only with soldiers wounded on the battlefield. Over the years, however, it has been expanded to cover everyone caught up in conflicts but not actually taking an active part in the fighting. For his actions, Henry Dunant became corecipient of the first Nobel Peace Prize in 1901.

The original document from the first Geneva Convention in 1864 provided the obligation to extend care without discrimination to wounded and sick military personnel and respect for and

marking of medical personnel transports and equipment with the distinctive sign of the red cross on a white background. As a result of World War II, all four conventions were revised, based on previous revisions and on some of the 1907 Hague Conventions, and readopted by the international community in 1949. The Geneva Conventions comprise **four treaties, and three additional protocols**, that establish the standards of international law for the humanitarian treatment of the victims of war. They cover armed forces on land and at sea, prisoners of war, and civilians. And all of them have now been accepted by virtually every State in the world.

The first three Geneva Conventions were revised, expanded, and replaced, and the fourth one was added, in 1949.

- The Geneva Convention *for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Wounded and Sick in Armed Forces in the Field* was adopted in 1864. It was significantly revised and replaced by the 1906 version, the 1929 version, and later the First Geneva Convention of 1949.
- The Geneva Convention *for the Amelioration of the Condition of Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed Forces at Sea* was adopted in 1906. It was significantly revised and replaced by the Second Geneva Convention of 1949.
- The Geneva Convention relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War was adopted in 1929. It was significantly revised and replaced by the Third Geneva Convention of 1949.
- The Fourth Geneva Convention relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War was adopted in 1949.

There are three additional amendment protocols to the Geneva Convention:

1. Protocol I (1977): Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts. As of 12 January 2007 it had been ratified by 167 countries.
2. Protocol II (1977): Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Protection of Victims of Non-International Armed Conflicts. As of 12 January 2007 it had been ratified by 163 countries.
3. Protocol III (2005): Protocol Additional to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949, and relating to the Adoption of an Additional Distinctive Emblem. As of June 2007 it had been ratified by seventeen countries and signed but not yet ratified by an additional 68.

Today they have "achieved universal participation with 194 parties." This means that they apply to almost any international armed conflict. The Additional Protocols, however, have yet to achieve near-universal acceptance, since the United States and several other significant military powers (like Iran, Israel, India and Pakistan) are currently not parties to them.

Summary of main points

The First Convention is the basis on which rest the rules of international law for the protection of the victims of armed conflicts, taking into consideration modern means of warfare and transport and aiming to give further protection to civilians.

The Second Convention provides a code of minimum protection for the combatants and the civilian population during civil wars. They embody the main idea which led to the founding of the Red Cross: if a member of the armed forces is wounded or sick, and therefore in no condition to take an active part in the hostilities, he is no longer part of the fighting force and becomes a vulnerable person in need of protection and care. The main points of these two Conventions are: the sick, wounded and shipwrecked must be cared for adequately. Belligerents must treat members of the enemy force who are wounded, sick or shipwrecked as carefully they would their own. All efforts should be made to collect the dead quickly; to confirm death by medical examination; to identify bodies and protect them from robbery. Medical equipment must not be intentionally destroyed and medical establishments and vehicles must not be attacked, damaged or prevented from operating even if, for the moment, they do not contain patients.

The third Convention covers members of the armed forces who fall into enemy hands. They are in the power of the enemy State, not of the individuals or troops who have captured them. Prisoners of war **MUST** be: treated humanely with respect for their persons and their honour, enabled to inform their next of kin and the Central Prisoners of War Agency (ICRC, the International Red Cross) of their capture, allowed to correspond regularly with relatives and to receive relief parcels, allowed to keep their clothes, feeding utensils and personal effects, supplied with adequate food and clothing, provided with quarters not inferior to those of their captor's troops, given the medical care their state of health demands, paid for any work they do, repatriated if certified seriously ill or wounded, (but they must not resume active military duties afterwards), quickly released and repatriated when hostilities cease. Prisoners of war **must NOT** be: compelled to give any information other than their name, age, rank and service number, deprived of money or valuables without a receipt (and these must be returned at the time of release), given individual privileges other than for reasons of health, sex, age, military rank or professional qualifications, held in close confinement except for breaches of the law, although their liberty can be restricted for security reasons, compelled to do military work, nor work which is dangerous, unhealthy or degrading.

The fourth Convention covers all individuals "who do not belong to the armed forces, take no part in the hostilities and find themselves in the hands of the Enemy or an Occupying Power". Protected civilians **MUST** be: treated humanely at all times and protected against acts or threats of violence, insults and public curiosity, entitled to respect for their honour, family rights, religious convictions and practices, and their manners and customs. specially protected, for example in safety zones, if wounded, sick, old, children under 15, expectant mothers or mothers of children under 7, enabled to exchange family news of a personal kind, helped to secure news of family members dispersed by the conflict, allowed to practise their religion with ministers of their own faith. Civilians who are interned have the same rights as prisoners of war. They may also ask to have their children interned with them, and wherever possible families should be housed together and provided with the facilities to continue normal family life. Wounded or sick civilians, civilian hospitals and staff, and

hospital transport by land, sea or air must be specially respected and may be placed under protection of the red cross/crescent emblem. Protected civilians must NOT be: discriminated against because of race, religion or political opinion, forced to give information, used to shield military operations or make an area immune from military operations, punished for an offence he or she has not personally committed. Women must not be indecently assaulted, raped, or forced into prostitution. The distinctive emblems defined in the Geneva Conventions are the red cross or the red crescent on a white background. In order to retain their protective status in wartime, these emblems may not be used either in peace or war except to indicate or to protect the medical personnel, establishments and material protected by the Conventions.

The Geneva Conventions today

Although warfare has changed dramatically since the Geneva Conventions of 1949, they are still considered the cornerstone of contemporary International Humanitarian Law. They protect combatants who find themselves hors de combat, and they protect civilians caught up in the zone of war. These treaties came into play for all recent international armed conflicts, including the War in Afghanistan (2001–present), the 2003 invasion of Iraq, the invasion of Chechnya (1994–present), and the 2008 War in Georgia. The Geneva Conventions also protect those affected by non-international armed conflicts such as the Syrian Civil War. Modern warfare continues to evolve, and the lines between combatants and civilians have blurred (for instance, the Sri Lankan Civil War, the Sudanese Civil War, and the Colombian Armed Conflict). Common Article 3 deals with these situations, supplemented by Protocol II. Those provisions are considered customary international law, allowing war crimes prosecution by the United Nations and its International Court of Justice over groups that have signed and have not signed the Geneva Conventions.

Nations who are party to these treaties must enact and enforce legislation penalizing any of these crimes. Nations are also obligated to search for persons alleged to commit these crimes, or ordered them to be committed, and to bring them to trial regardless of their nationality and regardless of the place where the crimes took place. The principle of universal jurisdiction also applies to the enforcement of grave breaches when the UN Security Council asserts its authority and jurisdiction from the UN Charter to apply universal jurisdiction. The UNSC did this via the International Criminal Court when they established the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda and the International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia to investigate and/or prosecute alleged violations.

United Nations

The United Nations is an international organization founded in **1945**. It is currently made up of **193 Member States and 2 non-member permanent observer states (Holy See and Palestine)**. The mission and work of the United Nations are guided by the purposes and principles contained in its founding Charter. Under the mandate of the UN charter, the United Nations (UN) seeks to apply international jurisdiction for universal human-rights legislation. Within the UN machinery, human-rights issues are primarily the concern of the United Nations Security Council and the United Nations Human Rights Council, and there are numerous committees within the UN with responsibilities for safeguarding different human-rights treaties. The most senior body of the UN in the sphere of human rights is the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. The United Nations has an international mandate to achieve international co-operation 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, gender, language, or religion.

Brief history of United Nations

Nations first established international organizations to cooperate on specific matters. The International Telecommunication Union was founded in 1865 as the International Telegraph Union, and the Universal Postal Union was established in 1874. Both are now United Nations specialized agencies. In 1899, the International Peace Conference was held in The Hague to elaborate instruments for settling crises peacefully, preventing wars and codifying rules of warfare. It adopted the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes and established the Permanent Court of Arbitration, which began work in 1902. The direct forerunner of the United Nations was the **League of Nations**, an organization conceived in similar circumstances during the first World War, and established in 1919 under the Treaty of Versailles "to promote international cooperation and to achieve peace and security." The International Labour Organization was also created under the Treaty of Versailles as an affiliated agency of the League. The League of Nations ceased its activities after failing to prevent the Second World War. The name "United Nations", coined by United States President Franklin D. Roosevelt was first used in the Declaration by United Nations of 1 January 1942, during the Second World War, when representatives of 26 nations pledged their Governments to continue fighting together against the Axis Powers. In 1945, representatives of 50 countries met in San Francisco at the United Nations Conference on International Organization to draw up the United Nations Charter. Those delegates deliberated on the basis of proposals worked out by the representatives of China, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States at Dumbarton Oaks, United States in August-October 1944. The Charter was signed on 26 June 1945

by the representatives of the 50 countries. Poland, which was not represented at the Conference, signed it later and became one of the original 51 Member States. The United Nations officially came into existence on 24 October 1945, when the Charter had been ratified by China, France, Soviet Union, United Kingdom, United States and by a majority of other signatories. United Nations Day is celebrated on 24 October each year.

United Nations Security Council

The United Nations Security Council has the primary responsibility for maintaining international peace and security and is the only body of the UN that can authorize the use of force. It has been criticised for failing to take action to prevent human rights abuses, including the Darfur crisis, the Srebrenica massacre and the Rwandan Genocide. On April 28, 2006 the Security Council adopted resolution 1674 that reaffirmed the responsibility to protect populations from genocide, war crimes, ethnic cleansing and crimes against humanity and committed the Security Council to action to protect civilians in armed conflict.

United Nations General Assembly

The United Nations General Assembly, under Article 13 of the UN Charter, has the power to initiate studies and make recommendations on human rights issues. It is one of the six principal organs of the United Nations and the only one in which all member nations have equal representation.

United Nations Human Rights Council

The United Nations Human Rights Council, created at the 2005 World Summit to replace the United Nations Commission on Human Rights, has a mandate to investigate violations of human rights. Forty-seven of the one hundred ninety-one member states sit on the council, elected by simple majority in a secret ballot of the United Nations General Assembly. Members serve a maximum of six years and may have their membership suspended for gross human rights abuses. The Council is based in Geneva, and meets three times a year; with additional meetings to respond to urgent situations. Independent experts (rapporteurs) are retained by the Council to investigate alleged human rights abuses and to provide the Council with reports. The Human Rights Council may request that the Security Council take action when human rights violations occur. This action may be direct actions, may involve sanctions, and the Security Council may also refer cases to the International Criminal Court (ICC) even if the issue being referred is outside the normal jurisdiction of the ICC.

Treaty bodies

In addition to the political bodies whose mandate flows from the UN charter, the UN has set up a number of treaty-based bodies, comprising committees of independent experts who monitor compliance with human rights standards and norms flowing from the core international human rights treaties.

The Human Rights Committee promotes participation with the standards of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. The eighteen members of the committee express opinions on member countries and make judgments on individual complaints against countries which have ratified an Optional Protocol to the treaty. The judgments, termed "views", are not legally binding.

The Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights monitors the ICESCR and makes general comments on ratifying countries performance.

The Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination monitors the CERD and conducts regular reviews of countries' performance. It can make judgments on complaints against member states allowing it, but these are not legally binding. It issues warnings to attempt to prevent serious contraventions of the convention.

The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women monitors the CEDAW. It receives states' reports on their performance and comments on them, and can make judgments on complaints against countries which have opted into the 1999 Optional Protocol.

The Committee Against Torture monitors the CAT and receives states' reports on their performance every four years and comments on them. Its subcommittee may visit and inspect countries which have opted into the Optional Protocol.

The Committee on the Rights of the Child monitors the CRC and makes comments on reports submitted by states every five years. It does not have the power to receive complaints.

The Committee on Migrant Workers monitors the ICRMW and makes comments on reports submitted by states every five years. It will have the power to receive complaints of specific violations only once ten member states allow it.

The Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities monitors the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. It has the power to receive complaints against the countries which have opted into the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (text) is a declaration adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on **10 December 1948** at the Palais de Chaillot, Paris. In June 1946, the UN Economic and Social Council established the Commission on Human Rights, which consisted of 18 members from various nationalities and political backgrounds. The Commission on Human Rights, a standing body of the United Nations, was constituted to undertake the work of preparing what was initially conceived as an International Bill of Rights. On 10 December 1948, the Declaration was made by a vote of 48 in favour, none against, and eight abstentions (the Soviet Union, Ukrainian SSR, Byelorussian SSR, People's Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, People's Republic of Poland, Union of South Africa, Czechoslovakia, and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia). Honduras and Yemen—both members of UN at the time—failed to vote or abstain. The adoption of the Universal Declaration is a significant international commemoration marked each year on **10 December**, and is known as **Human Rights Day** or International Human Rights Day.

Although the UDHR is a **non-binding** resolution, it is now considered by some to have acquired the force of international customary law which may be invoked in appropriate circumstances by national and other judiciaries. The Declaration has served as the foundation for two binding UN human rights covenants: the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

The Declaration consists of 30 articles which have been elaborated in subsequent international treaties, regional human rights instruments, national constitutions and laws. Articles 1 and 2 are the foundation blocks, as it was said, with their principles of dignity, liberty, equality and brotherhood. The main body of the Declaration forms the four columns. The first column (articles 3–11) constitutes rights of the individual, such as the right to life and the prohibition of slavery. The second column (articles 12–17) constitutes the rights of the individual in civil and political society. The third column (articles 18–21) is concerned with spiritual, public and political freedoms such as freedom of religion and freedom of association. The fourth column (articles 22–27) sets out social, economic and cultural rights. The last three articles of the Declaration provide the pediment which binds the structure together.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights - text

Preamble

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest

aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations,

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in co-operation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms,

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now, Therefore THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY proclaims this UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1.

All human beings are **born** free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2.

Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3.

Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4.

No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5.

No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6.

Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7.

All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8.

Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9.

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10.

Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11.

(1) Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.

(2) No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12.

No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13.

(1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.

(2) Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14.

(1) Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries **asylum** from persecution.

(2) This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15.

(1) Everyone has the right to a nationality.

(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16.

(1) Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

(2) Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

(3) **The family** is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and **is entitled to protection by society and the State.**

Article 17.

(1) Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.

(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18.

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19.

Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20.

(1) Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.

(2) No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21.

(1) Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.

(2) Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.

(3) The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22.

Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23.

(1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

(2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

(3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

(4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24.

Everyone has the **right to rest and leisure**, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25.

(1) Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate **for the health** and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to **security in the event of** unemployment, **sickness, disability**, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

(2) **Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance.** All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26.

(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. **Elementary education shall be compulsory.** Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote **understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations**, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27.

(1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and **to share in scientific advancement** and its benefits.

(2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28.

Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29.

(1) Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

(2) In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights

and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

(3) These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30.

Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

END OF DOCUMENT

On 5 August 1990 45 member states of the Organization of the Islamic Conference adopted The *Cairo Declaration of Human Rights in Islam*. Now 57 members have signed the declaration.

Based on the UDHR, it introduces several major differences:

Article 1: All human beings form one family whose members are united **by their subordination to Allah and descent from Adam. All men are equal in terms of basic human dignity and basic obligations and responsibilities**, without any discrimination on the basis of race, colour, language, belief, sex, religion, political affiliation, social status or other considerations. The true religion is the guarantee for enhancing such dignity along the path to human integrity.

Article 6: **Woman is equal to man in human dignity**, and has her own rights to enjoy as well as duties to perform, and has her own civil entity and financial independence, and the right to retain her name and lineage.

Article 19: There shall be no crime or punishment except as provided for in the Shari'ah.

Article 24: **All the rights and freedoms stipulated in this Declaration are subject to the Islamic Shari'ah.**

Article 25: The Islamic Shari'ah is the only source of reference for the explanation or clarification of any of the articles of this Declaration.

European Convention on Human Rights

The European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) (formally the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms) is an international treaty to protect human rights and fundamental freedoms in Europe. Drafted in **1950** by the then newly formed Council of Europe, the convention entered into force on 3 September 1953. All Council of Europe member states are party to the Convention.

The Convention established **the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR)** in **Strasbourg, France**. Any person who feels his or her rights have been violated under the Convention by a state party can take a case to the Court. Judgements finding violations are binding on the States concerned and they are obliged to execute them. The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe monitors the execution of judgements, particularly to ensure payment of the amounts awarded by the Court to the applicants in compensation for the damage they have sustained. The establishment of a Court to protect individuals from human rights violations is an innovative feature for an international convention on human rights, as it gives the individual an active role on the international arena (traditionally, only states are considered actors in international law). The European Convention is still the only international human rights agreement providing such a high degree of individual protection. State parties can also take cases against other state parties to the Court, although this power is rarely used. All rulings of the court can be found [online](#), alongside major [bioethical cases](#) that were brought in front of the court.

The Convention is drafted in broad terms, in a similar manner to the English Bill of Rights, the American Bill of Rights, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man or the first part of the German Basic law. Statements of principle are, from a legal point of view, not determinative and require extensive interpretation by courts to bring out meaning in particular factual situations.

Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms - text

The governments signatory hereto, being members of the Council of Europe,
Considering the Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaimed by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 10th December 1948;
Considering that this Declaration aims at securing the universal and effective recognition and observance of the Rights therein declared;
Considering that the aim of the Council of Europe is the achievement of greater unity between its members and that one of the methods by which that aim is to be pursued is the maintenance and further realisation of human rights and fundamental freedoms;
Reaffirming their profound belief in those fundamental freedoms which are the foundation of justice and peace in the world and are best maintained on the one hand by an effective political democracy and on the other by a common understanding and observance of the human rights upon which they depend;

Being resolved, as the governments of European countries which are like-minded and have a common heritage of political traditions, ideals, freedom and the rule of law, to take the first steps for the collective enforcement of certain of the rights stated in the Universal Declaration,
Have agreed as follows:

Article 1 – Obligation to respect human rights

The High Contracting Parties shall secure to everyone within their jurisdiction the rights and freedoms defined in Section I of this Convention.

Article 2 – Right to life

1. Everyone's right to life shall be protected by law. No one shall be deprived of his life intentionally save in the execution of a sentence of a court following his conviction of a crime for which this penalty is provided by law.
2. **Deprivation of life shall not be regarded as inflicted in contravention of this article when it results from the use of force which is no more than absolutely necessary:**
 - a) **in defence of any person from unlawful violence;**
 - b) **in order to effect a lawful arrest or to prevent the escape of a person lawfully detained;**
 - c) **in action lawfully taken for the purpose of quelling a riot or insurrection.**

Article 3 – Prohibition of torture

No one shall be subjected to torture or to inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 4 – Prohibition of slavery and forced labour

1. No one shall be held in slavery or servitude.
2. No one shall be required to perform forced or compulsory labour.
3. For the purpose of this article the term "forced or compulsory labour" shall not include:
 - a) any work required to be done in the ordinary course of detention imposed according to the provisions of Article 5 of this Convention or during conditional release from such detention;
 - b) any service of a military character or, in case of conscientious objectors in countries where they are recognised, service exacted instead of compulsory military service;
 - c) **any service exacted in case of an emergency or calamity threatening the life or well-being of the community;**
 - d) any work or service which forms part of normal civic obligations.

Article 5 – Right to liberty and security

1. Everyone has the right to liberty and security of person. No one shall be deprived of his liberty save in the following cases and in accordance with a procedure prescribed by law:
 - a. the lawful detention of a person after conviction by a competent court;
 - b. the lawful arrest or detention of a person for non-compliance with the lawful order of a court or in order to secure the fulfilment of any obligation prescribed by law;
 - c. the lawful arrest or detention of a person effected for the purpose of bringing him before the competent legal authority on reasonable suspicion of having committed an offence or when it is reasonably considered necessary to prevent his committing an offence or fleeing after having done so;
 - d. the detention of a minor by lawful order for the purpose of educational supervision or his lawful detention for the purpose of bringing him before the competent legal authority;
 - e. **the lawful detention of persons for the prevention of the spreading of infectious diseases, of persons of unsound mind, alcoholics or drug addicts or vagrants;**
 - f. the lawful arrest or detention of a person to prevent his effecting an unauthorised entry into the country or of a person against whom action is being taken with a view to deportation or extradition.
2. Everyone who is arrested shall be informed promptly, in a language which he understands, of the reasons for his arrest and of any charge against him.
3. Everyone arrested or detained in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 1.c of this article shall be brought promptly before a judge or other officer authorised by law to exercise judicial power and shall be entitled to trial within a reasonable time or to release pending trial. Release may be conditioned by guarantees to appear for trial.
4. Everyone who is deprived of his liberty by arrest or detention shall be entitled to take proceedings by which the lawfulness of his detention shall be decided speedily by a court and his release ordered if the detention is not lawful.

5. Everyone who has been the victim of arrest or detention in contravention of the provisions of this article shall have an enforceable right to compensation.

Article 6 – Right to a fair trial

Article 7 – No punishment without law

Article 8 – Right to respect for private and family life

1. Everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence.
2. There shall be no interference by a public authority with the exercise of this right except such as is in accordance with the law and is necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security, public safety or the economic well-being of the country, for the prevention of disorder or crime, **for the protection of health or morals**, or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.

Article 9 – Freedom of thought, conscience and religion

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief, in worship, teaching, practice and observance.
2. Freedom to manifest one's religion or beliefs shall be subject only to such limitations as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society in the interests of public safety, for the protection of public order, **health or morals**, or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.

Article 10 – Freedom of expression

1. Everyone has the right to freedom of expression. This right shall include freedom to hold opinions and to receive and impart information and ideas without interference by public authority and regardless of frontiers. This article shall not prevent States from requiring the licensing of broadcasting, television or cinema enterprises.
2. The exercise of these freedoms, since it carries with it duties and responsibilities, may be subject to such formalities, conditions, restrictions or penalties as are prescribed by law and are necessary in a democratic society, in the interests of national security, territorial integrity or public safety, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of **health or morals**, for the protection of the reputation or rights of others, for preventing the disclosure of information received in confidence, or for maintaining the authority and impartiality of the judiciary.

Article 11 – Freedom of assembly and association

Article 12 – Right to marry

Men and women of marriageable age have the right to marry and to found a family, according to the national laws governing the exercise of this right.

Article 13 – Right to an effective remedy

Everyone whose rights and freedoms as set forth in this Convention are violated shall have an effective remedy before a national authority notwithstanding that the violation has been committed by persons acting in an official capacity.

Article 14 – Prohibition of discrimination

The enjoyment of the rights and freedoms set forth in this Convention shall be secured without discrimination on any ground such as sex, race, colour, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, association with a national minority, property, birth or other status.

Article 15 – Derogation in time of emergency (war)

Article 16 – Restrictions on political activity of aliens

Nothing in Articles 10, 11 and 14 shall be regarded as preventing the High Contracting Parties from imposing restrictions on the political activity of aliens.

Article 17 – Prohibition of abuse of rights

Nothing in this Convention may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein or at their limitation to a greater extent than is provided for in the Convention.

Article 18 – Limitation on use of restrictions on rights

The restrictions permitted under this Convention to the said rights and freedoms shall not be applied for any purpose other than those for which they have been prescribed.

Protocol 6 - restriction of death penalty

Protocol 13 - complete abolition of death penalty

Currently all Council of Europe member states bar three have ratified Protocol 13. Russia and Azerbaijan have neither signed nor ratified the protocol.

Right to Asylum

Asylum (from the Greek asilon - shelter, shelter) is protection and refuge countries on their territory grant to a person who has left their own country because of well-founded fear of persecution or because they were threatened their basic human rights (due to race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion). Asylum is not and cannot be approved on the basis of economic reasons. Refugees have the right to seek asylum, while migrants haven't.

In ancient Greece and Rome, asylum was a place where people who were faced with persecution sought refuge. These places were mostly religious, i.e. temples. In ancient Greece temples, altars, sacred trees and statues of gods generally provided protection to slaves, debtors, and criminals. But the law did not allow the right of asylum to all the holy places. In ancient Rome, asylum was a refuge for residents of other countries who came to Rome, and not the refuge of those who broke the law. Roman law did not recognize the right of asylum, as did that of ancient Greece.

Today, asylum and refugee rights are determined by laws of countries and international legal acts. In Croatia, legal framework in regards to asylum consists of the the constitution, the law on asylum, the law on foreigners, and the law on international and temporary protection.

Important terms:

Refugee is any person who owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.

Asylum seeker is a person who, by entering the Republic of Croatia, submits an application for asylum and stays in Croatia while considering the requirements of the country. Asylum seekers are mostly placed in a shelter for asylum seekers - facilities that serve collective accommodation. If the asylum seeker has its own resources which can finance housing or family members or friends who are willing to accept him/her, then seeker can stay there, having previously reported to the Ministry of the Internal Affairs. Asylum seekers do not have the restriction of the right of movement and can be placed anywhere on the territory of the Republic of Croatia. From 2004 to May 2015 4,857 claims for asylum have been made in Croatia. The largest number of asylum seekers were those from Afghanistan, Somalia, Syria, Algeria, Serbia and Kosovo, Pakistan, Palestine, Iran, Morocco and Tunisia.

Asylee is a refugee who has been granted asylum on the basis of the provisions of the Asylum Act.

Subsidiary protection is protection granted to a foreign person who does not qualify for asylum,

and for whom there are reasonable grounds to suggest that the return to the country of origin will face a real risk of suffering serious harm. Because of this risk the alien shall be granted this form of protection for a period of three years. In Croatia, until May 2015, subsidiary protection has been granted to 64 individuals.

Asylee and an alien under subsidiary protection shall be entitled to: stay in Croatia, a family reunion, housing, work, health care, education, freedom of religion, free legal aid, social care, assistance with integration into society, ownership of the property in accordance with the Convention of 1951 and the acquisition of Croatian citizenship in accordance with the regulations governing the acquisition of citizenship.

Asylee and an alien under subsidiary protection must: respect the Constitution, laws and other regulations of the Republic of Croatia, register permanent residence within 15 days of receipt of the decision on granting of international protection, have a residence permit and submit it for inspection to the law authorized personnel, and must attend courses on the Croatian language, history and culture.

Temporary protection can be granted to foreigners who arrive in large numbers to Croatia from the country in which the war, general violence or internal conflicts, lead to violation of human rights. This form of protection is granted for one year. In Croatia, the temporary protection has not been granted to anyone.

Foreigner is a person of another nationality and, from the perspective of Croatian citizens, a person who does not have Croatian citizenship.

Serious harm means penalty of death / execution, torture, inhuman / degrading treatment or punishment, and serious and individual threat to life due to arbitrary violence in international or internal armed conflict.

Principle of non-return (non-refoulement) is a fundamental principle defined in the Convention relating to the Status of Refugees of 1951. It protects refugees who find themselves in the area outside of the country of origin of forcible return to an area where there is likelihood that they would be persecuted, tortured or killed. Article 33 of the Convention states „No Contracting State shall expel or return a refugee in any manner, to the area where his life or freedom would be threatened because of her race, religion, or national origin or membership of a particular social group or political opinion".

Dublin regulation is a regulation of the Council of the EU which sets the jurisdiction of EU members on the process of seeking asylum in the EU member state. The Dublin Regulation introduces the concept of "sharing the burden" in a common EU asylum system, which means that a person who applies for asylum in one Member State, does not need to do so in another. The whole process supports EURODAC SYSTEM - EU database with the fingerprints of asylum seekers.

When someone applies for asylum, regardless of where it is in the EU, their fingerprints are entered into Eurodac.

Irregular immigrants are those foreigners who are in the Republic of Croatia without valid documents and that they have no intention to seek asylum or another type of residence permit. The usual term for such a person is unlawful or illegal immigrants, but from the perspective of human rights is the wrong to call person illegal or unlawful. No person may be illegal - illegal may be her actions or behavior. People who find themselves in an illegal border crossing or illegal stay on the territory of the Republic of Croatia are placed in the reception center for asylum seekers.

Migration means physical movement of people from one area to another, usually over long distances and / or in large groups. Unlike term refugee, that includes people left or were forced out due to safety reasons, term migrants refers to people who have opted to move to another area because of a desire for a better life.

Relocation is process of seeking asylum in which a person resides in one country and the process of seeking asylum is kept in another country. When a person is granted asylum, he or she is moved from a country where it stayed for the duration of the asylum procedure in the country that it has granted it international protection.

Movement is a process common in the EU asylum system which includes relocation of asylum seekers from one EU member state to the other.

Human Rights Organizations

The International Committee of the Red Cross



ICRC

The International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) was founded by Henry Dunant in 1863 guided by the experience he gained when organizing volunteers who helped the wounded after the Battle of Solferino. Afterwards, he asked a convention be made that would regulate aid in conflict situations. The ICRC won three Nobel Peace Prizes, first in 1917, for attempting to protect the rights of prisoners in the First World War, including the right to contact their families; second in 1944, for the great work done for the benefit of mankind in the Second World War II, and third in 1963, for the protection of human rights during the 100 years since its foundation. Today there are three official symbols of the organization: red cross, red crescent and red crystal.



1864.



1929.



2005.

Doctors Without Borders



Doctors without borders (French: Médecins Sans Frontières, MSF) is an international organization established on 20 December 1971 g. at the end of the civil war in Nigeria, by French doctors and journalists who believed that all people, no matter their race, political

beliefs or religion deserve medical care, and that their needs are more important than respect for national borders. Today, MSF provides aid in more than 70 countries around the world whose inhabitants are under the threat of violence, armed conflict, epidemics, malnutrition, or natural disasters. In 1999 MSF was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for their humanitarian work.



International Physicians for the Prevention of Nuclear War

International Physicians for the Prevention of Nuclear War (IPPNW) is an association of national groups of physicians, medical students, health workers and other people who are concerned about nuclear weapons, and

are hoping to ensure a world without the threat of a nuclear attack. It was founded by doctors from the US and Russia in 1980, and in 1985 received the Nobel Peace Prize for raising awareness about the disastrous consequences of the use of nuclear weapons. In addition to the prevention of nuclear weapons IPPNW is now working on educating doctors and students, and on questions related to the use of firearms.

Anti-Slavery International



Anti-Slavery International is the world's oldest international human rights organization committed to eliminating all forms of slavery and slavery like

practices. It has consultative status with the UN Economic and Social Council and observer status at the International Labour Organisation. It is a non-religious, non-political independent organisation.

International Federation for Human Rights



Fédération internationale des ligues des droits de l'Homme

International Federation for Human Rights is a non-governmental organisation founded in **1922**. FIDH has a consultative status before the United Nations, UNESCO and the Council of Europe, and observer

status before the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights.

Amnesty International



Amnesty International is a non-governmental organisation founded in London in 1961 whose goal is "to conduct research and generate action to prevent and end grave abuses of human rights, and to demand justice for those whose rights have been violated. Amnesty International's vision is of a world in which every person enjoys all of

the human rights enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other international human rights standards. The organisation was awarded the 1977 Nobel Peace Prize for its "campaign against torture".

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