Corporate Responsibility for Environmental Human Rights Violation: A Case Study of Indonesia

Achmad Romsan* and Suzanna Mohammed Isa

1Faculty of Law, Srijay University, Oganillir, South Sumatra, Indonesia
2Faculty of Law, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The volcano mudflow of 2006 in Sidoarjo, East Java was one of the most devastating environmental disasters in Indonesia. Many argue that it was the failure of PT. Lapindo during the drilling process but the verdict of the District Court of South Jakarta decided that it was a natural disaster. Environmental crime provision is stated in The Environmental Management Act 2009 No. 32 but this stipulation does not reduce the number of corporate environmental crimes as there are other factors involved such as enforcement. The protection of people's environmental human rights is also recognized under The Law of 1999 No. 39 on Human Rights. Regrettably, prosecuting corporate environmental crime from the angle of human rights is at a dead-lock due to the fact that the Indonesian Human Rights Court is only authorized to prosecute genocide crimes and crime against humanity. Nevertheless, the corporate sector should take the responsibility to restore the ecosystem where disasters have occurred. In view of this gap, some primary data, like statutes, regulations and international conventions; also secondary data such as articles, reports and news papers have been obtained from literature study and internet sources and are descriptively and qualitatively analyzed. This article aims to rationalise that the jurisdiction of the Indonesian Human Rights Court should include environmental crime in The Law of 2000 No. 26 in Human Rights Court and provide output for the decision makers in Indonesia to consider that environmental crime is a crime against humanity.

Keywords: Corporate crime, corporate liability, environmental pollution, environmental human rights, Indonesia

INTRODUCTION

PT. Lapindo1 is the Indonesian oil company which holds a license to explore and exploit the oil resources in Indonesia. Sidoarjo, near Surabaya is one of its oil drilling sites. The
disaster occurred on 29th May 2006 when
PT. Lapindo failed to stop the mud flowing
from a gas exploration well. Consequently,
approximately 10,000 houses and 600
ha of land and villages were submerged,
farmland was devastated, businesses and
schools closed and livelihoods lost as the
mud inundated the surrounding area causing
50,000 people to be displaced. The mud
continued not only to flow from the first
rupture, but the daily amount gushing out
increased from an initial 5,000 m³ per day
to up to 150,000 m³ per day. It was reported
that the weight of the mud on the ground
had pressed down the affected area by
approximately one meter deep.

It was a natural disaster claimed some
Lapindo’s experts but many have indicated
that it was most likely to have occurred as
a consequence of PT Lapindo Brantas’s
failure to install a casing around the well to
the levels required under Indonesian mining
regulations. Many lent their assistance to
build a two meter high dam, for example the
Indonesian subsidiary Dutch Company Van
Oord, 1400 army personnel and a team from
The United Nations Disaster Assessment
and Coordination (UNDAC). That was not a
sustainable solution due to the rainy season.
Efforts were undertaken by PT. Lapindo’s
technicians to stop the mudflows, but
those also failed. It was predicted that the
mudflow was similar to oil deposits which
may last up to 30 years.

The disposal into the River Porong and to the sea affected the river ecosystem
and the aquaculture industry, and the
high level of salinity caused the land
overflowed by mudflow to become infertile.

WALHI (Wahana Lingkungan Hidup), an
environmental organization predicted that the
disposal of mud into the river would destroy
4,000 hectares of fish and shrimp ponds and
threaten the livelihoods of thousands of fish
farmers in Sidoarjo, Madura, Surabaya,
Pasuruan and Probolinggo.

As an non-governmental environmental
organization, WALHI on May 1, 2007 filed
a case to the District Court in South Jakarta
and sued PT. LapindoBrantas Incorporated
together with 11 other defendants on the
ground that the defendants had committed
an unlawful act (Perbuatan melawan hukum)
which caused significant damage to the
environment and loss of income to those
affected. The District Court of South
Jakarta was not in line with WALHI’s
argument that PT. Lapindo had committed
an unlawful act and decided that the hot
mudflow was a natural disaster. On the other
hand, a report by geologists and scholars
concluded that it was not a natural disaster
but the failure caused by PT. Lapindo during
the drilling process.

This article employed some data
covering primary data, like statutes and
regulations and also secondary data such
as articles, reports and news papers. All
data collected are analyzed descriptively
and qualitatively. The objectives of this
article are to provide some input for the
politicians and decision makers to consider
that environmental crime is a crime against
humanity and also to rationalise that the
jurisdiction of the Indonesian Human Rights
Court should include environmental crime.
in The Law of 2000 No. 26 on Human Rights Court. This article is divided into in several parts. The first part deals with the volcano mudflow as described in introduction. The discussion moves on to legal problems relating to environmental human right protection versus economic development in Indonesia as discussed in part two. Part three discusses whether volcano mudflow in Sidoarjo, East Java is a corporate environmental crime. Part four discusses the question of whether corporate environmental crime is a crime against humanity and a final conclusion is given.

ENVIRONMENTAL HUMAN RIGHTS PROTECTION VS. ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN INDONESIA: THE LEGAL PROBLEM

During the early years of Suharto’s administration of New Order (Orde Baru) (1967-1972), in order to stimulate economic growth, in 1967, Suharto’s administration opened its doors to foreign and domestic investment and several investment laws were enacted afterward.9 The peak of national economic development began with Repelita IV (1984-1989), known as the era of industrialization where economic growth acceleration would only be attained if supported by sustainable industrial development. This program would have continued until its “take-off” era in Repelita VI (1994-1999). However, it could not be realized due to the economic crisis which in turn became a political crisis that finally led to the fall of Suharto’s regime in 1998.

Under the reformation government, the National Development Program (PROPENAS/Program Pembangunan Nasional), a five-year development program which is similar with that of Repelita/ Rencana Pembangunan Lima Tahun (during Suharto time) was introduced and implemented into the “Yearly Development Plan” (REPETA/Rencana Pembangunan Tahunan). At the regional level, the related governments have to formulate a five-year development program namely “Strategic Plan of Development” (RESTRA/Rencana Strategi) to implement PROPENAS. Notwithstanding, each provincial and district governments in Indonesia have different development priorities based on their RESTRA.

In general, there are five priority areas of development formulated in the PROPENAS,10 but there is no room for green development as the foundation for good governance includes political stability, the rule of law, control of corruption and accountability.11 Issues related to environmental management and natural resources are given priority since local governments are instructed to increase their local revenues. This kind of development reflected the situation of Indonesia during the early years Suharto’s administration. As a result, air, water, land pollution, forest fire, and deforestation resulted in environmental problems generating social unrest and led to conflicts in society. There have been many community-led environmental disputes relating to industries brought to District Courts but less than
one percent of environmental crimes in Indonesia end in punishment. However the
the number increased to 1.33% during the enactment of The EMA 1997 No. 23.
Meanwhile in September 2011, of the 33 cases of environmental-related crimes, 21
cases were declared “free from the charges,” 4 cases ended in jail sentences and in eight cases the perpetrators were
placed under probation. It was reported that in 2011, after the promulgation of
The EMA 2009 No. 32, the Indonesian Ministry for Environment handled 171 public complaints; 42 cases were verified
by the Ministry Office for Environment, 129 complaints were delegated to the
authorized instances who were in charge of those environmental matters, 20 complaints
where the responsible owners were given administrative sanctions, 14 complaints were
solved by alternative disputes resolution and 8 complaints were followed up with criminal
charges (4.67%).

In addition, in the anticipation of various kinds of environmental crimes the Ministry
for Environment in Jakarta has improved institutional capacity building through an
MoU with the Indonesian Police (Kepolisian RI) and the Indonesian Public Prosecutors
(Kepolisian Negara RI) on 26th July 2011. Then, on 5th September 2011 a MoU was
signed between the Court of Certified Environmental Judges and Environmental
Investigators, and the Indonesian Supreme Court. Ratification and adoption of various
international conventions and declaration such as the Basel Convention, The United
Nations Convention on Biological Diversity, the Stockholm Declaration, Rotterdam
Convention and Nagoya Protocol were conducted to strengthen the protection and
environmental management regulations. In addition, the General Guideline on The
Handling of Transnational Conflicts was drafted to assist the regional governments in handling transnational conflicts.

There is a dilemmatic environmental problem in Indonesia regarding the uneven
development program which only focuses on the inner lands of Java, Madura, Bali and
Lombok. Ironically, poverty is concentrated in Java, the most populated island (two-thirds
of the Indonesian population is centralized in the inner islands of Java, Madura, Bali
and Lombok). The interrelated problems abbreviated as “4Ps” for Population, Poverty, Pollution and Policy are factors
that generate environmental problems. Dense population generates poverty. Poverty
generates pollution. Population, poverty and pollution generate policy. Policies
also create problems for the environment. Environmental problems relate to economic,
politics, social and culture. While law and its supplemental instruments will only be
effective if supported by funding and good institutional framework, its enforcement
can give rise to problems once implemented in society. Environmental Management
Acts (EMAs) cannot fully be implemented as a number of provisions need further
implementing regulations and subsidiary legislations. Consequently the EMA cannot
thoroughly solve environmental matters. The second factor affecting law enforcement
is law enforcers, for example police,
prosecutors, judges and civil service police (Polisi Pamong Praja), who are not able to work properly and professionally due to lack of facilities when they are on duty and small salaries.\(^{21}\) Additionally, the human resource in law enforcement is not compatible to the vast area of Indonesia and the last factor is the legal culture of the society which sometimes is contradictory to the objective of the law, for example: bribery, corruption, and carrying knives etc and so forth. In short, the entire situation above affects the process of environmental conflict resolution.

VOLCANO MUDFLOW IN SIDOARJO EAST JAVA INDONESIA: IS IT A CORPORATE CRIME?

According to the South Jakarta District Court,\(^{22}\) the volcano mudflow in Sidoarjo East Java is a natural disaster and not an unlawful act (perbuatan melawan hukum) of PT. Lapindo’s staff during the drilling process under Article 1365 Indonesian Civil Code. The geologists’ statements during the proceedings were used as strong evidence for the Judge’s verdict. Based on the Presidential Decree No. 14 of 2007 and Presidential Decree No. 48 of 2008 all the damaged infrastructures, railways, telephone lines, power lines, gas pipe lines, school buildings, community health centres (puskesmas) were to be-constructed and financed by the state budget (Anggaran Perbelanjaan Negara/APBN). The cost for reconstructing the infrastructure is more expensive than paying compensation to the victims. The Court also ordered PT. Lapindo, based on humanity reasons, to pay compensation for submerged properties within the well-drilling area. The damage outside the drilling area was not under the responsibility of PT. Lapindo but the Government of Indonesia.\(^{23}\)

Many\(^{24}\) argue that the volcano mudflow which emanated in 2006 was due to PT. Lapindo’s failure during the drilling process and should be regarded as a corporate crime as regulated under Article 46 of The EMA 1997 No. 23 on Environmental Management\(^{25}\) which stipulates:

1. If the offense referred to in this chapter is conducted by or on behalf of the corporation, company, association, foundation or other organization, criminal charges are made and criminal sanctions and procedural measures referred to in Article 47 shall both be imposed against the legal entity, company, association, foundation or other organizations concerned and to those who gave orders to commit criminal acts or the one who acts as the leader in the act or to both of them.

2. If the offense referred to in this chapter, is conducted by or on behalf of the corporation, company, association, foundation or other organizations, and performed by people, either in employment or other relationships, which act within the legal entity, company, association, foundation or other organization, criminal charges are made and criminal sanctions imposed on those who give orders or act as a leader regardless if they are the people,
or the employees who committed the crime individually or collectively.

3. If charges are made against a legal entity, company, union or other organization, calls for court summons and the call letters were delivered to the address of the board in their residence, or where the board does their daily work.

The weakness in Walhi’s claim with regard to the element of fault attached to Article 1365 of the Indonesian Civil Code for environmental compensation odds with Article 46 of the EMA 1997. Article 1365 of the Civil Code is a popular article which regulates the unlawful acts (perbuatan melawan hukum) where due to one’s fault others are harmed and therefore compensation must be given. The fault element of the doer is necessary for the plaintiff to prove in order to claim compensation under Article 1365. If the fault element is used in claims relating to environmental pollution it would be very difficult to be proven since pollution and environmental degradation do not occur immediately but can only be gradually seen in the future. Besides the extent of the pollution is also uncertain. There are a number of parameters and factors surrounding the occurrence of such pollution that depletes environmental quality. For example food supply, climate, hatch date, body size, reproductive output and so forth as in the studies conducted by Cooch, Lank, Rockwell and Cooke, and William, Cooch, Jefferies and Cooke. One case of pollution will be able to be a reference for another pollution case, for example, the Buyut case, North Sulawesi, Indonesia. The marine environment of a bay was found to be polluted by mercury eight years later, in 2004, after the first dumping of mine waste activities of the Newmont Corporation in 1996. Whilst in the Way Seputih River case in Lampung, southern part of South Sumatra, the quality of the river was polluted in less than a year. In the case of Sidoarjo, the victims were mostly peasants who did not have resources, like money, power and knowledge. If they were required to prove that their economic loss was due to the fault arising from the failure of PT. Lapindo, this would put them in a quandary.

Further development understanding of an unlawful act is not only contrary to law and the rights of other parties but also may include any act contrary to appropriateness that must be considered in the association of the community in conjunction with a personal or property of others. This principle is identified as a ‘no liability without fault,’ a principle which was popular and dominated the law of compensation in the common law up to the 19 century. In the mid 19 century, however, the principle above was not regarded as the sole principle applied in compensation matters. Rabin said that “the concept of negligence as a basis for determining liability in cases of inadvertent harm was used to pre-existing notions of moral blameworthiness underlying liability for international harms to create a comprehensive theory of liability based on fault.” There is an erosion of fault from the victim to the doer or from principles of
‘no liability without fault’ to ‘liability based on fault’. This has evolved a new principle of compensation which latter on became
popular with ‘strict liability’ which is an
appropriate principle used in environmental
matters, such as pollution and environmental
degradation.\textsuperscript{34} The strict liability principle
therefore reincarnates in the Indonesian
Environmental Management Act (EMA), for example Article 20 of The EMA 1982,
\textsuperscript{35} Article 35 of The EMA 1997 No. 23,\textsuperscript{36} and
Article 88 of The EMA 2009 No. 32.\textsuperscript{37}

The shifting of burden of fault from the victim to the doer will lighten the people’s encumbrance when the cases are brought to
Court.\textsuperscript{38} Since there is no case to which the
Indonesian Judges have referred to strict
liability as regulated in the EMA, therefore
the reference to the US Courts where
strict liability principle has been used in
environmental-related cases such as \textit{Atlas
Chemical Industries Inc. v. Anderson},\textsuperscript{39}
\textit{Phillips Petroleum Co. v. Hardae},\textsuperscript{40} \textit{Burn
v. Lamb},\textsuperscript{41} and \textit{Biakanja v. Irving}.\textsuperscript{42} In
England this principle was applied in \textit{Ryland
v. Fletcher} case (1887). In the renowned
case of \textit{Ryland v. Fletcher} (1887) the court
decided that a person who brings dangerous
substances onto his property and allows
them to escape to adjoining land resulting in
damage there will be held strictly liable. The
defendant was thus liable for damage caused
by the escape of water from a reservoir on
his land.\textsuperscript{43}

In relation to Article 1365 of the Civil
Code proved to be the stumbling block in
the case of the oil spill caused by the Super
Heavy Tanker Showa Maru in the Malacca
Strait in 1975 in a suit for environmental
compensation. Indonesia as the victim
had to prove that the polluted marine and
ecosystem of the eastern coast of Sumatra
was due to the fault of Showa Maru’s
captain. Mean-while, in the case of Sidoarjo
volcano mudflow, PT. Lapindo as the
plaintiff had submitted expert geologists’
statements to defend itself, whilst Walhi
provided statements from environmental
law experts who referred to corporate
offences under Article 46 of the EMA 1997,
newspaper clippings and news reported on
TV that the judge considered as informal
legal evidence according to the Indonesian
Penal Proceeding Code.\textsuperscript{44} The situation
was made worse when two tests on the mud
characteristic conducted by different labs
showed different result. The first test lab
(belonging to the Government) showed that
the mud was non-toxic while the second test
lab (a public university lab) illustrated that
the mud was toxic. In this context, there is
a “Blackstone ratio” which is 10:1 derived
from idiomatic expression in criminal law
introduced by William Blackstone in his
Commentaries on the Law of England
published in 1760’s “better that ten guilty
persons escape than that one innocent
suffers.”\textsuperscript{45} Under this condition, the judge
freed the alleged perpetrator although many
research findings claimed that it was not a
natural disaster but failure or negligence
committed by PT. Lapindo. Nevertheless,
PT. Lapindo was still held responsible for
restoring the environment in the affected
areas.
Prosecuting a provision on corporate environmental crime successfully is difficult. Canada, the United States, The Netherlands, France, and Germany are countries that do not have environmental crime provisions in their environmental laws. In Japan environmental crime has never been declared by the courts because the prosecutors are unable to prove the presence of intention, an element essential in criminal law. In China, criminal sanction for environmental crimes is regulated by the 1979 Law on Environmental Protection, where section 32 declares that “polluters are liable to administrative, economic or criminal sanctions” but there is no information whether those regulations are applicable in reality for corporate environmental crime.

The problem with corporate environmental crime is the focus on intention in connection to environmental pollution, in addition to the element of deterrence and the effectiveness of formal legal sanctions in limiting illegal corporate acts. Meanwhile, scholars have not provided a solution as to how intention can be proven or how deterrence can be more effective. Petemoster and Simpson stated that “corporate crime consists of illegal acts by corporations or their representatives that are undertaken to further the goals of the organization and violate civil, administrative and criminal statutes and encompasses a variety of behaviour.” Some of the acts categorized as corporate crimes are bribery, fraud, price-fixing, toxic dumping, insider trading, and crimes against employees, consumers, suppliers, buyers and competitors. Suing corporate environmental violation using a traditional deterrence model as applied to corporate crime has not been effective since in many environmental cases involving big corporations are not severe enough to affect the corporation’s behaviour.

Under the Indonesian legal system, the issue of corporate crime is not only regulated under the EMA but also the anti-corruption and money laundering laws. However, in reality the provisions that deal with corporate responsibility under the EMA are not strong and respectable enough to bring the offenders to prison as compared to the other two laws mentioned above. Meanwhile there are also other environmental violations that have never been brought to court, such as leak of a three-ton tank of monosodium glutamate of “Ajinomoto” which created a tremendous impact on the environment in 1998. In this case there was neither law enforcement nor an environmental recovery. The entire group of villagers was forcibly removed and their land compulsorily purchased. Then, in 2001 there was an oil and gas leak from the plant operated by Devon Canada and Petrochina in Sukoharjo, Central Java. The hydro sulphide content was quite high, resulting in the hospitalisation of 26 farmers. The incident sparked rage among the village community who went to investigate resulting in 14 people being shot by the Bojonegoro police. In 2003, an explosion at Petrokidara, an oil and gas company, razed several buildings and polluted a nearby river. Only two were sentenced, a security guard (satpam) and a technical officer. Similarly with PT. Lapindo, in 2006, the displacement of 50,000 people was seen as
a minor accident and not a corporate crime.⁵⁸

Many factors hamper law enforcement in Indonesia. As a developing country Indonesia has less stringent environmental standards than industrialized countries.⁵⁹ It is more profitable for investors since Indonesia does not require compliance to strict environmental standards. Investment regulations which provide incentives like tax holiday or grace period, BOT (Build, Operate and Transfer) and other facilities etc., are open for negotiation and would certainly attract many investors to Indonesia. Economic calculations can easily compute the financial rewards of non-compliance to current environmental laws and the administrators can easily be bribed to smoothen the bureaucratic chain and facilitate escape from penalties. The supremacy of law will seriously be in jeopardy if the administrators continued to treat industry as paramount and environmental degradation and pollution as the price the locals have to pay.⁶⁰

IS CORPORATE ENVIRONMENTAL CRIME A CRIME AGAINST HUMANITY?

Discussing environmental crimes from the human rights’ perspective is something new in Indonesia, although the notion of incorporating environment rights into human rights values has been acknowledged in The EMA 2009 No. 32 and The Law 1999 No. 39 on Human Rights. Political manifestation of the international community toward the human environment and development as mandated by The Stockholm Declaration 1972 on Human Environment⁶¹ and The Rio Declaration on Environment and Development⁶² has been implemented into regional⁶³ and national laws. Among the 55 countries,⁶⁴ Indonesia has adopted environmental rights into her Environmental and Human Rights Laws⁶⁵ and also in the Second Amendment of The Constitution 1945. Thus, the notion of a good and healthy environment is constitutional rights and legal rights, respectively, which the State has prioritised to secure and protect their citizens. Placing environmental human rights values into a national constitution is a strong indicator of national opinio juris and represents the highest level of national law operating as a lex suprema.⁶⁶

As stated above, in Indonesia the right to a good and healthy environment has been guaranteed under the EMA 1982 No. 4 and EMA 1997 No. 23. However, this legal right has no further explanation either in the text or in the elucidation of the provision. It was just recently after the Reformation in 1998 that environmental rights was integrated into human rights law, such as point (a) of the Consideration of The EMA 2009 No. 32 which was implemented into Article 3 where the objectives of environmental management is, inter alia, to guarantee the fulfilment of the protection of rights towards the environment as a part of human rights. The environmental human rights in Article 9(3) of The Law No. 39 of 1999 on Human Rights⁶⁷ stated that “the right to a good and health environment is part of human rights, especially the right to life”. Thus, in legal terms, a violation
to environmental rights is also a violation to human rights and the offender may be taken to Human Rights Court. Regrettably, environmental human rights violation does not come within the purview of the Human Rights Court as it only prosecutes gross human rights violation including genocide and crime against humanity. This situation is similar to the European Human Rights Court prior to the Stockholm Declaration 1972. Many environmental cases submitted to the Court were rejected. After the Stockholm Declaration, the Commission realized that there was correlation between environmental rights violation with human rights, especially the right to life. Human beings cannot live in a polluted environment and human survival depends on the quality of the environment.

Integrating environmental rights into human rights values is important, as Kesentini declares in her report that “… human rights and the environment… [are] equally important to establish the legal framework for pursuing what have become the essential demands of this century, in order to take up the legitimate concerns of our generation, to preserve the interests of future generations and mutually to agree upon the components of a right to a healthy and flourishing environment.” Mohammed Sahnoun has acknowledged in his report about the linkage between human rights matters and the environment by fostering global awareness of complex, serious and multidimensional nature of environmental problems and attention is being focused more and more on environmental deterioration.

Other scholars, like Hill, Wolfson and Targ and Appaltuopinion that “marrying” environmental value to human rights is a slow emergence of the idea that humans have a basic right to a healthy environment. It will achieve a higher degree of relevance because the environment is everyone’s backyard. No one can escape the human consequence of environmental degradation and human society cannot function independently of the natural environment. Other scholars, for instance Rupel reviewed environmental problems from the angle of the third-generation of human rights or solidarity rights and there is a close relationship between human rights violation to the impairment of environment. Giorgetta claimed that sustainable development could not be realized if the implementation of such development programs always impairs environmental rights. Chen and Dong discussed environmental rights from the perspective of development without impairing the environment called “eco-development” and concluded that environmental rights might become a safeguard and defend human rights and ultimately facilitate producing better conditions of life on earth by stretching and expanding the theory of traditional human rights.

A dilemmatic problem in the implementation of environmental human rights into the national law of developing countries is frequently the question of sacrificing the environment and human rights to overcome economic backwardness. The international community has responded
this trade-off with the third generation of human right which includes amongst others a healthy environment and right to development. Regrettably, the developing countries respond to this by paying less attention to environmental standards than industrialized countries. Strict environmental laws are not often enforced in developing countries like Mexico, Brazil, the Philippines and Indonesia who have a long-standing reputation for being lax in regulating environmental issues. Many argue that the real problem originates in the lack of motivation of administrators to enforce environmental law. In reality, in Indonesia many issues are problematic and interrelated; beginning from the ambiguous legal text formulated in the statutes and multi-interpretation, lax attitude of legal enforcers, lack of apparatuses for enforcement to the legal culture of the society. They all form a tangled thread that needs to be cut for a way out.

CONCLUSION

The environmental criminal provisions stipulated in The Indonesian Environmental Management Act (EMAs) cannot fully be implemented to punish the corporate whose activities have created pollution and environmental degradation. Many factors hamper law enforcement. As a developing country Indonesia has less stringent environmental standards than industrialized countries. Consequently, it is a more profitable business making since administrators are not often forced to comply with the strict environmental standards. The supremacy of law is in a quandary if the administrators continue to treat the industry as paramount and environmental degradation and pollution as the price the people of Indonesia have to pay.

Corporate environmental crimes should be viewed as human rights violation under the right to life. By extending the purview of the Human Rights Court to include environmental pollution and environmental degradation as an element of human rights, not only can this matter be addressed, it can also inculcate a healthier corporate attitude towards the environment and the citizens of earth.

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ENDNOTES

1 “PT” is the abbreviation of Perseroan Terbatas is legal person under Indonesian law which is equivalent to Sdn.Bhd in Malaysian legal system.

2 There is no precise number as to how much land had been flooded but estimation shows from approximately 360 hectares to approximately 600 hectares. The mudflow is still continuing, and in 2008 at least 10 km square kilometers had been covered by the mud (See: Radar Sidoarjo on http://mudflow-sidoarjo.110mb.com/index.htm, March 12 2007). Friends of the Earth International, “A Background paper prepared for Friends of the Earth International and Friends of the Earth Europe”, June 15, 2007.

3 Mud Volcano In Java May Continue To Erupt For Months And Possibly Years. (2007)Science Daily, Jan 24. In abackground paper prepared for Friends of the Earth International and Friends of the Earth


5ANTV News, June 8, 2006; The Surabaya Pagi Post (June 7, 2006); The Kompas Post (June 8, 2006); Geo-science Laboratory in Kompas June 8, 2006; Opini Metropolis Java Pos (2 June, 2006); Kopala Pasat Studi Bencana, Kompas (8 June, 2006); Surya Post (10 June 2006).

6The last remedy was to build some sort of containment “basin”, looks like a “pond” where the mud expected to flow. At first this efforts seems fruitful success. Because of the volume of mud getting increased everyday, then the container leaked aspicaly during the raining season (The Jakarta Post, March 02 2007, March 19, 2007, http://mudflow-sidoarjo).

7www.walhi.or.id


9Those investment laws are: The Law 1967 No. 1 on Foreign Investment (State Gazette of the State of The Republic of Indonesia 1967 No. 1, Additional to State Gazette No. 2828); The 1970 No. 11 on The Revision and Additional to The Law 1967 No. 1 on Foreign Investment (State Gazette of The State of The Republic of Indonesia 1970 No. 46, Addiisolnal to State Gazette No. 2943) and The Law No. 6 on Domestic Investment (State Gazette of The State of The Republic of Indonesia 1968 No. 33, Additional to The State Gazette No. 2853; The Law 1970 No. 12 on The Revision and Additional to The Law 1968 No. 6 on Domestic Investment (State Gazette of The State of The Republic of Indonesia 1970 No. 47, Additional to State Gazette of the State of The Republic of Indonesia No. 2944). The present investment law is The Law 2007 No. 27 on Investment (The State Gazette of The State of the Republic of Indonesia year 2007 No. 67).

10Those five priorities development are: to develop a more democratic political system in the context of Indonesia's unitary state of; to realize the supremacy of law and clean government; to accelerate economic recovery and strengthen the found-ation of sustainable development and justice; to develop people's welfare and cultural resilience, and to improve regional development.

11The concept of good governance introduced by the donor countries in their aid for recipient country in 1980-1990s and is difficult to implement since high levels of poverty and weak governance making selectivity of development program priority difficult to implement (Ved P. Naada, “The “Good Governance” Concept Revisited”, University of Denver Sturm College of Law (http://ann.sagepub. com/content/603/1/269.short ) 29 June 2012).


18 http://wwwnew.menlh.go.id (Retrieved on 29 June 2012)

19 “The number and the population distribution.” In http://sp2010.bps.go.id/.


23 The Appeal Court accepted the appeal reported in No. 383/Pdt/2008/PT.DKT and this strengthened the verdict made by the District Court of South Jakarta No. 284/Pdt.G/2007/PN.Jak.Sel, dated 27 December 2007. This means that the volcano mudflow in Sidoarjo was regarded as a natural disaster. There are two more legal recourse left for Walhi may use now, submitting the case to the Supreme Court and the legal review (Peninjauan Kembali/ PK) of the Court’s verdict.

24 ANTV News, June 8, 2006; Executive Director of WALHI East Java as quoted by the Morning Surabaya Post, June 7, 2006; The Kompas Daily, June 8, 2006; The Opini Metropolis Java Pos, June 2, 2006; Kepala Pusat Studi Bencana, ITS, June 8, 2006; Surya Post, June 10, 2006; Ilmu Ahli (Geologi Indonesia).

25 The Volcano mudflow occurred during the application of The EMA 1997 No. 23 on Environmental Management before the promulgation of The EMA 2009 No. 32 on the Protection and the Management of the Environment.

26 Uncertified translation.


29 The Buyat bay is small bay located on the south coast of Minahasa Peninsula island of Indonesia. PT. Newmont Minahasa Raya, the subsidiary company of Newmont Mining Corporation had used the bay as the tailing (mine waste) dumping ground for its gold mining activities from 1996. In 2004 local people in the area complained for several unusual health problems which further suspected Newmont’s for breaching the mining waste regulation to have contaminated the area with hazardous materials.

30 Walhi Lampung, 22th August 2000.


34 Komar Kantaatmadja, Alumni Publisher, 1982, 57-67.

35 The State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia 1982 No. 12.

36 The State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia 1997 No. 68, State Gazettes Additional No. 3699.

37 The State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia 2009 No. 140.
Corporate Responsibility for Environmental Human Rights Violation: A Case Study of Indonesia

Komarkantaoptimadja, Alumni Publisher, Bandung 1981.


Textile Technology Digest, vol. 28, 194.


42. Charles Szpytko, 211 Understanding Law for Public Administration, Jones and Bartlett Publisher, 182.

43. Many American scholars saw the decision in Rylands was a poor one. It was not considered as trespass, since the damage is not direct, and it was not a nuisance either, since there was no continuous action (Bohlen, Francis H., "The Rule in Rylands v. Fletcher. Part 1." (1911) 59 (5) University of Pennsylvania Law Review and American Law Register.

44. Art 184 of Penal Proceeding Code (Kitab Undang-Undang Hukum Acara Pidana): Legal evidence may consist of statements of witnesses, expert testimony, letters, instructions and a description of the defendant. In the elucidation of Art 184 no information whether newspaper clippings, TV news, internet sources may regarded as legal evidence under the Indonesian Penal Proceeding Code.


46. Canadian Environmental Protection Act (CEPA)

47. National Environmental Protection Act (NEPA)


50. The 1970 Law No. 142 on the Punishment of Crimes related to the Environmental Pollution which Adversely Affect the Health of Persons.


56. For instance: Art 22 (The EMA 1982 No. 4); Art 45 and Art 46 (The EMA 1997 No. 23) and Art 97 (The EMA 2009 No. 32).


58. Walhi working paper on “the PT. LapiindoBerantas the volcanic hot mud flow in Sidoarjo: A legal sides of corporate crimes.”


63 A/CONF. 48/14/Rev. 1 (1972)

64 A/CONF. 151/26 (Vol. I)


67 Art. 65 (1) of the 2009 EMA No. 32 the State Gazette of the Republic of Indonesia 2009 No. 140.


69 State Gazette 1999 No.165.


71 Art 7 (The Law 2000 No. 26) classified that gross breaches of human rights may include genocide crime and crime against humanity. Furthermore Art 9 explains the criterion of genocide crime and Art 9 is about the criterion of crime against humanity (State Gazette 2000 No. 208).


73 Daniel García San José, 7.


Rights in this category include self-determination, the right to peace, the right to a healthy environment, and the right to inter-generational equity which include the right to development (Oliver C. Ruppel, ‘Third-generation of human rights and the protection of the environment in Namibia’ (http://scholar.google.com.my/scholar)).


The division of human rights generation was proposed by Karel Vassak at the International Institute of Human Rights in Strasbourg France in 1977. Notwithstanding the “Third Generation of Human rights” remains largely unofficial and covers extremely broad spectrum of rights.


Soekamto Soerjono, Faktor-Faktor Yang Mempengaruhi Penegakan Hukum, Penerbit CV. Rajawali, Jakarta, 1983.