

Environmental Status in the Present Scenario A Review

Deepmala Meena¹ | Ram Bilas Meena² | Harish Kumar Sublania¹

¹Assistant Professor, Dept. of Physics, Government College, Kota

²Assistant Professor, Dept. of Chemistry, Government College, Kota

To Cite this Article

Deepmala Meena, Ram Bilas Meena and Harish Kumar Sublania, "Environmental Status in the Present Scenario A Review", *International Journal for Modern Trends in Science and Technology*, Vol. 05, Issue 07, July 2019, pp.-73-78.

Article Info

Received on 15-June-2019, Revised on 22-July-2019, Accepted on 25-July-2019, Published on 28-July-2019

ABSTRACT

Climate change, or global warming, is the greatest environmental threat we've ever faced. How we respond to this crisis will greatly impact both current and future generations and all other species. The global carbon dioxide equivalent of greenhouse gases (GHG) in the atmosphere has exceeded 400 parts per million. This level is considered a tipping point. "Carbon dioxide levels today are higher than at any point in at least the past 800,000 years. The last time the atmospheric CO₂ amounts were this high was more than 3 million years ago, when temperature was 2°–3°C (3.6°–5.4°F) higher than during the pre-industrial era, and sea level was 15–25 meters (50–80 feet) higher than today." "There is alarming evidence that important tipping points, leading to irreversible changes in major ecosystems and the planetary climate system, may already have been reached or passed. Ecosystems as diverse as the Amazon rainforest and the Arctic tundra, may be approaching thresholds of dramatic change through warming and drying. Mountain glaciers are in alarming retreat and the downstream effects of reduced water supply in the driest months will have repercussions that transcend generations. In October 2018 the IPCC issued a special report on the impacts of global warming of 1.5°C, finding that limiting global warming to 1.5°C would require rapid, far-reaching and unprecedented changes in all aspects of society. With clear benefits to people and natural ecosystems, the report found that limiting global warming to 1.5°C compared to 2°C could go hand in hand with ensuring a more sustainable and equitable society. While previous estimates focused on estimating the damage if average temperatures were to rise by 2°C, this report shows that many of the adverse impacts of climate change will come at the 1.5°C mark. The report also highlights a number of climate change impacts that could be avoided by limiting global warming to 1.5°C compared to 2°C, or more. For instance, by 2100, global sea level rise would be 10 cm lower with global warming of 1.5°C compared with 2°C. The likelihood of an Arctic Ocean free of sea ice in summer would be once per century with global warming of 1.5°C, compared with at least once per decade with 2°C. Coral reefs would decline by 70-90 percent with global warming of 1.5°C, whereas virtually all (> 99 percent) would be lost with 2°C.

Keywords: environmental, scenario, status, climate, global, warming, ecosystem, temperature

Copyright © 2019 International Journal for Modern Trends in Science and Technology
All rights reserved.

I. INTRODUCTION

Although the Asia-Pacific region has thus far managed to preserve a certain harmony with nature, many parts of the Region are now being faced with problems of pollution and degradation of natural resource bases associated with such factors as steep economic growth, expanding populations, and concentration of population in cities. There are deep worries about new environmental problems[1,2] on global or regional scales, such as climate change and acid deposition. The progress of industrialization has been accompanied by a steady rise in emission levels. In China, for example, SO₂ emissions surged from 15.23 million tons in 1985 to 17.95 million tons in 1993. However, there have also been cases of substantial abatement of pollution once industrialization has progressed to a certain extent. In the Republic of Korea, for example, SO₂ emissions improved considerably in the late 1980s. An analogous improvement was achieved by Japan in the 1970s; yearly SO₂ emissions, which probably topped 4.8 million tons in the late 1960s, have been reduced to about 1 million tons since the 1980s. These cases show that air and water pollution from industrial processes can be largely corrected if the proper technical measures are taken. However, there also exist problems for which substantial improvement has not been achieved even in countries possessing sophisticated technology, as well as problems which surface along with the emergence of new technology. In Japan, groundwater has been polluted by chemical substances (such as trichloroethylene) used in the fabrication of semiconductors. Similarly, many Asian countries are grappling with problems associated with the storage and disposal of large quantities of hazardous chemical substances used in semiconductor fabrication. A great risk is also posed by marine pollution by oil tankers in the Straits of Malacca and other bodies of water in Asia. Furthermore, industrialization is being linked to the spread of mass-production and consumption-oriented lifestyles throughout Asia. Burial of the vast quantities of resulting waste in inland and coastal areas is having an adverse impact on the natural environment. In some cases, groundwater is being polluted by waste stored in the open.[3,4]

Primary energy consumption in the Asia-Pacific region in 1992 was estimated at 1.9

billion TOE (tons of oil equivalent), or 24 percent of the global total. It was also estimated that the region had already come to account for 27 percent of the total atmospheric emission of carbon dioxide by the same year. Besides becoming one of the biggest causes of climate change, the region could also become among the most severely affected by them. It has a high concentration of population and social capital in coastal areas, and contains many island countries. For these reasons, it is also a focus of concern about the prospect of a sea level rise. In island countries that rise only a few meters above sea level,[5,6] what is at stake is nothing less than the survival of the state, which itself may bear almost no blame for emission of greenhouse gases. In many areas of the region, there is concern about worsening soil degradation and corresponding decline in agricultural productivity. In such areas, climate change induced by increasing energy consumption could deal a further blow to such productivity.

Although the developed countries of the West are working to reduce them, volumes of SO₂ emissions are expected to continue to rise in the Asia-Pacific region due to increased energy consumption and insufficient countermeasures for atmospheric pollution. ESCAP has estimated that the region's emission of this pollutant was 35 million tons in 1990. This would be the highest such figure in the world, exceeding those of North America and Europe. With the exception of certain areas, acid rain has not yet had as great an impact on the ecosystem in the region as in Europe. According to the World Bank, however, soil in southern China and Southeast Asia tends to have a low capacity to act as a buffer against acid rain, and there is a concern about impact on the ecosystem in these areas.[7,8]

According to UN statistics, the 1992 population of the Asia-Pacific region was over 3.1 billion, or more than half of the total world population. Moreover, the population is rapidly concentrating to cities. In many cities, improvement of the social infrastructure cannot keep abreast of the influx, and serious environmental problems[9,10] are surfacing. Besides pollution from domestic sewage and household waste as well as noise and air pollution due to traffic congestion, there are problems of deterioration of the living environment due to uncontrolled development of slums and the shrinkage of fertile farmland and forests by urban sprawl. The group most affected by worsening environment is generally the urban poor, who are

liable to receive the brunt of the impact of industrial pollution in the vicinity of factories without sufficient anti-pollution measures, as well as of unsanitary water and inadequate hygiene-related facilities. Economic growth and rising income levels are being accompanied by a rapid increase in the number of motor vehicles on the road. The number of passenger cars per thousand people in Japan was 283 in 1990. In Singapore and Malaysia the number exceeds 100, and in the Republic of Korea has reached 50. The Republic of Korea and Malaysia have entered the phase of full-fledged motorization that could culminate in the same level of ownership. However, there has not been a corresponding expansion of the capacity of mass transit and roads, with the result of increasing traffic congestion and the associated air and noise pollution in the major cities.[11,12]

Against this background of fast-paced industrialization and urbanization, environmental problems deriving from poverty are also coming to the fore in the Asia-Pacific region. ESCAP estimates that the region is home to about 72 percent of the world's farming population, in spite of the fact that it contains only about 30 percent of the world's arable land. In addition, population is increasing much more rapidly than the area of land under cultivation, resulting in a decrease in average acreage per capita of farming population and increase in farmers without land. The consequences of this situation, [13,14] which include soil erosion due to cultivation of hillsides and other land of low productivity and the practice of unsustainable farming methods on forest land, are factors behind falling agricultural productivity, deforestation, and soil degradation. ESCAP figures indicate that soil degradation is affecting from 10 to 50 percent of the land area of the countries of East and South Asia, and that 36 percent of the arable land in Asia is being desertified.

Deforestation continues to be a serious problem in the region. According to the FAO, 3.9 million hectares of forestland in the region were lost between 1981 and 1990. This translates into an average annual loss rate of about 1.2 percent, higher than in any other tropical region.[15,16]

II. DISCUSSION

Our environment faces several problems, and many of these seem to be worsening with time, bringing us into a time of a true environmental crisis. It is therefore becoming increasingly important to raise awareness of the existence of

these issues, as well as what can be done to reduce their negative impact. Some of the key issues are:

1) Pollution

Pollution of the air, water and soil caused by toxins such as plastics, heavy metals and nitrates, caused by factors such as toxins and gases released by factories, combustion of fossil fuels, acid rain, oil spill and industrial waste.[17]

2) Global warming

The emission of greenhouse gases due to human activity causes global warming, which in turn causes an increase in temperature that then leads to rising sea levels, melting of polar ice caps, flash floods and desertification.

3) Overpopulation

We are facing a shortage of resources such as food, water and fuel to sustain the rising global population, particularly in developing countries. Intensive agriculture attempting to lessen the problem actually leads to more damage through the use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides.

4) Waste disposal

An excessive amount of waste is produced and dumped in the oceans. Nuclear waste is particularly dangerous, as well as plastics and electronic waste.

5) Ocean acidification

The increase in the production of carbon dioxide by humans causes the oceans' acidity to rise, which has a negative impact on marine life.

6) Loss of biodiversity

Species and habitats are becoming extinct due to human activity. This causes an imbalance in natural processes like pollination and poses a threat to ecosystems – coral reef destruction is particularly affected.

7) Deforestation

Loss of trees in order to make space for residential, industrial or commercial projects means that less oxygen is produced, and temperature and rainfall are affected.

8) Ozone layer depletion

Pollution caused by chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) in the air creates a hole in the ozone layer, which protects the earth from harmful UV radiation.

9) Acid rain

Pollutants in the atmosphere such as sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides cause acid rain, which has negative consequences for humans, wildlife and aquatic species.

10) Public health issues

Lack of clean water is one of the leading environmental problems currently. Pollutants in the air also cause issues such as respiratory disease and cardiovascular disease.[18]

III. RESULTS

Mother Earth got a bad health report from the United Nations this week, and the scientific team that conducted the exam didn't shirk from delivering the bad news. The word "dire" comes to mind. The Earth's condition has continued to deteriorate since the first global outlook was prepared in 1997 and "urgent action at an unprecedented scale necessary to arrest and reverse this situation," the team warned. Earth's ailments are treatable, but not for a lot longer if people don't make fundamental changes in what they consume, how they create energy, dispose of waste, and generally decrease the human footprint that is degrading air, water, and land. Overall, the Earth suffers from land degradation; biodiversity loss; air, land and water pollution; and the effects of climate change—and must prevent and manage further risks and disasters. Without changes, the situation looks bleak for all of its inhabitants. A major extinction event is underway, compromising the globe's "ability to meet human needs. Biodiversity helps regulate climate, filters air and water, forms soil, and mitigates the effects of natural disasters, the team explains.[19,20] Yet, populations of species are declining and extinction rates are rising. Presently, 42 percent of land-based invertebrates, 34 percent of freshwater invertebrates, and 25 percent of marine invertebrates are at risk for extinction. Biodiversity disproportionately affects women, children, and the poor. The livelihoods of 70 percent depend directly on natural resources. As for the Earth itself, 10 out of 14 land habitats have seen a decrease in vegetation productivity. Forty percent of wetlands have been lost to agriculture and urban development since 1970. Farm land is becoming less fertile and useful, due in part to inefficient and unsustainable farming systems. Degraded "hot spots," no longer able to easily grow crops, now account for 29 percent of all land areas. Deforestation has slowed, but continues. Genetic diversity is in decline, threatening food security. In most regions, water quality has worsened "significantly" since 1990, poisoned by chemical pollution. One in three people still lacks access to safe sanitation.[21,22]

IV. CONCLUSIONS

As extreme weather events such as cyclones and heatwaves increase in frequency and ferocity, they threaten children's lives and destroy infrastructure critical to their well-being. Floods compromise water and sanitation facilities, leading to diseases such as cholera, to which children are particularly vulnerable. Droughts and changing global rainfall patterns are leading to crop failures and rising food prices, which for the poor mean food insecurity and nutritional deprivations that can have lifelong impacts. These also have the potential to destroy livelihoods, drive migration and conflict, and cripple opportunities for children and young people. Children are the most vulnerable to diseases that will become more widespread as a result of climate change, such as malaria and dengue fever. Close to 90 per cent of the burden of disease attributable to climate change is borne by children under the age of 5. The drivers of air pollution are the same as those of climate change. Approximately two billion children live in areas where air pollution levels exceed standards set by the World Health Organization (WHO) — causing them to breathe toxic air and putting their health and brain development at risk. Every year, over half a million children under the age of 5 die from air-pollution-related causes. Even more will suffer lasting damage to their developing brains and lungs.[23]

Solution

Climate action provides an exceptional opportunity to unlock massive economic and social benefits that can help us achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Addressing the challenges of environmental sustainability is imperative for UNICEF to fulfil its mandate and protect the world's most vulnerable children.

UNICEF works with partners at global and local level to ensure that children can live in a safe and clean environment. Our actions are structured around four approaches:

- Making children the centre of climate change strategies and response plans
- Recognizing children as agents of change
- Protecting children from the impact of climate change and environmental degradation
- Reducing emissions and pollution[24]

REFERENCES

- [1] Edward O. Wilson, "On the Age of the Environment," Foreign Policy, no. 119 (Summer 2000), p. 34.

- [2] Michael Grubb et al., The "Earth Summit" Agreements: A Guide and Assessment, An Analysis of the Rio '92 Conference on Environment and Development (London: Earthscan and Royal Institute of International Affairs, 1993).
- [3] James Rosenau, Turbulence in World Politics: A Theory of Change and Continuity (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1990).
- [4] P. J. Simmons, "Environmental Security," in Routledge Encyclopedia of Political Economy (London: Routledge, 2001).
- [5] See Sheldon Kamieniecki, ed., Environmental Politics in the International Arena: Movements, Parties, Organizations, and Policy (Albany, N.Y.: SUNY Press, 1993); Miranda Schreurs and Elizabeth C. Economy, eds., The Internationalization of Environmental Protection (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1997); Martin Jänicke and Helmut Weidner, eds., Successful Environmental Policy: A Critical Evaluation of 24 Cases (Berlin: Edition Sigma, 1995); The Social Learning Group, Social Learning and the Management of Global Environmental Risks (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 2001); William Ascher, "Understanding Why Governments in Developing Countries Waste Natural Resources," *Environment*, vol. 42, no 2 (March 2000), pp. 8–18; Ruth Greenspan Bell, "Building Trust," *Environment*, vol. 42, no. 2 (March 2000), pp. 20–32; and Arild Underdal and Kenneth Hanf, eds., International Environmental Agreements and Domestic Politics: The Case of Acid Rain (Aldershot: Ashgate, 2000).
- [6] See Elinor Ostrom and Robert O. Keohane, eds., Local Commons and Global Interdependence: Heterogeneity and Cooperation in Two Domains (Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1995); and Oran R. Young, Governance in World Affairs (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1999).
- [7] See Ken Conca, "Rethinking the Ecology-Sovereignty Debate," *Millennium*, vol. 23, no 3 (1994), pp. 701–11; Ronnie Lipschutz and Ken Conca, eds., The State and Social Power in Global Environmental Politics (New York: Columbia University Press, 1993); and Karen Litfin, ed., The Greening of Sovereignty in World Politics (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1998).
- [8] Viktor Sebek, "Bridging the Gap Between Environmental Science and Policy-Making," *Ambio*, vol. 12, no. 2 (1983), pp. 118–20; Martin W. Holdgate, "The Environmental Information Needs of the Decision-Maker," *Nature and Resources*, vol. 18, no. 1 (January–March 1982), pp. 5–10.
- [9] The number is over 900 if one includes soft law, bilateral agreements, and EU directives. See Edith Brown Weiss, Daniel Barstow Magraw, and Paul C. Szasz, *International Environmental Law: Basic Instruments and References, 1992–1999* (Ardsey, N.Y.: Transnational Publishers, 1999).
- [10] Richard N. Gardner, *Negotiating Survival: Four Priorities After Rio* (New York: Council on Foreign Relations, 1992), p. 37.
- [11] Arild Underdal and the Oslo School refer to this class of problems as "malign problems" that are unlikely to yield effective collective responses.
- [12] Biliana Cicin-Sain and Robert W. Knecht, *Integrated Coastal and Ocean Management: Concepts and Practices* (Washington, D.C.: Island Press, 1998), pp. 32–6.
- [13] OECD Compendia, UNCED, "Global Change and Sustainable Development," E/CN.17/1997/3; UNCED, "Overall Progress Achieved Since the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development," E/CN.17/1997/2/Add.7.
- [14] Indur M. Goklany, "Factors Affecting Environmental Impacts: The Effects of Technology on Long-term Trends in Cropland, Air Pollution, and Water-related Diseases," *Ambio*, vol. 25, no. 8 (December 1996), pp. 497–509.
- [15] Early work includes Richard A. Falk, *This Endangered Planet: Prospects and Proposals for Human Survival* (New York: Vintage Books, 1971); and Harold Sprout and Margaret Sprout, *Toward a Politics of Planet Earth* (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1971). Since then the major works of primary research include David Kay and Harold Jacobson, eds., *Environmental Protection: The International Dimension* (Totowa, N.J.: Allanheld Osmun, 1983); Peter M. Haas, Robert O. Keohane, and Marc A. Levy, eds., *Institutions for the Earth: Sources of Effective International Environmental Protection* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1993); Nazli Choucri, ed., *Global Accord: Environmental Challenges and International Responses* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1993); Oran R. Young, ed., *Global Governance* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1997); Marvin S. Soroos, *The Endangered Atmosphere: Preserving Global Commons* (Columbia, S.C.: University of South Carolina Press, 1997); Oran R. Young and Gail Osherenko, eds., *Polar Politics: Creating International Environmental Regimes* (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1993); Oran R. Young, ed., *The Effectiveness of International Environmental Regimes: Causal Connections and Behavioral Mechanisms* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1999); Edith Brown Weiss and Harold K. Jacobson, eds., *Engaging Countries: Compliance with International Environmental Accords* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1998); David Victor, Kal Raustiala, and Eugene Skolnikoff, eds., *The Implementation and Effectiveness of International Environmental Commitments: Theory and Practice* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1999); Mostafa K. Tolba and Iwona Rummel-Bulska, *Global Environmental Diplomacy: Negotiating Environmental Agreements for the World, 1973–1992* (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1998); Steinar Andresen et al., *Science and Politics in International Environmental Regimes: Between Integrity and Involvement* (Manchester, U.K.: Manchester University Press, 2000); and Peter Sand, *Lessons Learned in Global Environmental Governance* (Washington, D.C.: World Resources Institute, 1990).
- [16] See Stephen Hopgood, *American Foreign Environmental Policy and the Power of the State* (Oxford, U.K.: Oxford University Press, 1998); and Robert Paarlberg, "Lagged Leadership," in Norman Vig and Regina Axelrod, eds., *The Global Environment: Institutions, Law, and Policy* (Washington, D.C.: CQ Press, 1999), pp. 236–55. Strong environmental leadership need not lead to positive environmental outcomes. For instance, the United States exercised its leadership in opposing the biodiversity treaty and in seeking to water down a climate change treaty. From the perspective of climate change skeptics conducting policy analysis, the United States is exercising hegemonic leadership to promote social welfare by opposing a set of unwarranted commitments and thus preventing policy based on a diagnosis of a false positive.
- [17] Paarlberg, "Lagged Leadership."
- [18] For similar inventories of properties of institutions capable of inducing behavior change by member units, see Haas, Keohane, and Levy, eds., *Institutions for the Earth*; Elinor Ostrom, *Governing the Commons: The Evolution of Institutions for Collective Action* (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1990); Young, *Governance in World Affairs*; Weiss and Jacobson, eds., *Engaging Countries*; Ernest Haas, *When Knowledge Is Power: Three Models of Change in International Organizations* (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1990); Victor, Raustiala, and Skolnikoff, eds., *The Implementation and Effectiveness of International Environmental Commitments*; see also earlier international institutions literature: John Gerard Ruggie, "International Responses to Technology," *International Organization*, vol. 29, no. 3 (Summer 1975), pp. 557–84; Eugene Skolnikoff, *The International Imperatives of Technology, Technological Development and the International Political System* (Berkeley, Calif.: Institute of International Studies, University of California Press, 1972); and Kay and Jacobson, eds., *Environmental Protection*.
- [19] Arild Underdal, "The Roles of IGOs in International Environmental Management," in Michael H. Glantz, ed., *The Role of Regional Organizations in the Context of Climate Change* (Berlin: Springer-Verlag, 1994), p. 153. See also Peter M. Haas and Ernst B. Haas "Learning to Learn," *Global Governance*, vol. 1, no. 3 (September 1995), pp. 255–85.
- [20] See Paul Wapner, *Environmental Activism and World Civic Politics* (Albany, N.Y.: SUNY Press, 1996); Ronnie Lipschutz with Judith Mayer, *Global Civil Society and Global Environmental Governance* (Albany, N.Y.: SUNY Press, 1996); Sheila Jasanoff, "NGOs and the Environment," in Thomas Weiss, ed., *Beyond UN Subcontracting: Task-sharing with Regional Security Arrangements and Service-providing NGOs* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1998), pp. 203–23; Kal Raustiala, "States, NGOs, and International Environmental Institutions," *International Studies Quarterly*, vol. 41 (1997), pp.

- 719–40; and P. J. Simmons, “Learning to Live with NGOs,” *Foreign Policy*, no. 112 (Fall 1998), pp. 82–109.
- [21] Russell J. Dalton, *The Green Rainbow* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1994).
- [22] ee Riley E. Dunlap, George H. Gallup Jr., and Alec M. Gallup, *Health of the Planet Survey* (Princeton, N.J.: Gallup International Institute, 1992). The countries are Brazil, Canada, Chile, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, India, Ireland, Japan, Mexico, Nigeria, Netherlands, Norway, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Russia, South Korea, Switzerland, Turkey, United States, and Uruguay.
- [23] The Delaney Clause in U.S. pharmaceutical regulations is an early example of such an approach. The Delaney Amendment of 1985 states that no additive shall be deemed safe if it is found to induce cancer when ingested by man or animal. Thus, it sets an absolute regulatory standard, subject to evolving determination of dose-response relationships that cause cancer.
- [24] Wolfgang H. Reinicke and Francis Deng, *Critical Choices: The United Nations, Networks, and the Future of Global Governance* (Ottawa: International Development Research Centre, 2000).