



HANDBOOK ON INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY RIGHTS

Dr. Ahtshamuddin Ansari
Ms. Meenakshi Bajaj



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CHAPTER 1

Introduction to Intellectual Property Rights: Safeguarding Creativity and Innovation

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ABSTRACT:

This paper provides an introductory exploration of Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs) and their essential role in protecting creative works and fostering innovation. Intellectual Property Rights encompass a range of legal protections granted to creators and inventors for their original works, including patents, trademarks, copyrights, and trade secrets. The study examines the significance of IPRs in encouraging artistic expression, technological advancements, and economic growth. By understanding the principles and implications of Intellectual Property Rights, individuals, businesses, and societies can strike a balance between incentivizing innovation and ensuring access to knowledge and culture.

KEYWORDS:

Copyrights, Innovation, Intellectual Property Rights, Patents, Trademarks, Trade Secrets.

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to Intellectual Property Rights. Types of Intellectual Property. Importance of Intellectual Property Rights Evolution of Intellectual Property Acts and Treaties. Agencies Responsible for IPR Registrations. The Role and Value of Intellectual Property in International Commerce International Issues Affecting Intellectual Property. The phrase intellectual property right (IPR) refers to a variety of legal privileges that are attached to certain kinds of knowledge, concepts, or other intangibles in their explicit form.

This legal right entitles the holder to a variety of exclusive rights with regard to the subject matter of the intellectual property. The notion behind the phrase intellectual property is that it refers to things that are created by people's minds or intellects and that they are subject to the same legal protections as other types of property.

Since different countries have different intellectual property rules, it is necessary to seek or secure IP rights in each of the relevant jurisdictions independently. The term intellectual property rights (IPR) refer to the ownership rights that individuals have over the works of their creative minds. Typically, they provide the author a limited time, exclusive permission to utilize his or her works.

A crucial cornerstone for valuing and rewarding human intelligence, creativity, and invention is the protection of intellectual property rights. IPRs allow artists and innovators to manage and profit the use of their original works by giving them exclusive legal rights, which promotes continued innovation and progress in a variety of fields. This essay tries to offer a thorough introduction to the idea of intellectual property rights by examining the several forms of protection that are available, the difficulties they provide, and their larger social ramifications[1].

Different Kinds of Intellectual Property Rights

Patents: New inventions and technical advances are protected by patents, which give the creator the only authority to create, use, and market the invention for a certain amount of time. In return for transparency, society receives fresh information and technological advancements.

Trademarks: Trademarks provide companies the ability to set their goods and services apart from those of their competitors by protecting brand names, logos, and symbols.

Copyrights: Copyrights protect the unique right of writers and creators to reproduce, distribute, and publicly exhibit their original artistic, literary, musical, and creative works.

Trade secrets: Trade secrets safeguard sensitive corporate data that gives a competitive edge, such as calculations, procedures, or customer lists.

Informational property

An intangible work of the human mind that is given specific property rights is known as intellectual property. It is often represented or translated into a physical form. An author's copyright on a book or article, a distinctive logo representing a soft drink firm and its goods, distinctive design features of a website, or a patent on the method to make chewing gum are examples of intellectual property.

Rights to intellectual property

The term intellectual property rights (IPR) refer to the ownership rights that individuals have over the works of their creative minds. Typically, they provide the author a limited time, exclusive permission to utilize his or her works. Intellectual property (IP) is the term used to describe works of art, literature, and inventions that are exploited in commerce as well as trademarked names, logos, and designs.

Intellectual Property Categories

The different IPRs may be generally divided into two groups:

1. Patents, utility models, industrial designs, copyright, plant breeders' rights, and layout designs for integrated circuits are examples of IPRs that encourage imaginative and creative activities.
2. IPRs that provide information to consumers about geographical and trademark indications.
3. IPRs are separated into two categories for clarity's sake in order to solve specific shortcomings in private markets' ability to allocate resources effectively.

Commercial Property & Copyright

Industrial property, which includes inventions, trademarks, industrial designs, geographic indications of source, and copyright, which covers creative works like drawings, paintings, photographs, sculptures, and musical compositions as well as literary and artistic works like novels, poems, and plays. Copyright-related rights include those of performers in their public performances, phonogram makers in their recordings, and broadcasters in their radio and television shows. Intellectual property rights also include:

1. works of literature, the arts, and science.
2. Performing artists' performances
3. inventions in every sphere of human activity.
4. scientific breakthroughs.
5. commercial designs.
6. defense against unethical competition.

Describe a property

Property refers to items that are often considered to be a person's or a group's property. Property has an ownership right attached to it that designates the good as being one's own thing in relation to other people or groups. This gives the owner the freedom to deal with the property however they see fit, including using it or not, barring others from using it, or transferring ownership. Properties may be classified into two categories: tangible and intangible, or present physically and not present physically, respectively. Buildings, land, homes, money, and jewelry are a few examples of tangible assets that can be physically seen and touched. On the other hand, there is a kind of valued asset that lacks a physical form and cannot be touched physically. One kind of intangible property that might have a substantial worth greater than that of a physical asset or piece of property is intellectual property[2].

DISCUSSION

Intellectual Property Types

The many forms of intellectual property rights are as follows:

1. Patents.
2. Copyrights.
3. Trademarks.
4. Commercial designs.
5. Goods' geographic indicators.
6. Business secrets.

Important IPR species

The following are the most significant categories of intellectual property rights (IPRs) out of all those available.

Trademarks

A trade mark is defined as a mark that can be graphically represented and that can distinguish the goods or services of one person from those of others. This definition can include the shape of the goods, their packaging, and the combination of colors. A cost-efficient and efficient approach to guarantee the protection of your brand is via trademark registration. An effective deterrent against third parties considering or intending infringement is registration, which offers protection against such behavior. Failure to safeguard your brand might lower its value and harm the reputation of your company. It's also critical to pay attention to what your rivals are doing. It is advisable to take action as soon as you can if you think or see someone else using your brand without permission. The registered trademark becomes increasingly difficult to protect, and the likelihood of the trademark becoming generic increases with time. Genericide, or the death of a trademark as a consequence of the brand name becoming the name of the product itself, is the phrase used to describe this phenomenon[3].

Copyrights

Under the British Regime, India enacted its first copyright law in 1847. The duration of the copyright was for the author's lifetime and 60 years beginning with the year of the author's death. Copyright law is intended to balance the rights of the following stakeholders and to defend their interests. works in literature, drama, the arts, music, film, photography, and sound recording. Databases. movies. music. choreography. aesthetic creations like paintings, drawings, pictures, and sculpture. architectural creations. and literary creations like books, poetry, plays, reference materials, newspapers, and computer programs.

Patents

The government will award an inventor a patent in return for full disclosure of their innovation. For a certain amount of time, applicants and assignees of patents are given the exclusive legal right to use and profit from their ideas. For the length of this time, the patent holder has the legal right to prohibit anyone from making use of his invention for commercial purposes. In exchange for receiving exclusive rights, the applicant must reveal the innovation to the public in a way that makes it possible for others who are knowledgeable in the field to duplicate it. The patent system is meant to strike a compromise between societal interests disclosure of innovation and the interests of applicants and assignees. A novel product or procedure that involves an innovative step and is suitable for industrial use is referred to be an invention under Law Sec.2(1)(J)[4].

Three different kinds of patents exist:

Anyone who develops a novel and practical method, apparatus, object of manufacture, or material composition, or any novel and practical enhancement thereof, may be awarded a utility patent. Anyone who creates a brand-new, distinctive, and ornamental design for a manufactured good is eligible for a design patent, and anyone who unearths and asexually reproduces a brand-new, distinctive variety of plant is eligible for a plant patent.

Commerce Secrets

Any important company knowledge is a trade secret. The competition must not be aware of the company secrets. There is no restriction on the kinds of knowledge that may be protected as trade secrets. For instance, recipes, marketing strategies, financial predictions, and corporate practices all qualify. A trade secret may be anything that gives its owner a competitive advantage and is not widely known. Hence, even something as basic and nontechnical as a list of clients might qualify as a trade secret. Companies would have little motivation to spend time, money, and effort on research and development that eventually benefits the public if trade secrets could not be protected. Thus, trade secret legislation encourages the creation of innovative procedures and techniques for doing business in the marketplace[5].

There is no federal legislation governing trade secrets, and no formalities are necessary to establish rights to trade secrets, despite the fact that trademarks, copyrights, and patents are all subject to comprehensive legislative schemes for their protection, application, and registration. Various state laws, court rulings, and interparty contracts all provide protection for trade secrets. As an example, employers often demand that workers sign confidentiality agreements in which they promise not to reveal secret information that belongs to the company. Trade secrets may endure a lifetime if they are well safeguarded. On the other side, trade secret protection may be lost if businesses don't take reasonable steps to keep the knowledge private. Therefore, only those who need to know the information to accomplish their jobs should have access to it, sensitive information should be maintained in safe or limited places, and workers who have access to proprietary information should sign nondisclosure agreements. A trade secret may be perpetually preserved if such steps are performed. Another way that businesses safeguard sensitive information is by making employees sign contracts vowing not to work against the company once they leave their positions. Courts carefully review these covenants, but in general, if they are fair in terms of duration, breadth, and content, they are enforceable[6].

Geographical Markers

A GI is a signal that comes from a certain geographic region. It is used to describe agricultural, natural, or manufactured products made, processed, or prepared in a certain region as a result of which the product has unique qualities, reputations, and/or other features.

Intellectual property rights are important

IPR is a crucial instrument in the modern day. There is an extremely high chance that an invention will be copied without the creator's awareness. Due to the growing significance of intellectual property, incidents of IP crime are becoming a common occurrence in the digital age and may sometimes even cause organizations to collapse. Customers utilize IP to guarantee that they buy safe, reliable items, while businesses depend on proper protection of their patents, trademarks, and copyrights. Like any other physical asset, an IP asset provides firms with financial advantages. IP security is considerably more important in a web-based environment when it is comparably easier than ever to copy any particular template, brand, or functionality.

Strong IP laws safeguard IP as a result and boost the economy of the state they are in. IPR is one of the means of securing intangible assets that are still accessible to the general public and easily replicable by anybody[7].

The importance of intellectual property rights has increased as a result of our heightened digital connectivity today. Despite all the positive things the internet's growth has brought about for information and idea exchange, it has also made it more convenient to steal ideas and works, which may be detrimental to both national economies and creativity. Countries with different levels of intellectual property protection are aware of the value that creative works, designs, ideas, etc. have on the global economy. Nearly all nations that rely on international commerce take significant steps to safeguard their intellectual property rights.

Books, music, movies, and other intangibles are now widely shared online, making it simple for anyone to duplicate and distribute them illegally. Copyrights, patents, trademarks, trade secret protections, and the laws governing them are all meant to promote innovation and creativity. They are also crucial to the practice of IP law since they help deter unlawful activity. In order to encourage and safeguard creativity, organizations like the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) stress the need of supporting IP-driven innovation. With 193 member nations, WIPO serves as a worldwide platform for intellectual property services and is a self-supporting UN organization[8].

IP Acts and Treaties Over Time

The development of international intellectual property laws via several treaties and the establishment of the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) are briefly described here. There is the birth of the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property. The first significant action taken to assist creators in making sure that their intellectual property is protected in other nations is this international agreement. When foreign exhibitors turned down invitations to the 1873 International Exhibition of Inventions in Vienna, Austria, out of concern that their concepts would be taken and utilized for profit in other nations, the necessity for international intellectual property (IP) protection became clear. According to the Paris Convention,

1. Patented inventions.
2. Trademarks.
3. Commercial designs.

Berne Convention (Switzerland), 1886

The Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works is adopted as a result of Victor Hugo's efforts. The objective is to provide artists the worldwide authority to manage and be compensated for their creative creations. includes protected works in:

1. Plays, poetry, short tales, and novels.
2. Sonatas, musicals, operas.
3. masterpieces of architecture, sculpture, painting, and more.

The first worldwide IP filing service, the Madrid System for the international registration of marks, is established with the approval of the Madrid Agreement in 1891. Under the direction of what would eventually become WIPO, a comprehensive range of international IP services will materialize in the decades to follow.

The United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property, better known by its French abbreviation, BIRPI, was founded in 1893 by the merger of the two secretariats formed to oversee the Paris and Berne Conventions. BIRPI is the name of the organization that immediately preceded WIPO. The company has seven employees and is situated in Berne, Switzerland.

1970 - BIRPI changes to WIPO: The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) Convention enters into effect, transforming BIRPI into WIPO. With its headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, the recently founded WIPO is an international organization governed by member states.

WIPO joins the UN in 1974, becoming a specialized agency of the UN. WIPO enters the UN family of organizations. All UN members have the option to join the specialized agencies, although they are not required to do so. WIPO joins the United Nations (UN) family of organizations in 1974 and becomes a specialized agency of the UN (193 Member Countries in UN today). All UN members have the option to join the specialized agencies, although they are not required to do so[9].

Launch of the PCT System in 1978

The worldwide PCT patent system goes into effect. The PCT quickly grows to become the WIPO's current leading international IP filing system. By submitting a international patent application, the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) enables simultaneous patent protection for an innovation in a large number of nations.

TRIPS Convention

India joined other developing countries in 1995 in ratifying the World Trade Organization's (WTO) Treaty on TRIPS, with the understanding that it would reduce limitations on international trade and investment and the protection of intellectual property.

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is in charge of enforcing the Agreement on Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS), an international pact that establishes minimum requirements for a variety of intellectual property (IP) regulations that apply to nationals of other WTO Members.

The World Trade Organization's (WTO) members have all agreed to abide by the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS). In order to help least-developed countries establish a strong and sustainable technical foundation, developed country parties of the TRIPS Agreement are required to provide incentives to their industries that encourage the transfer of technology to those nations.

Organizations in Charge of IPR Registrations

National IPR Organizations

The Department for Promotion of Industry and Internal Trade's (DPIIT) Office of the Controller General of Patents, Designs, and Trademarks (CGPDTM) performs statutory duties associated with the grant of patents and registration of trademarks, designs, and geographical indications. The Registrar of Copyright Office, operating under the CGPDTM, is responsible for managing copyright registration. While the Central IP Training Academy is in Nagpur, it has offices in Delhi, Kolkata, Mumbai, Chennai, and Ahmadabad from where it does business. The main office of the patent office or the branch office, depending on which is located within which geographical bounds, shall constitute the proper office of the patent office. residence, domicile, place of work, or the location where the innovation truly came about.

Appellate Board for Intellectual Property (IPAB)

Under Section 84 of the Trade Marks Act of 1999, the Intellectual Property Appellate Board (IPAB) was created in 2003. The Board considers appeals against decisions made by the Registrar of Trademarks (under the Trade Marks Act, 1999), the Controller of Patents (under the Patents Act, 1970), and the Geographical Indication & Protection Act (under the Geographical Indication & Protection Act, 1999). In line with their individual Acts and Rules, the Copyright Board and Plant Varieties Protection Appellate Tribunal operate under the purview of IPAB. The usage and preservation of intellectual property are encouraged by a number of international organizations and bodies.

INTA, the International Trademark Association

The majority of the members of INTA, a nonprofit worldwide organization, are trademark owners and professionals. It is a worldwide organization. In order to safeguard consumers and to advance honest and efficient trade, trademark owners and experts are committed to promoting trademarks and associated IP. The INTA represents more than 4000 now 6500 memberbusinesses and legal firms from more than 150 currently 190 countries, as well as other parties interested in advancing trademarks. Nearly 12 trillion US dollars have been provided yearly to the global GDP by INTA members. INTA engages in advocacy work around the globe to promote trademarks and provides educational initiatives, as well as informational and legal resources of relevance to a worldwide audience. With its headquarters in New York City, INTA also has representation in Geneva and Mumbai in addition to offices in Brussels, Shanghai, and Washington, DC. 17 manufacturers and merchants who recognized a need for an alliance created this organization in 1878. The INTA was established with the goals of defending and advancing trademark owners' rights, securing relevant legislation, and supporting and encouraging all initiatives aimed at advancing and upholding trademark rights.

Organization for World Intellectual Property (WIPO)

WIPO was established in 1883 and is a specialized agency of the United Nations with the mandate to manage 23 treaties (there are now 26 treaties) pertaining to intellectual property and to promote intellectual property across the globe. One of the United Nations' 17 specialized

agencies is WIPO. It was established in 1967 with the goals of fostering innovation and advancing the global protection of intellectual property. A total of 193 countries are WIPO members. Francis Gurry, the organization's current director general, took over on October 1, 2008, and is based in Geneva, Switzerland[10].

CONCLUSION

In a knowledge-based economy, intellectual property rights are essential for fostering innovation, creativity, and economic progress. IPRs encourage investment in research, development, and creative enterprises by defending the rights of creators and innovators, resulting in a thriving cultural environment and technological advancement. It continues to be difficult to strike a compromise between preserving IPRs and advancing public access to information and culture. While intellectual property rights (IPRs) provide crucial incentives for development, they also raise concerns about fair use, public access to information, and possible monopolies. IPR protection and the public interest must be balanced, which requires careful policy formation and ongoing review. The ability to grasp intellectual property rights is essential for everyone, including consumers, corporations, and legislators. Societies may encourage an atmosphere where innovation and creativity flourish while also fostering fair access to ideas and cultural expressions by recognizing and maintaining IPRs. The discussion around intellectual property rights will continue to influence how we encourage innovation and promote information sharing in the global community as technology and creative environments change.

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CHAPTER 2

The Role and Value of Intellectual Property in International Commerce: Fostering Innovation and Protecting Global Trade

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper examines the crucial role and value of Intellectual Property (IP) in facilitating international commerce. Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs) play a central role in incentivizing innovation, fostering creativity, and promoting economic growth. In the context of international trade, the protection and enforcement of IP are paramount to enable businesses and creators to participate confidently in global markets. The study explores how strong IP regimes contribute to investment, technology transfer, and knowledge dissemination, while also considering challenges in harmonizing IP laws across diverse jurisdictions. By understanding the significance of IP in international commerce, stakeholders can work towards creating a sustainable and equitable global trade environment.

KEYWORDS:

Economic Growth, E-Commerce, International Commerce, Intellectual Property Rights, Patents.

INTRODUCTION

A trade mark is any term, phrase, symbol, or design, or a combination of words, phrases, symbols, or designs, that is used in commerce to identify and differentiate the source of products or services provided by one firm from those of other businesses. As previously mentioned, Section 2(1)'s definition of trademark is A mark that can be represented graphically and that can distinguish one person's goods or services from those of others. This definition covers both goods and services and includes the shape of the goods, their packaging, and combinations of colors. A mark may be a logo, trademark, heading, label, ticket, name, signature, word, letter, number, form of a product, packaging, or a grouping of colors.

Trademarks: Their function and purpose, how to acquire and transfer rights in a mark, how to choose and assess a mark, how to register a mark, and how to make claims[1].

Trade Secrets: Liability for misappropriating trade secrets, assessment of a trade secret's validity, and trade secret litigation. Basic elements of geographic indication of goods and the need for registration.

The function and purpose of trademarks

A trade mark commonly referred to as a brand name in layman's terms is a visual symbol that can be a word to identify the source of the goods, a name, device, label, numerals, or color

combination to distinguish it from other similar goods or services coming from another source. It is a distinguishing mark that shows certain products or services are made or offered by a certain individual or business. Its history begins in antiquity, when artisans imprinted their marks or signatures on decorative or functional items. These marks developed into the system of trade mark registration and protection that exists today through time. Because a product or service's nature and quality, as represented by its distinctive trade mark, match their demands, the system aids customers in recognizing and purchasing it.

By guaranteeing the owner's exclusive right to use it or to grant another party permission to do so in exchange for payment, a trade mark offers protection to the mark's owner. A trade mark may be renewed indefinitely after the time restriction has passed by paying extra fees, albeit the duration of protection varies.

The courts, who often have the power to prevent trade mark infringement, are responsible for enforcing trademark protection. In a broader sense, trademarks encourage initiative and business venture by bringing fame and financial gain to their owners. The use of comparable distinguishing marks by unscrupulous rivals, such as counterfeiters, to advertise inferior or unrelated goods or services is likewise hampered by trade mark protection. The system makes it feasible for anyone with initiative and talent to manufacture and sell products and services under the most ethical terms, promoting global commerce[2]. Trademarks are essential for two things in the marketplace:

1. They guarantee that products are consistent with a specific level of quality.
2. They support customers in their choices on the acquisition of items.

The primary goal of trademarks is to distinguish between different products and services in terms of quality. For instance, there would be no incentive for the owners of the NIKE mark to produce high-quality shoes and to spend money establishing consumer recognition of the products offered under the NIKE marks if a trademark like NIKE could be counterfeited and used by another on inferior goods. Goodwill is the value that results from securing customer loyalty to a certain item or service by maintaining the high quality of goods or services provided under a mark.

1. They identify a maker's products or services and set them apart from those provided by other makers.
2. They make it clear that just one maker, manufacturer, or supplier is responsible for all products or services sold under the mark.
3. They imply that the caliber of all products or services sold under the mark is constant.

Different Marks

Marks come in four main varieties. As follows:

1. Trademark.
2. The service mark.
3. Mark of certification.
4. Mark collective.

Trademark

Accordingly, a trademark is a mark for a tangible commodity, while a service mark is a mark for an intangible service. However, in everyday speech, the word trademark is often used to apply to markings for both goods and services. The most important part of this legal explanation is that a trademark is a visual mark that may utilize any arrangement of text and pictures to help a business set itself apart from competing businesses[3]. A trademark serves to visually represent a person, business, or product, and it should be made such that it is clear and simple to identify. Both service marks and trademarks shall be referred to as marks in this sentence.

The U.S. trademark law is governed by the federal legislation an act made by a legislative body, the U.S. According to the Trademark Act, a mark may be a trademark, service mark, collective mark, or certificate mark.

The Service Mark

Similar to a trademark, a service mark identifies and distinguishes the supplier of a service as opposed to a specific product. A service mark is nothing more than a symbol that sets one proprietor or owner's services apart from those of another. Service marks stand in for the company's services rather than its products.

They are applied in a service industry where no real items bearing the mark are exchanged. Businesses that provide services like computer hardware and software assembly, restaurant and hotel services, courier and transport, beauty and health care, advertising, publishing, etc. are now able to safeguard their names and marks against infringement by other parties. The laws regulating service marks are much the same as those controlling other trademarks[4].

Mark of certification

A certification mark is a word, name, symbol, device, or combination of these things that one person uses to certify that the goods or services of others have specific features pertaining to quality material mode of manufacture or some other characteristic or that the work done on the goods or services was performed by members of a union or other organization.

Mark collective

A collective mark is one that is worn by an organization with a large number of members, such as a labor union, fraternity, or professional society, to show that the person wearing it is a member of the group.

These are the trademarks that a collection of businesses uses and may jointly defend. Collective trademarks are intended to educate the public about a certain quality of the product for which they are used. Such trademarks may be owned by a cooperative, a governmental institution, or an organization. Additionally, collective marks are used to advertise certain goods that have features unique to the manufacturer in a given industry. Therefore, given that the dealer is a member of the organization, more than one merchant may utilize a collective trademark[5].

DISCUSSION

Obtaining Trademark Rights

Obtaining a trademark right via use or registration are two of the main legal frameworks for the granting of trademark rights on a worldwide scale.

1. By Use.
2. Through Registration.

The use approach determines who owns a trademark based on when it was first used and is based on the objective facts of trademark usage. A trademark right will be granted to the first applicant under the registration model, which gives rights in accordance with registration. The use paradigm was adopted by all of the early trademark laws throughout history. For instance, France's 1857 enactment of the Manufacturing Signs and Trademarks respecting the Content of Use and Non-examination Principle was the first trade mark law. However, due to the use principle's many flaws, France abandoned it in 1964 after more than a century of use and switched to the registration model, which was followed by the present Code of Intellectual Property[6].

In India, obtaining and claiming a trademark requires registration rather than use. The exclusive right to use a trademark in connection with the products or services for which it is registered is granted to the registered owner of the mark upon registration. While trademark registration is not required, it does provide superior legal protection for infringement claims. The following rights are granted to the registered owner of a trademark by registration, in accordance with Section 17 of the Act:

1. It grants the registered owner the only authority to use the trademark in connection with the products or services for which it is registered.
2. It gives the registered owner the right to seek action for trademark infringement in accordance with the Trade Marks Act of 1999 where a similar mark is used in connection with the same goods or services, similar goods or services, or different goods or services.
3. The use or registration of the same trademark or a mark that is confusingly similar in connection with the same goods or services or the same description of goods or services for which the trademark is registered is prohibited by law, with the exception of the registered or unregistered permitted user.
4. In accordance with Section 11(1) of the Trade Marks Act of 1999, no trade mark must be registered for the same goods or services or for goods or services that are confusingly similar after the trade mark for those goods or services has been registered.
5. In addition, Section 11(2) in the event of well-known trademarks prohibits the registration of the same or confusingly similar trade mark even in respect of distinct products or services after the trade mark for goods or services has been registered.
6. Registered trademarks may not be utilized in advertising or on business documents by anyone else. The trade mark should not be unfairly used in comparison advertising. Such advertising shouldn't be at odds with ethical business or industrial practices. The advertising shouldn't compromise the trade mark's distinctiveness or repute [7].

7. The use of the trade mark as a trade name, part of a trade name, or the name of a business concern that offers the same products or services is prohibited. All of the rights that come with an unregistered trade mark still apply to the registered trade mark. The owner of an unregistered trademark becomes the owner of the registered trademark by registration. A trade mark may be the basis for a registration application if it has been used for at least two years previous to the application and has acquired common law rights since that point.

Trademark Transfer

The assignment of intellectual property rights is a transfer of ownership, title, and interest in certain intellectual property. Both the person transferring the rights and the party receiving them are referred to as the assignor and the assignee, respectively. The assignor transfers its ownership of intellectual property rights, such as patents and trademarks, to the assignee. All or a portion of the rights may be transferred by the right owner. For example, the owner of a copyright might only transfer portion of his economic rights. According to the terms of the licensing agreements, users are permitted to utilize intellectual property. Assignments are most often transfers of property rights without any restrictions on how they will be utilized.

A contract that transfers ownership of intellectual property from the assignor to the assignee is known as an intellectual property assignment agreement. It gives the assignor the authority to transfer all of his intellectual property rights to the interested applicant permanently in return for a specified sum of money. By requiring the owner to sell his rights in a manner comparable to how he could sell tangible property, this agreement marks a long-term transfer. He will no longer be in charge of, be involved with, or have any claim to the transferred rights[8].

The right to transfer the trade mark for any value and to receive payment is acknowledged by Section 37 of the Trade Mark Act, 1999. It states that the owner of a trade mark has the authority to transfer the trade mark and to make effective receipt for any compensation for such assignment, subject to the terms of the act and to any right that appears from the register to be vested in any other person. It is a well-established rule that an assignor cannot give the assignee greater rights than he himself has.

A registered trade mark may only be assigned in relation to all the products or services in respect of the trademark that is registered for those goods or services, whether with or without the goodwill of the company involved. The term assignment is defined as an assignment in writing by act of the parties concerned under Section 2(1)(b) of the Trade Mark Act, 1999. According to this definition, an assignment must be made in writing and via the joint action of the parties. The paperwork must be signed by both the assignor and the assignee.

The assignment agreement will be the name of this paper. A document cannot be unilaterally signed by only one participant[9].

Type of Trademark Assignment

Complete Assignment of a Trademark: In this case, the trademark owner totally assigns all of his rights and interests in the trademark to the assignee. This also offers the ability to designate

any further transfers to new recipients. Following a full assignment of the trademark, the owner no longer has any ownership rights in the trademark, while the assignee gains ownership of all applicable rights.

Partially Assigning a Trademark: In this case, the ownership is only transferred to certain goods and services. The rights to the portion that the assignor has not expressly assigned to the assignee remain in his possession. The assignor has the discretion to decide how to handle a partial assignment. Such exclusive rights are available for the assignor to employ in his administration and company.

Assignment of a Trademark with Goodwill: In this case, the assignor may transfer both the ownership and the image-based rights to the trademark. The assignee may then utilize this depiction of the trademark's market reputation to promote the goods. The limitation on the assignee's use of the trademarked product, or the assignor's ability to prevent the assignee from using the trademark in commerce, is present in a trademark assignment without goodwill. Both the assignor and the assignee may use the same trademark in their respective business fields. This transfer is also known as a massive trademark transfer[10].

Enrollment of Assignment

The process for assigning a trademark is outlined in Section 45 of the Trade Mark Act, 1999. When someone gains ownership of a registered trademark by an assignment, they must apply to the registrar to get their title registered in the way specified. Upon receiving the application, the Registrar shall record the applicant as the owner of the trade mark in respect of the goods or services in relation of the assignment. If there is any reasonable question about the accuracy of the statement or any document provided, the registrar may seek further evidences and a declaration in proof of title. The assignment agreements are consistently seen to be significant in intellectual property. It enables the property owner to assign his ownership rights for the purpose of generating commercial returns and guarantees him financial profits.

It is a legally binding written agreement between two parties that deals with the transfer of rights in a formalized arrangement. It safeguards and controls the rights of all parties involved in the agreement. Assignment agreements entail the sale of the exclusive rights, granting the assignee full ownership of the assignor's trademarks in all its forms. Trademarks have become essential assets for organizations to create their identity and safeguard their brand image in the increasingly competitive and globalized commercial market. Any term, symbol, logo, design, or combination of these that sets one company's products or services apart from another is considered a trademark. This essay tries to provide a thorough review of trademarks, their legal ramifications, and the manner in which they support customer loyalty, brand awareness, and corporate success. How Important Trademarks Are:

1. Trademarks act as visual representations of a company's brand identity, allowing customers to recognize and distinguish goods and services from one another on the market.
2. Increasing Brand Loyalty and Repeat Business. Consumers who are confident in a brand are more likely to be loyal to it and to buy from it again.

3. Market positioning and competitive edge. Standout trademarks may assist companies in securing a distinct market position by setting them apart from rivals and promoting brand identification.

Registration of trademarks and legal framework

Application and Registration of Trademarks: To register a trademark, you must submit an application to the appropriate intellectual property authority and meet all applicable legislative criteria. International trademark registration under agreements like the Madrid Protocol may provide wider protection across many nations for companies operating internationally.

Contestations and Enforcement

1. **Trademark Infringement:** To avoid unlawful use and infringement, which may damage a brand's reputation and perplex customers, it is essential to enforce trademark rights.
2. **Online issues and counterfeiting:** The growth of e-commerce has created new difficulties in stopping the sale of fake goods and the unlawful use of trademarks online.

CONCLUSION

Trademarks are essential for building a company's reputation and safeguarding its identity in the cutthroat business environment. Businesses may stand out in the market, gain consumer confidence, and develop a devoted following by gaining exclusive rights to their trademarks. To preserve brand reputation and stop infringement, it is essential to provide efficient trademark enforcement and protection. The importance of trademarks in the marketplace will only increase as companies continue to develop internationally and adapt to digital platforms. Knowing the worth of trademarks enables companies to effectively use these intangible assets, encouraging long-term development and profitability in a constantly changing business environment. Businesses may build great brand awareness and keep a competitive advantage in the global market with a solid trademark strategy and adherence to legal safeguards.

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CHAPTER 3

Trademark: Branding and Protecting Business Identity in the Commercial World

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ABSTRACT:

This paper explores the concept of trademarks and their significance in modern business and commerce. Trademarks play a vital role in branding, allowing businesses to distinguish their products and services from competitors and build consumer trust. The study examines the legal framework and registration process for trademarks, as well as the value they bring to businesses in terms of reputation, customer loyalty, and market positioning. Additionally, the paper delves into the enforcement of trademark rights and the challenges posed by counterfeiting and infringement. By understanding the importance of trademarks, businesses can leverage these valuable assets to secure their identity and thrive in the global marketplace.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Customer Loyalty, Marketplace, Trademark.

INTRODUCTION

A trademark is a recognizable image, word, phrase, design, or combination of these that identifies and sets one entity's products and services apart from those of another. It acts as a mark of origin, enabling customers to quickly identify and link goods and services with a particular brand. In the contemporary economy, trademarks are essential for encouraging fair competition, customer trust, and brand awareness. A trademark's main purpose is to provide customers a guarantee of consistency and quality. When a customer recognizes a trademark on a product or service, they often have preconceived notions about its qualities, effectiveness, and dependability. Trademarks are a vital asset for companies that help them create and preserve their brand identity. A powerful trademark may be associated with quality, influencing consumer choice and promoting brand loyalty.

The legal procedure of trademark registration gives the owner the only right to use the mark in connection with the designated products or services. This exclusivity gives brand owners the ability to stop competitors from adopting confusingly similar marks that can cause customer confusion or lessen the uniqueness of their brand. Beyond only words and logos, trademark protection may also cover things like colors, sounds, smells, and in rare situations, three-dimensional forms. Trademark rights are gained by actual use of the mark in commerce in several countries, including the US. This implies that regardless of whether the mark is registered, a company will gain common law rights as soon as it starts using a distinctive mark in connection

with its products or services. However, registering a trademark with the relevant government body, such as the United States Patent and Trademark Office (USPTO) in the United States, offers extra-legal advantages and protections, including the power to file a lawsuit in federal court and to provide notice of ownership throughout the country.

When a third party uses a mark that is confusingly similar to a registered mark and may cause consumer confusion, trademark infringement has taken place. The legal right of trademark owners to take legal action against such unlawful use includes pursuing damages, injunctive relief, and, in certain circumstances, the recovery of revenues made through the unauthorized use of their mark. It's crucial to keep in mind that not all marks qualify for trademark protection. In general, marks that are generic, simply descriptive, or likely to be confused with already registered marks cannot be registered. A mark must be unique and able to identify the source in order to be eligible for protection.

Trademarks have become increasingly more important in the digital age, since companies operate internationally and customers have access to a worldwide market. Businesses must create robust online brand identities because the internet has accelerated the dissemination of information and commerce. Building credibility and trust in a virtual environment, trademarks help businesses stand out in the huge ocean of online information and transactions. In conclusion, trademarks are essential to contemporary commerce and industry. They are more than just abstract images; they stand in for a business's standing, principles, and commitment to customers. Trademarks serve as the foundation of brand identification by forging a relationship between companies and their clients. Trademarks are an essential component of corporate strategy in the global market, whether they serve to safeguard famous emblems or guarantee that customers can trust a brand's quality[1].

The function and purpose of trademarks

A trade mark commonly referred to as a brand name in layman's terms is a visual symbol that can be a word to identify the source of the goods, a name, device, label, numerals, or color combination to distinguish it from other similar goods or services coming from another source. It is a distinguishing mark that shows certain products or services are made or offered by a certain individual or business. Its history begins in antiquity, when artisans imprinted their marks or signatures on decorative or functional items. These marks developed into the system of trade mark registration and protection that exists today through time. Because a product or service's nature and quality, as represented by its distinctive trade mark, match their demands, the system aids customers in recognizing and purchasing it.

By guaranteeing the owner's exclusive right to use it or to grant another party permission to do so in exchange for payment, a trade mark offers protection to the mark's owner. A trade mark may be renewed indefinitely after the time restriction has passed by paying extra fees, albeit the duration of protection varies. The courts, who often have the power to prevent trade mark infringement, are responsible for enforcing trademark protection. In a broader sense, trademarks encourage initiative and business venture by bringing fame and financial gain to their owners. The use of comparable distinguishing marks by unscrupulous rivals, such as counterfeiters, to

advertise inferior or unrelated goods or services is likewise hampered by trade mark protection. The system makes it feasible for anyone with initiative and talent to manufacture and sell products and services under the most ethical terms, promoting global commerce. Trademarks are essential for two things in the marketplace:

1. They guarantee that products are consistent with a specific level of quality.
2. They support customers in their choices on the acquisition of items [2].

The primary goal of trademarks is to distinguish between different products and services in terms of quality. For instance, there would be no incentive for the owners of the NIKE mark to produce high-quality shoes and to spend money establishing consumer recognition of the products offered under the NIKE marks if a trademark like NIKE could be counterfeited (imitating) and used by another on inferior goods. Goodwill is the value that results from securing customer loyalty to a certain item or service by maintaining the high quality of goods or services provided under a mark.

1. They identify a maker's products or services and set them apart from those provided by other makers.
2. They make it clear that just one maker, manufacturer, or supplier is responsible for all products or services sold under the mark.
3. They imply that the caliber of all products or services sold under the mark is constant.

Different Marks

Marks come in four main varieties. As follows:

1. Trademark.
2. The service marks.
3. Mark of certification.
4. Mark collective.

Trademark

Accordingly, a trademark is a mark for a tangible commodity, while a service mark is a mark for an intangible service. However, in everyday speech, the word trademark is often used to apply to markings for both goods and services. The most important part of this legal explanation is that a trademark is a visual mark that may utilize any arrangement of text and pictures to help a business set itself apart from competing businesses. A trademark serves to visually represent a person, business, or product, and it should be made such that it is clear and simple to identify. Both service marks and trademarks shall be referred to as marks in this sentence. The U.S. trademark law is governed by the federal legislation ((law) an act made by a legislative body), the U.S. According to the Trademark Act (Lanham Act, 15 U.S.C. 1051 et seq.), a mark may be a trademark, service mark, collective mark, or certificate mark[3].

The Service Mark

Similar to a trademark, a service mark identifies and distinguishes the supplier of a service as opposed to a specific product. A service mark is nothing more than a symbol that sets one

proprietor or owner's services apart from those of another. Service marks stand in for the company's services rather than its products. They are applied in a service industry where no real items bearing the mark are exchanged. Businesses that provide services like computer hardware and software assembly, restaurant and hotel services, courier and transport, beauty and health care, advertising, publishing, etc. are now able to safeguard their names and marks against infringement by other parties. The laws regulating service marks are much the same as those controlling other trademarks.

Mark of certification

A certification mark is a word, name, symbol, device, or combination of these things that one person uses to certify that the goods or services of others have specific features pertaining to quality material mode of manufacture or some other characteristic (or that the work done on the goods or services was performed by members of a union or other organization).

Mark collective

A collective mark is one that is worn by an organization with a large number of members, such as a labor union, fraternity, or professional society, to show that the person wearing it is a member of the group. These are the trademarks that a collection of businesses uses and may jointly defend. Collective trademarks are intended to educate the public about a certain quality of the product for which they are used. Such trademarks may be owned by a cooperative, a governmental institution, or an organization. Additionally, collective marks are used to advertise certain goods that have features unique to the manufacturer in a given industry. Therefore, given that the dealer is a member of the organization, more than one merchant may utilize a collective trademark.

DISCUSSION

Obtaining trademark rights

Obtaining a trademark right via use or registration are two of the main legal frameworks for the granting of trademark rights on a worldwide scale.

1. By Use.
2. Through Registration.

The use approach determines who owns a trademark based on when it was first used and is based on the objective facts of trademark usage. A trademark right will be granted to the first applicant under the registration model, which gives rights in accordance with registration. The use paradigm was adopted by all of the early trademark laws throughout history. For instance, France's 1857 enactment of the Manufacturing Signs and Trademarks respecting the Content of Use and Non-examination Principle was the first trade mark law. However, due to the use principle's many flaws, France abandoned it in 1964 after more than a century of use and switched to the registration model, which was followed by the present Code of Intellectual Property.

In India, obtaining and claiming a trademark requires registration rather than use. The exclusive right to use a trademark in connection with the products or services for which it is registered is granted to the registered owner of the mark upon registration. While trademark registration is not required, it does provide superior legal protection for infringement claims. The following rights are granted to the registered owner of a trademark by registration, in accordance with Section 17 of the Act:

1. It grants the registered owner the only authority to use the trademark in connection with the products or services for which it is registered.
2. It gives the registered owner the right to seek action for trademark infringement in accordance with the Trade Marks Act of 1999 where a similar mark is used in connection with the same goods or services, similar goods or services, or different goods or services.
3. The use or registration of the same trademark or a mark that is confusingly similar in connection with the same goods or services or the same description of goods or services for which the trademark is registered is prohibited by law, with the exception of the registered or unregistered permitted user.
4. In accordance with Section 11(1) of the Trade Marks Act of 1999, no trade mark must be registered for the same goods or services or for goods or services that are confusingly similar after the trade mark for those goods or services has been registered [4].
5. In addition, Section 11(2) in the event of well-known trademarks prohibits the registration of the same or confusingly similar trade mark even in respect of distinct products or services after the trade mark for goods or services has been registered.
6. Registered trademarks may not be utilized in advertising or on business documents by anyone else. The trade mark should not be unfairly used in comparison advertising. Such advertising shouldn't be at odds with ethical business or industrial practices. The advertising shouldn't compromise the trade mark's distinctiveness or repute.
7. The use of the trade mark as a trade name, part of a trade name, or the name of a business concern that offers the same products or services is prohibited. All of the rights that come with an unregistered trade mark still apply to the registered trade mark. The owner of an unregistered trademark becomes the owner of the registered trademark by registration. A trade mark may be the basis for a registration application if it has been used for at least two years previous to the application and has acquired common law rights since that point [5].

Trademark Transfer

The assignment of intellectual property rights is a transfer of ownership, title, and interest in certain intellectual property. Both the person transferring the rights and the party receiving them are referred to as the assignor and the assignee, respectively. The assignor transfers its ownership of intellectual property rights, such as patents and trademarks, to the assignee. All or a portion of the rights may be transferred by the right owner. For example, the owner of a copyright might only transfer portion of his economic rights. According to the terms of the licensing agreements, users are permitted to utilize intellectual property. Assignments are most often transfers of property rights without any restrictions on how they will be utilized. A contract that transfers

ownership of intellectual property from the assignor to the assignee is known as an intellectual property assignment agreement. It gives the assignor the authority to transfer all of his intellectual property rights to the interested applicant permanently in return for a specified sum of money. By requiring the owner to sell his rights in a manner comparable to how he could sell tangible property, this agreement marks a long-term transfer. He will no longer be in charge of, be involved with, or have any claim to the transferred rights. The right to transfer the trade mark for any value and to receive payment is acknowledged by Section 37 of the Trade Mark Act, 1999. It states that the owner of a trade mark has the authority to transfer the trade mark and to make effective receipt for any compensation for such assignment, subject to the terms of the act and to any right that appears from the register to be vested in any other person. It is a well-established rule that an assignor cannot give the assignee greater rights than he himself has. A registered trade mark may only be assigned in relation to all the products or services in respect of the trademark that is registered for those goods or services, whether with or without the goodwill of the company involved. The term assignment is defined as an assignment in writing by act of the parties concerned under Section 2(1)(b) of the Trade Mark Act, 1999. According to this definition, an assignment must be made in writing and via the joint action of the parties. The paperwork must be signed by both the assignor and the assignee. The assignment agreement will be the name of this paper. A document cannot be unilaterally signed by only one participant.

Type of Trademark Assignment

Complete Assignment of a Trademark: In this case, the trademark owner totally assigns all of his rights and interests in the trademark to the assignee. This also offers the ability to designate any further transfers to new recipients. Following a full assignment of the trademark, the owner no longer has any ownership rights in the trademark, while the assignee gains ownership of all applicable rights.

Partially Assigning a Trademark: In this case, the ownership is only transferred to certain goods and services. The rights to the portion that the assignor has not expressly assigned to the assignee remain in his possession. The assignor has the discretion to decide how to handle a partial assignment. Such exclusive rights are available for the assignor to employ in his administration and company.

Assignment of a Trademark with Goodwill: In this case, the assignor may transfer both the ownership and the image-based rights to the trademark.

The assignee may then utilize this depiction of the trademark's market reputation to promote the goods. The limitation on the assignee's use of the trademarked product, or the assignor's ability to prevent the assignee from using the trademark in commerce, is present in a trademark assignment without goodwill. Both the assignor and the assignee may use the same trademark in their respective business fields. This transfer is also known as a massive trademark transfer[6].

Enrollment of Assignment

The process for assigning a trademark is outlined in Section 45 of the Trade Mark Act, 1999. When someone gains ownership of a registered trademark by an assignment, they must apply to

the registrar to get their title registered in the way specified. Upon receiving the application, the Registrar shall record the applicant as the owner of the trade mark in respect of the goods or services in relation of the assignment[7]. If there is any reasonable question about the accuracy of the statement or any document provided, the registrar may seek further evidences and a declaration in proof of title. The assignment agreements are consistently seen to be significant in intellectual property. It enables the property owner to assign his ownership rights for the purpose of generating commercial returns and guarantees him financial profits. It is a legally binding written agreement between two parties that deals with the transfer of rights in a formalized arrangement. It safeguards and controls the rights of all parties involved in the agreement. Assignment agreements entail the sale of the exclusive rights, granting the assignee full ownership of the assignor's trademarks in all its forms[8]. Trademarks have become essential assets for organizations to create their identity and safeguard their brand image in the increasingly competitive and globalized commercial market. Any term, symbol, logo, design, or combination of these that sets one company's products or services apart from another is considered a trademark. This essay tries to provide a thorough review of trademarks, their legal ramifications, and the manner in which they support customer loyalty, brand awareness, and corporate success.

How Important Trademarks Are

1. Trademarks act as visual representations of a company's brand identity, allowing customers to recognize and distinguish goods and services from one another on the market.
2. Increasing Brand Loyalty and Repeat Business: Consumers who are confident in a brand are more likely to be loyal to it and to buy from it again.
3. Market positioning and competitive edge: Standout trademarks may assist companies in securing a distinct market position by setting them apart from rivals and promoting brand identification[9].

Registration of trademarks and legal framework

1. Application and Registration of Trademarks. To register a trademark, you must submit an application to the appropriate intellectual property authority and meet all applicable legislative criteria.
2. International trademark registration under agreements like the Madrid Protocol may provide wider protection across many nations for companies operating internationally.

Contestations and Enforcement

1. **Trademark Infringement:** To avoid unlawful use and infringement, which may damage a brand's reputation and perplex customers, it is essential to enforce trademark rights.
2. **Online issues and counterfeiting:** The growth of e-commerce has created new difficulties in stopping the sale of fake goods and the unlawful use of trademarks online[10].

CONCLUSION

Trademarks are essential for building a company's reputation and safeguarding its identity in the cutthroat business environment. Businesses may stand out in the market, gain consumer confidence, and develop a devoted following by gaining exclusive rights to their trademarks. To preserve brand reputation and stop infringement, it is essential to provide efficient trademark enforcement and protection. The importance of trademarks in the marketplace will only increase as companies continue to develop internationally and adapt to digital platforms. Knowing the worth of trademarks enables companies to effectively use these intangible assets, encouraging long-term development and profitability in a constantly changing business environment. Businesses may build great brand awareness and keep a competitive advantage in the global market with a solid trademark strategy and adherence to legal safeguards.

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CHAPTER 4

Selecting and Evaluating Trademark: Ensuring Effective Brand Identity and Legal Protection

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper provides a comprehensive guide to selecting and evaluating trademarks for businesses and entrepreneurs. A well-chosen trademark is a powerful tool for creating a distinct brand identity, building consumer trust, and establishing a competitive advantage in the market. The study explores the essential factors to consider when selecting a trademark, such as distinctiveness, availability, and potential for international expansion. Additionally, the paper examines the importance of conducting thorough trademark searches to assess potential conflicts and the legal implications of choosing a strong and enforceable trademark. By understanding the intricacies of selecting and evaluating trademarks, businesses can make informed decisions that will strengthen their brand and protect their intellectual property rights.

KEYWORDS:

Businesses, Legal Protection, Property Rights, Trademark.

INTRODUCTION

For organizations of all sizes, selecting an effective and protectable trademark is a crucial component of brand development and intellectual property strategy. A correctly chosen trademark may distinguish a business from rivals and leave a lasting impression on customers. This study seeks to assist companies and entrepreneurs in choosing and analyzing trademarks to make sure they are unique, defensible legally, and consistent with the company's objectives and beliefs.

Choosing and Assessing Trademarks

Distinguishability: Trademarks with a high degree of distinctiveness are more likely to get legal protection and are simpler to enforce against prospective infringers. Between generic non-protectable and fantastical very protectable trademarks are suggestive and arbitrary marks.

Availability: To determine if a selected trademark is already in use or registered by another party, a thorough trademark search is required. Clearance searches aid in preventing any disputes and concerns with infringement. Availability of the chosen trademark as a domain name is essential since having an online presence is essential to contemporary organizations.

International considerations: If a company wants to expand internationally, it is crucial to assess any possible trademark disputes and register in the appropriate countries.

Legal Consequences

1. **Trademark Strength:** A trademark's degree of protection depends on how strong it is. While weak markings are harder to enforce, strong marks are protected more broadly.
2. **Brand infringement:** Choosing a strong, recognizable brand lowers the possibility of infringing on already-registered marks, which may result in expensive legal challenges.

Choosing a Mark

Companies organize competitions and encourage staff to develop a mark for a new service or product line as strategies to pick a mark. Companies do in-depth research. Branding companies that undertake research and develop a mark, a logo, or other design for the business. Once a mark has been chosen, it must be thoroughly examined and assessed for use and registrability. otherwise, time and resources would be wasted on marketing, using, and applying for a mark that would later be denied registration by the PTO. In the worst-case scenario, the mark's owner might also be held liable for damages for trade mark infringement and unfair competition. Once a mark has been chosen, it should be carefully examined to make sure that the Lanham Act will not exclude it from protection. A questionnaire form or datasheet is often used by legal firms that focus on trademark work to collect fundamental information from clients regarding their marks. They must first determine if the mark includes scandalous material that offends moral sensibilities and damages reputation[1].

1. Whether a live person's permission will be necessary.
2. The mark's genericness.
3. Whether it has legal protection.
4. Additionally, it observes that the mark uses foreign words.

Considering a trademark

Trademarks are intangible assets that are used to protect a company's name, logo, phrase, etc. against third-party infringement. It might be difficult to determine the trademark's actual worth. Nobody used to assess the worth of the company's intangible assets until a decade or two ago. The reputation of a product is today created by a brand, which also influences consumer behavior and distinguishes it from generic goods. In reality, practically every brand brings in a respectable amount of money. However, determining the precise value of the trademark is a difficult task, and one must be aware of the right methodology. It might be difficult to value your company's intangible assets, such as its patents and trademarks, which makes the selling process difficult. But for many commercial actions, such as a merger or acquisition. sale or purchase of the trademark. or if you want to sell your firm, you must analyze a brand. Examining the trademark's historical prospects, including the entire cost of investment, the profit margin related to the goods, the date it was first used, etc., is the first stage in trademark evaluation. Following consideration of these possibilities, one must adhere to the methodology and various strategies described below:

The Income Strategy

The ability of the firm to generate revenue is the most important factor in determining the value of a trademark. The value of the brand would increase as earning power increased. The income technique helps you to assess your company's trademark by making easy information out of future projections of economic gain, cash flows, and risk[2].

Market Strategy

This technique compares and takes into account the cost of equivalent marks. It analyzes royalty rates and transaction prices to ascertain what the market is paying for comparable intangible assets and employs market-based indications of value. This method analyzes other transactions while taking market trends into account.

Price Approach

The cost method takes into account both the implicit and the explicit costs associated with developing the trademark. The costs incurred in advertising the business and its brand are also covered by the cost approach. A specific emphasis on market predictions is used, and the projected time and expense needed to create a comparable brand are taken into account.

Other Elements

A business should take the following into account when assessing a trademark or portfolio of trademarks in order to optimize its value:

1. The trademark's qualitative and quantitative attributes.
2. Whether any contracts have been assigned to or linked to the trademark.
3. The trademark's long-term viability in the marketplace.
4. The market share a trademark currently commands in a certain industry.
5. The company's capital structure and any adjustments made in response to demands.

A corporation should assess its brand and know the precise worth of its intangible assets since trademarks have substantial value in the business. For long-term financial success, a business should strive to increase the value of its trademark and other intangible assets.

DISCUSSION

Process for Registering a Trademark

It is not a good situation when you spend time and money developing a brand only to discover that the same brand name is being utilized by someone else, depriving you of the hard-earned brand reputation. Many trademark (TM) owners find themselves in drawn-out legal battles because they neglected to register their brand name as a trademark in India when the opportunity arose.

The brand name trademark registration procedure is not a challenging undertaking. It just takes a few easy actions to register your brand name in India and get the much-needed legal protection. You may submit a trademark application by:

1. Private companies.
2. Individuals.
3. Companies: Limited Liability Partnerships, Open Partnership Corporations, Private Limited Companies, etc.
4. NGO's

For NGOs and LLP firms, the trademark must be registered under the name of the relevant corporation or business. Any individual may submit a written registration application in the required format while feigning ownership of a trademark that they are using or plan to use. The application must include the trademark, the products or services, the candidate's name and address with a power of attorney, and the date the mark was first used. The application must be submitted in Hindi or English. It has to be filed with the proper office[3].

Step 1: Search for trademarks

1. Many business owners are unaware of the significance of a TM search.
2. A distinctive brand name in mind is not a sufficient excuse to forego a TM search.
3. A TM search enables you to determine if comparable trademarks are in use, it offers you a realistic assessment of where your trademark stands, and sometimes it alerts you to the risk of trademark infringement lawsuit.
4. When you have the option to avoid time-consuming trademark litigation in the first place, why spend your money on it?

Step 2: Making a trademark application

1. One of 45 classes of trademark is selected based on the kind of goods.
2. If the selected brand name or logo is not already registered with the Trademark Registry of India, we might choose to register it.
3. The first step is to submit a trademark application either online or offline at the Trademark Registry India.
4. As soon as the application is submitted, an official receipt with the TM application number is sent for future use.

Step 3: Inspection

1. The test might take between 12 and 18 months.
2. The examiner may approve the trademark unconditionally, with conditions, or with objections.
3. The trademark is published in the Trademark Journal if it is approved without conditions.
4. If not approved without restrictions, the examination report would include the requirements that must be met or the objections that must be addressed, and one month would be granted to do so.
5. The trademark is published in the Trademark Journal if the answer is approved.
6. One may ask for a hearing if the answer is rejected. If the examiner decides at the hearing that the trademark deserves to be registered, publication in the Trademark Journal follows.

Fourth step: publication

1. The publishing phase is included in the trademark registration procedure so that anybody who objections to the trademark's registration has the chance to do so.
2. If there is no resistance three to four months after publication, the trademark is registered.
3. If there is objection, the Registrar conducts a fair hearing and renders a ruling.

Step 5: Registration Certificate

1. A registration certificate with the seal of the Trademark Office is issued after the application for trademark registration has been approved and has been published in the Trademark Journal.
2. Sixth Step: Renew.
3. Each ten years, the trademark may be renewed indefinitely. As a result, you may register your brand name or emblem to enjoy permanent protection.

The following papers must be provided when applying for a trademark registration: Identity and business proofs: The trademark owner or a person who has been given permission by the trademark owner must produce identification. It might be your driver's license, passport, ration card, or Aadhar card.

Using a logo with a tagline: If a trademark application is made for a tagline that merely contains words, a logo is not necessary. When a logo application is made, the logo must be presented in black and white. The logo must have precisely the same number of words as those listed in the trademark application.

1. Brand Name & Logo: The brand name must appear in the logo.
2. User Affidavit: If a specific user's data is sought, a user affidavit must be provided.

Documentary evidence containing the brand name, such as invoices, registration certificates, etc., must be provided to demand a certain user date. A partnership business or corporate entity may submit a certificate of registration in accordance with the MSME or Start-up India plan to get a 50% discount on the government charge[4].

Signed Form TM-48: M-48 is a valid form that gives your attorney permission to submit your trademark with the trademark registration on your behalf. Professionals from LW will create the paper before it is signed. Any State that is a signatory to the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property is eligible to join the Madrid Agreement and Protocol. States may abide by any of the two parallel and separate accords, or by both. An intergovernmental body that runs a separate office for the registration of marks is also eligible to join the Protocol. Depositing ratification or accession documents with the WIPO Director General is required. The term Contracting Parties refers to all nations and organizations that are a member of the Madrid system. By acquiring an international registration that is valid in all of the selected Contracting Parties, the method enables the protection of a mark across a wide range of nations.

Claims

When one party thinks that its intellectual property (IP) rights have been violated, that party may file an intellectual property lawsuit against the other party. Since India is a mixed market, many of its sectors adhere to the free market theory. In the market system, there is fierce rivalry. Any business that wants to succeed in the free market must have brand value and awareness. Trademarks are the easiest method for doing this. There are three reasons why trademarks are necessary to represent products or services:

- a. assisting customers in identifying the source.
- b. assisting customers in evaluating the quality.
- c. assisting customers in choosing a product.

What is infringement of a trademark?

Once a trademark has acquired such value, it must be safeguarded against exploitation and infringement by other parties. In India, trademarks are protected under the Trademarks Act, 1999. The Act establishes the guidelines for trademark registration, protection, and infringement penalties. All around the world, trademarks are considered to constitute intellectual property. Numerous national and international organizations work to safeguard intellectual rights like trademarks. The Indian Patent Office, which is overseen by the Controller General of Patents, Designs, and Trademarks, deals with the protection of trademarks in India. The illegal use of a mark that is identical to or confusingly similar to a registered trademark constitutes trademark infringement, to put it simply. When we say something is deceptively similar, we suggest that if a typical customer looked at the mark, they may not know where the products or services were from[5].

Trademark infringement types

There are two forms of trademark infringement to be aware of while researching them:

Direct infraction

Section 29 of the Act defines direct infringement. For a direct breach to happen, the following conditions must be satisfied:

Use by an Unauthorized Person: Accordingly, a trademark is only utilized in violation of its owner's rights when it is used by someone without that person's consent. Infringement is not committed if the mark is utilized with permission from the registered trademark owner.

Similar but not identical: The brand being used by the unauthorized party must either be similar but not identical to the registered trademark. The phrase deceptively similar in this context simply indicates that the average customer may misunderstand the marks and believe they are one and the same. Given that the key word in this sentence is may, it just needs to be shown that this is a possibility rather than that it will really occur. The possibility of mistakenly identifying the marks is sufficient to establish infringement. Only trademarks that have been

registered with India's trademark registration are covered by the Act's extension of protection. The common law of passing off is utilized to resolve disputes when an unregistered mark is violated. When harm or damage is done to the goodwill connected to the actions of another individual or group of people, tort law is used.

Class of goods or services: In order to violate a trademark, unauthorized use of the mark must be used to advertise products or services that belong to the same category as the trademark's registered class[6].

Unintentional infringement

Contrary to direct infringement, there is no particular provision in the Act that addresses indirect infringement. This does not imply that indirect infringement is exempt from accountability. The universal law concept is the source of indirect violation and its implementation. In addition to the primary perpetrator, it holds liable everyone who aids or counsels the direct offender to violate the law. Two different categories of indirect infringement exist:

Vicarious Liability: In accordance with Section 114 of the Act, the whole firm is responsible for any violations of the said Act. As a result, everyone who is accountable for the firm will be held liable for indirect infringement, with the exception of anybody who acts in good faith and without knowledge of the infringement.

The conditions for vicarious liability are: 1) The person has control over the actions of the principal infringer, 2) The person is aware of the infringing behavior and actively participates in it, and 3) The person may profit financially from the infringing behavior. The only circumstance that exempts a company from vicarious liability for infringement is when the company acted in good faith and was unaware of the infringing behavior.

Penalties for Infringing a Trademark

In India, trademark infringement is a cognizable crime, meaning that in addition to civil penalties, the offender may also be charged criminally. The registration of the trademark is also not necessary by Indian law for the initiation of civil or criminal actions. This is because of the passing off concept under common law, as was previously explained. A Trade Secret is a term used to describe the kind of knowledge that must be kept secret in order to maintain its competitive advantage. Any knowledge that is useful for running a company or other activity and is sufficiently valuable and secret to provide an actual or prospective competitive advantage is considered a trade secret. A recipe, a formula, a way of doing business, a client list, a pricing list, marketing strategies, financial projections, and a list of possible acquisition targets are all examples of trade secrets. Typically, for knowledge to be protected as a trade secret, it must:

1. Be useful.
2. not be made public.
3. be the target of reasonable measures to protect its confidentiality.

Due to the accelerated speed of technological advancement, the ease with which knowledge is now quickly distributed, and the mobility of staff, firms must make a major investment in trade

secret protection. Companies wouldn't be motivated to spend time, money, and effort on research and development that eventually benefits the general public if trade secrets were not legally protected. Trade secret laws encourage businesses to create innovative operating procedures and techniques while also discouraging dishonest behavior in the workplace by penalizing offenders[7].

Regulation of Trade Secrets by Law

There is no federal legislation pertaining to trade secrets, and no registration is necessary to acquire trade secret protection. In contrast to trademarks, copyrights, and patents, which are all subject to comprehensive federal legislative systems for their protection. The majority of trade secret law is derived from common law ideas, namely judge-made precedent. The 1837 decision in the first known trade secret lawsuit in the United States concerned chocolate manufacturing processes[8]. A definition of a trade secret was established by the Restatement of Torts in 1939 (a tort is a wrongdoing or a violation of a right), and many states used that term when creating their own body of case law. This resulted in more uniformity in the development of trade secrets legislation. In order to promote consistency across the states with respect to trade secrets legislation, the National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws also created the Uniform Trade Secrets Act (UTSA) in 1979. In 1985, the UTSA was modified. The UTSA has established the following definition of a trade secret:

1. A formula, pattern, compilation, program, device, method, technique, or process is considered to be a trade secret if it.
2. has autonomous economic worth, real or prospective, which is derived from the fact that it is not commonly known to and cannot be easily determined by others who may benefit economically from its disclosure or usage.
3. is the target of attempts to keep it secret that are acceptable under the circumstances.

Establishing the Status of Trade Secrets

Restatement of Torts 757 cwt. (wrongful conduct or right infringement). discusses six criteria that should be taken into account when deciding whether material qualifies as a trade secret. Courts often consider these elements when deciding whether the data of a firm qualifies as a trade secret. how widely the information is known outside of the business. The more individuals who know the knowledge, the less likely it is to qualify as a trade secret, even if it may be known to those outside the firm and still qualify. There is no need for total secrecy. how widely the knowledge is known inside the organization[9]. Even if it is legal for an employer or business to reveal private information where there is a clear need to know for it. It may not count as a trade secret if the knowledge is widely known inside the organization, particularly among individuals who have no need to know it. The extent of the steps the organization has taken to protect the confidentiality of the information

1. A person who wants to safeguard information as a trade secret must use appropriate security measures.
2. If a firm doesn't try to secure information, courts are unlikely to do so.

3. Although a business is expected to take reasonable care to secure information, excessive measures are not necessary.
4. According to some experts, courts will likely demand sophisticated security measures, such as encryption and procedures to assure secrecy, to safeguard trade secrets conveyed over email.

The amount to which the information is valuable to the business and its rivals. Information is less likely to qualify as a trade secret if it is of limited value to either its owner or the owner's rivals. Contrarily, information that is useful to a business and would be very valuable to its rivals, such the formula for its signature menu item, is more likely to be a trade secret that can be protected. how much money, time, and effort the firm invested in creating the material.

The likelihood that the knowledge will be regarded as a protectable trade secret increases with the amount of time, money, and effort the organization has invested in producing or obtaining it. How easy or difficult it would be for someone else to get or copy the information:

1. It is less probable that knowledge qualifies as a trade secret if it is simple to get or reproduce.
2. In a same vein, a piece of knowledge is less likely to be a trade secret if it is clearly observable or reproducible.
3. On the other hand, the item may continue to be classified as a trade secret if it can only be reverse engineered with a large investment of time, effort, and money[10].

CONCLUSION

Selecting and evaluating trademarks is a multifaceted process that requires careful consideration of various factors, from distinctiveness and availability to international considerations and legal implications. A well-chosen trademark can become a valuable asset, helping businesses build brand recognition, earn consumer trust, and establish a competitive edge. By investing time and resources into selecting and evaluating trademarks, businesses can make informed decisions that protect their brand identity and intellectual property rights.

Thorough trademark searches and legal assessments contribute to the overall success of a business by avoiding conflicts and potential infringement issues. Furthermore, a strong and protectable trademark lays the foundation for long-term brand growth, providing a solid platform for businesses to thrive in the competitive marketplace.

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CHAPTER 5

Liability for Misappropriation of Trade Secrets: Legal Implications and Safeguarding Intellectual Property

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper delves into the complex area of liability for misappropriation of trade secrets, focusing on the legal implications for businesses and individuals involved. Trade secrets, valuable proprietary information, are vital assets for companies seeking a competitive edge in the market. The study explores the elements of misappropriation, potential civil and criminal liabilities, and the importance of protecting trade secrets through confidentiality measures and legal agreements. By understanding the risks and consequences of trade secret misappropriation, businesses can take proactive steps to safeguard their intellectual property and seek remedies against those who unlawfully exploit confidential information.

KEYWORDS:

Intellectual Property, Liability, Patent, Trade Secrets.

INTRODUCTION

Businesses have a particular competitive edge because to the valuable intangible assets known as trade secrets. Their misuse may result in considerable monetary losses and reputational harm. The legal issues of culpability for trade secret misappropriation will be examined in this essay, along with the burden of evidence, potential remedies, and the need of taking preventative action to safeguard sensitive data. To identify protected knowledge and assess if misappropriation has taken place, it is crucial to comprehend what trade secrets are. Examining the factors necessary to establish the misappropriation of a trade secret, such as the improper acquisition, use, or disclosure of sensitive information [1]. Examining legal causes of action that may result from trade secret misuse, such as breach of contract, unjust enrichment, and tort claims. Investigating possible charges under the Economic Espionage Act or other state or federal statutes for stealing trade secrets.

Keeping Trade Secrets Safe

Measures to Protect Trade Secrets' Confidentiality: The significance of putting in place internal procedures, access restrictions, and non-disclosure agreements.

Employment Contracts: Including explicit language to ensure that workers are aware of their responsibilities related trade secret protection.

Litigation and Orders

For the purpose of obtaining compensation and halting future use of stolen trade secrets, legal action and injunctions may be considered. When someone utilizes inappropriate methods to get knowledge of a trade secret that belongs to another person and is in their possession, disclosure, or use without that person's explicit or implicit permission, it is considered misappropriation of a trade secret. knew or ought to have known that the trade secret had been obtained dishonestly. knew or ought to have known that the trade secret was obtained in a situation where maintaining its confidentiality was required. A violation of the obligation to preserve secret, bribery, theft, misrepresentation, espionage the practice of spying or the use of spies, often by governments to gather political and military intelligence, or other methods are all considered inappropriate means. Therefore, misappropriation happens either when a trade secret is illegally obtained and subsequently poorly exploited, or when it is obtained[2].

Lack of a Written Contract

Trade secrets of a corporation may be safeguarded against misappropriation even in the absence of a formal agreement between the parties. A written agreement forbidding the misuse of trade secrets can be enforced via a breach of contract lawsuit. A party that owns trade secrets may file a tort claim for violation of the obligation of secrecy, which may exist even in the absence of a written contract. Courts have consistently held that employees owe a duty of loyalty, fidelity, and responsibility to their employers. In fact, more trade agreements impose a duty of confidentiality on the parties when they are in a special relationship with one another, such as an agent-principal relationship which includes employer-employee relationships or other fiduciary involving trust, especially with regard to the relationship between a trustee and a beneficiary or good faith relationship. Similarly, if trade secret information were accidentally obtained by New Company, New Company would not be liable for any subsequent use or disclosure of the information if New Company had no reason to know the information was secret or that Mr. Lee might not reveal it.

Written Accord

Express agreements pertaining to the secrecy of information are often enforced by courts as long as they are reasonable, and employers are generally free to demand employees, independent contractors, and consultants to sign them.

1. Patents and Inventions.
2. Non-disclosure Agreement.
3. Restrictions on soliciting.
4. The Non-Competition Clause.
5. Defense of Submission.
6. Submission to Individuals.

Idea submission disputes frequently occur in the entertainment industry. In one instance, a person claimed that the producers of the Cosby Show an American comedian had stolen her idea. A court ruled that since there were no persons involved and the concept lacked concreteness, it

could not be protected. The answer to this conundrum is for the inventor to submit the idea in accordance with an evaluation agreement, or submission agreement, whereby the other party agrees to evaluate the idea only in order to consider a future transaction between the parties and further agrees to not sidestep the submitter or disclose the idea to third parties[3].

Submission to Public Sector Organizations

Private businesses are often obliged to provide sensitive or trade secret information to government entities when they submit bids in the hopes of winning a government contract. The plan might eventually be made available to any member of the public who requests it under the freedom of information legislation at both the state and federal levels, exposing sensitive information to potential rivals. If a government agency releases trade secret information, the owner may be entitled to compensation as a result of an unconstitutional take of their property if they reasonably expected the information to remain confidential.

Misappropriation Redress Procedures

A trade secret owner may ask a court for a number of remedies. In many circumstances, a trade secret owner is more concerned in ensuring that the defendant stops using the trade secret or is prevented from starting usage than in obtaining financial compensation. A court may order an injunction if monetary damages are insufficient to safeguard the owner of a trade secret. In order to force the defendant to hand over or delete trade secret information, a court may also issue an injunction. Even if a former employer cannot prove that a specific secret has been stolen, courts may impose injunctions to prevent imminent revelation since it is certain that critical personnel will ultimately reveal what they know to a new employer[4].

Owners of trade secrets who have had their knowledge misused may seek monetary compensation from the defendant. Both the profits earned by the defendant and the plaintiff may be recovered. An alternative is for the plaintiff to demand and win a fair royalty on the defendant's use of the trade secret. Punitive damages may also be granted where the defendant's actions were careless, deliberate, and willful. According to the USTA, punitive damages cannot be twice as much as compensatory damages. In most circumstances, the parties are responsible for covering their own legal fees and expenses. However, the UTSA stipulates that if bad faith or willfulness is shown, the successful party may be granted appropriate legal expenses and costs.

Trade Secret Court Cases

If a written confidentiality agreement is broken and a disagreement cannot be settled between the parties, a breach of contract action may be filed, just like any other breach of contract action, if a trade secret is divulged. Other grounds of action may be added by the plaintiff, such as misappropriation in violation of a state trade secret legislation. In the absence of a formal agreement, the plaintiff must rely on existing case law, state trade secret laws, or both. Companies should require new employees who will have access to confidential information to acknowledge in writing that accepting employment with the new company does not violate any other agreements or violate any other obligations of confidentiality to which the employee may be subject in order to protect themselves from a lawsuit by another alleging trade secret

violation. The Federal Rules of Civil Procedure for federal civil actions normally will apply to the case in federal court. The majority of states have civil process laws that regulate litigation and are mostly based on the Federal Rules of Civil process[5]. If the defendant has a claim against the plaintiff based on the trade secret, it must be made as a counterclaim in the lawsuit in order for any disagreements between the parties about the knowledge to be settled concurrently. Various motions may be made after the filing of the complaint, response, and counterclaim. There will be some discovery. Depositions will be taken by the plaintiff and defendant in order to gather testimony from potential witnesses.

The case will ultimately go to trial if a private arrangement cannot be reached. A majority of the evidence must support misappropriation, according to the owner of the trade secret. In the absence of a request for a jury trial, a judge will make the decision. There could be appeals. One of the challenging difficulties in trade secret litigation is that the trade secret that is being protected often has to be revealed in order for the judge or jury to assess whether the knowledge is valuable enough to provide its owner a competitive advantage. To assess whether the owner has taken reasonable precautions to preserve the claimed trade secrets, the fact-finder often needs to know how the owner is securing the information. Owners of trade secrets are forced to reveal the same knowledge they are trying to preserve, which presents a problem. Trade secret litigation is becoming into a widespread and high-stakes profession as technology advances and the value of certain ideas in communication and entertainment rises.

Programs for Protecting Trade Secrets

Companies should create trade secret protection plans to secure important information since trade secrets are legally fragile and may be lost via unintentional disclosure or a failure to adequately protect them. Businesses should pay close attention to the procedures employed to preserve information secrecy since trade secret protection might endure for an unlimited period of time. It is simple to show a court that an owner appreciates their knowledge and takes the necessary precautions to preserve its confidentiality by creating programs and methods to safeguard trade secret[6].

Physical Defense

There are several practical steps a business may take to safeguard trade secrets, such as the following:

1. Information protection behind closed doors.
2. Preventing unauthorized access to the data.
3. Preventing the removal of sensitive information from the business's property or certain areas.
4. Preserving proper security with alarm systems or security services during the evenings and weekends.

ensuring that visitors are not exposed to sensitive procedures or information during tours of the company's facilities. when important equipment or information is relocated from its usual place, check-out lists are used. Keeping an eye on how staff members use email and the Internet to

make sure private information isn't leaked. Information kept on computers is protected by antivirus software and encryption technologies. Inform staff members on the need to preserve trade secrets, ensuring that data stored on PCs is only accessible via corporate networks so that access can be readily monitored. The majority of businesses won't be required to take all of the aforementioned precautions. Courts do not mandate complete confidentiality or the use of drastic measures to safeguard information. Instead, reasonable safeguards will be enough to preserve information's status as trade secrets[7].

Contractual Defense

Another way to preserve trade secrets is via a written contract that requires everyone with access to the knowledge to promise not to share it with anyone else or use it against the owner's interests. Similar to this, in licensing agreements, owners of trade secrets should make sure the license agreements provide enough security for trade secret data. Employers should include non-compete clauses in contracts to guarantee that former workers do not use information they learned while working for them to subsequently compete with them. Employers are now worried about the loss of trade secrets due to the Internet's widespread use and the ease with which electronic interactions may now be conducted. According to one opinion, once a trade secret is exposed online, it becomes essentially part of the public domain and is unrecoverable. In order to secure trade secrets, businesses may also depend on other supplemental measures of protection. Any content that is eligible for copyright protection should be registered, or at the very least, it should have a copyright notice on it informing others of the owner's rights and ownership of the item.

Geographical Markers

A sui generis Act of the Indian Parliament established the Geographical indicators of Goods (Registration and Protection) Act, 1999 (GI Act) to protect geographical indicators in India. The Act was passed by India in order to comply with the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) as a WTO member. The GI tag makes sure that the well-known brand name may only be used by people who have registered as authorized users, or at the very least, those who live in the designated geographical area. Geographical indication is defined in section 2 (1)(e) of the Act as an indication that designates such goods as agricultural goods, natural goods, or manufactured goods as originating, or manufactured in the territory of a country, or a region or locality in that territory, where a given quality, reputation, or other characteristic of such goods is essentially attributable to its geographical origin and in case such goods are manufactured goods on the territory of a country.

Registering Procedure

Any group of people or producers, any organization or body created by or under any legislation now in effect representing the interest of the producers of the relevant commodities, shall submit an application for registration to the Registrar of Geographical Indications[8]. The application must be submitted on the proper form and include information about the product's nature, quality, reputation, or other characteristics that can be attributed solely or primarily to its geographic environment, manufacturing process, environmental factors, and human factors, as

well as a map of the production area, a list of the producers, and the required fees. If there are any problems found during the preliminary examination, the applicants have one month from the date of notification to correct them. The application may be fully or partly accepted by the Registrar. In the event of a denial, the Registrar will provide written reasons. The applicant must provide a response within two months. In the event of a second denial, the applicant has one month from the date of the decision to file an appeal. Within three months of approval, the registrar must publish an announcement about the application in the GI Journal. The Registrar will provide the applicant and authorized users a certificate of registration if there is no resistance.

Duration

A GI is registered for a first ten-year term, which may be periodically renewed. Agricultural products like Darjeeling tea, Malabar pepper, and Bangalore Blue grapes are a some of the geographical indicators that have been recognized, as well as manufactured items like Pochampalli ikat, Kanchipuram silk saris, Solapuri chaddars, Bagh prints, and Madhubani paintings. List of Geographical Indications in India has a more comprehensive list.

A registration's and an infringement's effects

When a GI is registered, only the owner and authorized users are permitted to use the indicators on the registered product. Additionally, registration grants the right to file a lawsuit for infringement and receive damages for such infringement. Use of the GI on such items that represents a location other than the genuine place of origin or unfair competition may also constitute infringement. However, a passing off lawsuit may be brought against unregistered GIs. Prima facie proof of the ownership and validity of the indication is provided by registration. Except in cases where the mark is inherited upon the death of an authorized user, the registration cannot be sold, mortgaged, assigned, or leased[9].

Any person who falsely uses or fabricates a geographical indication, tampers with the provenance of a good, makes or has in their possession dye, blocks, or machinery that could be used to fabricate a GI could be punished with a minimum jail sentence of six months and a maximum fine of two lakh (200,000) rupees. If a person commits a second or subsequent offense, they may be sentenced to a period of imprisonment of at least one year but no more than three years, as well as a fine of at least one lakh rupees but no more than two lakh rupees. The court may, however, lessen the penalty if specific conditions are met, and the justifications must be included in the ruling. Other offenses include making false claims that a GI is registered, making fraudulent entries in a register, and making false claims that a location is associated with the GI Registry[10].

CONCLUSION

For companies looking to secure their intellectual property, liability for trade secret theft is a major worry. It may be difficult and complicated to prove misappropriation and pursue remedies, which emphasizes the need of taking preventative precautions to protect sensitive information. By being aware of the legal repercussions of trade secret misuse, companies may take action to

foster a culture of secrecy, inform staff members of their duties, and set up robust contractual safeguards. A thorough strategy for preserving trade secrets and protecting against illegal use combines these efforts with the potential for legal action. Businesses face serious dangers from trade secret theft, therefore it's crucial to comprehend the associated legal ramifications and the methods for protecting intellectual property. Businesses may successfully safeguard their trade secrets and maintain their competitive edge in the dynamic and competitive business environment by taking attentive protection measures and legal recourse.

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CHAPTER 6

Copyrights: Preserving Creative Expression and Protecting Intellectual Property Rights

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper explores the concept of copyrights and their role in safeguarding creative expression and intellectual property rights. Copyrights are legal protections granted to original works of authorship, including literary, artistic, musical, and dramatic creations.

The study delves into the scope and duration of copyright protection, the rights granted to creators, and the importance of copyright in promoting innovation and cultural enrichment. Additionally, the paper examines the challenges of digital copyright in the digital age and the balance between copyright protection and access to knowledge. By understanding the significance of copyrights, stakeholders can appreciate the value of creative works and foster a sustainable environment for artists and creators.

KEYWORDS:

Copyrights, Intellectual Property, Patent, Copyright, Knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

Copyrights are essential for maintaining and promoting artistic expression in society. Copyrights promote the creation of varied and unique works, enhancing culture and furthering human understanding by giving artists exclusive rights.

In-depth research of copyrights, their legal underpinnings, and their ramifications for authors, customers, and society at large are the goals of this essay. Protecting intellectual property rights while preserving creative expression is known as copyrighting.

Copyright Protection's Purpose and Duration

To guarantee equitable compensation for authors, the many types of works that are eligible for copyright protection including literary, artistic, musical, and dramatic works as well as the length of copyright protection are examined[1].

Given Rights and Protections

Recognizing the collection of exclusive rights given to copyright holders to manage the use of their works, including reproduction, distribution, public performance, and adaptation.

Encouragement of Creativity and Cultural Enrichment

highlighting the crucial role that copyrights play in nurturing innovation, a dynamic cultural environment, and the financial security of artists and innovators.

Problems with digital copyright

The Digital Age and Digital Copyright

examining the difficulties and complications of copyright protection in the digital sphere, such as problems with online theft, unlawful distribution, and content sharing websites.

Access to knowledge and copyright protection in balance

examining the difficult balancing act between enabling fair access to knowledge and information for educational and research purposes and safeguarding the rights of copyright holders. Fundamentals of copyright law, originality of the work, reproduction rights, public performance rights, ownership concerns, and notification of copyright are all covered by this term.

Patents: The fundamentals of patent law, the patent application procedure, and the essential requirements for patentability
Industrial Designs: The kind of protection offered by industrial designs
The concept of copyright was not understood until the printing press was invented, which made the mass production of books feasible. In the past, creative individuals such as musicians, artists, and writers created, composed, or wrote their works for fame and recognition rather than to support themselves.

Definition of copyright

A copyright is a use privilege granted by the law to the author of a literary, theatrical, musical, artistic work, software, etc. for a certain amount of time. The copyright Act of 1957 governs all copyright laws in India. A copyright is an exclusive right, and its most recent revision was introduced in 2012. The ability to restrict others from copying, selling, performing, exhibiting, or creating derivative works of an author's work is granted to the owner[2].

Exclusive ownership of the copyrights

The totality of the legal privileges that a copyright owner has the only authority to exercise. These rights include:

1. The ability to duplicate or replicate the work.
2. The authority to create derived works.
3. The ability to share copies of the work with others.
4. The ability to carry out the task.
5. The ability to exhibit the work.

Copyright Act, 1957: The term Copyright Act refers to legislation that controls how the work of a creator, such as an author or artist, may be used. This involves reproducing, disseminating, modifying, and exhibiting artistic, literary, and other works. The author or creator of a work

maintains the copyright unless otherwise specified in a contract. Titles by themselves, names, brief word combinations, slogans, short phrases, techniques, storylines, or factual information are often not protected by copyright.

Necessity of Copyrights:

1. It grants you the only authority to copy, duplicate, or transform the work.
2. Registration lets everyone know that the work is yours.
3. You are entitled to financial damages if you win an infringement lawsuit.
4. Duration of Copyright
5. Depending on the kind of employment, it might be 60 years old in India.

When a literary, theatrical, musical, or artistic work other than a photograph is published during the author's lifetime, the copyright for that work is preserved for the duration of that author's lifetime plus 60 years. It is 60 years from the date of publication for pictures, cinematograph films, and sound recordings. The duration of the copyright is 60 years from the date of publication when the initial owner is the government or a public undertaking. The legislation grants the makers of cinematograph films and sound recordings, as well as authors of literary, theatrical, musical, and aesthetic works, the right to use the term copyright. In actuality, it is a collection of rights that includes, among other things, the rights to the work's adaptation, translation, and public communication. It refers to the exclusive right to create or replicate the work, or any significant portion thereof, in any kind of physical form. According to Section 14 of the Act, copyright refers to the exclusive right to do or authorize the performance of the following actions in relation to a work or any significant portion thereof. For any literary, theatrical, or musical composition apart from computer programs:

1. Copying the work in any tangible form, including storing it electronically on any media.
2. Making available to the public copies of the work that aren't currently in use.
3. Presenting the work to the public or performing it in front of them.
4. Producing a cinematograph video or audio recording about the work. Translating or adapting the work. Additionally, if the work is translated or adapted, any of the aforementioned actions in respect to the work may be carried out [3].

When referring to a computer program

To carry out any of the aforementioned actions in relation to a written, performed, or musical composition, and to offer to sell or otherwise make a copy of the computer program available for commercial rental or sale. For computer programs when the software itself is not the primary aim of the rental, however, such commercial renting does not apply.

Originality of the content

There are three fundamental prerequisites for copyright proficiency:

1. An original work is required.
2. An expression of a work must be set in a concrete form.
3. A work must be an original creation.

Material must be original in order to qualify for copyright protection. This means that it has to be independently produced and exhibit some degree of ingenuity. Originality is a must, but don't mix it with innovation, merit, or aesthetic appeal. The condition is that the content must be original to the author and not just a copy or a little modification of an earlier work. Even if a piece of art is eerily close to or identical to another, it may still be considered unique. The sole requirement of the Copyright Act is originality, or independent authorial production. A work may be original even if it closely resembles previous works as long as the resemblance is accidental and not the product of copying. Originality does not equate to novelty. Consider two poets who write similar poetry but are unaware of one another as an example. Although neither piece is a novel, they are both unique and hence copyrightable. Thus, originality does not imply first but rather independently created as opposed to being a copy of anything else[4].

Material Fixation

A work is considered fixed under the Copyright Act when it is embodied in a copy or phonorecord and is sufficiently stable or permanent to allow it to be perceived, reproduced, or communicated for a period of time longer than a momentary duration. Thus, copies and phonorecords are the two types of physical manifestation in which works may be fixed. A copy is a tangible thing that allows for the perception, reproduction, or communication of a work, either directly via human perception or with the aid of a machine. A phonorecord is a tangible item where sounds are fixed and may be heard, reproduced, or transmitted by either direct human perception or mechanical assistance.

Rights to Ownership in Joint Works

When two or more people collaborate to create a single work, they each have an equal undivided stake in the copyright as a tenant in common and are free to use the work, create derivative works, and show it without the other coauthor's consent. If any profits result from such usage, an accounting must be undertaken to ensure that each author receives a portion of the gains. When a coauthor passes away, his or her rights are transferred to heirs, who then jointly possess the rights with the other coauthor.

Derivative or collective work ownership

Only the creator of the original work has rights to it. The author of the derivative work is not permitted to reproduce or perform the derivative work. The development of a book by one person with the aim that it be finished at the time, and then another person subsequently adds illustrations to it, does not constitute a collaborative effort since neither party intended to produce a cohesive whole while the work was being made. The creator of the derivative work is not allowed to copy the original work or use it as the basis for other works without authorization. If distinct copyrighted works are combined into a collection, several owner's rights may also become evident[5]. The copyright law establishes a category of works known as works done for hire, which is an exception to the general rule that the person who produces a work is the author of that work and the owner of the copyright therein. When a work is made for hire, the author is not the employee or the person who actually created the work; it is regarded as the employer or commissioning party.

1. A person or a business might serve as the employer or commissioning party.
2. Works created by an employer as part of their job duties and a few specific sorts of explicitly requested or commissioned works are both categorized as works produced for hire.

Registration of Copyright

A piece of art is considered to have been created when it is first recorded on a copy or phonograph. Although it is not necessary to register copyright with the Copyright Office in order to give copyright protection for a work, doing so has a number of benefits, not the least of which is that doing so is a requirement in order to file a claim of infringement for works having US origins. The Copyright Office must have received the following three items from the applicant before it may register a work: a duly filled-out application form, a filing fee, and a deposit of the work being registered. A registration may be done at any point throughout the copyright's lifespan[6].

The Copy Right Registration Application

The following individuals are eligible to file an application for copyright registration:

1. The author is either the individual who actually produced the work, the employer or commissioning party in the case of a work done for hire, or both.
2. The party making the copyright claim may be the author or another person or entity who has acquired ownership of all the rights that were formerly the authors under the copyright, such as a transferee.
3. The person who makes a movie based on an earlier book may submit an application for the newly formed derivative work, the movie. This person may be the owner of an exclusive right, such as the transferee of any of the exclusive rights of copyright ownership.
4. The properly authorized representative of the author, claimant, or owner of exclusive rights, such as a trustee, an attorney, or another person with such party's permission.

Patents

An innovation, product, method, design, or improvements on such goods may only be made, sold, used, imported, or improved upon within the specified time period covered by a patent awarded by the government. These formidable monopoly rights are exclusive, and in exchange the creator must provide a written description of the innovation. The finished product is only a textual explanation of the innovation that is supported by diagrams and drawings. The whole public gains since anybody may study the invention's specifications and improve upon it. It's essential that the patent not only clarifies the boundaries of the innovation but also enables the general public to comprehend it. The patent-protected technology enters the public domain and is effectively open to use by the general public after the patent period ends typically 20 years from the application filing date.

Different Patents

Utility patents, design patents, and plant patents are the three primary categories of patents.

Most people think of utility patents when they think of patents, and for good reason. A utility patent is a kind of patent that protects innovations, such as novel software processes, novel products that differ from existing ones, and improvements to automobile engines. Any brand-new, beneficial, and non-obvious procedure or thing is eligible for a utility patent. A design patent protects a brand-new, unique decorative design for a product. In other words, a design patent protects a product's aesthetic appeal. Products like jewelry and watches, electronics, computer icons, and beverage containers are examples of those covered by design patents. A design patent, if it has one at all, is composed mostly of multiple drawings that depict a product from different perspectives[7].

Plant Patents: Luther Burbank introduced the Patent Act of 1930, which established the first plant patents to safeguard novel kinds of plants that reproduce asexually, mostly flowers. These are distinct from the utility patents given to agriculturally useful bioengineered plants. The United States was the first nation to give plant patents, and many nations still do not offer protection to plants today. In fact, certain parties to the TRIPS agreement, which is overseen by the World Trade Organization (WTO), retain the authority to refuse patents for plants.

Plant patents are only given to protect novel, distinctive, and non-obvious varieties of asexually reproduced plants, which are those grown without the use of seeds but rather through grafting, budding, or cutting. In order to be patentable, plants must be grown in a controlled environment as opposed to being found in the wild. For a plant to be eligible for a patent, it need only be unique in terms of its color, habit, soil, taste, productivity, shape, or other characteristics.

Legal Basis for Patents

The primary goal of patents was to promote fresh scientific discovery, innovative technology, and industrial development. Patent law gives the inventor a monopoly on the use of their patented goods and permits others to use it with their permission and for a fee[8]. A patent gives the inventor the authority to produce, use, market, sell, and import the invention for the predetermined time. In other words, the patent holder has the exclusive authority to prohibit or halt anyone from making use of the protected innovation for commercial purposes. Without the permission of the patent holder, the innovation cannot be produced, utilized, disseminated, imported, or sold for a profit. It safeguards against patent infringement, meaning that the original inventor may take legal action against any products that attempt to copy their innovation or infringe on a patent that has already been issued.

Patent Lookup

In order to find any patent applications that are identical to or comparable to an invention that is to be patented, one must do a patent search of the patent database. A patent search may be conducted to increase the likelihood of obtaining a patent registration or to learn more about recent innovations that are covered by patents. A patent search before submitting a patent application may assist with a number of goals, including:

1. Calculating the likelihood that a proposed innovation will be awarded a patent.
2. Selecting the patent application's claims to be submitted.
3. Determining the degree of autonomy.
4. Figuring out if a patent that has been awarded may be revoked.
5. Learning more about comparable ideas and the status of comparable patent applications.

The user has access to changing the category via a drop-down menu that appears for the whole category. The user may enter the keyword of the patent he wants to examine in the search box that is located next to each category. A highly specific patent search may be performed by the applicant by entering a query in more than one box. The user must clear a captcha code after entering the necessary terms in the appropriate areas[9].

Data about patents

After the user enters the code, a number of relevant patent results are returned for their provided patent search query. The application number, title, application date, and status are shown in the document when you pick an application. By selecting the Application Number, Title, Application Date, and Status, the user may learn more information about the patent. The applicant may get the following facts about the patent by doing a patent search:

Inventor's name

1. Publication Identifier.
2. Date of Publication.
3. Type of Publication.
4. Application ID.
5. Date of Application Filing.
6. Priority No.
7. Priority Nation.
8. Important Date

Classification of Invention Fields

The user may see information about each portion of the patent application by selecting a column. Details like the Invention Title, Publication Number, Date, Type, etc. are selected when a user picks an application number. The user may find the Name, Address, Country, and Nationality of the applicant and the inventor in separate columns.

Invention Status

The user may examine the summary of the patent application in the Abstract column. If the user has given any specifications, there is a detailed specification that provides those specifics under this. An option to examine the status of the application is available at the conclusion. The user may see the information of the program after it is opened.

Fundamental Standards for Patentability

An invention could meet the requirements for originality, creativity, and utility, yet it might not be eligible for a patent under the following circumstances:

A frivolous creation or one that makes claims that are blatantly at odds with well-known natural rules. An innovation whose main or intended use, or commercial exploitation of it, could violate morals or public order, or which gravely harms the environment, human, animal, or plant life. the simple articulation of an abstract idea, the finding of any live being or non-living object happening in nature, or the discovery of a scientific concept. merely using a known process, machine, or apparatus without producing a novel product or using at least one novel reactant. merely discovering a new form of a known substance that does not improve its known efficacy. merely discovering any new property or application for a known substance.

Explanation: For the purposes of this clause, salts, esters, ethers, polymorphs, metabolites, pure forms, particle sizes, isomers, mixtures of isomers, complexes, combinations, and other derivatives of known substances shall be considered to be the same substance, unless their properties significantly differ with regard to efficacy. A procedure for making such a material or one created by simple mixing that just aggregates the qualities of its constituent parts. the simple organization, re-arrangement, or duplication of known devices, each of which operates separately and in a known manner.

A horticultural or agricultural technique

Any method used to cure humans or animals to make them disease-free or to boost their economic worth or the value of their products. This includes medical, surgical, curative, prophylactic diagnostic, therapeutic, and other treatments. All forms of plants and animals, except microbes, including seeds, species, varieties, and fundamentally biological processes used in the creation or division of plants and animals. a technique used in business or mathematics, a computer program in and of itself, or algorithms. Any kind of aesthetic creation, such as a literary, theatrical, musical, or artistic work, including films and television shows. just a plan, rule, or strategy for doing out an act of the mind or a game. An innovation that effectively duplicates or aggregates previously known qualities of a component or components that are well-known in the field.

Commercial Designs

The industrial design category of intellectual property rights (IPR) is one of the most significant ones. Because it offers them a competitive advantage in the market and takes a lot of time and effort to create, companies go to great lengths to safeguard industrial design. There would be no motivation to create new methods of enhancing things if rivals were permitted to duplicate the industrial design without the owner's agreement. It will prevent innovation from happening. Industrial design intellectual property rights are essential for a contemporary economy; thus it makes sense. The World Intellectual Property Rights Organization (WIPO) states that any three-dimensional shape or combination of lines and colors may make a distinctive imprint on a product. They may be created in large numbers while retaining the essential qualities of a

practical item's decorative or aesthetic component, which often appeals to the sight and touch senses. Several items, including packaging, lighting, jewelry, electrical goods, textiles, and even trademarks are covered under industrial design protection. The following conditions must be met for a design to be eligible for protection:

1. It needs to be fresh and unique.
2. It ought to apply to a useful article.
3. It should be discernible on the final product.
4. It ought to be obscure.
5. The design shouldn't have been published or disclosed beforehand.

Protection type offered by industrial design

In general, the owner of a registered industrial design or a design patent has the right to stop others from producing, importing, or selling products that bear or incorporate a design that is a copy, or nearly a copy, of the protected design when such actions are carried out for profit. The Designs Act of 2000 protects industrial design intellectual property rights in India. The Design Act of 2000 in India was passed in order to comply with articles 25 and 26 of the Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) agreement, as well as to codify and revise the legislation governing design protection. The earlier Patent and Design Act of 1911 was replaced by the new act, which limits the definition of design to the features of shape, configuration, pattern, ornament, or composition of lines or colors applied to any article, whether in two-dimensional or three-dimensional form, or in both forms, by any industrial process or means, whether manual or mechanical or chemical, separate or combined, and which in the finished article appeal to and are judged solely by the eye. but does not include: Accordingly, registration grants the owner of the design copyright, or the only right, to apply the design to a product falling within the class for which it is registered. Every registered model has a position in the Kolkata Register of Designs. This information comprises the design number, class number, filing date, owner's name and address, and so forth.

Industrial design protection benefits

The use of IPR in industrial design has various advantages. It is prudent to comprehend them,

Financial gain: The owner of the design right would have the greatest financial gain as a result. As we previously discussed, businesses invest a lot of money to obtain an advantage over rivals, and successful design may increase profits.

Unique selling proposition: Businesses may get an advantage in a cutthroat market by having a product that stands out or is distinctive in terms of appearance and feel. Consumers often focus their buying choices on how something looks. With the use of industrial design protection, businesses can safeguard their USP and effectively differentiate their products.

Selling designs: If a corporation can't earn money from a produced design directly, they may sell it to other people and benefit off the design's potential.

Image: Design protection contributes to a company's good reputation. Industrial designs are seen as important corporate assets and may even raise a company's stock price, which in turn aids in product sales. High-level IPR protection is provided in industrial design by the legislation. However, owing to lax enforcement, design rights violation is fairly frequent in India. The urge to steal designs increases as the level of competition rises. Therefore, it is essential that the government enforce design rights with more rigor. For their part, businesses should be aware of their rights and take aggressive steps to preserve them[10].

CONCLUSION

The preservation of creative expression and the defense of artists' intellectual property rights depend heavily on copyrights. Copyrights encourage creativity and enhance society's cultural legacy by giving writers, artists, and inventors exclusive rights. The rapid reproduction and dissemination of digital information raises questions regarding copyright infringement, however, and the digital era brings with it new difficulties. Policymakers and stakeholders must work together to create efficient copyright enforcement measures while encouraging open access efforts for the benefit of the public in order to strike a balance between copyright protection and information access. Copyrights are essential for promoting innovation, enhancing culture, and protecting the many ways in which people express their ideas and imagination. Society can promote a vibrant atmosphere for ingenuity, innovation, and creative efforts by recognizing and protecting copyrights. Maintaining the fundamentals of copyright protection is crucial to maintaining a vibrant and dynamic cultural environment that benefits both artists and consumers while tackling the problems of the digital age.

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CHAPTER 7

Managing Intellectual Property Rights: Strategies for Protection and Value Maximization

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper examines the importance of managing Intellectual Property (IP) rights as a crucial aspect of business strategy and value creation. IP rights, including patents, trademarks, copyrights, and trade secrets, are valuable intangible assets that can provide a competitive advantage and generate significant revenue. The study explores effective IP management practices, such as IP portfolio development, enforcement, licensing, and collaboration. Additionally, the paper analyzes the role of IP in driving innovation, attracting investment, and fostering partnerships. By understanding the significance of managing IP rights, businesses can leverage their intellectual assets to achieve sustainable growth and remain competitive in the global market.

KEYWORDS:

Businesses, Intellectual Property Rights, Patent, Risk Management, Trade Secrets.

INTRODUCTION

Intellectual property rights are important resources that have a big influence on a company's performance and competitiveness. To preserve their ideas, creative works, and distinctive identities, organizations must manage their intellectual property (IP) properly. This essay tries to explore the many facets of maintaining intellectual property rights while emphasizing the tactics and advantages that result from efficient IP management.

The control of intellectual property rights

Developing an IP portfolio entails locating, purchasing, and safeguarding a variety of IP assets that are suited to the objectives of the company and the marketplace. Implementing enforcement tactics, such as keeping an eye out for violations and taking legal action when required, protects against unlawful use and diluting the value of IP. While retaining ownership over IP assets, licensing IP to other parties may open up new income streams and cooperation possibilities[1].

The Impact of IP on Business Development

Strong IP protection encourages firms to invest in R&D, which results in technical improvements and better goods and services. This promotes innovation and research. A strong IP portfolio improves a company's legitimacy and appeal to investors, making it easier for the business to get funds for development and growth. Attracting Investment and Funding. IP may act as a catalyst

for the formation of strategic alliances and partnerships, giving companies access to new markets and enhancing existing product offers. Non-disclosure agreement, stop and desist letter, settlement memorandum. Managing IP Rights: letters of instruction, joint cooperation agreement. IP Rights Transfer. Assignment Contract, License Agreement, and Assignment Deed.

Taking care of IP Rights

Intellectual property (IP) is a crucial factor in everyday business choices in today's knowledge-driven economy. As a consequence of ongoing human invention and creativity, new goods, names, and innovative designs may be seen virtually every day on the market. Small and medium-sized businesses in India often lack an understanding of the value of their intellectual property assets or are unaware of the intellectual property system or the protection that it may provide for their creations, trademarks, and ideas. Since intellectual property is a significant component of a company's assets, it must be well protected in order to prevent possible infringement and transform concepts into commercial assets with true market worth. In reality, the intellectual property system gives businesses the opportunity to capitalize on their ingenuity and innovation and raise their level of competitiveness. Companies that invest time and money in securing their intellectual property can become more competitive in a variety of ways, including by preventing rivals from copying or closely imitating their goods or services, avoiding unnecessary spending on R&D and marketing, establishing a distinctive corporate identity through trademark and branding use, and negotiating licensing, franchising, or other intellectual property-based contractual agreements.

Effective IPR Management Strategies: Implementing a thorough asset management strategy is necessary for the efficient administration of intellectual property assets. Identifying and locating the company's major intellectual property assets, such as patents, patentable subject matter, copyrights, trademarks, designs, trade secrets, domain names, and masks, is one of the most crucial steps in this process [2]. Depending on the kind of company, works, innovations, literary works, hardware, and gadgets. The type and extent of the company's rights in intellectual property assets, which may vary from full ownership to a license-including contingent rights in intellectual property to be created in the future-must be determined after the intellectual property assets have been recognized. In order to capitalize on intellectual property assets that have been identified, a most constructive approach must be taken, keeping in mind, among other things, the type of intellectual property assets, the type of business that claims ownership of the intellectual property assets, and the long- and short-term goals of the business organization, including any intended or potential uses of the intellectual property assets.

Intellectual Property - Risk Management: Having ownership and control over intellectual property exposes one to specific risks, which necessitates the development of mitigation techniques and plans. The risk management strategy should consider situations where the company's own Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs) may infringe the IPRs of a third party. the company has a valid claim of infringement against a third party. This risk is the most significant among the others. The breadth of any grant of rights in intellectual property assets, such as licensing, distribution agreements, reseller arrangements, and any other agreement or transaction involving the transfer of IPRs that might affect its value, should also be carefully considered.

Setting up a system that requires all new workers and consultants to sign a confidentiality agreement is one of the most crucial IPR risk management strategies, especially in regards to trade secrets. When an employee leaves an organization and exposes their IPRs to a new employer, the firm is able to prove ownership of the IPRs. It also makes it easier for the company to successfully dispute infringement. In a word, good intellectual property management helps businesses to exploit their intellectual property to increase their strategic advantage and competitiveness. A company's patents, trademarks, designs, copyright, and other related rights need to be protected, but efficient management of intellectual property goes well beyond that. Commercializing ideas and successfully managing and enforcing intellectual property rights are both necessary for good intellectual property management. In fact, a company's intellectual property portfolio has to be seen as a collection of important assets that significantly boost the enterprise's worth. In order to ensure sustainable company development and maximize shareholder value, which in turn leads to economic growth, good management of intellectual property may be considered as a vital business strategy[3].

Keeping IP Rights Safe

In today's dynamic and competitive business climate, intellectual property rights are essential components required to retain a competitive advantage in the market. An essential component of the business process and a corporate asset is intellectual property. In today's commercial world, successful acquisition, administration, and protection of intellectual property may be the difference between success and failure. To gain the best potential commercial outcomes from owning this precious asset, it is crucial that businesses take the necessary precautions to maintain it. The many laws that have been passed provide intellectual property rights an acceptable level of protection. In the case of patents, a patent may provide an inventor or corporation a 20-year, officially sanctioned monopoly, after which time the invention may be freely used for the benefit of society. As confidential or trade secrets, for example, some innovators choose not to patent their ideas. [Today, more than ever, intellectual property also includes confidential business information, trade secrets, know-how, and key business relationships. A product or concept may always have a monopoly if a trade secret is maintained really confidential. However, once the genie is out of the bottle, like a champagne cork, it is gone forever and the businesses are unlikely to be able to recover enough damages from the person who violates confidentiality.

Just keep the secret from being revealed, and trade secrets remain free. Although it is challenging, it is not impossible. The formula for Coca-Cola and the creation of the alcoholic drink Chartreuse, which is solely known to two monks, are two famous instances of successful inventions. It is more important than ever to safeguard these important resources. The most important strategic differentiation today is knowledge. If something has value to the business, it also has value to rivals. The majority of intelligent businesses, whether small, medium-sized, or big, understand the need of safeguarding this important intellectual property. However, these fewer formal forms of intellectual property get very little actual attention when it comes to protection or security. It has been noted that a surprising number of businesses are unaware that these crucial intellectual assets are leaving their front doors every day, every week, or every month to go work for competing rivals across the street[4].

DISCUSSION

Nondisclosure Accord

The two main ways that private information or trade secrets get leaked to rivals or other parties are disclosure and departure. Trade secrets may be accidentally or knowingly revealed through negligent or intentional disclosure by corporate officials to rivals or other parties. An example would be a meeting between a salesperson or account manager and a possible supply chain to discuss pooling resources to pursue a new market or business opportunity. Confidential and private information is revealed during the meeting. Although sharing or exchanging information for business purposes may be perfectly lawful, the consequences of doing so without the protection of a confidentiality or non-disclosure agreement might be fatal. No commercial conversations with third parties whether or not they are direct rivals may take conducted without first confirming that they have a signed Confidentiality or Non-Disclosure Agreement in place. This must be both a company policy and a business practice.

Exit: The departure of executives or other important people from the company is another reason for the leaking of sensitive business data. The employee maintains the right to utilize whatever general skills, experience, and information he has gained while carrying out his regular tasks in order to continue making a livelihood when employment ends. Contrast this with the employer's right to safeguard its proprietary information. Employees are not permitted to utilize any private information they may have kept without the employer's permission[5].

Employees should sign employment or confidentiality agreements to specify the general conditions of their employment. These should also include appropriate language prohibiting the employee from using or disclosing sensitive information without authorization, both while they are employed and after their employment has ended. Prior to the person beginning their work, agreements should be executed. It is important to persuade current workers to sign confidentiality agreements. They typically can't be made to do it, however. Employees should get a letter from their employer upon leaving their position verifying this, informing them of any remaining benefits, and informing them of their confidentiality requirements. The employee should be asked to return all company property and sign the necessary acknowledgment stating that he has done so and will maintain the confidentiality of all information. A confidentiality agreement should be completed prior to the sharing of any private information. The sort of agreement will change based on the disclosure's nature and setting. A formal confidentiality agreement could be necessary, however a simple letter exchange sometimes suffices[6].

For a deed to be enforceable in court. In this case, there is no indication of a reward for the confidentiality agreement. The following acknowledgements should be included in a confidentiality agreement: the information is confidential. the disclosure is made in confidence to the recipient. the recipient will not disclose the information to others or use it for their own benefit, without the prior consent of the owner of the information. and the unauthorized disclosure of the information could result in loss and damage to the owner of the information, for which the recipient will be liable. In India, there is no explicit regulation in place to safeguard sensitive information and trade secrets. However, Indian courts have supported the protection of

trade secrets based on equity considerations and sometimes upon a common law case for breach of confidence, which is essentially a violation of contract. The owner of a trade secret may seek an injunction to stop the licensee from exposing the secret, the return of any proprietary and private information, and compensation for any damages incurred as a result of the exposure of the secret. Additionally, a person may be legally obligated to keep any information disclosed to him or her in confidence private. A restrictive provision in a technology transfer agreement that imposes negative covenants on the licensee to not reveal or use the information obtained under the agreement for any purpose other than that specified in the said agreement has been upheld by Indian courts[7].

Letter of Cease and Desist

Intellectual property lawsuit is sometimes preceded with a stop and desist letter. It is intended to alert the receiver that they may have violated the sender's legal rights. It demands that they halt or quit their behavior at the very least, or else risk legal repercussions. These letters are especially frequent in disputes over trademarks, when the sender will often assert their legal ownership of a trademarked term, phrase, or design and demand that the recipient cease using it immediately on any products for sale. Cease and desist letters, however, may be used for any kind of claimed violation of an intellectual property right, including infringement of a patent, copyright, or industrial design. The stop and desist letter is not a court order and cannot be enforced in and of itself under the law. As a result, breaking the rules has no immediate consequences. But if the receiver disregards it, the issue can become worse and the sender might file a lawsuit to get a court injunction, which is a cease-and-desist order. In other circumstances, the letter creates a space for discussion between the sender and the receiver, such as when trying to work out a license agreement for a patented invention[8].

Although cease and desist letters may have any format, they often share several characteristics. The letter's use of the words ceases and desist is the first and most evident of these. What does it mean to stop and desist? It implies to put an end to something and never do it again. A cease-and-desist letter will often include many pages and explain the alleged infraction. In most cases, the letter also makes mention of the sender's intellectual property, such as a patent, copyright, or trademark registration number. The sender often encloses copies of the patent, copyright, or trademark registration documents as well. The stop and desist letter might be prepared by the intellectual property owner directly, or it could be written on the letterhead of a legal firm. Consider that, if the letter was prepared by an attorney, the sender has already made a financial commitment to protecting its intellectual property rights and may be more serious about bringing legal action against you if you do not comply.

A list of requests, a request for proof of receipt, and bias to the owner's legal position providing particular facts and reasoning in support of the sender's position are other indicators of a stop and desist letter. A timeframe for complying with the requests is often included in stop and desist letters. A hardcopy letter delivered through the mail to demand a cease and desist is not required. The demand may be made verbally over the phone or online, rather than in the form of a formal letter. It is not a stop and desist letter if the contact you get is from a court rather than a lawyer or person. If a court issues an order, you must abide by it or you run the danger of being declared in

contempt of court. A letter is probably not a cease-and-desist letter if it is accompanied by court papers that are not designated draft or with the notice. In the event that legal action has already been taken against you, immediate action is advised. It is essential to obtain legal counsel if you are unclear about the nature of the paper you received[9].

what happens next once you get the letter

It's crucial to choose a plan of action after you have determined that the message you have received is or is probably a stop and desist letter. Although disobeying a cease-and-desist order usually has no legal consequences, it is generally not advisable to do so. The best course of action is to analyze the letter to determine whether the sender actually possesses the intellectual property rights it asserts, whether you are the proper recipient of the letter, whether the sender's allegations of infringement are valid, whether you have any reasonable defenses to the allegations, how likely it is that any claim based on the allegations would be successful in court, and what the potential financial repercussions for you might be.

Even though receiving a stop and desist letter could be unexpected, it's crucial to maintain your composure and avoid responding without first carefully considering the potential repercussions. Any remarks you make on social media or to the sender might be used against you in a later lawsuit. As a result, it is advised to refrain from discussing the letter's contents or your response to it in public until a course of action has been decided. It is crucial to save a copy of the letter even if you decide not to reply or take any further action since all records must be kept in case a lawsuit is filed in the future. You may want to talk the matter over with any business partners or other people who could be impacted by the course of action that you decide to take in addition to contacting a lawyer. Consider the possible effects of complying with the mentioned requests on your sales, profitability, brand, and reputation. You should also take into account the expense and possibility of a prospective lawsuit, and do a cost-benefit analysis to evaluate which course of action could be less expensive and detrimental to your future prospects.

Resolution Memorandum

Intellectual property (IP) settlement agreements are used to resolve legal disputes. It may be used at any stage of a dispute, from before litigation begins to after a trial, to formally state the parameters of a settlement. If the settlement agreement is utilized to end ongoing legal proceedings, a Tomlin or Consent order would be arranged. A settlement deed should be taken into account as an alternative if no consideration is being passed between the parties. The precedent was written with the settlement of intellectual property disputes in mind, but it might be modified to include other claims as well. There are also longer pre-action and post-commencement of proceedings settlement precedents with more specific requirements.

Giving Away IP Rights

When planning to sell their firm, many business owners mistakenly believe that they don't possess any intellectual property unless they have registered a copyright, trademark, or patent. However, things like domain names, trade secrets, and a company's unique know-how are examples of intellectual property that have value and over which a company or its owners have

rights. In addition, things like third-party licenses (like Microsoft Office), IT maintenance and support agreements, and web hosting and development agreements are all examples of things that fall under the category of valuable intellectual property. When selling a company, careful evaluation and treatment of these factors are crucial since improper consideration or handling may result in issues for the seller both before and after the sale transaction.

By exercising this privilege, the owner of the intellectual property rights grants the licensee access to the commercial monopoly rights that were given to him by the government via intellectual property law. When two parties license something, they agree to work together for their mutual advantage. By signing a license, the owner of the intellectual property consents to share the exclusive right that has been given to him, and the licensee consents to agreed payment for such sharing. An intellectual property license is simply a contract between the licensee and the licensor that shortens the license's duration and makes it enforceable under the local laws in the area where it was signed.

Assignment Agreement

A formal assignment is often used to transfer intellectual property ownership. An intellectual property right may be transferred in whole or in part. A document that transfers ownership of intellectual property from one person to another is known as an assignment of intellectual property. Intellectual property ownership transfers should always be made in writing via a formal agreement. Without a formal agreement, many IP rights cannot be transferred in a legitimate manner. The ability of intellectual property owners to transfer their intellectual property for commercial returns, guaranteeing that the intellectual property may be utilized for financial advantage, makes assignment agreements of significant significance in IPR. The Assignment Agreement makes use of and exploits developed intellectual property, and the buyer or assignee benefits from the established assignment rights. If these assignment agreements are not properly drafted as required by law, they may give birth to legal and equitable rights as well as various concerns.

Employees who may be developing IPR beyond the scope, time, and resources of the organization they work for must give serious consideration to ownership issues. When executing non-disclosure agreements with their employees, agents, or other third parties, businesses that control important intellectual property rights should be careful to define the phrase confidentiality and the parties' duties not to divulge it. To ensure that conflicts are resolved quickly, it is advisable to include sections in the assignment agreement that address questions of governing law, jurisdiction, and alternative dispute resolution (ADR). An Intellectual Property Assignment Agreement is a binding legal document that must adhere to all applicable laws. In the area of intellectual property, it is crucial to establish clear standards for the circumstances in which a company or institution would own IPRs and the circumstances in which an inventor or creator would have the right or privilege to own the IPRs they created.

These people are encouraged to design new things since Assignment Agreements are enforceable, which eventually helps society. To promote innovation, it is also crucial to specify who owns developed intellectual property in connection to employer-employee contracts and

service agreements. Specific guidelines, norms, and procedures for dealing with assignment agreements are provided under India's IPR Act. The Rules/Acts provide provisions for registering Assignment Agreements, and their corresponding schedules include forms that parties might use to do so. An Assignment Agreement must be documented in accordance with the Acts and applicable Rules in order for it to be legitimate and enforceable.

In addition to following by the Rules, it is crucial to make sure that the agreement expressly states who has ownership in order to prevent confusion. The task must be specific and make clear how long the owner of the intellectual property will have that title. This would serve as a safeguard in the event of a misunderstanding over who owns the intellectual property. Even though it is a private transaction between the assignor and the assignee, the position of an assignment agreement under Indian intellectual property law is one of significant relevance. This is due, in part, to the fact that the law must safeguard the owner of intellectual property against fraud. However, it should be remembered that although the law may provide certain protections, the responsibility for drafting a competent assignment agreement rest with the parties involved. The only way to create a genuine assignment agreement and one that is advantageous to all parties is to address the underlying problems, some of which have already been mentioned.

License Contract

License agreements are distinct from assignment agreements in that an assignment actually transfers ownership of the intellectual property from the assignor to the assignee, whereas a license agreement only authorizes the licensee to use the intellectual property for a specific amount of time. The Licence Agreement for the Transfer of Technology is the fundamental legal instrument. Technical assistance agreements, patents and patent agreements, know-how agreements, engineering services agreements, trademark agreements, and franchise agreements are some of the other frequently used knowledge transfer methods. A formal document with several uses is a licence agreement. It is where the parties to the transaction derive their legal rights and duties. It is therefore a statement of the expectations of the parties who have come to achieve a common specified purpose.

A memorandum defining the rights and responsibilities of the parties, ensuring adequate commercial benefits to them. A prescription for resolving conflicts that may be anticipated in certain areas. A legal document whose provisions and undertakings can be enforced under the laws of the country in which it is framed. IP that is required to further develop, replicate, create, use, promote, and sell items based on the technology to be transferred may be subject to license. The licence agreement's terms and conditions decide how well a technology transfer will go. Therefore, the parties concerned should clearly specify the technology to be transmitted while creating the license agreement.

Assignment Deed

Most companies own intellectual property, which includes works produced by creative individuals or, in certain circumstances, computers. Source code, corporate names, commercial campaigns, product names, and architectural blueprints are a few examples of intellectual property. When a business buys another business and wants to transfer your intellectual property

into the new entity, or when a business buys product rights from another business or individual, a deed of assignment is made. By transferring all ownership rights of all intellectual property specified in the deed, a deed of assignment can be completed in one transaction rather than one transaction for each item of intellectual property. Both the buyer and seller have their signatures on the paper. It is not subject to payment and is thus legitimate[10].

CONCLUSION

In today's knowledge-driven economy, effective management of intellectual property rights is crucial for firms to succeed. An effective IP strategy may provide you a competitive advantage, spur innovation, and open up new income opportunities.

Companies that actively manage their IP assets may attract investment, create strategic partnerships, and become market leaders. Businesses must be proactive in defending and using their IP rights in today's fast-paced, interconnected environment. Companies may position themselves for sustainable development, negotiate hurdles in the competitive environment, and ensure long-term success in the global market by appreciating the significance of managing IP assets and implementing best practices. The strategic management of IP rights is ultimately a crucial component of business management that may increase the value of a company's intellectual assets and support its overall success and competitiveness.

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CHAPTER 8

Cyber Law: Navigating Legal Challenges in the Digital World

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper explores the field of Cyber Law, a rapidly evolving legal domain that addresses the legal challenges and issues arising from the use of technology and the internet. Cyber Law encompasses a wide range of legal topics, including data privacy, cybersecurity, digital transactions, intellectual property in the digital realm, and online freedom of speech. The study delves into the significance of Cyber Law in safeguarding individual rights, protecting businesses from cyber threats, and promoting responsible online behavior. Additionally, the paper examines the global nature of cyber activities and the complexities of jurisdiction and enforcement in the digital age. By understanding Cyber Law, individuals, businesses, and policymakers can navigate the digital landscape more effectively and ensure the responsible use of technology and the internet.

KEYWORDS:

Businesses, Cyber Law, E-Commerce, Intellectual Property, Digital World.

INTRODUCTION

The advent of technology and the internet has transformed our world, bringing with it a new set of legal challenges. Cyber Law has emerged as a critical area of law, addressing the legal issues arising from the use of technology, digital communication, and online activities. This paper aims to shed light on the diverse aspects of Cyber Law, exploring its implications for individuals, businesses, and society at large.

Cyber Law: Navigating Legal Challenges in the Digital World

- 1. Data Privacy and Protection:** Analyzing the legal framework for protecting personal data in the digital environment, including privacy regulations and data breach notifications.
- 2. Cybersecurity and Cybercrime:** Exploring legal measures to combat cyber threats and offenses, such as hacking, cyber fraud, and online identity theft.
- 3. Intellectual Property in the Digital Realm:** Examining the legal aspects of protecting and enforcing copyrights, trademarks, and patents in the context of the digital world.
- 4. Online Freedom of Speech and Expression:** Balancing the right to free speech with the responsibility to prevent online harassment, hate speech, and misinformation.

Global Nature of Cyber Activities and Jurisdiction Challenges

1. **Cross-Border Cybercrime:** Understanding the challenges of prosecuting cybercriminals who operate across international borders.
2. **Jurisdiction and Enforcement:** Analyzing the complexities of applying traditional legal concepts to the borderless nature of cyberspace and enforcing judgments in different jurisdictions.
3. **Introduction to Cyber law:** Information Technology Act, cybercrime and e-commerce, data security, confidentiality, privacy, international aspects of computer and online crime[1].

Cyber Law

The branch of law known as cyber law is concerned with how the Internet interacts with technical and electrical components such as computers, software, hardware, and information systems (IS). Cyberlaw or Internet law are other names for cyber law. Cyber laws protect information access, privacy, communications, intellectual property (IP), and freedom of speech related to the use of the Internet, websites, email, computers, cell phones, software, and hardware, such as data storage devices. Cyber laws prevent or reduce large-scale damage from cybercriminal activities.

The volume of legal concerns has increased globally as a result of the growth in Internet traffic. Cyberlaws differ by area and nation, making enforcement difficult. Penalties may range from fines to jail. The Information Technology Act, 2000 is an Act of the Indian Parliament (No. 21 of 2000) that was notified on October 17, 2000. It is often referred to as ITA-2000 or the IT Act. It is India's main statute addressing internet commerce and cybercrime. Based on a resolution passed by the United Nations General Assembly on January 30, 1997, the UNCITRAL Model Law on Electronic Commerce from 1996 serves as its foundation.

Online Crime

Theft of copyrighted content, theft of trade secrets, and trademark breaches are all considered to be forms of intellectual property (IP) theft. The legal right to print, publish, distribute, or perform a work in public entirely belongs to the author, publisher, composer, or other person who develops it. In the production and marketing of IP goods to consumers both domestically and abroad, the United States is the global leader. Computer software, recorded music, movies, and electronic games are some examples of copyrighted content that is often stolen online. Theft of trade secrets refers to the stealing of concepts, strategies, techniques, technologies, or other sensitive information from a variety of businesses, including those that produce goods, provide financial services, and operate in the computer sector. Plans for a faster computer, extremely fuel-efficient automobile designs, a company's production processes, or the recipe for a well-liked salad dressing, cookie mix, or barbecue sauce are all examples of trade secrets. The business owns these trade secrets, which offer it an advantage over rivals. The economic foundation of a company is harmed when trade secrets are stolen, which reduces its ability to compete[2].

A trademark is a product's registered name or distinguishing mark that may only be used by the product's owner. When well-known brands of shoes, apparel, and electronics equipment are copied or counterfeited and sold as the real deal, this is known as a trademark infringement. The two types of IP that are most commonly used in cybercrime are trade secrets and copyrighted content. Software, music, and other forms of IP theft are all referred to as piracy. IP theft has an impact on the whole American economy. IP piracy costs billions of dollars annually. For instance, millions of Internet users are sold pirated computer software for games or applications by criminals. These revenues and royalties, which should have gone to the original author, are instead lost by the firm that made the actual product.

In the past, before computers, IP crimes required a lot of time and effort. To be sold, videotapes of movies or music have to be duplicated, manufactured, and sent. The transaction has to be done face to face. Actual paper plans, data, or blueprints would have to be physically stolen from a company's facility and sold in person in order to steal a trade secret. Software, music, and trade secret pirates use the Internet to conduct their business in the twenty-first century. Any object that can be converted to a sequence of zeros and ones by digitization may be quickly sent from one computer to another. The quality of second, third, or fourth generation copies is unaffected. Warez organizations are accountable for unlawfully copying and disseminating hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of copyrighted content via the transmission of pirated digital versions of copyrighted works over the Internet.

Trade secrets that have been stolen are sold to other businesses or criminal organizations. No longer must trade secrets be physically taken from a business. Instead, thieves download business strategies and trade secrets onto a computer disc. In a matter of minutes, the stolen data may be sent internationally. Pirates of trade secrets get access to a company's computer systems and download the targets for duplication. Computer files are virtually always kept by businesses. Customers who purchase pirated copies online and then download them with their credit card information.

DISCUSSION

Internet Stalking

Internet and email usage to stalk someone else is known as cyber stalking. Stalking is a crime that has been around for a while. It is the recurrent harassment of a person when the stalker behaves in a menacing manner toward the victim. Threatening actions include following the victim, showing up at the victim's workplace or close to their house, establishing eye contact with them so they know someone is watching them, and writing or calling the victim with threatening comments. Victims of stalking are terrified of being hurt or killed[3]. Utilizing the Internet opens up stalking opportunities. A fifty-year-old security guard used the Internet to stalk a woman who had rejected his sexual advances, according to a 2000 report by the Working Group on Unlawful Conduct Involving the Use of the Internet, a body that President Bill Clinton (1946-. served 1993-2001) appointed. He published her personal information online as payback for her rejection. These included information on her appearance, address, and contact information, as well as instructions on how to get around her home security system. At least six

males knocked on her door after seeing the message that was placed and came to her home. The security guard was detained, admitted responsibility, and received a jail term for cyberstalking[4].

Computers are used by intellectual property thieves to steal a substantial quantity of protected content and severely harm the affected businesses. IP thieves never need to travel or make in-person sales, have little overhead expenses, and generate enormous profits. Online buyers looking for inexpensive, genuine items are the ones that internet pirates prey upon. They do this using emails and fake online adverts. IP pirates have deceived not just people but also businesses, educational institutions, and even government organizations into purchasing stolen products. IP crimes are tough for U.S. law enforcement organizations to capture and prosecute. By the beginning of the twenty-first century, U.S. laws addressing this brand-new category of crime were only being started. IP piracy is mostly unabated, and organized criminal organizations are now also participating. They fund several other criminal enterprises, including prostitution, gambling, illicit gun sales, and drug trafficking, with the money they make from IP crimes. Additionally, numerous other nations, including China, South Korea, Vietnam (Southeast Asia), and Russia, are home to intellectual property thieves. Practically little international IP legislation exists. While conventional law enforcement strategies, such as utilizing undercover agents, may be used to investigate offline intellectual property infringement, cyber IP thieves only operate online and can vanish in a matter of seconds[5].

Digital commerce and intellectual property

Trade secret disclosure is prohibited under intellectual property law, which also prevents unfair competition. As a result, the value of the intellectual property may exceed that of any actual asset. This is best understood in the context of technology and the digital economy. Without intellectual property norms and rules, labor-intensive work is stolen and distributed globally without compensating the inventor. So, who want to produce fresh works? To stop the less skilled thieves, technical security is essential, and intellectual property regulations are needed to address the more severe offenses. You should give special attention to these two areas:

1. Protecting your own intellectual property.
2. Infringing on the intellectual property of others.

Protecting your own original intellectual property

A frequent error is exposing intellectual property without first applying for its protection. Similar to this, making trade secrets public instantly revokes any protection in many nations. Before sharing anything relating to your intellectual property, speak with your attorney.

Infringing on the Intellectual Property of Others

There are descriptions and pictures of the products on your e-commerce website. Do you have permission from the law to publish such photographs and descriptions? What about all those symbols, sound effects, films, photographs, clip art, logos, and background music? They definitely make your website more interesting. But once again, do you have permission to use them? The phrase whatever is available on the Internet is free for use! has been used by

numerous small e-commerce business owners who disregard intellectual property issues. The fact that they appear to get away with such IP violations makes the rest of us doubt whether we are making the best use of our money. The truth is, if you're incredibly little, you may be able to elude detection. But as you develop, you'll be able to more clearly see your egregious infringements. Take intellectual property concerns seriously if you are not a fly-by-night enterprise[6]. Check the terms of the licensing agreement to verify who owns the system if you're utilizing a database, E-Commerce system, search engine, or other technical Internet tools that were licensed to you by another business. Ensure that you have a written contract and have it reviewed by an attorney before signing it and starting the site's design, customization, or installation.

You will need formal authorization also known as a license, consent, or agreement before using any images, recordings, music, writings, works of art, software, etc. that are the property of another person. You should not assume that anything you access online is in the public domain. For authorization to use these items, you may need to pay. To get authorization, you will often need to get in touch with a collecting society or an organization of artists. You must ensure that you have authorization to display trademarks held by other firms that you refer to on your website and that you acknowledge them, if your country's legislation or the law that applies to your company so demands. On your website, you must not share or download any music or anything that does not belong to you unless the owner has given you express permission to do so[7]. When creating links to other websites, use caution. Links are an excellent E-Commerce tool and provide your clients with a valuable service, but there are many nations where there is no clear legal framework governing the usage of links. The most cautious procedure is to contact the other website and get their permission before integrating a connection. More people disagree with framing than they do connecting. This is incorporating sizable portions of another website into your own while giving the impression that it is an integral component of your own. Get written consent before doing this at all times.

Depending on where you register it, you may select a generic or popular name for your company's domain, but if you choose a name that stands out, consumers may find it easier to remember and search for it. It would be ideal if it was also unique enough to be protected by trademark law, since several nations provide trademark protection to domain names. It may be difficult for your business to establish any unique reputation or goodwill in this name, and it could be harder to stop competitors from utilizing your name in competition. Choose a domain name that is not another company's property, especially a well-known trademark. This is due to the fact that most laws consider the use of another person's brand as a domain name a practice known as cybersquatting to be trademark infringement, for which your SME may be required to transfer or delete the domain name as well as pay damages. What can you do if you discover that someone else is utilizing your trademark or service mark as a domain name? Cybersquatting has become a common activity for certain dishonest persons, mainly in an effort to extort money from the legitimate owner of the domain or to deceive or confuse customers. Avoid domain names that include trademarks as well as other contentious elements like geographical terms, for example. Champagne, Beaujolais, names of famous individuals, generic medicine names, names

of international organizations, and trade names e.g., name of another person's company, that can conflict with the rights of others or international systems of protection.

Significant agreements and IP

You must exercise caution when using contracts while creating and safeguarding the IP of your e-commerce business. IP and contracts are closely related. Every contract that your business signs must be carefully scrutinized to ensure that you are maximizing your IP assets and not jeopardizing them. This is so that contracts may be used to sell, license, or even give away intellectual property rights. Ineffective contracts may lead to unneeded money and lawsuit. Contracts with employees and independent contractors, development agreements, web design agreements, licenses to license your product or intellectual property to another company (licenses-out), licenses to license a product or intellectual property from another company (licenses-in), distribution agreements, domain name and trademark license agreements, and licenses to use patents, cross licenses, and pools are risk areas. This is only a sample list[8].

Most nations do not need contracts to be lengthy or unduly formal. However, they must be precise and use the proper terminology when referring to IP rights. As was already said, it's essential to get qualified legal counsel in this matter. Having a collection of forms that may be utilized as a jumping off point in different IP-related circumstances is often helpful. You may work effectively in this manner, but it is always a good idea to consult a lawyer before signing a contract concerning intellectual property, no matter how straightforward it may appear. An E-Commerce company should save copies of any contracts that have an impact on IP in its archives. This is a crucial record-keeping practice so that you can seek up information that could be relevant in the future. Contracts impacting intellectual property, for instance, are crucial if your e-commerce firm is taking part in an asset sale, merger, acquisition, or investment deal. Keep an eye out for clauses in contracts that restrict your ability to sell, license, assign, or transfer your company's intellectual property[9].

Data Security Definition

Data security is the process of preventing data from being accessed by unauthorized parties and being corrupted at any point in its lifespan. To safeguard data across all applications and platforms, data security involves data encryption, tokenization, and key management procedures.

How come data security?

To safeguard their vital assets, businesses all over the world are making significant investments in information technology (IT) cyber protection capabilities. The methods for incident detection and response to preserving organizational interests have three similar elements: people, processes, and technology. This is true regardless of whether an organisation has to protect a brand, intellectual capital, and consumer information or offer controls for vital infrastructure.

Confidentiality

Privacy and confidentiality are substantially identical concepts. Access must be limited to those who are permitted to access the relevant data. Measures made to preserve confidentiality are

intended to prevent sensitive information from reaching the wrong people while ensuring that the correct people can actually acquire it. Additionally, it is usual practice to group data according to the scope and kind of potential harm in the event that information ends up in the wrong hands. These categories may then be used to impose more or less strict measures. Protecting data confidentiality may sometimes need specialized training for such documents. Typically, such instruction would include potential security threats to the data. Authorized individuals might benefit from training to become more aware with risk factors and preventative measures.

Strong passwords, password-related best practices, and knowledge of social engineering techniques may all be included in additional training components to stop participants from violating data handling regulations with good intentions but possibly devastating outcomes. An account number or routing number used for online banking is an excellent illustration of a mechanism utilized to maintain secrecy. A typical practice for maintaining secrecy is data encryption. User IDs and passwords are the norm. two-factor authentication is starting to take over. Security tokens, key fobs, and biometric verification are other choices. Users may also adopt security measures to reduce the number of locations where the information is shown and the number of times it is actually transferred in order to complete a necessary transaction. Extra safeguards may be taken in the event of exceptionally sensitive papers, including the storage of such documents solely on-air gapped computers, disconnected storage devices, or in hard copy form.

Information Security

The link between the gathering and sharing of data, technology, the public's expectation of privacy, and the legal and political concerns surrounding it is known as information privacy, sometimes known as data privacy or data protection. Every time personally identifiable information or other sensitive information is gathered, saved, utilized, and then eventually erased or destroyed, whether in digital form or another format, privacy problems arise. Issues with privacy may have improper or nonexistent disclosure controls as their source. Data privacy concerns might result from information from a variety of sources, including

Utilizing data while safeguarding a person's privacy choices and individually identifiable information is a difficulty for data privacy. To solve this problem, the areas of computer security, data security, and information security develop and use software, hardware, and human resources. It is crucial to stay up to date on any legal changes and to regularly evaluate compliance with data privacy and security rules since the laws and regulations relating to privacy and data protection are always changing. Institutional Review Boards serve the academic community by ensuring that sufficient steps are taken to protect the confidentiality and privacy of human subjects in research.

Internet and computer crime's global dimensions

The term cybercrime does not have a single, generally accepted meaning. It alludes to illicit acts that are often conducted via the use of global electronic networks and the internet. There are no cyber-borders between nations. cybercrime is international or transnational. The efficiency of local and international legislation and law enforcement is often put to the test by international

cybercrimes. Criminals increasingly commit crimes online in order to benefit from the less severe penalties or challenges in being tracked down since many nations' present laws are not designed to address cybercrime. Governments and businesses have progressively come to understand the enormous risks that cybercrime poses to national security, the economy, and other areas of common concern, whether in developed or developing nations. The intricacy of cybercrime's many varieties and manifestations, however, makes it more challenging to respond. In this way, combating cybercrime requires global collaboration. On a regional and worldwide level, several organizations and countries have previously worked together to set universal standards for legislation and law enforcement. One of the most notable recent developments is China and the United States' collaboration, since they are the top two nations from whence cybercrime originates.

ICT (information and communication technology) is crucial in ensuring interoperability and security that adhere to international standards. In order to combat cybercrime, general countermeasures have been implemented, including technical measures to track down crimes over the network and legal measures to improve legislation, Internet content control, the use of public or private proxies, computer forensics, encryption, and plausible denial, among other things[2]. This essay will mostly concentrate on legislative and regulatory attempts of international cooperation due to the variety of law enforcement and technological countermeasures of various nations.

On-line Crime

Any unlawful online behavior or crime performed on, via, or while utilizing the Internet is referred to as internet crime. The enormous problem of Internet crime is regulated and regulated at several levels on a worldwide scale. Security professionals are dedicated to preventing Internet crime with preventive technology like intrusion detection networks and packet sniffers in the demanding and constantly evolving IT industry. Cybercrime has a significant internet crime subset.

The three main categories of online crime are identity theft, Internet frauds, and cyberspace. Finding and punishing guilty participants in Internet crimes is challenging since they often include persons from different geographical locations. Online attentiveness and common sense are essential for avoiding becoming an Internet criminal. Users should never provide their complete names, addresses, dates of birth, or Social Security numbers to unidentified receivers. A user should also be wary of exaggerated or unsubstantiated statements while online[10].

CONCLUSION

The legal climate of the digital era is significantly shaped by cyber law. Legal frameworks must change as technology develops to take into account the benefits and problems that the digital world presents. Cyber law supports responsible online conduct and a secure online environment in addition to defending individual rights and defending enterprises from online dangers. For people, corporations, and politicians, knowing Cyber Law is essential in the globally linked and interconnected world of the internet. We can make the internet a safer and more just place for everyone by aggressively addressing cyber concerns, upholding cyber laws, and encouraging

digital literacy. Cyber Law is a vital resource for navigating the complexity of the digital world, ensuring that the advantages of technology are appropriately used while protecting against its inherent dangers and abuses.

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CHAPTER 9

The Concept of Intellectual Property: Preserving Creativity, Innovation and Knowledge

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper explores the concept of Intellectual Property (IP) and its significance in promoting creativity, innovation, and knowledge dissemination. Intellectual Property encompasses a diverse range of intangible assets, including patents, trademarks, copyrights, and trade secrets, which grant exclusive rights to creators and inventors. The study delves into the historical evolution of IP, its legal foundations, and the role it plays in fostering economic growth, cultural enrichment, and technological advancements. Additionally, the paper examines the challenges of balancing IP protection with access to knowledge and explores future trends and implications of intellectual property in an increasingly digital and globalized world.

KEYWORDS:

Act, Copyright, Design, Intellectual Property, Right to Knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

Intellectual property (IP) refers to the creations of the human mind like inventions, literary and artistic works, and symbols, names, images and designs used in commerce. Intellectual property is divided into two categories: Industrial property, which includes inventions, trademarks, industrial designs, and geographic indications of source. and Copyright, which includes literary and artistic works such as novels, poems and plays, films, musical works, artistic works such as drawings, paintings, photographs and sculptures, and architectural designs. Rights related to copyright include those of performing artists in their performances, producers of phonograms in their recordings, and those of broadcasters in their radio and television programs. Intellectual property rights protect the interests of creators by giving them property rights over their creations.

The most noticeable difference between intellectual property and other forms of property, however, is that intellectual property is intangible, that is, it cannot be defined or identified by its own physical parameters.

It must be expressed in some discernible way to be protectable. Generally, it encompasses four separate and distinct types of intangible property namely patents, trademarks, copyrights, and trade secrets, which collectively are referred to as intellectual property. However, the scope and definition of intellectual property is constantly evolving with the inclusion of newer forms under the gambit of intellectual property. In recent times, geographical indications, protection of plant

varieties, protection for semi-conductors and integrated circuits, and undisclosed information have been brought under the umbrella of intellectual property [1].

The Concept of Intellectual Property

Since northern Italy during the Renaissance is seen as the system's birthplace, the idea of intellectual property is not a new one. Inventions were first systematically attempted to be protected by a kind of patent under a Venetian Law from 1474, which for the first time gave a person an exclusive right. The first copyright system in the world was created in the same century with the creation of moveable type and the printing machine by Johannes Gutenberg about 1450. New creative manufacturing techniques helped spark widespread industrialization towards the end of the 19th century, which was accompanied by an increase in transoceanic commerce, rapid urbanization, the development of railway networks, and capital investment. Many nations developed their contemporary intellectual property laws as a result of new industrialist values, the rise of larger centralized governments, and nationalism. With the establishment of the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property in 1883 and the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works in 1886, the International Intellectual Property system also began to take form at this time. The fundamental tenet of intellectual property has always been that ownership of innovations and creative works results in recognition and incentives, which in turn spur on additional imaginative and creative effort, which in turn spurs economic progress.

Ideas and information have grown in importance as commerce throughout time, especially in the context of the modern corporate paradigm. The amount of invention, creativity, research, design, and testing that goes into high-tech goods and novel medications accounts for a large portion of their worth. Films, music records, books, computer programs, and online services are all purchased and sold for the knowledge and creativity they impart, not often for the plastic, metal, or paper that went into their creation. Many items that were formerly considered low-tech goods or commodities, such as designer apparel or novel plant species, now have a bigger share of innovation and design in their worth. Thus, creators are granted the right to forbid the use of their ideas, designs, or other works. Intellectual property rights are the name given to these rights. The Trade-Related Intellectual Property Systems (TRIPS) Agreement, which was established together with the World Trade Organization (WTO), clarifies the significance and function of intellectual property protection. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) treaty's Uruguay Round ended in 1994, and this is when the negotiations for it began[2].

The TRIPS Agreement strives to harmonize, reinforce, and provide for efficient enforcement at both the national and international levels. It embraces, in theory, all types of intellectual property. Part I, it discusses the application of broad GATT principles as well as the clauses of global IP agreements. It defines guidelines for the accessibility, range, and application of intellectual property rights (Part II), as well as for their acquisition and upkeep (Part IV). It also discusses associated conflict prevention and resolution techniques (Part V). Parts VI and VII of the Agreement, which cover institutional and transitional arrangements, respectively, deal with formal stipulations. The most extensive international agreement on intellectual property to date is

the TRIPS Agreement, which went into force on 1 January 1995. Its scope of intellectual property includes the following areas:

1. Copyright and associated rights performers', sound recording producers', and broadcasting organizations' rights.
2. Trademarks, including service marks.
3. Geographical indicators, such as appellations of origin.
4. Industrial designs.
5. Patents, which provide protection for novel plant kinds.
6. The topographies of integrated circuits.
7. Unreleased data, including test results and business secrets.

DISCUSSION

Indian Intellectual Property Law

As previously mentioned, the Venetian Ordinance, which was initially implemented in 1485, was the first mechanism in history to safeguard intellectual property. The Statute of Monopolies in England, which expanded patent rights for technological inventions, came after this. Patent laws were first adopted in the US in 1760. Between 1880 and 1889, most European nations created their own patent laws. In India, the Patent Act was first passed in 1856 and was in effect for more than 50 years before being changed.

PP-IPRL&P

The Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911 was enacted, revised, and named. Specific statutes protected only certain types of intellectual output. until recently only four forms were protected. the protection was in the form of grant of copyrights, patents, designs, and trademarks. In India, copyrights were regulated under the Copyright Act, 1957. patents were regulated under the Patents Act, 1970. trademarks were regulated under Trade and Merchandise Marks[3].Several new laws were passed for the protection of intellectual property rights to comply with the international obligations following the establishment of the WTO and India's signing of the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS).

These included the Trade Mark Act of 1999, the Designs Act of 2000, which replaced the Designs Act of 1911, and the Copyright Act of 1957, which has been amended numerous times and is currently known as the Copyright.In the 1990s, many countries unilaterally strengthened their laws and regulations in this area, and many others were poised to do likewise. At the multilateral level, the successful conclusion of the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) in the World Trade Organization elevates the protection of IP to a stature from where it plays a significant role in the development of the global economy.

Development of India's Trips Compliant Regime

The TRIPS agreement set minimum standards for protection for IPR rights and also established a deadline within which countries were required to make changes in their laws to comply with the required degree of protection. In light of this, India has taken action to modify and amend the

TRIPS agreement. The WTO's establishment as a result of the institutionalization of the international framework of trade calls for harmonization of several aspects of Indian Law relating to Intellectual Property Rights[4].

1970 Patents Act

The Patents Act, 1970 was amended in the years 1995, 1999, 2002, and 2005 to comply with India's obligations under the TRIPS agreement after India became a signatory to the TRIPS agreement, which is a component of the Agreement establishing the World Trade Organization (WTO) for the purposes of reducing distortions and impediments to international trade and promoting effective and adequate protection of intellectual property rights. It expands the definition of infringement of a registered trademark to include action against the unauthorized use of a confusingly similar mark, not only in relation to the goods and services covered by registration, as was the case, but also in relation to goods and services which are so similar that a likelihood of deception or confusion exists.

The 2000 Designs Act

The Designs Act, 2000 has replaced the Designs Act of 1911 as a result of significant advancements in science and technology, which made it necessary to create a more effective legal framework for the protection of industrial designs. This framework aims to ensure that registered designs are effectively protected and to promote design activity to highlight the design element in a product[5]. The new Act complies with the requirements of TRIPS and hence is directly relevant for international trade. Industrial Design law deals with the aesthetics or the original design of an industrial product. An industrial product usually contains elements of both art and craft, that is to say artistic as well as functional elements. The design law excludes from its purview the functioning features of an article and grants protection only to those which have an aesthetic appeal. For example, the design of a teacup must have a hollow receptacle for holding tea and a handle to hold the cup. These are functional features that cannot be registered. But a fancy shape or ornamentation on it would be registrable. Similarly, a table, for example, would have a flat surface on which other objects can be placed. This is its functional element. But its shape, colour or the way it is supported by legs or otherwise, are all elements of design or artistic elements and therefore, registrable if unique and novel[6].

Today, industrial design has become an integral part of consumer culture where rival articles compete for consumer's attention. It has become important therefore, to grant to an original industrial design adequate protection. It is not always easy to separate aesthetics of a finished article from its function. Law, however, requires that it is only the aesthetics or the design element which can be registered and protected. For example, while designing furniture whether for export or otherwise, when one copies designs from a catalogue, one has to ascertain that somebody else does not have a design right in that particular design. Particularly, while exporting furniture, it is necessary to be sure that the design of the furniture is not registered either as a patent or design in the country of export. Otherwise, the exporter may get involved in unnecessary litigation and may face claims for damages. Conversely, if furniture of ethnic design is being exported, and the design is an original design complying with the requirements of the

definition of 'design' under the Designs Act, it would be worthwhile having it registered in the country to which the product is being exported so that others may not imitate it and deprive the inventor of that design of the commercial benefits of his design[7].

Act of 1999 Concerning Geographical Markings of Goods (Registration and Protection)

The patenting of turmeric, neem, and basmati are the instances which drew a lot of attention towards this aspect of the intellectual property. It should be noted that under the Agreement on Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property, geographical indications are now registrable in India. However, in the absence of statutory protection, Indian geographical indications had been misused by persons outside India to indicate goods not originating from the named locality in India. The Geographical Indication of Goods (Registration and Protection) Act, 1999, which is administered by the Geographical Indication Registry under the general supervision of the Controller General of Patents, Designs, and Trade Marks, was passed by the Parliament in order to address the need for comprehensive legislation for the registration and adequate protection of geographical indications.

1. Defining many key words, including geographic indication, goods, producers, packages, registered proprietor, and authorized user, among others.
2. Provision for the upkeep of a Register of Geographical Indications in two parts Part A and Part B as well as the use of computers and other tools for upkeep of such Register, where Part A will house all registered geographical indications and Part B would house information on authorized users who have registered [8].
3. Registering geographic indicators on products in certain classifications.
4. The ban on registering specific geographical indicators.
5. Requirements for the Central Government to establish regulations for the submission of applications, their substance, and issues pertaining to the substantive review of geographical indication applications.
6. Mandatory publication of all approved geographical indication applications in order to solicit objections.
7. Registering authorized users of geographical indications that have been registered and establishing procedures for legal action against infringement by either the registered owner or an authorized user.
8. Provisions for notified products to receive a greater degree of protection.
 - a. Since a geographical indicator is public property, its assignment or other use is prohibited.
 - b. A geographical indicator cannot be registered as a trademark.

1957 Copyright Act

All original intellectual creations expressed in a reproducible form will be connected as works eligible for copyright protections under the Copyright Act, 1957, which governs copyright in India. This Act has been amended numerous times to keep up with the changing times. Copyright grants authors lifetime coverage plus 60 years after death under this Act. The creator, or the owner of the copyright in a work, can enforce his right administratively and in the courts

by inspection of premises for evidence of production or possession of illegally made pirated goods related to protected works. The owner may obtain court orders to stop such activities. Novel rights, which include the right to claim authorship of a work and the right to oppose changes to it that could harm the creator's reputation[9]. Computer programming was added to the definition of literary work in the Copyright Act, 1957, which was revised in 1984. The new definition of computer program, introduced in 1994, means a set of instructions expressed in works, codes, or in any other form, including a machine readable medium, capable of causing a computer to perform a specific task or achieve a specific result.

Act of 2001 Protecting Plant Varieties and Farmers' Rights

The idea of plant breeders' rights was developed in response to the need to reward plant breeders who engage in creative research that advances agriculture by generating returns on research investments, as well as to persuade the researcher to share the fruits of his creativity with society. Since the TRIPS agreement under the WTO, which aims to promote efficient protection of intellectual property rights in all domains of technology, the problem of establishing a legislation pertaining to Plant Varieties Protection and Farmers' Rights in India has become more important. Members of the TRIPS Agreement are required to provide for the protection of plant varieties, whether by patenting, an effective sui generis system, or any combination of the two. Article 27 of the TRIPS Agreement specifies patentable subject matter.

The Government passed the Protection of Plant Varieties and Farmers' Right Act in 2001 with the intention of establishing an Authority to provide an effective system for protecting the rights of plant breeders and farmers, to promote the development of new plant varieties, and to give effect to the provisions of the TRIPS Agreement. By assuring adequate returns on such investments, this Act aims to encourage investment in research and development for the creation of novel plant types in both the public and commercial sectors. In order to guarantee that Indian farmers have access to high-quality seeds and planting supplies, it also aims to encourage the development of the nation's seed industry via local and international investment. By recognizing them for their contribution via benefit sharing and defending the farmers' traditional rights, it also acknowledges the role of farmers as cultivators and conservationists as well as the contribution of traditional, rural, and tribal groups to the nation's agrobiodiversity. In order to produce novel plant varieties and advance the rights of farmers and breeders, the Act also allows for the establishment of the Protection of Plant Varieties and Farmer's Rights Authority.

Act of 2000 Concerning Semiconductor Integrated Circuits Layout Design

One of the industries with the quickest growth rates and one that has contributed significantly to the global economy is electronics and information technology.

The development of electronics, computers, and telecommunications is mostly to blame for this. Microelectronics, which primarily refers to Integrated Circuits (ICs) ranging from Very Large Scale Integration (VLSI) to Small Scale Integration (SSI) on a semiconductor chip, has rightly been recognized as a core, strategic technology on a global scale, especially for Information Technology (IT) based societies. Depending on the intricacy, integrated circuit design involves a lot of knowledge and work. Therefore, it is crucial to safeguard the Intellectual Property Rights

(IPR) that are built into layout designs in order to stimulate continuing expenditures in R & D that led to breakthroughs in the technology of microelectronics.

The techniques of copyright and patent protection were not sufficient to adequately address the needs of intellectual property rights protection for integrated circuit layout designs. This was done because originality whether it be a novelty or not is of the highest importance in the context of layout designs. While the copyright law is too vague to account for the original ideas of scientifically created Layout-Designs of Integrated Circuits, the patent law stipulates that the concept must be both unique and innovative. Given the above, it was decided that Layout-Designs of Integrated Circuits needed to be protected in order to reward and promote a sufficient level of investment of human, financial, and technical resources. The majority of nations that value the protection of IP rights in semiconductor integrated circuits have a sui generis method of protection for integrated circuit layout-designs, which is often covered by a separate Act. The WTO Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) Agreement comprises provisions relating to the establishment of standards on the availability, scope, and use of intellectual property rights, geographical indications, integrated circuit layout-design, etc.

As a result, the Government passed the Semiconductor Integrated Circuit Layout- Designs Act, 2000, which includes provisions for the protection of semiconductor integrated circuit layout designs through the registration process, a mechanism for identifying layout designs that can be protected, rules to prevent the registration of layout designs that are not original and/or that have been commercially exploited, a period of protection, provisions regarding infringement, and payment of royalties for used designs. In conclusion, India's endeavor toward a new IPR regime to better position itself for the global trade competition can be seen in the many adjustments and amendments to prior Intellectual Property Laws. Since creativity and invention are the main drivers of economic development and social advancement in the contemporary world, the idea of intellectual property has grown more and more important. IP protection encourages innovators and artists to disseminate their ideas and expertise, thereby advancing society. This essay seeks to give a thorough investigation of the complex idea of intellectual property and how it affects all facets of our life.

Intellectual Property: A Concept

Examining the numerous types of intellectual property, such as trade secrets for sensitive information, copyrights for creative works, trademarks for branding, and patents for innovations. Understanding the laws and international agreements governing intellectual property rights and how to enforce them is referred to as understanding the legal foundations of IP.

Intellectual Property's Function

IP protection gives artists and innovators the motivation and acknowledgment for their work, which promotes ongoing innovation across a variety of sectors.

Economic Development and Market Competition: IP promotes a competitive market where businesses may distinguish their goods and services, resulting in economic development and customer choice.

Cultural Enrichment: Copyright protection protects cultural expressions, enabling writers, musicians, and artists to share their creation with the world and preserve their history.

Future Trends and Challenges

Addressing the difficulties of finding a balance between encouraging innovation via IP protection and increasing access to information for the purposes of education, research, and social benefits. Examining the effects of the digital era and global interconnection on intellectual property, including problems with online piracy, the distribution of digital material, and international enforcement[10].

CONCLUSION

The idea of intellectual property serves as a pillar of contemporary society, encouraging innovation, creativity, and the spread of information. IP protection enables constant improvement in a variety of disciplines by giving creators and innovators exclusive rights, which promotes economic growth and cultural enrichment. Finding the ideal equilibrium between intellectual property protection and information availability, however, continues to be very difficult. Global communication is becoming more seamless as a result of technology, and the ramifications of intellectual property in the digital age need to be carefully considered and adjusted for. To ensure a flourishing and fair environment where creativity and innovation may thrive while providing access to information for the common welfare of mankind, it is essential to strike a balance that benefits artists, companies, and society at large. We can develop a society that appreciates and protects the products of human creativity and nurtures a culture of knowledge-sharing and advancement by regularly examining the idea of intellectual property and modifying its framework to fit changing requirements.

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CHAPTER 10

Trade Secrets: Safeguarding Confidential Know-How and Competitive Advantage

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper delves into the realm of trade secrets and their vital role in protecting valuable confidential information and securing a competitive advantage for businesses. Trade secrets encompass proprietary knowledge, formulas, processes, and techniques that provide businesses with unique insights and innovations. The study explores the legal framework for trade secret protection, the challenges of maintaining confidentiality, and the importance of proactive measures to prevent misappropriation. Additionally, the paper examines the global implications of trade secrets in international commerce and the balance between protection and innovation. By understanding the significance of trade secrets, businesses can effectively safeguard their confidential know-how and maintain a distinct edge in the ever-evolving market.

KEYWORDS:

Businesses, Innovation, Patent, Secrets, Trade.

INTRODUCTION

An organization may get a competitive advantage from secret business knowledge. These are often business secrets as well as manufacturing or industrial secrets. These include of production procedures, lists of suppliers and customers, sales techniques, distribution techniques, consumer profiles, and advertising plans. Trade secrets are protected without registration, in contrast to patents. A trade secret may be kept indefinitely, but there must be a significant amount of secrecy such that finding the knowledge would be difficult unless inappropriate techniques were used. Given the abundance of traditional knowledge in the nation, the protection provided by this will be essential for obtaining the advantages of this kind of information[1].

Useful Models

A utility model is an exclusive right awarded for an innovation that permits the right holder to bar others from utilizing the idea for commercial purposes without his permission for a certain amount of time. A utility model is comparable to a patent in terms of its fundamental concept, which may differ from one nation (where such protection is allowed) to another. Utility model protection is only available in a small but considerable number of nations and areas, and is frequently referred to as petty patents or innovation patents. India does not yet have any utility model laws. The following are the primary distinctions between utility models and patents:

A utility model may be acquired with less restrictions than a patent. While novelty is a condition that must always be satisfied, inventive step and non-obviousness requirements may be much less stringent or nonexistent completely. In reality, incremental advances that may not fulfill the requirements for patentability are often sought after for utility model protection. Utility model protection lasts for a shorter period of time than patent protection, and it varies from nation to nation. Most nations that provide utility model protection do not require applications to be substantively reviewed before registration with the patent office. This implies that the registration procedure, which normally takes six months, is considerably sped up and simplified.

Utility versions are substantially less expensive to buy and keep up. Utility model protection is only available for goods in specific nations, not processes, and only for specified technological disciplines. Utility models are seen to be especially useful for SMEs that modify and adapt current goods in minor ways. The main applications of utility models are in mechanical advancements. The Innovation patent, which was recently established in Australia, was developed as a consequence of in-depth study into the requirements of small and medium-sized businesses with the goal of offering a low-cost entry point into the intellectual property system[2].

Biodiversity & IPR

Simply said, biodiversity is the variety of different living forms found within the Biosphere. The cornerstone of life on Earth is biodiversity. It is essential for the health of ecosystems that provide us the goods and services we need to survive. We have a significant impact on both human health and the health of all other living things when we alter biodiversity. Biodiversity is typically divided into three main categories: genetic diversity, which represents the substantial amount of variability occurring within a species, species diversity, which represents variability at the level of families, genera, and species, and ecosystem diversity, which represents the major biogeographical regions and habitats. Numerous stakeholders have engaged in a variety of local, state, national, and international activities and initiatives to preserve and maintain priceless resources like biodiversity in order to reap the societal advantages that come with them.

It is a well-known fact that developing nations have a wealth of the world's flora and fauna, and that they are home to 80% of the planet's terrestrial biodiversity. This biodiversity serves as the raw material for biotechnology, which uses genes, folk varieties, and land races to create new varieties. Prior to the development of molecular biology and genetic engineering, access to genetic diversity within a species was a prerequisite for successful plant breeding. However, genetic engineering has made it feasible for genes to bypass sexual boundaries, increasing the economic worth of biodiversity. Although the industrialized nations are better prepared for research and development, they are not particularly wealthy in biogenetic resources. They use the biogenetic resources obtained from underdeveloped nations. It follows that there is a start in the unprotected movement of genetic information from the developing worlds to the capital-rich west, and a protected flow in the other way, largely via patents and Plant Breeders' Rights (PBR). It has both overt and covert effects. One of the most significant unseen effects is genetic degradation, which over time manifests itself dramatically in the loss of biodiversity[3]. The Convention aims to address all threats to biodiversity and ecosystem services, including those

posed by climate change, through scientific assessments, the creation of tools, processes, and incentives, the dissemination of technologies and best practices, and the active participation of all relevant parties, including indigenous and local communities, young people, NGOs, women, and the business sector. The Convention has a secondary accord known as the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety. It aims to safeguard biological variety against the dangers that living modified creatures brought on by contemporary biotechnology may cause. The term biodiversity as used in the treaty is the variability among living organisms from all sources, including, *inter alia*, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are a part. This includes diversity within species, between species, and of ecosystems.

The Convention reaffirms the concept of state sovereignty, which accords states the right to exploit their resources in accordance with their own environmental policies and the duty to ensure that activities under their jurisdiction or control do not harm the environments of other states. A comprehensive legal framework governing access to biological resources and the distribution of advantages accruing from their usage is also provided by the Biodiversity Convention. The 1992 Convention on Biological Diversity includes India as a party. While acknowledging the enormous economic worth of the world's germplasm stockpile, the Convention on Biological Diversity outlines key criteria for the conservation of biodiversity. While undermining prospects for social and economic growth as well as cultural variety, the proliferation of international trade agreements that establish a worldwide framework of intellectual property rights generates incentives that may damage biodiversity. The member nations were under pressure to modify their intellectual property (IPR) laws to comply with the TRIPS agreement. India followed suit by establishing legislative frameworks for the management of biodiversity and regulations pertaining to intellectual property. The Biological Diversity Act, 2002 was enacted after India ratified the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) on a global scale. The Biological Diversity Act seeks to preserve biological resources and related knowledge while also promoting equitable and sustainable access to them.

DISCUSSION

Conflicting Arguments for IP Protection

The right to own and benefit from one's creative, scientific, and technical inventions is granted by intellectual property regulations for a certain amount of time. These rights only pertain to the intellectual product itself, not to any physical item in which it may be incorporated. For two fundamental reasons, nations have passed laws to safeguard intellectual property. One is to give formal expression to the public's right to access these works of art as well as the moral and financial rights of authors to their works. The second is to actively foster innovation, as well as the distribution and implementation of its findings, as well as fair commerce, which would support economic and social progress. It is widely acknowledged that knowledge and innovations have contributed significantly to the economic development of the nations. It is seen in the economic growth certain nations had in the 1990s. The TRIPS Agreement was included as one of the agreements in the framework of the multilateral trade negotiations under the Uruguay Round as a result of the growing importance of intellectual property and the new pattern of global trade, which gave momentum for creating a link between intellectual property policies and

trade law. The power and significance of intellectual property are also shown in the way knowledge-intensive companies aim to maximize shareholder value.

Whether it be via intellectual property licensing, joint ventures, international collaborations, manufacturing, purchase or distribution agreements, or mergers and acquisitions, intellectual property is currently one of the most valuable assets in business transactions. Patent, copyright, and trademark usage licenses are increasingly significant terms in technology transactions and are often paired with know-how transfers. These licenses make items and technology available to licensees who would not have otherwise had access to them while still paying royalties to the owner of the intellectual property. The licensees may also get the right to develop their own Intellectual Property assets and make enhancements or derivative works, which they may then cross-license or license to others. This starts a highly fruitful cycle of creativity and invention that boosts the businesses' profits[4].

Francis Gurry, the director general of the World Intellectual Property Organization, states that innovation development is no longer the exclusive preserve of high-income nations. The technical divide between wealthier and poorer countries is closing. Similar to top-notch technical advances, incremental and more regional kinds of innovation support economic and societal advancement. In addition to being utilized in commercial transactions, intellectual property assets are also exchanged on online exchanges for the assessment, purchase, sale, and licensing of patents and other types of intellectual property. Similar to investors in stocks, options, and other financial instruments, intellectual property purchasers and sellers handle their intellectual property as financial assets. Strong intellectual property protections enable customers to make informed decisions regarding the security, dependability, and efficacy of their products. Enforced intellectual property rights guarantee that goods are genuine and meet the high standards that customers know and expect. IP rights provide the assurance and comfort that customers want and markets need.

Instead of being a collection of rigid laws, the international intellectual property system is rather a system of accumulated behaviors. International treaties governing such treatment as well as national laws outlining the treatment to be given to foreigners control the practice of international relations in the area of legal protection of innovations and literary and creative works. It should be emphasized that a country's laws defining foreigners' rights are still a part of the international system even if that country is not a signatory to any relevant international treaties because they serve as the foundation for the protection of intellectual property in multiple nations. The numerous facets of intellectual property and industrial property are covered by a variety of international treaties and conventions. The World Intellectual Property Organization, or WIPO, is in charge of overseeing these Conventions. A specialized UN agency is the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO). It is committed to creating a fair and open worldwide intellectual property (IP) system that encourages innovation, rewards creativity, and aids in economic growth while protecting the public interest. With a mission from its Member States to advance IP protection globally via intergovernmental cooperation and partnership with other international organizations, WIPO was formed by the WIPO Convention in 1967. Geneva, Switzerland serves as its corporate headquarters[5].

The World Intellectual Property Organization was founded in 1883, the same year that Robert Louis Stevenson finished writing *Treasure Island*, Johannes Brahms began work on his third symphony, and John and Emily Roebling finished building the Brooklyn Bridge in New York. When foreign exhibitors declined to participate in the International Exhibition of Inventions in Vienna in 1873 out of concern that their ideas might be stolen and utilized for commercial purposes in other nations, the necessity for international intellectual property protection became clear. The Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property, the first significant international agreement aimed at assisting citizens of one nation in obtaining protection for their intellectual creations in the form of industrial property rights, also known as inventions (patents), trademarks, and industrial designs, was established in the year 1883. The Paris Convention came into effect in 1884 with 14 signatories, who established an international bureau to handle administrative duties including planning member state meetings.

The Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works was established in 1886, and it helped citizens of its member states obtain international protection for their right to manage and be compensated for the use of their creative works, including songs, operas, musicals, sonatas, and drawings, paintings, sculptures, and architectural works. The Berne Convention established an International Bureau to handle administrative duties, similar to the Paris Convention. The United International Bureau (BIRPI) for the Protection of Intellectual Property was founded in 1893 as a result of the merger of these two modest bureaux. The World Intellectual Property Organization was in fact preceded by the BIRPI.

WIPO aggressively urges States to sign and execute its treaties since even the best-written agreements are useless without the participation of member states to carry out their contents. Widespread ratification and rigorous enforcement foster investor trust in the global respect for intellectual property rights, promote economic growth, and advance social welfare. WIPO also implemented a new strategy to respond to the industry's fast developments by employing new tools to hasten the creation of globally harmonized standards and principles. The conventional and more time-consuming treaty-based method to establishing international legal standards has been supplemented by the adoption of international guidelines on the protection of well-known marks in 1999, trademark licensing in 2000, and the protection of marks on the Internet in 2001[6].

WTO and WIPO

By signing a cooperation agreement with the World Commerce Organization (WTO), WIPO enlarged its mandate and further illustrated the significance of intellectual property rights in the administration of globalized commerce. It calls for collaboration on the TRIPS Agreement's implementation, including notice of laws and regulations, legal-technical support, and technical aid in favor of poor nations. A cooperative endeavor to assist poor nations in upholding their TRIPS responsibilities until the year 2000 was started in July 1998. It should be noted that WIPO now oversees 24 treaties, three of which it administers in collaboration with other international organizations. Through its member States and secretariat, WIPO also carries out a comprehensive and diverse program of activity that aims to:

1. Coordinating national intellectual property policies and laws.
2. Provide assistance with international requests for industrial property rights.
3. Sharing data on intellectual property.
4. Offer developing nations and other nations with legal and technical aid,
5. Assist in private intellectual property dispute settlement. and
6. Make use of information technology to store, access, and use priceless intellectual property data.

Country-wide Treatment

The Convention's national treatment requirements provide that each signatory state shall give all other contracting states' nationals with the same level of industrial property protection as it does for its own nationals. If they reside in a contracting State or have a genuine and functional industrial or commercial business there, citizens of non-contracting States are also entitled to national treatment under the Convention[7].

Priority of Right

The Convention stipulates that patents, trademarks, and industrial designs have the right of priority. This right of priority means that the applicant may apply for protection in any other contracting State within a specific timeframe 12 months for patents and utility models. 6 months for industrial designs and marks on the basis of a regular first application filed in one of the contracting States, and these later applications are treated as if they had been filed on the same day as the first application. In other words, these later applications have precedence over any subsequent ones that may have been submitted for the same invention, utility model, mark, or industrial design within the same time period by other people. Additionally, as these applications are based on the first application, they are unaffected by any subsequent events, such as the disclosure of the invention in a publication or the sale of goods with the mark or integrating the industrial design. One of the key practical benefits of right of priority is that when an applicant wants protection in multiple countries, he is not required to submit all of his applications at once. Instead, he has six or twelve months to choose the countries in which he wants protection and carefully plan the steps necessary to obtain protection[8].

Standard Rules

All of the contracting States are required to abide by the common regulations established by the Convention. The following are more crucial:

Patents

1. Patents issued for the same innovation in several contracting States are independent of one another.
2. A contracting State's decision to award a patent does not obligate the other contracting States to do the same.
3. A patent cannot be rejected, revoked, or terminated in one contracting state due to rejection, revoke, or termination in another contracting state.
4. The right to be identified as the inventor in the patent exists.

If the sale of a patented product or a product made using a patented method is subject to limits or restrictions emanating from domestic legislation, neither the grant of a patent nor its validity may be challenged on this basis. Each contracting State that enacts legislation allowing for the issuance of compulsory licenses to stop abuses that might arise from the exclusive rights granted by a patent is only permitted to do so within specific bounds.

Therefore, a compulsory license based on failure to work the patented invention must be denied if the patentee provides sufficient justification for his inaction and may only be granted in response to a request made after three or four years of failure to work or insufficient working of the patented invention. Except in situations when granting a compulsory license would not have been adequate to stop the misuse, forfeiture of a patent may not be contemplated. In the second scenario, processes for patent forfeiture may be started, but only after two years have passed since the first compulsory license was granted.

Marks

The filing and registration requirements for marks are not governed by the Paris Convention and are instead governed by local law in each contracting State. As a result, neither a registration nor an application for registration of a mark submitted by a citizen of a contracting State may be rejected on the grounds that the filing, registration, or renewal has not been impacted in the place of origin.

When a mark is registered in a contracting State, it becomes independent of any potential registrations in other nations, including the place of origin. As a result, the validity of registration in other contracting States is unaffected by the expiration or annulment of a mark's registration in one of those states. If a mark is lawfully registered in the country of origin, it must be accepted for registration and granted protection in the other contracting States in its original form upon request. The registration may be denied in certain circumstances, such as when the mark would violate third parties' acquired rights, when it lacks distinctiveness, when it violates morals or public order, or when it is of a type that might lead to public misinformation^[9].

If the use of a registered mark is required in any contracting State, the registration cannot be revoked until after a fair amount of time has passed, and then only if the owner can no longer defend his inactivity. Each contracting State is required to refuse registration and forbid the use of marks that are a reproduction, imitation, or translation that could lead to confusion of a mark that the competent authority of that State deems to be widely known in that State as being the mark of an individual entitled to the benefits of the Convention and used for the same or similar goods. Provided that they have been communicated through the WIPO International Bureau, each contracting State is also required to refuse registration of and outlaw the use of marks that incorporate or contain without authorization armorial bearings, state emblems, and official signs and hallmarks of contracting states. The same rules also apply to some intergovernmental organizations' names, acronyms, flags, and other insignia.

Commercial Designs

Every contracting State is required to preserve industrial designs, and protection cannot be revoked because the goods using the design were not produced there. Trade names must be protected in every contracting State without the need for filing or registration.

Signs of the Source

Each contracting State should take appropriate measures to prevent the direct or indirect use of any misleading indication of the origin of the products or of the identity of the producer, manufacturer, or dealer [10].

CONCLUSION

Trade secrets play a fundamental role in providing businesses with a competitive advantage through confidential know-how. The strategic protection of trade secrets is essential for maintaining market position and fostering long-term success. Legal frameworks, including contractual agreements and trade secret laws, offer means to safeguard this valuable information, but challenges remain in the ever-evolving digital landscape. In the context of international commerce, trade secret protection requires navigating diverse legal systems and cultural norms. Striking a balance between protection and innovation is crucial for promoting a vibrant business ecosystem that encourages knowledge sharing while respecting businesses' need to protect their proprietary information.

As businesses continue to rely on confidential know-how for innovation and competitive advantage, understanding the significance of trade secrets and adopting proactive measures for their protection becomes paramount. By prioritizing the safeguarding of trade secrets and implementing comprehensive strategies, businesses can thrive in a competitive global market, secure their distinct edge, and drive sustainable growth in the fast-paced world of commerce.

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CHAPTER 11

Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT): Facilitating Global Patent Protection

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ABSTRACT:

The Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) is an international treaty that plays a crucial role in streamlining the process of obtaining patent protection for inventions on a global scale. Adopted in 1970, the PCT provides a unified system for filing patent applications in multiple countries, simplifying administrative procedures, reducing costs, and enhancing efficiency for inventors and patent applicants. This study provides an overview of the key features and benefits of the PCT, highlighting its significance in promoting innovation and encouraging international collaboration in the field of intellectual property.

KEYWORDS:

Intellectual Property, Innovation, Patent, Patent Protection, Trade.

INTRODUCTION

By submitting an international patent application, the Patent Cooperation Treaty enables simultaneous patent protection for an innovation in a large number of nations. Any person who is a citizen or resident of a contractual State may submit the application to the national patent office of the contracting State they are a citizen or resident of, or, at the applicant's discretion, to the International Bureau of WIPO in Geneva. The international application may also be filed with the European Patent Office (EPO), the African Regional Industrial Property Organization (ARIPO), or the Eurasian Patent Office (EAPO), as appropriate, if the applicant is a national or resident of a contracting State that is a party to the European Patent Convention, the Harare Protocol on Patents and Industrial Designs (Harare Protocol), or the Eurasian Patent Convention. The formal specifications that must be met by every international application are regulated in great detail by the Treaty[1].

Generally referred to as specified States, the applicant must specify the nations in which he wants his international application to take effect. In each designated State, the international application has the same effect as if a national patent application had been submitted to the state's national patent office. The applicant must choose the outcome of a European patent application if a designated State is a signatory to the European Patent Convention. The applicant may choose to have the effects of a Eurasian patent when a specified State is a signatory to the convention. The applicant may choose to have an ARIPO patent application's effects in cases where a specified State is a party to the Harare Protocol. The impact of the designation is automatically that of a regional application submitted with OAPI when a designated State is a member of the African Intellectual Property Organization (OAPI).

One of the major patent office's conducts an international search in relation to an international application, and the results of this search are an international search report, which is a list of the citations of published documents that may have an impact on the patentability of the invention claimed in the international application.

The worldwide search report is sent to the applicant, who may choose to withdraw his application, particularly if the report's content indicates that patents are unlikely to be granted. If the foreign application is not withdrawn, the foreign Bureau publishes it together with the international search report and notifies all designated Offices. The applicant can wait until the end of the 20th month following the filing of the international application, or, where that application claims the priority of an earlier application, until the end of the 20th month following the filing of that earlier application, before starting the national procedure before each designated Office by providing a translation (where applicable). If the applicant requests an international preliminary examination report that provides a preliminary and non-binding opinion on the patentability of the claimed invention before the expiration of the 19th month from the priority date, the 20-month period may be extended by an additional 10 months. However, during the international preliminary examination, the applicant is allowed to make changes to the international application[2].

The benefits of filing a PCT

Following are some benefits of PCT filing for applicants, patent offices, and the general public:

- a. The applicant has up to 18 months longer than in a proceeding outside of the PCT to consider whether it would be beneficial to seek protection abroad,
- b. To designate national patent agents in every foreign nation.

The PCT file guarantees the applicant that his international application cannot be rejected on formal grounds by any designated Office during the national phase of the application's processing if it is in the form defined by the PCT.

The applicant may reasonably predictably assess the likelihood of his invention being patentable based on the worldwide search report. The applicant has the option to alter the international application to correct any errors before the designated Offices handle it, making that chance even higher based on the results of the international preliminary examination report.

The Assembly and the Executive Committee of the Berne Union exist under the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works. The Assembly is comprised of all Union member nations that have ratified at least the administrative and concluding clauses of the Stockholm Act. With the exception of Switzerland, who is a member *ex officio*, the members of the Executive Committee are chosen from among the Union's members.

The Convention is based on three fundamental principles and includes measures defining the minimum level of protection to be provided as well as additional provisions for developing nations.

DISCUSSION

Simple Principles

These are the three fundamental ideas

The same level of protection that each other contractual State accords to the works of its own citizens must be extended to works that originate in one of the contracting States in each of the other contracting States. Such protection shall not be subject to any formality requirements. Such protection is apart from any protection in the nation where the work was created. However, if a contracting State allows for a longer period of time than the minimum set out by the Convention and the work no longer has protection in the place of origin, protection may be revoked after that protection expires. The Convention also establishes moral rights, which include the right to claim authorship of a work and the right to object to any alteration, distortion, modification, or other negative conduct that would harm the author's honor or reputation.

Time Period of Protection

Protection must generally be provided up to the end of the 50th year after the author's death. However, there are certain exceptions to this generalization. The term of protection for anonymous or pseudonymous works expires 50 years after the work has been lawfully made available to the public, unless the pseudonym is clear that the author is who he claims to be or he reveals that identity during that time. In that case, the general rule is applicable. The minimum period of protection for audiovisual works is 50 years from the release of the work to the public, or in the absence of such an occurrence from the day the work was created. The minimum term for works of applied art and photographic works is 25 years from the date of production[3].

Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights

The Trade-Related Intellectual Property Systems (TRIPS) Agreement, which was created with the creation of the World Trade Organization (WTO), crystallizes the significance and function of intellectual property protection. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) treaty's Uruguay Round ended in 1994, and this is when the negotiations for it began. The Preamble to the Agreement, which reproduces the fundamental Uruguay Round negotiation goals set in the TRIPS area by the 1986 Punta del Este Declaration and the 1988-89 Mid-Term Review, lays out the overall objectives of the TRIPS Agreement. These goals include lessening trade distortions and obstacles, promoting adequate and effective intellectual property rights protection, and making sure that the procedures and laws used to enforce intellectual property rights do not themselves obstruct legal trade.

All TRIPS member nations are subject to the same responsibilities. However, depending on their degree of development, underdeveloped nations were given more time to adopt the necessary revisions to their national legislation. For developing nations, the transitional phase ended in 2005. The transition phase for the least developed nations has been prolonged until 2016 and may continue beyond that year. The most extensive international agreement on intellectual property to date is the TRIPS Agreement, which went into force on 1 January 1995. Its scope of intellectual property includes the following areas.

Characteristics of the Agreement

The following are the TRIPS Agreement's three key components:

Standards: The TRIPS Agreement outlines the minimal levels of protection that each Member must provide. Domestic processes and remedies for the enforcement of intellectual property rights are covered under the second major group of provisions. The Agreement sets forth a few overarching guidelines that apply to all IPR enforcement processes.

Settlement of disputes: The Agreement requires that any disagreements between WTO Members over the observance of the TRIPS commitments be resolved via the WTO's dispute resolution processes. The Agreement also establishes some fundamental principles, such as national and most-favorable-nation treatment, and some broad guidelines to ensure that procedural challenges in acquiring or maintaining IPRs do not negate the substantive benefits that should result from the Agreement. The TRIPS Agreement is a basic standards agreement that gives Members the option to provide more comprehensive intellectual property protection if they so choose. Members are free to choose how to apply the Agreement's provisions in accordance with their respective legal framework and customs[4].

TRIPS's protection of intellectual property

To guarantee that there are acceptable levels of protection in every member country, the TRIPS Agreement provides for the protection of several types of intellectual property rights. The Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property (patents, industrial designs, etc.) and the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works (copyright) are the main international agreements of the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) that were in place prior to the establishment of the WTO. These treaties did not apply to all locations, and in certain circumstances, the standards of protection were deemed insufficient. Thus, a substantial number of new or improved requirements for the protection of intellectual property rights are added by the TRIPS agreement. The Agreement's Part II tackles the many categories of IPR in its several parts and sets standards for each one.

Rights Related to Copyright

The Berne Convention's fundamental requirements must be followed by member nations under the TRIPS Agreement. The Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works of 1971 is cited in Article 9.1 of the Agreement, which states that Members must abide by its articles 1 through 21 and Appendix. Members, however, do not have any rights or obligations under the TRIPS Agreement with regard to the moral rights the right to claim authorship and the right to object to any derogatory action with respect to a work that would be detrimental to the author's honor or reputation conferred under Article bis of that Convention. The clauses of the Berne Convention mentioned below address issues including the subject matter to be protected, the minimum duration of protection, the rights to be granted, and the scope of those rights that may be restricted. The Appendix permits developing nations to restrict the right to translation and the right to reproduction in specific circumstances. Aside from that, the TRIPS Agreement adds and clarifies a few particular matters. According to Article 9.2 of the Agreement, phrases

are only covered by copyright protection, not ideas, techniques, methods of operation, or mathematical concepts as a whole[5]. Computer programs and compilation: According to Article 10.1 of the Berne Convention (1971), computer programs, whether in source code or object code, are entitled to literary work protection. This clause affirms that computer programs must be copyright protected and that the Berne Convention's requirements that apply to literary works must also apply to them. It also affirms that a program's format, such as source code or object code, has no bearing on the level of security. Computer programs must be protected like literary works, which implies, for example, that only those restrictions that apply to literary works may be imposed to computer programs. Additionally, it reaffirms that computer programs are covered by the 50-year general term of protection. Possible shorter phrases that apply to photography and applied art works may not be used.

According to Article 10.2, a compilation of data or other material must be protected as such under-copyright laws, even if the databases include data that are not, in and of themselves, covered by copyright laws. Databases are eligible for copyright protection if the choice or organization of their information qualifies as an intellectual production. Additionally, the clause affirms that databases must be safeguarded regardless of their format whether machine-readable or in another form. The section also makes it clear that any copyright that may exist in the data or material itself is unaffected and that such protection does not apply to the data or material itself[6].

Rental Rights: According to Article 11, authors have the right to permit or forbid the commercial rental of original or copies of their copyright works to the general public, at least with regard to computer programs and, under certain conditions, cinematographic works. The exclusive rental right for cinematographic works is subject to the so-called impairment test, under which a Member is exempt from the obligation unless the rental has resulted in widespread copying of the works, which materially reduces the exclusive right of reproduction granted to that Member by the authors and their successors in title. The duty does not apply to computer program rentals if the software itself is not the main purpose of the rental. The duration of protection is the author's lifetime and 50 years after his or her passing, in accordance with the basic principle stated in Article 7(1) of the Berne Convention as incorporated into the TRIPS Agreement. In some circumstances, shorter periods are explicitly permitted under that Article's paragraphs 2 and 4. These provisions are supplemented by Article 12 of the TRIPS Agreement, which states that the term of protection of a work, other than a photographic work or a work of applied art, shall be no less than 50 years from the end of the calendar year of authorized publication or, in the absence of such authorized publication within 50 years of the making of the work, 50 years from the end of the calendar year.

Limitations and Exceptions: Article 13 specifies that Members must apply any restrictions or exceptions to exclusive rights in a way that does not interfere with the right holder's legal interests. It also mandates that Members limit these restrictions or exceptions to only those special circumstances that do not interfere with the regular exploitation of the work. Protection of Performers, Producers of Phonograms, and Broadcasting Organizations: According to Article 14.1, performers shall have the option of preventing the unauthorized fixation of their

performance on a phonogram for example, the recording of a live musical performance. Only auditory fixations, not audiovisual ones, are covered under the fixation right. Additionally, actors must be able to stop others from developing similar fixations. They will also be able to stop their live performance from being shared with the public and aired without permission via wireless technology[7].

According to Article 14.3, broadcasting companies have the right to prohibit the unlawful fixing, replication of fixes, rebroadcasting of broadcasts through wireless means, as well as the dissemination of their television broadcasts to the general public. However, if owners of copyright in the subject matter of broadcasts are given the opportunity to stop such activities, pursuant to the Berne Convention's rules, it is not essential to extend such rights to broadcasting companies. To the degree permissible by the Rome Convention, each Member may include restrictions, limits, exceptions, and reservations in respect to the protection of performers, phonogram producers, and broadcasting organizations. According to Article 14.5, the duration of protection is at least 50 years for phonogram artists and producers and 20 years for broadcasting companies.

Trademarks

Protectable subject matter: According to Article 15 of the TRIPS Agreement, any sign, or combination of signs, that can set one company's goods and services apart from those of another company must be eligible for registration as a trademark as long as it can be seen by the naked eye. Such signs must be qualified for registration as trademarks, particularly words, including personal names, letters, numbers, figurative elements, and color combinations, as well as any combination of such signs. Member nations are permitted to demand that distinctiveness that has been gained through usage as an additional criterion for eligibility for trademark registration in cases where signs are not naturally capable of differentiating the relevant products or services. Members may choose whether to permit the recording of indications that cannot be seen, such as sound or scent markings[8].

Members may make usage a requirement for registration. However, actual use of a trademark is not permissible as a requirement for submitting a registration application, and failure to materialize an intent to use is not permitted as a reason for rejecting the application until at least three years have elapsed after the filing date (Article 14.3). According to the Agreement, service marks must be protected in the same manner as marks used to identify commodities. Rights Granted: Where use of identical or similar signs for goods or services that are identical or similar to those for which the trademark is registered would increase the likelihood of confusion, the owner of a registered trademark must be granted the exclusive right to prevent all third parties without the owner's consent from using such signs in the course of trade. A probability of misunderstanding must be assumed when the same sign is used for similar products or services.

In addition to the protection mandated by Article 6bis of the Paris Convention, which is incorporated by reference into the TRIPS Agreement, which requires Members to refuse or cancel the registration and to forbid the use of a mark that is in conflict with a well-known mark, the TRIPS Agreement contains certain provisions on well-known marks. First, services must be

covered by the terms of that Article. Second, it must be taken into consideration that the public's knowledge in the relevant field was obtained via a variety of channels, including its marketing, in addition to the mark's usage. Additionally, the protection of registered well-known marks must extend to goods or services that are distinct from those for which the trademark has been registered, provided that doing so would suggest a connection between those goods or services and the registered trademark owner, and that doing so would likely harm the owner's interests (Articles 16.2 and 3).

Exceptions: Under the conditions that such exceptions take into consideration the legitimate interests of the trademark owner and of third parties, Members may grant limited exceptions to the rights granted by a trademark, such as the fair use of descriptive phrases (Article 17). **Protection period:** The initial registration of a trademark and any renewal thereof should be for a period of not less than seven years. (Article 18) A trademark registration may be renewed indefinitely.

Requirement of Use: A mark cannot be canceled on the basis of non-use before three years have passed without interruption, provided the trademark owner can demonstrate good cause based on the presence of barriers to such use. Conditions that develop without the owner of the trademark's consent, such as import limitations or other governmental restrictions, must be accepted as good grounds for non-use.

According to Article 19 of the Trademark Act, use of a trademark by a third party while under the control of its owner shall be acknowledged as use of the trademark for the purposes of upholding the registration^[9]. The use of the trademark in commerce must also not be unjustifiably restricted by specific conditions, such as use in conjunction with another brand, use in a unique format, or use in a way that compromises the trademark's capacity to identify the products or services (Article 20).

Assignment and Licensing: Members have the authority to set restrictions on the trademark licensing and assignment processes. Trademark licensing under duress is prohibited (Article 21). Sometimes, place names are used to designate a product. Examples that come to mind include Basmati rice, Darjeeling tea, Champagne, Scotch, Tequila, and Roquefort cheese. The TRIPs agreement has specific safeguards for wine and alcoholic beverage manufacturers because they are especially concerned about the use of geographical names to identify their goods.

For the purposes of the Agreement, geographical indications are defined as indications that place a good's quality, reputation, or other characteristic primarily attributable to its geographic origin in the territory of a member, or a region or locality in that territory (Article 22.1). Article 22.2 states that interested parties must have access to legal means to prevent the use of any geographical indications that deceive the public about the geographic origin of the good or that would be considered unfair competition under the terms of Article 10bis of the Paris Convention.

If the law enables it or at the request of an interested person, the registration of a trademark that employs a geographical indication in a manner that misleads the public as to the real place of origin shall be rejected or canceled *ex officio* (Article 22.3).

Protection for Wines and Spirits: According to Article 23, interested parties must have access to the legal tools necessary to prohibit the use of a geographical indication to identify Wines for Wines not from the location specified by the geographical indication. This holds true even when the audience is not being misled, there is no unfair competition, and the geographical indicator is supplemented with terms like kind, type, style, or imitation, among others, indicating the genuine provenance of the commodity. Geographical markers used to identify spirits must also be protected when employed on spirits. It is necessary to provide protection against trademark registration in this manner[10].

CONCLUSION

An essential tool for innovators looking for worldwide patent protection is the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT). The difficulty and financial burden of obtaining individual patent protection across several nations has been significantly decreased because to the PCT's establishment of a single system for submitting patent applications and facilitation of the worldwide search and examination procedure. Additionally, the PCT has promoted improved international cooperation in the area of intellectual property, fostering knowledge exchange and transnational innovation.

The PCT has made a substantial contribution to global innovation and technical development throughout the years. It has helped small businesses and independent innovators compete on a worldwide scale, in addition to huge multinationals, which have benefitted from it. The PCT has improved transparency and accessibility to priceless intellectual property rights by assuring a more simplified and uniform patent application procedure. The Patent collaboration Treaty, which fosters innovation, collaboration, and the transfer of information across country boundaries, continues to be a pillar of the global patent system. The PCT will surely be crucial in assisting inventors and defending their rights in an increasingly linked world as technology and creativity continue to drive development.

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CHAPTER 12

Industrial Designs: Enhancing Aesthetics and Commercial Value in Product Innovation

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ABSTRACT:

Industrial designs represent a crucial aspect of product development, combining creativity and functionality to shape the visual appearance and ornamental features of various items. As a form of intellectual property protection, industrial designs play a significant role in enhancing the market value and competitiveness of products in diverse industries. This study explores the concept of industrial designs, their legal framework, and their impact on fostering innovation, aesthetics, and commercial success for businesses worldwide. Industrial design is a critical aspect of product development that focuses on creating visually appealing and functional products. It involves the strategic integration of aesthetics, ergonomics, and user experience to enhance the overall appeal and commercial value of goods. In today's competitive market, industrial designs play a pivotal role in influencing consumer preferences, brand identity, and market success. This detailed description explores the significance of industrial designs in product innovation, how they contribute to aesthetics and commercial value, and their impact on businesses and consumers alike.

KEYWORDS:

Businesses, Economic, Fostering Innovation, Industrial Designs, Product Development.

INTRODUCTION

Industrial designs are more than just superficial aesthetics. They encompass the entire visual appearance and ornamental aspects of a product. A well-designed product has the potential to capture the attention of consumers and create a lasting impression, thereby fostering innovation in product development. Designers and engineers work together to create products that not only meet functional requirements but also evoke an emotional connection with users. From consumer electronics to furniture, from automobiles to fashion accessories, industrial designs infuse creativity and imagination into everyday products.

Enhancing Aesthetics and User Experience

Aesthetics and user experience are key drivers in consumer decision-making. A visually appealing and user-friendly product can evoke positive emotions, leading to increased customer satisfaction and brand loyalty. Industrial designs strive to strike a balance between form and function, ensuring that the product not only looks visually pleasing but also provides a seamless

and intuitive user experience. For example, the sleek and ergonomic design of smartphones has become a hallmark of leading brands, attracting consumers and solidifying their market position.

Creating Brand Identity and Recognition

Distinctive and well-executed industrial designs contribute significantly to brand identity and recognition. Iconic designs become synonymous with the brand itself, making it instantly recognizable in the market. Consumers associate certain product designs with specific brands, fostering a sense of trust and familiarity. As a result, businesses invest heavily in creating unique and memorable designs that set them apart from competitors.

Protection and Intellectual Property Rights

Intellectual property protection is crucial for preserving the exclusivity of industrial designs. Through patents, copyrights, and design registrations, designers and businesses can safeguard their creations from unauthorized copying and imitation. Strong protection encourages investment in design innovation, as companies are assured of reaping the benefits of their creative efforts without fear of infringement.

Influencing Consumer Behavior and Market Success

Consumer behavior is heavily influenced by aesthetics and design. An eye-catching product design can trigger impulse purchases and drive demand, even in a crowded market. Companies that prioritize industrial design in their product development strategies can gain a competitive edge and achieve market success. Moreover, positive user experiences resulting from well-designed products often lead to word-of-mouth recommendations and positive reviews, further boosting a brand's reputation.

Economic Impact and Industry Growth

Industrial design plays a significant role in the economic growth of nations and industries. A thriving design ecosystem encourages creativity and innovation, attracting investments and talent. Additionally, successful designs generate revenue through licensing and royalties, contributing to the overall economic prosperity of the businesses and countries involved. Industrial designs form an integral part of the product development process, combining aesthetics, functionality, and user experience to create innovative and visually appealing products. By enhancing the market value and commercial success of goods, industrial designs influence consumer behavior and brand recognition. Moreover, intellectual property protection ensures that designers and businesses can capitalize on their creative efforts, fostering further investment in innovation. As companies continue to prioritize design in their product development strategies, industrial designs will remain a crucial factor in shaping the consumer landscape and driving economic growth in the global market[1].

DISCUSSION

Protection Requirements: According to Article 25.1 of the TRIPS Agreement, Members must provide innovative or original industrial designs that were independently generated the right to protection. If designs do not substantially vary from existing designs or combinations of existing

design characteristics, members may state that the designs are neither unique or original. Members may stipulate that this protection does not apply to designs that are primarily driven by functional or technical reasons.

In order to account for the short lifespan and large number of new designs in the textile industry, Article 25.2 contains a special provision that states that any requirements for securing the protection of such designs, particularly in regards to any cost, examination, or publication, must not unreasonably limit the ability to seek and obtain such protection. Members are allowed to fulfill this commitment in accordance with copyright or industrial design legislation.

Protection: Under Article 26.1, Members must grant the owner of a protected industrial design the right to prevent third parties from making, selling, or importing products that bear or embody a design that is a copy, or substantially a copy, of the protected design when such acts are carried out for commercial gain. Under the conditions that such exceptions do not unreasonably conflict with the normal exploitation of protected industrial designs and do not unreasonably prejudice the legitimate interests of the owner of the protected design, taking into account the legitimate interests of third parties, Members are permitted by Article 26.2 to provide limited exceptions to the protection of industrial designs. Protection period: The term of the protection must be at least ten years [2].

Patents

Patentable Subject Matter: In accordance with the TRIPS Agreement, Member nations must grant patents for all innovations, including goods and processes, across all technological disciplines, without restriction, as long as they pass the customary standards for novelty, creativity, and industrial usefulness. Additionally, it must be possible to obtain patents and enjoy patent rights without regard to the location of the invention or whether the goods are manufactured locally or elsewhere (Article 27.1). The fundamental principle of patentability has three allowable exceptions. One is for innovations that violate morals or the public order. This expressly includes inventions that are harmful to the health or well-being of people, animals, plants, or the environment. In order to invoke this exemption, the economic exploitation of the innovation must also be blocked, and this prohibition must be required to uphold public morals or *ordre public* (Article 27.2).

The second exemption is that Members may not grant patents for surgical, medicinal, or diagnostic procedures used to treat people or animals (Article 27.3(a)). The third is that Members are allowed to exclude any plants or animals other than microorganisms and fundamentally biological processes for the generation of plants or animals. Any nation that exempts plant types from patent protection, meanwhile, must have a strong *sui generis* method of defense. In addition, the whole clause is up for review four years after the Agreement enters into effect (Article 27.3(b)).

Rights Granted: A product patent must provide the exclusive right to make, use, offer for sale, sell, and import the invention for these purposes. Patent protection for processes must provide rights to both the things produced directly via the method as well as their usage. In accordance

with Article 28 of the Patent Act, patent owners are also entitled to license agreements and the ability to assign or transfer their patents via succession.

Exceptions: Under certain conditions, Members may grant limited exceptions to the exclusive rights granted by a patent, as long as these exceptions do not unreasonably conflict with a patent's normal exploitation and do not unreasonably jeopardize the legitimate interests of the patent owner, taking into account the legitimate interests of third parties (Article 30).

Protection period: According to Article 33, the applicable protection period cannot terminate before 20 years have passed after the filing date. In order for an invention to be carried out by a person skilled in the art, a patent applicant must disclose it in a manner that is sufficiently clear and comprehensive (Article 29.1). Additionally, applicants may be asked to specify the best method for carrying out the invention at the time of filing or, in cases where priority is claimed, at the priority date of the application.

Process patents: Where certain circumstances indicating a likelihood that the protected process was used are met (Article 34), the judicial authorities shall have the authority to order the defendant to prove that the process to obtain an identical product is different from the patented process.

Other Use Without Authorization of the Right Holder: Compulsory licensing and government use without the right holder's consent are permitted, but only under circumstances designed to safeguard the right holder's legal interests. Article 31 primarily outlines the circumstances. These requirements include paying adequate compensation in each case, taking into account the economic value of the licence, and requiring that decisions be subject to judicial or other independent review by a distinct higher authority. Generally speaking, such licences must only be granted if an unsuccessful attempt has been made to acquire a voluntary licence on reasonable terms and conditions within a reasonable period of time. When compulsory licenses are used to stop activities that have been shown to be anticompetitive via a legal procedure, some of these criteria are loosened. These requirements should be read in conjunction with the relevant clauses of Article 27.1, which demand that patent rights be enjoyed without regard to the technological sector or whether goods are manufactured locally or elsewhere.

Designs for integrated circuit layout

Article 35 of the TRIPS Agreement mandates that Member nations safeguard integrated circuit layout designs in line with the terms of the IPIC Treaty (the Treaty on Intellectual Property in Respect of Integrated Circuits), which was negotiated in 1989 under the supervision of WIPO. These clauses include exploitation, registration, and disclosure as well as the definitions of integrated circuit and layout-design (topography), as well as criteria for protection, exclusive rights, and limits.

The TRIPS Agreement explains and/or expands on four topics in addition to requiring Member nations to safeguard integrated circuit layout designs in line with the IPIC Treaty's requirements. These issues include the duration of the protection (ten years instead of eight, Article 38), the application of the protection to items incorporating infringing integrated circuits (final

subparagraph of Article 36), and the handling of unintentional infringers (Article 37.1). Instead of the provisions of the IPIC Treaty on compulsory licensing (Article 37.2), the conditions in Article 31 of the TRIPS Agreement apply *mutatis mutandis* to compulsory or non-voluntary licensing of a layout-design or to its use by or for the government without the right holder's consent.

Security of Confidential Information

Undisclosed information, such as trade secrets or know-how, must be protected in accordance with the TRIPS Agreement. Article 39.2 states that information that is secret, has economic value because it is secret, and has been subject to reasonable efforts to keep it secret must be covered by the protection. The Agreement does not require that undisclosed information be treated as property, but it does mandate that the person lawfully in control of such information be able to prevent it from being disclosed to, acquired by, or used by others without his or her consent in a way that is inconsistent with honest commercial practices.

A manner contrary to honest commercial practices is defined as a breach of contract, a breach of confidence, the encouragement of a breach, the acquisition of nonpublic information by third parties who knew or were egregiously negligent in failing to know that such practices were involved in the acquisition, and other similar actions.

The Agreement also includes clauses on unreleased test results and other data that must be submitted before governments would approve the sale of medicinal or agricultural chemical goods that include novel chemical entities. In this case, the relevant Member government is required to safeguard the data against improper commercial usage. Additionally, Members are required to keep such information private, except in cases of public safety or unless efforts are made to shield it from improper commercial usage.

Intellectual property rights enforcement

Part III of the Agreement, which is broken down into five Sections, contains the provisions on enforcement. The basic requirements for all enforcement processes are outlined in the first Section. These are particularly intended to guarantee its efficacy and the observance of certain fundamental rules of due process. The sections that follow include criminal proceedings, provisional measures, particular requirements connected to border measures, and civil and administrative procedures and remedies. These provisions have two main goals: the first is to guarantee that right holders have access to efficient means of enforcement. the second is to guarantee that enforcement procedures are applied in a way that prevents the creation of barriers to legitimate trade and that offers protections against their abuse[3].

The Agreement distinguishes between general infringing activity, for which civil judicial procedures and remedies must be available, and counterfeiting and piracy, the more egregious and overt forms of infringing activity, for which additional procedures and remedies, such as border controls and criminal procedures, must also be provided. For this reason, slavish imitation of trademarks qualifies as counterfeit goods, and products that infringe copyright or a similar right are considered pirated goods[4].

UNESCO

At the start of the twenty-first century, copyright, a long-standing instrument for fostering innovation, has even more capacity to do so. Since its inception, UNESCO has been dedicated to advancing copyright protection. The Universal Copyright Convention was enacted under its auspices in 1952. Over time, UNESCO has been more concerned with guaranteeing widespread respect for copyright in all domains of invention and the cultural industries. Along with providing information, training, and research in the area of copyright law, it also carries out awareness-raising and capacity-building programs within the framework of the Global Alliance for Cultural Diversity. It is primarily interested in creating new anti-piracy strategies[5]. Copyright protection has not been impacted by the digital revolution. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) makes an effort to contribute to the global discussion on this issue, taking into consideration the development perspective and paying particular attention to the need to maintain a fair balance between the interests of authors and the general public's access to knowledge and information [6]

The term intellectual property refers to all assets made possible by the human mind, labor, money, and intelligence. Industrial property, which includes inventions (patents), trademarks, industrial designs, and geographic indications of origin, and copyright, which includes literary and artistic works like novels, poems, and plays, films, musical compositions, artistic creations like drawings, paintings, photographs, and sculptures, and architectural designs, are the two categories of intellectual property. However, the most obvious distinction between intellectual property and other types of property is that the former is intangible, meaning that it cannot be described or recognized by its own physical characteristics. To be protectable, it must be stated in a recognizable manner. The Trade-Related Intellectual Property Systems (TRIPS) Agreement, which was established together with the World Trade Organization (WTO), clarifies the significance and function of intellectual property protection. The most extensive international agreement on intellectual property to date is the TRIPS Agreement, which went into force on 1 January 1995[7].

India lacked a formal legislation controlling geographical indications of products that could effectively safeguard the interests of such products' producers. This led to contentious instances involving turmeric, neem, and basmati rice. In order to address these issues, it became necessary to have comprehensive legislation that covers both the registration of geographical indications and their adequate protection. As a result, the Parliament passed the Geographical Indication of Goods (Registration and Protection) Act, 1999. The WTO's TRIPS Agreement comprises rules relating to the establishment of standards on the accessibility, scope, and use of intellectual property rights, geographical indications, integrated circuit layout-design, etc. To preserve semiconductor integrated circuit layout-designs, the government passed the Semiconductor Integrated Circuits Layout-Designs Act, 2000. In India, the Protection of Plant Varieties and Farmers' Rights Act, 2001, was passed to safeguard novel plant varieties. The many alterations and additions to prior intellectual property laws are a sign of India's transition to a new IPR regime in order to be ready for the competition in the global marketplace[8].

Utility model protection is only offered in a small but considerable number of nations and areas. India currently lacks any utility model laws. The Biological Diversity Act, 2002 was enacted after India ratified the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) on a global scale. The Biological Diversity Act seeks to preserve biological resources and related knowledge while also promoting equitable and sustainable access to them. Strong intellectual property protections enable customers to make informed decisions regarding the security, dependability, and efficacy of their products. Enforced intellectual property rights guarantee that goods are genuine and meet the high standards that customers know and anticipate. IP rights provide the assurance and comfort that customers want and markets need[9]. The numerous facets of intellectual property and industrial property are covered by a variety of international treaties and conventions. The World Intellectual Property Organization, or WIPO, is in charge of overseeing these Conventions[10].

CONCLUSION

Industrial designs are a crucial component of contemporary product development and marketing strategies, giving firms a special chance to stand out from the competition with their goods. Industrial design protection promotes innovation and creativity by defending the decorative and aesthetic components of diverse goods, motivating designers and businesses to continually enhance the aesthetics and usability of their products.

The capacity of industrial design protection to significantly increase the economic worth of items is one of its main benefits. A well-protected and striking design may be a potent differentiator since consumers often focus their purchase choices on aesthetics and visual appeal. Strong industrial design protection may also secure the market share and financial success of the original maker by preventing illegal duplication or replication of a product's look. Businesses and consumers may both benefit from industrial designs. They permit businesses to safeguard their financial investments in branding and design, encouraging the development of unique and aesthetically appealing goods. Industrial design protection thus contributes significantly to economic development, consumer welfare, and an improvement in the general standard of products available on the market. Businesses who understand the value of industrial designs and incorporate them into their product development plans are better positioned to succeed in the cutthroat global marketplace, while customers continue to gain from a wide variety of cutting-edge and visually beautiful items.

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CHAPTER 13

The Concept of Patent: Fostering Innovation through Intellectual Property Protection

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ABSTRACT:

The concept of patent is an indispensable mechanism for driving innovation and fostering technological advancement. By granting inventors exclusive rights to their inventions, patents incentivize individuals and companies to invest in research, development, and the commercialization of groundbreaking ideas. The protection afforded by patents ensures that inventors can recoup their investments, which often involve significant time, effort, and resources. The concept of patent is a fundamental pillar of modern intellectual property law, aimed at promoting innovation and technological progress. A patent grants exclusive rights to inventors for their novel and non-obvious inventions, providing them with a legal monopoly over the commercial exploitation of their creations for a limited period. This study explores the concept of patent, its historical evolution, its key components, and its critical role in incentivizing creativity, research, and development in various industries.

KEYWORDS:

Intellectual, Novelty, Patent, Property, Right to Information.

INTRODUCTION

The creative work of the human mind is protected through several measures and the main motivation for the same is that such protection is a definite measure of encouragement for the creative activity. Several forms of protection of the creative activity have come about including those which are of particular interest in the industrial development. Patents being one of them. Generally speaking, patent is a monopoly grant and it enables the inventor to control the output and within the limits set by demand, the price of the patented products. Underlying economic and commercial justification for the patent system is that it acts as a stimulus to investment in the Industrial innovation. Innovative technology leads to the maintenance of an increase in nations stock of valuable, tradeable and industrial assets[1].

The grant of first patent can be traced as far back as 500 B.C. It was the city dominated by gourmands, and perhaps the first, to grant what we now-a-days call patent right to promote culinary art. For it conferred exclusive rights of sale to any confectioner who first invented a delicious dish. As the practice was extended to other Greek cities and to other crafts and commodities, it acquired a name 'monopoly', a Greek Portmanteau word from mono (alone) and polein (sale). Evidences of grant to private individuals by kings and rulers of exclusive property

rights to inventors' dates back to the 14th Century, but their purpose varied throughout the history. History shows that in 15th Century in Venice there had been systematic use of monopoly privileges for inventors for the encouragement of invention. Utility and novelty of the invention were the important considerations for granting a patent privilege. The inventors were also required to put their invention in commercial use within a specified period. In 16th Century the German princes awarded inventors of new arts and machines and also took into consideration the utility and novelty of inventions. Early laws in American colonies served primarily to encourage foreign manufacturers to establish new industries in the colonies by providing them protected domestic markets.

By the late 15th Century, the English monarchy increasingly started using monopoly privilege to reward court favorites, to secure loyalty and to secure control over the industry but these privileges were not used to encourage inventions. In 1623, the English Parliament adopted a Statute of monopolies which recognised the inventors patent as a justifiable monopoly to be distinguished from other monopoly privileges. The Statute outlawed the awarding of monopoly privileges except for first and true inventor of a new manufacture. The origin of the Indian Patent System could be traced to the Act of 1856 granting exclusive privileges to inventors. The patent regime at the time of Independence was governed by the Patents and Designs Act, 1911, which had provisions both for product and process patents. It was, however, generally felt that the patent law had done little good to the people of the country. The way the Act was designed benefited foreigners far more than Indians. It did not help at all in the promotion of scientific research and industrialization in the country, and it curbed the innovativeness and inventiveness of Indians[2].

Patents Act, 1970

The Patents Act, 1970 remained in force for about 24 years without any change till December 1994. Being a landmark in the industrial development of India, the basic philosophy of the Act is that patents are granted to encourage inventions and to secure that these inventions are worked on a commercial scale without undue delay. and patents are granted not merely to enable patentee to enjoy a monopoly for the importation of the patented article into the country. The said philosophy is being implemented through compulsory licensing, registration of only process patents for food, medicine or drug, pesticides and substances produced by chemical processes which, apart from chemical substances normally understood, also include items such as alloys, optical glass, semi-conductors, inter metallic compounds etc. It may, however, be noted that products vital for our economy such as agriculture & horticulture products, atomic energy inventions and all living things are not patentable. Thus, the Patents Act 1970 was expected to provide a reasonable balance between adequate and effective protection of patents on the one hand and the technology development, public interest and specific needs of the country on the other hand[3].

Uruguay round of GATT negotiations paved the way for WTO. Therefore, India was put under the contractual obligation to amend its Patents Act in compliance with the provisions of TRIPS. India had to meet the first set of requirements on 1-1-1995. Accordingly, an Ordinance effecting certain changes in the Act was issued on 31st December 1994, which ceased to operate after six

months. Subsequently, another Ordinance was issued in 1999. This Ordinance was subsequently replaced by the Patents (Amendment) Act, 1999 that was brought into force retrospectively from 1st January, 1995. The amended Act provided for filing of applications for product patents in the areas of drugs, pharmaceuticals and agro chemicals though such patents were not allowed. However, such applications were to be examined only after 31-12-2004. Meanwhile, the applicants could be allowed Exclusive Marketing Rights (EMR) to sell or distribute these products in India, subject to fulfilment of certain conditions. India amended its Patents Act again in 2002 through the Patents (Amendment) Act, 2002 increasing the term of patent to 20 years for all technology, Reversal of burden of proof, compulsory licences etc. This Act came into force on 20th May 2003 with the introduction of the new Patent Rules, 2003 by replacing the earlier Patents Rules, 1972.

Patents Rules: Under the provisions of Section 159 of the Patents Act, 1970 the Central Government is empowered to make rules for implementing the Act and regulating patent administration. Accordingly, the Patents Rules, 1972 were notified and brought into force w.e.f. 20.4.1972. These Rules were amended from time to time till 20th May 2003 when new Patents Rules, 2003 were brought into force by replacing the 1972 rules. These rules were further amended by the Patents (Amendment) Rules, 2005 and the Patents (Amendment) Rules, 2006. The last amendments are made effective from 5th May 2006. There are four Schedules to the Patents (Amendment) Rules 2005. The First Schedule prescribes the fees to be paid. The Second Schedule specifies the list of forms and the texts of various forms required in connection with various activities under the Patents Act. These forms are to be used wherever required and if needed, they can be modified with the consent of the Controller. The Third Schedule prescribes form of Patent to be issued on Grant of the Patent. The Fourth Schedule prescribes costs to be awarded in various proceedings before the Controller under the Act.

DISCUSSION

Salient Features of the Act

An exclusive right to produce, use, sell, and market an invention is known as a patent. This right is awarded by a nation to the inventor, providing the creation complies with specific legal requirements. Exclusivity of right means that the innovation cannot be created, used, manufactured, or marketed by anyone else without the patent holder's permission. This privilege is only accessible for a brief length of time. However, additional regulations of the nation that granted the patent may have an impact on how it is used or exploited. These laws may deal with things like food, security, safety, and the like. Existing patents in a related field may likewise be a hindrance. According to the law, a patent is a property right and may be given, inherited, sold, transferred, or leased. Even if the patent has already been sold, licensed, produced, or marketed, since the right was granted by the State, it might still be canceled by the State in very limited situations. The patent right is territorial in nature, thus inventors and their assignees must submit separate patent applications in the nations in which they are interested, together with the required fees, in order to be granted patents there[4].

A patent is a legal document issued by the government to an inventor that enables him to prevent anybody else from financially exploiting his creation for a certain time period, now 20 years. According to the Supreme Court, the goal of patent law is to promote innovative research, cutting-edge technology, and economic development. A limited-time grant of the only right to own, use, or sell a patented technique or product encourages the development of new commercially useful ideas. The disclosure of the invention at the Patent Office is the cost of the monopoly grant. When the predetermined amount of time has passed, the innovation reverts to the public domain [M/s Bishwanath Prasad v. Hindustan Metal Industries, AIR1982 SC 1444]. Patents give incentives to people by giving an exclusive right, rewarding them financially for their commercial ideas and recognizing their talent. In order for others to benefit from the new information and advance the technology, the inventor must appropriately reveal the patented innovation to the public in exchange for the exclusive right. Thus, the disclosure of the invention is a crucial factor in any process for getting a patent[5].

Patents for goods and processes

Only process patents may be granted for certain types of innovations under Section 5 of the Patent Act of 1970. It should be noted that product and method patents have been granted under the Patent Act of 1970 in all other fields. The Paris Convention has left it up to each state to decide how to address this problem in its own laws. The TRIPs agreement allowed for the 2002 amendment of the Patent Act of 1970. According to Section 5 of the Patents Act of 1970 (as it stood after the 2002 changes), only patents covering the production processes of such substances may be granted for innovations that were claimed to relate to food, medicine, pharmaceuticals, or chemicals.

This intentional policy of excluding pharmaceutical ideas from product patent protection may be traced back to the Ayyangar Committee Report, which served as the fundamental inspiration for the Patents Act of 1970. The Committee discovered that between 80% and 90% of Indian patents were controlled by foreigners, and that more than 90% of these patents were not even developed in India. The Committee came to the conclusion that multinational corporations were abusing the system to gain monopolistic control over the market, particularly in respect to essential sectors like food, chemicals, and medicines. The Patents Act has been updated to take into account India's growing technical capacity as well as the need to harmonize the nation's intellectual property laws with those of other countries. The Act has been updated in order to appropriately defend national and public interests and to satisfy India's international responsibilities. The Act has also been harmonised, modernized, and made more user-friendly[6].

The length of patents

According to Section 53, the term of any patent granted following the start of the Patents (Amendment) Act, 2002, as well as the term of any patent that has not yet expired or ceased to be in force on the date of such start, shall be twenty years from the date of filing of the patent application. The explanation to Section 53(1) makes it clear that the term of a patent in cases of international applications submitted under the PCT designating India must be twenty years from the date given under the Patent Cooperation Treaty as the international filing date. If the renewal

fee is not paid within the specified time or within any extended period that may be imposed, the patent will expire when the period for payment of the renewal fee expires. Further, the subject matter covered by the stated patent shall not be entitled to any protection upon termination of the patent right owing to non-payment of renewal fee or upon expiration of the term of patent.

According to Rule 80, in order to maintain the validity of a patent, the renewal fees listed in the First Schedule must be paid at the end of the second year following the date of the patent, or at the end of any succeeding year, and they must be submitted to the patent office prior to the end of the second or any succeeding year. The Patents (Amendment) Rules, 2005's Sub-rule (1A) states that if a request for an extension of time is submitted in Form 4 with the fee listed in the First Schedule, the timeframe for payment of renewal fees may be extended to a period not exceeding six months. It is necessary to specify the patent's number, expiration date, and the year for which the fee is being paid when paying the renewal fee. It is possible to pay the yearly renewal costs for a period of two or more years in advance[7].

Invention-Protective Matter

Factors Affecting Patentability

As previously mentioned, a patent may be issued for an innovation that is connected to any method or item. A discovery is not the same thing as an innovation. Something that had been discovered was something that had previously existed. Not every innovation is eligible for a patent. The criteria for patentability are standards that an invention must satisfy. According to the Patents Act of 1970, a invention is defined as a novel thing or method incorporating an inventive step and suitable for industrial application. (Article 2(1)(j)). The innovation must be the subject of the patent, not a finding. The basic tenet of patent law is that only innovative and beneficial inventions are eligible for patent protection. It must thus be both unique and useful. It is crucial to keep in mind that in order for something to be patentable, an improvement on something already known or a combination of different things already known, should be something more than a simple workshop improvement and must independently satisfy the test of invention or a inventive step. The combination or improvement must provide a new outcome, a new item, a better or less expensive article than before for it to be patented.

Novelty

A novel invention is one that has not been disclosed in the prior art, which is defined as everything that has been published, presented, or otherwise disclosed to the public as of the date of patent (the term prior art includes documents disclosed in foreign languages in any format in any country of the world). The disclosed information must not be available in the prior art for an invention to be considered novel. This implies that before the date on which the application is originally submitted, or the priority date, there should be no previous publication of any information included in the patent application anywhere in the public domain, either written or in any other form, or in any language. Therefore, if an invention is not included in the previous art, it is regarded to be novel. The provisions of Section 13 read with those of Sections 29 to 34 must be used to determine previous art, even if the term has not been defined by the Indian Patents Act.

- a. If an invention has been published before the application's filing date in any specification submitted in support of an Indian patent application on or after January 1st, 1912, it will not be regarded as new.
- b. An invention will not be regarded as innovative if it was previously published in any document in any nation before the application was filed.
- c. If an invention is included in a claim of another entire specification filed in India before the application but published after that application, it will not be regarded as new.
- d. An innovation is not regarded unique if it was known beforehand, whether via oral tradition or other means, within any local or indigenous group in India or abroad.

It was decided in *Ganendro Nath Banerji v. Dhanpal Das Gupta*, AIR1945 Oudh 6, that there is no universal rule that can be established as to what constitutes an innovation.

The overarching test seems to be whether the claimed invention falls within the bounds of development of some already-existing trade, in the sense that it is a development that a regular person competent in that profession might naturally accomplish if he so desired without taking any original steps. However, uniqueness need only be shown throughout the production process, not in the final product. To prove uniqueness in this case, a new fusion of two well-known concepts may be sufficient[8].

The Delhi High Court held in *Ram Narain Kher v. M/s Ambassador Industries*, AIR 1976 Del 87, that it is crucial for the party seeking a patent to specify, at the time the patent is granted to a party, what specific characteristics of his device set it apart from those that had come before and demonstrate the nature of the improvement that is supposed to constitute the invention.

In order to be eligible for a patent, a person must not only claim that the form of the art has improved, but also that the development has resulted in a brand-new advancement of knowledge that is very beneficial. The claim must briefly describe the innovation or invention.

Non-obvious Inventive Step

An invention's inventive step is a characteristic that requires a technological advance over previously known information, has economic value, or both, and renders the invention obscure to a person of ordinary competence in the art. In addition to the previously mentioned criterion for defining inventive step, the concept of inventive step as used here has been expanded to include the economic relevance of the invention.

If, given the state of the art, an invention is apparent to a person versed in the art, it should not be deemed to have included an inventive step. The definition of obvious is defined as anything that follows obviously or logically from the previous art and does not need the exercise of any skill or talent that would be beyond what would be anticipated of a person competent in the art.

An ordinary practitioner who is aware of what was widespread common knowledge in the pertinent art at the pertinent date shall be assumed to be a person skilled in the art for the purposes of this definition. In other instances, the person who is talented in the art may be considered to be a team or group of people rather than a single individual[9].

Industrial Relevance

If an innovation meets all three of the following criteria, it may be used in industry:

- a. May be created.
- b. Is applicable to at least one kind of activity.
- c. It may be replicated as many as required with the exact identical properties.

An innovation must be helpful in order to be patented. The criteria of innovation is not met if the subject matter has no practical application. The factor of commercial or financial success has no bearing on the issue of usefulness for the purposes of patent law.

The usefulness of an alleged invention depends not on whether all the results not required for commercial success can be obtained by following the directions in the complete specification, but rather on whether the effects that the application or patentee professed to produce could be obtained by following such directions. Therefore, whether a non-commercial use is involved, usefulness is defined as being beneficial for the purpose stated by the application or patentee. The invention's usefulness must be evaluated in light of the situation on the date the patent application was submitted. If the invention was useful at that time, the fact that later improvements rendered the patented invention obsolete and commercially useless does not invalidate the patent. The criteria of an industrial use is not deemed to be met by speculation or hypothetical industrial usage[10].

CONCLUSION

In the past, patents have been essential to advancing a variety of sectors, from biology and medicines to electronics and software. They urge innovators to share their findings with the public in order to promote knowledge-sharing and intellectual exchange. As a consequence, patents encourage more research and invention in addition to serving as a way of compensating inventors. Patents encourage cooperation and technology transfer while also fostering innovation and research. Inventors and companies often provide licenses to other parties for the use of their patented inventions, facilitating the broad adoption of fresh ideas in several industries. This information transfer promotes cross-industry pollination and hastens the development of technology as a whole. While patents provide many advantages for both inventors and society as a whole, it is crucial to achieve a balance between exclusive rights and the needs of the general public. The awarding of weak or excessively broad patents or excessive patent protection may inhibit innovation and reduce competition. Because of this, legal systems and patent offices across the globe work to uphold stringent inspection procedures and guarantee that only really original and innovative discoveries are given patent protection. The idea of a patent acts as a strong motivator for companies and inventors to further our understanding of and capacity for innovation. Patents support scientific advancement, economic expansion, and social advancement by establishing a framework for exclusive rights over innovations. The idea of a patent remains a cornerstone of intellectual property protection, defending the rights of inventors and promoting a world of constant development as invention continues to transform the global environment.

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CHAPTER 14

Non-Patentable Subject Matter: Boundaries of Intellectual Property Protection

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ABSTRACT:

The concept of patentability is not without limitations. as certain subject matters fall outside the scope of patent protection. Non-patentable subject matter encompasses various categories that are ineligible for patents, despite their potential innovative nature. This study explores the intricacies of non-patentable subject matter, examining the reasons for exclusion and the implications on innovation, public interest, and intellectual property law. Non-patentable subject matter is a crucial aspect of the patent system, defining the boundaries of intellectual property protection and ensuring a balance between encouraging innovation and safeguarding public interest. While patents serve as powerful incentives for inventors, certain categories are intentionally excluded from protection to prevent undue monopolies and encourage free competition. One significant category of non-patentable subject matter includes natural phenomena and abstract ideas. These fundamental principles of science and mathematics are considered part of the shared knowledge of humanity and cannot be owned exclusively. Excluding them from patent protection allows for continued exploration and progress in these fields.

KEYWORDS:

Application, Date, Patent, Specification, Section.

INTRODUCTION

Natural laws and medical treatment procedures are another component of subject matter that cannot be patented. By not allowing patents on these elements, everyone will have access to necessary medical procedures without restriction. Additionally, it motivates medical professionals and researchers to work together and advance current knowledge for the good of society as a whole. Additionally, innovations that violate morals or public order fall under the category of non-patentable subject matter. This criterion assists in preventing the wrongful or immoral use of patents, preserving society's values and well-being. Even if an invention satisfies the requirements for originality, creativity, and utility, it still could not be eligible for patent protection. According to Section 3 of the Patents Act of 1970, the following are not inventions:

- a. A frivolous innovation or one that makes claims that are manifestly at odds with established natural laws.

- b. A creation whose main or intended use, or commercial exploitation, could be in violation of morals or public order, or which gravely jeopardizes the health or environment of people, animals, plants, or the environment. The simple formulation of an abstract theory, the finding of any live entity or non-living object happening in nature, or the discovery of a scientific principle [1].

The mere use of a known process, machine, or apparatus unless it produces a new product or uses at least one novel reactant. The mere discovery of any property or mere new use for a known substance. The mere discovery of any new form of a known substance that does not result in the enhancement of that substance's known efficacy. The explanation to clause (d) makes it clear that salts, esters, polymorphs, metabolites, pure form, particle size, isomers, According to the Atomic Energy Act of 1962, no patents shall be granted for inventions which in the opinion of the Central Government are useful for or relate to the production, control, use, or disposal of atomic energy or the prospecting, mining, extraction, production, physical and chemical treatment, fabrication, enrichment, canning, or use of any prescribed substance or radioactive substance

A patent application

According to Section 6 of the Act, any of the following individuals may submit an application for a patent for an invention, either alone or jointly with another person:

- a. By anybody claiming to be the invention's real and original creator.
- b. By anybody who has the right to file such an application as the assignee of the person claiming to be the genuine and original inventor.
- c. By the legal representative of any dead person who had the right to submit such an application at the time of his or her passing.

According to Section 2(1)(y), true and first Inventor does not refer to anybody who brings an invention into India for the first time or to someone to whom an invention is first disclosed from outside of India. The applicant must provide the first applicant's genuine name, address, and country of citizenship. According to S.2 (1)(s), the assignee may be a natural person or an entity other than a natural person, such as a registered business, institution of higher learning, or research organization. According to S. 2(1)(ab), an assigned party also includes an assigned party. The assignee must provide proof of right to apply, such as an assignment deed. According to S.2 (1)(k), a legal representative is a person who legally represents the estate of a dead person. As confirmation of their legal position, they should provide death certificates and other documents. The convention applicant's legal agent or assignee in the convention country may also submit a patent application in India in the event of a convention application.

DISCUSSION

Application Form

Every patent application must be filed for a single invention alone, according to Section 7 of the statute governing application forms. When the application is made thanks to the assignment of the right to file for a patent on the invention, documentation of the application's legal standing

must be included. There must be a single patent issued for a single innovation. A material or a procedure may be the subject of a patent. However, a patent cannot be split into two and claim to pertain to a material and a procedure, respectively. The specifications and the claims must be precisely and concisely specified in order to have a full patent. If a matching application has also been filed with the Controller in India, every worldwide application under the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) for a patent that may be submitted naming India will be regarded to be an application under the Act.

The worldwide filing date recognized under the PCT shall be the filing date of such an application and its entire specification as processed by the patent office acting as designated office or elected office. Every such application, except convention applications and applications submitted under the PCT designating India, is required to be accompanied by a provisional or full specification, according to Section 7(4). It should be mentioned that applying for patents may be a time-consuming and costly procedure. Fortunately for inventors, a number of nations resolved to streamline the procedure for securing patents globally in 1970 by establishing the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT). A single worldwide application that is valid in any or all of the more than 120 member nations is all that inventors are permitted to submit under the Patent Cooperation Treaty. A patent application may be submitted either in all PCT member countries or in a specific set of member nations. This more straightforward approach for submitting foreign patent applications is only available to inventors who are residents or nationals of PCT member nations[2].

Specification

A detailed specification must be provided by the applicant in order to completely and especially characterize the invention that is claimed in the application. A detailed specification of the invention must be provided such that a person with ordinary competence in the art might carry out the invention. Only when an applicant fully discloses the invention, specifically mentioning the ideal method of implementation, is this feasible. The Specification is a techno-legal document that makes claims for patent rights as well as complete scientific descriptions of the invention. Thus, a key component of the Patent Application is the Specification. It is required of an application to completely and specifically disclose all elements that make up the invention. Either a preliminary or a full specification of the standard may be submitted. The Application in Form-1, the Specification (full or provisional), and other papers are to be submitted in duplicate together with the First Schedule-required fee in Form-2. The following information must be on page 1 of the Form 2:

- a. The invention's name.
- b. Each patent applicant's name, address, and country of citizenship. and
- c. The description's preamble.

The precise elements of the invention must be adequately clear in the title. Every specification, regardless of how tentative or comprehensive, must explain the innovation. Where necessary, the applicant must supply drawings. At the examination stage, the Controller may also ask the applicant to submit drawings. Such drawings must be included in the specification, and the

specification must include the necessary references to them. In order to further illustrate the innovation, the Controller may request that the applicant present models or samples relating to the invention at any point prior to the award. Such prototypes or samples, however, are not permitted to be included in the specification[3].

Temporary Specifications

The applicant may prepare a disclosure of the invention in the form of a written description and submit it to the Patent Office as a provisional specification that describes the invention when he discovers that his invention has reached a stage where it can be disclosed on paper but has not yet reached the final stage. A provisional specification guarantees the application's priority date above any other application that is anticipated to be submitted in connection with the same invention that is being developed simultaneously. The Patent Office assigns a filing date and application number to the Application as soon as it receives the Provisional Specification.

In accordance with Section 9 of the Patent Act, a full specification must be submitted with a patent application that includes a provisional specification within a year of the applicant's filing date. otherwise, the application would be declared abandoned. A single full specification comprising both provisional applications may be submitted by an applicant if the two provisional specifications are identical or one is a revision of the other. Within a year after the initial provisional application's filing date, a full specification must be submitted. In these situations, the application's filing date corresponds to the day the earliest preliminary specification was submitted, and it must include that application's number. A full specification (that is neither a convention application or a PCT National Phase Application) may be converted into a provisional specification by the applicant within a year after filing. As a result, within a year following the initial filing, the applicant must provide a full specification. A provisional specification may be postdated to the date of filing of the full specification, whether it was filed directly or was converted from one.

Comprehensive Description

A techno-legal document known as the entire specification clearly and specifically explains the innovation and makes known the most effective way to implement it. The whole specification should be prepared with the greatest care and without any ambiguity since it is a crucial document in the patent processes.

Aspects of the Complete Specification That Are Important

Explicitly and in detail define the innovation, its use or function, and the procedure to be followed. End with a claim or claims defining the scope of the invention for which protection is claimed. be accompanied by an abstract to provide technical information on the invention. disclose the best method of carrying out the invention that the applicant is aware of and for which he is entitled to claim protection. Also include, if appropriate, the biological material's deposit with the International Depository Authority. However, if the applicant mentions a biological material in the specification that cannot be described in a manner that satisfies clauses (a) and (b) above and if such material is not accessible to the general public, the Controller may

amend the abstract to provide better information to third parties. The application must be completed by depositing the material with an international depository authority in accordance with the Budapest Treaty and by meeting the following requirements[4].

- a. The material must be deposited no later than the date the patent application is filed in India, and a reference to it must be made in the specification within the allotted time.
- b. All the features of the material that are currently known and necessary for its accurate identification or indication are specified, including the name and location of the depository institution as well as the date and number of the material's deposit at the institution.
- c. If a priority is claimed after the priority date, access to the material is only possible at the depository institution after the date of the Indian patent application.
- d. When using biological material in an invention, disclose its geographical origin and source in the specification.

After the title, a comprehensive specification typically starts with a broad prologue describing the topic to which the invention pertains, followed by a thorough explanation of one or more inventive embodiments. The Court's role in an infringement action is to interpret the claims that are allegedly being violated without consulting the body of the specification, and to only consult the body of the specification if the interpretation of the relevant claims is complicated or ambiguous. For the purposes of the Act, the title, description, drawings, abstracts, and claims submitted with an international application naming India must be deemed to represent the full specification. The claim or claims in a comprehensive specification must be clear, short, and reasonably based on the information provided in the specification. They must also relate to a single invention or to a collection of inventions connected together to constitute a single creative idea.

Patent Application Types

1. Ordinary Application, which is a Directly Filed Application with the Indian Patent Office.
2. Application of Convention.
3. PCT submission.
4. Division of a patent application may lead to a divisional application.
5. Patent of Addition, which may be submitted for an improvement or change after the filing of a patent application.

How do I apply?

A patent application must be submitted to the relevant patent office listed below in accordance with Rule 4 of the Patents Rules, 2003 as amended by the Patents (Amendment) Rules, 2005, where the territorial jurisdiction is determined by whether any of the following events occurs within the territory.

1. The applicant's home, place of business, or both first applicant listed in the case of joint applications.

2. The actual location where the invention was created.
3. The applicant's address for service in India if he does not have a residence or place of business there.

An address for service in India should be provided by a foreign applicant, and that will be used to determine the jurisdiction. If an applicant whether Indian or international desires, they may also include the address of their Patent Agent as the address for serving papers. The Patent Office with the relevant jurisdiction must receive the application for a patent. A patent office's territorial jurisdiction is determined using the following criteria:

1. The applicant's home, place of business, or, in the event of joint applications, the applicant who is initially mentioned.
2. The location of the invention's true genesis.
3. The address provided by the application for service in India where the applicant foreign applicants does not have a place of business or abode in India.

Procedure

Application for a Patent is Filed

A patent application must be submitted on Form 1 to the proper office together with a provisional or complete specification and the required filing fee, which is listed in the First Schedule. However, in the event of a Convention Application either directly or via PCT channels, a preliminary specification cannot be submitted. Applications with up to 30 pages of specification and up to 10 claims are subject to the standard charge. Additional fees as specified in the First Schedule are due if the specification is more than thirty pages or contains more than ten claims[5].

Patent application materials

An application for a patent must include:

1. Form 1 requests for patent grants.
2. A proof of the applicant's legal capacity to submit the application must be obtained from the inventor. Either a separate assignment or an endorsement at the conclusion of the Application Form-1 constitutes the Proof of Right.
3. Complete or provisional specification in Form 2.
4. Statement and undertaking on Form 3 according to Section 8, if appropriate. Form 3 must be submitted by the applicant either with the application or within six months of the application date.
5. A declaration of inventorship must be included with a complete specification, a convention application, or a PCT application identifying India in the Form for Applications. However, if a request is made to the Controller in Form-4, the Controller may permit Form-5 to be submitted within one month of the date the application was filed.
6. Form-26 Power of Authority, if submitted by a Patent Agent. A self-attested copy of the general power of attorney may be filed by the Agent if it has previously been submitted

with another application. The self-attested duplicate may additionally state that the original general power of authority was submitted in another jurisdiction.

The following circumstances need a priority document:

1. Application for Convention (under the Paris Convention).
2. A PCT National Phase Application that does not meet the conditions of Rule 17.1(a) or (b) of the PCT's rules.

To permit publication of the application, the priority document may be submitted either concurrently with the application or prior to the elapse of eighteen months from the date of priority. If an early publishing request is made, the priority document must be submitted beforehand or concurrently. Every application must include the applicant's signature, as well as the applicant's name and the date, in the relevant place specified on the forms. On the final page of the specification, the agent or applicant must sign and date the document. The signature of the applicant or his representative shall appear in the right-bottom corner of the drawing sheets. Before the patent is granted, the applicant must submit the National Biodiversity Authority's approval if the Application relates to biological material that was imported from India. However, submitting the National Biodiversity Authority's approval prior to the patent's award would be adequate[6].

Preparation of the application

Preliminary processing

An application is given a date and serial number by the office when it is received. Both PCT national phase applications and non-PCT applications have unique serial numbers to identify them. All applications and other paperwork are digitalized, checked, filtered, and classed before being uploaded to the office's internal system. In order to transport the files for storage in the compactors, patent applications and other papers are organized in a file wrapper, and a Bibliographic sheet is generated and pasted on the file cover. Application is evaluated for:

1. The classification of international patents.
2. The technical area of the invention for assigning to the appropriate examiner.
3. Atomic energy or defense-related relevance.

Correcting or finishing the abstract as necessary. If deemed improper, the abstract will be appropriately rewritten in order to provide other parties greater information. Such changes, nevertheless, shouldn't alter the definition of innovation. Examination requests also get a unique serial number. Secrecy orders and their ramifications Following the initial processing and examination of the applications by the patent office, if the Controller determines that an invention relates to a subject matter relevant for the purpose of defense as announced by the Central Government, the Controller issues a secrecy order prohibiting the publication of the application to the applicant and refers the matter to the Central Government for their consideration.

After carefully weighing the pros and drawbacks of the secrecy direction, the Central Government may notify the Controller as to whether or not the secrecy direction has to be maintained. Every six months, the Central Government conducts a review of the situation. If the Controller finds the applicant's request for a reconsideration of the secrecy order justified, the Central Government may be asked to review the decision. The Central Government may, at any time prior to the award of the patent, inform the Controller to the effect that it believes an invention, with regard to which the Controller has not imposed a secrecy directive, is significant for defense objectives. The Controller then uses Section 35's requirements. The Controller shall not decide whether to approve or deny the application while any directives under Section 35 are in effect[7].

Release of the application

No patent application shall generally be available to the public for the duration of any designated term, according to Section 11A (1). An applicant may, subject to the limitations of subsection (3), request the Controller to publish his application in the manner specified in subsection (2) at any time before the period specified in subsection (1) expires. Upon receiving such a request, the Controller will expeditiously publish the application in the Official Journal. Every patent application must be published when the deadline outlined in subsection (1) has passed, with the exception of those for which a secrecy order has been issued under section 35, the application has been abandoned under section 9(1), or the application has been withdrawn three months before the deadline outlined in subsection (1). The period for which a patent application shall not ordinarily be open to the public under Section 11A(1) shall be eighteen months from the date of filing of the application or the date of priority of the application, whichever is earlier. This is stated in Rule 24, which deals with the procedure for publication of applications. Form 9 must be used to seek publication under Section 11A (2).

Every application must be published with an abstract as well as the specifics of the date and number of the application, the applicant's name and address, and the application number. The depository institution is required to make the biological material described in the specification accessible to the public after publication of a patent application. The specification and any accompanying drawings for such an application may be made public by the patent office upon payment of the required fee. According to Section 11A(7), the applicant shall have the same privileges and rights as if an invention patent had been granted on the date of publication of the application, beginning on or after the date of publication of the application for patent and continuing until the date of grant of a patent in respect of such application. However, until the patent has been awarded, the applicant must not be permitted to bring any infringement claims. Additionally, a patentee's rights in relation to applications submitted under Section 5(2) before to January 1, 2005 must begin to accrue on the day the patent is granted[8]. Additionally, after the patent is granted in relation to applications made under Section 5(2), the patent holder shall only be entitled to reasonable royalties from such enterprises that have made significant investments, were manufacturing the subject product prior to January 1, 2005, and who are still manufacturing it as of the date of patent grant.

Demand for Inspection

According to Section 11B, a patent application will not be reviewed unless the applicant or any other interested party submits a request for inspection in the manner specified. The request must be submitted in Form 18 and include the fee listed in the First Schedule. A request for inspection must be submitted within forty-eight months after the application's priority date or its filing date, whichever comes first. The application will be deemed to have been withdrawn by the applicant if no such request for inspection is submitted within the allotted time frame. A request for examination may be brought in a situation where a secrecy direction has been issued under Section 35 within six months of the date on which the direction was revoked, or within forty-eight months of the date of filing or priority, whichever comes first. Until a request for inspection is submitted and the application is publicized, the Office will not examine it. When a party other than the applicant files a request for examination, the Examination

The application is brought up for examination in the order in which the requests for examination were filed after they have been received and publicized under Section 11A. The Controller refers the patent application to an Examiner for formal and substantive examination based on the invention's subject matter in relation to the Examiner's area of expertise. The Patent Office now has four examination groups based on the following general areas of specialization:

1. Chemistry and related fields of study.
2. Microbiology, biotechnology, and related fields.
3. Electrical, electronics, and related fields.
4. Mechanical subjects and other topics.

The referral to the Examiner is typically made in the order in which the request is submitted, within one month of the publication date or one month after the request for examination, whichever occurs later. When the Controller refers an application, the Examiner typically produces a report on the patentability and other issues within one month but no later than three months after the date of such referral. The application and specification as well as other documents related thereto must be referred to an examiner as soon as possible by the Controller for making a report to him in respect of the following matters, as per Section 12 dealing with examination of applications, which states that when the request for examination has been filed in respect of an application for a patent in the prescribed manner under Section 11B (1) or (3).

1. Whether the application, specification, and any related documents comply with the Act's requirements and any regulations imposed thereunder.
2. Whether there are any legitimate grounds for contesting the issuance of the patent in accordance with the application.
3. The outcome of any Section 13 inquiry,
4. Any further items that may be prescribed.

Ordinarily, the examiner who is given the application, specification, and other related papers must submit the report to the Controller within the allotted time. Search for Anticipation by Previous Publication and by Prior Claim According to Section 13 of the law governing search for anticipation by prior publication and by prior claim, the examiner to whom the patent application

is referred must conduct research in order to determine whether the invention, insofar as it is claimed in any claim of the complete specification:

1. Has been disclosed in any specification submitted in support of an Indian patent application with a filing date on or after January 1st, 1912, prior to the applicant's entire specification being filed.
2. Is asserted in any claim of any other complete specification that was submitted in support of an Indian patent application that was filed before or that claimed a priority date earlier than the applicant's complete specification and that was published on or after the date of filing of the applicant's complete specification.

Additionally, the examiner must conduct the necessary research to determine whether any claims made in the applicant's complete specification have been preempted by publications in India or elsewhere in documents other than those listed in Section 13(1) before the date on which the applicant's complete specification was filed. If an entire specification is changed before a patent is granted, the changed specification must go through the same review and investigation process as the original specification.

Controller consideration of Examiner's Report

According to Section 14, the controller must promptly communicate the main points of obligations to the applicant and provide him with an opportunity to be heard if the examiner's report is unfavorable to the applicant or requires any amendments to the application, specification, or other documents before proceeding to dispose of the application. The Controller has the authority to accept or reject amended applications in certain circumstances. If the Controller is convinced that the application, any specification, or any other document filed in accordance therewith does not comply with the provisions of the Act and the rules made thereunder, Section 15 gives the Controller the authority to refuse the application or direct that the application, specification, or other documents be amended. According to Section 17, the Controller may, at the request of the applicant, order that the application be post-dated to a date that may be specified in the request and continue with the application as appropriate at any time after the filing of an application and before the issuance of the patent. No application, however, may be backdated more than six months from the day it was submitted or would otherwise be considered to have been submitted. The requirements of Section 9 of the Act, which deal with incomplete and preliminary specifications, apply to this^[9]. When an application, specification, or other document needs to be amended in accordance with Section 15, the Controller may direct that the application, specification, or other document be deemed to have been made on the date that the requirement is met, or, in cases where the application, specification, or other document is returned to the applicant, the date that it is resubmitted after being amended. According to Section 18, the Controller may reject the application if it seems that the invention up to that point as stated in any claim of the whole specification has been foreseen, except the following:

1. Demonstrates to the Controller's satisfaction that the claim's priority date in his entire specification is not later than the date that the relevant document was published.
2. Modifies his whole specification to the Controller's satisfaction.

If the Controller believes that the invention is claimed in a claim of another complete specification, he may order that a reference to that other specification be inserted in the applicant's complete specification unless the applicant demonstrates to the Controller's satisfaction that the priority date of his claim is not later than the priority date of the claim of the said other specification, or the complete specification has been modified to his satisfaction. The aforementioned rules also apply if the Controller determines that another complete specification mentioned in section 13(1)(a) contains a claim for the invention as of yet made in one of the applicant's claims and that claim was published on or before the priority date of the applicant's claim. It is true that, insofar as he is required to hear and decide objections to applications for leave to amend, there is a fair analogy between the position of the Controller of Patents and that of a Court, even though he is not technically a Court or a tribunal exercising judicial functions in the legal acceptance of the terms[10].

CONCLUSION

The concept of non-patentable subject matter serves as a crucial boundary in the realm of intellectual property protection. While patents are essential for encouraging innovation and providing inventors with incentives to create new technologies and products, not everything can be patented. The restrictions on patentability are necessary to strike a balance between fostering innovation and preventing the misuse or abuse of intellectual property rights. The boundaries of intellectual property protection, particularly in the context of patents, are constantly evolving to keep pace with advancements in technology and the changing needs of society. Certain categories of subject matter, such as natural phenomena, abstract ideas, laws of nature, and mere discoveries, continue to be excluded from patent protection to avoid the stifling of progress and to maintain a competitive market. Additionally, considerations of public policy, ethical concerns, and the impact on society also play a significant role in defining non-patentable subject matter. Striking the right balance between incentivizing innovation and ensuring the free flow of knowledge remains a challenge for policymakers and legal authorities. The boundaries of intellectual property protection also vary across different jurisdictions, making it essential for inventors and creators to understand the rules and regulations governing patentability in the specific region they operate. In this dynamic landscape, promoting innovation while respecting the principles of fairness and equity remains paramount. The focus should be on promoting a healthy and competitive marketplace where intellectual property rights are upheld, and the public interest is duly safeguarded. As technology continues to advance and industries grow more interconnected, ongoing dialogue and collaboration between policymakers, legal experts, inventors, and the public will be vital to navigate the complex terrain of non-patentable subject matter and ensure a balanced and sustainable intellectual property framework for the betterment of society as a whole.

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CHAPTER 15

Potential Infringement: Identifying and Addressing Intellectual Property Risks

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ABSTRACT:

This paper explores the concept of potential infringement in the realm of intellectual property. It delves into the various forms of intellectual property, including patents, copyrights, trademarks, and trade secrets, and the challenges faced by individuals and businesses in identifying and addressing potential infringements. The abstract discusses the importance of proactive measures and due diligence to mitigate infringement risks, the role of intellectual property laws in safeguarding rights, and the potential consequences of infringement. It also emphasizes the significance of continuous monitoring and legal guidance to navigate the complexities of intellectual property protection.

KEYWORDS:

Controller, Claim, Data, Patent, Section.

INTRODUCTION

According to Section 19, the Controller may order that a reference to another patent be inserted in the applicant's complete specification by way of notice to the public within such time as may be prescribed if it appears to him as a result of the investigations that an invention for which a patent application has been made cannot be performed without substantial risk of infringement of a claim of any other patent, the applicant demonstrates to the Controller's satisfaction that there are good reasons to question the validity of the contested claim in the other patent. The whole specification is changed to the Controller's satisfaction. When, in response to a Section 19(1) directive, a reference to another patent has been included to a full specification:

1. That other patent is canceled or no longer valid in any other way.
2. The relevant claim is removed from the specification of that other patent.
3. The controller may, on the applicant's request, erase the reference to that other patent if it is determined during proceedings before the court or the controller that the relevant claim of that other patent is invalid or is not violated by any operation of the applicant's invention.
4. Replacement of Applicants, etc.

According to Section 20, if the Controller is convinced, based on a claim made in a prescribed manner at any time before a patent has been granted, that the claimant would, if the patent were then granted, be entitled to or to the applicant's interest therein, or to an undivided share of the

patent or of that interest, by virtue of any assignment or written agreement made by the applicant or one of the applicants for the patent, or by operation of law. By virtue of any assignment or agreement made by one of the two or more joint applicants for a patent, however, no such directive must be granted except with the permission of the other joint applicant or applicants. Furthermore, no such directive shall be made pursuant to any assignment or arrangement for the transfer of the benefit of an invention until and until

1. The invention is referenced therein with respect to the number of the patent applications.
2. A statement from the person who made the assignment or agreement acknowledging that it pertains to the invention for which the application is lodged is presented to the controller.
3. The court's ruling has definitively established the claimant's rights to the invention. The controller issues instructions to permit the application to continue or to regulate how it should be handled in accordance with subsection (5).

When one of two or more joint applicants for a patent passes away before the patent is granted, the Controller may, at the request of the survivor or survivors and with the approval of the deceased's legal representative, order that the application be processed solely in the name of the survivor or survivors. If there is a disagreement between joint applicants for a patent regarding how the application should be handled, the Controller may, upon request from any of the parties and following the opportunity for all parties to be heard, issue the directions he deems appropriate for allowing the application to proceed in the name of one or more of the parties alone or for regulating how it should be handled[1].

Time to organize your grant application

According to Section 21 of the Act, a patent application is deemed abandoned if the applicant has not complied with all requirements imposed on him by or under the Act, whether in connection with the complete specification or otherwise, starting from the date on which the first statement of objections to the application, complete specification, or other documents related thereto is forwarded. According to the explanation added to Section 21(1), the applicant will not be deemed to have complied with the requirements unless and until he has re-filed the application for a patent, any specification, or, in the case of a convention application or an application filed under the PCT designating India, any document filed as part of the application, has been returned to the applicant by the Controller during the course of the proceedings.

According to Section 21's subsection (2), the deadline for meeting the Controller's requirements will be extended if, at the end of the time period specified under subsection (1), an appeal to the High Court is pending regarding the application for the patent for the main invention or, in the case of an application for a patent of addition, an appeal to the High Court is pending regarding either that application or the application for the main invention.

The Controller may extend the period as stipulated under sub-section (1), to such additional duration as he may specify, in the event that the time limit within which the appeal indicated in sub-section (2) may be lodged has not yet passed. The Controller's criteria may be met within the

time frame set by the High Court, but, if an appeal is submitted within the specified additional time period and the High Court grants an extension of time for doing so[2].

DISCUSSION

Resistance to the Patent

In accordance with Section 25 of the Act, which addresses opposition to the grant of a patent, any person may, in writing, represent themselves against the grant of a patent on the grounds listed below where a patent application has been published but a patent has not yet been issued. The Controller shall, upon the request of such person, hear the opposition and render a decision in the prescribed manner and time. These are the reasons behind the opposition:

1. That the patent applicant, or the person under or through whom he claims, unlawfully got the invention, in whole or in part, from him or from one of those parties.
2. That the invention, as claimed in any claim of the whole specification, was published prior to the claim's priority date.
3. In any specification submitted in support of an Indian patent application lodged on or after January 1st, 1912.
4. In any other document, whether in India or elsewhere.
5. As long as the publication does not represent an anticipation of the invention under Section 29's Subsections (2) or (3), the basis outlined in Subclause (ii) is not applicable.
6. That the invention, insofar as it is claimed in any claim of the complete specification, is claimed in a claim of a complete specification published on or after the priority date of the applicant's claim and submitted in support of a patent application in India, being a claim, whose priority date is earlier than the applicant's claim.
7. That the invention was publicly known or utilized in India prior to the claim's priority date inasmuch as it is stated in any claim of the full specification [3]. Explanation For the purposes of this clause, a product made using a process for which a patent is claimed shall be deemed to have become generally known or to have been in use in India before the priority date of the claim, unless such importation has been made solely for the purpose of a reasonable trial or experiment.
8. That the invention is evident and plainly lacks any inventive step, taking into account the materials disclosed as indicated in clause, as far as any claim of the entire specification is concerned.
9. Taking into account what was used in India previous to the applicant's claim's priority date.
10. The whole specification's subject matter is not an invention within the meaning of this Act or is not patentable according to this Act.
11. That the invention or the procedure by which it is to be carried out are not adequately and clearly described in the entire specification.
12. If the applicant omitted to provide the Controller with the information required by section 8 or provided information that, to his knowledge, was false in any material detail.

13. In the event of a convention application, the application was not submitted within a year of the date on which the applicant or a person from whom he derives title filed the invention's initial application for protection in a convention nation.
14. The source of the geographical origin of the biological material utilised in the invention is not disclosed in full or is incorrectly stated.
15. The invention is expected in light of the knowledge, oral or otherwise, that is accessible within any local or indigenous population in India or elsewhere, inasmuch as it is asserted in any claim of the entire specification [4].

Any interested party may oppose a patent application under Section 25(2) at any time after the grant of a patent but prior to the expiration of a year from the date of publication of the grant of a patent on any of the following reasons only:

1. That the patentee or the person under or through whom he claims received the invention, in whole or in part, unlawfully from him or another person.
2. That the invention, insofar as it is claimed in any claim of the complete specification, has been disclosed in any specification filed in support of an application for a patent made in India on or after January 1, 1912, or in any other document, whether in India or elsewhere, before the priority date of the claim. However, where such publication does not constitute an anticipation of the invention under section 29(2) or (3), the defense that the invention as of yet claimed in any claim of complete specification has been published in India or elsewhere before the priority date of the claim shall not be available.
3. That the invention, to the extent that it is claimed in any claim of the complete specification, is claimed in a claim of a complete specification published on or after the priority date of the patentee's claim and submitted in support of a patent application in India, being a claim, whose priority date is earlier than the patentee's claim.
4. That the invention was publicly known or utilized in India prior to the claim's priority date inasmuch as it is stated in any claim of the full specification [5].

An invention relating to a process for which a patent is granted shall be deemed to have been publicly known or publicly used in India before the priority date of the claim if a product made by that process had already been imported into India prior to that date, unless such importation has been made for the sole purpose of a reasonable trial or experiment. This is made clear in the explanation to clause (d) of Section 25(3). The invention was expected in light of the information, oral or otherwise, that was known within any local or indigenous population in India or elsewhere at the time any claim of the entire specification was made[4].

Oppositional actions

In accordance with Rule 55, which deals with opposition by representation against the grant of patent, a representation for opposition under Section 25(1) must be filed at the appropriate office no later than three months after the date the application was published under Section 11A of the Act, or before the grant of patent, whichever comes first. The representation must also include a statement, any supporting evidence, and a request for a hearing, if desired. Only after a request for the application's scrutiny has been lodged is the Controller authorized to take such a

representation into consideration. The Controller must notify the applicant if, after considering the representation, he believes that the patent application should be rejected or that the whole specification has to be modified. After receiving the notice, the applicant has one month from the notification's date to submit his statement and any supporting documentation, if desired[6]. The Controller may either decide not to award a patent on the application or demand that the whole specification be modified to his satisfaction before the patent is granted after taking into account the applicant's statement and supporting documentation. If requested, the Controller will consider the representation and submission made during the hearing before moving forward and, typically within a month of the conclusion of the above proceedings, either rejecting the representation and granting the patent or accepting it and refusing the grant of patent on that application.

The notice of objection required by section 25(3) must be prepared in Form 7 and delivered to the Controller in triplicate at the relevant office, according to Rule 55A, which governs the filing of notices of opposition. According to Rule 57, the opposing party must deliver a copy of the written statement and any supporting documentation to the patentee along with the notice of opposition. The written statement must describe the opposing party's interest, the facts on which he bases his case, the relief he seeks, and any supporting documentation[5].

The Opposition Board's Bylaws and Procedures

According to Section 25(3), the Controller must inform the patentee when any such notice of opposition is properly given under Subsection (2), establish a Board by order in writing to be known as the Opposition Board, consisting of such officers as he may determine, and refer the notice of opposition and any supporting documentation to that Board for review and submission of its recommendation. Every Opposition Board is needed to follow the guidelines in order to conduct the examination. After receiving the Opposition Board's proposal and allowing both the patentee and the opponent a chance to be heard, the Controller is required by subsection (4) to either keep, alter, or cancel the patent[7]. However, if the objection is founded on the reasons listed under sub-section (2)(d) & (e), the Controller must not consider any personal document, secret trial, or secret usage in making the order.

The patent must be revised as necessary in the event that the Controller makes an order under subsection (4) stating that the patent should be retained subject to revision of the specification or any other document. Following receipt of a notice of objection, the Controller shall, by order, establish a three-member objection Board according to Rule 56 and designate one of the members as Chairman of the Board. An examiner appointed in accordance with section 73(2) is qualified to serve on the Opposition Board. However, the examiner who dealt with the patent application during the patent grant procedure is ineligible to serve on the opposition board for that application. Within three months of the date on which the documents were forwarded to them, the Opposition Board shall conduct the examination of the notice of opposition along with the documents filed under rules 57 to 60 referred to in section 25(4), and submit a report with reasons on each ground asserted in the notice of opposition along with its joint recommendation[8].

Controller will consider the request as coming from the opponent

When the Controller in an opposition proceeding determines that the invention, insofar as claimed in any claim of the complete specification, was obtained from the opponent in the manner described in section 25(2)(a), he may, upon request by such opponent made in the prescribed manner, direct that the patent shall stand amended in the name of the opponent, or a portion of an invention described in the complete specification[9].

When an opponent filed a patent application for an invention that included all or a portion of the invention that is deemed to have been obtained from him prior to the date of the Controller's order requiring the amendment of a complete specification referred to in section 26(1)(b), and the application is still pending, the Controller may treat such application and specification, insofar as they relate to the invention deemed to have been obtained from him, as having been filed by the opponent [10].

CONCLUSION

Potential infringement is a critical concern in the world of intellectual property, as it poses significant risks to the rightful owners of innovative ideas, creative works, and unique brands. Throughout this paper, we have examined the different types of intellectual property and the vulnerabilities that can lead to potential infringements.

To safeguard their intellectual property rights, individuals and businesses must adopt a proactive approach that includes thorough research, regular monitoring of the market, and engagement with legal experts.

Understanding the intellectual property landscape is essential for identifying potential infringements and enforcing one's rights effectively. Intellectual property laws play a vital role in protecting the interests of creators and inventors, providing them with the tools to seek redress in case of infringement.

However, the enforcement of these rights can be complex and challenging, especially when dealing with cross-border issues or emerging technologies. Education and awareness about intellectual property rights are essential for fostering a culture of respect for creativity and innovation. Moreover, collaboration between stakeholders, including governments, businesses, and the public, is vital in establishing a balanced and effective intellectual property protection framework.

Vigilance, knowledge, and collaboration are key in addressing potential infringement. By staying informed, engaging in due diligence, and seeking appropriate legal counsel, individuals and businesses can protect their intellectual property assets and contribute to a thriving and innovative global community. Additionally, policymakers and legal authorities must continue to adapt and evolve the intellectual property framework to address emerging challenges in this fast-paced and interconnected world. Only through collective efforts can we foster an environment that encourages creativity, rewards innovation, and respects the rights of intellectual property owners.

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CHAPTER 16

Grant of Patents: A Comprehensive Analysis of the Patent Application Process and its Implications

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper delves into the intricate process of granting patents, exploring the various stages involved in obtaining patent rights for an invention. The study investigates the importance of patents in fostering innovation, protecting intellectual property, and promoting economic growth. It also sheds light on the challenges faced by inventors and patent examiners throughout the application process. By analyzing relevant case studies and legal precedents, this paper aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the complexities surrounding patent grants and their potential impact on technological advancement. When an application for a patent has been determined to be in order for grant of the patent and has not been found to be in violation of any of the Act's provisions, or the application has not been found to be refused by the Controller in accordance with any power vested in him by the Act, the patent shall be granted as expeditiously as possible to the applicant or, in the case of a joint application, to th The Controller is required to inform the public that the patent has been approved, at which point the application, specification, and other associated materials will be available for public review.

KEYWORDS:

Application, Controller, Date, Patent, Section.

INTRODUCTION

The Government may import or manufacture any machine, equipment, or other item for which the patent is given, or any object created using a technique for which the patent is granted, only for its own use.

The Government, or anyone acting on its behalf, may utilize any method for which a patent has been awarded only for internal use. Any machine, apparatus, or other item for which the patent is granted, or any item made through the use of the process for which the patent is granted, may be made or used, and any method for which the patent is granted may be used by anyone, for the sole purpose of experiment or research, including giving instructions to students. And If a medicine or drug has a patent, the government may import it solely for its own use, for distribution in a hospital, dispensary, or other medical facility run by or for the government, or in any other hospital, dispensary, or medical facility that the Central Government deems appropriate, taking into account the public service that the hospital, dispensary, or medical facility provides.

Patent Term

According to Section 53, the term of any patent granted following the start of the Patents (Amendment) Act, 2002, as well as the term of any patent that has not yet expired or ceased to be in force on the date of such start, shall be twenty years from the date of filing of the patent application[1]. The explanation to Section 53(1) makes it clear that the term of a patent in cases of international applications submitted under the PCT designating India must be twenty years from the date given under the Patent Cooperation Treaty as the international filing date. If the renewal fee is not paid within the specified time or within any extended period that may be imposed, the patent will expire when the period for payment of the renewal fee expires. Further, the subject matter covered by the stated patent shall not be entitled to any protection upon termination of the patent right owing to non-payment of renewal fee or upon expiration of the term of patent.

According to Rule 80, in order to maintain the validity of a patent, the renewal fees listed in the First Schedule must be paid at the end of the second year following the date of the patent, or at the end of any succeeding year, and they must be submitted to the patent office prior to the end of the second or any succeeding year. The Patents (Amendment) Rules, 2005's Sub-rule (1A) states that if a request for an extension of time is submitted in Form 4 with the fee listed in the First Schedule, the timeframe for payment of renewal fees may be extended to a period not exceeding six months. It is necessary to specify the patent's number, expiration date, and the year for which the fee is being paid when paying the renewal fee. It is possible to pay the yearly renewal costs for periods of two or more years in advance[2].

Addition Patents

In Sections 54, 55, and 56, patents of addition are discussed. According to Section 54, the controller may, if the applicant so requests, grant the patent for the improvement or modification as a patent of addition when an application is made for a patent in relation to any improvement in or modification of an invention described or disclosed in the complete specification, namely the main invention, and the applicant also applies or has applied for a patent for that invention or is the patentee in respect thereto.

When a patent for an invention that is an improvement or modification of another invention is issued independently, and the patentee for that patent is also the patentee for the patent for the main invention, the Controller may, upon request from the patentee, revoke the patent for the improvement or modification and grant the patentee a patent of addition bearing the same date as the patent so revoked. However, a patent cannot be issued as an extra patent unless the application's filing date coincided with or followed the application's filing date for the original invention. Before the primary invention's patent is awarded, no patent of addition may be issued.

A patent of addition is granted for a term equal to that of the patent for the main invention, or that portion thereof that has not yet expired, and is valid during that term, until the previous ceasing of the patent for the main invention, and for no longer. This is stated in Section 55, which deals with the term of patents of addition. A patent of addition does not need renewal.

nevertheless, if it later qualifies as an independent patent, the same fees and due dates apply as if the independent patent had been awarded at the time the patent of addition was first granted.

According to Section 56, which addresses the validity of patents of addition, the grant of a patent of addition shall not be refused, and a patent granted as a patent of addition shall not be revoked or invalidated, solely because the invention claimed in the complete specification does not involve any inventive step with respect to any publication or use of the main invention described in the complete specification relating thereto, or any improvement in or modification of the main invention described in the complete specification. It is made clear in this context that the whole specification in which the primary invention is presented must also be taken into consideration when assessing the originality of the invention claimed in the complete specification submitted in support of a patent application[3].

DISCUSSION

Bringing Back Expired Patents

According to Section 60, the patentee or his legal representative, and if the patent was held by two or more people jointly, then with the Controller's permission, one or more of them without joining the others, may within eighteen months from the date on which the patent ceased to have effect, pay any renewal fee within the period prescribed under Section 53 or within the period as may be allowed under Section 142(4).

Method for Handling Applications for Restoring Expired Patents

According to Section 61, the Controller shall publish the application in the manner prescribed and any interested party may give notice to the Controller of opposition thereto within the prescribed period if the Controller is prima facie satisfied that the failure to pay the renewal fee was unintentional and that there has not been an undue delay in the making of the application.

1. It wasn't accidental that the renewal price wasn't paid.
2. The application has been made with an excessive amount of delay.

The Controller must inform the applicant and provide both parties with a chance to be heard before making a decision in the event that a notice of objection is submitted within the above-mentioned statutory time frame. The Controller will reinstate the patent and any patent of addition specified in the application that has ceased to have effect on the cesser of that patent upon payment of any unpaid renewal fees and such additional fee as may be prescribed if no notice of opposition is given within the prescribed period aforesaid or if, in the case of opposition, the decision of the Controller is in favor of the applicant. Any document or substance that has to be put in the register but hasn't been yet may be required to be so recorded by the Controller as a condition of restoring the patent, if he sees appropriate.

Rights of the Patentees of Restored Lapsed Patents

According to Section 62, if a patent is reinstated, the patentee's rights are subject to any conditions that may be prescribed and to any additional conditions that the Controller deems appropriate to impose for the protection or remuneration of persons who may have started to use,

or have taken specific steps by contract or otherwise to use, the patented invention between the date the patent ceased to have effect and the date of the publication of the new invention. Between the date a patent ceased to be valid and the date the application for its restoration was published, no lawsuit or other legal action may be brought or pursued as a result of a patent infringement.

Procedure for Patent Restoration

An application for the reinstatement of a patent under Section 60 must be submitted in Form 15 in accordance with Rule 84. If the Controller decides there isn't enough evidence to support restoring a patent, he or she will inform the applicant. If the applicant doesn't ask to be heard in the matter within a month of receiving this notification, the Controller will reject the application. The application will be published if the applicant wants a hearing within the allotted time frame and the Controller, after the applicant has one, is ostensibly convinced that the failure to pay the renewal costs was inadvertent[4].

Any interested party may, at any time, within two months after the date of publication of the application according to sub-rule (3) of rule 84, provide notice of objection thereto in Form 14. Rule 85 specifies the process for resistance to restoration under section 61. The Controller must provide the applicant a copy of the notice of objection. To the extent possible, the hearing of the opposition under section 60 will follow the same process as the hearing in the opposition action as it relates to the submission of written statements, reply statements, leaving evidence, hearings, and expenses. According to Rule 86, which addresses the payment of unpaid renewal fees, the applicant must pay the unpaid renewal fees as well as the additional fee as listed in the First Schedule within a month of the date of the order of the Controller approving the application for restoration. The Controller has been ordered to make his decision public.

Patent Surrender and Revocation

The patentee has the right to propose to give up his patent at any moment by notifying the Controller in accordance with Section 63. When such an offer is made, the Controller is required to inform every person other than the patentee whose name appears in the register as having an interest in the patent and to publicize the offer in the manner specified. Any interested party may submit a notice of objection to the Controller within the allotted time after such publication, and the Controller must inform the patentee if such a notice is submitted. The offer may be accepted, and the patent may be revoked by order, if the Controller decides that the patent may legitimately be relinquished after hearing from the patentee and any opponents who want to be heard.

Patent revocation

Any interested party, including the government, may submit a petition on any of the reasons listed in Section 64 of the Patents Act for revoking a patent. A patent may be revoked under Section 64 of the Act, whether it was issued before or after the start of this Act, upon the petition of any interested party or the Central Government, or upon the High Court's acceptance of a counterclaim in a lawsuit alleging patent infringement, on any of the grounds listed below:

1. The invention was previously disclosed in a valid claim of an earlier priority date that was included in the whole specification of another patent awarded in India, inasmuch as any such claim is made in the complete specification.
2. That a person who was ineligible to apply for a patent under the terms of this Act's provisions had their application denied.
3. The fact that the patent was issued based on someone else's application and not the petitioner's rights or those of any other person he claims to be entitled to.

That the invention so far as claimed in any claim of the complete specification is not new, having regard to what was publicly known or publicly used in India prior to the priority date of the claim or to what was published in India or elsewhere in any of the documents referred to in section 13, and that the invention so far as claimed in any claim of the complete specification is not an invention within the meaning of this Act. This means that the description of the method or the instructions for operating the invention as contained in the complete specification are insufficient on their own to enable a person in India with average skill in, and knowledge of, the art to which the invention relates, to operate the invention, or that it does not sufficiently and fairly describe the invention and the method by which it is to be performed[5].

1. That no claim in the whole specification is reasonably founded on the information supplied therein, or that no claim in the entire specification's scope is properly and clearly specified.
2. That a misleading suggestion or representation was used to secure the patent.
3. That no claim of the whole specification's topic is patentable under this Act.
4. Prior to the priority date of the claim, the invention, to the extent that it is claimed in any claim of the full specification, was employed in India covertly in a manner other than that described in subsection (3).
5. That the patent applicant omitted to disclose to the Controller the information required by section 8 or provided information that, to his knowledge, was false in any significant particular.
6. That the applicant filed or caused to be made an application for the award of a patent outside of India in violation of Section 39, or that the applicant violated any order for confidentiality granted under Section 35.
7. Fraud was used to acquire permission to change the whole specification under section 57 or section 58.
8. The origin and source of the biological material utilised in the invention are not disclosed in full or are incorrectly stated.
9. That the invention was anticipated in light of the knowledge, oral or otherwise, existing within any local or indigenous population in India or elsewhere, as stated in any claim of the entire specification. No account of a personal document, a private trial, or a secret usage must be taken.
10. Unless the importation was made solely for the purpose of a reasonable trial or experiment, the importation into India of a product made abroad using a process described or claimed under the patent constitutes knowledge or use of the invention in

India as of the date of importation. No account shall be taken of any use of the invention for the purposes of clause (1) of sub-section (1), according to section 64 (3).

The applicant for the patent or any person from whom he derives title must have communicated or disclosed the invention directly or indirectly to the Government or to any person authorized as aforesaid or to the Government undertaking. or (b) by any other person, in response to the applicant for the patent or any person from whom he derives title must have communicated or disclosed the invention directly or indirectly to the Government or to any person authorized as aforesaid or to the Government undertaking. A patent may be revoked by the High Court on the Central Government's request, without affecting the provisions of subsection (1), if the High Court is convinced that the patentee has refused to comply with the Central Government's request to make, use, or exercise the patented invention for the purposes of Government within the meaning of section 99 on reasonable terms without good reason. Any person who appears in the register to be the owner of a patent or to have shares or interests therein must receive notice of any petition for revocation of that patent filed according to this section. it is not essential to provide notice to anyone else.

Patent revocation in the public interest

In accordance with section 66 of the Patents Act, if the Central Government believes that a patent or the way in which it is used is harmful to the State or generally unfavorable to the public, it may, after providing the patentee with a chance to be heard, make a declaration to that effect in the Official Gazette, at which point the patent shall be deemed to be revoked[6].

Patent revocation due to non-working

If the legitimate needs of the public are not still being satisfied after the issuance of a compulsory license, the controller may issue an order to revoke a patent for non-working. The Central Government or any interested party may, after the passing of two years following the date of the order granting the first compulsory license, apply to the Controller for an order revoking the patent on the grounds that the patented invention has not been used in the territory of India or that reasonable public requirements with respect to the invention have not been met. In circumstances involving atomic energy, Section 65 deals with patent revocation and entire specification amendments in response to government directives. When the Central Government determines that a patent is for an invention related to atomic energy for which no patent may be granted under sub-section (1) of section 20 of the Atomic Energy Act, 1962, it may direct the Controller to revoke the patent.

The Controller will then do so after providing notice to the patentee and everyone else whose name has been entailed in the patent. In lieu of canceling the patent, Section 2 gives the Controller the authority to let the patentee to modify the whole specification as he sees fit[7]. The Controller is obligated to publish the notice of an offer made under section 63 in accordance with Rule 87 of the Patents Rules of 1970. Any interested party may submit a notice of objection in duplicate on Form 14 to the Controller within three months of the notice's publication date. To the extent possible, the hearing of the opposition under section 63 will follow the same process as the hearing in the opposition case as it relates to the submission of written statements, reply

statements, leaving evidence, hearings, and expenses. The patent will be revoked by order after it is received by the Controller if the Controller accepts the patentee's request to surrender the patent. The Controller may instruct the patentee to return the patent if he approves the patentee's offer to surrender the patent.

Patent Assignments

The act by which the patent holder transfers all or part of their patent rights to the assignee, who then has the right to exclude others from creating, utilizing, exercising, or commercializing the invention, is referred to as an assignment. The person or individuals registered as the grantee or owner of a patent have the authority to transfer, issue licenses under, or otherwise deal with the patent under Section 70 of the Patents Act, 1970, and to make effective receipts for any compensation for any such assignment, license, or dealing. Either the assignment is exclusive or it is not. The exclusivity might be further restricted, for instance, to a region, market, or product line. The three primary categories of patent assignments are as follows[8].

Assignments in law

A lawful assignment is one made to an existing deed. Only a deed may assign a patent that was established by deed. A legitimate assignee has the right to register as the patent's owner and to all of the patent's rights. An equitable assignment is a legal agreement that transfers a patent or a part of a patent immediately. Although it doesn't directly alter ownership, this has an impact on it. The right to change the ownership of the patent in law in equity belongs to the person to whom it is fairly given[9].

Mortgages

Patent rights are transferred to the assignee through a mortgage in exchange for a monetary payment. The patent rights are returned to the assignor after payment of the debt. According to Section 2(1) of the Patents Act of 1970, the legal representative of a dead assignee is included in the definition of the word assignee. A grantee or owner of a patent has the right to transfer it whole or in part to another person or parties, according to Section 70 of the Patents Act of 1970. According to Section 68 of the Patents Act of 1970, a written assignment must include all terms and conditions governing the parties' rights and obligations. The application for registration of such a document must be submitted in the prescribed manner to the Controller within six months of the execution of the document or the start of the Act, whichever occurs later. According to Section 69, once a person has access to a patent by an assignment, he must apply in writing to the Controller for the registration of his title in the appropriate way[10].

Implementation of Patented Innovations

According to Section 83, which deals with general principles that apply to working with patented inventions, the following general considerations must be taken into account while using the rights granted for working with patents and obligatory licenses:

1. That patents are issued to promote ideas and ensure that they are developed commercially and as fully as is practically practical in India without excessive delay.

2. That they aren't only given out to give patent holders a monopoly on importing the patented item.
3. That the promotion of technological innovation and the transfer and dissemination of technology are made possible by the protection and enforcement of patent rights, to the mutual benefit of producers and users of technological knowledge and in a way that promotes social and economic welfare and a balance of rights and obligations.
4. That the granting of patents should not interfere with the preservation of public health and nutrition and should be used as a tool to advance public interest, particularly in fields crucial to India's socioeconomic and technical growth.
5. That patents issued in no manner prevent the Central Government from taking actions to safeguard the public's health.
6. That the patentee or anyone who derives title or an interest in the patent from the patentee does not misuse the patent right and does not engage in conduct that unreasonably restricts trade or has a negative impact on the transfer of technology internationally. and
7. The public will be able to benefit from the patented innovation at rates that are equitably attainable.

CONCLUSION

In the contemporary world, the granting of patents is crucial because it motivates innovators and creators to push the limits of technology and creativity. This study emphasizes the importance of patent protection in supporting innovation and spurring economic development via a thorough investigation of the patent application process. With the assurance that their intellectual property is protected, patents provide innovators the courage to invest in R&D. It is clear, nevertheless, that the patent application procedure may be difficult and drawn out, presenting difficulties for both applicants and patent examiners. The backlog of patent applications and the complexity of technical improvements are factors that may cause inspection delays and mistakes. In order to increase the effectiveness and precision of the patent review process, it is important for patent offices and pertinent authorities to invest in resources and training. This research also highlights the necessity for a fair patent system that promotes innovation while guarding against the abuse of patent rights to limit competition or impede development. Finding this balance guarantees that patents are utilized as a tool to stimulate technical development and enhance society as a whole. The granting of patents is a crucial component of intellectual property protection and considerably advances both technology and the economy. We can encourage an environment where innovation flourishes, benefitting both creators and society at large, by comprehending the intricacies and ramifications of the patent application process. To ensure that the patent system is successful in fostering innovation and information dissemination for the greater good, policymakers, patent offices, and stakeholders must work together to make it perpetually better.

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CHAPTER 17

Revocation of Patents by the Controller for Non-Working: Evaluating the Impact on Innovation and Access to Technology

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper investigates the concept of revocation of patents by the Controller for Non-Working, a provision that allows authorities to revoke a patent if it is not adequately worked in a country. The study examines the legal framework and criteria for such revocations, along with their implications on innovation, technology dissemination, and access to essential inventions. By analyzing case studies and international perspectives, this paper aims to provide insights into the effectiveness and challenges associated with this provision and its potential role in promoting a balance between patent protection and public interest. The provisions for compulsory licensing are established to stop patents from being used as monopolies and to open the door for an interested party to commercially utilize the idea. After three years from the date the patent was granted, anybody interested may submit an application for the award of a compulsory license for a patent.

KEYWORDS:

Application, Controller, Date, Patent, Section.

INTRODUCTION

In spite of having a license under the patent, anyone may submit an application for a compulsory license, and no one is barred from claiming that the public's reasonable expectations regarding the patented invention are not met, that the patented invention is not being used in Indian territory, or that the patented invention is not available to the public for a reasonably affordable price due to any adversity. Every application for a compulsory license must include a statement describing the applicant's interest, together with any further information that may be required under subsection (3), as well as the facts upon which the application is founded. When the Controller is satisfied that the public's reasonable needs regarding the patented invention have not been met, the patented invention is not being used in Indian territory, or the patented invention is not reasonably accessible to the general public at an affordable price, the Controller may grant a license under the conditions that he deems appropriate [1]. The following factors must be taken into consideration by the Controller when deciding whether to apply for a compulsory license:

1. The nature of the invention, the amount of time that has passed since the patent was sealed, and the steps that the patentee or any licensee has already done to fully use the invention.

2. The applicant's capacity to use the innovation for the benefit of society.
3. The applicant's willingness to take on the risk of financing and developing the innovation if the application were approved.
4. If the applicant has attempted to negotiate a license agreement with the patentee on acceptable terms and circumstances and whether such efforts have failed within a reasonable time frame that the controller may judge appropriate.

The controller, however, is not required to take into consideration circumstances that have arisen after the application was submitted. It has been made clear that a reasonable term is to be understood as one that typically does not exceed six months. It has been made clear that in this case, it will not be considered that the public's reasonable standards have been met if because the patentee refused to provide a license or licenses on fair terms:

1. The growth of an existing trade or industry, the formation of a new trade or industry in India, the trade or industry of any person or class of people dealing or manufacturing in India, or the trade or industry of any of the above is prejudiced.
2. The demand for the patented item has not been sufficiently satisfied or under reasonable conditions.
3. No supply or development of a market for the patented goods made in India for export.
4. There are biases against the formation or growth of commercial activity in India.
5. The manufacture, use, or sale of materials not covered by the patent, or the establishment or growth of any trade or industry in India, is prejudiced as a result of restrictions placed by the patentee on the grant of licences under the patent or upon the purchase, hiring, or use of the patented article or process.
6. The patentee places a restriction on the licenses granted under the patent that prevents challenges to the patent's validity, grants exclusive grant back, or imposes coercive package licensing.
7. The patented innovation is not sufficiently being used commercially in India or is not being used commercially to the greatest extent that is practically possible.
8. The importation of the patented item from abroad by prevents or hinders the operation of the patented invention on a commercial scale in the territory of India.
 - a. The patentee or those making claims on his behalf.
 - b. Anyone who buy from him directly or indirectly.
 - c. Other individuals against whom the patentee is not pursuing or has not pursued infringement claims.

DISCUSSION

Patents revoked by The Controller Due to Non-Working

According to Section 85, which deals with the revocation of patents by the Controller for not working, the Central Government or any interested party may apply to the Controller for an order revoking the patent on the grounds that the patented invention has not been used in the territory of in after two years have passed from the date of the order granting the first compulsory license. Every request for revocation must include the required information, the supporting evidence,

and, in the event of requests made by parties other than the Central Government, a description of the applicant's intended course of action. The Controller may issue an order revoking the patent if she is of the opinion that the reasonable expectations of the public with regard to the patented invention have not been met, the patented invention has not been used in Indian territory, or it is not accessible to the public for a reasonably reasonable price. However, the controller is now required to normally decide on such an application within a year of its submission[2].

The process for handling applications

According to Section 87, the applicant must serve copies of the application on the patentee and anyone else who appears from the register to be interested in the patent in respect of which the application is made. The application must also be published in the Official Journal if the Controller determines, after considering an application for compulsory licensing or revocation of a patent, that a prima facie case has been made out for the making of an order. The patentee or any other party wishing to oppose the application may provide the Controller notice of objection within the time frame specified or within such additional time as the Controller may grant on application. Any such notice of objection must provide a reasoned argument for the disagreement to the application. When such a notice of objection is properly provided, the Controller is required to inform the applicant and afford both parties a chance to be heard before making a decision[3].

Controller's Authority to Issue Compulsory Licenses

According to Section 88, the Controller may order the grant of licenses under the patent to such customers of the applicant as he thinks fit in addition to the applicant when the Controller is satisfied that the manufacture, use, or sale of materials not protected by the patent is hampered by conditions imposed by the patentee upon the grant of licences under the patent, or upon the purchase, hire, or use of the patented article or process.

The Controller may, if he makes an order for the grant of a licence to the applicant, order the existing licence to be cancelled, or may, if he thinks fit, order the existing licence to be amended instead of making an order for the grant of a licence to the applicant, in the case of a compulsory license application made under Section 84 by a person who is the holder of a licence under the patent.

If the Controller is satisfied that the applicant cannot effectively or satisfactorily use the licence granted to him under those patents without infringing the other patents held by the patentee and if those patents involve important technological advances, then where two or more patents are held by the same patentee and an applicant for a compulsory licence establishes that the reasonable requirements of the public have not been satisfied with respect to some only of the said patents, If the Controller has established the terms and conditions of a license, the licensee may, at any time after commercially exploiting the invention for at least a year, request a revision of the terms and conditions on the grounds that the terms and conditions established have proven to be more onerous than anticipated and that, as a result, the licensee is unable to exploit the invention. The Controller, however, shall not consider such an application a second time[4].

Conditions for Compulsory Licenses

According to Section 90, the Controller should make every effort to ensure the following while establishing the terms and conditions of a compulsory license:

- a. Taking into account the nature of the invention, the costs incurred by the patentee in creating or developing the invention, obtaining a patent for it, maintaining it in force, and other pertinent factors, the royalty and other compensation, if any, reserved to the patentee or other person beneficially entitled to the patent, is reasonable.
- b. The person to whom the license is given uses the patented innovation to the maximum extent possible while making a fair profit for himself.
- c. The patented goods are made accessible to the general public at fair pricing.
- d. The granted license is not exclusive.
- e. The licensee's right cannot be transferred.
- f. Unless a shorter period is compatible with the public interest, the license is valid for the remainder of the patent's term.
- g. The license is given primarily for the purpose of selling on the Indian market, albeit section 84 (7) permits the licensee to export the patented goods if necessary.
- h. The license granted in the case of semiconductor technology allows for the exploitation of the innovation for non-commercial public usage.
- i. If the license is issued to address a practice that has been shown to be anti-competitive via legal or administrative channels, the licensee will be allowed to export the patented goods if necessary [5].

According to Section 90(2), no license issued by the Controller may permit the licensee to import a patented good or a good or substance made using a patented process from a foreign country if doing so would violate the patentee's rights without the license. However, in accordance with Subsection (3), the Central Government may order the Controller to permit any licensee of a patent to import from abroad the patented article or an article or substance made using the patented process subject to any conditions it deems necessary to impose, including those relating to the royalty and other compensation, if any, payable to the patentee, the quantum of import, the sale price of the imported article, and the period of import.

Patents Related Thereto Are Licensed

According to Section 91, anyone who holds the exclusive or nonexclusive right to work any other patented invention may apply to the Controller for the grant of a license of the first mentioned patent at any time after the sealing of a patent on the grounds that he is prevented or hindered from working the other invention effectively or to his best advantage without such licence. The Controller must be convinced that the applicant is able and willing to grant, or procure the grant of a licence in respect of the other invention to the patentee and his licensees if they so desire, on reasonable terms, and that the other invention has significantly contributed to the establishment or development of commercial or industrial activities in the territory of India before making an order for the grant of such licence. The Controller may issue an order granting a licence under the first mentioned patent and a similar order under the other patent if requested

by the owner of the first mentioned patent or his licensee after the Controller is satisfied that the conditions outlined in Section 91(1) have been established by the applicant. However, other than with the transfer of the relevant patents, the license granted by the Controller must not be assignable[6].

In accordance with Section 92, the Central Government may declare in the Official Gazette that it is necessary for compulsory licenses to be granted at any time after the sealing of a patent to work an invention in the event of a national emergency, extreme urgency, or in the case of public non-commercial use. The Controller shall then, upon application, grant such compulsory licenses. When determining the terms and conditions of a license, the controller will make an effort to ensure that the goods produced in accordance with the patent will be sold to the general public at the most affordable rates while yet allowing the patentees to profit reasonably from their patent rights. The Patents (Amendment) Act of 2005 added Section 92A to the Patents Act of 1970, which stipulates that in certain extraordinary cases, the export of patented pharmaceutical items requires a compulsory license. It states that provided a compulsory license has been granted by such country or such country has, by notification or otherwise, permitted importation of the patented pharmaceutical products from India, compulsory licenses shall be available for manufacture and export of patented pharmaceutical products to any country having insufficient or no manufacturing capacity in the pharmaceutical sector for the concerned product to address public health problems.

In accordance with subsection (2), the Controller is empowered to grant a compulsory license on the basis of the terms and conditions he deems appropriate, solely for the manufacture and export of the relevant pharmaceutical product to the relevant country under the terms and conditions he deems appropriate and publishes. Any patented product, or product made using a patented process, of the pharmaceutical industry that is required to address public health issues is referred to as a pharmaceutical product in the explanation appended to Section 92A. This definition includes ingredients required for their manufacture and diagnostic kits required for their use. According to Section 94, the Controller may terminate a compulsory licence upon application by the patentee or any other person deriving title or interest in the patent, provided that the circumstances giving rise to the grant thereof no longer exist and such circumstances are unlikely to recur. The owner of the required license has the right to oppose to such termination in this respect. Procedures for coercive licensing and patent revocation are covered in Rules 96-102.

According to Rule 96, Form 17 or Form 19 must be used, as appropriate, when submitting an application to the Controller for an order under Section 84, Section 85, Section 91, Section 92, or Section 92A.

The application must specify the applicant's interest and the terms and circumstances of the license they are ready to accept, with the exception of applications submitted by the Central Government. According to Rule 97, the Controller shall notify the applicant of his decision and, unless the applicant requests to be heard in the matter within one month of the date of such notification, shall refuse the application if the Controller is satisfied that a prima facie case has not been made out for the making of an order under any of the sections referred to above. If the

applicant seeks a hearing within the allotted period, the Controller must decide whether to accept the application or reject it after providing the applicant a chance to be heard[7].

Section 87(2) Notice of Opposition

A notice of objection under section 87(2) must be made in Form 14 and forwarded to the Controller no later than two months after the application was published, according to Rule 98. However, the notice of objection should be backed by supporting documentation and indicate the terms and circumstances of the license, if any, that the opponent is willing to provide to the applicant. The opposing party must provide a copy of the notice of objection and supporting documents to the applicant, and they must also let the Controller know when this has been done. Except with the Controller's permission or at his or her request, no party is compelled to provide any more testimony or evidence. According to Rule 98(5), the Controller must set a hearing date and time and provide the parties at least ten days' notice before the hearing. The method outlined in sub-rules (2) to (5) of rule 62, as far as is possible, shall apply to the procedure for hearing, as they apply to the hearing in opposition proceedings, according to rule 98(6). The Controller must publish the order he issued under section 85(3) cancelling a patent as per rule 99[8].

Application Process under Section 88 (4)

According to Rule 100, a request under Section 88(4) for the revision of license terms and conditions that the Controller has approved must be made in Form 20, include the facts the applicant is relying on and the relief he is seeking, and be accompanied by supporting documentation. The Controller may notify the applicant that he or she does not have a prima facie case for the revision of the terms and conditions of the licence and, if so, may refuse the application if the applicant does not request a hearing within a month. The Controller will decide whether to go forward with the application or reject it after giving the applicant a chance to be heard.

Application for Cancellation of Section 94 Compulsory License

The patentee or any other person deriving title or interest in the patent must submit the application for termination of the obligatory licence under section 94(1) in Form 21 together with the supporting documentation, according to Rule 102. The holder of the obligatory license must be served with a copy of the application and supporting documentation, and the applicant must notify the Controller of the date on which the service was completed. Within one month of the date on which he received the application and any supporting documentation from the Controller, the holder of the mandatory license may submit his objection to the application, together with any supporting documentation, if applicable, and serve a copy of the objection to the applicant. With the exception of specific permission from or upon the Controller's request, neither party is obliged to provide any further evidence or statements[9]. After the aforementioned processes are finished, the Controller must set a date and time for the case's hearing and provide the parties at least ten days' notice of the hearing. The process described in sub-rules (2) to (5) of rule 62, as far as is possible, apply to the hearing procedure just as they do to the hearing in opposition proceedings, according to rule 102(6). In the event that the Controller chooses to end the

mandatory license, he or she must issue an order outlining the terms and circumstances, if any, of the termination and serve copies of the order to both parties [10].

The revocation of patents by the Controller for Non-Working is a contentious issue with significant implications for innovation, technology diffusion, and access to essential inventions. While the provision intends to prevent patent holders from hoarding exclusive rights without actively exploiting their patented technology within a country, its implementation and impact require careful consideration. One of the primary concerns surrounding this provision is the potential chilling effect on innovation. Inventors may fear that their patents could be revoked if they face challenges in commercializing their inventions within a specific timeframe. This fear might lead to a reluctance to disclose inventions or invest in research and development, ultimately hindering progress and economic growth. Moreover, the effectiveness of this provision largely depends on the criteria set for determining non-working and the level of enforcement by the regulatory authorities. Ambiguities in the criteria could lead to inconsistent decisions, creating uncertainties for both patent holders and potential licensees. Therefore, a clear and objective standard is essential to ensure fair and predictable outcomes.

CONCLUSION

On the positive side, the provision can promote technology dissemination and access to essential inventions, especially in sectors crucial for public welfare, such as healthcare and environmental protection. By revoking patents held by entities unwilling to make their technology available for public use, governments can enable greater competition, potentially leading to affordable alternatives and increased availability of critical innovations.

The revocation of patents by the Controller for Non-Working is a mechanism that requires a delicate balance between promoting innovation and safeguarding public interest. Policymakers must carefully design and implement this provision, considering its potential impact on inventors, industries, and the overall innovation ecosystem. By striking the right balance, this mechanism can contribute to a patent system that fosters innovation while ensuring that patented technology benefits society as a whole. Collaboration between patent holders, regulatory authorities, and other stakeholders is crucial to refine this provision and address any potential unintended consequences, ultimately maximizing its positive impact on technological progress and societal welfare.

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CHAPTER 18

Appropriate Office in Relation to International Applications: A Comparative Analysis of Patent Systems

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper explores the concept of the appropriate office in the context of international patent applications. With the increasing globalization of innovation and the rise of the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT), inventors seek to protect their inventions in multiple countries simultaneously. The study delves into the selection of the appropriate office for filing PCT applications, considering factors such as cost, examination procedures, and potential advantages or limitations associated with different national or regional patent offices. By comparing various patent systems, this paper aims to provide valuable insights into the considerations and challenges faced by applicants when choosing the appropriate office for their international patent filings.

KEYWORDS:

Applications, Patent Systems, Patent Cooperation, Patent Agents, Treaty.

INTRODUCTION

The receiving office, designated office, and elected office for purposes of foreign applications submitted under the Treaty should be the relevant office in accordance with rule 4 according to Rule 18 of the Patents Rules, 2003. The International Bureau of the World Intellectual Property Organization, International Searching Authorities, and International Preliminary Examining Authorities should all be dealt with via the patent office's main office. The basic rules related to international applications under the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) and the regulations created under the PCT shall be followed while filing and processing an international application under the Treaty at the relevant office. Upon receiving an international application, the competent office is required to send two copies: one copy as the application's record copy to the International Bureau of the World Intellectual Property Organization and another copy as the search copy to the Competent International Searching Authority. The relevant office must concurrently provide the head office of the patent offices with all pertinent information about the application[1].

It should be noted that Section 39 specifically specifies that an Indian applicant cannot file for patents outside of India unless they have a written permission that has been requested in the proper way and approved by the Controller or on their behalf. An Indian applicant may use one of the following methods to submit a PCT International application. Filing at the receiving office, the Indian Patent Office. In these circumstances, it is advised that the application be submitted

with a copy of the Controller's authorization for overseas filing under section 39. If such authorization is requested along with the application, there is a chance that it may be delayed and sent to the DRDO/Department of Atomic Energy for guidance. Directly filing in the International Bureau of WIPO after obtaining Indian Patent Office clearance under section 39. After submitting an Indian patent application, submit an international application in the IB of WIPO or in the Indian Patent Office acting as the receiving office at any time before the lapse of a year after the date of submission. However, if the international filing must be made within six weeks of the date of the Indian file, authorization under section 39 from the Indian Patent Office must first be obtained.

Applications filed internationally using the correct office as the receiving office

According to Rule 19, an overseas application must be submitted in triplicate to the relevant agency in Hindi or English. In addition to the costs stated in the rules under the Treaty, the fees outlined in the First Schedule to the Patents Rules, 2003, must also be paid in respect of an international application lodged with the relevant office. If an international application submitted with the relevant office has not been prepared in accordance with the aforementioned requirements and the applicant requests that the appropriate office create the extra copies needed, the applicant is responsible for covering the cost of creating those copies. For the purposes of an international application filed with the appropriate office with notification to the applicant and the head office, the appropriate office shall, upon receipt of a request from the applicant and upon payment by him of the prescribed fee, prepare a certified copy of the priority document and promptly transmit it to the International Bureau of the World Intellectual Property Organization.

Applications from outside identifying, electing, or designating India

According to Rule 20, a Form 1 application may be used to submit a request that corresponds to an international application under the Patent Cooperation Treaty. However, the Patent Office cannot begin processing a submitted application that corresponds to an overseas application naming India until 31 months have passed from the priority date. However, the Patent Office may process or evaluate the application at any time prior to 31 months after the priority date upon explicit request submitted in Form 18 together with the fee required in the First Schedule. An applicant for an international application designating India must pay the prescribed national fee and other fees to the patent office before the prescribed period. Additionally, if the international application was not filed or published in English, the applicant or the person duly authorized by him must file with the patent office an English translation of the application, duly verified by him or her that the contents thereof are

According to Rule 20(5), the translation of the international application must include an English translation of the description, the claims as filed, any text matter from the drawings, the abstract, and, if the applicant has not chosen India and the claims have been amended under Article 19, the amended claims along with any statement filed under the said Article. If the applicant has chosen India and there have been any changes to the description, the claims also must include the updated claims along with any statement filed under the said Article[2]. If the applicant does not submit a translation of the amended claims and annexures as described above within the time

frame that may be set by the appropriate office with consideration for the amount of time left to meet the requirements, the amended claims and annexures will be ignored when the appropriate office continues to process the application. The applicant must utilize the forms listed in the Second Schedule before the relevant authority as the designated office with regard to an overseas application naming India.

DISCUSSION

Priority Document Filing

If the applicant for an international application designating India has not complied with the requirements of paragraph (a) or paragraph (b) of rule 17.1 of the regulations under the Treaty, Rule 21 mandates that the applicant file the priority document referred to in that rule with the patent office before the expiration of the allotted time period. If the priority document is not in the English language, the applicant or the person lawfully authorized by him must submit an English translation of it within the allotted time frame, with proper verification. The appropriate office will invite the applicant to file the priority document or the translation thereof, as applicable, within three months of the date of such invitation if the applicant fails to comply with the aforementioned requirements. If the applicant does not comply, the applicant's claim to priority will be rejected.

Patent brokers

A qualified Patent Agent is entrusted with the task of drafting specifications, filing a patent application, following up with the Patent Office regarding objections raised, presenting the applicant's case at hearings, filing an opposition, and defending the application against opposition. The Patent Agents are covered under Sections 125–132 of the Patents Act of 1970 and Rules 108–120 of the Patents Rules of 2003. The Controller keeps a registry known as the register of patent agents, in which all individuals eligible to have their names entered in accordance with section 126 will have their names, addresses, and any other pertinent information that may be specified. Rule 4 mandates that such a record be kept at the Patent Office's Calcutta headquarters. The name, nationality, address of the main business location, address of the branch office, and any other pertinent information that may be specified, if applicable, will be included in the register. It will also include the qualification and the date of registration of entry as a Patent agent[3].

Requirements for Becoming a Patent Agent

If a person meets the requirements listed in Section 126, he will be eligible to have his name added to the register of patent agents, specifically:

- a. He or she is an Indian national.
- b. He or she has reached the age of 21.
- c. He or she has the other comparable credentials that the Central Government may designate in this regard, and in addition, - He or she has earned a degree in Science, Engineering, or Technology from any university established under the legislation now in effect in the territory of India.

- d. Has successfully completed the required qualification test.
- e. Served as an examiner, carried out the controller's duties under section 73 for a cumulative period of not less than ten years, or both, but had ceased to do so at the time the registration application was submitted.
- f. He has made the appropriate payment.

However, a person who was registered as a patent agent prior to the implementation of the Patent (Amendment) Act, 2005, shall be eligible to remain registered or, where necessary, be reregistered as a patent agent, subject to payment of the fee.

Examinations for Patent Agent Qualification

According to section 126 of the Act, certain mandated qualifications for patent agents are required in order to maintain high professional efficacy. A written test and a viva voce examination will make up the qualifying examination for patent agents, according to clause (c)(ii) of subsection 1 of section 126. The written test will consist of two exams, each worth 100 mark. Patents Act and Rules. and Drafting and Interpretation of Patent Specification and Other Documents. A candidate will only be deemed to have passed the test if he or she receives an overall score of 60% of the qualifying marks for both the written paper and the viva voce examinations (Rule 110 (3)).

The licensing of patent agents

According to Rule 111, after a candidate passes the qualifying examination outlined in Rule 110, the Controller will enter the candidate's name in the register of patent agents and issue him a certificate of registration as a patent agent after obtaining any additional information that the Controller deems necessary and upon receipt of the fee. Information That Should Be Included in a Patent Agent Registration Application. According to Rule 112, a person who is eligible to have his name registered as a patent agent under Subsection 2 of Section 126 must additionally submit a Form 22 with the required fee in order to disclose information about his patent agent activity. The registration will be filled up with the following information:

- a. Name and credentials.
- b. The location of his or her office, including any branches, if any.
- c. The date the specified fee was paid.
- d. Additional information as may be required

Being unable to register as a patent agent

Conditions for a person's exclusion from registration as a patent agent are outlined in Rule 114. According to Rule 114, an individual will not be qualified to register as a patent agent.

- a. Has been deemed incompetent by a court of competent jurisdiction.
- b. Is an insolvent who was undercharged.
- c. Having been declared bankrupt and having acquired a certificate from the court stating that his insolvency was due to bad luck rather than any wrongdoing on his part.

- d. Has been sentenced to a term of imprisonment by a court of competent jurisdiction, whether in India or outside of India, unless the crime for which he was sentenced has been absolved or, in response to his request, the Central Government has issued an order in this regard.
- e. Professional misconduct has been committed while acting as a lawyer.
- f. Having engaged in carelessness or improper behaviour as a chartered accountant.

Agents' Register of Patents

In accordance with Section 125, it is necessary to keep a register of patent agents in order to determine who has been registered as an agent and is authorized to represent the applicant in the prosecution of a patent application. By paying the renewal cost each year, the name may be kept on the register[4].

Changes to Names, etc., in the Patent Agents Register

According to Rule 118, a patent agent may submit a request to have his name, the address of his major place of business and, if applicable, any branch offices, or the qualifications listed in the register of patent agents changed. The Controller will cause the appropriate changes to be made in the register of patent agents upon receipt of such an application and the fee stipulated therefor in the First Schedule. Each modification to the registry of patent agents will be made public.

Names of Patent Agents Listed in Publication Under the Act

According to Rule 120, the names and addresses of individuals who have registered as patent agents may sometimes be published in the official journal, newspapers, trade journals, and other media the Controller may see appropriate. It will also be included in the Controller General's Annual Report on Patents, Designs, and Trademarks. When properly authorized, a person whose name is in the register of Patent Agents may practice before the Controller and sign all applications and communications to the Controller. Additionally, he drafts specifications, submits patent applications, corresponds with the Patent Office in the future, represents applicants at hearings, files and participates in opposition proceedings, or defends his case against an opposition filed by another party. Any of the following actions are considered to be part of practicing as a patent agent:

- a. Obtaining or attempting to acquire a patent in India or abroad. [5]
- b. Creating specifications or other documents for this Act's or a nation's patent law's objectives.
- c. Offering opinions on the legality of patents or the violation of their rights that are not of a scientific or technical character.

Application for a patent for an invention may be made by (a) any person claiming to be the true and first inventor of the invention. (b) any individual who is the assignee of the true and first inventor with regard to the right to make such an application. or (c) any individual who, immediately prior to his or her death, was entitled to make such an application. There may be only one innovation per patent application. When the application is made thanks to the assignment of the right to file for a patent on the invention, documentation of the application's

legal standing must be included. A detailed specification must be provided by the applicant in order to completely and especially characterize the invention that is claimed in the application. A detailed specification of the invention must be provided such that a person with ordinary competence in the art might carry out the invention. Only when an applicant fully discloses the invention, specifically mentioning the ideal method of implementation, is this feasible[6].

When a patent application has been published but a patent has not yet been granted, anyone may, in writing, object to the grant of the patent on the grounds set forth therein. The Controller, upon the request of such person, will hear him and will make a decision regarding the representation in the prescribed manner and specified time. The Patents Act addresses objection to patent grant and stipulates that in cases where a patent application has been published but a patent has not yet been issued, anybody may, in writing, identify themselves as an opponent of the patent grant on certain reasons to the Controller. The patent will be awarded as quickly as feasible to the applicant if the application for the invention has been determined to be in order for grant of the patent and is not found to be in violation of any Act requirements. A qualified Patent Agent is tasked with drafting specifications, filing a patent application, following up with the Patent Office regarding objections raised, presenting the applicant's case at hearings, filing opposition, and defending the application against opposition [7].

The choice of the appropriate office in relation to international patent applications is a critical decision that significantly impacts the patent filing process, examination procedures, and the ultimate scope of protection obtained. This study highlights several key findings that can guide inventors and patent applicants in making informed decisions:

Cost Considerations: Different patent offices have varying fee structures, and the cost of filing and prosecuting a patent application can vary significantly from one jurisdiction to another. Applicants must carefully assess their budget and prioritize countries or regions where patent protection is most crucial for their business strategy [8].

Examination Procedures: Patent examination procedures differ across jurisdictions, with some offices having more stringent examination standards and others being more lenient. Understanding the examination process can help applicants anticipate potential challenges or opportunities for obtaining broader patent protection.

Regional Patent Offices: Regional patent offices, such as the European Patent Office (EPO) and the African Regional Intellectual Property Organization (ARIPO), offer a centralized filing and examination process for multiple member states. Utilizing regional systems can streamline the application process and reduce costs when seeking protection in several countries within a particular region [9].

National Law and Language: The applicable patent law and language of examination can influence the strength and enforceability of the patent. Applicants must be familiar with the legal requirements and language preferences of each selected jurisdiction.

Strategic Considerations: Business goals, market potential, and the relevance of the invention to specific regions are essential strategic factors to consider when choosing the appropriate office for international patent filings[10].

CONCLUSION

The selection of the appropriate office for international patent applications is a multifaceted decision that requires careful evaluation of various factors. Patent applicants must strike a balance between cost, examination procedures, and strategic considerations to optimize their patent protection strategy. Collaboration with patent agents or attorney's familiar with the patent systems in relevant jurisdictions can be highly beneficial in navigating the complexities of international patent filings. As technology continues to transcend national borders, a well-informed and strategic approach to selecting the appropriate office will become increasingly crucial for inventors seeking global patent protection.

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CHAPTER 19

Patent Databases & Patent Information System: Empowering Innovation and Knowledge Discovery

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper explores the significance of patent databases and patent information systems as essential tools for fostering innovation, enabling research, and facilitating knowledge dissemination in the field of intellectual property. The study delves into the structure and functionality of patent databases, the vast amount of information they contain, and their role in supporting inventors, researchers, and policymakers. By analyzing the benefits, challenges, and future prospects of these systems, this paper aims to shed light on how patent databases and patent information systems contribute to the advancement of technology and the overall growth of industries worldwide.

KEYWORDS:

Application, Database, Patent, Right, Section.

INTRODUCTION

The establishment and preservation of intellectual property rights (IPR) are crucial for the long-term development of a country since they are seen as the foundation of any economy. Today, intellectual property rights are utilized to forge strategic partnerships for the development of socioeconomic and technical sectors as well as to safeguard innovation and produce income. As a result, the Intellectual Property Office in India is committed to fostering the necessary IP culture in order to mobilize the use of such technical innovation for socio-economic development, which is mandated by the constitution. The Ministry of Commerce and Industry's Department of Industrial Policy and Promotion oversees the Controller General of Patents, Designs, and Trade Marks (CGPDTM). In recent years, the Controller General's office has also gone by the name Intellectual Property Office (IPO). Through its Intellectual Property Offices in Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai, and Ahmedabad, the Office is in charge of administering the Patents Act of 1970, the Designs Act of 2000, the Trade Marks Act of 1999, and the Geographical Indications of Goods (Registration and Protection) Act of 1999.

Under the supervision of the CGPDTM are also the Nagpur-based National Institute of Intellectual Property Management (NIIPM) and Patent Information System (PIS). In order to meet the demand for technological information from various users in R&D establishments, government organizations, industries, business, inventors, and other users to enable them to make informed business decisions, PIS maintains a comprehensive collection of patent specifications and patent related literature on a global basis[1]. As a national center of excellence

for training, management, research, and education in the field of intellectual property rights-related issues, the National Institute for Intellectual Property Management (NIIPM) provides training for the country's patent and design examiners, trademark and geographical indication examiners, IP professionals, and IP managers as well as providing basic education to the user community, government officials, and stakeholders involved in creation, co Additionally, the institution will assist with the development of study reports and policy analyses pertinent to the government for research on IP-related problems. There is currently no organization in the nation that deals with these operations.

Data about patents

When doing a patent information search, it is customary to do so as part of the application writing process before submitting a patent application or when organizing and arranging for a patent lawsuit. This micro-level use of patent information has developed into a much more strategic use of patent information as a consequence of the fast advancement of information technology and the increased accessibility to online databases of patent information. Recent years have seen an increase in the meso- and macro-level usage of patent information by economists, social scientists, politicians, businesspeople, and professionals.

In order to determine or forecast the direction of technical change, or to determine the relative technological position of a company in a market, for instance, this analysis is being done of the patenting activities of a country's technical patterns of internationalization, the patenting activities in a sector, technology, or company, etc. As a result, many diverse tactical and strategic commercial, research, and policy-making activities at the national, institutional, or firm levels now make use of patent information[2].

What Is Patent Data?

In addition to the text of published patent papers, patent information may also comprise bibliographic and other details about invention patents, inventors' certificates, utility certificates, and utility models. The biggest, most organized, and most recent collection of technical publications on cutting-edge technology is available here. In compliance with the requirements of local or national patent laws, patent applications are submitted. An applicant might be an individual inventor, a public or private firm, a government body, a researcher at a university or in a research and development facility. A patent document includes a plethora of information on the state-of-the-art in that field of technology as determined in an international setting, and it does so in a standardized manner.

DISCUSSION

Using Patent Information: Justifications

Information on patents is not merely technical or legal in nature. Comparative technical data may be used to predict a new product's success or failure, which may ultimately affect the company's performance. The following are some examples of how patent information is used in practice:

Instrument for Creative Thought

Researchers and innovators may utilize patent information as a source of technological knowledge to come up with fresh approaches to technical issues. The TRIZ approach (Russian abbreviation for Theory of the Solution of Inventive Problems) is a particular methodology created using patent data. Genrich Saltcellar and his associates created the TRIZ approach based on the examination and evaluation of a collection of international patent papers. TRIZ was founded in 1946 on the premise that there are fundamental principles of invention that all inventions must follow in order to advance technology. If these principles could be discovered and codified, people could learn them and develop or improve their capacity for invention[3].

More than 2 million patent papers have been studied, categorized by degree of creativity, and analyzed to seek for creative principles as part of the TRIZ study, which has been conducted in phases. Internationally, TRIZ is now used to develop and enhance goods, services, and systems. TRIZ is used by big and small businesses alike, including several Fortune 500 organizations, on a variety of levels to address current issues and create plans for the future of technology. Universities all around the globe have created undergraduate courses connected to the TRIZ approach to increase students' creativity and imaginative thinking skills, which is based on one of the findings of the theory that inventiveness and creativity can be acquired. As a result, patent information offers a wealth of knowledge for learning and creating innovative and creative problem-solving techniques.

Advice for the Licensing Strategy

The interested parties must gather trustworthy information about the target or important technology in order to make the best choice while thinking about licensing in of technology held by others, licensing out of owner's technology, or cross-licensing between two patent portfolio owners. Because it is inherently unstable and difficult to retain a technology as a trade secret, if it is valuable enough, it will typically be secured by a patent. As a result, the examination of patent data gives them useful technical and commercial information about the target or critical technology. It is crucial that the parties have a complete grasp of the target technology itself, its value, and in terms of its strengths and limitations before beginning license discussions. This is greatly facilitated by a thorough and rigorous review of pertinent patent material. Analyze patent data to take into account the following before getting ready to license in technology[4]. Whether the in-issue technology has become common knowledge in your target market as a result of lack of protection, expiry, non-payment of maintenance fees, or invalidation of the patent in court. If there is a chance that someone else may file a claim against you for infringement and hold you responsible for paying any resulting damages. Comparing the technology to similar or alternative technologies may help determine if it is overpriced or undervalued, among other things. Similar to this, while getting ready to license out your invention, examine patent data to take into account:

1. Who in the market could be potential licensees.
2. How useful is your technology so that you can create a compelling proposition.

3. Whether it is a key technology for your company, which, if licensed out, may make it difficult to use this technology going forward, etc.

Cross-licensing is the exchange of one or more patent licenses between two businesses, giving the businesses freedom to operate without worrying about being accused of infringing on the other party's intellectual rights. In a cross-licensing arrangement, the party with the more valuable patent portfolio is thought to make the necessary payment. Assuming that Company X and Company Y are in negotiations, if Company X asserts that their portfolio is more valuable than Company Y's, it may demand that Company Y make one-time or ongoing payments to make up the difference. Patent analysis here helps to determine who should pay who and how much by comparing the patent portfolios of the two firms and finding significant patents.

Assisting with mergers and acquisitions

A corporation must first locate all the businesses that own the essential patents and associated assets if it wants to purchase a certain technology together with other complementary assets but is unsure where to get them. A patent search may help you find every patent connected to your research topic. Once one or more suitable target technologies or businesses have been discovered, the corporation may do further patent research to whittle down its options and choose the most advantageous target for a merger or purchase. Once a target firm has been identified, patent research may help address other concerns, such as: Is the target's technology as advanced as it is marketed to be? Is the business charging fairly? Who are the main innovators, and will they continue working for the combined or purchased business? Let's examine a situation. A huge high-tech firm purchased a tiny specialty company as part of a comprehensive strategic strategy to plug holes in the company's technological foundation. The purchasing corporation soon learned that the acquired company's R&D skills were extremely weak, which was in stark contrast to its belief that it had purchased a business with great technical capabilities. One essential researcher was required for it to be technologically capable, but he was not included in the sale. Before the transaction was completed, he was moved to the parent business. Before moving through with the purchase, a patent study would have allowed the corporation to identify the essential researcher and take the necessary steps to keep him on staff.

Leading Research and Development (R&D) Management

A corporation should be able to capture the comprehensive picture of the relevant technological sector and effectively estimate the market demands in order to launch a new business or create a new product. The flow of technology from fundamental technologies and the expansion of those technologies, the trend of technological change, the life cycle of a technology which includes growth, development, maturity, and decline, problems and solutions in the development of a particular technology, competitors' technologies, and solutions to deal with potential problems can all be discovered through patent analysis. Understanding a technology's life cycle enables one to time the application of development policies and to concentrate on certain development topics. Additionally, it may stop an infringement from happening, which would save a ton of money on legal fees and damages reimbursement.

Patents are often associated with research and development and may be used to measure R & D production. A corporation may have a higher dedication to research and development if it has more patents than a rival. But not all patents are worth the same. Most patents are obtained for incremental but non-obvious breakthroughs. Only a small number of patents are for profound discoveries that alter the course of history. A patent is seen to have a bigger effect or to be of better quality if it is mentioned more often than other patents of the same age. It is feasible to prioritize the purchase of strong patents based on the connections between patents revealed by patent citation analysis, which increases R&D productivity and, as a consequence, leads to the development of much better or new goods.

Manage Human Resources

The evolution of technology is driven by a small number of very prolific innovators, whereas a considerably greater number of researchers in any one labor organization only create one or two patents. A co-inventor brain map, for example, may be used in patent analysis to identify significant inventors who will be crucial to the company's future. Such brain maps may discover significant innovators in other organizations in addition to star inventors inside a company, which is a helpful analysis for headhunting and creating a successful M&A strategy[5].

Patent databases and search engines

Conducting a patent search is a crucial step prior to submitting a patent application. Before embarking on any commercial initiative, corporations must do due diligence, and the same is true for patent owners before they submit a patent application. A patent search is a search that is done in the literature and patent databases to see whether any inventions that are comparable to the one for which a patent is sought already exist.

In other words, it assesses the likelihood that an inventor will get a patent award. Therefore, if one undertakes the patentability search before moving on with the filing, one can clearly determine the patentability of the invention, if the application should be submitted, and the strengths and weaknesses of his invention. Before submitting an application, it is wise to do a patentability search since patenting is a costly process. Although doing a patent search incurs extra costs, it may end up saving the innovator money in the long run. Through a number of databases, the public may access information on patents. One specific collection of patent papers is covered by each database.

There is currently no database that fully encompasses all patent papers ever published globally. As a result, it could be required to search through many databases to identify and then obtain patent materials that are relevant to your interests[6].

Disc-based databases

Access to patent data on CD-ROM in text and image form is made possible by information technology. Documentary searches are made much easier by CD-ROM databases. Users just need a CD-ROM driver and a computer to get things done. No other connections are required. However, there are certain downsides to CD-ROM databases. Their update is an issue, to start. The material on CD-ROM quickly becomes outdated, at least for certain sorts of research, since

online databases may be readily updated on a frequent basis. Additionally, it is difficult to create statistical series using CD-ROM databases. as a result, they are not yet appropriate for statistical applications.

Web-based databases

Online databases are those that are based on the Internet. Anyone with Internet connection may be able to peruse the entire text of published patent filings using either for-profit or public databases. Users worldwide may quickly obtain patent papers from a computer linked to the Internet since access to these types of databases is not limited by national boundaries. The International Patent categorization (IPC) is a hierarchical categorization scheme that is mainly used to categorize and search patent documents such as utility models, patent applications, and patent specifications in accordance with the technical domains to which they are relevant. As a result, it acts as a tool for the systematic organization of patent papers, a foundation for the selective release of information, and a starting point for research into the state of the art in certain technological sectors. Online databases with open access to patent information are also provided by many for-profit and nonprofit organizations. Value-added services, such as translations of patent material and further systematic categorization, such as by chemical structures and reactions or biological sequences, have been developed by certain commercial providers for access on a fee-paying basis.

In addition, if an initial search does not provide the desired results, professional search services that may conduct prior art searches on behalf of prospective patent applicants may be helpful. Despite the fact that anybody may access free online patent databases, it is important that the work be delegated to someone who is knowledgeable at performing searches. This is due to the time-consuming, repetitive nature of patent searches in diverse patent and non-patent literature. The large volume of literature that has to be searched would be impossible for a non-skilled individual to adequately search. A knowledgeable individual also recognizes the significance of a patent's claims. When a patent that is comparable to your invention already exists, the patent claims are of vital significance. in such a situation, one has to examine the patent claims to establish the degree of similarity between the two. A qualified individual might also provide advice on how to improve your patent so that it doesn't violate other works of art or on the strength of your patent. These ideas may not make sense to a layperson[7].

Different Search Methods Using Patent Documentation

There are a number of more or less common reasons to conduct searches in collections of patent papers, and each of them calls for a somewhat different strategy in the search technique used. While some of the search categories are primarily concerned with technical data as such, others are focused on processing patent applications or are pertinent to the legal status of emerging technologies. The various search categories are described below individually even though it is common knowledge that numerous pieces of bibliographic data may be merged when searching. In general, inventors' searches are often less thorough than those conducted by experts at patent offices. To find out whether someone has previously patented a comparable idea or to learn

pertinent details about other patents that fall under the same category as the inventor's creation, such insights into patent records are sometimes quite helpful.

PASs (Pre-Application Searches)

An innovation begins as simply an idea. Many specifics aren't even understood or acknowledged as important components. A novelty search based on an ill-defined concept can only provide an ill-defined understanding of the previous art. A Pre- Application Search (PAS) should be carried out by the inventor before to submitting a patent application since the patent application process is challenging, time-consuming, and costly. The inventor should do this search to find any printed materials, common knowledge, or previously granted domestic or international patents that may be relevant to the specific invention[8].

Contemporary Searches

This type of search, also known as a Informative Search, is conducted to ascertain the general state-of-the-art for the resolution of a specific technical problem in order to provide background knowledge for R&D activities and to learn what patent publications are already available in the relevant technical or research fields. Additional motivations for doing this sort of search may include the desire to find alternatives to currently used technologies or to assess a particular technology that is up for license or being evaluated for purchase. Modern searches are extremely helpful for transferring or developing new technologies.

Novelty Lookups

A Novelty Search seeks to ascertain if an invention claimed in a patent application, a patent that has already been awarded, or an invention for which no application has yet been submitted is unique or not. The search's objective is to find relevant previous art. An early novelty patent search often yields negative results. The fundamental innovative concepts are often expressed in such a general manner that numerous publications will apply to this wide definition. The choice to continue or cease developing the innovation will depend on the results of the novelty search. If nothing pertinent was discovered, moving forward is simple and advised. If one or more relevant papers are located, the choice becomes more challenging. The most crucial step is to focus the search in the right place. This may be achieved by locating the appropriate location or places in the IPC for the search topic.

Searches for Validity or Patentability

A Patentability or Validity Search is performed to find documents pertinent to the assessment of not only novelty but also other patentability criteria, such as the accomplishment of useful results or technical advancement or the presence or absence of an inventive step whether the alleged invention is obvious or not. This kind of search need to include all the technological areas that could have information relevant to the innovation. Industrial property offices often conduct searches for novelty and patentability as part of the review of patent applications. These searches are used to find details on published patent filings involving certain businesses or people who served as applicants, assignees, patent holders, or inventors. They should be seen as searches for locating businesses and/or innovators who are working in a certain technological sector. In order

to know where to go for specific information in a certain technological sector, these searches are also useful for finding the nations in which a particular invention is being patented.

An Infringement Search seeks for published patent applications and patents that may be violated by a certain industrial activity. Determine if an existing patent grants exclusive rights covering that industrial activity or any portion of it is the goal of this sort of inquiry. According to the relevant patent laws in one or more countries, a search for this kind of research is done to learn the state of a patent or a published patent application on a certain date. Such data may be useful for making judgments about, say, exporting or negotiating licensing contracts. It may also provide advice on the value that the patentee has placed on a certain patent. Patent databases and patent information systems have become indispensable resources in the modern world, driving innovation, research, and technological advancement. This study has revealed several key findings regarding the significance and impact of these systems:

- 1. Knowledge Discovery and Prior Art Search:** Patent databases provide a wealth of information on existing technologies, allowing inventors and researchers to conduct thorough prior art searches. This process is crucial for avoiding patent infringement, evaluating the novelty of an invention, and uncovering valuable insights for further research [9].
- 2. Promoting Innovation:** By enabling access to a vast repository of patented technologies and technical information, patent databases encourage inventors to build upon existing knowledge and develop novel solutions. This promotes a culture of innovation and collaboration within the research and development community.
- 3. Policy and Decision Making:** Policymakers and governmental organizations can utilize patent information systems to gain valuable insights into technological trends, emerging industries, and the distribution of innovation across different sectors. This information aids in formulating effective policies and strategies to support technology growth and economic development.
- 4. Challenges of Big Data:** The ever-growing volume of patent data poses challenges in terms of data management, analysis, and accessibility. Ensuring the accuracy, comprehensiveness, and up-to-datedness of patent databases remains an ongoing concern.
- 5. Intellectual Property Protection:** Patent databases play a crucial role in safeguarding intellectual property rights, providing inventors with a public record of their innovations and ensuring that their exclusive rights are respected [10].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, patent databases and patent information systems serve as vital pillars in the world of intellectual property, supporting inventors, researchers, policymakers, and industries alike. These systems empower innovation by fostering a conducive environment for knowledge sharing and technology transfer. However, addressing the challenges posed by the ever-expanding volume of patent data and enhancing data quality and accessibility are crucial for the continued effectiveness of these systems. As technology evolves and the global innovation landscape continues to advance, the development and improvement of patent databases and patent information systems remain essential priorities. Collaborative efforts between governments,

patent offices, researchers, and technology providers are necessary to ensure that these systems continue to serve as powerful tools for knowledge discovery, innovation, and progress across various industries and sectors.

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CHAPTER 20

Preparation of Patent Documents: Guidelines for Effective and Comprehensive Patent Drafting

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper provides a comprehensive guide to the preparation of patent documents, with a focus on patent drafting techniques and best practices. The study explores the critical elements of a well-structured patent application, including the description of the invention, claims, and technical drawings. By examining the importance of clarity, specificity, and adherence to legal requirements, this paper aims to equip inventors, patent attorneys, and stakeholders with the knowledge and skills necessary to create robust and enforceable patent documents. Effective patent drafting is essential for securing intellectual property rights, promoting innovation, and facilitating technology transfer.

KEYWORDS:

Application, Date, Engineers, Patent, Section.

INTRODUCTION

Inventions are created in laboratory notebooks. Engineers, scientists, and inventors utilize laboratory notebooks, sometimes known as journals, inventor's notebooks, or log books, to document their research processes, experimental findings, ideas, and observations. Although it is not a legal record, it may be useful in determining dates of conception and reduction to practice if it is arranged and kept appropriately. An inter-party procedure to resolve the priority concerns of many patent applications is referred to as an interference proceeding, sometimes known as a priority fight. The information may help a patent application or patent infringement lawsuit succeed. Any person who produces and markets goods or services that violate the patent's stated claims is subject to legal action by the patent's owner. Governments often issue patents based on either the first to file or the first to invent. In order to determine who invented a given idea first, it is crucial to retain and update documents.

A patent is awarded under U.S. law to the person who thought of the invention first, not to the person who submitted the patent application first. A laboratory journal is thus crucial proof of the conception date. A laboratory notebook is a methodical approach to keep track of all the facts about an invention so that it may be utilized as a crucial piece of evidence in a lawsuit or contestation of a patent. The inventor's notebook, when maintained correctly, is a useful tool since it offers a timeline of an invention's development and use. A witness must both sign and date each entry. A research partner or other party with a competing interest shouldn't be the witness. The witness would be brought to the stand to attest that the signature is theirs and that

they signed that page on that date if an inventor ever needed to go to court to establish that he or she was the first to innovate[1].

When the disclosed invention is still in the conceptual stage and a delay in submitting a complete and precise description of the invention is anticipated, a provisional specification is often submitted to establish priority of the invention. A patent application with a provisional specification is a crucial document to prove the earliest ownership of an invention, even if it does not provide the petitioners any formal patent rights. No changes may be made to the tentative specification since it is a permanent, independent scientific and legal document. On the basis of a provisional specification, no patent is issued. In order to acquire a patent for the claimed invention, it must be accompanied by a comprehensive specification[2]. The embodiment of an invention's idea is referred to as the reduction to practice under US patent law. When determining the order of innovations in an interference case, the date of this embodiment is crucial. After the preliminary specification has been filed, the full specification must be submitted within 12 months. This time frame is extendable by three months. Before the full specification, it is not essential to submit an application with a tentative specification. An application with a detailed specification may be submitted straight away.

Comprehensive Description

1. To apply for a patent, a comprehensive specification must be submitted. A thorough specification would include the following information:
2. The invention's name.
3. The invention's relevant field.
4. The invention's history, including any previous art that outlines the shortcomings of existing theories and methods.
5. A thorough explanation of the innovation and the findings of any experiments.
6. Illustrations and other materials necessary for comprehending the innovation.
7. Claims, which are assertions about the invention for which legal ownership is sought. As a result, the assertions must be properly written.

DISCUSSION

Application for a Patent and its Contents

The agreement between the inventor and the government agency that leads to the grant of a patent is documented in a patent application. Therefore, a patent application resembles a contract in many aspects.

A well-written patent application is crucial because it clearly outlines the conditions under which the patent owner and others will be held to. Writing a scientific article and creating a patent application are distinct tasks in this regard.

Although it normally does not reach the level of a blueprint for producing an invention covered by a patent, the patent document will have certain parallels with a scientific or technical paper with its technical subject matter. Over time, the granted patent will be examined by public figures like courts, patent examiners, and commercial partners. Therefore, it is vital to consider

these key audiences while writing the patent application. The Background, Summary, Detailed Description and Drawings, Claims, and Abstract are usually included in a patent application. Reading a patent application involves:

1. The Background part lays the groundwork for the next sections.
2. The assertions are reflected in the Summary section.
3. The claims are made possible by the Detailed Description and Drawings because they provide the invention substantial technical disclosure.
4. The extent of exclusive protection is specified by the Claims.
5. The Abstract typically gets very little substantive assessment and serves largely as a tool for patent searchers.

The preparation of a patent application must be done in complete and strict accordance with the applicable jurisdiction's patent legislation. The Patents Act of 1970 and the Patent Rules of 1972, as revised from time to time, govern the filing of applications in India for information on the substance of patent applications, see Study Lesson 2 on Patents.

Patent Document Writing

A patent document need not follow a certain format. Having the application prepared by a professional is worthwhile. By authoring the disclosure and claims and creating any relevant paperwork, the patent specialist helps the applicant. The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) has a publication named WIPO Patent Drafting Manual, which is relevant to highlight. The preparation and submission of patent applications have been thoroughly covered in Part III of the aforementioned Manual. For the benefit of the pupils, we have replicated the same in short below.

Patent Application Preparation

When a patent agent is asked to draft a patent application, the first thing they want to know is when the application has to be submitted. Every country's patent law has specific guidelines on when to submit an application in light of different occurrences. The first date of attempted commercial exploitation, the first export date, and the first date of public exposure are a few examples of these occasions. The patent agent must be aware of:

1. Where would my client want to have his idea protected?
2. Has anything already occurred that would make it more difficult for the client to protect the innovation in the targeted nations?
3. How soon does the client expect to take action that might impair his capacity to secure the invention's protection in the targeted nations?

The patent agent should try to finish the patent application as soon as possible, as would be anticipated of any professional, even if there are no time restraints in his path. At any point, a third party might submit an application based on the client's idea, making the patent agent the main factor in why his client didn't get a patent. Additionally, if the application had been submitted sooner, previous art that could not have been utilized against the client's application would now be accessible for example, a published paper. However, the patent agent should be

aware that most of the time, the dates that determine his workload are largely beyond of his control, and that he regularly has to rearrange his calendar to make room for unforeseen time bar discoveries. After submitting the application, you should create a file for the provisional patent application that contains copies of all the paperwork you provided to the patent office, including any forms and checks you used to pay the application fee.

The original mail deposit receipt from the post office, which bears the date of deposit, is also included in the file. As a result, if the patent office fails to provide your patent application the correct date of receipt, you have everything you need to give the patent office the correct filing date, which is essential for maintaining your client's ability to get patent protection. That one day late is too late must be remembered. Patent agents must work to safeguard the interests of their clients, and sometimes this only entails making sure that important deadlines are followed. The patent agent in the example above may have returned to his office and spent the next two weeks creating a beautiful legal document for an invention that could no longer be patented if he had failed to inquire about potential bar dates or if he had not pressured the engineer for exact details[3]. Finally, if the applicant intends to file in a foreign jurisdiction, the patent agent must attempt to ascertain this early. After the national filing date in nations that are signatories to the Paris Convention, applicants have one year to submit their patent application overseas.

The Paris Convention's one-year time limit is likewise applied to the submission of a PCT application. The priority application's filing date should be docketed, and the patent agent should contact the applicant well in advance of the anniversary date. Even though an applicant previously expressed no interest in filing internationally, he may alter his mind after a year. Aside from that, keep in mind that the patent agent is not need to wait a complete year before submitting. Before submitting the priority application, the patent agent should ascertain if the applicant is interested in securing protection in a nation that is not a party to the Paris Convention. The patent agent must be aware of the country's unique priority regulations if the applicant has an interest in a non-Paris Convention nation. For applications from outside, non-Paris Convention nations may have highly specific regulations. In certain instances, the only way to guarantee patentability is for the patent agent to simultaneously co-file the application in the inventor's home country and the non-Paris Convention nation[4].

It's unlikely that a patent agent will be permitted to speak on behalf of his client in front of foreign patent offices. The client will be represented by foreign associate lawyers overseas. There are several ways to communicate with associate lawyers from other countries. The foreign partner under the hands-off approach writes formal communication and offers information on local laws, but does not actively participate in the case. All key choices are made by the patent agent who submitted the first priority application.

The overseas associate develops potential answers to office actions in the hands-on paradigm and submits them to the patent agent for approval. For various foreign partner lawyers, the patent agent may use various models, such as hands on in certain nations and hands off in others. Article 2.1 of the TRIPS Agreement mandates that signatories who have not ratified the Paris Convention uphold certain clauses of that agreement, including the one-year window for

claiming precedence. As previously said, the patent agent must confirm the actual practice and formal specifications followed in nations of interest to his client.

Getting Inventors to Disclosure Their Inventions

Clients of a patent agent are likely to range in expertise with regard to their knowledge of how to handle patent paperwork. Some customers could have administrative departments that are very advanced and capable of delivering finished invention disclosure packages to patent agents, who will then carry out a follow-up evaluation as required. On the other end of the spectrum are customers that have no IP infrastructure and need a lot of direction and help from the patent agent. Over time, the patent agent will discover which strategy yields the finest outcomes for certain clientele. For certain customers, the patent agent may wish to provide an inventor a blank Invention Disclosure Form so they can fill it out on their own. For some customers, the patent agent may need or desire to speak with the inventor in person to get all the information he needs regarding the invention. In any case, the patent agent should make an effort to speak with the inventors at least once, either in person or over the phone.

Without some type of live interaction with the inventor, it is very improbable that an inventor will be able to provide the patent agent with enough information for the agent to have a clear grasp of the invention. Additionally, without a visit with the patent agent, it is doubtful that the inventor would comprehend the legal/background information requested regarding his invention[5]. An Invention Disclosure Form and any accompanying documentation should be sent by the inventor to the patent agent well in advance of their in-person meeting. The patent agent will go through the disclosure materials and make a note of any areas where he has concerns or feels that further information would be beneficial. During the meeting with the inventor, the patent agent confirms that he fully understands the invention, determines whether he should also receive any additional disclosure information or that he does receive the additional disclosure information, ascertains the invention's most commercially significant features, and either confirms or verifies the exact bar dates.

Patentable Inventions Identification

The patent agent must remain focused on any and all specified patentable innovations when reading an invention disclosure and/or chatting with an inventor. It is likely that a significant portion of the content of an invention disclosure and talks with the inventor will not be about a strictly patentable innovation but will instead contain additional non-patentable technical features. The patent agent should not be surprised to find that quite frequently inventors do not know what they have invented, at least in patentability terms, as they frequently think in other terms such as discoveries. Thus, the patent agent will often be the one who articulates what constitutes a patentable invention.

Recognizing the Innovation

The patent agent should never take credit for the innovation. Instead, they should work to understand the idea as well as possible so that they may file for a patent with the widest possible claims. This implies that the patent agent must have a thorough understanding of the invention to

develop claims that accurately describe it with the fewest restrictions. To put it another way, the patent agent must be familiar enough with the invention to recognize which details may be left out of the invention's broadest claim. Understanding the invention also means that the patent agent is familiar enough with it to create a specification for a patent application that discloses all potentially patentable aspects of the invention as well as sufficient supporting details to enable a layperson who is technically proficient to make the invention. Understanding the invention also entails that the patent agent will be able to explain the distinctions between the invention and the prior art and/or amend the pending claims to emphasize these distinctions in a way that minimizes the reduction in the scope of claim coverage upon receipt of a prior art description, such as one that served as the basis for a claim rejection by a patent office[6].

It's possible that the patent agent will find that the inventor doesn't have all the answers. The creator may be able to make assumptions about potential substitutes and, in certain cases, could even have the time to do some more study. But a functional embodiment of the invention must be disclosed in the specification, according to the patent agent. The patent agent must thus use his best professional judgment to determine how to proceed if the inventor is unsure about the response to any of his queries. The patent agent may be able to fill in any gaps in the technical disclosure, but he should always have the inventor's approval to make sure the replacement information is accurate and in keeping with the spirit of the invention. The patent agent may help the inventor brainstorm potential alternative inventive implementations. Many times, inventors design their ideas with a single use in mind and do not truly explore how well they may work in different contexts.

Typical Patent Application Elements

A patent agent may start drafting the patent application after he has a thorough understanding of the idea. Typically, the application's components are:

1. Claims.
2. Thorough explanation.
3. Drawings.
4. Background.
5. Abstract.
6. Summary.

Early on, a patent agent will want to think about the title of the patent application. The innovation should be extensively described in this title. However, titles are seldom checked. On rare occasions, a patent examiner will rule that the invention's title is not sufficiently descriptive. Although the title of the invention should appropriately convey its subject matter, it is advisable to avoid being excessively specific. The names of the inventors should be included in the patent application as submitted. Following the title, such as on the cover page, the inventors' names should be included. All priority information, such as the listing of similar applications, should be included in the patent application itself. Priority information, for instance, should be included in the application's opening phrase in the US. The inventor's name and priority information may be provided on other forms that the patent agent must fill out, but it is more definite when this

information is part of the application itself. Always keep in mind who will be reading the patent application. Judges and patent examiners are among the target audiences. The inventor and the client of the patent agency are, of course, both the audiences. The patent agent must ensure that the inventor is aware of his own patent application. Competitors, pirates, and investors are among more possible audiences. Before making an investment, many investors will often thoroughly review the patent portfolio of a technological business[7].

Claims

Making the claims for the innovation is one of the first things to accomplish. In the disclosure conference with the inventor, the patent agent could even wish to draw up the claims. This will often provide the patent agent proof that he has a clear understanding of the innovation. Since inventors often lack familiarity with the language of patent claims, the patent agent may want to employ some kind of picture claim during the first consultation. In the disclosure conference with the inventor, the patent agent should refrain from describing the invention in a manner that is too abstract. As their initial step in creating a patent application, the majority of patent agents generate many patent claims. Every aspect of a patent application, including the claims, is what is legally binding. The patent agent will be aware of which phrases need to be defined in the specification if the claims are drafted before writing the specification.

The patent agent should carefully review the claims after creating the specification due to their crucial relevance. This is because the patent agent will probably have a better grasp of the invention after preparing the specification. He will now be better able to identify arbitrary constraints in the claims that would impede gaining the fullest possible claim coverage, for instance. Similar to this, the patent agent may suddenly realize that the claims do not adequately explain the invention after writing the specification[8]. The patent agent must examine the drawings and specification once the claims are finished to ensure that the terms of the claims have been adequately disclosed and specified.

Description or specification in detail

The detailed description section, also referred to as the preferred embodiment of the invention section or the disclosed embodiment of the invention, gives the invention's claims substance and gives enough information about it so that a person of ordinary skill in the relevant field could make and understand it. It is sufficient to remark that detailed description and specification are typically the same for the purposes of patent drafting. In certain countries, the word specification is also used to refer to the description in addition to the summary and background portions of the application.

The portion of the full description has to be closely related to the illustrations. Once the application has been submitted, this part cannot be substantively changed. Because he won't have a second opportunity to change this area of the application, the patent agent must ensure that the detailed description section offers a sufficient level of technical disclosure on the day the application is submitted. During prosecution, the patent agent cannot change his application to add fresh technical information[9]. Consequently, a patent agent must ensure that the patent application

1. Include the inventions' disclosure materials.
2. Gives enough details for a typical craftsman to replicate the invention. And
3. Offers enough detail so that the claims may be made more specific throughout the patent application process to avoid near previous art.

The patent agent must use his best judgment to strike a compromise between his worries about the specification section's inclusivity and the application's inclusion of an excessive amount of unclaimed subject matter. Unclaimed subject matter in a patent application is often seen as having been dedicated to the public by the inventor in many patent regimes. Public domain information cannot be protected by a patent. Similar to this, if an unclaimed invention is disclosed in the patent application, the patent agent can want to draft claims for it. Any previously unclaimed invention's claims may, if required, be included by the patent agent in either a divisional application or a continuation application, depending on the situation. Any divisional or continuation applications must have the client's approval before being filed, the patent agent will wish to confirm. Generally speaking, the patent agent should advise the client on any important issues involving the client's active patent application.

For the reasons outlined above, the patent agent will often wish to err on the side of inclusion when creating the comprehensive description section. The best mode criterion that emerges in countries like the US and India should also be taken into account by the patent agency. The best way to use the invention that the inventors are aware of must be disclosed in the patent application. This will guarantee that patent claims are given the widest meaning possible. The patent agent should refrain from using terms like the invention is and instead use phrases like in an embodiment of the invention. Without restricting language to the contrary, it is typically assumed that the thorough description section discloses an embodiment rather than the actual invention. The scope of the claimed invention may, however, be similarly constrained if the patent agent forbids this more expansive interpretation.

Well-known components that would be required to create a product linked to the invention but are not required to be included by the patent agent in the patent application. A patent application does not have to be a detailed blueprint, and at least one court has declared that items that are well-known in the field should ideally be omitted from a patent. For instance, a patent specification submitted in the US must meet the three criteria of enablement, written description, and best mode.

The enablement and written description criteria are equivalent to or extremely comparable to those found in the majority of patent laws across the globe. According to the Enablement criterion, a patent application must explain how to create and utilize the invention to regular people who are knowledgeable in the field. Enablement is often regarded as of the date the patent application was filed. A patent application cannot be activated by subsequent technological advancements if it is not enabled as of the application's filing date.

The wording used by the patent agent in a patent application must be quite precise. Not just during patent prosecution but particularly if/when the invention is challenged, the language choices made by the patent agent will be critical.

The patent agent should exercise extra caution when using any kind of absolute in his language. Therefore, the patent agent will want to ensure that any phrases like must and always used in a patent application are used to very specifically and properly describe the circumstance at hand. The legislation and pertinent regulations of the nation where he is requesting patent protection for his client must always be investigated and reviewed by the patent agent. Online resources on patent laws and regulations abound. For instance, the WIPO website offers details on the Patent Cooperation Treaty and helpful advice on submitting PCT applications. the EPO website offers details on submitting and prosecuting applicants. and the website of the US Patent and Trademark Office offers details on US patent laws and submitting applications in the US.

Drawings

A good visual description of the invention must be prepared by the patent agency. In fact, many patent attorneys would contend that, after the claims, the drawings are the most crucial component of the patent application. Some patent laws demand that a sketch be submitted for each claimed ingredient. Insofar as is practical, the drawings should describe the invention in such detail that reading the comprehensive description part just serves to corroborate in writing what the drawings have already shown. Not all innovations will make this feasible.

The patent agent should consider the narrative he wants to convey and the format in which he wants to present it while designing the drawings. The degree of information required to produce an enabling disclosure is something else the patent agent should consider.

The reader may expect to find the reference number clock 102 in the accompanying text of the detailed description section for each element depicted in the patent drawings, which are normally accompanied by a brief description in words and a reference number such as clock 102.

The reference numbers should be numbered consistently by the patent agency. Between the part on the summary of the invention and the section on the full description, the patent application itself should include a list of the drawings. A statement stating that the drawings are illustrative of one or more embodiments of the invention and not illustrative of THE invention should appear at the start of the drawing section.

Background

The usage of background parts differs amongst patent systems throughout the globe. The background section is used in various patent systems to make the public aware of the closest previous art used to evaluate the patent application. In the majority of European systems, things are like this.

In certain nations, like the US, both the prior art that the patent applicant supplied and the prior art that the examiner uncovered are printed on the patents cover. Usually, the background information is regarded as previous art that the innovator provided. Therefore, the patent examiner may mention this part in the rejection of the applicant's claims if the applicant's own creative disclosure ends up in the background section.

One of the reasons why patent agents should carefully craft background sections is because certain patent offices have a strict policy about innovative disclosures. Good background material should be brief and used just to introduce the comprehensive description section's extensive presentation of technical information.

The background section might include a very high-level summary of the previous art. A brief, succinct remark describing the drawbacks of the prior art may be used to complete the background section, but it must be stated in a way that does not reveal the solution that will be discussed later in the application.

The innovation should be described in as few words as possible in the patent abstract. The first sentence of the section on the summary of the invention may be used by the patent agent as the abstract.

As was already said, not all legal systems need a summary of the invention part. Even when they are not absolutely needed by national law, these parts are nonetheless typically written in many countries.

When working on his client's foreign counterpart patent applications, the patent agent may find himself studying summary sections written by foreign patent attorneys. Therefore, the patent agent should be familiar with the specific guidelines and accepted practices surrounding a summary of the invention sections in the jurisdictions that his customers are interested in.

Some patent attorneys transform each of the independent claims in the patent application into paragraphs before preparing the summary of the invention section. Another benefit of this approach is that the specification will always include the exact phrases used in the claims. Many patent agents only use phrases from the application's claims to summarize the invention's key features in the summary of the invention section.

One of the final sections of the patent application that the patent agent should draft is the summary of the invention section. Avoid giving a big picture explanation in the summary of the invention parts that in any way goes beyond the claims.

The preparation of patent documents is a crucial step in obtaining and protecting intellectual property rights, and this study has highlighted several key conclusions regarding effective patent drafting:

Clarity and Specificity: Clear and specific language is vital in patent documents. Ambiguous or overly broad language can lead to challenges during examination or enforcement and may fail to provide adequate protection for the invention. Precise and well-defined terms in both the description and claims are essential to define the scope of the invention accurately.

Fulfilling Legal Requirements: Patent applicants must ensure their documents meet all legal requirements set by the patent office in the relevant jurisdiction. This includes providing a detailed description of the invention, enabling someone skilled in the field to reproduce the invention, and defining the invention's novelty and non-obviousness.

Importance of Patent Claims: The claims section is the heart of a patent document, as it defines the legal boundaries of the protected invention. Crafting claims that are broad enough to cover potential variations and infringements while avoiding prior art is a delicate balance that requires expertise and strategic thinking.

Technical Drawings: High-quality technical drawings can significantly enhance the understanding of the invention and support the claims made in the application. Detailed and accurate drawings can also help examiners assess the patent's validity and enable competitors to understand the scope of the protected invention.

Patent Drafting Expertise: Patent drafting is a specialized skill that requires a deep understanding of patent law, technical expertise in the relevant field, and the ability to present complex ideas concisely and clearly. Engaging a qualified patent attorney or agent can greatly improve the quality and effectiveness of patent documents[10].

CONCLUSION

The preparation of patent documents is a critical aspect of the intellectual property process that demands meticulous attention to detail, legal compliance, and technical accuracy. Well-drafted patent applications can secure valuable intellectual property rights, promote innovation, and provide a competitive advantage in the market.

As the world continues to witness rapid technological advancements, effective patent drafting becomes even more vital in protecting and promoting innovation. By adhering to best practices, staying abreast of evolving patent laws, and seeking professional guidance when needed, inventors and stakeholders can optimize their chances of obtaining strong and enforceable patents that contribute to technological progress and economic growth.

The development and protection of intellectual property rights are essential for a thriving innovation ecosystem, and competent patent drafting is a key driver in this pursuit.

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CHAPTER 21

Patent Infringement: Understanding the Impact, Legal Challenges and Remedies

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ABSTRACT:

The comprehensive examination of patent infringement, a crucial issue in intellectual property law, is provided in this chapter. It examines the complexities of patent infringement, taking into account its legal repercussions, many forms, and the challenges faced by patent owners while enforcing their rights. The research reveals the varied nature of patent infringement and the remedies available to protect the exclusive rights of innovators and pioneers via in-depth examination of significant case studies and legal precedents. This essay highlights the importance of patent infringement within the context of intellectual property in only 100 words while illuminating the complex world of patent infringement.

KEYWORDS:

Application, Date, Intellectual Property, Patent, Section.

INTRODUCTION

The term patent infringement refers to the violation of the patent holder's exclusive rights. As was previously said, a patent is a government-granted exclusive right that an inventor has over his creation for a certain amount of time. In other words, anybody who utilizes the patent holder's exclusive rights without the patent owner's consent is guilty of patent infringement. The Patents Act of 1970 contains regulations on patent infringement in Sections 104 to 114. The Patents legislation does not define what would constitute infringement of a patented product or procedure, in contrast to the Design law. However, when done without the patent holder's permission, the following actions constitute infringement:

1. Creating, using, marketing, and importing the patented product.
2. Applying the patented method, or applying, putting up for sale, selling, or importing the product generated directly via that method

The most blatant and frequent kind of patent infringement is direct infringement. In general, direct patent infringement happens when a product that is commercially advertised, sold, or utilized without authorization from the owner of the patented product or innovation that it is substantially similar to. There may have been some dishonesty or unintentional patent infringement in the occurrence, as shown by indirect patent infringement. For instance, if A has a patent for a device and B produces a device that is very similar to A's product, then A owns the patent. In order to assist the production of B's gadget, C provides B with a good. If the equipment

thus produced by B violates A's patent, then person C violates A's patent inadvertently. Furthermore, contributory infringement may result from the sale or supply of such a thing with knowledge. In the aforementioned case, contributory infringement is considered to have occurred if person C knowingly supplied the goods to person B. However, the law lists a certain instance when violation is not permitted. Any patented product or procedure may be utilized for the following experimental and research purposes:

1. Experiment.
2. Research.
3. Teaching the students.

A patented invention may also be made, built, used, sold, or imported solely for purposes that are reasonably related to the creation and submission of information required by any law currently in effect in India or in a nation other than India that governs the manufacture, construction, use, sale, or import of any product. All of these actions cannot be contested as violating the patentee's rights provided, they fall within the boundaries established above. Under certain circumstances, the government may import patented goods or goods produced using patented processes for internal use. The government may also employ a patented method just for internal purposes. Additionally, the government may import any patented medication or drug for distribution in any dispensary, hospital, or other medical facility it maintains, as well as in any other dispensary, hospital, or medical facility it notifies[1].

Jurisdiction: Section 104 of the Patents Act of 1970 contains the legal requirements relating to jurisdiction. Before discussing jurisdiction, it should be noted that patent administrative cases and patent infringement cases are both heard by Indian courts. The Indian Patent Office is the defendant in administrative patent litigation. Patent award disputes, patent invalidation and upholding disputes, and instances involving forced licensing are examples of this sort of litigation. In situations of suspected patent infringement, the patentee or patent assignee seeks monetary damages from the accused infringer for their allegedly intentional behaviour. These situations include patent infringement, conflicts over patent ownership, disagreements over patent rights or application rights, disagreements over patent licenses, disagreements over contractual assignments of patent rights, and disagreements over patent revocation. According to Section 104 of the Patents Act, a patent infringement lawsuit cannot be filed in an Indian court lower than the District Court. Additionally, the case will be sent to the High Court for adjudication if the defendant files a counterclaim against the cancellation of the patent. Additionally, the lawsuit and counterclaim must be referred to the Supreme Court for determination in the case that the defendant files a counterclaim of a patent. The requirements of the Code of Civil Procedure must be followed while determining the jurisdiction, just as with any other civil lawsuit.

DISCUSSION

If it seems to the court that it would be unfair to force a party to divulge any industrial or commercial secrets while determining whether or not he has met the burden placed upon him under Section 104(A), the court must not order that party to do so.

Doctrines of Equivalence and Colorable Variation

Literal infringement and infringement using the theory of equivalents are the two main types of patent infringement. The phrase literal infringement refers to situations in which the purportedly infringing method or device corresponds exactly to each and every aspect included in the claim. However, even if there isn't a literal violation, the concept of equivalents may nonetheless hold that a claim has been violated if another component of the accused device or method carries out the claimed function in a similar manner to produce a similar outcome. The doctrine of equivalents is a legal principle found in the majority of patent systems around the world that enables a court to hold a party accountable for patent infringement even when the infringing product or method does not precisely correspond to the claimed invention but is nonetheless an equivalent invention. However, this expansion of claim coverage made possible by the theory of equivalents is not limitless. The patent owner's breadth of protection is instead constrained by the prosecution history estoppel theory and the previous art. A patent infringement analysis evaluates whether a claim really reads on a device or method employed by the alleged infringer or if it is covered by the concept of equivalents. The analysis's stages are:

1. Determine the claims' literal language's range.
2. To evaluate if there is literal infringement, compare the claims, as they should be understood, with the allegedly infringing product or procedure.
3. Use the theory of equivalents to interpret the claims' scope if there is no actual violation.

The theory of equivalents is an equitable principle that, in practice, broadens the claims' purview beyond their literal wording to include the whole range of the inventor's artistic contribution. The range of counterparts to which the patent owner is entitled has restrictions, however.

Doctrine of Colorable Variation: A colorable variation, also known as an immaterial change amounting to infringement, occurs when a violator modifies a technique or product slightly yet steals the core components of the patentee's idea. In *Lectophone Corporation v. The Rola Company*, 282 U.S. 168 (1930), a patent holder was in possession of patents for phonograph sound reproduction equipment. The size and dimensions of the innovation were the key components of the patent, according to the patent application. The manufacturer (defendant) was accused of infringing the patents using a radio loud speaker, according to the patent holder. A centre paper cone was included in the manufacturer's device as well, but it was smaller than the one in the patented device, which was a colorable change. The court determined that the manufacturer's device did not infringe on the patent holder's claims because colorable modifications would prevent it from achieving the goal outlined in the patent claims[2].

Statement of Non-Infringement

After a patent has been granted and published, anybody may file a lawsuit under Section 105 of the Act seeking a determination of non-infringement. For this, the plaintiff must demonstrate that the patentee or his exclusive licensee was requested in writing to acknowledge that the process he used or the product he produced did not violate the patent, and (b) the patentee or the licensee either refused to do so or failed to do so. The plaintiff does not necessarily need to foresee legal action for infringement. Without the patentee's consent, patented goods from the licensee of the

patentee may be imported into any nation. Parallel import is done to prevent the misuse of patent rights and to regulate the cost of patented goods.

Relief in Infringement Cases

As previously mentioned, the Patents Act, 1970 protects the exclusive rights of a patent holder, and in the case that these rights are violated, the patentee may bring a lawsuit in the relevant court. A patent must first be issued before an infringement lawsuit can be filed. The reliefs that may be granted in such a lawsuit are listed in Section 108 of the Patents Act and include:

1. A prohibition.
2. Damages or a profit account.

The reliefs provided under Section 108 of the Patents Act are clearly comprehensive rather than complete.

Injunction

An injunction is a particular court order that prohibits the commission of a wrong that is threatened or the continuation of a wrong course of conduct that has already been started. In certain circumstances when it is referred to as a mandatory injunction, an injunction also orders the active restoration of the prior condition of affairs[3]. There are two sorts of injunction: temporary and permanent. A permanent injunction prevents a party from doing the designated act for all time and may only be issued on the basis of merits at the completion of the trial after hearing from both parties. Sections 38 through 42 of the Specific Relief Act of 1963 regulate it. On the other hand, a temporary or interim injunction may be given up until the case is resolved and prevents a party from temporarily doing the stated act. It is governed by Order 39 of the Code of Civil Procedure and may be granted at any point throughout the litigation. Injunctions may be obligatory, which means they force, demand, or order certain people to do something, or preventive, prohibitive, or restricted, which means they stop someone from doing something. When a patent is violated, the plaintiff may ask the court for an interim order in the form of a temporary injunction by demonstrating the presence of the following facts:

1. A prima facie infringement case
2. The balance of convenience is on his or her side.
3. If the injunction is denied, the person would suffer irreparable harm.

In *Hindustan Lever Limited v. Godrej Soaps Limited*, AIR 1996 Cal 367, the court ruled that in order to prevail in a patent infringement lawsuit, the plaintiff must establish a prima facie allegation of infringement. There is no issue of job loss or a drop in income where the claimed infringement is not innovative and the patent has not yet been used, and the damages, if any, might be temporarily estimated. The balance of convenience did not necessarily support an interlocutory injunction, it could not be claimed[4].

Courts should consider all relevant elements in patent infringement cases, as suggested in the *American Cyanamid* case. The criteria relevant to a defendant opposing the patent is whether it is a real one, as opposed to a vexatious defence. Courts should exercise care and not always assume

that patents are legitimate, particularly if the defendant disputes it. The court will only rule that the defendant has an argument in the former situation. The court held that in order to balance the two opposing public interests—namely, the public interest in awarding an injunction to the patentee and the public interest in ensuring that individuals have access to a life-saving medication—the scales must tip in favor of the latter. The court also said that Indian patients cannot afford expensive imported versions of drugs like Treva. Roche filed an appeal after being upset by the sole judge's judgment. In dismissing the appeal, the Division Bench found that Roche had not made a strong enough argument to support its position, given that the validity of the disputed patent had been seriously questioned. Additionally, it was determined that Roche did not provide all of the relevant information[5].

Damages and Profit Accounts

If the court rules in favor of the plaintiff and grants damages, the defendant may then be ordered to account for their gains. The two treatments are not contemporaneous in nature but rather alternate. The provision of this remedy has certain specific restrictions. In the following situations, the court shall not award damages or an accounting of profits:

1. When the defendant establishes that, at the time of the infringement, he was not aware of the patent's existence and had no reasons to believe that it did.
2. Unless the court is convinced that the original specification was made in good faith and with reasonable skill and knowledge, infringement claims relating to specifications made before the date of publication are subject to action.
3. When an amendment of a specification had been permitted after the specification's publication.
4. This right to receive provisional damages requires that a patent holder demonstrate:
 - a. After the patent application was published, the infringement took place.
 - b. The claimed claims are nearly comparable to elements of the method or item that violates the patent. and
 - c. The infringer really knew of the patent application's publication.

Based on the case of *Biswanath Prasad Radhey Shyam v. Hindustan Metal Industries*, the Supreme Court of India established the following rules to assess if a patent has been violated. AIR SC 1978.

1. Read the claims first, then the description.
2. Research the state of the previous art.
3. How does it differ from the state of the art?
4. Describe the improvement's main aspects.
5. Compare the aforementioned general traits to the method or tool used by the defendant. and
6. There is an infringement if the defendant's method or tool is either the same as the plaintiff's method or tool or falls inside its purview.

Order of Anton Pillar

Additionally, the court has the authority to order a search of the defendant's property. The court may order the seizure, forfeiture, or destruction of the infringing products, materials, and tools that were used to make the infringing items without paying any restitution.

Unfounded Infringement Proceedings Threats

There may be instances when someone raises irrational threats of patent infringement. The victim of such threats may file a lawsuit to get the following reliefs:

1. A statement stating that the threats are unjustified.
2. A prohibition on further use of such threats. and
3. Any losses he may have suffered as a result, if any.

Exclusive Licensee's Right to Bring Legal Action Against Infringement

A legal person who has been awarded a license or authority to utilize a patent to the exclusion of all others, including the patentee, is known as an exclusive licensee. According to the Act, the exclusive licensee has the same legal right as the patentee to file a lawsuit in response to any patent infringement. The court shall take into account any loss suffered or likely to be suffered by the exclusive licensee or, the profits earned by means of the infringement, to the extent that it constitutes an infringement of the exclusive licensee's rights as such, when awarding damages or an account of profits or granting any other relief in any such suit. If a patentee does not join as a plaintiff in a lawsuit alleging that an exclusive licensee has violated a patent, he is added as a defendant. but a patentee thus added shall not be responsible for any expenses until he gives an appearance and participates in the proceedings.

Defences

In any lawsuit alleging patent infringement, any defence argument that a patent may be cancelled under Section 64 is admissible. The fact that a product was made, used, imported, or distributed in accordance with one or more of the conditions listed in Section 47 shall be a defence in any lawsuit alleging that the product violated a patent by being a machine, apparatus, or other article, by using a process, or by being imported, used, or distributed as a medicine or drug. 107 Section Every justification for revoking a patent under Section 64 was accessible as a justification for defence. The defendant had the right to defend his action on any grounds for which the patent may be revoked under Section 64 of the Act, even if he had decided not to file a notice of objection under Section 25 of the Act or a request for revocation under Section 64 of the Act[6].

Appellate Board for Intellectual Property

The Central Government established the Intellectual Property Appellate Board (IPAB) on September 15, 2003 in accordance with the 2002 amendments to the Patents Act, 1970, to hear and decide appeals against the Registrar's decisions under the Trade Marks Act, 1999, and the Geographical Indications of Goods (Registration and Protection) Act, 1999. Only High Courts in India have the authority to address both patent infringement and invalidity at once. Since April 2, 2007, the IPAB has been able to hear and decide appeals from the majority of the judgments,

orders, or instructions given by the Controller of Patents. Also, through notification, the IPAB took over on April 2, 2007, all ongoing appeals from the Indian High Courts under the Patents Act. The IPAB is based in Chennai and maintains offices there as well as in Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, and Ahmedabad.

The IPAB must receive any appeals from the Controller's decisions within three months of the date of the decision, order, or direction, as applicable, or within any additional time the IPAB may provide, together with the specified fees. In cases covered by Section 117A of the Patents Act of 1970, the IPAB has the right to appeal the Controller's or the Central Government of India's decision. The IPAB (Procedure) Rules, 2003 make an exception for orders made by the Central Government of India regarding inventions related to defence purposes, including directions of secrecy in respect of such inventions, revocation if the patent is contrary to or prejudicial to the public interest, or pertains to atomic energy. It is also not possible to challenge a Controller order extending the deadline under a Patent Act 1970 clause[7].

Transfer of Pending Proceedings to IPAB: The IPAB is the only body with the competence to act and decide on cases resulting from an appeal against a Controller order or decision. All matters pending before the Indian High Courts involving patent revocation, other than a counterclaim in a lawsuit for infringement, and correction of the register must be sent to the IPAB. The Indian High Courts continue to have jurisdiction to make a decision in cases where there is a counterclaim in an infringement lawsuit. Additionally, the IPAB has exclusive authority over issues including patent revocation and register correction. The IPAB may decide whether to start again with the appeals or from the point when the proceedings were transferred to it, at its exclusive discretion. Patent infringement is a significant concern in the world of intellectual property, and this study has yielded several key conclusions regarding its impact and resolution:

Legal Definition and Elements: Patent infringement occurs when an unauthorized party makes, uses, sells, or imports a patented invention without the permission of the patent holder. It is essential to establish that all elements of patent infringement, such as the validity and scope of the patent, have been satisfied to pursue a successful infringement claim.

Impact on Innovation and Industries: Patent infringement can stifle innovation and discourage inventors from investing in research and development. Moreover, it can have far-reaching consequences for entire industries, affecting market competitiveness and hindering technological progress [8].

Legal Challenges: Patent infringement cases can be complex and time-consuming, involving technical expertise, extensive evidence, and interpretations of patent claims. The varying patent laws and court systems across different jurisdictions can add to the complexity, making it crucial for patent holders to seek legal advice from specialized attorneys.

Remedies for Patent Holders: Patent holders have several remedies at their disposal to address patent infringement, including seeking injunctions to halt the infringing activities, claiming damages for lost profits or royalties, and negotiating licensing agreements with the infringing party [9].

Defenses Against Infringement Claims: Accused parties can assert several defenses to challenge patent infringement claims, such as invalidity of the patent, non-infringement, or claiming that the infringement was unintentional.

Importance of Patent Enforcement: Timely and effective enforcement of patent rights is essential to protect the investments of inventors and foster a climate of innovation. Patent holders must actively monitor their patents and take prompt action against infringement to safeguard their intellectual property[10].

CONCLUSION

Patent infringement poses significant challenges to inventors, industries, and the overall innovation ecosystem. As technology continues to advance, the risks of patent infringement become even more pronounced.

The resolution of patent infringement cases requires a robust legal framework, access to specialized legal expertise, and a global effort to ensure that patent rights are respected and protected. To combat patent infringement effectively, collaboration between patent holders, legal professionals, policymakers, and industry stakeholders is essential. By upholding strong patent enforcement mechanisms and ensuring fair and efficient dispute resolution, society can foster an environment where innovation thrives, intellectual property is respected, and technological advancements lead to a better future for all.

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CHAPTER 22

Recent Developments in Patent System: Advancements, Challenges and Implications

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper examines the recent developments in the patent system and their impact on innovation, intellectual property protection, and global technology landscapes. The study explores key advancements in patent laws, processes, and international cooperation, as well as the challenges arising from rapid technological changes and evolving business practices. By analyzing the implications of these recent developments, this paper aims to provide insights into the evolving nature of the patent system and its role in shaping technological progress and economic growth. Computer technology is widely used in contemporary culture. A computer is incapable of operating without software. In today's information world, hardware and software coexist. Therefore, it should come as no surprise that protecting software's intellectual property is essential for both the software industry and other enterprises. In general, a software patent is one that defends a particular programming approach. A software patent is described by the Foundation for a Free Information Infrastructure (FFII) as a patent on any performance of a computer realized by means of a computer program. At both the national and international levels, there has been much discussion on how to safeguard computer software's intellectual property.

KEYWORDS:

Application, Computer, Date, Patent, Section, Technology.

INTRODUCTION

The issue of whether or to what degree software patents should be issued is the subject of heated discussion. Software patents raise a number of important questions, such as: Should software patents be permitted, and if so, where should the line between patentable and non-patentable software be drawn? Is the inventive step and non-obviousness requirement applied too liberally to software? Do software patents discourage innovation rather than promote it? Although there is no official definition of a software patent, most nations have various restrictions on the patenting of inventions using software. For instance, abstract ideas are not covered by U.S. patent law, and this has been used to deny several software patent applications. A program for a computer is not patentable if it does not have the potential to cause a further technical effect beyond the inherent technical interactions between hardware and software in Europe because computer programs as such are not subject to patentability there. Although the Computer Implemented Inventions Directive was defeated by the European Parliament in July 2005, the EU member states' attitudes on software patenting have largely remained unchanged. Many nations' patent policies support

the protection of new software inventions. These nations include, among others, the United States, Australia, and Singapore. The regulations governing the patent protection of software invention are stricter in several other nations, including Europe and India[1].

The rapid growth of the Internet and e-commerce has resulted in a significant number of patent applications and grants for business processes incorporated into software. nevertheless, whether business methods constitute statutory subject matter is a distinct issue from whether software is. Software may be patented in the European Union (EU) as long as it has a technological impact. Although the Computer Implemented Inventions Directive was defeated by the European Parliament in July 2005, the EU member states' attitudes on software patenting have largely remained unchanged. In the same way that programs for computers are barred from patentability to the extent that a patent application refers to a computer program as such, British patent law is regarded to have the same effect as the European Patent Convention. According to current UK case law, a (said) innovation will only be considered to be one if it makes a contribution that is both technical and not precluded. So, although a computer program that implements a business process is not an innovation, one that implements an industrial process may be.

A joint resolution against the growing trend of patent offices to grant patents on software programs was approved by the German Parliament in April 2013. In Australia, business processes that are pure or abstract are not considered patentable, however if the technique is carried out utilizing a computer, the exclusion for business methods is overcome. According to a 2010 Patents law in New Zealand, computer programs will not be eligible for patent protection. however, when the law is approved, regulations allowing embedded software will be established. Section 25 of the Patents Act in South Africa prohibits a program for a Computer from being recognized as a patentable invention. Software is regarded as patentable in South Korea, where several computer program-related patents have been granted[2].

As long as they do not fall within non-patentable subject matter, the Indian Patent Act grants patent protection to items or processes (provided they fulfill specific standards of patentability). under example, a mathematical or business method or a computer program per se or algorithms is of special relevance to software innovation and is not included among the subject matter that is not patentable under Sections 3 and 4 of the Indian Patent Act. The protection of computer software is not specifically addressed under the Indian Patent Law. On the other hand, computer software is covered by copyright as it relates to artistic and literary works. The law and practice pertaining to literary works will apply to computer programs since a computer program is seen as a literary production.

'Computer programs per se' are the only things that the Indian Patent Act currently forbids from being patented. It is debatable whether computer programs connected to specific hardware may be patented. Through the Patents Amendment Ordinance of 2004, an effort was made to significantly broaden the scope of software patenting to include all computer programs with industrial applications and those utilized in conjunction with hardware. However, there was a lot of criticism both within and outside of Parliament, and this was eventually removed from the 2005 Patents (Amendment) Act. Even yet, the fact that an idea was implemented using software does not automatically render it unpatentable in India. Similar to the EU nations, India too places

a greater emphasis on the patent engineer's drafting abilities when it comes to obtaining software patent protection. It will be eligible for patent protection if the claims are written in a manner that indicate that the invention is not software in and of itself.

DISCUSSION

Biotechnology Patentable Inventions

Intense R&D operations have been driven by the fascinating advancements in the biotechnology field, notably in India. Biotechnology is widely seen as the next big thing in the knowledge-based economy after information technology. A number of significant advancements in the pharmaceutical, agrochemical, energy, and environmental industries have been driven by biotechnology. The promise of biotechnology for the pharmaceutical business has been particularly emphasized by advancements in the fields of molecular biology, biotechnology, and molecular medicine[3]. According to conventional definitions, a microorganism is an organism that is microscopic, or too tiny to be seen with the unaided eye and can only be seen using a microscope, often a standard light microscope. Bacteria, fungi, viruses, protists, and other prokaryotes are examples of micro-organisms, as are certain tiny plants and animal. Microorganisms were categorically products of nature before to 1980, and as such, were not thought to be patentable. The US Supreme Court permitted the patenting of the bacteria that causes crude oil to leak in Anand Chakrabarty's case in 1980, and this topic has since attracted considerable interest on a global scale. Since microbes play a significant role in biodiversity, questions about a microorganism's origin, patentability, and ownership have acquired significance. Based on the following standards, the US Supreme Court determined that genetically modified microorganisms were indeed patentable:

1. They were produced by humans.
2. They were regarded comparable to any other creation since they were the result of human manipulation.
3. They had a specific industrial use having usefulness is one need for patent eligibility.

The Supreme Court also mentioned that patenting living things has been done before. Asexually reproducing plants have been given patent protection since 1930. In addition, the Plant Variety preservation Act of 1970 permitted the preservation of a few sexually reproducing species. The US biotechnology sector grew rapidly as a consequence of the Supreme Court's ruling, and several US patents have been issued on higher life forms created by humans, including transgenic mice, fish, and other organisms. As a result, all living things, including bacteria, plants, and animals, are now eligible for US patents. In many ways, Europe and the American Patent Office have the same views on the patenting of man-made life. Members of the TRIPS Agreement must patent microorganisms. Diagnostic, therapeutic, and surgical procedures for the treatment of people or animals are one kind of subject matter that may be excluded from patentability under Article 27.3 of the WTO Agreement[4].

Plants and animals other than microorganisms, and primarily biological processes for producing plants or animals other than non-biological and microbiological processes. Although the TRIPS agreement requires patent protection for microorganisms, it does not define microorganisms. as a

result, member countries lack a common definition to adhere to. With effect from January 2005, India revised the Patents Act, 1970 to conform to the Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) Agreement of the World Trade Organization (WTO). In relation to the patenting of microorganisms and microbiological processes, the Indian Patent Act currently has a particular clause. A microbiological procedure, as well as the goods resulting from such processes, may now be patented[5].

India does not permit the patenting of microorganisms that already exist in nature, as such organisms are considered to be discoveries under the terms of Section 3(d) of the Patents Act, 1970, and are therefore not patentable. This is the most significant difference between the legal systems of India and developed countries. However, enhanced variants of the same microorganisms that arise from genetic engineering are patentable. Sufficient disclosure is a further condition, which is highly significant. According to the Patents Act of 1970, the innovation must be sufficiently and clearly described. However, the Act or the Rule does not provide any prerequisite or method to satisfy the adequacy of disclosure requirement in the case of innovations incorporating biological material, which are exceedingly challenging to express in words. The Patent Office has long followed the convention set forth by foreign patent offices by allowing the accession number granted by a depository institution, whether foreign or Indian, to be included in the patent specification in order to satisfy the requirement of sufficient disclosure of the invention sought to be patented[6].

It should be noted that a system for storing microorganism strains in authorized depositories was developed in the USA in 1949. The Budapest Treaty was an international agreement signed in Budapest in 1973 and subsequently revised in 1980. A member of this Treaty since December 17, 2001, is India. This is a treaty that governs the acceptance of deposits in officially recognized cultural collections for the purposes of filing for patents in any nation that is a party to it. It is crucial to deposit a strain in a culture collection facility for testing and scrutiny by others since it is difficult, if not impossible, to reproduce a microbe from a description of it in a patent specification. According to the Patents Act of 1970, it is necessary to deposit any novel biological material used in the invention with the International Depository Authority (IDA) before submitting the application in India in order to complete the description. Name, location, and the quantity of biological material deposited should all be included in the specification's description together with the International Depository Authority's name and address. If such biological material is already known, depositing the same is not necessary in such situation. The Budapest Treaty recognizes several international depositories in various nations, including MTCC, DSM, and others[7].

In general, a software patent is one that defends a particular programming approach. The United Kingdom's software patent is a classic illustration. Although there is no official definition of a software patent, most nations have various restrictions on the patenting of inventions using software. Many nations' patent policies support the protection of new software inventions. These nations include, among others, the United States, Australia, and Singapore. The regulations governing the patent protection of software invention are stricter in several other nations, including Europe and India. The US, which is regarded as the birthplace of software patents, is

where the majority of the law pertaining to them originates. The protection of computer software is not specifically addressed under the Indian Patent Law. On the other hand, computer software is covered by copyright as it relates to artistic and literary works[8].

The rapid growth of the Internet and e-commerce has resulted in a significant number of patent applications and grants for business processes incorporated into software. nevertheless, whether business methods constitute statutory subject matter is a distinct issue from whether software is. 'Computer programs per se' are the only things that the Indian Patent Act currently forbids from being patented. It is debatable whether computer programs connected to specific hardware may be patented. Biotechnology is widely seen as the next major development in the knowledge-based economy after information technology. The promise of biotechnology for the pharmaceutical sector has been emphasized by developments in molecular biology, biotechnology, and molecular medicine. Microorganisms were categorically products of nature before to 1980, and as such, were not thought to be patentable[9]. In Anand Chakrabarty's case, the US Supreme Court concluded in 1980 that genetically modified microorganisms were indeed patentable based on a set of standards established by the Court. Members of the TRIPS Agreement must patent microorganisms. There is now a particular clause in the Indian Patent Act that addresses the patenting of microbes and microbiological processes. A microbiological procedure, as well as the goods resulting from such processes, may now be patented. The patent system has witnessed significant developments in recent years, and this study has uncovered several key conclusions regarding their impact and implications:

- 1. Harmonization and Global Cooperation:** The move towards harmonizing patent laws and promoting global cooperation through initiatives like the Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) and Patent Law Treaty (PLT) has facilitated the filing and enforcement of patents across multiple jurisdictions. Such developments have streamlined the international patent application process, promoting innovation and technology transfer on a global scale.
- 2. Strengthening Patent Examination:** Many patent offices have implemented measures to enhance patent examination efficiency and quality. The adoption of advanced technologies, increased examiner training, and cooperation with external experts have led to more robust examination procedures, ensuring that granted patents meet the necessary requirements and contribute genuinely innovative solutions.
- 3. Addressing Technological Challenges:** The emergence of cutting-edge technologies such as artificial intelligence (AI), blockchain, and biotechnology has posed unique challenges to the patent system. Recent developments have focused on addressing issues related to patenting AI-generated inventions, biotechnological discoveries, and inventions involving distributed ledger technology.
- 4. Patent Subject Matter Eligibility:** The eligibility of certain subject matters, such as software and business methods, for patent protection remains a contentious issue in various jurisdictions. Recent court decisions and legislative efforts have attempted to provide clarity and establish consistent standards for patenting these types of inventions.

5. **Evolving Business Models and Patent Strategies:** The rise of open innovation, collaborative research, and licensing models has influenced patent strategies among companies and research institutions. The integration of patents into broader business strategies and the strategic use of patents to foster partnerships and market expansion have become key considerations for stakeholders.
6. **Addressing Patent Trolls:** The rise of non-practicing entities, commonly known as patent trolls, has prompted policymakers to explore measures to deter abusive patent litigation and protect innovators from frivolous lawsuits[10].

CONCLUSION

Recent developments in the patent system reflect the dynamic nature of innovation and its intersection with law and policy. Advancements in patent laws, examination procedures, and international cooperation have improved the effectiveness and accessibility of the patent system. However, challenges related to emerging technologies, subject matter eligibility, and evolving business models require continued attention and collaboration among stakeholders. Policymakers, patent offices, inventors, and businesses must work together to strike a balance between promoting innovation and safeguarding intellectual property rights. By fostering an environment that encourages creativity, rewards genuine inventions, and discourages abusive practices, the patent system can continue to play a pivotal role in driving technological progress, economic growth, and societal welfare in the years to come.

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CHAPTER 23

Trademark: The Foundation of Brand Identity and Intellectual Property Protection

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper delves into the concept of trademarks, their importance in establishing brand identity, and their role in safeguarding intellectual property rights. The study explores the legal framework of trademarks, including registration processes, enforcement mechanisms, and the global implications of trademark protection. By analyzing case studies and recent trends, this paper aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of trademarks as a valuable asset for businesses, fostering consumer trust and encouraging innovation in a competitive market. A trade mark is a visual symbol that can be a word to identify the source of the goods, a name, device, label, numerals, or colour combination to distinguish it from other similar goods or services coming from another source. It is a distinguishing mark that shows certain products or services are made or offered by a certain individual or business. Its history begins in antiquity, when artisans imprinted their marks or signatures on decorative or functional items.

KEYWORDS:

Controller, Market, Patent, Section, Trademark.

INTRODUCTION

These marks developed into the system of trade mark registration and protection that exists today through time. Because a product or service's nature and quality, as represented by its distinctive trade mark, match their demands, the system aids customers in recognizing and purchasing it. By guaranteeing the owner's exclusive right to use it or to grant another party permission to do so in exchange for payment, a trade mark offers protection to the mark's owner. A trade mark may be renewed indefinitely after the time restriction has passed by paying extra fees, albeit the duration of protection varies. The courts, who often have the power to prevent trade mark infringement, are responsible for enforcing trademark protection. In a broader sense, trademarks encourage initiative and business across the globe by providing their owners with recognition and financial gain. The use of comparable distinguishing marks by unscrupulous rivals, such as counterfeiters, to advertise inferior or unrelated goods or services is likewise hampered by trade mark protection. The system makes it feasible for anyone with initiative and talent to manufacture and sell products and services under the most ethical terms, promoting global commerce[1]. The rights given by the Act are valid throughout India. The new Act also makes it easier for registered users to register, broadens the permitted uses, and permits the registration of collective marks owned by associations, among other things. The Act gives the Registrar the authority to

register certification trademarks, which was previously reserved for the Central Government. It also makes provisions for tougher penalties for trade mark-related offences along the lines of the Copyright Act of 1957, limits the sale of counterfeit goods, and more. Civil suits can be instituted by any harmed person before a District Court, within the local jurisdiction, for the unauthorized use of a confusingly similar mark, not only in respect of the goods and services covered by registration, as was the case previously, but also in respect of goods and services which are so similar that a likelihood of deception or confusion exists

The object of trade mark law is to protect the rights of persons who manufacture and sell goods with distinct trade marks against invasion by other persons passing off their goods fraudulently and with counterfeit trademarks as those of the manufacturers. Normally, the remedy for such infringement will be by action in Civil Courts. But in view of the delay which is incidental to civil proceedings and the great injustice which might result if the rights of manufacturers are not promptly protected, the law gives them the right to take the matter before the Criminal Courts, and prosecute the offenders, so as to enable them to effectively and speedily vindicate their rights. Thus, the distinction between a trade mark and a property mark is that whereas the former denotes the manufacture or quality of the goods to which it is attached, the latter denotes the ownership in them. In other words, a trade mark concerns the goods themselves, while a property mark concerns the proprietor. A property mark attached to the movable property of a person remains even if part of such property goes out of his hands and ceases to be his.

The trade mark law in India is a 'first-to-file' system that requires no evidence of prior use of the mark. A trade mark application can be filed on a 'proposed to be used or intent-to-use' basis or based on use of the mark. The term 'use' under the Trade Marks Act, 1999 has acquired a broad meaning and does not necessarily mean the physical presence of the goods in India. Presence of the trade mark on the Internet and publication in international magazines and journals having circulation in India are also considered as use in India. One of the first landmark judgments in this regard is the Whirlpool case in which the Court held that a rights holder can maintain a passing off action against an infringer on the basis of the trans-border reputation of its trademarks and that the actual presence of the goods or the actual use of the mark in India is not mandatory. It would suffice if the rights holder has attained reputation and goodwill in respect of the mark in India through advertisements or other means[2].

DISCUSSION

The Trade Marks Act of 1999 contains key definitions.

Market Mark

The definition of trade mark under Section 2(1)(zb) has been expanded to mean a mark capable of being represented graphically and which is capable of differentiating the goods or services of one person from others. As stated above, a trade mark is a word, phrase, symbol, or design, or combination of words, phrases, symbols, or designs used in the course of trade.

1. Able to be visually portrayed.
2. Capable of differentiating between the products or services provided by different people.

Service

The new definition of service has been added for the benefit of businesses that provide services like banking, communication, education, finance, insurance, chit funds, real estates, transport, storage, material treatment, processing, supply of electrical or other energy, boarding, lodging, entertainment, amusement, construction, repair, conveying of news or information, and advertising.

Mark Collective

The new definition of collective mark has been provided for the benefit of members of an association of persons but not partnerships, and this inclusion of collective mark will benefit the traditional Indian family trademarks.

The Trademarks Registrar

The Controller-General of Patents, Designs, and Trade Marks is appointed by the Central Government under Section 3 of the Trade Marks Act, 1999, to serve as the Registrar of Trade Marks for the purposes of the Trade Marks Act, 1999. Other officers may also be appointed by the Central Government under Section 3(2) for the purpose of carrying out any other duties that the Registrar may delegate to them under his supervision and direction[3].

Single Trade Marks Register

Section 6 contains provisions relating to the upkeep of a single Register of Trade Marks at the Trade Marks Registry's Head Office, and Section 7 gives the Registrar the authority to classify goods and services in accordance with the international classification of goods and services for the purpose of trademark registration and to determine.

The filing of trade marks

Any person claiming to be the owner of a trade mark used or proposed to be used by him may apply for registration of a trade mark to the Trade Mark Registry under whose jurisdiction the applicant's principal place of business falls, in the manner prescribed for the registration of his trade mark.

In the case of a company about to be formed, anyone may apply for registration of a trade mark to the Trade Mark Registry under whose jurisdiction the applicant's principal place of business falls.

Registration Method

The Office of the Controller General of Patents, Designs and Trade Marks is the appropriate office for filing a trade mark application in India. Because the registration process in India is based on the first to file system, it is crucial that the rights holder apply for the registration of its mark as soon as possible. The registration of a trade mark in India typically takes about 2 to 3 years, subject to the trade mark not being opposed by a third party.

Search for Trademarks

Before submitting an application for registration, it is wise to check the list of already registered trademarks to make sure that registration won't be rejected due to the proposed mark's similarity to an already registered or forbidden mark. It is also wise to conduct a common law search to see if any third parties are already using the trade mark.

Company

In the event of a business established outside of India, the place of incorporation and the nature of the registration, if any, has to be indicated. A company may submit an application for the registration of a trade mark in its own corporate name. When including the name of a minor in the partnership, the name of the guardian representing the minors should also be mentioned. It has been held that if the name of any partner is omitted in TM-1 application to register a trade mark for a specification of goods or services or corresponding new application form, the omission can be corrected when supported by documentation.

Trust

The Central or State Government, or any undertaking or company owned or controlled by such Government, may also submit an application for the registration of a trade mark, just like any other person. Section 24 permits the registration of two or more persons as joint proprietors of the trade mark, where the mark is used or proposed to be used in relation to goods or services connected with a trade[4]. According to Indian trade mark law, a proprietor may only file a trade mark application if they have a place of business in India. otherwise, the rights holder must do so through a trade mark agent or attorney, who can conduct a trade mark search and prepare, file, and prosecute the applications.

Application for Trade Marks and its Enforcement

Depending on where the applicant resides or has his principal place of business, an application for registration of a trade mark may be made on Form TM-1 with the prescribed fee of '2500/- at one of the five offices of the Trade Marks Registry located at Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai, and Ahmedabad. In the case of joint applicants, the applicant's principal place of business in India will be that of the person whose name is first mentioned as ha

The Trade Marks Office will examine

If the trade mark is registered, the application number turns into the registration number after the Trade Marks Office has reviewed the application to make sure it is complete in all respects and assigned it an application number. preliminary approval and publication, show cause hearing, or rejection of the application. During the process of examination, the Trade Marks Office determines if the trade mark is barred for registration either under absolute grounds for refusal and/or relative grounds for refusal as prescribed in the Trade Marks Act, 1999. Accordingly, they issue an examination report and the Applicant must respond to the objections that have been raised in the examination report within a period of one month from the issuance of the

examination report. Thereafter and based on the response to the examination report that has been filed by the Applicant, the Registrar of Trade Marks determines if the application should be refused, accepted for advertisement, accepted subject to certain limitations or put up for a show cause hearing, during which the application might be accepted, rejected or accepted subject to certain limitations. Should the application be rejected, the Applicant can approach the Intellectual Property Appellate Board to appeal the order of the Registrar of Trade Marks. Within three months of the publication of the trade mark in the Trade Marks Journal, should the trade mark not be opposed by a third party, it will proceed for registration and the Trade Marks Registry will accordingly issue a registration certificate.

Registration Requirements

The Trade Marks Act, 1999 does not expressly list any requirements for registration. rather, Sections 9(1), (2), and (3) and Section 11 list grounds for refusal, which are also requirements for registration. The majority of the substantive law established by the Trade & Merchandise Marks Act, 1958 is still in effect and would hold the ground for administering the Trade Marks Act, 1999. Now, any mark that is a trade mark may be registered for any goods or services if it is not affected by either of the two types of grounds for refusal or other specific prohibitions. The first requirement is that it should be a trade mark within the meaning of the Trade Marks Act, 1999, which concept itself imports many conditions as has been previously mentioned in the legal concept of trade mark. There emerge many conditions from the definition of trade mark in Section 2(1)(zb). The words capable of distinguishing goods of one person from those of other in the definition of trade mark in Section 2(1) reveal the next prerequisite distinctive character. A mark shall be trade mark only if, in addition to fulfilling other conditions in the definition of trade mark, also satisfies the requirement of distinctive character.

Ability to differentiate between the goods or services

If the reference to the character or quality of the goods or services is only indirect or suggestive, the mark may be considered to possess a sufficient degree of inherent capacity to distinguish. As per the old law, in determining whether a trade mark is capable of distinguishing, the tribunal should have regard to the extent to which the mark is inherently capable.

1. The chosen mark must be able to be visually represented.
2. It should be able to tell one business' products or services apart from those of rival businesses.

It should be used or proposed to be used as a mark in relation to goods or services for the purpose of indicating or so as to indicate a connection in the course of trade between the goods or services and some person having the right to use the mark, whether with or without any indication of that person's identity, either as proprietor or by way of permitted user.

Period of Trade Mark Registration and Renewal

Section 25 of the Act permits registration of a trade mark for a period of 10 years. in accordance with generally accepted international practice. and to lessen the workload of the Trade Marks

Office, Section 25 allows renewal of registration for successive ten-year periods. Trade mark protection in India is perpetual subject to renewal of the registration after every ten years.

Unlike patents, copyright or industrial designs, trade mark rights can last indefinitely if the owner continues to use the mark. However, if a registered trade mark is not renewed, it is liable to be removed from the register. Should the rights holder of a trade mark come across a trade mark that is deceptively similar to their mark and which has been published in the Trade Marks Journal, they can oppose the impugned mark within three months of the publication of the journal. A trader acquires a right of property in a distinctive mark merely by using it upon or in connection with his goods irrespective of the length of such user and the extent of his trade. Priority in adoption and use of a trade mark is superior to priority in registration. In the event of such use by any person other than the person in whose name the trade mark is registered, he will have a statutory remedy in terms of Section 21 of the Trade & Merchandise Marks Act, 1958. Ordinarily, therefore, two people are not entitled to the same trade mark, unless there exists an express licence in that behalf.

Refusal of Registration

According to Section 21, any person who need not be a prior registered trade mark owner—may submit a Notice of Opposition to the application for registration of a trade mark, regardless of whether or not he has any commercial or personal interest in the matter. He may also be a customer, buyer, or member of the public who is likely to use the goods. The opponent's bona fides are not in question. Important prerequisites for submitting a Notice of Opposition:

1. The Notice of Opposition must be submitted in every instance whether it involves a certification mark, collective mark, or ordinary trade mark on the standard form TM-5 and include the required cost of ₹2,500.
2. It must be submitted to the proper office. see rule 8
3. Where applicable, the address for service requirements of Rule 18 must be followed.
4. The Notice of Opposition must include the information provided in Rule 48, which is as follows:

An opposition notice must include these things.

1. With regard to an application to which an opposition is made
2. The application number that opposition is being filed against.
3. A description of the products or services included in the trademark application that opposition is being filed against. And
4. The applicant's name for the trademark.
5. With regard to the earlier mark or the earlier right that forms the basis of the objection,
6. The filing date, including the priority date of the earlier mark, and, if available, the application number or registration number.
7. Information indicating whether the earlier mark is registered or unregistered and if it has a repute within the meaning of paragraph (b) of subclause (2) of section 11 of the Act if the objection is based on an earlier trade mark.

8. A depiction of the opponent's mark and, when necessary, an explanation of the opponent's mark or earlier right.
9. The opponent must list all the goods and services for which the earlier mark is protected, as well as the goods and services on which the opposition is based, if the earlier mark has been registered or applied for in relation to goods or services for which it is well-known or has a reputation within the meaning of section 11's subsection (2).

Considering the opposing party

1. His name, address, and a statement that he is the owner of the earlier mark or earlier right in cases where the objection is filed by the owner of such marks or earlier rights.
2. The name of the licensee, his address, and a statement that he has been given permission to enter the opposition where the opposition is entered by a licensee who is not a registered user.
3. A statement to that effect, the name and address of the opposing party, and a date on which the application for registration of the new proprietor was received by the appropriate office or, in the absence of this information, was sent to the appropriate office, if the opposition is entered by the successor in title to the registered proprietor of a trade mark who has not yet been registered as new proprietor. And
4. The name of the opposing party and his address for service in India in cases where the opposing party does not have a place of business in India [5].

Reasons for Opposition

The opponent is free to establish any grounds that may support his opposition against the registration of the trade mark under any of the provisions of the Trade Marks Act, 1999 and the Rules prescribed there under, as Section 21, which provides for filing Notice of Opposition, does not refer to any grounds on which the opposition may be filed. However, under Section 11(5), a trade mark may not be rejected registration on any of the reasons listed in Subsections (2) and (3) unless the owner of the earlier trade mark objects on one or more of those grounds during the opposition process [6]. In this regard, it is important to keep in mind that sections 9 and 11 of the Act provide for absolute grounds for refusal of registration and relative grounds for refusal of registration, respectively. The following is a list of potential defences against registration.

1. That the advertised trade mark is not registrable because it is not unique nor distinguishable or because it does not meet the Act's registrability standards.
2. The applicant is not entitled to obtain an exclusive right therein by registration since the said trade mark's fundamental component is a phrase that is commonly used to describe the nature or quality of the products [7].
3. That a visual representation of the trademark is not possible.
4. The trade mark lacks unique character, or the inability to differentiate the products or services of one person from those of another.
5. That the trade mark only consists of marks of indication marks that are directly describing the nature or quality of the goods or services or indicating geographical origin that may serve to designate the kind, quality, intended use, values, geographical origin or

the time of production of the goods or rendering of the services, as well as other characteristics of the goods or services.

6. That the trade mark only comprises of marks or indications that are in use today or that are legitimately and consistently used in the industry may relate to generic names or marks widely used in the industry.
7. That the trade mark is of a kind that might mislead consumers or create confusion.
8. That the trade mark includes or consists of any material that might be harmful to any class or group of Indian citizens' religious sensitivities.
9. That scandalous or obscene material is included in or included by the trademark.
10. That the applicant's mark is ineligible for court protection because use of the mark would violate the opponent's registration and might be stopped by the court.
11. That the applicants lack the necessary qualifications to register under Section 12 of the Act.
12. The information provided by the user in the registration application is false.

With trademarks serving as the cornerstone of brand identification and intellectual property protection, this research has produced a number of significant findings about their importance and effects.

Establishing Brand Identity: A well-designed and recognizable trademark can serve as a powerful marketing asset, fostering consumer trust and brand loyalty. Trademarks are essential tools for businesses to distinguish their goods or services from those of rivals, creating a distinct brand identity in the minds of consumers.

Intellectual Property Protection: By registering trademarks with the appropriate authorities, businesses can assert exclusive rights over their brand elements and pursue legal action against infringers. Trademarks provide legal protection against unauthorized use, imitation, or counterfeiting of a brand's identity, preventing consumer confusion and dilution of the brand's reputation[8]. International treaties and agreements, such as the Madrid System, facilitate the registration of trademarks in multiple countries, streamlining the process and lowering administrative burdens for businesses seeking international protection. Global Reach: The global nature of commerce has made trademark protection across multiple jurisdictions increasingly crucial. Establishing a strong online presence while protecting trademarks in the virtual sphere has become essential for maintaining brand integrity since the digital age has brought new issues for trademark protection, such as cybersquatting and domain name disputes[9].

Non-Traditional Trademarks: The expansion of trademark categories reflects the changing nature of branding and consumer engagement. Non-Traditional Trademarks, such as sounds, scents, and holograms, are becoming more recognized and legally protected in various jurisdictions. Trademark ownership increases a company's legitimacy and allure to investors, partners, and customers. Trademarks contribute greatly to brand equity, playing a crucial role in the value of enterprises and their general market appeal [10].

CONCLUSION

Trademarks serve as invaluable assets for businesses, enabling them to carve a distinct identity in the marketplace and protect their innovations and creative works. As the global economy continues to evolve, the protection and enforcement of trademarks become even more critical. Policymakers and legal authorities must continue to refine trademark laws, ensuring robust protection and enforcement mechanisms that foster innovation, promote fair competition, and safeguard consumer interests. For businesses, proactive trademark management is vital to secure and maintain a strong brand identity, online presence, and market position. By recognizing the significance of trademarks and investing in their protection, companies can maximize the value of their brands, contributing to long-term success and sustainable growth in a competitive and dynamic business landscape.

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CHAPTER 24

Copyright: Protecting Creativity in the Digital Age

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ABSTRACT:

This research paper explores the concept of copyright, its significance in safeguarding creativity, and the challenges posed by the digital age. The study delves into the legal framework of copyright law, the scope of protection it provides to creators, and the balance between promoting innovation and ensuring access to knowledge and culture. By analyzing the evolving landscape of copyright in the digital era, this paper aims to shed light on the importance of copyright protection, its impact on various stakeholders, and potential strategies to address emerging copyright challenges. The concept of copyright protection didn't really take off until the introduction of printing, which made it possible for literary works to be mechanically replicated rather than copied by hand. This resulted in the granting of privileges by rulers and monarchs, entitling recipients to exclusive reproduction and distribution rights for a certain amount of time, with penalties including fines, seizure, confiscation of copies made in violation of the privilege, and perhaps damages.

KEYWORDS:

Copyright, Cultural Diversity, Innovation, Musical Work, License, Patent.

INTRODUCTION

The well-known property right known as copyright has its origins in the common law system and is now administered by the national laws of every country. The term copyright refers to an author's exclusive right to duplicate his own work and to forbid others from doing the same. Even before the idea of copyright took root, there are well-known examples of legal action to penalize a person for stealing another's literary or artistic creation. Initially, the notion was focused on the literary and artistic industries. With recent technical breakthroughs, copyright protection has significantly increased. The protection provided by copyright laws today now includes not just artistic, musical, theatrical, and literary works but also sound recordings, movies, television shows, transmissions, cable programs, and publishing layouts. Additionally, computer programs are now covered by copyright laws[1].

Copyright guarantees a minimal level of protection for writers' rights over their works, fostering and fostering innovation. Since creativity is the foundation of development, no civilized society can disregard the need of fostering it. Creativity is a necessary component of a society's economic and social progress. The copyright protection offered to the works of writers, artists, designers, dramatists, musicians, architects, and producers of sound recordings, cinematograph films, and computer software fosters a creative environment that inspires further creation from

them and other creators. The 1984 amendment expanded the definition of literary work to include computer programs, while the 1994 amendment included a new definition of computer program. Computer programs are similarly the result of intellectual competence as any other literary work, which is the conceptual rationale for categorizing them as literary works.

The TRIPs agreement's provisions requiring that performers' rights be protected for at least fifty years from the end of the calendar year in which the performance took place were further updated to the Copyright Act of 1957 in 1999. The Amendment Act also added a new Section 40A that gives the Central Government the authority to apply the Copyright Act's protections to broadcasts and performances produced abroad, provided that those other nations do the same for broadcasts and performances produced in India. Another new Section 42A gives the Central Government the authority to impose restrictions on the rights of foreign artists and broadcasting companies. In order to improve clarity, eliminate operational challenges, and solve certain more recent problems that have arisen in the context of digital technologies and the Internet, the Act has been revised in 2012. In addition, the main goal of the Act's amendments is that, in the knowledge society in which we currently reside, it is essential to foster creativity in order to promote a culture of enterprise and innovation, so that creative people can realize their potential and keep up with the challenges of a rapidly expanding knowledge-based modern society[2].

DISCUSSION

The legislation grants the makers of cinematograph films and sound recordings, as well as authors of literary, theatrical, musical, and aesthetic works, the right to use the term copyright. In actuality, it is a collection of rights that includes, among other things, the rights to the work's adaptation, translation, and public communication.

Definition of Copyright and Rights Granted

It refers to the exclusive right to create or replicate the work, or any significant portion thereof, in any kind of physical form. According to Section 14 of the Act, copyright refers to the exclusive right to perform or authorize the performance of the following actions in relation to a work or any significant portion thereof: For any literary, theatrical, or musical composition apart from computer program:

1. Storing the work on any media using electronic methods, which includes replicating it in any tangible form.
2. Distributing copies of the work to the general public that aren't currently in use.
3. Presenting the work in public or informing the public about it.
4. Creating a sound recording or cinematograph film on the work. translating or adapting the work.

Additionally, if the work is translated or adapted, any of the aforementioned actions in respect to the work may be carried out. 'Originality' is what is necessary for copyright protection in a creative work. The manifestation of the work itself must be unique. neither the concept nor the underlying subject is what needs to be original. The Act specifies a minimal level of originality as the standard. Making copies without the author's consent is prohibited under the Copyright

Act. A copy is a work that either closely resembles the original or is a recreation of the original[3]. A musical work is any composition that just consists of music. It includes any visual representation of the composition but excludes any words or actions that are meant to be sung, spoken, or performed in conjunction with the composition. A musical piece does not need to be recorded to be protected by copyright. Regardless of the media on which the recording was made or the process used to create the sounds, a sound recording is any recording of sounds from which other sounds may be created. Sound recordings include a CD-ROM and a phonogram. The term cinematograph film refers to any visual recording on any medium created using a method from which a moving image may be created by any method and includes a sound recording accompanying such visual recording. The term cinematograph is also meant to include any work created using a method similar to cinematography, such as video films.

Copyright Associated with Software

In 1984, computer programs were included in the definition of literary work under Section 2 of the Copyright Act of 1957, and a new definition of computer program under Section 2 was introduced in 1994. This definition refers to a set of instructions expressed in words, codes, or in any other form, including a machine-readable medium, and includes computer programs, tables, compilations, and computer literary data bases. Computer programmes originated with the invention of the computer itself. However, it was only with the advent of Personal Computers (PCs) in the 1980s that software became widely available and the need for protecting software under Copyright law became an issue. In the initial stages, computer programmes were developed by the manufacturers of computers themselves. With the emergence of wide use of PCs, production of software became delinked from manufacturers of computers. Development and manufacturing of software has now become an independent activity and the number of companies engaged in this activity has also increased. It is however the output and variety which has grown manifold which has given rise to problems of enforcement of Copyright in them.

While vigorous competition among producers of software has, on the one hand brought about improvement in the quality of computer programmes and brought down the prices, the increased opportunities have also given rise to what is commonly known as software piracy" the activity of duplicating and distributing software without authority from the holder of the copyright[4]. The philosophical argument in Favor of considering computer programs as examples of literary works has been that they are similarly the result of intellectual competence as other literary works. The process of creating a computer program is akin to writing a book or other literary work, with the exception that the language utilized and its applications are significantly different. Despite the fact that a software may be built by a single programmer, the majority of the important programs are the result of collective work. Medium-sized to large-sized teams spend months or even years writing a program.

Unauthorized copies of computer programs are subject to the same legal repercussions as unauthorized copies of literary works under the Copyright law. But when widespread software piracy occurs, publishers and owners of software face difficult challenges in protecting their interests under the Copyright law because the ability to copy and duplicate computer software is easily accessible to potential pirates, and copies of software are indistinguishable from the

original. Software piracy has gotten out of control in certain nations and is now a sticking point in discussions for global trade agreements. Software piracy has presented severe difficulties for enforcement agencies both internationally and inside local jurisdictions. These issues were addressed by the Copyright (Amendment) Act of 1994, which also included globally accepted standards and practices for copyright enforcement in the context of computer programs. The relevant clauses have been considered under remedies for copyright infringement.

An audio recording of music has several right holders. For instance, the lyricist who created the words, the composer who created the music, the vocalist who performed the song, the musician who created the background music, and the individual or business that created the sound recording. A sound recording often includes a number of rights. Each and every owner of a right to a sound recording must provide permission, and this is a requirement. This would, among other things, contain the sound recording's producer, the lyrics' author, and the music's composer. In the event of a government work, the government shall be the first owner of the copyright therein, barring any agreements to the contrary. If a work is created or first published by, or under the direction or control of, a public enterprise, the public endeavours will be the original owner of the work's copyright absent a conflicting agreement. The owner of a newspaper, magazine, or similar periodical shall, absent any agreement to the contrary, be the first owner of the copyright in the work insofar as the copyright relates to the publication of any literary, dramatic, or artistic work created by the author while employed by the owner under a contract of service or apprenticeship by a newspaper, magazine, or similar periodical.

The employer must, absent any agreement to the contrary, be the first owner of the copyright therein in the event of a work created during the course of the author's employment under a contract of service or apprenticeship. A person must, absent any agreement to the contrary, be the initial owner of every picture taken, painting, portrait, engraving, or cinematograph film created for valued payment at the request of any person. Literary, theatrical, musical, and artistic works are protected by copyright for the lifetime of the author plus 60 additional years, or 60 years after his death. The word copyright is to be interpreted as referring to the author who passes away last in cases of joint authorship, which indicates cooperation between two or more writers in the development of the work. The term of protection for copyright in posthumous, anonymous, and pseudonymous works, photographs, cinematograph films, sound recordings, works of government, public enterprises, and international organizations is 60 years beginning at the start of the calendar year immediately following the year in which the work was first published.

The Copyright Board would be established under Section 11 of the Act, and the Central Government will be given the authority to choose its Chairman and up to two to fourteen members. A High Court judge who is now serving, recently retired, or someone who meets the requirements to be appointed as a judge shall serve as the board's chairman. The Copyright Board's secretary will be the Registrar of Copyright. The Copyright Board is not authorized to restrict copyright use to a specific geographic region.

Transfer of Copyright

Section 18 of the Copyright Act allows for the assignment of copyright in both current works and future works. This includes the owner of the copyright in an existing work as well as the potential owner of the copyright in a future work. In all situations, the copyright may be assigned completely, partly, generally, or subject to restrictions, and that too for the whole copyright duration or a portion of it. However, when copyright is assigned to a future work, the assignment doesn't really take effect until the work is actually created. According to Section 18(3), in the event that the assignee passes away prior to the creation of the work, the legal representative of the assignee is also considered an assignee with regard to the assignment of the copyright in future works[5]. Where the copyright vests is outlined in Sections 17 and 18 of the Copyright Act of 1957. The publisher would typically own the copyright of a work created by an author for payment to the publisher, barring any agreements to the contrary, as stated in Section 17 of the aforementioned Act. Although it is true that this Section was included to the Act of 1957, the rule of law existed long before this legislative provision. Second, the copyright may be transferred in accordance with Section 18. in this case, the purchaser would become the owner of the copyright [6].

The tangible thing that is the subject of the copyright is distinct from the copyright. Therefore, it should be obvious that the copyright is not always transferred when the material item is transferred. The assigned work, assigned rights, including their term, assigned territories, and assigned royalties should all be specified in the assignment of copyright. The assignment is still valid for five years and only inside Indian territory in the absence of a time frame and a geographical scope. Unless otherwise stated in the assignment, if the assignee does not exercise his rights within a year of the date of the assignment, the assignment in respect of such rights will be regarded to have expired after the passing of time[7]. Any copyright assignment that conflicts with the terms and circumstances of the rights that have already been granted to a copyright society in which the work's creator is a member is invalid. The right of the author of the work to demand an equal share of the royalties and consideration payable in case of utilization of the work in any form other than for the communication to the public of the work, along with the cinematograph film in a cinema hall, is unaffected by the assignment of copyright in any work to make a cinematograph film.

The right of the author to claim an equal share of the royalties and consideration due for any use of such work in whatever format is unaffected by the assignment of the copyright in any work to produce a sound recording that is not a component of any cinematograph film. According to Section 31A of the Act, anyone may apply to the Copyright Board for a licence to publish or communicate to the public such a work or a translation of it in any language if the work is unpublished, published, or communicated to the public but is withheld from the public in India, the author is dead, unknown, or cannot be traced, or the owner of the copyright in such a work cannot be found. The applicant must publish his proposal in one issue of a daily newspaper with wide distribution in the English language before submitting an application to the Copyright Board. If the application is for the publication of a translation into another language, the applicant must also submit the application in one issue of any daily newspaper in that language.

After conducting the necessary inquiry, the Copyright Board may direct the Registrar of Copyrights to grant the applicant a licence to publish the work or a translation of it in the language specified in the application, subject to the payment of the applicable royalty and subject to any additional terms and conditions that the Copyright Board may determine. The Registrar of Copyrights will then grant the applicant the licence in accordance with the direction of the Copyright Board[8].

Mandatory Licensing for the Benefit of the Disabled

In accordance with Section 31B (1), any person working for the benefit of disabled people on a for-profit basis or for business may apply to the Copyright Board in a prescribed manner for a compulsory licence to publish any work in which copyright exists for the benefit of such people. The organization ensures that the copies of the works in such accessible formats are used only by people with disabilities and takes reasonable precautions to prevent their entry into ordinary channels of business. However, the copies of the works in such accessible formats are made available to the persons with disabilities on a non-profit basis, but to recover only the cost of production. It should be noted that any organization includes any entity recognized under Chapter X of the Persons with Disabilities Equal Opportunities, Protection or Rights and full Participation Act, 1995, registered under Section 12A of the Income-tax Act of 1961 and working for the benefit of persons with disabilities, as well as any recognized educational institution, library, or archives.

Legal Permission for Cover Versions

According to Section 31C (1), anyone who wishes to create a cover version a sound recording of a literary, dramatic, or musical work in which sound recordings have already been made by, with the permission of, or under license from the owner of the right to the work may do so in accordance with the provisions of this section. However, unless the medium of the previous recording is no longer in active use in the commercial sector, subsequent sound recordings must be in the same format as the previous recording.

The person making the sound recordings must notify the owner of the rights in each work in advance of all copies he intends to make, paying royalties to them in advance at the rate set by the Copyright Board, and providing copies of all covers or labels with which the sound recordings are to be sold.

It should be noted that such sound recordings may not be sold or released in any packaging, with any cover, or with any label that is likely to confuse or deceive the public about their identity. In particular, they must not include any performer's name or depict them in any way from an earlier sound recording of the same work, or from a cinematograph film in which they were included. They must also clearly state on the cover that they are a cover version created under this rule.

The person creating the sound recordings is not allowed to change the literary or musical work in any way that has not already been done by or with permission from the owner of the rights or that is not strictly required for the production of the sound recordings. However, these sound recordings cannot be created until five calendar years have passed after the end of the year in

which the work's first sound recordings were made. You should be aware that a cover version refers to a sound recording created in compliance with this Act's Section 31C. Broadcasting of Sound Recordings and Literary and Musical Works Requires a Statutory License.

According to Section 31D, any broadcasting organization that wishes to make a previously published literary or musical work or sound recording available to the public via a broadcast or performance may do so as long as certain requirements are met.

The broadcasting organization is obligated to notify the owner of the rights to each work in advance and in the manner and at the fee set by the Copyright Board of its intention to broadcast the work, as well as the length and geographic scope of the broadcast.

The copyright Board should establish distinct rates for radio broadcasting and television broadcasting, and the broadcasting organization shall pay an advance to the owners of rights.

The rates of royalties for radio broadcasting shall be different from those for television broadcasting. The broadcasting company is required to keep such records and books of account, to provide the rights holders with reports and accounts, and to permit the rights holders or their duly authorized agents or representatives to inspect all such records and books of account in the manner specified by law.

License for Translation Production and Publication

After a period of seven years following the initial publication of the work, anybody is allowed to apply to the Copyright Board for a licence to make and publish a translation of a literary or dramatic work in any language under Section 32. However, Section 32(1A) permits anyone to apply to the Copyright Board for a licence to produce and publish a translation of a literary or dramatic work, other than an Indian work, in any language in general use in India, after a period of three years from the first publication of such work, in printed or analogous forms of reproduction. Additionally, if the translation was done into a language that is not widely spoken in any industrialized nation, the application might be submitted one year after the publication.

Revocation of the License

The Act's Section 32B addresses the termination of licenses. It states that if, at any time following the granting of a licence, the copyright holder in the work or any person authorized by him publishes a translation of the work in the same language and with substantially the same content for a price that is reasonably related to the price typically charged in India for the translation of works of the same standard on the same or similar subject, the licence so granted shall be terminated.

However, this termination won't go into effect until three months have passed after the owner of the translation rights sent notice of the publication of the translation on the person holding the license in the manner required.

Copyright Organizations

However, in accordance with his duties as a participant in the registered Copyright society, a copyright owner continues to retain the individual right to give licenses in relation to his own works. For the same class of works, the Central Government may not register more than one copyright society. If a Copyright Society's administration is injurious to the interests of the relevant right owners, the Central Government has the authority to revoke the society's registration. If it is essential to protect the interests of the rights holders and the government is required to appoint an administrator to carry out the duties of the Copyright Society, the registration may also be stopped by the government for a year.

Exclusive Performer Rights

In accordance with Section 38A, and without limiting the rights granted to writers, the performer has the sole right, subject to the Act's requirements, to do or authorize. According to Section 38B of the Act, the performer of a performance shall, independently of his right after assignment, either wholly or partially of his right, have the right to assert that he is the performer of his performance, with the exception of situations in which omission is required by the manner in which the performance is used. and to prevent or pursue damages for any distortion, mutilation, or other modification of his performance that would be detrimental to his reputation.

It should be underlined that the performer's reputation will not be damaged by the simple removal of any part of a performance for editing purposes, to fit the recording inside a time restriction, or for any other purely technical cause. Acts Not Constituting an Infringement of a Performer's or Broadcast Reproduction Right: Section 39 specifies instances in which no Performer's or Broadcast Reproduction Right will be regarded to be Infringed. These consist of:

1. The creation of any sound or video recordings for the creator's own use, or exclusively for legitimate educational or scientific objectives.
2. The use, in accordance with fair dealing, of performance or broadcast snippets in reporting on current events or for legitimate review, instruction, or study. Or
3. Any additional actions, including any appropriate changes and adaptations, that do not violate copyright in violation of Section 52.

Protection from Copyright for Foreign Works

Regardless of the author's nationality, only works that were initially published in India are covered by the Copyright Act. However, Section 40 of the Act gives the Government of India the authority to apply some or all of the Act's provisions to works that were originally published outside.

The advantages awarded to foreign works will not surpass those available to works in the home country, and they will be given on a reciprocal basis, meaning that the foreign nation must provide comparable protection to works eligible for copyright under the Act. The duration of the copyright in India for a foreign work will not be longer than that granted by the foreign nation. India's government has adopted the 1958 International Copyright Order. Any work initially

published in a nation that is a signatory to the Berne Convention or the Universal Copyright Convention must be treated in accordance with this order as if it were first published in India.

Rules for Copyright Protection

The following conditions must be met in order to grant international organizations' works copyright protection:

1. The work must have been created or published for the first time by, or under the supervision of, the International Organization.
2. At the time of creation or the first publication of the work, there should be no copyright in India.
3. If the work is published in accordance with an agreement with the author, no copyright in the work shall be reserved for the author and all copyright should belong to the organization.

The authority to restrict foreign performers' and broadcasting organizations' rights. According to Section 42A, the Central Government may, by order published in the Official Gazette, direct that the provisions of this Act that grant rights to broadcasting organizations or performers, as the case may be, shall not apply to broadcasting organizations or performers where it appears to the Central Government that a foreign country does not provide or has not undertaken to provide adequate protection to rights of broadcasting organizations or performers. Copyright stands as a critical pillar in protecting creativity, and this study has revealed several key conclusions regarding its importance and implications:

Preserving Creativity and Incentivizing Innovation: Copyright provides creators with exclusive rights over their original works, incentivizing them to produce new and valuable content. This protection fosters a thriving creative economy, encouraging artists, authors, and innovators to continue contributing to cultural enrichment and technological advancement.

The Digital Age and New Challenges: The advent of the digital era has revolutionized content creation, distribution, and consumption. While digital technologies offer unprecedented opportunities for dissemination, they also present challenges in enforcing copyright, combating piracy, and ensuring fair compensation for creators.

Balancing Access and Protection: Striking the right balance between copyright protection and public access to knowledge and culture remains a complex challenge. Copyright exceptions, fair use, and open licensing models seek to promote education, research, and creativity while respecting copyright holders' rights.

Online Piracy and Enforcement: Online piracy poses a significant threat to copyright owners, as digital content can be easily replicated and distributed without permission. Effective enforcement measures and international cooperation are vital in combating digital piracy and protecting the rights of creators.

Copyright and Cultural Diversity: Copyright plays a pivotal role in preserving and promoting cultural diversity, empowering creators from diverse backgrounds to share their stories and perspectives with global audiences [9].

Collaborative Copyright Solutions: Collaborative efforts between copyright holders, content platforms, and users can foster a more sustainable digital environment. Innovative licensing models, content identification technologies, and education on copyright compliance can contribute to better copyright protection and a fairer distribution of benefits[10].

CONCLUSION

Copyright is a foundational element in promoting creativity, fostering cultural expression, and driving innovation. The challenges brought about by the digital age necessitate continuous adaptation of copyright laws and enforcement mechanisms to address emerging issues effectively. Policymakers must navigate a complex landscape, considering the interests of creators, users, businesses, and the public.

A balanced and forward-thinking approach is essential to ensure that copyright protection continues to incentivize creativity and knowledge dissemination while facilitating access to information for the broader benefit of society. In the digital era, collaboration between stakeholders is crucial to create a copyright ecosystem that promotes fair use, compensates creators, and respects the principles of free expression and cultural diversity. By embracing technology, exploring innovative licensing models, and fostering responsible digital citizenship, society can maximize the benefits of copyright protection and harness the transformative power of creativity in the dynamic digital age.

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