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Misconceptions on *Ism Al-'Adad Wa Al-Ma'dud* Among Students of Arabic Language in Malaysia By Nurul Hudaa Hassan , Nik Mohd Rahimi Nik Yusof & Ashraf Ismail

Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstract - This paper discusses ism *al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* in the teaching and learning of grammar knowledge. The core of discussion revolves around Arabic language educators of various levels in institutions implementing the teaching of grammar knowledge for the topic *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud*. A unique and interesting topic, it is frequently mentioned in verses of the Quran and Hadith. The target audience for ism *al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* is students of all levels of education, be it in institutions of higher learning or schools. Educators and students of Arabic language in Malaysia are not native speakers of the language or *ghair al-natiq bi al-'arabiyyah*. On that basis, misconceptions and confusion regarding ism *al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* are bound to occur, especially among students and involving the issue of gender - *muannath* (feminine) and *muzakkar* (masculine). This paper attempts to uncover the concepts and operations of *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* and the common misconceptions among students.

MISCONCEPTIONS ON ISM AL-ADAD WA AL-MADUD AMONG STUDENTS OF ARABIC LANGUAGE IN MALAYSIA

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Misconceptions on *Ism Al-'Adad Wa Al-Ma'dud* Among Students of Arabic Language in Malaysia

Nurul Hudaa Hassan^a, Nik Mohd Rahimi Nik Yusof^o & Ashraf Ismail^e

Abstract - This paper discusses ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud in the teaching and learning of grammar knowledge. The core of discussion revolves around Arabic language educators of various levels in institutions implementing the teaching of grammar knowledge for the topic ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud. A unique and interesting topic, it is frequently mentioned in verses of the Quran and Hadith. The target audience for ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud is students of all levels of education, be it in institutions of higher learning or schools. Educators and students of Arabic language in Malaysia are not native speakers of the language or ghair al-nation bi al-'arabiyyah. On that basis, misconceptions and confusion regarding ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud are bound to occur, especially among students and involving the issue of gender - muannath (feminine) and muzakkar (masculine). This paper attempts to uncover the concepts and operations of ism al-'adad wa alma'dud and the common misconceptions among students.

I. INTRODUCTION

he teaching and learning of Arabic grammar knowledge is highly distinctive compared to other subjects. The obvious difference is that it involves an extensive array of grammatical methods and comprehensive skills. The comprehensiveness of skills in Arabic grammar knowledge comprises eloquent mastery of Arabic Language, profound understanding, strength of memory as well as high creativity. Arabic grammar knowledge also requires vast and deep understanding of a concept in an accurate and holistic manner. All Arabic language teachers must be responsible in maintaining competency in the implementation of the Arabic grammar knowledge teaching and learning process by taking into account the requirements and level of attainment of the students. As such, any grammar knowledge learning problems raised by students should be accepted and handled positively to preserve the beauty and fluency of the Arabic language. Arabic language is the most beautiful and noble language created by Allah Subhanahu

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Wataa'la for mankind. The Quran, which was revealed by Allah Subhanahu Wataa'la through Jibril 'Alaihi al-Salam to Prophet Muhammad Sallallahu 'Alaihi Wasallam, contains a diversity of knowledge involving all aspects of living, including grammar knowledge. It discusses the numerous methods available to be cognizant of the laws that have to be established at the end of every Arabic word, in terms of order which comprise *i'rab* and *bina'*. The scope of discussion regarding grammar knowledge is related to the phrases or words in Arabic language in order to avoid errors in and writing (Mustafa 2005). However. speech grammatical errors in speech and writing tasks are common among students who are nonnative speakers of the language. Many studies have revealed that grammatical errors are made by students of all levels in Malaysia.

II. Studies on Grammatical Errors Among Arabic Language Nonnative Speaking Students in Malaysia

According to Jassem Ali (2000), Malay students learning Arabic Language as a Foreign Language or Second Language face difficulties when learning the four essential skills (maharat al-'arba'), namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among the four skills, writing is alleged to be the most difficult and most susceptible to grammatical errors. Errors in grammar usage largely occur among students. This is based on studies involving grammar application error analyses from various aspects carried out in secondary schools and institutions of higher learning (Muhammad Bakhit 1998; Jassem Ali 2000; Hanizam 2005; Norasmazura 2005). The most frequently made grammatical errors are those referring to gender and quantity, whether pertaining to the *Frab* marks for gender and quantity, or the formation of phrases and sentences related to the similarities or differences in gender and guantity (Sohair 1990; Bakhit 1998; Jassem 2000). A study carried out by Ashinida (1998) on grammatical errors committed in religious secondary schools found that students usually make mistakes in constructing sentences, especially those involving *al-idafat* and *al-na'at*. Mohd Bakhit (1998), in his analysis on grammatical errors in examinations among Malay students in local institutions

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of higher learning found that the mistake often repeated in examinations involving essay writing is *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* besides other grammatical errors.

The grammar topic which Arabic language teachers find the hardest to impart to their students is . (معدود) and its subject (عدد) . This is because the method to determine the gender of is very dependent on the gender of معدود. Sometimes the genders are the same and sometimes they oppose each other (Noorhayati 2009). As such, Arabic grammar teachers are unable to make accurate comparisons between numeral classifiers in Malay language grammar and *al-cadad wa al-macdud* in Arabic grammar as there is no similarity between them. A teacher teaching this topic has to master and understand it well because many students find the muzakkar and muannath or otherwise known as the masculine and feminine aspects confusing and cannot be likened to numeral classifiers in Malay language (Zabiyyah 2002).

According to Baharuddin Abdullah (2003), the Arabic grammar syntax system is very complex due to changes at the end of a word involving changes to the end vowel or additions. Besides that, there are words which are positioned earlier and later in Quranic verses and reasons for the repetition of certain words. Changes which take place at the end of a word in Arabic language is known as *i'rab* or case. There are various cases, in the form of nominative (*marfuf*), accusative (*mansub*) or genitive (*majruf*). This also applies to *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* which involves various cases, depending on the position of *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* in a sentence.

There are studies stating that *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* is among the most difficult topics in Arabic grammar. Nevertheless, it is undeniably very important. Some researchers have expressed their amazement over the topic as it involves a law that contradicts the norm; feminine is coupled with masculine and vice versa (Mahmud Ramadhan 2007). In addition, there are also cases of feminine and masculine being coupled with their respective gender. As such, Arabic language teachers need to master and possess vast and profound knowledge regarding the concept and operations of *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* to ensure it is effectively conveyed to the students.

III. THE CONCEPT AND OPERATIONS OF *Ism al-'Adad Wa Al-Ma'dud*

^cAdad is something that shows quantity, such as one, two, three and so forth. *Ma^cdud*, on the other hand, is a countable item (Dayf 1986). Ahmad (2001) in "*al-Wajiz fi al-nahw wa al-sarf*" defines *al-cadad* as something that shows the quantity of a countable item. In correlation with this, Dayf (1986) states that *cadad* is any noun or adjective showing the quantity of an item or portraying a specific sequence. *cAdad* consists of two sections, namely *cadad asli*, that is *cadad* is and ^cadad tartibi such as الأول الثاني الثالث الرابع الخامس and so forth. ^cAdad is also divided into several parts, namely ^cadad idafah, ^cadad murokkab, ^cadad ^cataf ma^ctuf and ^cadad ^cuqud as follows:

i. In *mufrad* form with the position of *ma^cdud marf^cut* and *isim ^cadad* as *na^cat*. This *isim ^cadad* is for quantities 1 and 2 (*cadad al-mufrad*). For example:

في الغرفة طفل واحد وطفلة واحدة و خارج الغرفة طفلان اثنان وطفلتان اثنتان

ii. In the form of *idafah* arrangement with the position of *ma^cdud* as *mudaf ilaih* and *isim ^cadad* as its *mudaf*. This *isim ^cadad* is for quantities 3 until 10 (*^cadad al-mufrad*). For example:

قرأت ثلات قصص وأربعة كتب

iii. In the form of *mudaf* and *mudaf ilaih* arrangement with the position of *ma^cdud* as *tamyiz*. This *isim cadad* is for quantities 11 until 19 (*cadad almurakkab*).

> ركب الطائرة أحد عشر سائحًا واثنتا عشرة سائحةً اشترك في الرحلة اثنا عشر طالبًا وإحدى عشرة طالبةً في الفصل ثلاث عشرة طالبةً وأربعة عشر طالبًا

iv. In the form of *mulhaq jama^c muzakkar salim* with the position of *ma^c dud* as *tamyiz*. This *isim ^c adad* is for quantities 20 until 90 (^c adad al-^c uqud).

> جاء عشرون طالبًا وثلاثون طالبةً قرأت خمسين كتباً وسبعين مجلةً

v. In the form of *cataf* and *ma^ctuf* arrangement with the position of *ma^cdud* still as *tamyiz*. This *isim ^cadad* is for quantities 21 until 99 (*cadad al-ma^ctuf*). For example:

في الحقيبة واحد وعشرون كتابا وإحدى وعشرون مجلة على المكتب تسع وثمانون قصة وخمسة وخمسون كتابا

vi. In *idafat* arrangement with the position of *ma^cdud* as *mudaf ilaih* or possibly a combination of *mudaf* and *mudaf ilaih*. This *isim ^cadad* is for quantities 100 and above such as:

In understanding *ism al-cadad wa al-macdud*, there are several concepts which students generally find confusing, especially those involving the functions of the various types of *cadad* and *macdud* (Muhammad Fahmi 2003). Not all quantities are determined by just one regulation, but in general it can be assumed as *tasrif* noun because its *harakat* or end vowel changes according to its *'ikrab* (*cabdullah cabbas 1995*) as shown in the following Table:

مجرور	منصوب	مرفوع	العدد
 مررت أمام ولدٍ واحدٍ مررت أمام بنتٍ واحدةٍ مررت أمام ولدين اثنين مررت أمام بنتين مررت أمام بنتين 	 رأيت ولداً واحداً رأيت بنتاً واحدةً رأيت ولدين اثنين رأيت بنتين اثنتين 	 جاء ولد واحد جاءت بنت واحدة جاء ولدان اثنان جاءت بنتان اثنتان 	عدد مفر د من 1- 2
 مررت أمام أحد عشر ولدا مررت أمام إحدى عشرة بنتا مررت أمام اثني عشر ولدا مررت أمام اثنتي عشرة بنتا 	 رأيت أحد عشر ولدا رأيت إحدى عشرة بنتا رأيت اثني عشر ولدا رأيت اثنتي عشرة بنتا 	 جاء أحد عشر ولدا جاءت إحدى عشرة بنتا جاء اثنا عشر ولدا جاءت اثنتا عشرة بنتا 	عدد مرکب من 11 - 12
 مررت أمام واحد وعشرين ولدا مررت أمام واحدة وعشرين بنتا مررت أمام اثنين مررت أمام اثنين مررت أمام اثنتين مررت أمام واحد وثلاثين ولدا 		 جاء واحد و عشرون ولدا جاءت واحدة و عشرون بنتا جاء اثنان و عشرون ولدا جاءت اثنتان و عشرون ولدا بنتا جاءت احد وثلاثون ولدا جاءت واحدة وثلاثون بنتا 	عدد معطوف من 21- 22 31- 31 حتى 91 -92

Based on the examples above, the numerals for one and two should be the same as the subject in terms of gender and quantity. If the *cadad* is *muzakkar*, then the *ma^c dud* has to be *muzakkar* too. On the same note, if the *cadad* is *muannath*, then the *ma^c dud* has to be *muannath* too (Hamdi, 1998). Fuad Ni^cmah (1973), in his book *Al-Mulakhas fi Al-Qawa^cid Al-Nahwiyah* also explained that the numerals for one and two should always be the same as the subject in terms of gender and quantity, whether both numerals are in the form of single words (*mufrad*), phrases (*murakkab*) or combined phrases (*ma^ctuf*).

A vast content knowledge of the *al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* concept, combined with established paedagogical knowledge, enables an Arabic language educator to realise the Arabic language curriculum in order to successfully achieve the aims and objectives outlined. Arabic language educators who possess paedagogical content knowledge of the *al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* concept are capable of handling any misconceptions among students regarding *ism 'adad wa al-ma'dud*.

IV. ANALYSIS ON THE MISCONCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS REGARDING *Ism Al-'Adad Wa Al-Ma'dud*

Wise Arabic language educators are able to identify several forms and causes for errors made by students in ism 'adad wa al-ma'dud. A misconception that usually occurs in the learning of ism 'adad wa al ma'dud is the concept of 'adad murakkab (Mahmud Ramadhan 2007). Students are often confused when 'adad murakkab is involved in the process of constructing relevant *jumlah* or sentences. This is due to them not fully understanding or mastering the concept of 'adad murakkab. In the teaching and learning process, students will be enlightened that 'adad murakkab is 'adad 1 to 9 which is incorporated with to produce numbers in teens عشرة or عشر such as 11, 12, 13 until 19. 'Adad murakkab also consists of two parts or الجزءان which are opposing in terms of *muzakkar* and *muannath*, except for 11 and 12 whereby both parts are the same from the aspects of *muzakkar* and *muannath* as given below:

واحد + عشر = أحد عشر / واحدة + عشرة = إحدى عشرة / اثنان + عشر = اثنى عشر / اثنتان + عشرة = اثنتا عشرة / ثلاث + عشرة = ثلاث عشرة/ ثلاثة + عشر = ثلاثة عشر Until تسع + عشرة = تسع عشرة/ تسعة + عشر = تسعة عشر .

Nevertheless, misconceptions are common among students, especially in the combination of the second part (الجزء الثاني) in 'adad murakkab. For instance, students often place الجزء شرة as تلاث عشر and vice versa especially when constructing sentences. Errors involving ma'dud are also prevalent whereby the ma'dud is often wrongly combined with 'adad in terms of muzakkar and muannath such as رأيت ثلاث عشر ولدا whereas it should be المد عشرة ولدا . Sometimes students are inclined to place the ma'dud as jama' whereas if the quantity is 11 and above, then the ma'dud must be mufrad and the case should be mansub. The following is an example of ma'dud mufrad mansub present in Surah Yusuf, verse 4:

« إذ قال يوسف لأبيه يا أبت إنى رأيت أحد عشر كوكبا والشمس والقمر رأيتهم لي ساجدين »

Which means: (Remember the event) when Prophet Yusuf said to his father: "O father! I saw in my dream eleven stars as well as the sun and the moon; I saw them prostrating themselves before me".

'Adad present in the verse is أحد عشر and the ma'dud is كوكب whereby the ma'dud is mufrad and mansuf and the word كوكب is not turned into jama' to although this occurs frequently due to the confusion with 'adad mufrad, that is quantities 3 until 10.

Besides misconceptions in understanding the concept of 'adad murakkab, students also tend to make errors in 'adad mufrad involving quantities 3 until 10. The misconception is when 'adad contravenes the ma'dud from the aspects of *muzakkar* and *muannath* (Nuha 2005). If the *ma'dud* is *muzakkar* then the 'adad must be شلاثة أولاد و ثلاث muannath, for instance 3 boys and 3 girls ثلاثة بنات. The word أولاد is jama' for the word ولد which is a muzakkar singular noun and the word بنات is jama' for the word بنت which, on the other hand, is a *muannath* singular noun. Meanwhile, the 'adad is ثلاثة in which it is a muannath incorporated with a muzakkar ma'dud, that is *muzakkar* but it is incorporated with أولاد a *muannath ma'dud*, that is بنات . The error frequently committed by students is that when they wish to construct a sentence in the context of 'adad mufrad, they will first look at the 'adad to see whether it is muzakkar or muannath. What they should do when constructing sentences in the form of tahwil is to observe the ma'dud and ascertain whether the ma'dud is muzakkar or muannath. If the ma'dud is muzakkar, the 'adad should be muannath and vice versa. Only then can the *ma'dud* be turned into *jama'*.

Various misconceptions arise among students when learning *ism 'adad wa al-ma'dud*. As such, Arabic language educators who are involved in the teaching and learning process of this topic should be more creative and innovative in dispelling misconceptions among students and coming up with practical strategies to overcome them (Nuha 2005). Many researches propose diverse teaching and learning strategies which may cultivate the interest among students to learn grammar knowledge and simultaneously trigger enjoyment in learning a difficult grammar topic (Jassem 'Ali, 2000). The following are several suggestions and recommendations from Arabic language researchers which can be adopted in the teaching of *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud*:

- i. Create simple analogies using elements from the students' environment and provide many examples other than those given in modules or textbooks, preferably using ICT (Abu Latifah 2005).
- ii. Carry out appropriate demonstrations for students by utilising resources available in the classroom (Amir Fakhruddin 2000).
- iii. Excerpt verses from the Quran and Hadith which contain *ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* besides taking *i'ktibar* from the Quran and Hadith (Baseem Hawamedah 2009)
- iv. Initiate conversations between Arabic language educators and students on the topic of *al-'adad wa al-ma'dud* (Zabiyyah 2002).

V. SUMMARY

imparting Arabic language educators knowledge on ism 'adad wa al-ma'dud should possess vast content knowledge and topped with paedagogical knowledge. When combined, it is known as paedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Arabic language educators who have profound paedagogical knowledge are capable of attracting the interest of students in learning ism al-'adad wa al-ma'dud. Teaching strategies which combine various approaches, methods and techniques, together with creative analogies and adaptation of textbook content according to the environment of the students will pave the way towards the best and most effective teaching methodology.

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Responsibility of the Rail Transport Operator

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Abstract - CIM carrier regulations and enforcement actions against employees and officers and workers as they are responsible. Whether they have a contractual relationship with the carrier or without a contractual relationship, but order twenty have been implicated in the transport stream. The review will consider the regulation of rail carriers is whether or Railway Institute of Transport contracted further or alternative carriers in the Sender or receiver are in charge.

Keywords : CIM, uniform regulations, personnel, transportation, sequential, alternative carriers.

GJHSS-E Classification: FOR Code: 150702. 880102

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE RAIL TRANSPORT OPERATOR

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



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Responsibility of the Rail Transport Operator

Ebrahim Taghizadeh

Abstract - CIM carrier regulations and enforcement actions against employees and officers and workers as they are responsible. Whether they have a contractual relationship with the carrier or without a contractual relationship, but order twenty have been implicated in the transport stream. The review will consider the regulation of rail carriers is whether or Railway Institute of Transport contracted further or alternative carriers in the Sender or receiver are in charge.

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I. INTRODUCTION

ransportation is a complicated operation. Different persons are involved in these processes. Their different components, some of which are involved in loading time to evacuate the personnel carrier [1]. He is working under contract others were independent of the carrier Transportation is a complex operation in which the parties will carry another person on stage And transportation contract with the first carrier to take delivery The responsibilities of the various discussions of the issues that are always examined It carries responsibility for the actions of those under his or her discretion To what extent are the activities? In the case of an accident that is caused by the actions of these people carrier (either rail or institute of transport) is responsible for compensation and what conditions are necessary to fulfill such a responsibility?

II. CARRIER LIABILITY TOWARDS THE EMPLOYEES

Uniform rules of CIM (1999/1980) to follow the existing legal regimes in the field of transport, Carriers (either rail or rail transport company) in front of staff and workers or agents responsible for the actions and measures have been considered. This means that any loss or damage to goods or delay in delivery due to their injury Employees and agents of the carrier, the responsibility that he will understand. Article 50 regulations have been established in 1980 in this regard: (Railways and other persons responsible for acts of its agents. They are in the transportation uses [2]. However, whenever the request of the rightful agents or other persons to the bill of lading or translation or other services that in Railways is responsible as agents of interest are known to do.) According to Article 40 Uniform Regulations 1999 (the carrier against its employees and other persons performing services for transportation uses if this employee is responsible and

other persons to carry out their activities). Contained in foregoing officers or employees, the includina employees and workers from the carrier (or the Institute of Railway Transport) Have a contractual relationship that is working under a contract employee, he was in front fee And are interested in transportation operations and also work without a contractual relationship with his players and workers, but ordered him to carry his Flow are involved. Therefore, whenever an action for damages caused during the transportation of such persons shall be responsible carrier [3]. According to the above question that arises here is whether the carrier (or institution, including railroads and rail transport) against the railroad station is also responsible for the destination. Explained that the 1980 regulation the rail transportation agreement has concluded Railway station of origin at the origin of the employees and officials who have a contractual relationship with his or her command Work and it is natural that their actions will have been used as a verb is its railway and Legislation These people know her deeds. However, when damage to the destination station staff that the deal happen in another country While the parties do not communicate and does not contract with the carrier. Whether or not the carrier is still responsible? According to the 1999 Regulations may be carrying their own rail infrastructure in the case He will have a contractual relationship with the railroad or transportation company may be allowed Use of rail infrastructure has taken a country then there would be no relationship railroad him. The carrier is responsible for the actions of the staff or not?

In response to the first question, the destination station precedent against damage of goods in accordance with paragraph 1 of Article 36 and paragraph 3 of Article 55 is deemed responsible. However, the responsibility of the courts has been assessment railway not source said it seems according to paragraph 1 of Article 35, paragraph 1 and Article 36 In such cases an origin rail against the railroad will be accountable because the destination Railway from time to time to deliver the goods according to the Times letter to the sender Or receiving goods for any breach of or delay defect that caused the document His staff not to apply, but their responsibility is against the rail to compensation is established. In fact, only in cases where self-regulation in the projected railroad is exempt from responsibility. According to Article 50 of the railroad generally acts in front of those uses of their services Is responsible for railroad employees who are actually destined for their services during the operation of railway transport obviously, in such cases one uses it as his responsibility is established [4].

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The second question of precedent is that courts have deemed responsible carrier. Documentation courts in this area include: other persons carrying out their service uses is stated in Article 40 of Regulation 1999. Railway staff at origin and destination stations and stations that are located in the transit country and from time to evacuate downloads. During the transport of persons who carry out their service carrier for shipment So with regard to substance use against the persons mentioned above, the carrier will be responsible [5].

On the other hand, including those in the rail transportation operations, carriers will take advantage of their services any contractual or employment relationship with him but may not be rail infrastructure managers. To clarify responsibility is the first carrier in front of the rail infrastructure And then describes the infrastructure manager, in accordance with the provisions of Article 1, paragraph (a) uniform CUI (rail infrastructure means all rail lines and fixed installations For transport vehicles and rail transportation security is necessary). Thus, any device that constantly been installed in the floor of the railroad tracks, and warning Rail infrastructure and equipment have changed the course of the rails. The importance of maintaining and servicing. They provide the infrastructure provided by the railway is an institution under the supervision of a Director of infrastructure placed. Therefore, the infrastructure manager is one who provides railway infrastructure (paragraph B of Article 3 CUI) [6].

So in most cases the rail infrastructure manager is not a carrier employee. Therefore, carriers should not rule against the His responsible. It is the responsibility of the railway infrastructure against a director or not terms were not anticipated in 1980. The reason is clear because the rail transport railway exclusively available to the public. The rail infrastructure manager of the railway infrastructure manager of the verb in the sentence above was considered adequate to rail. But with the project using private entities and the separation of rail infrastructure, rail infrastructure manager of the issue of carrier liability carrier against defects the managers of rail equipment and was seriously considered at the time of this uniform regulations in 1996 as one of the main issues relating to the liability carrier was investigated. Most member countries had proposed that all relations between rail infrastructure managers, Carrier and the customer should be developed as a result of the rail infrastructure manager with a legal premise as part of the operation and the carrier was carrying. It does not have this benefit was seen as detrimental to their compensation The national legislation should therefore refer to the owner of the infrastructure in the last part of Article 40 of this phrase was added in 1999 that (Rail infrastructure managers that they can exploit in order to carry People who are considered part of the carrier to perform transportation services uses). So that any fault committed by the person will be responsible for carrying it out [7].

According to the above guestion that arises here is whether the observed loss (sender or receiver of goods) can refer directly to the staff or infrastructure managers? The answer must be said that the Committee's recommendations regarding the proposed regulations CIM 1980 The theme of the rules with the aim of creating a unified regulations on the handling of claims, So only direct charge carriers is considered. And thus seems that the parties refer to the losses seen currently there are no uniform rules [8]. To this expression when the losses incurred against individual pugilist is the guestion CIM regulations governing the rules of the court proceedings will be public and civic responsibility will take place. Article 55 and Article 45 of these regulations approved in 1980 is 1999. According to paragraph 1 of Article 55 of the railway in 1980 that can be damaged by the dispute are :

- 1. The amount paid under the contract against the rail transport can be a way to collect or rail to win the money he received.
- 2. In the fight against the only railroad to refund earnest money transmitter
- 3. Other litigation that arises out of contract against the rail transportation of origin or destination and railroads, the main reasons it has happened in the lawsuit.

Users can also carry CIM 1999 regulations against their will fight the plan include:

- 1. The first or last carrier
- 2. Successor carrier
- 3. A carrier or carriers that collect payments that amounted to his benefit Been collected.
- 4. Alternative carrier.

As can be seen in any of the provisions discussed in reference to employees and railroad workers, or carrying out, since the materials are limitative and rail carriers, has set the fight. Hence lost by the possibility of pleading against everyone except the person is not possible based on uniform rules? Of course this does not mean that employees and agents do not carry any responsibility. But with regard to the general rules of civil liability if they prove the guilt of the loss can be seen pleading against them and compensation shall apply in this case, however, observe the following conditions is required [9].

First, with regard to the general rules of liability, with respect to the losses seen (rightful) any contractual relationship with the persons not so they are not the responsibility of the contractor's responsibility and is subject to civil liability provisions in the sense that it is necessary Losses are incurred in proving their guilt [10]. Secondly: With regard to the CIM Uniform Rules in order to apply a single law in the field of rail transport are the Therefore, any dispute about compensation or liability of persons subject to the regulations and must comply with the conditions and limits in this Regulation is anticipated

to be done. Article 51 of Regulation 1980 has prescribed in this regard: (In all cases where uniform regulations are implemented in the areas of responsibility can not be contentious As that is to be filed against the railroad, except in certain circumstances, and partly from the regulations have been It also appealed against the agents of any other persons in accordance with Article 50 of the Railway is responsible Shall apply). Also under Article 41 of Regulation 1999 (Paragraph 1 - In all cases where the rules are uniformly applied in every case based Responsibility with regard to the conditions and limits set forth in the rules uniform can now be brought against the carrier. Section 2 -The same claims brought against employees and other persons pursuant to Article 40 of the carrier they are in charge applies) [11].

The final hearing is important to note that the carrier (or institution, including railroads and rail transport) if the damage from employees And agents are responsible for the damage I caused the person is at fault and so it is obvious They have no relationship to the entry losses and losses caused by their fault or agents have been forcibly Carrier will be responsible. Secondly, if the carrier is responsible for the actions of the people that they have been in the line of duty In other words, if and when the mission or task that has brought harm to their carrier He will be responsible. Therefore, when their actions out of duty or mission time is from when the carrier will be responsible. The railway officials and other persons responsible for the actions of those in the transport shall be used. However, the provisions of Item 1980 is predicted According to the officers and other persons involved in the shipping charge will be accessed directly in front of the losses So when the request of interested parties (sender or receiver), officers or other persons related to the bill of lading or make translations or other services that are not on the railroad known as the agents of interest and then Railway will not be held responsible for any liability for their actions (Article 50) The provisions of the 1999 amendment was to remove And thus should be said that at present any argument against such a person solely based on general rules of civil liability And according to the terms of the uniform rules is possible [12].

III. Charge Carrier Transport Successive

In some cases, transport of goods by the carrier contract (whether under contract or the Institute of Railway Transport) It is not but may do all or part of the railway will be transferred to another person. Next often acting as a carrier or carriers to replace known Or the first steps that carry Tmmy do or take part of it. In such cases where a contract carrier transporting the goods carried bv persons other than International transportation firms tend to realize that their responsibility and not the actual carrier is responsible for the losses seen. But no precedent in the courts of different types of transport and uniform regulations (1980, 1999) have not accepted it. Uniform regulations (1980, 1999), carriers such as rail or rail transportation company under contract and subsequent railroad or the rightful alternative carriers (sender or receiver) Are responsible for their responsibilities in a manner that will be discussed below [13].

1 - Carrier contract (or the Institute of Railway Transport), the person who signed the contract and the transportation bill of lading for the transportation of goods has been accepted. Such a charge carrier transport process is related to all stages of action. whether conscious it has to be done and it has to be transferred to another [14]. According to paragraph 1 of Article 35 regulations concerning the liability of the railway in 1980: (The rail transport of goods with bill of lading is not responsible for carrying it all the way to is delivery). The responsibility for such a rail pass from time to time goods are delivered and a task that has been put in absolute charge carrier does not matter carrier or other person is doing the operation as it does not matter whether to transfer the freight carrier to another or not?. Although this was not foreseen at the CIM 1980 regulations and the courts sometimes can be difficult however, this problem was resolved in the revised regulations. On the basis of article 27 of regulation 1999 (whenever the carrier, perform all or part of the transport to an alternative carrier shows whether the contract provides for he recognized it or not, the carrier is responsible for carrying general liability) [15]. So what if the contract is carried by the carrier or by other persons except the carrier will be responsible for carrying general liability and breach of contract, any dispute arising from such damage or loss of goods Or delay in transportation is to be introduced against him. This confirms the provisions of article 55 CIM 1980 and the provisions of article 45 is 1999.

According to article 55 paragraph 1 above (other judicial proceedings that arises from transport contracts may be offset against the railroad or railroad destination And railroads, the main causes of the lawsuit is filed there happened). As of contextual material comes on the rail in front of all the carriers are responsible Partnership This means that losses can be seen Against any one who wants to fight, but this responsibility is such a plan If they plan to fight against one of them appealed against shall cease to others (paragraph 4 of article 55). Provisions of paragraph 1 of Article 45 as amended in 1999 by adopting the same procedure shall be: (to be rightful to fight against the carrier contract plans). It is described as a contract carrier (either rail or rail transport company) in addition to being against the railroads or is responsible for shipping the next visitors, the acts and actions of staff and workers or their agents are also accountable. Since the liability provisions contained in this expression, CIM (1980/1999) is based on assuming responsibility

Therefore, for any reason the contract is not performed correctly, whether the fault is accessory carrier whether caused by acts and actions of his officers in addition to the contract carrier will be responsible.

Note that here it must refer to the term (alternative carriers) which is not mentioned in the regulations CIM 1980 The regulations have been entered for the first time in 1990 because the parties involved in the transport operation Identify the status of their legal responsibilities and contract carriers are of the utmost importance.

Substitute carrier, one who is accepting responsibility for the goods along with the bill of lading, the shipment to its provisions takes and thereby to participate in the contract of carriage. Such a carrier in addition to being the first carrier has a responsibility. The owner of the goods (sender or receiver) is also responsive to the entire process of transporting the goods have been delivered Partnership has a responsibility to deliver it (article 26 of Regulation 1999).

The provisions of paragraph 2 of Article 45 in particular, had decreed: (in cases of alternative transportation by carriers, a carrier must deliver the goods With the approval of the bill of lading can be recorded even if he has not received the goods and bill of lading can be used against him under paragraph 1 the litigation). Thus, according to the above provisions can be said that the first responsibility was to replace the carrier's carrier contract with this difference that his responsibility is the responsibility of carrying goods by Second: Partnership has responsibility for carrying out a successor. This means that losses can be seen from the Partnership for carriers to use against both the carrier (conventional and alternative) has appealed against the carrier or the only alternative to the litigation. Third: does not matter which carrier transporting the goods have actually succeeded, but even if he did not receive goods or bill of is lading If he agreed, his name is recorded in the bill of lading will carry the responsibility.

But an alternative carrier, who do all or part of the transportation by the carrier is left on his contract. In a carrier such that the renewed contract will be signed by the carrier first with his That may be all or part of its operations and is entrusted to him. However the 1999 regulations, a carrier such as a charge carrier has a contract. In this regard, paragraph 2 of Article 27 shall be: (All of uniform rules on the liability carrier, the carrier also about alternative transportation He performed under the supervision applies). However in case of an accident that causes are responsible. All carriers including the lost contract to replace and are responsible Partnership is required by paragraph 4 of this article (at any time and as far as alternative carriers are responsible partnership is responsible for them). It is necessary to remind us that relationships between successive carriers on the basis of proven fault this means that compensation has been based on the ultimate responsibility of the carrier (or the Institute of

Railway Transport) Damage due to his fault that the contract has been created. Thus, although the losses seen in order to facilitate compensation Liability Partnership has been established for all carriers, but ultimately the responsibility of the carriers between themselves His guilty or extradite. Thus, according to what was stated in this speech was given According to the regulations governing rail transportation of goods (CIM 1980/1999) upon presentation of proof of loss or apparent reason, it assumes responsibility for rail transport operator or institution will be rail transportation.

IV. Conclusions

As we consider the CIM uniform Rules to comply with existing legal regimes in Context transportation, including rail carrier or rail transport agency against the actions and measures have been considered responsible for the staff and workers. Officers and employees including the staff and workers who have a contractual relationship with the carrier or without a contractual relationship He will intervene in order to carry current, so when a person's actions may cause damage during transport, Carrier will be responsible. The latest reform was agreed that any fault committed by the managers of rail infrastructure is also carrving out its responsibilities. However, losses have been sued by the employee and the worker is not possible unless the CIM rules in accordance with general rules of civil liability in the case agreement does not assume responsibility for governing and losses must be seen to prove their guilt. The uniform regulations of the transport operation is carried out by the carrier contract or by another person except him, carrying the whole responsibility will carry over any dispute arising from a breach of contract damages, or loss of or delay in carrying their goods against her will be introduced.

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Civil Servants Perception of Minimum Wage Increase in Nigeria

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Abstract - The push for minimum wage increase in Nigeria is becoming more and more rampant. Consequently, this study uses qualitative and quantitative data gathered through a survey and structured interview among civil servants and public servants in Port Harcourt, Nigeria to analyze perceptions on minimum wage increase in the civil service. It considered the rationale for minimum wage increase and also if minimum wage is capable of improving the economic condition of civil servants, the advantages and disadvantages of minimum wage increase as viewed by civil servants. The findings suggest that civil servants believe minimum wage increase is a motivational tool for workers, since salary increase encourages workers to be more productive. Also the belief that minimum wage increase affects the economic condition of civil servants. The major limitation was the lack of adequate information on the exact size and characteristics of the population. The relative small sample drawn from only the Federal and State Secretariats limit the extent of generalization of result as the opinion of civil servants in Nigeria generally.

Keywords : Civil servants, Minimum wage, Nigeria Labour Congress, Nigeria.

GJHSS-E Classification: JEL Code: J54, J31, E24

CIVIL SERVANTS PERCEPTION OF MINIMUM WAGE INCREASE IN NIGERIA

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Civil Servants Perception of Minimum Wage Increase in Nigeria

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Abstract - The push for minimum wage increase in Nigeria is becoming more and more rampant. Consequently, this study uses qualitative and quantitative data gathered through a survey and structured interview among civil servants and public servants in Port Harcourt, Nigeria to analyze perceptions on minimum wage increase in the civil service. It considered the rationale for minimum wage increase and also if minimum wage is capable of improving the economic condition of civil servants, the advantages and disadvantages of minimum wage increase as viewed by civil servants. The findings suggest that civil servants believe minimum wage increase is a motivational tool for workers, since salary increase encourages workers to be more productive. Also the belief that minimum wage increase affects the economic condition of civil servants positively and economic growth is a prerequisite for minimum wage increase is a view shared by most civil servants. The major limitation was the lack of adequate information on the exact size and characteristics of the population. The relative small sample drawn from only the Federal and State Secretariats limit the extent of generalization of result as the opinion of civil servants in Nigeria generally.

Keywords : Civil servants, Minimum wage, Nigeria Labour Congress, Nigeria.

I. BACKGROUND

Presently in Nigeria, workers who have jobs are finding it more and more difficult to survive on their monthly salary. The reason for this is that the pay of the average Nigerian worker is not only one of the lowest in the world but also given the global economic crisis it is virtually impossible for them to live on it. As such in recent times, Nigerian workers are getting excited about the newly approved minimum wage of eighteen thousand naira (N18, 000) only. The reason for jubilation in the new wage increase is that many see it as a means of improving their purchasing power and thus reducing the level of poverty in the country. However, there are differences of opinion between trade union and government about the benefits and drawbacks of a minimum wage increase in Nigeria.

The Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) through strikes, protest and boycotts, considered it a necessity to agitate for the wage increase, based on several reasons one of which is the fact that the previous national minimum wage of N7,500 is far lower than the minimum cost of providing the basic needs of a worker and his/her family even under strict financial management. Also in a survey conducted by the congress it was discovered that basic needs of life such as nutrition, shelter and clothing are impossible to accomplish in an average family of six, given such an amount (N7,500) per month (NLC Campaigns and Mobilization Committee Bulletin, 2009).

II. Some Wage Theories

Different theories have emerged from time to time to explain how wages are determined. Considerations were given to the relevance of wages with respect to production n, improved standard of living, population growth, wage differentials, demand and supply for labour among others in the theories. In this study, theories such as the Subsistence Theory of Wages and the Marginal Productivity Theory of Wages as stated by Jhingan (2004).

a) The Subsistence Theory of Wages

This was one of the earliest wage theories. It was formulated by the Physiocratic School of French Economist in the 1700s (18th century) and it was later developed by some German economist who referred to it as the Iron Law of Wages. The theory regards labour as a commodity; as such, its price can be determined by the cost of production. Its cost is the minimum subsistence expenses required for the support of the labourer and his/her family in other to maintain the supply of labour in the production process.

This theory stipulates that wages have a tendency to settle only at the subsistence level or cost of production, that is the cost of production should be proportionate to the wage rate. In addition, if at any time the wage rate exceeds this level, workers will find themselves in an economically better position. This will lead to an increase in marriages, childbirths, and invariable increase in population and labour supply. This trend will continue to the point where labour supply will exceed labour demand, which will in turn lead to a reduction of the wage rate. On the other hand, if the wage rate is below the subsistent level, workers will suffer from diseases, starvation and unable to afford the necessities of life. This will in turn lead to fewer marriages, a decrease in population and ultimately a significant reduction in labour supply. This situation will continue to the point where the labour supply will be less than labour demand, which will in turn lead to an

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increase in the wage rate. As such, the subsistence theory of wages is of the view that wages must be paid at the minimum subsistence level. This is necessary to sustain an optimum supply of labour that equates the labour demand. This theory sounds very logical and realistic but in practice, it hardly happens, may be because it will take centuries to be proved right. Because of the length of time it takes to be true, hardly any generation passes trough it.

Regardless, this theory has been criticized for lacking historical accuracy since wage increase is not necessarily associated with increase in population. In addition, critics say that it is unable to explain wage differentials and is not accurately based on the Malthusian Theory of Population.

b) The Marginal Productivity Theory of Wages

This theory was propounded by John Bates Clark. It's of the opinion that wages in a competitive market tend to be equal to the marginal product of labour. The marginal productivity is an additional unit of labour that is employed which contributes to total productivity. Employers are not interested in the marginal productivity of labour alone but are concerned about the size of its contribution to total revenue. That is, an employer will take into consideration the contribution of an additional labour to revenue generation before embarking on the act of employing that additional hand. The theory states that in a mixed or capitalist economy, no worker can expect wages greater than the value of marginal productivity. For instance, if an employer hires a worker at N100 per day to produce goods that are sold for N120 he would make a profit by hiring the worker. The employer will thus continue to hire more workers until there is equality between marginal revenue product and the prevailing wage level attained. On the other hand, if the employer hires a worker at N100 per day to produce goods that are sold for N80 per day he will incur losses. As such, the employer will not pay any more wages to the worker than his marginal product. The position of the wage rate and the marginal rate of productivity can determine if an employer can increase his profit margin by increasing labour or by reducing on the employment of more labour. As such, an employer can increase his profit margin or reduce his losses at a point where the wage rate is equal to the marginal rate of productivity. This is a very critical position where the employer cannot afford any experimental deviation or he runs into crisis.

The subsistence theory of wages is of great relevance to minimum wage issues in Nigeria, since it shows the adverse effects of an increase or decrease in minimum wage either above or below the minimum subsistence level. As such minimum wages should be set in proportion to the subsistence level. Also the marginal productivity theory of wages is relevant to this paper since it indicates that the employer (government) will only consider minimum wage increase when the contribution of labour to revenue generation has been considered. It should not be made a campaign issue when proper study has not been carried out if we mean to fulfill our promise.

III. CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

In this study, terms such as wages, minimum wage, trade union, collective bargaining and so on will be extensively used. The concepts of these words are clearly stated.

a) Wage

To a non-professional, wages apply only to pay received by an unskilled labourer, while salaries implies pay received by an executive, minister or teacher. However, Jhingan (2004) stated that, wages are payments made for services rendered by labour. These services could be mental or physical and attract fees, commissions and salaries. Salary refers to a fixed amount made as payment for work done. Nevertheless, there is a distinction between wages and salaries in terms of when they are paid. While wages were regarded as weekly payments for services rendered, salaries were regarded as payments for monthly services of labour. However, economists do not make these distinctions between different services and period of payment; all are considered to receive a wage. The Oxford Economics Dictionary (2002:498) defines wages as "payment for work performed as an employee." In all, they are payments for service rendered over time.

b) Minimum Wage

From this perspective, the term minimum wage can then be described as that wage that provides for not only the basic substance of life but also for the preservation of the efficiency of the worker. It is regarded as the pay that must be paid to a worker in order to enable him/her to provide for their family's basic needs and sustain the standard cost of living. It is generally assumed the lowest possible wage needed by workers to survive and afford their basic need in terms of accommodation, utilities, food, clothing, medical care, education, entertainment and so on.

Wikipedia encyclopedia (2011), regards minimum wage as the lowest hourly, daily or monthly pay that employers may legally give to their workers. Also, it is the lowest wage rate at which workers may sell their labour to their employers for specific type of work carried out. Though minimum wage laws are in effect in different parts of the world, the effects on the economy and the general standard of living are constantly being disputed.

According to Rosen (2008), minimum wage is the rate of remuneration fixed either by a collective bargaining agreement or by governmental enactment as the lowest wage to be paid to specified categories of employees. The setting of a minimum wage does not exclude the right of employees to demand wages above the established minimum wage. Minimum wage

obtained through a means of collective bargaining can experience some serious limitations, because collective bargaining agreements cover only the workers in a specific area (plant, craft, industry, or local area). As such, they are inadequate in situations where prevailing wage rates throughout an entire nation have fallen to excessively low levels.

c) Trade Union

The expression trade union refers to an association formed to raise wages and improve the working conditions of its members in a particular country. It replaces individual bargaining by collective bargaining and makes the rates of wages uniform for the same level of workers over an entire industry in a given country. In a capitalist economy, the forces of demand and supply should determine the wage rate, but a trade union can raise wages by reducing the supply of labour. It is an alliance of workers that seeks to advance the socio-economic welfare of its members through group action, negotiation or enforcement through strikes.

Trade unions also represent their members in dialogues with their employer about all conditions of an employment contract, including wages and working conditions. These forms of dialogue are known as collective bargaining. It entails giving workers a common voice, which is often reflected in the form of higher wages, fewer hours of work, and improved insurance, compensation and pension plans than individual workers can negotiate on their own. Whenever an employer and a trade union are unable to reach an agreement through the process of collective bargaining (deadlock), the union may embark on strike, boycott or protest to drive their point home. Most times they achieve total or partial success when the employer can no longer endure losses incurred by continued lack of productivity.

In Nigeria, there are different trade unions such as Trade Union Congress (TCU), Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC), Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), and so on. Most of these unions have unofficial and official association with political parties and search for means to bring about socio-economic change through legislative and political actions. In other countries, including the United States, no formal link of this nature can be found. Borjas (2009) states that the United States has a tradition of "business unions", whereby the unions in the United States engage in political actions. These actions include lobbying for legislation that enhances the objective of the labour movement and providing financial support to political candidates who are friendly to union causes.

d) Collective Bargaining

Collective Bargaining is a term used to refer to labor relations, negotiations, and dialogue between employers and employees who are usually represented by a trade union. These debates are about terms and conditions of employment, wages, and socio-economic conditions of both the worker and the nation. The bargaining process is usually concerned with wages, working hours, improved benefits, security, and safety, among other. The representatives of management and unions, private mediators and government officials take part in the bargaining process. Collective bargaining began in Britain in the 19th century, and is now a crucial part of the trade union movement and an accepted practice in many industrial and developing nations such as Nigeria.

IV. HISTORY OF MINIMUM WAGE IN NIGERIA

Legally, minimum wages laws were first introduced as a way to control the proliferation of sweatshops in manufacturing industries. These sweatshops employed several women and young workers and paid them substandard wages. Owners (employers) of these sweatshops were thought to have unfair bargaining power over their workers, and a minimum wage was proposed as a means to make them pay "reasonably" (Rosen, 2008).

The New Zealand government enacted the first minimum wage law in 1894. In Australia, a similar wage law was enacted in 1896 with established wage boards where workers and employers were represented in equal numbers, with the aim to fix minimum wages enforceable on the employer. This pioneering law served as the model for the British Trade Boards Act of 1909. In the U.S, Massachusetts enacted the earliest minimum wage law in 1912, and eight other states followed suit the next year. Whereas the laws passed in Australia and Britain applied to all workers, the U.S. laws were applicable only to women and minors.

According to Folawewo (2007), in Nigeria, the concern about minimum wage negotiation and increment dates back to 1934 with the civil service reform program and wage commission (Hunt's Commission 1934). Between 1934 and 2005 there have been 12 of such commissions set up to broadly evaluate the salary structure of the Nigerian civil servant and worker, through the Civil Service Reform Commissions (CSRCs). The commissions that were set up include, the Harragin Commission of 1945, Pillipson-Adebo Commission of 1948, Gorsuch Commission of 1954, Mbanefo Commission of 1959, Morgan Commission of Eldwood Commission of 1966. 1963. Adebo Commission of 1971, Udoii Commission of 1972, Dotun Phillips Panel of 1985, Ayida Review Panel of 1994 and the Ernest Shonekan Committee of 2005.

For example, the Udoji's Commission of 1972; suggested a comprehensive salary assessment for civil servants in the form of a basic minimum wage, and a framework for regular review of wages and salaries. Unfortunately, the implementation of the Udoji's recommendation led to an increase in general price level (inflation), which eventually destroyed the increase in nominal wages and ultimately reduced the purchasing power of workers. As such, rather than solving the problem within the civil service, the implementation of the CSRC recommendations created a new wave of agitation for salary increase.

In addition, to the setting up of commissions to investigate the salary structure as stated above, the Nigerian government also embarked on the use of Government Decree or Act of Legislation, which was done particularly during military administrations. Between 1973 and 2003 there were seven of such acts namely; Wage Board and Industrial Council Act 1974 (Cap.466) (No. 1 of 1973; L.N. 55 of 1974); National Minimum Wage Act 1981 (No. 6 of 1981); National Minimum Wage Decree No. 43 1988; National Salaries Incomes and Wages Commission Decree 1993 (No. 99 of 1993); National Salaries, Incomes and Wages Commission (Amendment) Decree (No. 17 of 1999); National Minimum Wage (Amendment) Act, 2000 (No. 1); and the National Minimum Wage (Amendment) Act, 2003.

The Minimum Wage Act of 2000 ensured an increase of the basic salary to N5, 500 for Federal workers, while their State and Local Government counterparts paid their workers less (N4, 500). This Wage Act significantly ensured that wages were reviewed every two years. It also provided for a 25 percent increase in wages for government workers from 1 May 2002, unfortunately this agreement was never implemented. In 2001, the minimum wage was reviewed upward to N7, 500 for workers in the federal ministries and N6, 500 for workers in the State ministries. In year 2002, there was a nation-wide strike embarked upon by the NLC, calling for a 25 percent salary increase for Nigerian workers. At the end in 2003, the government implemented an increase of between 4 to 12.5 percent.

Further protest from trade unions across Nigeria because of the non-implementation of the 2001 agreement led to the formation of the Shonekan Committee in 2005. This committee suggested an increase of 25 percent in the salaries of workers, but the government faulted in the implementation of this agreement and only an increase of 15 percent was actually implemented. More recently in 2010, after much agitation by NLC, minimum wage was pecked at N18, 000. As at August 2010, most State Governors have declared their inability to meet this demand.

V. JUSTIFICATION FOR MINIMUM WAGE INCREASE

Nigeria is home to a quarter of Africa's poorest. It is estimated that about 100 million Nigerians live on less than £1 (N250) per day, as such many working Nigerians are not capable of meeting their basic needs because their salaries and wages are barely enough for them to transport themselves to work. The living index in most urban sectors in the country is estimated to have risen over 14 percent and 21 percent rise in the cost of food in the country, meaning that many Nigerians are finding it difficult to afford their daily meal. This shows the necessity for minimum wage increase in Nigeria (Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) Campaigns and Mobilization Committee Bulletin, 11 May 2009).

There continues to be a widening gap between the rich and the poor, between the elite and the ordinary man, between politicians and the citizenry in Nigeria. While the salaries of workers grew by 15 percent in 2006, the salaries of politicians increased by an estimated 800 percent in 2007. The Nigerian Labour Congress Campaign and Mobilization Committee in its monthly bulletin 2009 stated that the salary of the average Nigerian Politician is approximately N1, 400,000 per month. Comparing this to the basic salary for the lowest paid civil servant N7, 500, it is obvious that there is a huge discrepancy in wages amongst workers. Hence there is a need to transform the wage structure to make it more equitable in order to reduce the income inequality in the system especially as everyone buys from the same market.

Given the abundant natural resources (oil and gas) in Nigeria, the country should be paying one of the highest minimum wages in the continent. Unfortunately, the reality is that, the minimum wage rate in Nigeria is one of the lowest in Africa. Compared to other developing countries in Africa Nigeria has one of the lowest minimum wage rates (\$550), while other countries such as Angola (\$1,511), Botswana (\$3,011), Kenya (\$948), Lesotho (\$1,080), Mozambique (\$1,177), South Africa (\$2,780) and so on. These countries have minimum wage rates far above what is obtainable in Nigeria. In the presence of this huge gap between other African countries, it is necessary that the current wage rate be reviewed as quickly as possible (Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) Campaigns and Mobilization Committee Bulletin, 11 May 2009).

a) Benefits of Minimum Wage Increase

There are several reasons why minimum wage increase in Nigeria is important and these include; increased national income, improved industry and industrial peace, removal of exploitation, profit squeeze, price rise and equitable distribution of income.

When minimum wages are increased in any country, they tend to positively contribute to an increase in the country's national income. This is achieved through the acceleration principle, in the sense that, an increase in the minimum wage of workers leads to an increase in their consumption pattern and tax. This further leads to an expansion of the consumer, industry and the capital goods industries, employers and producers will labour to invent more efficient and productive means of producing more commodities. As such, they will adopt better techniques of production and release inefficient employees; these will in turn motivate employment, output, and national income.

The resulting implication of the above industrial measures will be in the form of industrial peace. This is because minimum wage increase prevents strikes, protest and boycotts from taking place in the economic climate of a country. In addition, it ensures that there is relative economic stability and peace in the polity for progress and development to take place. Whenever there is minimum wage increase it means that workers are no longer being exploited and the activities of trade unions is reduced.

Increased minimum wage tends to eliminate the exploitation of workers by their employers. Jhingan (2004) states that, if the workers do not have a strong trade union there will be an increase in the level of unemployment, through the recruitment of new workers and the sacking of existing workers.

Another essential benefit of minimum wage increase is equitable distribution of income. In developing countries like Nigeria, an increase in minimum wage brings about a significant reduction in wage differentials and the amount of money looted or laundered. This leads to equity in terms of income distribution and less corrupt practices. However, despite these benefits highlighted above, some disadvantages make it virtually impossible for minimum wage benefits to be realized and appreciated in Nigeria.

b) Drawbacks to Minimum Wage Increase

Unfortunately, there are adverse effects of minimum wage increase in the Nigerian economy. These drawbacks can make it difficult for the benefits of minimum wage fixation to be appreciated by those it was meant for. The various disadvantages of minimum wage increase can be considered in terms of effecting four broad categories of unemployment, inflation, industry and economy.

Minimum fixation wage can lead to unemployment in the Nigerian society. This is reflected in terms of firing employees whose services are regarded as being dispensable by their employers to reduce the number of workers they will be legally required to pay. In Nigeria, some workers in both the private and public sectors are not valued and their employers deem their services unessential. Such services include clerks, supervisors and so on. In addition, since employers are forced to pay the minimum wage they will result to installing labour saving machines such as machines in factories instead of manual labour, the use of computers and so on. In more recent times in Nigeria, private companies' use of computers instead of manual labour in carrying out some activities in the work place act as a cost reducing technique.

In addition to the foregoing, some employers who cannot pay the new minimum wage and cannot afford to reduce the number of employees or to close down in a short run; will result to shifting the cost burden to their customers through an increase in prices. It is important to note that this increase in prices ultimately leads to inflation. According to Black (2002), inflation has a general and persistent tendency for prices and money wages to increase; as such money loses its value making it impossible for the increase in minimum wage to be enjoyed.

Increase in minimum wage adversely affects industry, in that industries, which cannot afford to pay the new minimum wage, may close down rather than to violate the new law of paying the minimum wage. This is so because, when cost rises, profits shrink, output declines and the competitive strength of industry falls in the face of world competition. This will adversely affect employment and industrial exports, particularly for export industries and national income will drop.

A fall in national income indicates that the economy is suffering and all other negative effects of minimum wage increase as stated above in the form of rise in unemployment, increase in prices (inflation), decline in profits and output are all indications of a weak economy. As such increase in minimum wage can also have its down side and in Nigeria this should be of great concern to the government, trade unions and the general public.

VI. Purpose of the Study

Reasons for minimum wage increase are acceptable and appropriate. Nevertheless, there are also disagreements as to whether the minimum wage increase is an effective means of reducing poverty in the country. The Federal, State and Local Governments have constantly objected to an increase or seen it as a tool for alleviating poverty. The basic reason for their objection is based on their inability to pay and the belief that it will lead to price increase (inflation). unemployment, exploitation of workers, among other reasons. The Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) on its part has refuted these explanations made by the government and are instead insisting that politicians are refusing the wage increase basically because they know it'll reduce the amount of the "national cake" being looted by them. These disputes regarding minimum wage have become a regular occurrence and they seem to have no end in sight.

Recently, State Governors stated that the Federal government should lift subsidy on petroleum as a prerequisite for them to pay the new minimum wage. Chairman of the Governor's Forum and Rivers State Governor, Chibuike Amaechi, stated that his state "government is looking for funds to pay salaries" and that "even if they remove fuel subsidy, the money from that cannot sustain the salary" based on the new minimum wage being requested for by the NLC (Tell Magazine 2011:22).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of minimum wage increase on the lives of civil servants, and the Nigerian economy as a whole. These

data on effects of various minimum wages on the lives of those who benefited from them has been collected through interview schedule and copies of structured questionnaire responded to between May/July 2011. Findings from this survey are as represented on tables 1-5 and indicate the views of some of those who agitated, implemented and benefited from the minimum wage reforms in Rivers State.

VII. Research Questions

The following research questions directed the study:

- 1) What is the rationale behind minimum wage increase in Nigeria?
- 2) What are the advantages and disadvantages of minimum wage increase in Nigeria?
- 3) To what extent does minimum wage improve the economic condition of workers (civil servant)?

VIII. METHODOLOGY

This empirical study on minimum wage in Nigeria is based on qualitative and quantitative data, obtained during a period of five weeks in Port Harcourt Metropolis, Rivers State, Nigeria.

The quantitative data was collected through structured questionnaire administered to civil servants in the Federal and State Secretariats in Rivers State. The qualitative part of the survey involved oral interviews with key informants and stakeholders of the civil service. Some of the information obtained formed the background for the quantitative data collection. They were also used to verify answer and better understanding of some of the arising results.

The composition of the sample takes into account the relative number of civil servants in Rivers State compared to the rest of Nigeria; as such, a descriptive survey was used. The study was conducted using the staff of the Federal and State Secretariats in Port Harcourt. Population of study comprised a total number of 5,237 civil servants from these government organizations. It was made up of 1,781 and 3,456 civil servants from the Federal and State complexes respectively. Using a stratified random sampling technique 1047 civil servants representing 20% of the total population was used for the study. This was made of 356 civil servants from Federal Secretariat and 619 from the State Secretariat.

Quantitative data were collected through structured questionnaire administered to civil servants who witnessed the last three minimum wage reforms in the country. It was entitled "Civil Servants Perception of Minimum Wage Increase in Nigeria" with a reliability coefficient of 0.86. It had four sections. Section A, sort information on the rationale behind minimum wage increase; section B solicited information on the advantages of minimum wage increase and while;

section C searched for information on the disadvantages of minimum wage increase and section D sort information on effect of minimum wage on the economy, finally section E solicited information on effect of minimum wage increase on financial responsibilities of workers. A four points modified Likert Scale was used in the following manner; Strongly Disagreed/Low Extent (SD/LE=1). Disagreed/Moderate Extent (D/ME=2). Aareed/Hiah Extent (A/HE=3), and Stronalv Agreed/Verv High Extent (SA/VHE=4). The mean was derived by dividing the total response for each of the items by the maximum score attainable. Since the items were weighted on a four points, a mean calculated for the item that fell below the value of 2.5 indicated disagreement, while a mean that fell above 2.5 showed agreement. The researchers employed the aid of two research assistants to enhance distribution and collection of copies of the distributed questionnaires. All the 1047 copies of the questionnaire distributed were correctly filled and retrieved. The data collected were analyzed using percentage, means and ranks.

For the qualitative data, interview schedule with the respondents (interviewees) took place at their work places i.e. the secretariats. The questions asked concentrated on the financial and economic implications of the minimum wage reforms on the lives of the civil servants (standard of living), the economic activities of the civil servants (cost of food, rent, clothing, transportation, utilities and school enrolment) were all considered.

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IX. Research Results

The results of the data analyses are as shown on tables 1-5. *Research Question 1 : What is the rationale behind minimum wage increase in Nigeria?*

Table 1 : Percentage and Mean Scores and Ranking of Respondents Perception on the Rationale behind Minimum Wage Increase.

S/N	Questionnaire	Strongly	Agreed	Disagreed	Strongly	Mean	Rank
	Items	Agreed	(3)	(2)	Disagreed		
		(4)			(1)		
1.	Minimum wage increase will	214	481	230	122		
	help reduce poverty level	(20%)	(46%)	(22%)	(12%)	2.69	3 rd
2.	Minimum wage increase will	813	189	20	25		
	motivate workers to increase	(77.7%)	(18.1%)	(1.9%)	(2.3%)		
	productivity					3.7	1 st
3.	Minimum wage increase will	722	203	81	41		
	help reduce income	(68.9%)	(19.4%)	(7.8%)	(3.9%)		
	inequality					3.61	2 nd

Table 1, item 2 reveals that respondents believe that minimum wage increase motivates workers to be more productive at their places of employment and increase on the general output (mean = 3.7) since it helps to reduces income inequality (mean 3.61). ? % however disagreed that it will help reduce poverty level.

Research Question 2 : What are the advantages and disadvantages of minimum wage increase in Nigeria?

Table 2 : Percentage and Mean Scores and Ranking of Respondents Perception of the Advantages of MinimumWage Increase in Nigeria.

S/N	Questionnaire Items	Strongly Agreed (4)	Agreed (3)	Disagreed (2)	Strongly Disagreed (1)	Mean	Rank
4.	Minimum wage increase will create job opportunities	630 (60.2%)	344 (32.9%)	41 (3.9%)	32 (3.0%)	3.5	3rd
5.	Minimum wage increase improves the economic condition of workers	772 (73.7%)	153 (14.6%)	81 (7.8%)	41 (3.9%)	3.58	1 st
6.	Minimum wage increase leads to a reduction of loot able funds	695 (66.4%)	234 (22.4%)	85 (8.1%)	33 (3.1%)	3.51	2nd

Table 2 shows that item 5 (minimum wage increase in Nigeria, closely followed by its reduction of loot able funds (mean = 3.51). regarded as the largest advantage of minimum wage

Table 3 : Percentage and Mean Scores and Ranking of Respondents Perception of the Disadvantages of MinimumWage Increase in Nigeria.

S/N	Questionnaire Items	Strongly Agreed (4)	Agreed (3)	Disagreed (2)	Strongly Disagreed (1)	Mean	Rank
7.	Minimum wage increase leads to an increase in the general price of goods and services (inflation)	740 (70.7%)	160 (15.3%)	127 (12.1%)	20 (1.9%)	3.55	1 st
8.	Minimum wage increase can create unemployment.	707 (67.4%)	210 (20.1%)	100 (9.6%)	30 (2.9%)	3.52	2 nd
9.	Minimum wage increase without economic growth is meaningless	712 (68%)	233 (22.3%)	71 (6.8%)	31 (2.9%)	3.45	3 rd

Table 3 highlights the negative impact of minimum wage increase in the Nigerian economy as perceived by the respondents. It is believed that the *Research Question* 3 : *To what extent does minimum*

most significant disadvantage of minimum wage increase is that it leads to inflation as shown by the responses on item 7 (mean = 3.55).

Research Question 3 : To what extent does minimum wage improves the economic condition of workers (civil servant)?

Table 4 : Percentage and Mean Scores and Ranking of Respondents Perception on the Extent of Effects of Minimum Wage on the Economy.

S/N	Questionnaire Items	Very High Extent (4)	High Extent (3)	Moderate Extent (2)	Low Extent (1)	Mean	Rank
10.	Minimum wage increase is the responsibility of government.	773 (73.8%)	244 (23.3%)	20 (1.9%)	10 (1%)	3.7	2 nd
11.	Minimum wage increase improves the economic condition of workers.	772 (73.7%)	153 (14.6%)	81 (7.8%)	41 (3.9%)	3.58	3 st
12.	Economic growth should be a prerequisite for minimum wage increase.	813 (77.7%)	122 (11.7%)	72 (8.7%)	40 (1.9%)	3.63	2 nd

Table 4 indicates that item 10 is ranked 1st (mean= 3.7) and perceives minimum wage increase to be the responsibility of government, followed by economic growth as prerequisite for minimum wage increase (mean= 3.63).

General prices of goods and services were further itemized under financial responsibilities. The result is as shown on table 5.

Table 5 : Percentage and Mean Scores and Ranking of Respondents Perception on the Extent of Effects of Minimum Wage on their Financial Activities.

S/N	Questionnaire	Very High	High Extent	Moderate	Low Extent	Mean	Rank
	Items	Extent		Extent	(1)		
		(4)	(3)				
				(2)			
13.	Minimum wage increases cost	1005	42	-	-		
	of food items	(96%)	(4%)	(0%)	(0%0	3.95	1 st
14.	Minimum wage increases	982	65	-	-		
	house rent	(94%)	(6%)	(0%)	(0%)	3.93	2nd
15.	Minimum wage increases cost	961	86	-	-		
	of transportation	(92%)	(8%)	(0%)	(0%)	3.92	3 rd
16.	Minimum wage increases cost	954	93	-	-		
	of utilities	(91%)	(9%)	(0%)	(0%)	3.91	4 th
17.	Minimum wage improves	450	408	102	87		
	school enrolment	(43%)	(39%)	(10%)	(8%)	3.16	5 th

Table 5 shows minimum wage increase affects cost of basic needs with cost of food items ranked 1st (mean = 3.95) followed by rent, transportation and utilities while significant others disagreed (8%) that minimum wage increase improves school enrolment.

X. Summary of Interview Schedule

During the interview conducted by the researchers on minimum wage issues, the following responses were obtained from some civil servants.

What is the basis for minimum wage increase in the Nigerian civil service?

Poverty remains one of the biggest problems facing our nation. Most Nigerians cannot afford to eat three times a day, this situation is evident even in the lives of employed civil servants in the North, South, East, and West of the country. What we receive as salary is a joke compared to what politician and workers in the private sector receive. This creates a reluctance to work on our part and if we are not ready to work, how the country can move forward? Since we are the engine room of the government and nation as a whole,

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minimum wage increase is of great importance to us because of some of the reasons given. (Worlu, Rosemary: Secretary, Ministry of Sports. 2011).

What are the advantages and disadvantages of minimum wage increase in the Nigerian civil service?

As a civil servant in Rivers State there are certainly no disadvantages to minimum wage increase in Nigeria only advantages. We are in dire need for an increase, it will make us more productive and committed towards our job and most importantly put money in our pockets. You won't believe that I've been working in the ministry for more than 10 years and I have no form of savings whatsoever. The money I make as salary every month, all of it goes into feeding and transportation for me and my family. So an increase is very important to help reduce the hardship we are going through.

(Ogbuemi, A. I: Members Association of Civil Servants of Nigeria. 2011).

To what extent does minimum wage increase improve the economic condition of workers?

Minimum wage increase improves the condition of civil servants a very little, but not much at all. It is

actually better than no increase at all. For instance, before the minimum wage increase of 2003, my salary was about N18, 000 every month. And this money wasn't enough for me to take care of some basic necessities like feeding, paying rent and school fees for my children. After the increase my salary increased to N20, 812 as you can see the difference wasn't really much but it has made a little difference. (Pepple, Godwin; Ministry of Works, Rivers State. 2011)

XI. DISCUSSION

The study revealed that minimum wage increase is the responsibility of government (item 10) so it should be integrated to increase government budgetary estimates. This will enable it fund such an increase when due and this can be done through development of its revenue base. This is evident by the similar opinion expressed by 77.7% of respondents on Table 3a (item 12) they are also of the view that government has to put all the necessary mechanisms in place to meet this responsibility.

Item 2 shows that the rationale behind minimum wage increase is that it will motivate workers to be more productive at their offices. The increase in productivity will lead to an increase in the level of production output, increase the GNP and ultimately bring about economic growth. Economic growth is seen as a panacea for poor standard of living and poverty; this is highlighted in Table 2 (item 5) by 73.7% of respondents who indicated that minimum wage increase lead to improvements in the general standard of living of the masses. This study shows people's perception, but we know that salary increase though a motivator only gives temporary relief and return the beneficiary back to square one as soon as he adjusts to the new salary.

This study also pointed out the advantages and disadvantages of minimum wage increase in the Nigerian economy. Apart from improving the living standard in Nigeria, minimum wage increase will also contribute to reducing the funds being looted by corrupt politicians. Moreover, it alternatively creates a more equitable distribution of income. This point is shown on Table 2, (item 6) by 66.4% of respondents who indicated this.

A starling revelation about minimum wage and inflation was made on Table 5 when the respondents rated the state of some of their financial responsibilities after the implementation of minimum wage in Nigerian economy. In summary, it reveals the reaction of Nigerians on wage increase thus; increase of food items by traders (96%), rent by property owners (94%), transportation fare by transporters (92%), Power Holding bills (91%), private cost of school (cost fees, books, uniforms and so on) all increase in geometrical proportion. The situation is worst with those who have their wards in private schools.

In a study on the impact of minimum wage increase in Nigeria, Klein, D. & Stewart, D (2007) found

that increase in minimum wage should be accompanied by corresponding economic growth strategies to reduce the economic disadvantages associated with such an increase. The strategies should include attempt by the government to control prices of commodities and facilities, otherwise the well-intentioned increase will go down the drains.

XII. CONCLUSION

The study investigated the impact of minimum wage increase on both the Nigerian economy and the lives of the average Nigerian civil servant (worker). The data used was from quantitative and qualitative survey among 1047 civil servants of the Federal and State Secretariats in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. The study shows that the impact of minimum wage increase is diverse; they act as a motivational tool that can increase productivity in the work place, they can pave the way for improving the living condition of workers, it is the responsibility of the government to enforce minimum wage laws in the country. In majority of the cases, the limitation associated with minimum wage increase is that it leads to an increase in the price of goods and services produced in the country (inflation).

Increase in minimum wage is perceived to be solely the responsibility of the Federal government of Nigeria to determine and ensure enforcement. That is private organizations are not capable of stating the minimum wage they or any organizational body will pay, only the government can do that. Other factors include the rationale behind minimum wage increase as perceived by civil servants, they believe that it is capable of increasing output, reducing income inequality and eradicating poverty in that order of ranking. Some major disadvantages of minimum wage increase as perceived by Nigerian workers is that market traders in Nigeria will begin to increase the prices of their commodities (inflation) as soon as there is a change in the minimum wage. Also employers who are not capable of paying the minimum wage to all their employees will result to retrenching workers so as to reduce cost or not employ at all, this trend will ultimately result to an increase in the level of unemployment.

Minimum wage issues have constantly been the basis for strikes, boycotts and protest by trade unions of all sorts in Nigeria. Government has failed to fashion out a method of discreetly increasing minimum wage in Nigeria in such a way that it is prompt, timely and reasonable enough to meet the basic needs of workers. The study found out that although minimum wage changes are solely the obligation of the government they often do not succeed in setting minimum wage adjustments on time and this leads to strikes and protest. In addition, trade unions were found to have resulted to protest and strikes to make the objections known, these were found to exacerbate the situation as reported by those interviewed.

XIII. Recommendations

The research makes the following suggestions based on the result of the finds:

- Members of trade unions, civil servants and the public should be enlightened on minimum wage issues in Nigeria and their impact on the economy. This will help in reducing the use of strikes and protest to make their objections known.
- * The Federal Government should adopt modern methods of making minimum wage changes from developed countries where such changes have been a success. There is a need for changes to suit and meet the basic and financial needs of workers in the country to avoid unnecessary protest and strike actions.
- * The economy should attain some level of growth in Gross National Product (GNP) before embarking on massive levels of minimum wage changes or this will result to a return to the status quo of workers and may create high levels of unemployment.
- * Minimum wage increases in Nigeria should be implemented without alerting the public particularly market traders about such changes to avoid increase in prices and inflationary tendencies. Too many electronic and print media discursion and publication send the signal to business people to adjust.

These recommendations stated above will significantly reduce some of the hassles associated with minimum wage changes in Nigeria.

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Comparison of the Punitive Damage with Compensatory, Symbolic, Indirect and Aggravated Damages

By Ebrahim Taghizadeh

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Abstract - The punitive damage is a kind of damage that should be compensated by the defendant for his/her conduct in applying damage tinted with insolence and malice to the plaintiff. The origin of this law institution was in Common Law especially in England which has been developed in other countries quickly. Some conditions should be provided for demanding the punitive damage. The conduct specified in the verdict of punitive damage is the behavior tinted with insolence committed by the defendant; on the other hand, occurrence of loss is one of the conditions required for demanding the compensation of punitive damage; while in other kinds of damages, the required conditions for claiming the indemnity are different.

Keywords : Punitive damage, compensatory damage, symbolic damage, indirect damage, aggravated damage.

GJHSS-E Classification: FOR Code: 160702, 160202

COMPARISON OF THE PUNITIVE DAMAGE WITH COMPENSATORY. SYMBOLIC, INDIRECT AND AGGRAVATED DAMAGES'

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Abstract - The punitive damage is a kind of damage that should be compensated by the defendant for his/her conduct in applying damage tinted with insolence and malice to the plaintiff. The origin of this law institution was in Common Law especially in England which has been developed in other countries quickly. Some conditions should be provided for demanding the punitive damage. The conduct specified in the verdict of punitive damage is the behavior tinted with insolence committed by the defendant; on the other hand, occurrence of loss is one of the conditions required for demanding the compensation of punitive damage; while in other kinds of damages, the required conditions for claiming the indemnity are different.

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I. INTRODUCTION

n recognition of punitive damage institution, it is necessary to find out the characteristics of the defendant's conduct in a case of punitive damage upon which he/she is obliged to compensate this kind of damage. What are the behavioral characteristics available in punitive damage? Is the loss occurrence necessary in punitive damage? On the other hand, in different legal systems, various kinds of damage including compensatory, symbolic or nominal, indirect and aggravated damages are studied in order to describe punitive damage [1-4]. The research method used in this article is descriptive-analytical and the documentation and library process were employed.

II. The Conditions Required for Demanding the Compensation of Punitive Damage

In recognition of punitive damage institution, it is necessary to find out the characteristics of the defendant's conduct in a case of punitive damage upon which he/she is obliged to compensate this kind of damage, then, it should be responded to the question "Is the loss occurrence necessary in punitive damage?" In the present section, in addition to the abovementioned cases, we analyze the conditions of

Author : Department of Law, Payame Noor University, P. O. Box 19395-4697, Tehran, Iran. E-mail : eb taghizadeh@yahoo.com punitive damage so that the differentiation of them from the other kinds of damage is facilitated.

III. The malice in Conduct Specified in Punitive Damage

In cases related to punitive damage, whatever is considered as the common basis for punishment, is his/her conduct which should be analyzed to find out why it deserves such a heavy punishment. In different texts, any author employs different terms for describing the conduct specified in punitive damage; Sometimes, the terms "malice", "recklessness", "gross negligence" have been used. In Persian texts, in addition to the abovementioned terms, expressions such as "conduct tinted with deceit and imposture", "offensive conduct tinted with heedlessness", or Conduct tined with insolence" have also been used. In some of the states of the U.S.A. such as Mississippi, the legislators consider proving merely gross negligence and heedlessness and in some other states, intentional indifference and conduct tinted with malice as necessary [5]. In some other states, the verdict for punitive damage is applied only to the conducts that are specified by the statute laws and are tinted with fraud or malice by virtue of the Article 3294. Civil Law of California State [6].

As you see, there is no gross difference between the used terms about the subject of punitive damage, but as it is said, all of these terms may be included in this expression "The socially reprehensible conduct"[7]. However, reprehensible is a general term and may not be considered only for the conduct specified in the verdict issued for punitive damage because this term includes any fault concerning tortuous liability; even, the offense of criminal liability can be included in this term[8]. Therefore, it seems that whatever is chosen as the common aspect of the abovementioned terms and expressions is the same that is presented in definition of punitive damage; i.e., in the conduct specified in the verdict issued for punitive damage, the judge should ascertain the conduct tinted with insolence . Proving any fault committed by the defendant that is reprehensible is not sufficient [9]. Therefore, the conduct specified in the verdict issued for punitive damage is the conduct in which the defendant committed a behavior tinted with insolence in applying

damage or loss. Wherever no damage incurred to the plaintiff, another institution is predicted in law of some of the countries. In such cases, the verdict is issued for symbolic damage that is different from punitive damage in various aspects, especially, the intensity (amount of damage). The analysis of judicial precedent and issued verdicts in this case, whether within Iran or abroad, also confirms the abovementioned points [14], because punitive damage is always compensated as a kind of surplus damage to the compensatory damage and is not a primitive institution [15].

IV. Conditions of Punitive Damage in Comparison to Various Kinds of Damages

To analyze the standing of punitive damage, firstly, it is necessary to study briefly different kinds of damages defined in various legal systems so that the position of punitive damage is clarified among them:

a) Compensatory Damage

As it is known from the title of this kind of damage, compensatory damage is used for compensating and removing the incurred losses and its objective is the restoration of the former situation; therefore, it is said compensatory damage and it is a damage the result of which is the incurrence of loss to others [16]. But, in punitive damage, the objective is preventing the individual from repeating the damaging action; therefore, it is a kind of error-oriented damage which focuses on the individual who applied damage and his fault against society [17], while compensatory damage is a loss-oriented damage in which the focus is on damaged individual so that the former situation is restored.

b) Symbolic(nominal) damage

Symbolic or nominal damage is a little amount of money which is given to the losing individual and this is the case where no essential and significant damage incurred to the losing individual in order to be compensated [18]. Therefore, it is evident that this kind of damage is a kind of punishment but it should be noted that its amount is trifle on the contrary of the punitive damage, and the incurred value to the individual is also insignificant in such a way that using "losing" term for him/her is not appropriate; therefore, compensatory damage is not paid in this case, i.e., it is not a kind of surplus damage; while, the punitive damage is surplus to the compensatory damage.

c) Indirect Damage

Indirect damage is a damage that the causation relation is not evident between it and the action which causes loss and usually, the court does not issue a verdict for its compensation and since it is caused by a remote cause, so, it is not demandable [19]. Therefore, if, presumably, this damage is demandable, it is

d) Aggravated Damage

In some cases, the defendant's conduct may incur more loss to the plaintiff; i.e., it is added to incurred damage and the aggravated damages compensate the surplus loss [20]. Therefore, this kind of damage is compensatory and incurrence of loss should be proved; indeed, punitive damage is applied when no sufficient ordinary compensatory or aggravated damage is detected and there is need for punitive damage in order to achieve the objective [21]. It is worthy to be noted that punitive damage is comparable with recognizance, late payment damage, compulsion penalty, moral damage, and blood money institutions and they have common aspects, but since the aforementioned institutions have not much efficiency in the Iranian Law, sometime, they play the role of punitive damage in the Iranian Law.

V. CONCLUSION

As we found, some conditions are required for demanding punitive damage. Malice in committed conduct specified in punitive damage and incurrence of damage and loss were among the required conditions. In other words, in committed conduct specified in the verdict of punitive damage, the judge should pursue to ascertain the conduct tinted with insolence committed by the defendant; therefore, any kind of fault committed by the defendant which is reprehensible is not sufficient to be called as a punitive damage; So, the conduct specified in the verdict of punitive damage is the behavior in committing which the defendant calculated the profit and loss in applying damage. On the other hand, the doer incurs damage intentionally and with consideration to the fact that compensation of punitive damage is subsidiary and surplus to the compensatory damage; therefore, incurrence of loss is also one of the required conditions. While, in compensatory damage, the objective is restoration of the former situation, in the punitive damage, the goal is preventing the individual from repeating the harmful action. In symbolic damage, the trifle sum is paid to the injured party and is not surplus damage but in punitive damage a surplus is paid. In indirect damage, in spite that there is no causation relation between the loss and action, presumably if it is demandable, it is not compensatory. Sometimes, due to the conduct committed by the plaintiff, more loss may be incurred to him/her, therefore, the verdict of aggravated damage compensation is issued but the verdict of punitive damage is issued when, even the aggravated damage is not considered sufficient and the issuance of punitive damage compensation is necessary.

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Mapping Disparity: Rajbanshi Women and Literacy By Moumita Ghosh Bhattacharyya

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Abstract - Education is considered a key variable not only for widening intellectual horizon of the individual but it also helps a person to make use of coherent and scientific approaches to different problems. But eventually there are marked differences in the literacy rate among the sexes in our country. The differential literacy rate among men and women indicates the existence of discriminatory practices against women. In terms of literacy rate viz. age, sex and rural/urban background, it is evident that a female child is neglected and denied the basic civic amenities. Regarding educational status, empirical researches point out that the level of literacy among women in general and Scheduled Caste women in particular are significantly low. The reasons are varied. The socio- economic factors like lack of awareness on the relevance of education, gender disparity, lack of incentive and low paid laborious occupations etc., causes poverty and illiteracy which in effect also results in gender gap in literacy.

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MAPPING DISPARITY RAJBANSHI WOMEN AND LITERACY

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Mapping Disparity: Rajbanshi Women and Literacy

Moumita Ghosh Bhattacharyya

Abstract - Education is considered a key variable not only for widening intellectual horizon of the individual but it also helps a person to make use of coherent and scientific approaches to different problems. But eventually there are marked differences in the literacy rate among the sexes in our country. The differential literacy rate among men and women indicates the existence of discriminatory practices against women. In terms of literacy rate viz. age, sex and rural/urban background, it is evident that a female child is neglected and denied the basic civic amenities. Regarding educational status, empirical researches point out that the level of literacy among women in general and Scheduled Caste women in particular are significantly low. The reasons are varied. The socio- economic factors like lack of awareness on the relevance of education, gender disparity, lack of incentive and low paid laborious occupations etc., causes poverty and illiteracy which in effect also results in gender gap in literacy. In this paper I will focus on some serious statistics related to gender gap in literacy of the Raibanshi women (Under the Scheduled Caste [SC] category of the Indian Constitution) at various levels of education, generated from the field study of the two mouzas. namely Chauhaddi mouza of Dhupquri Block and Gartali Jalpesh mouza of Maynaguri Block. These areas are situated in the District of Jalpaiguri in the State of West Bengal, India.

"Not all women are poor, and not all poor people are women, but all women suffer from discrimination" (Kabeer, 1996:20)

The Cairo conference in 1994 organized by UN on Population and Development called attention to women's empowerment as a central focus and UNDP developed the Gender Empowerment measure (GEM) which focused on the three variables that reflect women's participation in society – political power or decision-making, education and health.

Most of the social and economic development is correlated of with education. Status of education is related to nature of employment and income. Educational status is an important determinant of the nature of employment and earning of even those who are employed as casual or regular employee in the unorganized sector. The table below shows the percentage distribution of rural women workers by poverty and their education status.¹

Education status	Extremely Poor	Poor	Marginal	Vulnerable	Middle income	Higher Income	All
Illiterate	81.2	77.5	71.7	62.9	47.5	24.8	64.5
Primary and below	13.7	15.6	17.7	21.5	23.3	22.6	19.7
Middle level	3.9	4.8	7.6	9.9	14.0	16.6	9.2
Secondary & above but below graduate	1.2	1.9	2.7	5.2	12.8	23.5	5.7
Graduate and above	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.5	2.4	12.5	0.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 1 : The Percentage Distribution of Rural Women Workers by Poverty and their Education Status.

It is obvious from the table that the level of education of the workers has strong association with

their income and even middle level of education makes a big difference. The same article also argues that "One of the major attributes of women engaged in agriculture is their low level of educational attainment. With the ongoing commercialization of agriculture, crop diversification, introduction of new technologies and the imperative for better information processing, education has to be reckoned as a key input in any attempt at overall development and modernization of agriculture. However, the grim picture is that about 86% of female

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¹ Srivastava, Nisha & Ravi Srivastava. 2010 : 'Women, Work, and Employment Outcomes in Rural India'. *Economic and Political Weekly*. July.

agricultural labourers and 74% of female farmers are either illiterate or have education below the primary level. Shocking as it may seem, the average education of a female agricultural labourer was less than one year in 2004-05."²

Apart from employment and income, the level of education is one important determinant of maintaining good health and avoiding undesirable burden of disease in general and burden of bearing children by the women, which have very important consequences in well being of the individual and the family. People with lower level of education, which is also associated with poverty, fails to access services available or to take precautionary measures due to lack of awareness. National Family Health Survey (NFHS) brought out those features to highlight educational attainment in improving public health. For example, as per NFHS 3 conducted during 2005-06, total fertility rate was 3.07 for illiterate women; 2.43 for those with education below 5 years, 1.92 for women with schooling between 5 to 9 years and only 1.36 for those women who had at least 10 years of schooling. Mean number of children ever born to women aged 40-49 years were 4.4 (2.13); 3.6 (1.73); 2.9 (1.58) and 1.6 (1.22) for the said education categories respectively. The figure in the bracket shows the desired number of children in that category and it is clear that women with lower level of education had to bear higher burden of children as well as higher share of undesired pregnancies. Many of them had to bear child in their teen age. Percentage of girls in the age group 15-19 years who were found to have begun child bearing were 44.1% for those with no education; 29.3% for those with education below 5 years; 23.4% for those with education between 5 to 9 years and only 6.1% for those having at least 10 years of schooling. Thus, level of education has great bearing on population control as well as burden of women in bearing child.³ Access to various health services such as antenatal check up, immunization etc also has strong relationship with the status of education. Therefore, all round development of a society, and

bearing healthy and less number of children may result in educating our women folk. Thus, if we focus on the contribution of women's education to development it is well established fact that educated women contribute towards demographic improvement by reducing fertility, by influencing the age of marriage, by helping to achieve desired family size, by improvement in infant mortality rate, improvement in child health care and nutrition; improving pre- school abilities of children and improvement in the economic status of the family by participating in income earning activities and thereby increasing household earnings. Despite all this, it is unfortunate that female education is still regarded as consumption, if not a burden.⁴

Gender discrimination has been an ongoing feature of economic and social processes in West Bengal. Women here like in many other states in India are the most subjugated and deprived section, grounded in both poverty and ignorance of the patriarchal, caste, class, gender ridden society. Patriarchy confines women's ownership and control over property and other economic resources including the products of their own labor. Women's mobility is constrained and their access to education and information delayed. The clearest examples of gender inequality are the various forms of dispossession and violence thoroughly meted out against women. They are virtually barred from decision making.⁵

Human Development Report in West Bengal presents a sundry picture, and this picture is further intricate by the variations across districts in the state. Table 1 presents the calculations for the Human Development Index for the different districts, as well as for the state as a whole. The table refers to undivided Dinajpur, because of the nature of the data available for consumption, poverty and life expectancy. There are very substantial differences across districts, such that the HDI ranges from a high of 0.78 for Kolkata, to a low of 0.44 for Malda.

	Health Index	Income Index	Education Index	HDI	HDI Rank
Darjeeling	0.73	0.49	0.72	0.65	4
Jalpaiguri	0.61	0.38	0.6	0.53	10
Cooch Behar	0.5	0.41	0.65	0.52	11
Dinajpur	0.62	0.39	0.53	0.51	13
Malda	0.49	0.36	0.48	0.44	17

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² Ibid.

³lbid.

⁴Yasmin, Effat. 2011: 'Empowering Women Through Education: Insights from Jammu and Kashmir.' Journal of Women's Studies. pp. 49-73.

⁵ Mukhopadhyay, Pallav. 2001. 'Problem of Gender Inequality and Expansion of Education of Women in West Bengal.' Deptt. of Journalism & Mass Comm. University of Calcutta.

Murshidabad	0.57	0.29	0.52	0.46	15
Birbhum	0.53	0.27	0.61	0.47	14
Bardhaman	0.74	0.47	0.71	0.64	5
Nadia	0.65	0.41	0.66	0.57	9
N 24 Parganas	0.72	0.49	0.76	0.66	3
Hoogli	0.77	0.46	0.67	0.63	6
Bankura	0.67	0.26	0.62	0.52	11
Purulia	0.61	0.18	0.55	0.45	16
Medinipur	0.68	0.45	0.74	0.62	7
Haoworah	0.77	0.53	0.75	0.68	2
Kolkata	0.82	0.73	0.8	0.78	1
S 24 Parganas	0.71	0.4	0.68	0.6	8
West Bengal	0.7	0.43	0.69	0.61	
	1	I	1	1	1

Source : West Bengal Human Development Report, 2004.

http://wbplan.gov.in/docs/Executive Summary WBHDR2004.doc. 2001. pp.1-5.

Gender discrimination has been an essential trait of economic and social processes in West Bengal, and while it has declined in some aspects in the recent past, it remains worth mentioning. It is evident in

economic variables and in literacy which indicate improving health position of women relative to men. This is clear in the calculations of the Gender Development Index which are portrayed in Table 3.

Table 3 : Gender Development Indices by District.

	Health Index	Income Index	Education Index	GDI	GDI Rank
Darjeeling	0.731	0.356	0.714	0.600	2
Jalpaiguri	0.614	0.281	0.581	0.492	11
Cooch Behar	0.497	0.287	0.628	0.471	13
Dinajpur	0.616	0.291	0.527	0.478	12
Malda	0.491	0.291	0.465	0.416	17
Murshidabad	0.566	0.176	0.527	0.423	16
Birbhum	0.533	0.178	0.595	0.435	14
Bardhaman	0.740	0.270	0.669	0.560	7
Nadia	0.649	0.215	0.653	0.506	9
N 24 Parganas	0.721	0.219	0.752	0.564	6
Hoogli	0.764	0.259	0.720	0.581	3
Bankura	0.662	0.215	0.605	0.494	10
Purulia	0.606	0.161	0.506	0.424	15
Medinipur	0.683	0.323	0.728	0.578	4

			-		-		
Hawora	0.773	0.194	0.742	0.570	5		
Kolkata	0.824	0.320	0.783	0.642	1		
S 24 Parganas	0.705	0.192	0.666	0.521	8		
West Bengal	0.697	0.270	0.681	0.549			
Source : West Bengal Human Development Report, 2004.							
http://wbplan.gc	http://wbplan.gov.in/docs/Executive_Summary_WBHDR2004.doc. pp.1- 5.						

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It is worth noting that the rankings of the GDI largely follow the same pattern as the HDI rankings. In the districts with low HDI also tend to have low GDI. However, some districts such as Haowrah, North 24 Parganas, Bardhaman and Koch Behar tend to have worse ranking in GDI than HDI, suggesting especially acute gender discrimination. The very low "Income index" module of the GDI basically reflects the low workforce participation of women in West Bengal. This in turn suggests a combination of greater restrictions on women's economic agency as well as social lack of recognition of women's unpaid work. Both of these West Bengal Human Development Reports suggest a major trace of gender discrimination in our society ⁶.

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

Regardless of slow but steady economic growth since Independence in India, gender gaps in literacy and enrollment have closed little if at all (King and Hill 1993:6). The most obvious hint for a progress impact on lower gender differentials in schooling is the fact that gender gaps in education is likely to be biggest among the poorest countries (Hill and King 1993, World Bank 2001). Using a multi-dimensional indicator of gender inequality that included educational differences, Forsythe, Korzeniewicz and Durrant found that only among rich countries development reduced gender inequalities. Sundaram (2000), by using 1981 Indian district data, found that districts with low levels of agricultural development, as measured by crop value per agricultural worker, had more gender inequality in rural literacy rates. Thus, there is also some evidence within developing countries that the poorest areas have larger gender disparities in education. Some studies reveal that increases in household income add to the probability that girls will be enrolled in school more than the probability that boys will be enrolled in school (World Bank 2001). Sipahimalani (1999) found that a 1 percent increase in household income in India, increases the probability of girls being enrolled by 9 to 13 percent, while the probability of boys being enrolled in school increases by 7 percent. Sundaram's study of 1981 Indian districts (2000) also found that the greater the availability of education as measured by teachers per child, the smaller the gender gap in literacy among children aged 10 to 14.

Horne (2000) in one of his studies revealed that educational performance at school has been found to vary according to the students' sex. Gender disparity in schooling is also observed among the younger population, where female school enrolment in basic and secondary education is less compared to the male children (Tansel, 2002; Erturk and Daylo' Lu, 2004). Mostly, girls drop out before completing four years of primary school (Women: Looking beyond 2000, 1995). Gender difference is reflected in access to educational, empowerment to political power and allocation of resources within the household sector as well (Dutta and Bandopadhyay, 2004). Ramchandran (2003), in an empirical study revealed that if regularity in school could be ensured in case of girls, they performed as well, if not better than boys in school. It is observed that gender gap in enrolment persists at all levels for all the considered years. In a study by Gupta (2004) it has been observed that boys get opportunity to continue their education in spite of their disadvantaged social family background because they are considered as assets of family for economic and social reasons. This is a reflection of social attitude, which definitely indicates bias in favour of boys. Moss and Brown (1979) concluded that sex differences occur in academic achievement partially due to biases and stereotypes.

The review of relevant literature shows that various studies have been conducted considering different social parameters which may have bearing with educational achievement of the students but the comparative studies on SCs and specially Rajbanshi (women) are hardly any, especially in West Bengal, considering gender issues.

II. FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY AREAS

West Bengal is a state where general, SCs, STs, minorities, OBCs etc, population reside in the same geographical parameter. Given below is a list of sixteen major SCs of the state.

Table 4 : Population and Proportion of Sixteen Major Scheduled Castes in West Bengal, Census 2001.

SL.	Name of the Scheduled	Total Population	Proportion to the
	Castes		Total Scheduled
			Caste Population
1.	All Scheduled Castes	18,452,555	100%
2.	Rajbanshi	3,386,617	18.4
3.	Namasudra	3,212,393	17.4
4.	Bagdi	2,740,385	14.9
5.	Pod	2,216,513	12.0
6.	Bauri	1,091,022	5.9
7.	Chamar	995,756	5.4
8.	Jalia Kaibartta	409,303	2.2
9.	Hari	390,619	2.1
10.	Dhoba	369,808	2.0
11.	Sunri (excluding Saha)	317,543	1.7
12.	Dom	316,337	1.7
13.	Jhalo Malo	293,714	1.6
14.	Lohar	279,582	1.5
15.	Mal	273,641	1.5
16.	Kaora	263,731	1.4
17.	Tiyar	195,340	1.1
Soul	rce: Census. 2001. Office of the	e Registrar General, India.	

According to Table- 4, the Rajbanshi and Namasudra having more than 32 lakhs population each constitute 35.8 per cent of the total SC population of the state. Bagdi, Pod, Bauri and Chamar each have more than 10 lakhs population. They along with Rajbanshi and Namasudra together constitute 73.9 per cent of the total SCs. The Jalia Kaibartta, Hari, Dhoba, Sunri (excluding Saha), Dom, Lohar, Mal, Kaora, and Tiyar have sizeable population (Statement-1). The rest of the SCs have a comparatively smaller population.

SL.	Name of the Scheduled Castes	d Castes Literacy Rate (above 7+ years)					
		Total	Male	Female			
1.	All Scheduled Castes	59.0	70.5	46.9			
2.	Rajbanshi	60.01	72.3	47.3			
3.	Namasudra	71.9	80.6	62.8			
4.	Bagdi	47.7	60.4	34.8			
5.	Pod	72.1	83.5	59.9			
6.	Bauri	37.5	51.8	22.7			
7.	Chamar	47.0	58.6	34.1			
8.	Jalia Kaibartta	64.9	74.4	54.8			
9.	Hari	49.5	61.6	36.8			
10.	Dhoba	73.9	83.5	63.6			
11.	Sunri (excluding Saha)	82.5	92.7	71.4			
12.	Dom	46.0	58.9	32.6			
13.	Jhalo Malo	60.3	68.4	51.7			
14.	Lohar	46.5	61.1	31.3			
15.	Mal	39.6	51.9	26.8			
16.	Kaora	53.0	64.9	40.6			
17.	Tiyar	62.1	73.5	50.1			

Table 5 : Literacy Rate among	Sixteen Maior Scheduled	Castes in West Bengal, Census 2001.

According to Table- 5, among all SCs, 59 percent of the population is literate, which is higher than the aggregated national average for SCs (54.7 percent). The gender gap in literacy among SCs is quite conspicuous with male and female literacy rates of 70.5 per cent and 46.9 per cent per cent respectively. The Sunri (excluding Saha) with 82.5 per cent literacy is on top of the list. Other SCs who have recorded literacy rate higher than the state average for SCs are Dhoba (73.9

percent), Pod (72.1 percent), Namasudra (71.9 percent), Jalia Kaibartta (64.9 percent), Tiyar (62.1 per cent), and Rajbangshi (60.1 percent). Bauri have the lowest literacy rate (37.5 percent).

The gender gap in literacy has been noted among the major SCs,. It is high (29 percentage points) among Lohar and Bauri. In case of the Rajbanshis the gender gap in literacy it is 25 percent. It is comparatively small (16 percent) among Namasudra and Jhalo Malo. Table 6 : Literacy Rate of the Total (7 years and above) Population and SC Population of Jalpaiguri District, 2006.

Jalpaiguri	Population	Percent	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
	Literate		Literate		Literate	
Total	1810083	62.85	1082575	59.81	727508	40.19
Population						
Total SC	648956	35.85	396936	61.16	252020	38.83
Population						
Source : Jalpaiguri District Statistical Handbook, Bureau of Applied Economics and						
Statistics. Govt of West Bengal. 2006.						

In the district of Jalpaiguri, according to 2006, District Statistical Handbook, 62.85 percent (above0- 6 years population) of the total population is literate, among which 59.81 percent is male and 40.19 percent female. The gender gap in literacy is 19.62 percent points. Among 35.85 percent SC literate population 61.16 percent are male and 38.83 percent are female literates. The gender gap in literacy is 22.23 percent points. Hence, it is found that the gender gap in literacy is higher in case of SC females than the total female population of the district.

Table 7: Total number of SC Literate in Dhupguri and Maynaguri Blocks, 2001.

Total literate	Total SC	Percent	Male	Percent	Female	Percent	
	Population		Population		Population		
Dhupguri	92732	52.98	57451	61.95	35281	38.05	
Maynaguri	105631	52.94	64960	61.50	40671	38.50	
Source: Primary Census Abstract Vol. II. Directorate of Census Operations. West Bengal. 2001.							
Table- A- 8.							

The picture is same in case of the two blocks under Jalpaiguri District, namely Dhupguri and Maynaguri. Literacy Rate and Various Literacy Levels of the Total Population and Rajbanshi Population of the Chauhaddi Mouza and Gartali Jalpesh Mouza.

Table 8 : Literacy Rate of the Total Population of Chauhaddi Mouza and Gartali Jalpesh Mouza, 2009-2010.

Chauhaddi	Total	Percent	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Total Literate	1044	48.45	602	57.66	442	42.34
Population						
Rajbanshi	582	46.08	319	54.81	263	45.19
Literate						
Population						

Total	Percent	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
1350	77.36	734	54.37	616	45.63
910	72.39	523	57.47	387	42.53
	1350	1350 77.36	1350 77.36 734	1350 77.36 734 54.37	1350 77.36 734 54.37 616

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According to Table- 8, among the total population of Chauhaddi mouza, 48.45 percent is literate among which 57.66 percent is male and 42.34 percent is female. The gender gap in literacy is 15.32 percent points. In case of the Rajbanshis the gender gap in literacy is 9.62 percent points. It is visible that the gender gap in literacy among the Rajbanshis is less than the total population.

Again in case of Gartali Jalpesh mouza is 77.36 percent population is literate among which 54.37 percent is male and 45.63 percent is female. Here the gender gap in literacy is 8.74 percent points. In case of the Rajbanshis this gap is 14.94 percent points.

Therefore, the Rajbanshi women are much backward in literacy than the total female population.

The difference in the gender gap in literacy among the Rajbanshi women of both the mouzas vary. This is because due to abundance of minority population in Chauhaddi mouza. The Muslims are minorities over here. Educationally and socioeconomically they are very backward. As a major part of the total population constitute of these muslim people the gender gap in literacy is high among the total population than the Rajbanshi population in Chauhaddi mouza.

Table 9 : Percentage Distribution of Total Rajbanshi Literates in Various Levels of Education by Sex of Chauhaddi Mouza and Gartali Jalpesh Mouza, 2009- 2010.

Education	Rajbanshi Population Chauhaddi Mouza					Rajbanshi Population Gartali Jalpesh Mouza						
Group			Male	Percent	Female	Percent			Male	Percent	Female	Percent
	Total	Percent					Total	Percent				
Can Sign	51	8.76	28	54.90	23	45.10	187	20.55	89	47.59	98	52.41
Primary	202	34.71	115	56.93	87	43.07	254	27.91	134	52.76	120	47.24
Middle	204	35.05	112	54.90	92	45.10	248	27.25	158	63.71	90	36.29
Secondary	94	16.15	47	50.00	47	50.00	143	15.71	91	63.64	52	36.36
Higher Secondary	26	4.47	14	53.85	12	46.15	47	5.16	32	68.09	15	31.91
Graduate	4	0.69	3	75.00	1	25.00	28	3.08	15	53.57	13	46.43
Masters	1	0.17	1	100.00	0	0.00	3	0.33	3	100.00	0	0
Total	582	100	319	54.81	263	45.19	910	100	522	57.36	388	42.63

Primary Level- Class I- IV; Middle Level- Class V- VIII; Secondary Level Class IX- X; Higher Secondary Level Class- XI- XII; Graduate Level 3 years degree course; Masters Level 2 years degree course.

The above Table- 9 portrays the educational statistics of the Rajbanshi population of Chauhaddi mouza and Gartali Jalpesh mouza at various levels by sex. The table also portrays the wide gender gap in literacy among the Rajbanshi women.

In Chauhaddi mouza, the proportionate of Rajbanshi literates without having any literacy level is 8.76 percent among which, 54.90 percent is male and 45.10 percent female. 34.71 percent population is literate up to primary level among which, 56.93 percent is male and 43.07 percent female. At the middle level 35.05 percent population is literate among which 54.90 percent is male and 45.10 percent female. At the secondary level 16.15 percent is literate among which, 50 percent male and 50 percent female. At the higher secondary level, 4.47 percent population is literate among which, 53.85 percent male and 46.15 percent female. At the graduate level, 0.69 percent population is literate among which, 75 percent male and 25 percent female. At the master degree level, 0.17 percent male population and no female literates are found at this level.

The gender gap in literacy is high at the primary level which is 13.86 percent points. At the secondary level the gap is bridged. At the graduate level the gap is highest 50 percent points.

In Gartali Jalpesh mouza, the proportionate of Rajbanshi literates without having any literacy level is 20.55 percent among which, 47.59 percent is male and 52.41 percent female. 27.91 percent population is literate up to primary level among which, 52.76 percent is male and 47.24 percent female. At the middle level 27.25 percent population is literate among which 63.71 percent is male and 36.29 percent female. At the secondary level 15.71 percent is literate among which. 63.64 percent male and 36.36 percent female. At the higher secondary level. 5.16 percent population is literate among which, 68.09 percent male and 31.91 percent female. At the graduate level, 3.08 percent population is literate among which, 53.57 percent male and 46.43 percent female. At the masters level, 0.33 percent male population is literate, without any female literate.

secondary and higher secondary level which are respectively 27.42 percent, 27.28 percent and 36.18 percent points.

III. Reasons Behind Low Literacy Rates of Rajbanshi Females

An eminent feminist critic, Susan Moller Okin in 'Justice, Gender, and the Family', a significant piece of work of her, portrays some of her concerns about gender issues at the familial and societal sphere. By 'gender' Okin means "the deeply entrenched institutionalization of sexual difference" ⁷ She argues that gender is "largely socially produced." ⁸ "[E]quality of opportunity, not only for women but for children of both sexes, is seriously undermined by the current gender injustices of our society."⁹ Okin maintains that the gender structure within the family is a major obstacle to equal opportunity.¹⁰ According to Okin the family "is the place where we become our gendered selves;" and, "the division of labor within the gendered-structure family raises both practical and psychological barriers against women in all other spheres of life."¹¹

A number of feminist scholars(Okin 1989, Bubeck 1995. Fraser 1996) has been regarded the socalled conventional gendered division of labor prescribing a specialization in paid productive work for men and unpaid "reproductive" work for women, as the primary cause of women's social and economic inequality. Urged by much exposed ethics of femininity and masculinity, and enforced by many social and legal norms, the gendered division of labor gets to mold actual people's lives and thought process. And this is so even today, when so many women have entered the labor market, for the recommendation still holds that these women may choose to have a job, but familial responsibilities are still all theirs, a "second shift" for them to perform (Hochschild 1989). In The Second Shift, sociologist Arlie Hochschild demonstrates how so many working women today have two work shifts: their paid job outside and their unpaid job at home doing housework and child care. She calculates that, because of these two shifts, "women worked roughly fifteen hours longer each week than men. Over a year, they worked an extra month of twenty-four-hour days a year."12 She concludes ¹³:

Most women without children spend much more time than men on housework; with children, they devote more time to both housework and child care. Just as there is a wage gap between men and women in the workplace, there is a "leisure gap" between them at home. Most women work one shift at the office or factory and a "second shift" at home.

So be it as full time homemakers or double shifters, household and care work is still overwhelmingly women's work, which in turn is not without consequence as to the modalities of women's labor market participation, women being more likely to work part- time and to withdraw temporarily from the work force to accommodate family responsibilities, leading to a less stable and profitable working life. The fact that women effectively bear exclusive (or main) responsibility for socially useful yet unpaid and undervalued household and caring work has several adverse consequences for women. The most immediate and apparent is deprivation of a (sufficient and reliable) independent income, which leads to domination while living with a (male) partner, and grave risk of poverty after a breakup or death of partner, especially when children are involved.14

In 1970, Ester Boserup published *Women's Role in Economic Development,* a critical and significant

⁷ Okin, Susan Moller. 1989: *Justice, Gender and the Family*. New York: Basic Books. p. 6

⁸ Ibid.

⁹ lbid. p. 14.

¹⁰ lbid. p. 16.

¹¹ Ibid. p. 111.

¹² Hochschild, Arlie. 1989: *The Second Shift*. New York: Avon Books. p. 3.

¹³ Ibid. p. 4.

¹⁴ Cited from Bhattacharyya, Ghosh. Moumita. 2001: 'Gender and Discrimination: The Case of the Rajbanshi women', published in the journal Voice of Dalit. Vol. 4(2). I have discussed elaborately.

work of her. Here, she argued that in changing industrial societies, women faced further marginalization rather than increased freedom. The introduction of new agricultural technologies in developing countries leads to greater vields, shifting agriculture from the subsistence level to market production. Labor specialization became inevitable in order to maximize efficiency of production. If specialization is decided upon comparative advantage, those who have greater decision making power, autonomy and higher levels of education will assume authority over market activities. In most societies around the world, culture and tradition dictate that these individuals are men. Thus, Boserup writes, "The process of increasing specialization of labor is accompanied by an increasing hierarchization of the labor force and a gradual adaptation of the sex distribution of work".15

Comparative advantage assumes that both parties are capitalizing on their economic strengths in order to reap economic gains. Women's labor in the home, however, is often unpaid. In the public- private dichotomy then, males earn wages while women do not, creating the dependency of women on men (Okin, 1989, 1994). Dependency constraints one's freedom to live one's life in the manner she sees fit. Further more, gains made from economic activity are not only associated with material worth, but also individual and societal worthiness. Those with more material resources enjoy greater power and authority over those with less. Thus, women are not only subordinate in the home to their wage- earning husbands, but also subordinate in society as a group for their lack of independent economic resources.¹⁶

The public- private dichotomy carries deleterious consequences for women's agency and well- being. When a women's place in society is tied only to her reproductive capacity, there exist few incentives to justify equal allocation of resources between sons and daughters . A daughter is a "lost investment."¹⁷ The deprivation of resources to girls is most acutely witnessed among the poor. The public- private dichotomy thus explains in part why girls are educated at rates far less than boys, why women's literacy falls behind men's, and why sex ratios in certain areas fall drastically below the norm of 1.022 women to men.¹⁸

According to Sen, in family behavior, inequalities between women and men (and between girls and boys), are often accepted as natural or appropriate. Sometimes the operational decisions relating to these inequalities (e. g. providing more health care or nutritional attention to boys vis- a vis girls) are undertaken and executed through the agency of women themselves. The perceived justness of such inequalities and the absence of any contrary sense of deep injustice play a major part in the operation and survival of these arrangements. This is not the only field in which the survival of extra ordinary inequality is based on making 'allies' out of those who have most to lose of such arrangements. It is, therefore, important to scrutinize the under-lying concepts of justice and injustice, and to seek a confrontation between theory and practice.¹⁹

A closer look at the family reveals that in many parts of the world, girls are fed less well than boys, less frequently taken to the doctor when ill, less well educated, less well protected from violence, all this if they are permitted to survive infancy in the first place. To reveal these facts, new methods needed to be devised.²⁰

The status of women in a society is measured in terms of educational level, income level, employment as well as the various roles played by them in the family, society and the community. Indian women's status, role and their problems are linked to the history and traditional social system of the country. Women constitute half of the population, yet they are not treated on par with men in many aspects of life. Though so many years have passed since we have achieved independence, women are yet in the grip of conventional roles. In our country, women usually have been linked to home and hearth. This has traditionally resulted in their economic dependence, social neglect and political ignorance which in their turn have prevented women to attain their due place in the society.21

In family behavior, inequalities between men and women (and between boys and girls), are often accepted as 'natural' or 'appropriate' (even though typically not explicitly discussed). Sometimes the operational decisions relating to these inequalities (e.g. providing more health care or nutritional attention to boys vis- a- vis girls) are undertaken and executed through the agency of women themselves.²² Although, in Rajbanshi society, the above mentioned situation was different before 1934- 1935 A. D, before the Kshatriya movement, under the leadership of Thakur Panchanan

¹⁵ Boserup, Ester. 1970: *Women's Role in Economic Development.* New York: St. Martin's Press. p. 9.

¹⁶ Chiang, May. K. 2005: 'Women's Empowerment Vs Women in Power – Gender Inequality and Political Representation in Asia'. Public Policy Program: Standford University. p. 9.

¹⁷ Sen, Amartya. 1999: *Development as Freedom.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. p. 106.

¹⁸ Cited from Chiang, May. K. 2005: Women's Empowerment Vs Women in Power – Gender Inequality and Political Representation in Asia'. Public Policy Program: Standford University.

¹⁹ Sen, Amartya. 1995: 'Gender Inequality and Theories of Justice' in *Women, Culture and Development*, Martha Nussbum and Jeff Glover (eds.). Oxford: Clarendon Press. p. 206.

²⁰ Nussbaum, Martha. 1979: 'Cultivating Humanity: A Classical Defence of Reform in Leberal Education' in *Women's Studies*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. p.188.

²¹ Bhattacharyya, Ghosh. Moumita. 2001: 'Gender and Discrimination: The Case of the Rajbanshi women', published in the journal *Voice of Dalit*. Vol. 4(2). I have discussed elaborately.

²² Sen, Amartya.1995: 'Gender Inequality and Theories of Justice' in Women, Culture and Development, Martha Nussbum and Jeff Glover (eds), Oxford: Clarenden Press. p.260.

Burman took off. Female autonomy was observed at its best. My conversation with Dr. Deepak Kumar Roy²³ and consultation of various literatures has revealed that the Rajbanshi society observed various traits of matrilineal society. Firstly, in this society folk deities are predominant. Female gods are worshiped from ancient times; where as the number of male gods are very few. One of their major deities is 'ma monosha' or locally termed as 'Bishohori'. Secondly, in this society, widow remarriage was there from primeval time (which is also a prominent trait of tribal society). Thirdly, during marriage 'bride price' was taken and the groom used to come and stay with the bride's family. And finally, customs and rituals regarding a Rajbanshi marriage used to be controlled and observed by a female member of the society called 'dhani buri' or 'adhani buri'. Thus from a very primitive age, female members of the society used to administer various important issues inside and outside the households equally and aptly. Therefore, female dominance was there in this society from olden ages. As because, female members enjoyed a great deal of authority in the socio- economic and sociocultural sphere, the need for education was not considered an important criteria, which can enhance their power or authority.

Whether, gender discrimination was prevalent in this society before the advent of the Kshatriya movement is not very clear. With the advent of the Kshatriya movement under the leadership of Thakur Panchanan Burman, the traits of a matrilineal society gradually started to fade away and patriarchal norms slow but steadily came into existence following the foot steps of the caste Hindu society. Under the patriarchal influence the Rajbanshi society easily fell prey to those issues as gender disparity, female exploitation (at various levels), dowry, etc. Therefore, the marriage rituals which used to be performed under the authorization of a female member of the community called 'dhani buri' or 'adhani buri' was replaced by the priest called 'odhikari'.24 Widow remarriage was no more performed. The male members started to put on 'sacred threads' following the Hindu Brahmins and claimed themselves to be Kshatriyas by performing 'thread wearing ceremony'. Female authority gradually started to fade away and they began to be confined within the households, following the 'bhadramahilas' of the caste Hindu gentry.

Ester Boserup, in her book 'Women's Role in Economic Development' (1970) has argued that in changing industrial societies, women faced further marginalization than increased freedom. The introduction of new agricultural technologies in developing countries leads to greater yields, shifting agriculture from the subsistence level to market production. Specialization in market production became mandatory in order to maximize efficiency of production. When specialization is decided upon comparative advantage, those who have greater decision making power, autonomy and higher degree of education, will assume authority over market activities. In almost all societies around the world, culture and tradition dictate that these individuals are men. Thus, gender is inherent in participation of tasks for who will perform what kind of work.

In Rajbanshi society, women enjoy rights to make decisions regarding child education, and societal norms like attending any ceremonial activities, selecting gifts, participating in any political activities, taking part in Self Help Group etc. There are good numbers of female artisans in Chauhaddi mouza, like, biri binders. Though these women exercise some rights at the familial or societal level, they are mostly deprived from their parental heritance. In majority of the cases, they do not enjoy rights to spend household earnings. In case of their own earnings, they enjoy some freedom.²⁵

The categories of occupation undertaken by the Rajbanshi women are: cultivators; agricultural laborers; mining, guarrying, livestock, fishing, plantation etc; industry; manufacturing other household than household industry; construction, etc. However, most of their occupations depend upon the availability of employment opportunity at a particular point of time. Moreover, most of them are unskilled. Rajbanshi women have to work more hours than their male counter parts and most of the time their labor goes unpaid. The gender division of labour tends to be seen as natural and indisputable, in fact, these ideas and practices are socially constructed. Gender divisions of labour are not necessarily rigidly defined in terms of men's and women's roles, as is sometimes assumed. Often, the accepted norm regarding gender divisions varies from the actual practice. However, roles typically designated as female are almost invariably less valued than those designated as male. Women are generally expected to full fill the reproductive role of bearing and raising children, caring for other family members, and household management tasks, as well as home based production. Men tend to be more associated with productive roles, particularly paid work, and market production. In the labour market, although women's overall participation rates are rising, they tend to be confined to a relatively narrow range of occupations or concentrated in lower grades than men, usually earning less. Historically, women's productive roles have been ignored or under-valued, particularly in the informal sector and subsistence agriculture.

²³ Dr. Deepak Kumar Roy teaches at the Department of Bengali in North Bengal University and an eminent researcher. His area of interests is folk culture and linguistics.

²⁴ My conversation with Dr. Deepak Kumar Roy availed me with the related information. I have dealt with the matter extensively in Bhattacharyya, Ghosh. Moumita. 2001: 'Gender and Discrimination: The Case of the Rajbanshi women', published in the journal Voice of Dalit. Vol. 4(2).

²⁵ In my piece Bhattacharyya Ghosh, Moumita, 'Gender and Discrimination: The Case of the Rajbanshi women', published in the journal *Voice of Dalit.* Vol. 4(2). 2001, I have discussed elaborately.

IV. CONCLUSION

Though attainments in terms of health, education and earnings are crucial for a dignified life, the ability to take charge of one's own destiny requires something more than that. Emphasizing the significance of agency, Sen has argued: 'Persons must enter the moral counting by others not only as people whose wellbeing demands concern, but also as people whose responsible agency must be recognized'.²⁶ While the women's movement has moved ahead from the initial 'welfarist' concerns about women's well- being to the question of women's agency. In such a framework, women are no longer seen as passive recipients of welfare- enhancing assistance, but are seen as active agents of change.²⁷ Gender relations in Rajbanshi community, within and outside the households, are generally perceived to be more equitable than in many other parts of the country.²⁸ In societies facing the challenges of modernization and possible integration into other dominant cultures (in this case caste Hindu Bengali culture), there is generally a strong emphasis on preserving a real or imagined 'pure', 'indigenous' culture. In such sharply polarized discourses on identity and culture women's rights and concerns are often relegated to the background. Disintegration of traditional family systems of the SCs in general and Rajbanshi community in particular, formalization of indigenous cultural and religious practices, migrations from different parts of the country, education, mass entertainment, media exposure and external cultural influences have been influencing gender relations in the areas under studv.

So far as gender gap in literacy is concerned, it is only in the recent past that the learned persons of the Rajbanshi society has realized the importance, necessity and relevance of girls' education in particular and over all progress of education in general.It is education and only education which can develop a person's personality, make him/her socially adjustable, financially sound, and useful for the society- an all round development. A major portion of the Rajbanshi women are active members in Self Help Groups (SHGs)²⁹, which is a project under government sponsored Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY)³⁰. This has encouraged women to take decisions inside out the households, handle micro credits, work in groups and enhance their self esteem. Unless an until our women folk are aware of their rights and duties and encourage other women to get involved in these empowerment activities, get themselves educated and able to demand for equality in a male dominated society, the overall progress of a nation will not be possible. A literate mother will always try and make sure that her children. especially the girl child gets educated. It is only through education that ignorance can be destroyed. Though there are various socio- economic factors which are responsible for low female literacy rate, but it is also on the part of women themselves, who should try hard to bridge the gap.

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²⁷ Sen, A. 1995: 'Agency and well- being: the development agenda'. In N. Heyzar, S. Kapoor & J. Sadler (Eds), *A Commitment to the World's Women*. Washington, DC: Unifem.

²⁸ Although, recent scholarship has cast doubts on such generalizations (Xaxa, 2004).

²⁹ SHG: It is a voluntary association of 10- 15 members predominantly from the same socio- economic background. Initially each member has to contribute an amount to their respective group corpus regularly. After at least six months from the formation of the group, each SHG has to appear in a gradation test. After passing the test, the group becomes eligible for the revolving fund.

³⁰ SGSY: It is a government- sponsored micro- finance programme, is perhaps the largest of its kind in the world. The scheme aims at the formation of a large number of microenterprices in rural areas through the intervention of Gram Panchayats by establishing a large number of Self help groups (SHGs).

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Abbreviations

- GDI Gender Development Indices
- GEM Gender Empowerment measure
- HDI Human Development Indices
- NFHS National Family Health Survey
- NSS National Sample Survey
- UNDP United Nations Development Programme
- OBCs Other Backward classes
- SCs Scheduled Castes
- STs Scheduled Tribes
- SGSY Swarnjayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana
- SRS Sample Registration Survey (SRS)
- NFHS National Family Health Survey
- SHGs Self Help Groups

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- Fundamental goal
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