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HIGHLIGHTS

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Transport Data Integration



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CONTENTS OF THE VOLUME

- i. Copyright Notice
- ii. Editorial Board Members
- iii. Chief Author and Dean
- iv. Table of Contents
- v. From the Chief Editor's Desk
- vi. Research and Review Papers
 1. Men's Adamancy vs. Women's Fidelity; An Anthropological Analysis of Men's Perception Regarding Women's Empowerment in Pakhtun Society. *1-7*
 2. The Political Economy of the New Slave Trade in Africa. *9-14*
 3. Reform, Economic Growth, and the Poverty Question in Africa. *15-22*
 4. The Expansion Input – Output Tables. *23-31*
 5. Health and Child Development paradox: Findings from Raipur Slums. *33-41*
 6. The Utility of Geographic Information System (GIS) in Transport Data Integration for Economic Development: Evidence from Ibadan, Nigeria. *43-51*
 7. The Dress Code for Lawyers: In Search of Change with Climatic Compatibility in Bangladesh. *53-60*
- vii. Auxiliary Memberships
- viii. Process of Submission of Research Paper
- ix. Preferred Author Guidelines
- x. Index



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Men's Adamancy vs. Women's Fidelity; An Anthropological Analysis of Men's Perception Regarding Women's Empowerment in Pakhtun Society

By Dr. Arab Naz , Waseem Khan , Umar Daraz , Mohammad Hussain, Irum Mughal
& Dr. Anwar Alam
University of Malakand, Pakistan

Abstract - The current study is an anthropological analysis of men's perception towards women's empowerment based on quantitative and qualitative approach. Chakdara town of District Dir (Lower), Khyber Pakhtunkhawa, Pakistan was ethnographically selected and a survey of 4564 households has been analyzed which was conducted during the PhD field study in 2008, where data was collected through semistructured interview schedule from a total of 100 respondents including religious scholars, educated males and females. Besides, the researchers have enumerated the issue under the extensive study pertaining relevant communal and global literature dealing with Pakhtun culture with a theoretical framework including Gender and Development Model and Women Empowerment Forum.

Keywords : *perception, empowerment, patriarchy, pakhtunwali, gender, obstacles.*

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Men's Adamancy vs. Women's Fidelity; An Anthropological Analysis of Men's Perception Regarding Women's Empowerment in Pakhtun Society

Dr. Arab Naz^α, Waseem Khan^σ, Umar Daraz^ρ, Mohammad Hussain^ϙ, Irum Mughal[¥] & Dr. Anwar Alam[§]

Abstract - The current study is an anthropological analysis of men's perception towards women's empowerment based on quantitative and qualitative approach. Chakdara town of District Dir (Lower), Khyber Pakhtunkhawa, Pakistan was ethnographically selected and a survey of 4564 households has been analyzed which was conducted during the PhD field study in 2008, where data was collected through semi-structured interview schedule from a total of 100 respondents including religious scholars, educated males and females. Besides, the researchers have enumerated the issue under the extensive study pertaining relevant communal and global literature dealing with Pakhtun culture with a theoretical framework including Gender and Development Model and Women Empowerment Forum. The study highlights the negative perception of men among Pakhtun as a major obstacle in women's empowerment.

Keywords : perception, empowerment, patriarchy, pakhtunwali, gender, obstacles.

I. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Since, the emergence of human species on this universe, their lives and existence are being a gendered classified observations and studies (Naz and Rehman, 2011). Biological factors play a vital role in division of humanity into two categories, e.g. male and female; however, it is social experience, cultural conditioning, and socialization process, which assigns certain tasks to male and female (Goldberg, 1974, Naz, 2011). This disparity between male and female is both biological and learned while it is not restricted to a single culture or area (Chaudhiy and Nosheen, 2009). Division of labor is highly dominated by cultural environment rather than biological factors because there is no such

Similarly, the perception and behavioral pattern of male and female has a varying nature depending upon socio- historical evidence, which illuminates that every culture has similar division of labor (McEwan, 2003; Naz, et al, 2012). cultural environment (CGE, 2000). Studies show that cultural conditioning plays a dominant role in defining social roles of male and female (Mead, 1930). Similarly, male dominance in their perception has also been supported by anthropologists and link it to universal condition (Harris, 1977), while some studies support the subordination of female as hidden in the social fabric (Goldberg, 1974; Kongolo and Bamgose, 2002). However, both of the arguments have been supported by evidences from the history and what the case maybe, discrimination in human practices and treatment of female exists and mostly in developing countries, women suffer a lot, both at the domestic and private spheres of life (Khan, 2011, and Khan and Naz, 2012).

Similarly, if we peep into research studies conducted on gender based differences, the perception of male counterpart is playing a dominant role where specifically the negative male perception is regarded as the most damaging element in women's empowerment (Longwe, 2000, Jiyane and Mostert, 2008; Naz, 2011 and Daraz, 2012). There is an evident relationship between males' perception and women's empowerment in all societies and the empowerment of women has been recognized as basic human right (Al-Lamky, 2004). Research of the scholars (Kabeer, 1999; Fonjong, 2001; Bartlett, 2008) strongly support the participation of both male and female in the development process and it is believed that males' positive perception towards women's participation at the grass-root level paints a true picture of the empowerment. In this regard Oakley (1991) adds weight to the argument and asserts that participation and positive attitude can assist in provision of support to the disadvantaged people and enhance their development. Similarly, Fonjong (2001) believes that participation and attitudinal acceptance of male and female are the pre-requisites for genuine empowerment in general as well as women in particular. In addition, scholars argue that

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empowerment is a multidimensional and complex process based upon both the physical and psychological acceptance of the community members including both male and female (Kabeer, 1999; Malhotra, Schuler and Boender, 2002; Mosedale, 2005).

The perception and psychological pathway of the empowerment according to Kabeer (1999) is the expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them. Moreover, Mosedale (2005) stresses that women's empowerment redefines and extends what is possible for them to be, however in most of the situations, they have been restricted through negative perceptions by their male counterparts (Naz, 2011). At the global level in general and in most of the developing countries in particular, there is disparity between the status of male and female which is attributed to the negative perception of men (Khan and Naz, 2011). The decision making process and the opportunity to determine the course of their destiny on issues pertaining their employment, health, education, politics and other related aspects of their development are obstructed by the system of patriarchy, male dominance and conservative attitudes of the people (Naz and Rahman, 2011; Naz et al, 2012), which determines the level of women's empowerment.

The discussion made so far leads to an argument that male perception is one of the major driving forces in providing a road map to the empowerment process in most of third world or countries having male dominance and patriarchic social structure governed by traditionalism and conservative ideologies. The current study is an attempt to analyze and evaluate the socio-cultural, political and economic dimensions of women's empowerment with the stance that how it is obliterated by the perceptions of male strata. In the current study, women's discriminated positions have been focused in relations to majority of male perception that how they view and analyze the position of women with regard to their overall empowerment and analyses of the various aspects are judged with all the possible factors including traditions, male dominance, religious norms and values, political power structure and even with the liberal and conservative strata of the people.

II. THE ARGUMENT

Perception in psychological literature refers to the organization, identification and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment. However, we can mold and divert the same for male and female as they interpret and respond to one another in a different way. Factors, including both biological and social, play a dominant role in shaping the perceptions of both male and female, but the socio-cultural conditions as argued

by Goldberg (1974) are playing a vital role in shaping gender perception. The current research is an attempt to explore the negative perception of male regarding women's empowerment in *Pakhtun* society. However, the social structure of *Pakhtun* society is patriarchic where women mostly reside within ideological domain of four walls, which is said to be her religious as well as moral space (Naz and Rahman, 2011).

There are two types of perceptions regarding women's empowerment found in research area, i.e. old traditional approach (which is an outcome of long historic process and cultural conditioning) that restricts female only to domestic life and modern one (which is an outcome of social change and modernization) that wants to bring balance between male and female at both domestic and public levels (Naz, 2011). The phenomenon of empowerment means to provide opportunity of decision-making to women, to work for their improvement and sustenance, however, it has differently been perceived by local people. Usually male members do not talk about issues and problems of women in public and they mostly bury serious issues, i.e. honor killing and other pre-marital relations under carpet. Issues of women's education remain controversial and different attitudes towards its attainment are adopted. In addition, caste and ethnic differences also shape the perception of people in respect to their ethnic affiliations.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To explore the males' perception towards women's educational empowerment
- To pinpoint people's perception regarding women's economic empowerment
- To analyze males' perception regarding women's political empowerment

IV. ASSUMPTION OF THE STUDY

Women's educational, economic and political empowerment is directly associated with males' perception among Pakhtuns

V. METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The current study is a blend of quantitative and qualitative approach towards the events and issues related to males' perception regarding women's empowerment in different spheres of life including education, economy and politics. With respect to the mentioned purpose; the researchers have ethnographically selected *Chakdara* town of District Dir (Lower), *Khyber Pakhtunkhawa*, Pakistan as a focus of research. In this connection, a survey of 4564 households has been analyzed which was conducted during the PhD field study in 2008, where data was

collected through semi-structured interview schedule from a total of 100 respondents including religious scholars, educated males and females (having qualification up-to graduation and above) and *Jirga* members of the community. Besides, the researchers have enumerated the issue under the extensive study pertaining relevant communal and global literature dealing with *Pakhtun* culture.

The current study has been framed under two developmental models i.e. Gender and Development model and Women Empowerment Forum (WEE, 2005; Oberhauser, and Pratt, 2004). Similarly theoretical support has been obtained from studies and scholarships in the field i.e. Mathaulula (2008), Parpart, et al, (2000:52), Boserup (1970), Alinsky's (1971) which deal with the idea of women's power, social relations, power relations, economic and political development (UNICEF, 1994; Saiyid, 2001). Besides, the emergence of the phrase 'women in development (WID)', dependency Marxists stances of Frank (1969, 1979) and Amin (1974) provide a direction to the current study in terms of exploitation of women while the WAD (Women and Development) move the matrix towards meeting the challenges of patriarchic world for women's social integration (Parpart, 1989; Zaman, 2000). However, the study has been finally supported by the GAD as adopted by Moser (1989) who focuses on either of the needs of men and women and by Molyneux (1985) and Haq (2000) for both practical and strategic gender needs. In order to change women's status, the need is to change women's position and that requires to address the way gender determine power, status, and control over all the resources.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results and discussion of the study have been made under various headings as suitable and

VII. PERCEPTION REGARDING WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL EMPOWERMENT

Perception Regarding Educational Empowerment	Level of Agreement		N=100
	Disagree	Agree	Total
Perception about Women's enrollment	15%	85%	100%
Availability of institution	20%	80%	100%
Women's education is considered as social stigma	08%	92%	100%
Source of liberalism	14%	86%	100%
Negative effects on prevailing Purdah system	19%	81%	100%
Creation of liberal and secular ideas	10%	90%	100%
Chi-square = 5.324	Significance = 0.000**		Lambda = 0.35
			Gamma = 0.030

($P=.000^{**} < .05$ there is highly significance relationship between perception and women's educational empowerment, ($\chi^2 = 5.324, D.f=7$)

In addition, the chi-square test is applied to test the proposed hypothetical statement, the numerical value of the mentioned test equate ($P=.000^{**} < .05$ there is highly significant relationship between people perception and women's educational empowerment, $\chi^2 = 5.324, D.f=7$). The value of chi-square test expresses

inaccordance to the objectives and theoretical framework of the study.

a) Perception Regarding Women's Educational Empowerment

The field information about women's educational empowerment reflects very pathetic condition in the research. The overall scenario regarding female enrollment is discouraging in the area as the collected information depicts. There are various kinds of perceptions associated with female education in the area that reflect the mindset and level of understanding of local people. The data shows that a major chunk of males perceive that formal education for female is against the cultural traditions where they favor domestic and informal religious education for women. They argue that female education negatively affects cultural norms and traditional set-up and education (particularly school education) to them is a source of independence and liberalism, which brings change in role of women, i.e. in domestic domain. In this connection, women shall remain inside home (*Pa Kore Ke*) as wife (*Khaza*), sister (*Khore*) and mother (*More*) because women's mobility for educational purposes is regarded as a social stigma. In addition, information reflects that it brings changes in the prevailing *Purdah* system, which then becomes source for women's liberation. Resultantly, women's education is perceived as a source of modernity, which in turn brings liberal and secular ideas to community while such types of ideas are not good for females and are a threat to family's honor.

highly significant association and relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Further, the Lambda and Gamma authenticates and proves the proposed hypothesis at the confidence interval of ($\alpha=.05$).

Correlation

		Educational Empowerment	People Perception
Educational Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	1	0.985**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
People Perception	Pearson Correlation	.985**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

***Correlation is highly significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), r (100) =0.985**; p<.01. r²=0.97 (Since 97% of the variance is shared, the association is obviously a strong one)*

The correlation further authenticates the results in manner (**Correlation is highly significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), r (100) =0.985**; p<.01. r²=0.97, since 97% of the variance is shared, the association is obviously a strong one.

b) Perception about Women's Employment and Income

Male among Pakhtuns are the ultimate earners who dominate most of income-generating activities and at times, they negatively perceive women's income and employment. The ratio of women's employment in formal sector is negligible; however, females perform minor jobs related to knitting, embroidery, tailoring and other activities to earn for their survival.

Pakhtuns as the rigid and self centered segment strongly condemn women's participation in

economic activities and refer it to as a stigmatizing act. Women's mobility for the sack of earning is extremely abhorred and dealt negatively. The overall males' perception among Pakhtuns reflects that women's employed status is abominable that is perceived as a threat to the communal solidarity and social structure. Furthermore, the centuries old customs and traditions of Pakhtun social organization declare that women's economic involvement is the violation of cultural norms and values that are insatiable to be tolerated. The empirical information patently show that almost all the Pakhtuns have a firm belief that the economy, income generation and earning for the survival and support of family is the task of males while female must live inside the four walls and should take care of the household activities such as cooking, washing, knitting and caring of the children.

VIII. PERCEPTION REGARDING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Perception Regarding Women's Economic Empowerment	Level of Agreement		N=100 Total
	Disagree	Agree	
Stigmatizing family's honor	22%	78%	100%
Women's involvement in economic activities	12%	82%	100%
Women's employed status	15%	85%	100%
Women's domestic involvement	09%	91%	100%
Women's employment is against cultural norms	11%	89%	100%
Economy is male responsibility	21%	79%	100%
Chi-square = 5.786	Significance = 0.000**	Lambda = 0.24	Gamma = 0.020

*(P=.000** < .05 there is highly significance relationship between people perception and women's economic empowerment, (χ² = 5.786, D.f=07)*

Further, The Bivariate is used with the help of chi-square test in order to test the hypothesis. The values of chi-square test (P=.000** < .05 there is highly significant relationship between people perception and women's economic empowerment, (χ² = 5.786,

D.f=07) at the confidence interval of (α=.05) shows that there is strong association and correlation between the perception of people and women's economic empowerment.

Correlation

		Economic Empowerment	People Perception
Economic Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	1	0.945**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
People Perception	Pearson Correlation	.945**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

*(**Correlation is highly significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), r (100) =0.945**; p<.01. r²=0.89 (Since 89% of the variance is shared, the association is obviously a strong one)*

The correlation further validates the results as (**Correlation is highly significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), $r(100) = 0.945^{**}$; $p < .01$. $r^2 = 0.89$, since 89% of the variance is shared, the association is obviously a strong one).

a) Perception about Political Empowerment

On political level, people are generally ignorant having no such political awareness that lead their perception towards negativity in terms of women's politics. The political set-up, both formal and informal is male dominated and they have hold over both local and district political system. Traditionally, they perceive political system as one of important kind of rival groups system, i.e. they are *Tarboors* (agnatic rivals) to one another where women's participation in this regard intensify the familial rivalries.

Women's politics in the area is related to reproduction of liberalism among the masses that

according to the Pakhtun codes is blasphemous for communal integrity. In addition, political hold is considered as a source of hegemonic power generation, which in turn is the task of men among Pakhtuns. Information of research shows that there are also negative repercussions of males and majority of males perceive political participation of women as against *Pakhtun* code of life and religious teachings. Traditions of area restrict women's mobility and do not support female politics. *Pakhtunwali* overshadows women lives and only allow them to tackle and shoulder responsibilities of domestic domain. They perceive that women involvement will disturb domestic life, familial and personal identity of women. Not only cultural values, but most of males perceive that women have no such provision of politics in Islam. In this regard, the real place of women is home (*Kore*) and they must reside there till end of their life (*Marg*).

IX. PERCEPTION REGARDING WOMEN'S POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT

Cultural Constraints	Level of Agreement		N=100
	Disagree	Agree	Total
Politically ignorant	23%	77%	100%
Politics is male dominated	14%	86%	100%
Women's politics create familial rivalry	19%	81%	100%
Politics reproduce liberalism	20%	80%	100%
Politics generate hegemonic power	16%	84%	100%
Women's politics is against traditions and religion	10%	90%	100%
Women's politics disturbs domestic domain	11%	89%	100%
Chi-square= 2.34, Significance=.000**	Lambda= .026		Gamma=.1

($P = .000^{**} < .05$ there is highly significance relationship people perception and women's political empowerment, ($\chi^2 = 2.34$, D.f. =7)

With respect to the mentioned observations and analysis of different variables in different tables along-with the strong support of respondents and the application of Chi Square test authenticate the proposed hypothesis. The results of the applied test palpably show that the independent variables are in a strong

connection and association with dependant variable. The value of chi-square test is ($P = .000^{**} < .05$, with the Chi-square value $\chi^2 = 2.34$ and the degree of freedom value D.f. =7, Lambda, .026; Gamma, .011) shows highly significant association among the independent and dependant variable.

		Political Empowerment	People Perception
Political Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	1	0.932**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
People Perception	Pearson Correlation	.0932**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

(**Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), $r(100) = 0.932^{**}$; $p < .01$. $r^2 = 0.87$) (Since 86% of the variance is shared, the association is obviously a strong one)

Further the correlation technique validates the result in a manner that (**Correlation is highly significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), $r(100) = .0956$; $p < .01$. $r^2 = 0.932$, since 87% of the variance is shared, the association is obviously a strong one), which conclude that people in the area have negative perception regarding women's political empowerment.

X. CONCLUSION

In order to conclude the research, the ethnographic details about women's empowerment and male perception are very much obvious and clear from discussion that females among Pakhtuns have no such sources for empowerment in respect of education,

employment, economy and politics. They have been deprived of their basic and fundamental rights that in collaboration with the traditional structure suppress their empowerment. Besides, local people perceive women's empowerment as an evil and a kind of liberalism and that will disturb not only familial life but in large would destroy the social structure of the area. However, few of the males perceive women's education and political empowerment as compulsory for women's self empowerment, decision-making and other familial issues but there is no such overt discussion and these voices are curbed under *Pakhtunwali*, traditionalism and religious misperception. Thus, it is crucial that women as the fundamental members of community afford the chance to make inputs regarding their real needs. Failure to involve women in issues of their empowerment impacts negatively on their advancement and also retards the growth of the communities they reside in. Women's empowerment in this regard is primarily apprehended through the negative perception of their males' counterparts towards their educational, economic and political stability.

XI. RECOMMENDATIONS

This research study highlights the fact that children, youth, women, men and community leaders have considerable knowledge on women's empowerment issues. Such knowledge must be properly harnessed and deployed to develop interventions that address women's empowerment issues. The empirical findings of the research demonstrates that creating platforms where children, youth, men, women and leaders collectively deliberate on societal problems could lead to better and more comprehensive understanding. Such understanding might lead to improved social cohesion which is a fundamental primer and determinant of sustainable community development. This confirms the need for policy makers to meaningfully engage and respect the views of a broader range of community members on issues that affect their livelihoods.

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The Political Economy of the New Slave Trade in Africa

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Abstract - A macro analysis of various inquiry into the nature and causes of Africa's crises may revealed a continent placed on perpetual slavery. From trans-Atlantic slave trade to colonialism; from colonialism to flag independence and Neo Colonialism; from trade imperialism to human trafficking; from the rampaging momentum of globalization to erosion of Africa culture and communal morality; from 'Tokunbo' Syndrome and currencies; Africa seems to be on a verge of internationally inspired perpetual servitude. The costs of these old and modern vices are enormous and the task of salvaging them is not less so. While the paper exposes the two divides, it goes to argue that, the actualization of the New International Economic Order (NIEO) remain a must for Africa as a continent, if she must survive the present socio- economic and political disempowerment eating deep to her efforts at meeting aims and objectives of the millennium Development Goods (MDG).

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The Political Economy of the New Slave Trade in Africa

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Abstract - A macro analysis of various inquiry into the nature and causes of Africa's crises may revealed a continent placed on perpetual slavery. From trans-Atlantic slave trade to colonialism; from colonialism to flag independence and Neo Colonialism; from trade imperialism to human trafficking; from the rampaging momentum of globalization to erosion of Africa culture and communal morality; from 'Tokunbo' Syndrome and America Lottery to the debt burden and fall of Africa currencies; Africa seems to be on a verge of internationally-inspired perpetual servitude. The costs of these old and modern vices are enormous and the task of salvaging them is not less so. While the paper exposes the two divides, it goes to argue that, the actualization of the New International Economic Order (NIEO) remain a must for Africa as a continent, if she must survive the present socio- economic and political disempowerment eating deep to her efforts at meeting aims and objectives of the millennium Development Goods (MDG).

I. INTRODUCTION

Slavery is by no means new. Neither is brain drain a new culture or invention. King (1998:27), maintained that there has been an institution of domestic slavery which later become "commercialized, internationalized and racialized," Africa on this note, remains one of the unfortunate race, degraded and segregated in the comity of nations. The examination of political economy of the new slave trade and brain drain in Africa offers a veritable mode of analysis of grasping the context within which socio-economic and political forces globally operates in Africa states.

It is therefore, the objectives of this paper to present the chronicles of the means and methods of the consistent enslavement of African nation, This, we expect, will expose a line of social system of production, the economic relations between people in the process of production, the understanding of the material production in African societies and the construction of their social forces and classes.

II. THEORETICAL ISSUES

The study of international political economy (IPE) has become a dynamic and expanding area of study in recent years. From initial rather narrow focus on

the relationship between state power and decision making in the context of constraint imposed by the economic environment, IPE has expanded to include the activities of multinational corporations, the influence on state policy of military industrial complexes, the role of international organizations in the international economy and the problems of world debt and development as Adeleke (2003:155) puts it.

The traditional meaning of the term political economy is that branch of the art of government concerned with the systematic inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations, but Ajayi (2002:81) argues that political economy as a theoretical framework has developed beyond the contributions of classical theorists like Adam Smith, Malthus, Ricardo, Mills and others. The same author posits that "concerns of the discipline are now seen in relation to changes in the nature of the socio-economic structure within which it is operating and the practical material and intellectual problems that were thrown up within it".

While Ajayi (Ibid) examines critically the popular Marx explanation of political economy as different from the classical economist, he sees it as an analytical model for the study of the sum total of the relations of production and the economic structure of society, Banwo (1999) goes further to consider the works of Engel and Popov among others to explain political economy from scientific stand points; having realized the framework of analysis, its nature and the methodology of political economy. He conceptualizes it as a science which deals with economic laws governing production, exchange and distribution of wealth at various stages of the evolution of human society and that it studies social relationship between people in the process of production. As he puts it, it equally looks at the nature of political power in a given human society, the class content and character of the state and the influence of the state on the economy.

The above assertion has exposed the undeniable relationship between the economy of a given state and the socio- economic strata or classes that abide within the people of that state. Marxist- Leninist political economy studies the social side of production rather than its technical side (which is the subject of the nature and technical sciences). It does not examine material production as much, but the social relation of the people concerning production, the social system of production including the relations of distribution,

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exchange and consumption; that is, relations in all the phases of the reproduction of material values. For example, what is the social relations and economic gauge between the slaves and slave master's in a mode of production.

The above clarification throws up the nature of various connection and interaction with the development of production forces and its economic basis; the exploitation of the working people, the contradictions between labour and capital, the history of development from lower stages of social production to its higher stages. Above all, it exposes how the whole course of historical development paves the way for the triumph of socialism and communism and its present decline.

The immediate beneficiary of the demise of communism is, expectedly, capitalism. Essentially, capitalism has placed Africa at a 'rear' in a competitive market economy, the result of which is continued and consistent socio-economic and political dependency of Africa on the first world, giving rise to further enslavement and pauperization of the African continent.

III. SLAVERY IN AFRICA: RE-VISITING THE OLD ORDER

The dominant place of the state in the economic process of Africa was historically determined (Mimiko 2002:83). This started with the emergence of Atlantic slave trade. Human beings of colour were the primary commodities of the slave trade. British became an early supporter of Africa slave trade. The famous Royal Africa company was formed in 1672 and the company was authorized not only to export English goods to West Africa but more importantly, it was encouraged to supply the American colonies with African slaves (King, opcit:30)

From then, slavery became both a major racial and economic issue of international politics, where the Belgians, Dutch, French, Portuguese, Prussians and Spaniards all struggled for a share of the trade. The trade variously described as a first world wide commerce flourished for over four centuries and laid the foundation of the new industrial system. Dubois, in his work "The suppression of the African slave trade" noted that the Royal African Company shipped about 60, 000 slaves from 1688 of whom over 14,000, died at sea. Since then, there has been an unconfirmed claim that over 100 million people were carted away from Africa, but Offiong (Ibid) claimed that between 15th and 16th century, the African continent lost in enslavement and killings between 65 and 75 million people.

One should note with great sadness, that the whooping population are in their productive ages, between 12-49 years, a very vital part of population, leaving the aged, children, the lame and sick. Onimode (1983:25) captured the scourge when he described it as follows:

This depopulation, mostly of adult and women in their prime, represented enormous loss of productive capacity. The reconstruction of the associated destruction also wasted productive resources. A measure of this loss is the huge wealth which this expropriated black population created to make the united states of America the richest country in the world today. That is the meaning of capitalism and slavery (Onimode, 1983:25).

The abolition of slave trade between 1772 and 1850 was not out of good intentions but that it had become an obstacle to a more lucrative trade in manufactured goods and quest for Africans primary products, which they called legitimate trade. The free trade here set the stage for yet another mode of social production, a kind of free trade imperialism (Omimode (Ibid).

IV. COLONIALISM AND THE IMPERIALISM OF FREE TRADE

Those who have identified imperialism as the higher stage of capitalism (Lenin, Hobson, Roger, 1976) and the inevitable result of foreign investment agree that the historical occupation of Africa was done for economic advantages. Rodney; (1972:179) wrote extensively on expatriation of Africa surplus under colonialism and the colonial Administration as economic exploiter, maintaining that the colonial state engaged directly in the economic exploitation and impoverishment of Africa.

This colonial legacy was listed by Ake (2001) as one factor that contributed to the apparent failure of the developmental enterprise in Africa. According to Ake (Ibid: 2), the colonial state redistributed land and determined who should produce what and how. Its attempt at supplying labour, sometimes resorting to forced labour, went into the business education to ensure that workers could do the jobs they were required to do. The colonial government made the colonies to produce the commodities they needed and resold back to the colonies in the price they equally dictated

Offiong (opcit:54) associated imperialism with monopolistic privileges and preferences, plunder of raw materials, seizure of territory, enslavement of the indigenous population, nationalism and militarism. He insisted that there is a general agreement in associating imperialism with economic, political, cultural and territorial expansion. Onimode (op-cit; 6) placed the expansion on two periods and two crisis. They include the booms of free imperialism of 1870s to 1914 and under multilateral imperialism from 1945 to 1970. The major crisis periods were during 1914-45 under monopolistic imperialism and after 1970 in the era of multilateral imperialism.

Onimode (op-cit:7) further identified five mechanisms of imperialism to include slavery, trade, foreign direct and portfolio investment or capital export, Aid in cash or kind and international institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. These he claimed have been a very powerful mechanism of foreign domination and exploitation. On this note, international capitalism has grown into a world system of colonial and economic oppression and financial strangulation of African continent by the advanced countries.

There has been the greed for maximization of multinational gains, dominating key sectors of their host countries. The ever increasing scientific, technological and the present communication revolutions in Europe, has been converted into a more formidable weapon of such domination and socio-economic oppression of 'non compliance' Africa economic, political and social development. The indigenous comprador bourgeoisie are equally caged, as they have been co-opted, in order to dictate events in their exploitation interest. Till date, the domination is extended to key and critical economic sector like petroleum, mining, manufacturing, banking and insurance, construction, import export trade, transport and communication as well as agriculture (Onimode Op-cit: 142).

Ake (1994:16) discussed Structural Adjustment Programm (SAP) as part of the industrialized countries way of disempowerment of Africa, claiming that multilateral development agencies, i.e. IMF and the world Bank are necessary for third world economies in distress, Ake exposed that African governments are not so convinced of the virtues of SAP, but they are obliged to go along; allowing the deep despair, wide spread malnutrition, unemployment privatization and currency devaluation unabated. (Ajayi (2002:121) saw SAP as major component of the IMF. Discussing variously on the conditionalities to qualify for the IMF credit facilities; a picture of clear further pauperization and perpetual slavery are guaranteed considering the long list of deregulation of almost all facets of socio-economic, political and even social life of so called benefiting countries.

The Bretton woods conference of 1944 on new international economic order, where the issues of free trade, free market and free capital market and the setting up of IMF and world Bank came up, and they are not meant to facilitate economic growth and development to Africa countries despite its under development and dependency structures. Currently Africa in essentially a haven for debt, dumping grounds of junks in form of second hand and out model goods, fake drugs, arms and ammunition for civil strife, toxic wastes and toxic fuel; all directly linked to the western world.

V. AFRICA: A NEO-COLONIAL VICTIM?

Ajayi (Ibid: 124) observed that the few Africa countries that escape colonialism are victims of neo-colonialism, where the third countries are subjected to a thorough exploitation of the resources by the European imperialist. Neo-colonialism, here involves the revision of forms and method of control to maintain old dependency relations.

Africa today, is widely seen as a neo-colonial enterprise. Authors of Africa political economy analysis like Bade Onimode often ascribe Africa independence as mere 'flag independence'. The expectation that political independence would change the situation in Africa has not been fulfilled to any appreciable level. The result, usually, has been continuing alienation of the new ruling 'modernizing' elites from the more traditional masses of the people, and the consequent impairment and lack of legitimacy of the new governments, resulting in loss of self-esteem. There are also many evidences of 'colonial mentality' manifesting in over dependence on 'anything abroad'. As such the post colonial states, become generally weak both economically, politically and military, very unstable and unsecured.

European colonialist merely realizes the expensiveness of direct occupation of Africa, hence they disengaged to indirect control through puppets. This is exemplified in Balewa's style of governance and foreign policy in the first republic in Nigeria and the commonwealth praises for the present hard reforms and deregulations during Nigeria's hosting of the commonwealth Head of government meeting in December 2003 (*Tell* 2003:42). Academically speaking, there is the doctrine of neo-imperialism characterized by control without colonialism (Offiong op-cit: 60). It is also often referred to as the neo-Leninist, or contemporary Marxist theory of imperialism. Leninism analysis had implied that the postponed revolution that Marx had earlier predicted would come after the colonies have become independent, but after the 'flag independence' the new nations found out to their detriment that very little had changed and that they were still being dominated and controlled economically and even politically from the metropole.

It was this experience that led to Nkrumah's (1965) crucial conclusion that underdeveloped countries would not make a forward march towards economic independence, neo-colonialism or neo-imperialism was vanquished. The third All- Africa people's conference held in Cairo in 1961 listed some of the basic manifestations of neo-colonialism as follows.

1. Puppet governments represented by stooges;
2. Balkanization as a deliberate political fragmentation of states by creation of artificial entities;
3. The economic entrenchment of the colonial power;

4. Integrated of Africa into colonial economic blocs which maintained the underdeveloped character of African economy, and,
5. Economic infiltration by a foreign power after independence through capital investments, loans and monetary aids or technical experts of unequal concessions, (among others).

Essentially, by the time of the end of colonial rule and the emergence of the African countries' 'flag' independence, the colonial state had accomplished its basic tasks. A specific variety of capitalism had taken hold as the dominant mode of production; and in the words of Nnoli (1986: 61) "the African population had been intimidated, coerced and manipulated into accepting and even internalizing not merely capitalist values but even the cultural values of the European powers"

The new form of slavery arising from the above description could be summarized from the work of Nnoli (Ibid) as follows:

1. Non-African models of outlook and behaviour in dressing, emigration for higher paying jobs, seeking political asylum, learning more about western world, an erosion of African culture and communal morality.
2. Dependence on external trade and preference for use of foreign resources.
3. Local African production to satisfy European style of consumption at the expense of basic needs of the people.
4. A high propensity to import the manufactured goods and services consumed by Africans.
5. A socio economic compartmentalization of the national economy arising from the economic activities of the foreign companies.

One aspect of neo-colonialism that needs to be mentioned here is the issue of foreign aid to African countries. Foreign aid is defined as foreign assistance provided by government (bilateral assistance) or international agencies (multilateral assistance). Serageldin (1995:13) painted a very good picture of the usefulness of aid as tool for achieving greater welfare of people in the recipient country, but he was objective and magnanimous enough to expose the various arguments against it. As a western writer, he admitted that Aid has failed and does not contribute to promoting development but that there has been continued misery and backwardness. He equally agreed that it promotes dependency in the recipient countries, which never succeeded in relying on themselves, and opined that trade is better than aid in promoting economic growth.

A recent dimension into slavery is human trafficking, forced labour, prostitution and various forms of child abuse in Africa.

VI. GLOBALIZATION AS NEO-COLONIALISM

Globalization is fast becoming a new paradigm of analysis of international political economy. The recurrent question, however, is whether Africa is proportionately integrated to the world economy to compete effectively with developed countries. Regardless of the preparations of Africa, globalization had captured the world in all ramifications; its economic world as capitalism; its politics as democracy and the social interaction as communication.

Held, (2000) sees globalization as the "increasing extent, intensity, velocity and impact of world wide inter-connectedness" Globalization or internationalization on this note, and to a greater extent polarized the world into two, the protagonist of globalization on the one hand and its antagonists on the other. The former are populated by developed countries and the later by the developing countries.

If we consider Net's (1999:22) argument that globalization is an economic process, a financial markets where natural and national borders between people are disappearing and the world is becoming a global village; then it is suffice to say that Africa has made enormous contributions but all the same, lacks the capacity to compete on favourable terms and hence is at the receiving end of the side effects rather than the gains of globalization. On this note, Aina (2003:24) contends that globalization has been a force of inequality and marginalization, and that it has, rather than promoting oneness of the global village, constituted a dividing factor between developed and developing nations of the world.

Holtz (1998:8) agrees that globalization offers many opportunities but that it equally runs the risk of introducing a system of global economic apartheid. This may account for Khor's position that "globalization is what we in the third world here for several centuries called colonization" (Khor; 1995).

The fall out of the above clarification is that the institutions of globalization - the Bretton woods institutions such as IMF, international development Agency (IDA), international Finance corporations (IFC) world Trade Organization (WTO) where developed countries have substantial influence, may further continue to put Africa at a comparative disadvantage. The present high technology and communication network may equally add to the burden of Africa as it has become a rallying point for globalization, which is more or less becoming an irreversible trend. Except Africa revive its human empowerment and technological innovations and development, the present communication surge may permanently banish Africa to the back sit corner of global political, economic and social relations.

VII. BRAIN DRAIN AS A NEW FORM OF SLAVERY

An indirect slavery system, gradually and fashionably eating deep to the 'fabrics' of African human resources has been the ugly trend of Brain Drain. It is coined to mean an escape for better life and greener pastures in the developed world. This variously involves the migration of Africa's trained and qualified professionals and academics to outside world. Ajayi (op-cit: 168) saw it as Trans-national Corporation (TNC) induced high-level educated man power from the host nations to the rich countries. He claimed that about 14, 000 Nigeria medical Doctors who were actually trained in Nigeria are in the United States. It was also estimated that Africa countries has lost some 200, 000 scientists, doctors and other professionals to the North since 1980's while about 23, 000 qualified academic staff emigrated from Africa each year in search of better working conditions, where 10, 000 qualified Nigerian academic staff are in the U.S alone (Abe, 2002: 163). Abe equally observed that, the ongoing visa lotteries to mainly U.S. and Canada has further compounded the brain Drain problems as it provides a more "legitimate and easy avenue for the continued depletion and pauperization of the African continent".

In the same vain, several Agencies and organizations are out with massive and aggressive advertising on job opportunities in Europe and America and as Abe (ibid) puts it, brain drain today is seen as a new form of slavery.

VIII. THE WAY FORWARD: CONCLUDING REMARKS

The foregoing glooming scenario presented reason to be pessimistic about the way forward. Several years after the political independence of most African states, Davidson (1992:290), using Nigeria as case study, argued that the state was not liberating and protective of its citizens, no matter what its propaganda claimed and that it simply failed to operate in any social sense at all. This is also a reflection of what happens in most African nations. High rate of corruption, subservience to foreign manipulation, its second-class, hand-me-down capitalism is turning African continent into theatre of self enslavement; or how else can we describe a situation where of the \$23 trillion global GDP in 1993, \$18 trillion is in the industrial countries; only \$5 trillion in the developing countries. Even though they have nearly 80% of the world's population (*UNDP Human Development Report 1996*)

Be that as it may, and if Africa must be relevant in the present scheme of world technology, communication and globalization network, the campaign for a new political economy arrangement otherwise called New International Economic order

(NIEO) launched in 1974 must be vigorously pursued and sustained. The North must take responsibility for the South's basic poverty, which they caused via manipulations of free trade, slavery and colonialism.

The Demands of the South, listed in Ajayi (op-cit: 204) must be achieved. They are deliberately itemized as

1. Price indexation and standardization scheme.
2. An end to brain drains (a deliberate arrangement to sustain Africa to retain their professional for needed technological economic development).
3. Transfer of appropriate industrial technology.
4. Relieving of debt burden (not the partial relieve as it was done for Nigeria).
5. Representation in decision-making organs (the call for Africa nation membership of UNO Security Council should be considered and granted).
6. Increased aid and grants.
7. Regime of control of (T.N.Cs) Trans National Corporation,
8. Opening of North's market (The North should not only bombard our markets with their goods but should encourage products from Africa, getting to their own markets).
9. Joint exploration of the ocean for its resources.
10. Transfer of technology of global information systems.

No reparation can surpass the above, especially if Africa countries will pursue genuine democratization and stimulate a wealth generating economy. One could then say that the hope of socio-economic emancipation is in sight.

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Reform, Economic Growth, and the Poverty Question in Africa

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Abstract - In recent discussions on poverty in the developing world, particularly Africa, historically and politically, high economic growth rates have been acknowledged, both in globally and notably in Africa. Yet, experientially, economic growth and reforms have not translated into reducing the scourge of poverty suffered by nations in the global South. At the international level, regular revision of poverty reduction programmes with the intention of proffering imported solutions to African nations, without adequate acknowledgement of indigenous development paradigms and framework is rife. In view of the foregoing, this paper examines the paradox of crushing poverty in the midst of plenty and the vagary of importing solutions coupled with the intellectual aridity that has become endemic among present day academia, culminating in the absence of creative indigenous development thinking with pragmatic solutions in Africa.

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Reform, Economic Growth, and the Poverty Question in Africa

Dr. Osezua, Ehiyamen Medaiyanose

Abstract - In recent discussions on poverty in the developing world, particularly Africa, historically and politically, high economic growth rates have been acknowledged, both in globally and notably in Africa. Yet, experientially, economic growth and reforms have not translated into reducing the scourge of poverty suffered by nations in the global South. At the international level, regular revision of poverty reduction programmes with the intention of proffering imported solutions to African nations, without adequate acknowledgement of indigenous development paradigms and framework is rife. In view of the foregoing, this paper examines the paradox of crushing poverty in the midst of plenty and the vagary of importing solutions coupled with the intellectual aridity that has become endemic among present day academia, culminating in the absence of creative indigenous development thinking with pragmatic solutions in Africa.

The paper argues that poverty in African countries require a change in strategies adopted by governments of nations in Africa which are usually a response to international agendas that alleviate poverty. Making direct assistance available to the very vulnerable poor who are not usually accessible to such programmes which are white elephant projects is important. The paper concludes that improving the access of the poor and vulnerable in terms of provision of basic social facilities and maximizing their human capital for productive use in the economy, based on indigenous frameworks which are region-specific, are imperatives to mitigating the scourge of poverty in many African countries.

I. INTRODUCTION

The issue of poverty presents a paradox in Nigeria. Though the country is rich in land, human, and natural resources the people are still considered to be poor. Per capita income today is still around the same level as in 1970, and in between, over US \$300 billion have been earned from the exploration of the country's oil resources. Despite this huge earnings the human development index released by UNDP recently showed that Nigeria is one of the poorest nations ahead of 27 other African countries in the world.

This issue of poverty is arguably one of the sharpest thorns in the heels of government throughout the world. There is hardly any government which comes into power without formally declaring a sort of program aimed at the alleviation of poverty in the country whether this programs are successful or not is a relative issue but the realization of the harmful consequences that comes with a rising poverty population is so daunting

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that nations all over the world have spent decades and billions in monetary terms trying to combat this menace called poverty in order to foster economic growth.

Although Nigeria is a richly endowed nation and is potentially one of the wealthiest states in the world (United Nations, 2001) as quoted by Igbiniedion and Igbatayo (2007). Despite Nigeria's considerable agricultural and mineral resources, it is ranked by the World Bank as a low-income country and among the 13 poorest countries in the world on the basis of per capital income. Propelled by the oil and gas industry, Nigeria has the second largest economy in Sub-Saharan Africa, after South Africa. Crude oil accounts for over 90 percent of Niger's foreign exchange earnings and 80 percent of government revenue, (EIA, 2005). Projections indicate that Nigeria's oil export revenues are expected to grow by 27 percent in 2005 to \$37.7 billion, and then rise another percent to \$41.1 billion in 2006. A member of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), Nigeria is the world's sixth largest crude oil exporter and is projected to export 2.2 million barrels of crude oil per day (bb1/d) in 2005.

However, decades of mismanagement accompanied by massive corruption, political instability and poor policies have paralyzed Nigeria's economy, manifesting in low growth and widespread impoverishment.

In Nigeria, the problem of poverty are multi-faceted among which are widespread outbreak of AIDS pandemic, lack of access to good health facilities, high infant mortality, lack of essential infrastructure, unemployment and underemployment, entrenched corruption and so many other vices.

However, this work is divided into four sections. Preceding the introduction is section two which is the review of related literatures and section three is the methodology and the analysis of empirical results. Finally, section four involves policy implications, recommendations and conclusion.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

a) *Definition and Concept of Poverty*

Given its multi-dimensional nature, poverty has been perceived using different criteria. It may be seen as a reflection of alarming defective in the economy as evidenced in the mass penury, pauperization and poor welfare condition off the citizenry of a particular economy. However, the search of the relevant literature

shows that there is no general consensus on any meaningful definition of poverty. Because poverty affects many aspects of the human condition, including physical, moral, and psychological, a concise and universally accepted definition is elusive. Different criteria have been used to conceptualize poverty. Most analyses or authors follow the conventional view of poverty as a result of insufficient income for securing basic goods and services. The concern here is with the individual's ability to subsist and to reproduce himself as well as the individual's ability to command resources to achieve them (Sen, 1981; Amis and Rakodi, 1994). Historically, this involves transition from a situation of where subsistence depends upon wage with which to purchase food.

Many other authors have conceptualized the poor as that portion of the population that is unable to meet the basic nutritional needs. Other views poverty in parts, as a function of education, health, life expectancy, child mortality, levels of consumption and expenditure, etc. Poverty is also related to entitlements (Sen 1983) which are taken to be the various bundles of goods and services over which one has command taking in consideration the means by which such goods are acquired (e.g. money, coupons, etc.) and the availability of the needed goods.

Poverty, like an elephant, is more easily recognized than defined (Abayode, 1975). However, it is very important to seek the definition concept no matter how crudely, at least to provide a focus by which we can determine the limits of our understanding. He went ahead to say that it is not altogether a semantic escapism or academic obscurant for economist to search for an alternative means of identifying poverty separating it from its opposite phenomenon of non-poverty."

In this vain, Galbraith (1969) explains that people are poverty stricken when their incomes, even if adequate for survival falls radically behind that of the community. They are degraded, for in the literal sense, they lie outside the grades or categories which the community regards as acceptable. He went further to describe the conditions explicitly when he explained that those affected by poverty have such limited and insufficient food, poor clothing as well as such painful and comparatively short life-span. Given the present "global shrinking" as a result of advancement, in electronic media, the world has become a group of communities within a global village and comparison of living standards of one community with another can be made just by watching television. When a country's living standard falls below an acceptable global standard, e.g. Nigeria, then such a country is poverty stricken in a Galbraith sense.

According to Obadan (1997), he defines poverty as a situation of low incomes and low consumption. This he said can be used in the

construction of the poverty line's values of income or consumption necessary to purchase the minimum standard of nutrition and other necessities of life. This is the case for Nigeria whose per capita income is low compared to other developed countries of the world, likewise the calorie intake. Accordingly, people are counted poor when their measured standard of living in terms of income and consumption is below the poverty line. However, poverty as earlier stated has both income and non-income dimensions which are usually intertwined. Based on this, Chambers (1995), sees poverty as the lack of physical necessities, assets, and income. It is a sub-set of the general condition of deprivation whose dimensions include poverty, social inferiority, physical weakness, isolation, vulnerability, seasonality, powerlessness, and humiliation. This is the case for the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, which has led to serious deprivation in the area.

In the same vein, the World Bank, (1996) defines the poor as those who are after illiterate, in poor health, and have short lifespan. They have no access to the basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, and decent shelter; are unable to meet social and economic obligations; they lack skills and gainful employment; have few, if any economic assets; and sometimes lack self-esteem. Very often, the poor lack the capacity to escape from th

which has about 75 percent of her population as poor, they lack the capacity to escape since the state of infrastructure is close to zero likewise the basic necessities of life.

Just as definitions of poverty are designed around the causes or visible attributes of poverty, Anyanwu (1997), conceptualizes poverty when presented a schema of poverty concept in a table below which is meant to illustrate the fundamental problems of determining the scale of poverty and deriving effective measures to alleviate it.

The first conceptualization as a consequence of the deficient of the person concerned cannot lead a life that is worthy of human dignity. It merely states that, because of the distribution structures in a society, certain economic subjects are disadvantaged to unacceptable extent. Thus relative poverty exists when the subjects under consideration are poor in relation to others who need to be more closely specified.

The second is based on individual circumstances. Hiffe (1987) distinguished between conjunctural poverty and structural poverty which are types of poverty based on individual circumstances. Conjunctural poverty is a temporary phenomenon into which normally self-sufficient individuals are thrown into crises while structural poverty is long-term and normally caused by individual circumstances. A distinction exists between structural poverty among the land-rich and the land-scarce societies. In land-scarce societies, the same groups are in poverty but in addition, they lack

access to land, employment, or employment at a sufficient level to provide for basic subsistence.

The third is based on microeconomic and macroeconomic perspectives. In microeconomic terms, poverty refers to a situation in which individual persons or households are not able to satisfy their basic needs or can satisfy them only to an inadequate degree. From a macroeconomic perspective, poverty exists when the average inhabitants of a country live below the minimum subsistence level or not far enough above it. Thus, while the macroeconomic concept of poverty is country-specific, the microeconomic aspect is concerned with particular individuals or households.

The fourth is based on location. Locationally and spatially, there is urban poverty and rural poverty. Urban slums, ghettos, and shanties are usually characterized by environmental degradation, inadequate welfare services and social deprivation, low per capita income, overcrowded accommodation, low level of education, low level of capital resources, and non-formal sources of capital for business. Rural poverty is characterized by poor material condition, low level of education or a high rate of illiteracy, lack of infrastructures, expensive technology, low levels of investment, high population growth rates, high levels of unemployment and underemployment, poor health and high out-migration (Rogers et al., 1998).

The fifth in this series is based on the nature of the society. Galbraith, (1958) classified this type of poverty into generalized poverty, island poverty, and care poverty. Generalized poverty refers to pervasive poverty which is common. Island poverty is that which exists in the midst of plenty such as Nigeria's, which the World Bank, (1996) considers a paradox. Case poverty is associated with affluent societies, is caused by peculiar circumstances of individual or families such as ill-health or disability.

III. DEVELOPMENT AND REFORM

Development and reform have become the most popular concepts in the intellectual and policy discourse on the progress of nations. The achievement of rapid development has emerged as the dominant aspiration of every developing nation. It has become the central pivot around which the policies and programmes of most countries revolve. In fact, the popularity and legitimacy of most governments in the world have come to depend increasingly on their ability to promote development. So powerful is the emotive appeal of the idea of development that no rational person can be seen to be openly opposed to it. This has, expectedly, transformed the concept of development into a powerful tool of propaganda, sloganeering, and deception in the hands of selfish ruling elites. The legitimacy seeking propaganda and gimmickry associated with development is something to be constantly borne in

mind in our analysis of national development policies and aspiration.

The resurgence of the neo-liberal economic doctrine in development thinking during the 1980's and the 1990's has similarly transformed the concept of "Reform" (alongside its synonyms such as "structural adjustment," "market forces," and "global competitiveness"), into the popular lexicons of contemporary discourse on development. The appeal of the reform slogan, especially since the collapse of the Soviet Union, lies in the ascendancy of the ideology of bourgeois economic liberalism as a superior alternative to the revolutionary socialist ideology of planned or command economies. Reform is packaged to connote a moderate, liberal, gradualist, and non-violent form of social engineering designed to remove all defects considered to be impediments to economic revival and betterment. It connotes flexibility or adjustment to emerging or changing realities as opposed to structural rigidity.

It also connotes a sort of pragmatic realism which is opposed to the ideological dogmatism of the past. This explains why the slogan of reform has become so easy to sell. It has become a powerful propaganda tool which governments have employed to wrap or to package all kinds of self-serving policies and agenda.

The problem with the twin concepts of "development" and "reform" is that they have been so idealized that they have become, in the minds of the people, a kind of "paradise:" everybody desires it; everybody has his own ideas about it; but nobody is exactly sure what it looks like. Just like paradise, nobody has a complete roadmap of the exact contours of the final destination and, worse still, nobody has an exact roadmap of how to get there. In situations like this, the easiest and the most natural tendency on the part of many is the copy the stereotyped models or roadmaps of other nations, especially the developed ones, without remembering that nobody's roadmap exactly fits the circumstances of the other. Therefore, every people and every nation must discover their own unique roadmap and follow it.

To discover in what direction (and probably in whose direction) Nigeria is heading it might be useful to begin this discussion with a brief examination of the historical and philosophical roots of the ideology of reform. This is what occupies us in the next section.

IV. INTELLECTUAL ROOTS OF THE REFORM IDEOLOGY

One of the lessons of historical experience is that development, as desirable as it may be, does not just happen. It is the product of the conscious or unconscious, planned or unplanned actions of people, organizations, and governments. It involves, among

other things, the efficient use or management of resources (both human and natural); the creation and effective utilization of capital and technology; and the evolution of an appropriate institutional framework within which progress and development are best attained. What has provoked endless debates and controversies among scholars and policy-makers are over the years is how resources can be most efficiently and sustainably utilized how capital can best be created, invested, and accumulated; how the creativity, initiatives, energies, and talents of the human population can best be fostered and managed; and what constitutes the most appropriate institutional framework for stimulating and coordinating the contributions of the key elements of the economic and social process.

The idea of sustained progress or improvement in the economic and human condition started crystallizing in Europe right from the period of the Renaissance. Regardless of whether the nomenclature used was "progress," "civilization," "modernization," or "development," a consensus had emerged that economic performance and the human condition in general could and should improve. It was on the question of how that consensus tended to break down.

Starting with Adam Smith came the intellectual seeds of the economic growth model. This was articulated in terms of the possibility of a rapid expansion in the productivity or wealth of nations made feasible by the market which he considered the most efficient resource management. Adam Smith located the impetus for rapid economic growth in the relentless drive by capitalists to maximize profit and accumulate capital. From Ricardo came a strong theoretical pillar revolving around the importance of international trade as a mainspring for national economic growth. With sundry contributions from different orthodox economists, the doctrine of economic growth gradually became established as the dominant approach for achieving long-term growth in productivity and aggregate national output.

By the 1940s and 1950s when development economics and sociology of development emerged as distinct intellectual subjects concerned with the poverty and underdevelopment of the emerging post-colonial nations of the Third World, the idea of development had become synonymous with economic growth. Under the dominant influence of the growth-and-modernization paradigm, the strategy of development in the Third World was reduced to the simplistic one of following the stages, growth processes and economic template of the advanced Western countries. Most of these countries were guided, aided, and cajoled into adopting a variety of pro-economic growth policies in the hope of achieving rapid development. While the growth orthodoxy remained quite strong, the overwhelming consensus on the primacy of the market as the driving

force for achieving economic growth suffered some setbacks.

The Keynesian revolution, the rise of the welfare state in Europe, and the increased significance of state planning made popular by the meteoric rise of the soviet union to super-power status all pointed to the fact that the state was a far more important player in the development process than the minimalist role assigned to it by the liberal, market-driven model of economic growth. The philosophy of development planning and the role of the state as a strategic player in the economy began to gain prominence in the 1960's and the 1970's especially in the Third World where the private sector was still very weak. The rise of dependency and neo-Marxist theories which located the source of the Third World's stagnation and underdevelopment in the exploitative and debilitating effects of Western imperialism/colonialism added extra impetus to the role of the state as a strategic economic player.

Confronted with Weak market institutions as well as a private sector which lacked the capital and managerial capacity to compete with foreign metropolitan capital, the state was seen as the best instrument available to the domestic ruling class to seize control of the "commanding heights" of the economy and to drive the political economy away from strangulating of hold imperialism control towards the path of national self-reliance. Thus was cemented the developmental state which was to become the dominant target of attack by the forces of liberal economic reform and globalization.

Reduced to its most simplistic terms, the liberal reform agenda takes its intellectual and policy origin from the controversy concerning the respective roles of the state versus the market as the prime movers of the development process. The proponents of economic reform have argued that free competition and the unrestrained reign of market forces would, in almost all circumstances, bring about a more optimal allocation of production factors, a more optimal distribution of commodities and a faster rate of economic growth than a regulated economy with administrative controls and central planning. Isolating state intervention as the single most important factor responsible for the stagnation and poor economic performance witnessed in most Third World countries, there has been a strong push, especially from the World Bank and the IMF, for developing countries to adopt a market-oriented reform agenda. Central to this agenda have been policies emphasizing;

- i. The downsizing of the role of the state via drastic cut-backs in government expenditure, reduced social spending, withdrawal of subsidies, retrenchment of public sector workers, etc;
- ii. The enthronement of the private sector as the dominant player in the economy, via privatization of

- state enterprises, dismantling of price and other controls, the promotion of private domestic and foreign investment, the deregulation of the economy etc; and
- iii. The liberalization of foreign trade via, among others the elimination of all forms of protectionism, currency devaluation, promotion of export-oriented economic activity and submission to all World Trades Organization (WTO) protocols. While there may be variations in exact policy details, the key elements (constituting the main economic framework) have remained constant.

It must quickly be added that the economic reform agenda has also come along with a definite political agenda (the promotion of liberal democracy) and a social agenda, which though not advocated as ferociously as the economic and political dimensions, would eventually lead to a total re-orientation of value systems along the lines of secular, entrepreneurial individualism. Liberal, multi-party democracy is seen as a necessary or accompanying political arm without which the economic reform agenda would hardly achieve its objectives. Consequently, the wind of democratization has also with the force of a tornado in Africa since the 1990's. The social agenda is being pushed a lot more subtly to avoid a social and cultural backlash.

V. THE DIVIDENDS OF REFORM

The reform agenda is being driven with the promise or the assurance of bounteous dividends which would accelerate economic growth, improve general economic prosperity for the population and ensure drastic reduction in existing levels of poverty. The gospel of reform is delivered with such unequivocal certainty or guarantee that any doubting Thomas is dismissed either as a saboteur or a victim of illusion or lack of vision.

One sure dividend of the reform ideology in Nigeria is the way it has impacted on the language of public discourse; everything is now being couched in terms of the dividends or the returns which every economic effort, political programme or social plan will yield for the public. It is now fashionable to talk about democratic dividends, or the dividends of tourism and cultural engineering, or even the, spiritual dividends of sponsoring people for pilgrimage. What better way is there to cultivate the capitalist spirit than to infuse the language of profit and dividends into the mindset of or the psyche of the people?

In trying to conceptualize the benefits or dividends of reform in all its ramifications, let us first focus on the fundamental objectives (stated and unstated) which the real apostles of the liberal reform agenda, the forces of global capitalism, are out to achieve. After this, we can then look at the benefits and consequences for individual countries in the Third World

and in Eastern Europe upon whom these reform policies have been imposed under different guises.

The first fundamental objective of the reform agenda is ideological. It is intended to achieve a fundamental paradigm shift in development thinking in favour of global capitalist development and penetration. Even though the reform agenda is presented as a package of pragmatic solutions to seemingly identifiable problems, distortions, policy mistakes and social dislocations seen here and there, they are collectively united by the ideology of foreclosing all other options in favour of global capitalist expansion.

Onimode (2003:48) has described structural adjustment and the liberal economic reform agenda as "the most enormous, ideologically driven, economic experiment ever devised," the principal aim of which is to use "orthodox, neo-classical, unfettered market economy doctrine to penetrate most of the Southern hemisphere and the African continent in particular."

According to Toyo (2001), the forces of global capitalism are employing six major doctrines to push through their agenda, viz: the doctrine of economic efficiency and growth, the doctrine of privatization, the dictum of democracy, the slogan of human rights, the maxim of poverty alleviation, and the motto of anti-corruption. All these are appealing, easy-to-sell clichés designed to whittle down actual understanding of and opposition to the underlying ideological mission of the reform agenda. The ascendancy of global capitalism is therefore, the first most fundamental dividend of the reform ideology.

The second real dividend of the reform agenda has been the centralization of the management of global capitalism in the hands of the club of the rich G-8 nations, under the watchful eyes of multilateral agencies such as the World Bank, the IMF and the WTO, whose primary responsibility has been to police and implement the rules that keep the system in place. The direct beneficiaries are the huge transnational corporations, mostly based in the G-8 nations, which are not accountable to any national government especially in the Third World, and which dominate virtually every sector of global industrial, commercial and financial activity (Isamah, 2002). The growth of national economies is by far secondary to the goal of global penetration by these corporations and the concentration of wealth and market power in the hands of these "real winners" of global economic reform.

What dividends have developing countries such as Nigeria really harvested from the reform, they have so religiously implemented? There is a broad consensus, of opinion that economic reforms have delivered much less in Africa, in terms of benefits, than the reform advocates have claimed. Even seen in terms of the narrow objective of growth maximization, the result in Nigeria has been disappointing. From the introduction of SAP in 1986 up to the end of the 1990's, overall GDP

growth continued to trail behind the population growth rate of 2.8% except between 1990 and 1992 as well in 1996 and 1997 when the country experienced marginal growth. This awful performance partly explains why the level of poverty rose from 28% in 1980 to 42.7% in 1992, and accelerated to 65.6% in 1996, and finally hit 70% in 1999 (Ajakaiye, 2003:283). Not only did the economy remain stagnant, SAP actually induced a sharp skewed distribution of income in favour of the rich.

According to Collier (2006:13), "by 2000 the distribution of income had become bimodal, something completely unique to Nigeria. There is a big group of poor people, another group of rich people, and very little in between" by way of a middle class. It is therefore not surprising, he concludes, that this "environment of rising inequality has produced one of the world's worst crime waves."

Economic growth has picked up substantially, averaging 3.75% between 1999 and 2003 as compared with 2.65% during the 1994 - 1998 periods. The GDP growth rate hit 6.15% in 2004 and has remained between 5 and 6.5% since then. Putting together all available growth indices Teriba (2006) has come to the conclusion that the Nigerian economy has finally entered into "the recovery mode," the lingering fear being how to sustain this level of growth. Despite this apparent growth, Nigeria remains a socially unstable, crime-infested and deeply divided country whose ruling elites have continued to cart abroad the stupendous wealth they have continued to make from oil. It is a country where the burden of crippling poverty is still very high. The present growth rate, even if distributional equity were to improve, is still too slow to make any serious dent on poverty. According to the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), "at the current 2.9 percent per annum population growth rate, the Nigerian economy needs to grow at close to 10 percent per annum in order to double income per capita in a decade and shrink the poverty rate" (CBN,1999:30).

VI. GRIEF-PRODUCING GROWTH AND THE POVERTY TRAP

The Nigerian dilemma concerning poverty cant be captured at two levels. The first is the paradox of crushing, unexpected poverty in the midst of plenty (World Bank, 1996), and the second is the tyranny of imported solutions and the implied intellectual aridity of an absence of creative, indigenous development thinking. One of the imported solutions foisted on Nigeria was the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) which dominated the policy environment in the 1980s and 1990s, followed by its re-baptized version called economic reform agenda from the year 2000 onwards.

In the words of Mimiko (2002:59), this policy regime

"represented for a great majority of Nigerians an assault on their prevailing standard of living. It neither provided the basis for sustainable growth nor poverty reduction. Rather, it dislocated the entire economy and compressed production."

Yet, it is still believed in many circles that the economic prosperity generated by this market-driven strategy of integration into global capitalism will one day, if the economy grows fast enough, bring about a massive reduction in poverty.

We should begin to question the kind of growth engineered by this liberal reform ideology. In Nigeria most of the growth has taken place in the crude oil sector with additional emphasis now shifting to solid minerals, agricultural exports and other exporter-oriented extractive activities while manufacturing, power, utilities and vital infrastructures remain comatose. The concern for poverty which is being pushed along with the reform agenda is itself a carrot brought in to spice the bitter pill of the past failures of SAP. Instead of the orthodoxy of a "trickle-down" of the benefits of growth, market-driven economic growth programmes have demonstrated an undeniable "trickle-up" tendency. Numerous studies have documented convincingly the detrimental social implications of various reform programmes, especially their tendency to by-pass the poor (see Wilson, Kanji & Braathen eds: 2001).

Towards the end of the 1980s, a poverty focus began to reappear in the international agenda for development, culminating in the adoption of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by United Nations in September, 2000. The World Bank in its revised reform programmes have included a strategy for addressing poverty in a direct manner, rather than through the orthodox macro-economic philosophy of trickle-down. Countries adopting economic reforms were tutored to adopting Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), ostensibly "prepared" by their national governments, whose aim was to ameliorate poverty.

According to Martinuessen [1999:302) the very elements of this poverty reduction agenda include;

- Helping the poor to make the most productive use of their most abundant asset, that is labour, through the provision of labour intensive technologies and other employment opportunities;
- Improving the poor's access to basic social services, including primary health care, family planning, nutrition, and primary education; and
- Providing direct assistance to the worst-off segment of the poor who cannot be reached through other programme elements.

In Nigeria and some other Third World countries, the poverty alleviation strategies adopted by governments have served more as expedient slogans of deception than as Well packaged action programmes designed to eliminate or reduce poverty from its roots.

All kinds of ridiculous forms of tokenism are awash in the political landscape in the name of poverty alleviation. For many politicians poverty alleviation has become a convenient platform for them to masquerade as “true friends” of the poor with a definite eye on the next election. As Che Guevara once said, those who give food and alms to the poor are worshipped as philanthropists and saints; those who ask why the masses are poor or have no food are branded as “communists” and subversives (Nkom, 2001).

Understanding who is poor, why he is poor, and what type of actions and reforms can liberate him from the structures of poverty is not what most poverty alleviation measures in Nigeria are known for. As far as poverty is concerned, lip service is the name of the genie both for the domestic ruling class as well as foreign collaborators and multilateral development agencies. For these agents of international capitalism, a population of around 80 million Nigerians trapped in poverty, with little or no purchasing

power is definitely not good for a World in search of ever-expanding markets. It would surely make economic sense to help or “aid” the upliftment of this large population out of desperate poverty so that they can buy more manufactured goods and other services. Poverty alleviation is therefore not a mere game of altruism. It is definitely driven by specific class or political objectives. As compelling and beneficial as poverty reduction may appear, it does need a powerful constituency to push or advocate the adoption of the right kind of policies by government. The palliative, “one-size-fits-all” type of policies pushed by multilateral development agencies such as the World Bank require fundamental rethinking.

VII. CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF THE REFORM AGENDA

This brings us to the last issue this brief discussion would like to consider. There is the assumption, inherent in the growth-and-modernization perspective and which has been carried forward into the reform ideology, that the same development blueprints (whether in poverty alleviation or in macroeconomic growth models) can be applied to different countries regardless of the norms, values, and historical circumstances of the recipient countries. While this may appear contrary to logic, it is a smart and silent strategy of quietly exporting and implanting in the recipient countries the values and cultural edifice supportive of the capitalist system.

As I have argued elsewhere (see Nkom, 2008), every strategy of development has a definite cultural component, whether recognised or not recognized, stated or not stated. Just as the modernization philosophy of the 1950s and 1960s came along with the in-built cultural baggage of westernization, so has global

capitalism come with a “global monoculture” of satellite technology, global consumer tastes and lifestyles, the football mania, the obsession with free choice, and secular value orientations. The Nigerian ruling elite has continued to live under the illusion that one can introduce the capitalist economic system without the accompanying cultural component.

Dazzled by the West’s material prosperity and technological greatness, Nigeria’s ruling elites have wallowed under the illusion that a selective transplant of certain elements of the western model into Nigerian soil will automatically confer the full benefits of western capitalism without the cultural foundation which nurtures the material and technological prosperity of western civilization. Notice that at the economic level, Nigerians have accepted the western preoccupation with achieving rapid growth but without the culture of productivity and efficiency which galvanizes it. We have borrowed the West’s profit motive and its acquisitive appetite for wealth accumulation but failed to imbibe the entrepreneurial and investment spirit of capitalism. We have imported all manners of western technological gadgets and machines but without embracing the culture of invention, laboratories and research which is the foundation for the West’s technological progress. We have continued to buy the most expensive watches but without imbibing the accompanying spirit of punctuality. As a result, “African time” still dominates our day-to-day activities despite the beautiful watches adorning our wrists. It is necessary to recognize the nature and direction of the cultural component of the new reform ideology. Its primary mission is to support global capitalist penetration by promoting in all countries the pattern of consumerism and tastes which favour global sales. It includes a gradual dismantling of local traditions, cultures and structures which will give people alternative lifestyles outside the control and profit calculations of global capitalism. This wave of global homogenization of cultures and lifestyles, via the apparatuses of modern communications and satellite technology as well as the global network of CNN, MTV, and other international media agencies, poses a fundamental threat to cultural diversities, different thought processes, and the accumulated wisdom of different peoples throughout the world. This explains why the issue of the tyranny of imported ideas and the collapse of indigenous problem-solving approaches should be taken with more seriousness.

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The Expansion Input – Output Tables

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Bui Trinh^α, Kiyoshi Kobayashi^σ & Pham Le Hoa^ρ

Abstract - This paper is an attempt in order to present some variance of input-output expansion. The System of National Accounts with version 1968 and 1993 recommended on social accounting matrix, but until now some countries compiled SAM from supply and use tables and some other countries compiled SAM from input-output system. SAM seems to apply for CGE model but it is not meaning in SAM multipliers analysis. The parallel with ideas of social accounting system developed by Stone (1961), Pyatt and Roe (1977) is demographic-economic modeling was knew by Miyazawa's concept. These ideas developed in order to describe the interrelation between income from production, income from redistribution, consumption, accumulation, it like as "no start and no the end" in Buddha theory.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The Input – output extension are one of the useful tools of economic research. The matrixes can be used for policy analysis and economic planning, and offers an efficient means of summarizing complex economic relationships and identifying gaps in statistical information.

In the past decades, there has been a noticeable shift of interest from the basic input-output table to the social account matrix (SAM) as evident from the increased momentum in the design, construction and use of social accounting matrices in many countries (Piatt and Roe, 1997; Cohen et al., 1984; Pyatt and Round, 1985). The argument in favor of working with SAM or extended input-output models is the increasingly prevalent requirement by policy – makers and the larger public alike appraise.

Social accounting matrices are compiled according to the same accounting principles used for input-output table; each transaction is recorded twice so that any inflow to one account must be balanced by an outflow of another account. The extension of input-output table based on linking the location of production account and the location income and consumption of institutional as household, Government and enterprise.

Another way, the Miyazawa's concept of the interrelation income multiplier was designed to analyze the structure of income distribution by endogenous consumption demand in the standard Leontief model;

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these ideas were also incorporated in the familiar social account systems developed by Stone (1961), Pyatt and Roe (1997), and in the parallel developments of demographic-economic modeling associated with Batey and Madden (1983); In order to linkage the concept on interregional input output modeling and demographic – economic modeling may be considered the function system.

II. Social Accounting Matrix

Being an extension of the existing national economic accounts, a SAM is a consistent and complete representation of the socio-economic system that captures the interdependencies of institutional groups. It is both a conceptual framework and a data system that can support analyses of socio-economic policy issues, used to evaluate the socio-economic impact of exogenous changes, or serve as a database for general equilibrium modeling.

III. UPDATING INPUT-OUTPUT TABLE

An input-output table describes the flows among the various sectors of the economy. It represents the value of economic transactions in a given period of time. Transactions of goods and services are broken down by intermediate and final use. An input-output table also shows the cost structure of production activities: intermediate inputs, compensation to labor and capital, taxes on production.

The SAM can be extended by input-output framework or supply and use tables. The first of all we have to compile or update a input-output table (or supply and use tables). The Leontief system was described by equations as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} A.X+Y=X & 1 \\ X=(I-A)^{-1}.Y & 2 \\ Y=C+G+I+E-M & 3 \\ M_i/TDD_i < 1 & 4 \\ TDD_i = IC_i + C_i + G_i + I_i & 5 \\ \Delta X = (I - A)^{-1} . \Delta Y & 6 \end{array}$$

Where A is the direct input coefficient matrix

X is vector of supply or sectoral output

Y is vector of final demand

(I - A)⁻¹ is the Leontief Inverse, or matrix of multipliers

C is final consumption of household

G is final consumption of government

I is gross fixed capital or capital formation

E is export

M is import

M_i is import of commodity i
 TDD_i is total domestic demand of commodity i

From these basic relations of the I/O table, the following formulas were derived with formula (7) take into account the three changes in X, namely price changes, technical changes and changes in Y (final demand) through the years. Given the structure of the National's economy and the relatively short time break from the last updating of input-output table which was for the year t_1 , formula (8) was used to calculate the technical coefficient matrix A for the updated year t_2 I/O table, which assumes that there was no or small change in prices and technical change

$$x_{ij}^{t2} = \left(\frac{x_{ij}^{t1}}{II_j^{2003}} \right) \cdot II_j^{t1} \tag{7}$$

$$x_{ij}^{t2} = \left(\frac{x_{ij}^{t1}}{GI_j^{2003}} \right) \cdot GI_j^{t1} \tag{8}$$

$$va_{kj}^{t2} = \left(\frac{va_{kj}^{t1}}{VA_j^{2003}} \right) \cdot VA_j^{t1} \tag{9}$$

Where

x_{ij}^{t2} is the amount of the product of sector i absorbed – as its input – by sector j in year t2

x_{ij}^{t1} is the amount of the product of sector i absorbed – as its input – by sector j in year t1

II_j^{t1} is an element of the vector II in 2003 or the total intermediate input in year t1

II_j^{t2} is an element of the vector II in year t2

va_{kj}^{t2} is an element of the value added matrix in year t2,

where k is factor of value added at factor cost

va_{kj}^{t1} is an element of the value added matrix in year t1,

where k is factor of value added at factor cost

VA_j^{t1} is an element of the vector value added in year t1

VA_j^{t2} is an element of the vector value added in year t2

These formulas were used to compute the technical coefficient matrix A and therefore the intermediate demand matrix of the input-output table and the value added matrix, which is broken-down into payments to labor and capital, depreciation, and indirect taxes.

As stated above, equation (8) was used with an assumption that technological change and the change in prices have not occurred during the last years. One issue with the vector GI is of course the property of this vector since it is an (1x industry) vector.

Therefore this must be recalculated to get a (1x Commodity) vector. This could be done with the data from the last input-output table or S.U.T as follows:

From last I/O or S.U.T, the supply matrix S is taken out. This is an industry-by-commodity matrix With a simple formula presented below, the commodity-by-commodity GI vector can be calculated

$$GI_{t2}^c = s' \cdot GI_{t2}^a \tag{10}$$

Where

GI_{t2}^c is vector of gross input by commodity of the year t2

GI_{t2}^a is column vector of gross input by industry of the year t2

s is coefficient matrix of S with dimension (industry x product)

s' is transpose of s with dimension (product x industry)

The use matrix of the S.U.T can be used to get the use matrix of the year t2:

$$U_{t2} = U_{t1} \cdot GI_{t2}^a \tag{11}$$

With

U_{2003} is coefficient matrix of use table in year t1

U_{2005} is coefficient matrix of use table in year t2

From the above formulas, now the A matrix of I/O in year t2 can be computed using the following formula:

$$A = U_{t2} \cdot s^{-1} \tag{12}$$

With s^{-1} is an inverse of matrix s (commodity technology assumption)

But while coming at matrix A, one problem arose. Some elements of this matrix is negative and thus should be corrected by changing it to 0. Further, to balance the I/O table, we use RAS method.

The value added matrix and the final demand matrix is left to be computed. The value added matrix can be calculated from the formula:

$$B = A \cdot GI_{t2}^c \tag{13}$$

where B is the matrix containing both the A matrix and the value added matrix

The final demand or the Y was computed using equation (3).

IV. COMPETITIVE AND NON-COMPETITIVE I/O TABLES

a) *Competitive I/O table:*

In the competitive I/O table the intermediate inputs include both commodities produced domestically and imported.

b) *Non-competitive I/O table:*

In this kind of I/O tables, the intermediate inputs are broken-down into commodities produced domestically and commodities imported from the rest of the world.

For the purpose of analyzing the economy based on the I/O table, the competitive table is not of much use for the reasons stated above; the competitive table does not separate the intermediate inputs which are produced by domestic industries from the imported intermediate inputs. Thus the precision and the usefulness of the analysis based on the competitive table is a matter for arguing.

Meanwhile a non-competitive table with import clearly separated from intermediate inputs produced domestically and thus with two intermediate input coefficient matrix A^d (domestic A) and A^m (import A) will give the users a much better picture of the economy.

Following is the indirect method of how to come from the competitive I/O table at a non-competitive I/O table.

Coming from the basic relations of the I/O table with equations from (1) to (6), we take the equations (4)

and (5) to compute the ratio of imported goods in Total domestic demand. From this structure of imported goods in domestic demand, the intermediate input matrix can easily be achieved. The value added matrix of non-competitive table remains the same as in the competitive table. In the final demand matrix, all the elements are different except for the export vector.

V. SAM BUILDING

In this section, the construction of the SAM will be discussed greatly in detail. Constructing a SAM table is a rather complicated issue and requires deep knowledge of the SNA, the input-output table, supply and use tables as well as different updating and balancing methods namely the RAS method, not least the knowledge on the performance of the National's economy

The Social Accounts track the monetary flows between industries and institutions. The relation between a SAM and an I/O table is the fact that the input-output accounts are a subset of the entire social accounts recorded in a country. The social accounts track all monetary flows, both market and non-market. The market flows are those between producers of goods and services and consumers, both industrial, and non-industrial (i.e households, government, investment, and trade). The non-market flows are those between households and government, government and households, capital and households and so on. These flows are often called inter-institutional transfers.

A classical and very simple aggregate version of SAM is introduced in the table below:

Table 1 : SAM Framework expansion from S.U.T (Supply and Use tables).

	(1) Industry	(2) Commodity	(3) Factors	(4) Institutions	(5) ROW
1-Industry		Make matrix			1x5
2-Commodity	Use matrix			xxxxxxx	
3-Factors	xxxxxxx				
4-Institutions		4x2	4x3	4x4	4x5
5-ROW	5x1		5x3	5x4	5x5

Each cell represents a sub-matrix. Rows represent an institutional or industry receipt of income. Columns represent an institutional or industry payment or expenditure. In a SAM table, rows and columns balance exactly so all flows are counted.

Following is the explanation of the data contained in each cell of the above example of an aggregated SAM.

1. Industry is the industry sectors from the I/O table
2. Commodity is the commodities also from the I/O table

3. Factors include the value-added elements:
 - Types of Labor incomes (L)
 - Type of capital incomes (K)
4. Institutions include
 - Households
 - Government
 - Enterprises (basically consists of corporate profits)
 - Capital
 - Inventory

5. ROW

- imports
- exports

Again, the building of SAM extended by input-output system requires a certain source of data, namely:

1. Data of Intermediate Inputs and Gross Inputs
2. S.U.T in year t_1

3. Export and Import of goods and services
4. Balance of Payment
5. State budget
6. Updated non-competitive I/O in year t_2

The detailed elements of the SAM extended by input-output system are in the following table.

Table 2 : SAM expansion from I/O table.

	(1) Commodity	(2) Factors	(3) Institutions	(4) I-S	(5) ROW
1-Commodity	1x1	1x2			1x5
2-Factors	2x1			2x4	
3- Institutions	3x1				
4-Saving		4x2	4x3	4x4	4x5
5-ROW	5x1		5x3	5x4	5x5

From table 2 can convert to table 3 can apply a paper of Bui Trinh, Kiyoshi Kobayashi and Kwang Moon Kim (2012).

VI. DEMOGRAPHIC – ECONOMIC MODELING

Miyazawa expanded I/O model into a demographic model - economic modeling and this model has been completed by Batey and Madden (1983). The model introduces the concept of Leontief inverse matrix and expand Leontief extended system for Keynes multipliers, which can analyze the relationship between income groups and consumer groups, respectively. The model is also used to analyze the structure of income in order to describe quantitatively the relationship between income from production and income not from production. In which case, it is classified according to the system of national accounts published by the United Nations (UN "System of National Accounts - SNA", 1993), non-production income includes income from property and income from transfer.

Demographic - Economic model is created by Miyazawa (1966), it's a similar form to the Social Accounting Matrix, in order to describe the distribution and redistribution of the economy. Essentially, the Demographic – Economic model and the Social Accounting Matrix are similar and it could easily be changed from one model to another depending on other study purposes. In this study, Demographic – Economic model is developed in institutional regions (households, other type of enterprise, State region is divided by type

of tax). These institutional regions are considered as endogenous variables: saving and relations with foreign countries are considered as exogenous variables. This model is a combination between the notion of inter-regional I/O model and demographic - economic model, as presented in matrix form below:

$$P=AP+F=(I-A)^{-1}F \tag{14}$$

The SAM can be used similarly, note that the matrix, A is not only describes production account but also describes re-distribution from property and transfer; the vector of row total, x, represents the endogenous variables, whereas the vector f represents the exogenous variables. The vector of endogenous variables, x, can be solved in equation (15):

$$x = Af + x = (I-A)^{-1}x = Mx \tag{15}$$

Where,
M is the aggregate multiplier matrix.

Another way, the Miyazawa's concept of the interrelation income multiplier was designed to analyze the structure of income distribution by endogenous consumption demand in the standard Leontief model; these ideas were also incorporated in the familiar social account systems developed by Stone (1961), Pyatt and Roe (1997), and in the parallel developments of demographic-economic modeling associated with Batey and Madden (1983); In order to linkage the concept on interregional input output modeling and demographic – economic modeling may be considered the following system:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & c_1 & g_1 & 0 \\ h & 0 & g_2 & e_1 \\ g & c_2 & 0 & e_2 \\ e & c_3 & g_3 & e_3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} \tag{16}$$

Or,

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & c_1 & g_1 & 0 \\ h & 0 & g_2 & e_1 \\ g & c_2 & 0 & e_2 \\ e & c_3 & g_3 & e_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & c \\ v & B \end{bmatrix} \quad (17)$$

Where: A – direct input coefficients matrix; x_1 is a vector of output; x_2 is total income for fold division of household groups; x_3 is total income of Government institutional; x_4 is total income of enterprises institutional; h is an matrix (vector) of households income groups from production; g is a vector of Government income form production (indirect taxes minus subsidies); e is an matrix of income of enterprises groups from production (operating surplus and consumption of fixed capital); c_1 is a corresponding matrix of household consumption coefficients; g_1 is a vector of Government consumption coefficients; c_2 is a vector on redistributing between the household groups and Government institutional; c_3 is a matrix on redistributing of household institutional to enterprise groups; g_2, g_3 are expenditure of Government to households and enterprises institutional; e_1, e_2, e_3 are matrixes on redistribute from enterprise institutional to household, government and other groups of enterprises. Regarding equation (18) the vector v, c and can identify as below:

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} h \\ g \\ e \end{bmatrix} \quad (18)$$

$$c = [c_1 \quad g_1 \quad 0] \quad (19)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x1 \\ x' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_1 & \Delta_1.c.(I - B)^{-1} \\ \Delta_2.v.(I - A)^{-1} & \Delta_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} f1 \\ f' \end{bmatrix} \quad (24)$$

Where: Δ_1 is interpreted as enlarged Leontief inverse, the elementary of Δ_1 includes direct impact, indirect impact and induce effects by household and government consumptions, they contain elements which are larger than those of the $(I-A)^{-1}$ matrix, because they

$$\Delta_2 = (I - (I-B)^{-1}.v.(I-A)^{-1}.c)^{-1}.(I - B)^{-1} \quad (25)$$

$(I - B)^{-1}$ is referred as internal multipliers of re - distribution income and $(I - (I-B)^{-1}.v.(I-A)^{-1}.c)^{-1}$ is referred as external multipliers that induced effects by income from production, these mean income from re-distribution dose not dependent direct income from re-distribution of each institutional, but also dependent re-distribution income of other institutional and induced by consumption expenditure.

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & g_2 & e_1 \\ c_2 & 0 & e_2 \\ c_3 & g_3 & e_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (20)$$

$$x' = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (21)$$

$$f' = \begin{bmatrix} f_2 \\ f_3 \\ f_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (22)$$

We can re-write equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & c \\ v & B \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x' \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x' \end{bmatrix} \quad (23)$$

Miyazawa suggested an innovative way of partitioning the system of regions and the developments of demographic – economic modeling associated with Batey and Madden (1983); the other innovative way for linking of sectoral and institutional, it is also referred as internal and external multipliers and relation (24) may be obtained:

include extra output required to meet the consumption groups output effects. Δ_2 is interpreted as *enlarged Miyazawa matrix multipliers*, the matrix Δ_2 can be decomposed as follow:

$\Delta_1.c$ is a matrix of production induced by endogenous consumption.

$v.(I-A)^{-1}$ is a matrix of endogenous income earned from production.

Note that equation (24) can be re write as bellow:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta_{22} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I & (I-A)^{-1} \cdot c \\ (I-B)^{-1} \cdot v & I \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} (I-A)^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & (I-B)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \quad (26)$$

Where:

$$\Delta_1 = \Delta_{11} \cdot (I-A)^{-1} \text{ and } \Delta_2 = \Delta_{22} \cdot (I-B)^{-1}$$

$$\Delta_{11} = (I - A - c \cdot (I-B)^{-1} \cdot v)^{-1} \text{ and } \Delta_{22} = (I - (I-B)^{-1} \cdot v \cdot (I-A)^{-1} \cdot c)^{-1}$$

The equation (26) introduce the hierarchical sequence of modeling which multiplicatively separates the enlarged Leontief inverse matrix and enlarged Keynesian multipliers matrix, interrelationship multipliers from the interrelationship effects

We shall explain how to define and measure interrelationship feedback effects in interrelationship settings. Solving the equation (23), (24) and (26) for X_1 and X' yields:

$$X' = (I-B)^{-1} \cdot v \cdot X_1 \quad (27)$$

$$X_1 = (I-A)^{-1} \cdot c \cdot X' \quad (28)$$

These are the interrelationship feedback effects. The equation (27) and (28) present the relationship between production and total income.

The Demographic- Economic modeling described in table 4 below:



Table 3 : Demographic-Economic modeling 2005.

	(1) Comm modity	(2) House hold	(3) Government						(4) Enterprises			(5) Inves tment	(6) ROW	(7) Total			
			VAT	Special consu mption taxes	Other taxes	Import duties	Direct taxes	Transfers	State	Non- state	FDI						
1- Comm modity		1x1	1x2						1x8					1x13	1x14		
2- House hold	Compen sations of employees	2x1							2x8					2x13	2x14		
3- Gover nment	VAT	3x1													3x14		
	Special consumption taxes	4x1													4x14		
	Other taxes	5x1													5x14		
	Import duties	6x1	6x2									6x12			6x14		
	Direct taxes		7x2							7x9	7x10	7x11		7x13	7x14		
	Transfers		8x2											8x13	8x14		
4- Enter prises	State	9x1						9x8	9x9	9x10	9x11				9x14		
	Non-State	10x1						10x8	10x9	10x10	10x11				10x14		
	FDI	11x1							11x9	11x10	11x11				11x14		
5- Saving			12x2	12x3							12x9	12x10	12x11		12x13	12x14	
6- ROW		13x1	13x2						13x8			13x11	13x12		13x14		
7- Total		14x1	14x2	14x3							14x8	14x9	14x10	14x11	14x12	14x13	14x14

Below in table is the explanation of each cell in the SAM 2005 table

Cell 1x1	represents the updated non-competitive I/O 2005, including the intermediate input matrix
Cell 2x1	Total payments by industries to household (compensations of employees)
Cells 3x1, 4x1, 5x1, 6x1	Payments by industries to government namely indirect taxes and import duties
Cells 9x1, 10x1, 11x1	Operating surpluses and depreciations of the enterprises
Cell 13x1	Total foreign imports to industry use or payments to imports
Cell 1x2	Payments made by household to commodities or total final consumption of household
Cell 6x2, 7x2, 8x2	Taxes paid by household to government
Cell 12x2	Household saving
Cell 13x2	Imports to household final demand
Cell 12x3	Government saving
Cell 1x8	Transfers made by government to state commodities
Cell 2x8	Transfers made by government to household
Cell 9x8, 10x8	Transfers made by government to state and non-state enterprises
Cell 7x9, 7x10, 7x11	Payments in terms of Direct taxes made by enterprises to government
Cell 9x9, 10x9, 11x9, 10x10, 10x10, 11x10, 9x11, 10x11, 11x11	Inter-institutional transfers by enterprises to enterprises and property incomes
Cell 13x11	Transfers made by the FDI enterprises to the rest of the world
Cell 6x12	Import duties paid to the government
Cell 13x12	Import of investment goods
Cell 1x13	Export
Cell 2x13	Payments from the rest of the world to household
Cell 7x13, 8x13	Tax payments and transfers from the rest of the world to the government
Cell 12x13	Foreign transfers

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper is an attempt in order to present some variance of input-output expansion. The System of National Accounts with version 1968 and 1993 recommended on social accounting matrix, but until now some countries compiled SAM from supply and use tables and some other countries compiled SAM from input-output system. SAM seems to apply for CGE model but it is not meaning in SAM multipliers analysis. The parallel with ideas of social accounting system developed by Stone (1961), Pyatt and Roe (1977) is demographic - economic modeling was knew by Miyazawa's concept. These ideas developed in order to

describe the interrelation between income from production, income from redistribution, consumption, accumulation, it like as "no start and no the end" in Buddha theory.

Especially, The analysis of I/O models and demographic - economic model showed the changes of the economy cause of different impacts to sectors and institutional regions. So, calculation on this element is necessary to plan the tax policy and other policies. Such as, analyze the index of power of dispersion shows that this index of the sector is very large, then, if you stimulate development of this sector, it highly impacts other sectors in the economy

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Health and Child Development Paradox: Findings from Raipur Slums

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Introduction - Children in slums have a poor quality of life. The lack of basic services affects them the most. Children are most disadvantaged in slums. Girls have to look after younger siblings when both parents go to work. Combined with a traditional bias against educating girls they are often not sent to school or drop out at an early stage. Girls do not have the exposure to everyday city life situations, which men, women and young men have. As a result they are often anxiety prone and stressed. The unhealthy and polluted environment, lack of immunization, malnutrition and absence of educational exposure affects children in slums. Sadly, their physical, emotional and intellectual growth is stunted from a very early age.

Keywords : malnutrition, infant mortality, child welfare, breastfeeding, food security, epidemic.

GJHSS-C Classification : 340204, 111704



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Health and Child Development Paradox: Findings from Raipur Slums

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I. INTRODUCTION

Children in slums have a poor quality of life. The lack of basic services affects them the most. Children are most disadvantaged in slums. Girls have to look after younger siblings when both parents go to work. Combined with a traditional bias against educating girls they are often not sent to school or drop out at an early stage. Girls do not have the exposure to everyday city life situations, which men, women and young men have. As a result they are often anxiety prone and stressed. The unhealthy and polluted environment, lack of immunization, malnutrition and absence of educational exposure affects children in slums. Sadly, their physical, emotional and intellectual growth is stunted from a very early age. The situation with respect to women's health in the urban slums is no different; rather their health is neglected most. Insecurity related to regular income, food, shelter, access to health care and other essential services, along with poverty and difficult physical and social environments, such as exploitation and abuse in the treatment of girl child, have an adverse impact on the health of the urban poor children.

There is a consensus among the leading international organizations (e.g. UN, WHO, World Bank, and ILO) and development scholars that to achieve an effective change for better health and quality of life for women and children, a dual approach is needed (UNDP, 1999; Kar and Acalay, 2000)¹. These are: (1) reforming health and welfare systems that meet the specific and urgent needs of women (e.g. health care, day care), and (2) reforming socio-cultural systems that perpetuate gender inequalities which are the source of all day-to-day problems (e.g. equal opportunities for education, income, cultural practices and devaluation of women). These two approaches address what Moser (1987)² identifies as two types of women's and children's

needs: "practical needs" and "strategic needs" respectively. The first approach focuses on day-to-day needs that are akin to the proverb, giving a fish to a starving person; while the second approach is giving a fishing rod and opportunities to fish. There is synergy between health systems, human development systems, and broader social reform. Empirical studies show that children suffer most of the brunt of poverty and abuses due to persistent inequalities and relative powerlessness (Sen, 1990)³. Both in rich and poor nations, women and children suffer various forms of institutionalized injustice and abuse including: denial of basic needs (education and health care), feminization of poverty, unfair opportunities for employment, income, and leadership; sexual harassment and exploitation; physical mutilations and deaths, domestic violence; insufficient interest in gender-related issues in policy and research; and culturally conditioned practices that endanger women's health and quality of life (e.g. dowry deaths, honor killing, early marriages).

From the time of its independence, India has committed itself to be against child labour. Article 24 of the Indian constitution clearly states that "No child below the age of fourteen years shall be employed to work in any factory or mine or employed in any hazardous employment" (Constitution of India cited in Jain,⁴ 1985). Article 39 (e) directs State policy such "that the health and strength of workers . . . and the tender age of children are not abused and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength" (Constitution of India cited in Human Rights Watch 1996)⁵. These two articles show that India has always had the goal of taking care of its children and ensuring the safety of workers. The Bonded Labour System Act of 1976 fulfills the Indian Constitution's directive of ending forced labour. The Act "frees all bonded laborers, cancels any outstanding debts against them, prohibits the creation of new bondage agreements, and orders the economic

¹ Kar, S.B., and R. Acalay. (2000). *Health Communication: A Multicultural Perspective*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

² Moser. CON (1987). *Women, Human Settlements, and Housing: A Conceptual Framework for Analysis and Policy-Analysis*. In Moser C. & L. Peake (Eds); *Women, Human Settlements, and Housing*. London:Tavistock.

³ Sen, A. (1990). *Gender and Cooperative Conflicts*, In: Tinker I. Editor, p-123-149.

⁴ Jain, S. N. (1985). *Legislation and Government Policy in Child Labour*. In *Child Labour and Health: Problems & Prospects*, edited by U. Naidu and K. Kapadia. Bombay: Tata Institute of Social Sciences p-218.

⁵ Human Rights Watch. (1996). *The Small Hands of Slavery - Bonded Child Labor in India*. Human Rights Watch New York: p-29-30.

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rehabilitation of freed bonded laborers by the state" (Human Rights Watch 1996). In regard to child labour, the Indian government implemented the Child Labour Act in 1986. The purpose of this act is to "prohibit the employment of children who have not completed their 14th year in specified hazardous occupations and processes" (Narayan 1988)⁶. Here brief discussion is made on the development of women and children and socially lagging class such as SC, ST, minorities, BPL etc. The urban community development programmes in Raipur Municipal Corporation started soon after it was upgraded as a municipal corporation in 1961. This is one of the successful and acclaimed programmes of poverty reduction in the country. In Raipur several urban poverty programmes are under implementation and similarly in the slums in the surrounding city the urban poverty alleviation programmes.

II. METHODOLOGY

The data collected from secondary and primary sources.

a) Secondary sources:

Some data are collected and compiled from the books, reports, published and unpublished papers, leaflets, booklets, notes, Municipal records and Governmental circulars.

b) Primary sources:

i. Questionnaire:

Some information is collected through questionnaire tool from the government officials, administration level.

ii. Interviews:

Interviews from the field with respondents, word counselors and slum leaders have been conducted to elicit their opinion and experience in slum life with the help of interview schedule.

c) Sample size:

The study was conducted in slums on the capital city of Chhattisgarh, Raipur. Here the sample size is 300 families from four slums taking 95 families from Gandhi Nagar, 88 families from Moulipara, 100 families from Kushalpur and 17 families from Kota basti proportionately distributed. For the present study ten percent of total numbers of families in each selected slum area are taken. In case of Gandhinagar ten percent total family size is 95.7, for Moulipara 87.8, for Kushalpur 100.3 and Kota 16.6. But the figures have been rounded off for the sake of convenience for calculation. Head or senior most persons of the family are the respondents.

III. FOOD, NUTRITION AND VARIOUS ISSUES ON HEALTH

The growth of slum areas and concentration of the poor people in the slums is a rather depressing aspect of urbanization in Raipur city. Majority of the people who live there belong to lower socio-economic classes and have migrated to the city with the hope of better means of livelihood. Having basically no education, skill and work experience, they have no choice in the competitive job market and pick up lowly paid jobs such as construction labourer, domestic servants, casual factory workers and petty trading business. With their meagre income, they are forced to live in slum areas in the most unsanitary and unhygienic conditions, and are carrying out their existence with the barest necessities of life. Even if people have some money, they do not invest it in house improvement, because of its temporary status or illegal occupation of the public lands and constant threat of eviction. Therefore, the housing of the slum dwellers is of lowest quality. Poor housing conditions, overcrowded environment, poor sanitation, occupational hazards, group rivalries and clashes, stressful conditions together with lack of open space for children's recreation etc. are detrimental to the health of people in the slums. An overview of women's and children's health status presents a sobering picture. Deaths and illnesses from reproductive causes are highest among poor women particularly in slum areas. In addition to the suffering of women, yet another cause of concern is their almost apathetic attitude towards their own health and its management during illness. Girl children are found to seek treatment only when their health problem caused great physical discomfort or when it affected their work performance. The situation with respect to women's and children's health in the urban slums is no different; rather their health is neglected the most. Insecurity related to regular income, food, shelter, access to health care and other essential services, along with poverty and difficult physical and social environments, such as exploitation and abuse in the treatment of women, have an adverse impact on the health of the urban poor children.

Low education and ignorance leads to continuation of wrong beliefs and unscientific attitude towards health. The outcome is incomplete immunization, insufficient gynecological check up during pregnancy, unsafe deliveries at home and improper post-natal care of mothers and children especially in terms of diet and immunization. Incomplete tuberculosis (TB) and malaria treatment leads to recurrences and relapses. The need for fast cures helps propagate the myth that expensive treatment is good treatment. The unhealthy and polluted environment, lack of immunization, malnutrition and absence of educational exposure affects children in slums. Sadly, their physical,

⁶ Narayan, A. (1988). *Child labour policies and programmes: The Indian experience*. In *Combating Child Labour*, edited by A. Bequele and J. Boyden-146.

emotional and intellectual growth is stunted from a very early age. Access to community facilities and health centers in these settlements is limited and not adequate. Across all the slums, the health centers are not adequately equipped with medicines and the households have to procure medicines from open market. These health centers are also not equipped to provide antenatal and postnatal care. Studies reveals that the most common diseases prevalent in slums include gastro-enteritis, malaria, Diarrhea, cholera, Typhoid, Malnutrition, ringworm etc.

To overcome these health problems the corporation runs three maternity hospitals, one Government hospital and several health centers. The corporation has also started reproductive and Child Health project and it is being implemented through non-governmental organizations. With their participation, many urban health centers were established to provide better health services to the women and children, particularly in slums and hill areas. There are also government dispensaries, which are visited by the poor. There is need to strengthen health infrastructure. Ensuring food and nutritional security, however, cannot be enough. There are far too much vulnerability in the lives of the poor and those just above the poverty line. Around 93% of our labour force works in the informal sector, without any form of social protection, especially against old age. With growing migration of younger rural residents to urban and fast-growing rural areas, elderly parents are often left behind in the village to cope on their own, or are dependent upon women who also have to tend to the family farm, as agriculture feminizes with growing male migration. Old-age pension is thus becoming a crying need for those dependent on insecure employment in the informal economy as well as for parents left behind. Moreover, vulnerability in respect of health arises from the under-funding of the public health system and its inability to provide comprehensive care, which is a major concern for the majority of the population. At the beginning of the Eleventh Plan period there are serious concerns around food and nutritional security for children. Low and stagnating incomes among the poor have meant that low purchasing power remains a serious constraint to household food and nutritional security, even if food production picks up as a result of interventions in creation of urban infrastructure.

IV. ASSESSMENT OF FOOD SECURITY

Measurement of food security is an integration of many factors like agro-ecological, environmental, socio-economic, political and biological factors. The concept is generalized into three main aspects like (WFP, 2002):

- Availability of food
- Access to food
- Utilization of food

Availability of food is examined through sufficient supply of food to satisfy domestic need. Food availability is determined by supply and demand oriented approach while supply of food is integrated with domestic production, imports (public, private, food aid) and changes in national stock. But the issue of food aid in food availability is often being questioned. Also, it is found that availability of food cannot often measure what people actually obtained. In this case access to food depicts people's purchasing power to buy food. Poverty is one of the main obstacles affecting people's purchasing power. Access to food is not only enough in food security, while utilization of food guarantees one's capacity to absorb and utilize nutrients in food consumed. Utilization of food is determined through caring practices, eating habits, hygiene, access to health and sanitary facilities (WFP, 2002)⁷.

V. TYPES AND FREQUENCY OF CONSUMPTION OF FOOD BY SLUM DWELLERS-

Quality of food is major concerned for the slum dwellers. Taking nutritious foods and frequency of consumption of foods is important determinate of good health. Poor water and sanitary conditions lead to adverse health outcomes in the households living in the slums. Specially the women and children in the slums are most vulnerable section. So here the study will reveal the actual health scenario by providing fowling data. Protein energy intake is widely low in urban slums. According to experts, protein is one of the key components of proper diet and more than half of Raipur populations suffer from malnutrition. Protein deficiency hinders physical growth of children and their brain development. As milk is expensive, 20 amino acids can be obtained in eggs and 10 of them are important for children. Poultry and eggs are first class sources of protein. A large amount of vegetable protein can be found in some food items like peas, beans, pulses, but 20 amino acids are not available in them (Zannat, 2008).⁸

This study shows the most frequently consumed food items to be potatoes, fresh vegetables, sweets and eggs. Most of these items are both relatively cheap and typical of the slum diet. In contrast, butter, soft drinks, milk and ghee were the least frequently consumed items. They are also relatively expensive and are not considered essential to the diet, particularly among persons with low income. The consumption of fruits, snacks and sweets is very highly significantly correlated. All these items are relatively inexpensive and

⁷ World Food Programme (WFP), 2002. Food Security Assessment in Bangladesh, Issues and Implications for Mapping Food Insecurity and Vulnerability, Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping, Bangladesh.

⁸ Zannat, M. 2008. Children's protein intake at stake. The Daily Star.

are regularly eaten not only at home but also on every special and auspicious occasion. Moreover, the practice of offering these items to guests or as gifts is prevalent among Chhattisgarhi's, regardless of socio-economic

status. They are also routinely offered to various Hindu deities and then consumed by the devotees on every religious occasion.

Table 1 : Daily food habit and frequency of consumption of food.

Name of slum	Vegetarian						Non vegetarian						Total Respondents
	Light food	%	Heavy food	%	Total	%	Light food	%	Heavy food	%	Total	%	
Kota Basti	2	11.77	2	11.77	2	11.77	15	88.23	15	88.23	15	88.23	17
Kushalpur	12	88	12	12	12	12	88	88	88	88	88	88	100
Gandhinagar	15	15.79	16	16.84	16	16.84	80	84.21	79	83.16	79	83.16	95
Moulipara	15	17.04	8	9.09	8	9.09	73	82.96	80	90.91	80	90.91	88
Total	44	14.67	38	12.67	38	12.67	256	85.33	262	87.33	262	87.33	300

Source : Personal survey, 2011.

Table 1 shows the nature and frequency of consumption of the food practices by the slum dwellers. 12.67% respondents are vegetarian and 87.33% respondents are non vegetarian. Large numbers of slum dwellers take heavy food twice daily. As maximum people work in informal sector they leave home early in the morning. So they take heavy food in morning before leaving home. Usually they also take Tiffin with them. At night they take again heavy food. But the habit of women and children is little bit different than of men. So far the non vegetarians are concerned they also practice same food habit as vegetarians. The only difference is in

nature of the food they consume. Non vegetarians use to take meat, fish, egg, chicken etc. Interrogation reveals that generally Brahmins are vegetarians in Raipur with few exceptions. But few non Brahmin people also found vegetarians. According to respondents, children are provided with three meals in a day. But inadequate quality and lack of diversity of food are matter of concern in food habit. Consumption pattern of slum dwellers depict that rice, potato, vegetable and edible oil are consumed on daily basis. The food habit is almost same in four slums. General practice of people shows that they use to take heavy and light food daily.

Table 2 : Consumption of stored food by slum dwellers.

Name of slum	Often take	%	Some time take	%	Not take	%	Total Respondents
Kota basti	6	35.29	7	41.18	4	23.53	17
Kushalpur	45	45	44	44	11	11	100
Gandhinagar	29	30.53	49	51.58	17	17.89	95
Moulipara	15	17.05	54	61.36	19	21.59	88
Total	95	31.67	154	51.33	51	17	300

Source : Personal survey, 2011.

In many places of Raipur the practice of taking stored food (popularly known as *basli*) is general habit of the slum dwellers. This stored food is used in such a way so that it would not rotten or get decomposed. Usually rice is kept into the water and left for a day and eat it several times. By doing this they think they can save time and money. They also believe this kind of food is not harmful for health. Not only that they also claim that this type of food helps to sustain for a long time. The table 2 shows that 31.67% respondents use stored food often. 51.33% respondents take

occasionally and 17% people don't take stored food. Stored food is taken sometime uniformly in almost all slums. Moulipara has less number of people consuming stored foods but Kushalpur is in the top in this regard. Consumption of stored foods may sometime create food poisoning, and people have complaint for having stomach related problems in these areas.

VI. QUALITY ASSESSMENT OF DRINKING WATER AND FOOD

Good nutrition forms the basis for good health of a child. Nutrition is required for a child to grow, develop, stay active, and to reach adulthood as well. An adequate supply of safe drinking water is universally recognized as a basic human need. Consequently, the urban poor often use inexpensive pit latrines and at the same time may draw domestic water from nearby wells or taps. Overcrowding in slums limits the adequate distance between wells and pit latrines so that micro-organisms migrate from latrines to water sources. Sanitary practices in these overcrowded slums are also

poor, leading to contamination of these wells. This study sought to assess sanitary practices of residents of slum and fecal contamination of their domestic water sources. Children's food habit and health status are directed by household's socio-economic condition. Also, children are susceptible to environmental sanitation while they are found most of the time playing around or spending outside environment which is very unhygienic. Socio-economic factors like income, expenditure and education are analyzed to depict households' ability and knowledge about dietary practice and prevalence of disease occurrence among children.

Table 3 : Consumption of nutritious foods by children.

Name of slum	Daily				Some time				Don't / Can't take		Total Respondents
	Milk	%	Baby food/fruits	%	Milk	%	Baby food/fruits	%	Total	%	
Kota basti	3	17.65	1	5.88	3	17.65	-	-	10	58.82	17
Kushalpur	25	25	3	3	31	31	4	4	37	37	100
Gandhinagar	38	40	5	5.26	32	33.68	2	2.11	18	18.95	95
Moulipara	33	37.5	11	12.5	22	25	9	10.23	13	14.77	88
Total	99	33	20	6.67	88	29.33	15	5	78	26	300

Source : Personal survey, 2011.

According to respondents, children are provided on an average three meals in a day. But inadequate quality and lack of diversity of food are matter of concern in food habit. Consumption pattern of slum dwellers depict that rice, potato, vegetable and edible oil are consumed on daily basis. Food composition sometimes is only rice with potato or peas or fish which are cheap to them. But access to protein rich animal product (milk and milk product, meat or chicken, eggs) is very low among the poor. They can provide their children these foods mainly on monthly basis or sometimes on special occasion like *Dashera* festival. According to households these are expensive food item and most of them cannot afford it. Though, a large number of households can manage fish or meat in weekly basis. Most of them answer that they eat fruits

on weekly basis. In this case, they can afford mainly banana which is relatively cheaper than other seasonal fruits. The data show us that 33% people can afford milk for their children. But only 6.67% can daily provide nutritious foods other than milk. 29.33% children sometime take milk whereas 5% respondents can provide fruits or baby foods seldom. Still 26% can't provide such types of foods to their children. Actually providing nutritious foods is quite expensive now a day, where half population earns less than Rs.5000/- per month and household units are more or less comprise of 5 persons per family. In Kota Basti more than 58% respondents can't provide expensive foods to their family members. In this regard Moulipara's situation quit better than other slums.

Table 4 : Practices of breast feeding after the birth of child

Name of slum	Within 1 hour		Above 1 hrs to 12 hrs		Within a day		Above 1 day		Total Respondents
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	
Kota Basti	2	11.77	4	23.53	6	35.29	5	29.41	17
Kushalpur	17	17	28	28	12	12	43	43	100
Gandhinagar	7	7.37	18	18.95	37	38.95	33	34.73	95
Moulipara	12	13.64	27	30.68	36	40.91	13	14.77	88
Total	38	12.67	77	25.67	91	30.33	94	31.33	300

Source : Personal survey, 2011.

Exclusive breastfeeding (EBF) is recommended as the optimum method of feeding for the first 6 months of life to meet the physiological requirements of the infants. It has been reported from the study that the practices of early introduction of breast feeds and late introduction of semi-solids are widely prevalent, more so in slums areas. Study reveals serious erosion of breastfeeding practices. Use of pre lacteal feeds is almost universal; use of feeding bottles, animal milk, and commercial milk formulae are very common. Also it has been found that the introduction of complementary foods is markedly delayed with this background, the study have been conducted to assess the breastfeeding practices of the children in slum and to determine the factors influencing it, if any. 12.67% mother has given colostrums within 1hour. 25.67% has provided milk to their children after one hour but before 12 hours of the birth. 30.33% mother has given breastfeed within the day and 31.33% provided breastfeed after one day. In Kushalpur and Gandhinagar slums major respondents admitted that they provide breast feeding to their children after a day. As we know that mothers' milk is very vital for the new born baby as soon as possible after the birth.

VII. HEALTH AWARENESS AND HEALTH PRACTICES AND EXPENDITURE ON FOOD

In addition, poverty, lack of literacy, widespread ignorance and the low social status of women result in malnutrition, low immunization rates, low maternal and child care and neglect of health, thus further contributing to the ill-health of the poor. The problem is further aggravated by the absence of a user friendly health care

system. Clinics and hospitals are often far from poor settlements and entail a long and expensive trip. The hospitals are also often overcrowded and staffed by unfriendly, unsympathetic doctors. Therefore, despite of good numbers of highly subsidized government hospitals, dispensaries and maternal / child health centers in Raipur, the poor remain unattended and untreated. Most urban poor, when they fall ill, prefer to consult a private practitioner, and since these doctors charge a heavy fee, the tendency is to avoid consulting a doctor until the illness becomes very serious. Housing in slums becomes a major health concern because residents of slums live in overcrowded situations. One fourth of households are simple one-room structures, a majority of them with dirt floors and poor ventilation. Such overcrowding can lead to rapid spread of respiratory and skin disease.

Easy access to drinking water in slums is another major problem. More than two thirds of slum residents lack access to safe drinking water on their premises. The main sources of water are municipal taps, connections of tap water is available in some homes. Lack of safe drinking water facilitates the spread of water borne diseases. The presence of stored water further promotes the breeding of mosquitoes and diseases such as malaria. Many waterborne diseases can be noticed during rainy seasons. Absence of available latrines is a major health problem as well. It is estimated that over one third of slum households have no access to bathroom facilities, promoting open defecation, which in turn leads to spread of fecal-oral disease and parasitic infestation. Awareness regarding health requires more attention in these areas. Some major aspects are given bellow for detailed study.

Table 5 : Action during minor sickness.

Consult register doctor	%	Consult non-register doctor	%	Prescribe himself/herself	%	Don't take any action	%	Total respondents
8	47.06	7	41.18	1	5.88	1	5.88	17
65	65	25	25	7	7	3	3	100
65	68.42	8	8.42	21	22.11	1	1.05	95
34	38.64	16	18.18	38	43.18	-	-	88
172	57.33	56	18.67	67	22.33	5	1.67	300

Source : Personal survey, 2010.

The study shows that slum dwellers often neglect minor sickness and do not consult doctor for remedy unless they fall ill. In this situation it is become obvious to know the medical practices of slum dwellers of Raipur city. Among the surveyed population (table no5) 57.33% respondents said that they consult doctor. Government hospitals provide comparatively cheaper

treatment. Some of them (18.67%) consult the local doctor or quack. But most dangerous practice is done when 22.33% respondents prescribe medicine themselves without proper knowledge. 1.67% people say that they don't take any medicine for minor cases. In Moulipara and Gandhinagar many people use this practice. Often people neglect minor sickness in slum

areas which can be seen through data in the table in which Kota Basti has ranked top. In slum areas local doctors like RMP or quack are operative. They often take

the chance of ignorance of slum dwellers which can be also seen in the table. In Kota Basti such cases can be seen clearly.

Table 6 : Place for purchasing medicines.

Name of slum	Medicine center	%	Local grocery/shop	%	Other place	%	Total respondents
Kota basti	13	76.47	3	17.65	1	5.88	17
Kushalpur	80	80	20	20	-	-	100
Gandhinagar	63	66.32	32	33.68	-	-	95
Moulipara	50	56.82	38	43.18	-	-	88
Total	206	68.67	93	31	1	0.33	300

Source : Personal survey 2011.

Another most important factor indicates the health concern of slum dwellers which plays vital role for purchasing medicine. The big medicine centers are located in city hearts. These slums have few little shops. The quacks are indirectly involved with these shops. Few low cost medicines generally available here. Even in grocery shop they use to keep medicines without having any proper license. So doubt if ingenuity remains in the mind. Table 6 reflects 68.67% people take medicine from the medical shop. But 31% people depend on the local shop. .33% people still take medicine from the road sides. One respondent said on the day of local vegetable market many people seats

with stone and medicinal plants (Jaributi), from them also people use to take medicine.

If the informal means of obtaining medicine suppose not genuine then many people is taking poison even after spending money. Local grocery preserves medicine for long time, which may exceed the date of expiry. Many so called educated people sometime overlook the expiry date of medicine, then how these marginalized people can notice? These kinds of incidents show the worse condition of health and medical awareness among the slum dwellers which brings far reaching consequences.

Table 7 : Preference for Medical Treatment

Name of slum	Government hospital	%	Private treatment	%	Total respondents
Kota basti	15	88.23	2	11.77	17
Kushalpur	69	69	31	31	100
Gandhinagar	75	78.95	20	21.05	95
Moulipara	72	81.82	16	18.18	88
Total	231	77	69	23	300

Source : Personal survey, 2011.

It is ironically said that good medical treatment is costly. Indirectly it indicates to the private institutions providing medical services across the country. It is fact that good health treatment is still unreachable to many poor living in the slums. So far the government hospitals are concerned they have tremendous pressure, patients come from the various places throughout the state. Here in the Raipur the numbers of large / good hospitals are limited. The condition of local hospitals and dispensary is miserable and unable to handle the critical cases due to lack of infrastructure. The table 7 shows that 77%

people depend on government hospitals. But 23% respondents say that they avail private institutions for health treatment. So good health for all and the right to good health which is in many cases unreachable to the urban poor. The data show that more or less maximum people are dependent on government hospitals. Few among them can effort the private treatment as and when required. All slums are projecting the same picture in this regard.

VIII. TYPES OF EPIDEMIC, DISEASES AND DISABILITIES

The slums present the worst forms of health conditions. Their deplorable environmental and economic conditions result in malnutrition among children. Infant as well as maternal mortality rates were very high in the slums. Due to poor hygiene conditions people died of hepatitis, encephalitis, typhoid and rabies. The incidence of respiratory diseases like fever, viral infection, tuberculosis, skin diseases, diseases of

the kidney and urinal diseases were high in the slums. The most conspicuous and highest degrees of incidence could be noticed for some special diseases: the incidence of tuberculosis was ten times higher in the slums than in the city as a whole, viral infections are 2.5 times higher, skin diseases 2 times, respiratory diseases 1.4 times, heart and circulatory system about 10 times and allergic diseases 1.9 times higher. As the slums have no open spaces and playgrounds, children in the slums developed mental complexes and physical imbalances. Elaborately the discussion is made below.

Table 8 : Infant mortality incidents in the family of the respondents.

Name of slum	1 case				More than 1 case				No case		Total respondents	Total no of case	%
	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	Total	%			
Kota basti	-	-	1	5.88	-	-	-	-	16	94.12	17	1	5.88
Kushalpur	1	1.33	3	3	-	-	-	-	96	96	100	4	4
Gandhinagar	1	-	4	4.21	-	-	-	-	90	94.74	95	5	5.26
Moulipara	4	4.54	4	4.54	2	2.27	-	-	78	88.64	88	10	11.36
Total	6	2	12	4	2	0.67	-	-	280	93.33	300	20	6.67

Source : Personal survey, 2011.

Here in the present study table 8 shows that in some families either boys (2%) or girls (4%) died after birth. .67% respondents have reported more than one infant death incidents. 93.33% respondents don't have any such type case. It is seen that the total number of infant mortality recorded in this table is 6.67%. Infant mortality is not a single problem with a single solution. Multiple and interrelated determinants interact demanding a chain of approaches and policies that to be evolved to deal with and to bring down the mortality rates. Mostly the women's and children's health is often

neglected resulting poor health and development. Over population and poverty are pervasive in and causing health hazards such as mortality. Infants are naturally innocent, vulnerable and dependent on their parents mainly mother's nutrition status and child feeding practices and often suffer from viral and infectious diseases. The lower case of infant mortality shows the greater level of awareness. It is seen that among four slums Moulipara has the maximum number of infant mortality cases. But the overall scenario is encouraging in this regard.

Table 9 : Information showing physically / mentally challenged children among family members of the respondents.

Name of slum	Yes						No		Total respondents
	M	%	F	%	Total no of disability	%	Total	%	
Kota basti	1	5.88	-	-	1	5.88	16	94.12	17
Kushalpur	4	4	1	1	5	5	95	95	100
Gandhinagar	1	1.05	7	7.37	8	8.42	87	91.58	95
Moulipara	4	4.55	-	-	4	4.55	84	95.45	88
Total	10	3	8	2	18	6	282	94	300

Source : Personal survey, 2011.

The unprivileged people who include impoverished slum children, physically and mentally challenged. Since the health facility can refer children to hospitals, there are certain disabilities, which can be cured when detected at an early stage; for example the clubfoot disease, the most common physical handicap among small children. It is reported that there are 6% disabled persons living in the slum at present as per the table 9. These disabled persons generally treated as marginalized section among marginalized community. In Kota Basti 5.88% males are reported either physically or mentally challenged but no female victim can be seen. On the contrary in Gandhinagar slum it is seen that 7.37% females are having disabilities with highest number of disabilities cases among other slums.

IX. CONCLUDING REMARKS

We suspect that there is an untapped demand for clean, habitable and decent living conditions amongst the slum dwellers that can positively impact on health. Unfortunately these demands are not important, relevant nor deemed necessary to be fulfilled due to a series of arguments (excuses) - 'migrant population', 'illegality of settlement' (specifically land), 'encroachers' and 'insufficient financial and human resources'. What are required are not assumptions or broad generalizations or complete neglect/apathy but focused thinking towards accommodating the growing population of cities with adequate housing and decent quality of life for 'all'. There are main issues that require attention if health services for the poor are to be improved and made more accessible - while inadequate health facilities maybe partly responsible for the poor health status of slum dwellers the answer does not lie in simply providing more services. Although it is extremely important to invest in more services like reorienting and sensitizing doctors/nurses, additional beds in government hospitals, well equipped dispensaries and maternity clinics near slums and settlements inhabited by the poorer sections; focus needs to be on accepting and understanding that although medical facilities for the urban poor are both inadequate and the poor have limited access, the poor can avail of the same in cities that are not available to them in the villages; and this demand must be fulfilled keeping in mind the felt needs of the poor. For the poor private doctors are approachable for small ailments or coughs/cold, but free services at government hospitals is always the option in case of severe health problems. Being close to government hospitals and dispensaries is a positive factor but more information regarding health, reproduction, availability of better government resources for illnesses like TB, for both men and women needs to be appropriately addressed. Education can play vital role in influencing parent's knowledge about nutrition, hygiene and health. Sometimes respondents are found

to be conscious about food habit but can't afford healthy food which is expensive to them. As slum dwellers do not own any land and stay in public and private land, so they cannot grow food in their own land. Consequently, they are diarrhea patient mostly dependent on market price of food. However, market price fluctuates without considering their ability to buy. So this state of price fluctuations has to be given priority in case of household level to make them food secure. The guardian should be more active about the health care of their offspring. Some special child care clinic and child development programme may be initiated by the government. Mentally and physically challenged children are worst victim of our social system, thus their condition is miserable in the surroundings they live. Therefore children in slums need urgent attention of their pathfinder.

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The Utility of Geographic Information System (GIS) in Transport Data Integration for Economic Development: Evidence from Ibadan, Nigeria

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Keywords : *transport data integration, GIS, economic development.*

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The Utility of Geographic Information System (GIS) in Transport Data Integration for Economic Development: Evidence from Ibadan, Nigeria

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Abstract - This study sets out to assess the capability of Geographic Information System (GIS) in Transport Data Integration for Economic development in Ibadan, Nigeria. The study entails an analysis of transport data need and an assessment of their relevance in economic planning. This need is set against the background of large body of data involved in transportation planning and management. The Methodology entails some processes such as data integration, data standardization and spatial referencing and interfacing. The study shows the importance of referencing of socio-economic data and location referencing in economic planning to assist in economic development. ArcGIS programme is employed for integrating data such as demand data i.e. demographic data, land use data, economic data and travel, supply data such as road networks and related facilities. The significance of GIS/ Transport Data Integration in economic development is demonstrated at micro level in Ibadan using a case study approach.

The study reveals the utility of GIS in Transport Data Integration as an effective technique of data exchange for economic development, and also, as a robust system for linking data from different sources for strategic decision support for economic development.

Keywords : transport data integration, GIS, economic development.

I. INTRODUCTION

The ever increasingly urbanized world has created various problems of environment, climate, consumption of resources, and public health, which are closely linked to the side-effects of urbanization such as sprawl, congestion, housing affordability and loss of open space. These problems need to be addressed at various levels of spatial planning and decision making. For instance, in urbanization management, special and specific consideration should be given to the relationships between land use, transportation, and the environment. Fundamental to the urban problems are two separate yet related issues: urban structure and urban dynamics. Both issues can be seen from physical and socio-

economic perspectives (Jiang and Yao, 2010). There is need to harmonize activity sector for economic development, and in most cases there are always conflicting interest. Services are major activity sector which has transport as one of its components in which transport component of the services comprises of road transport, rail transport and transport, air transport and other transport services (CBN, 2009). And transport component contributes significantly to the GDPs of Nigeria's economy; therefore it is important to give it the required effort.

There has also been a very close relationship between transport and economic theory. Some of the most important theoretical concepts that form the basis of analysis and evaluation have come from economic theory, such as the theory of consumer travel behaviour, the supply curve, equilibrium and welfare measures (Meyer & Miller, 1984). Also supply and demand relationship for urban transportation can be related to price determination technique in the demand-supply theory in economics (Okoko, 2006). In analyzing travel behaviour, utility functions make use of several economic variables, including transport services by various modes, monetary out-of-pocket costs on trip, and income (Huang, 2003). All these go a long way in determining the daily activities of individuals in any nation and thereby enhance or negate economic development.

Computer and information technologies have dramatically improved the capabilities of transport forecast and evaluation models. Transport software packages are available for various scales of application, ranging from strategic trend forecasts to detailed traffic assignment. Simulation models, particularly micro-simulation models, are applicable with the availability of advanced computing methods such as object-oriented programming and parallel processing (Algerset al, 1998). New data capture techniques such as Global Positioning Systems (GPS) provide a revolutionary means of data collection for transport planning and operations management. Data for transport planning are best managed by and retrieved from database management systems. More advanced techniques for data manipulation are available, including data warehousing, data mining and knowledge discovery. However, as data come from a variety of sources and in

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varying data formats, this presents a tremendous challenge in terms of linking and integrating transport data (Huang, 2003).

In the aspect of data integration, GIS provides a platform for many types of information which include maps, tabular data, pictures, multimedia, air photos and satellite images. Geographic

Location provides the frame of reference: "space as an indexing system" (Decrg, 2007).

The aim of this study is to highlight the importance of spatial data tools and technologies for integrating and visualizing transportation data, with effort to demonstrate the utility at the micro level, using Ibadan as a case in point.

II. ECONOMIC PLANNING AND DATA NEED

Diverse forms of information are required in economic planning. This section therefore looks into economic planning and Data need so as to see the importance of their integration in economic development.

a) *Economic Planning*

Planning is one of the basic principles of administration and about the most critical of its functions since it permeates all other aspects that are involved in management ladder. Economic planning therefore becomes a necessary tool used by many governments and organizations to set their visions, missions, goals, and effective means of realizing development through effective direction and control (Ikeanyibe, 2009).

It is important to note that the planning system affects investment through provision of certainty of land use and infrastructure improvements. Economic dividends accrue when both public and private individuals apply the present resources and are sure of the future use of their own and surrounding land would be committed to investment. Productivity is enhanced by well-planned infrastructure, for instance by reducing journey times with increasing labour mobility, and by creating virile environments habitable for living and working. Innovations in economic planning can also bring about competition (Kefela, 2010). With the increasingly competitive and knowledge-driven global economy, data is required by the planning system. Planning system is a key lever the decision maker has to contribute towards improving productivity, and the country's long-term economic performance (DCLG, 2007).

Economic planning policies are expected to be in-depth in flexibility in order to respond to the economic challenges and opportunities that globalization and technological advances bring. To be able to actualize this task, exchange of accurate data is paramount. And most of these processes require real time data

exchange; this includes responding to and harnessing opportunities from increased competition from businesses across the globe involving high-growth economies. There is need for economic forecast as it relates to transport system because it is a major contributor to the GDP of the economy; it allows communities to take full advantage of the economic opportunities available to them, sustaining and creating employment and prosperity (DCLG, 2007; CBN, 2009).

In respect to data need for economic development, it covers a wide range of development which include all traffic generating activities related to development such as retail, leisure and offices, industries; housing; telecommunications and transport uses related to ports, airports and other inter-modal freight terminals. The core idea in most of the thinking was that economic development was based on accumulating and adding physical capital, capital being the binding constraint (Wallace, 2001).

b) *Data Need*

In order to attain excellence in economy, the economic operations must be run effectively and efficiently. This requires the ability to analyze operational performance, and various categories of data are needed. Accurate data is required to determine the impact and performance of economic decisions. There is need to be certain that appropriate actions are taken to build upon transport operation successes, initiate any corrective measures, and effectively plan for the future. For the economy to thrive, or perhaps even survive, operation and analysis must work together and reinforce each other; and up-to-date data is required for analysis (Business Objects, 2004).

There is need to identify the data sets needed for planning. Depending on the specific context, transport data needs may be assessed on the project basis, the business basis or the system basis. The purpose, content and extent of data needs are different for these three bases. For the purpose of economic planning and development, it could be all encompassing (Huang 2003).

Pisarski (1997) highlighted six data issues that border on data need; these include socio-economic data, financial data, supply and system characteristics data, demand and use data, system operations data, and impact and performance data. Jack Faucett Associates (1997) also put forward a data organization framework that incorporates the data components of supply, demand, system performance and system impacts.

III. TRANSPORT DATA INTEGRATION

Data integration is a process of assimilating data from different sources and formats. Metadata, or data about the data, is poor or non-existing in many data sources. The lack of metadata regarding data

collection methods, data semantics, and basic data description greatly complicates the data integration process (Figliozzi and Tufte, 2009). Data integration allows for the consolidation of the current data contained in many operational or production systems and combine it with historical values. The creation of a data warehouse (or, on a more limited scale, a single-subject data mart) facilitates access to this data. Collecting and consolidating the data needed to populate a data warehouse or data mart and periodically augmenting its content with new values while retaining the old is a practical application of data integration (Business Objects, 2004).

The need for transport data integration can be justified from several perspectives. In general, transport planning and management consumes a large amount of data. These data have to be integrated in a way that satisfies the needs of transport planning, modeling, evaluation and policy making (Huang 2003). The need to integrate and coordinate freight data collection efforts is widely accepted and recognized. Transport data is available from many public and private sources. However, the data may significantly vary in terms of collection method, time frame, format, and quality. The lack of coordination not only prevents the seamless integration of data sources but also limits the scope and quality of transportation studies (Figliozzi and Tufte, 2009).

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF GIS/TRANSPORT DATA INTEGRATION IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

This section discusses the categories of data and benefits of data integration in economic development.

a) Demand Data in Transport

Transport demand data are majorly demographic data, land use data, socio-economic data and travel demand data.

In Nigeria, demographic data are most commonly available from government statistical agencies through national population commission. Census data otherwise known as population data remain an invaluable source for demographic research. They are important variables in transport planning models i.e. economic base concept which requires data on the population. The service or non-service sector depends on the growth of the population of the local area (Okoko, 2006).

Different land use types are found in urban centres and pattern of a town is interrelated with the physical characteristics of its transportation network; and each type of land use is unique and has its own specific propensity to generate trips. There is correlation between the size or population of a land use type and its

ability to generate traffic. Equally relationship exists between the attractiveness of a zone and the amount of traffic attracted to that zone (Okoko, 2006). Land use development is an effective indication of urban growth. Data on land value, land tax, land quality and land use policy are prerequisite for decision making in transport (Pisarski, 1997).

Economic data is vital, the expenditures of households and public enterprises on transport is an economic indicator, so it is a reliable component of forecast. In predicting trip generation, data on socio-economic characteristics of commuters must be established. In Nigeria, transport makes its own contribution to the economy, although the contribution is higher in developed countries. In Nigeria, transport sector contributed ₦3, 730.4 Million (5.5%) in 1985, ₦5438.8 Million (2.0%) in 1990, ₦50, 314.9 Million (2.6%) in 1995, ₦129, 092.0 Million (2.8%) in 2000, ₦385, 481.6 Million (2.7%) in 2005, and ₦506, 720.8 Million (2.1%) in 2009 to the GDP (current basic prices) of the nation's economy (CBN, 2009). In United State, it is up to 20 percent of total expenditure was spent all modes of transport in 1994 (USDOT & BTS, 1997). Therefore, household's expenditure including transport enterprises are strong economic indicator; and they are useful variables in economic planning and development.

There are other socio-economic factors such as household income, car ownership, age, sex, family size, cost.e.t.c that induced and influence various transport modes, and types of employment are all among the explanatory variables (Black, 1981, Okoko, 2006). These data play significant roles in economic planning.

Also, data on travel is another essential demand data; the statistic of passenger travel is required for travel demand modelling and represents a major effort in transport demand analysis. There are three principal elements that must be taken into account in demand modeling. These are people, their activities, and the space context within which the activities take place. It must put into consideration the interactions of these elements in terms of perception of space, travel mode and constraints on movement (Huang, 2003). Since, they are activities taking place in space with such great interactions; their data are required for economic planning.

Information on trip includes the following items, place of origin and destination (zone-based), purpose of trip i.e. office trip, touring, shopping, school e.t.c., car, bus, rail are element of trip mode. Others are vehicle type, number of persons cum size of load in vehicle, time of day (peak or non-peak), and trip duration (Hutchinson, 1974, Okoko, 1999). Comprehensive data for all these are required for proper economic planning and development and their integration is inevitable to achieve the feat.

b) *Supply Data in Transport*

The components of urban infrastructure include road networks and related facilities and they are fundamental to mobility. In urban transport planning, the layout and capacity of these transport facilities are the elements of the physical aspect of transport planning (Huang 2003).

In road network representation, the level of detail required is a function of the scale of transport analysis. The traditional transport planning utilizes all sorts of symbolized link node structure such as roads, intersections and zone centroids for accessibility analysis, shortest routes and trip assignment. The number of available bus stops, traffic signals, bus stations, train stations. The pedestrian facilities with adequate safety amenities are all part of supply data in transport. Others are data of road length, design capacity and speed, pavement and direction of flow. Supply data entails infrastructural data, the infrastructure must be adequately and properly maintained to give leverage and aid economic activities. There must be periodic assessment of these infrastructures, its adequacy and performance in respect to economic development.

c) *Performance Data and Determinant factor*

The real performance over time is shown by the operations of urban transport infrastructure and these data and metadata are required for the evaluation of system performance or for prediction of future trends. Pisarski (1997) highlighted the variables detected or monitored for the regression analysis or trend analysis to forecast traffic volume of a road network in the near future as follow:

- *Travelling speed, rate of flow, density and volume on various links*
- *Types of vehicles travelled through monitoring sites*
- *Incidents such as level of congestion and accidents*
- *Operating restrictions, e.g. vehicle speed, height and weight limits*
- *Tolls and other facility-specific charges*
- *Functional class of highway segment*
- *Frequently updated condition measures for bridges, arterial and street systems, and other facilities*
- *Inventory of materials used in construction and maintenance*
- *Information on agency or company responsible for maintenance and operation of the facilities so that data on supply and cost can be related.*

These data are germane to system evaluation or performance calculations, which serve as indices for the measurement of the effectiveness and operational efficiency of a transport system. The ease of travel, the quality of service provision based on adopting this methodology, would accomplish the principles of good access which are Safety, Affordability, Accessibility and Reliability in public transport (Olowosegun and Okoko,

2012). This would determine the operational performance the system, these are crucial factors in provision and sustaining acceptable levels of mobility, and level of mobility determines a lot in economic activities and economic viability.

V. MICRO LEVEL DEMONSTRATION OF TRANSPORT DATA INTEGRATION USING IBADAN, NIGERIA

Transport data integration in geo-information systems starts with the proper representation and standardisation of these data. The tools for data representation include relational data models, feature-based models, object-oriented models and temporal data models which the analogy can be shown with cartographic model (Olowosegun, 2010).

a) *Methodology*

The process involves data standardizing, spatial referencing, data integration and interfacing. This micro level demonstration relies on the data from National Population Commission, GPS data, accident data, traffic data from past work of this research authors.

i. *Demand Data*

This study relies on population data of 5 L.G.A. in Ibadan, socio-economic data of sampled population in Ibadan, car ownership are backend data otherwise known as attribute data.

ii. *Supply Data*

The supply data for this analysis includes the roads in selected L.G.A in Ibadan with their length, 72 bus stops coordinates (X, Y, and Z) obtained with GPS.

iii. *Performance Data*

This includes accident data in Ibadan, traffic volume in Agodi-Gate Ibadan and best route for public in Ibadan North L.G.A.

b) *Integration of Supply, Demand and Performance Data in Ibadan*

Figure 1a below is the visual output of demographic data of five L.G.As of Ibadan metropolis with transport routes. The backend data which is the attribute data include the population data, sex, the length of the roads, the street names e.t.c. The attribute data can be queried, it can be analyzed i.e spatial analysis, economic decisions such as location of facilities can be facilitated. Figure 1b shows the visual output without the road network but showing the graphs of accident data in Ibadan. It can help in determining the area with high prevalence of accidents and suitable locations for accident response centres and even location of orthopedic hospitals can be done when analyzed at broader level i.e accident trend in Nigeria. Integration of all category of data is also shown in Figure 2, Ibadan North L.G.A is extracted from figure 1 in order

to show clearer visual output. Showing the route analysis and 72 bus stops in Ibadan North taken with GPS. Analysis shows that there are four (4) very good bus stops (5.56%), thirty five (35) good bus stops (48.61%) and thirty three (33) bad bus stops (48.83%) in Ibadan North L.G.A. (Olowosegun and Okoko, 2012).

The map of Agodi-Gate (Figure 3) is extracted from figure 2 and it shows the traffic volume in PCU at four locations for a particular day. It shows the level of traffic in the area and decisions on traffic congestion and other traffic vices can be improved.

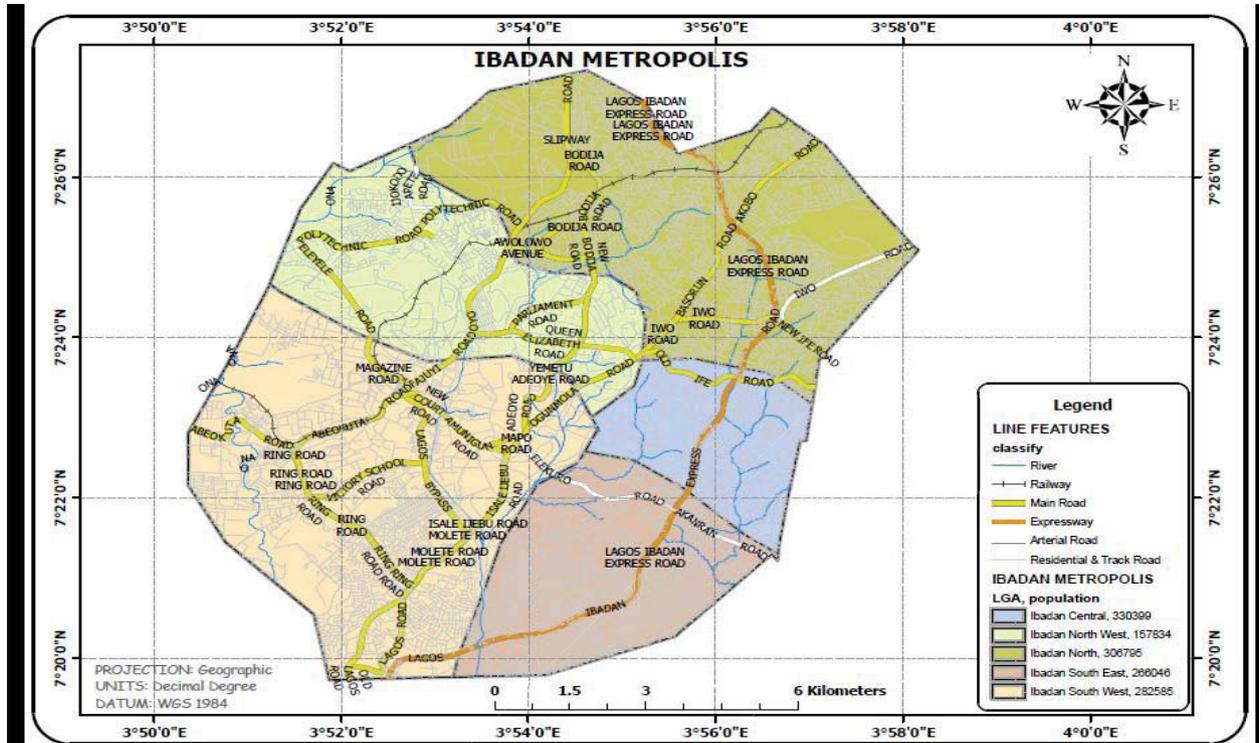


Figure 1a : Integrated Map of Ibadan Metropolis.

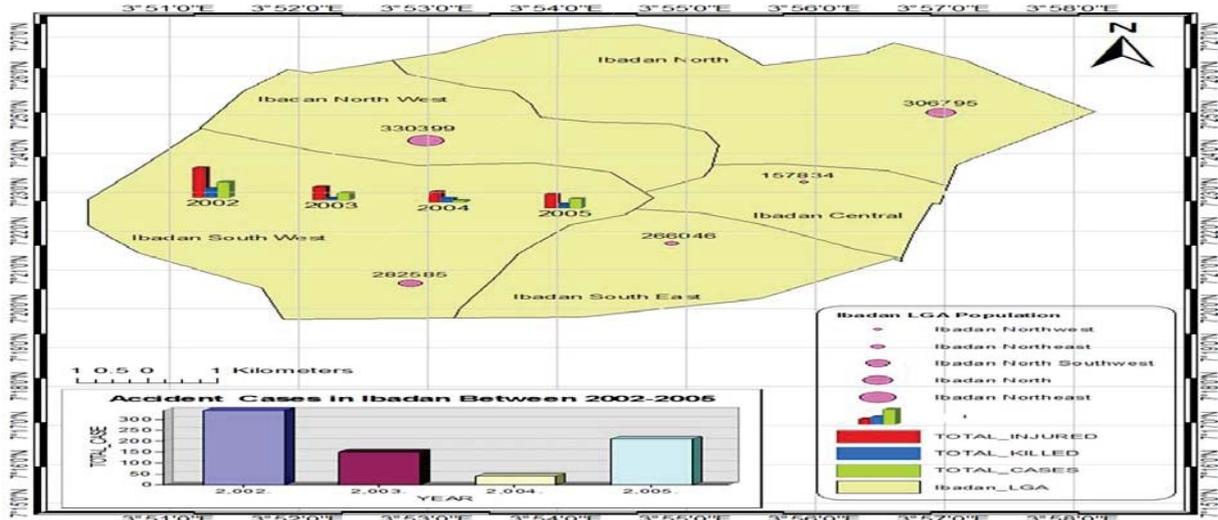


Figure 1b : Integrated Map of Ibadan Metropolis without Road Network.

Source: GPS Map prepared and integrated with other data by the authors

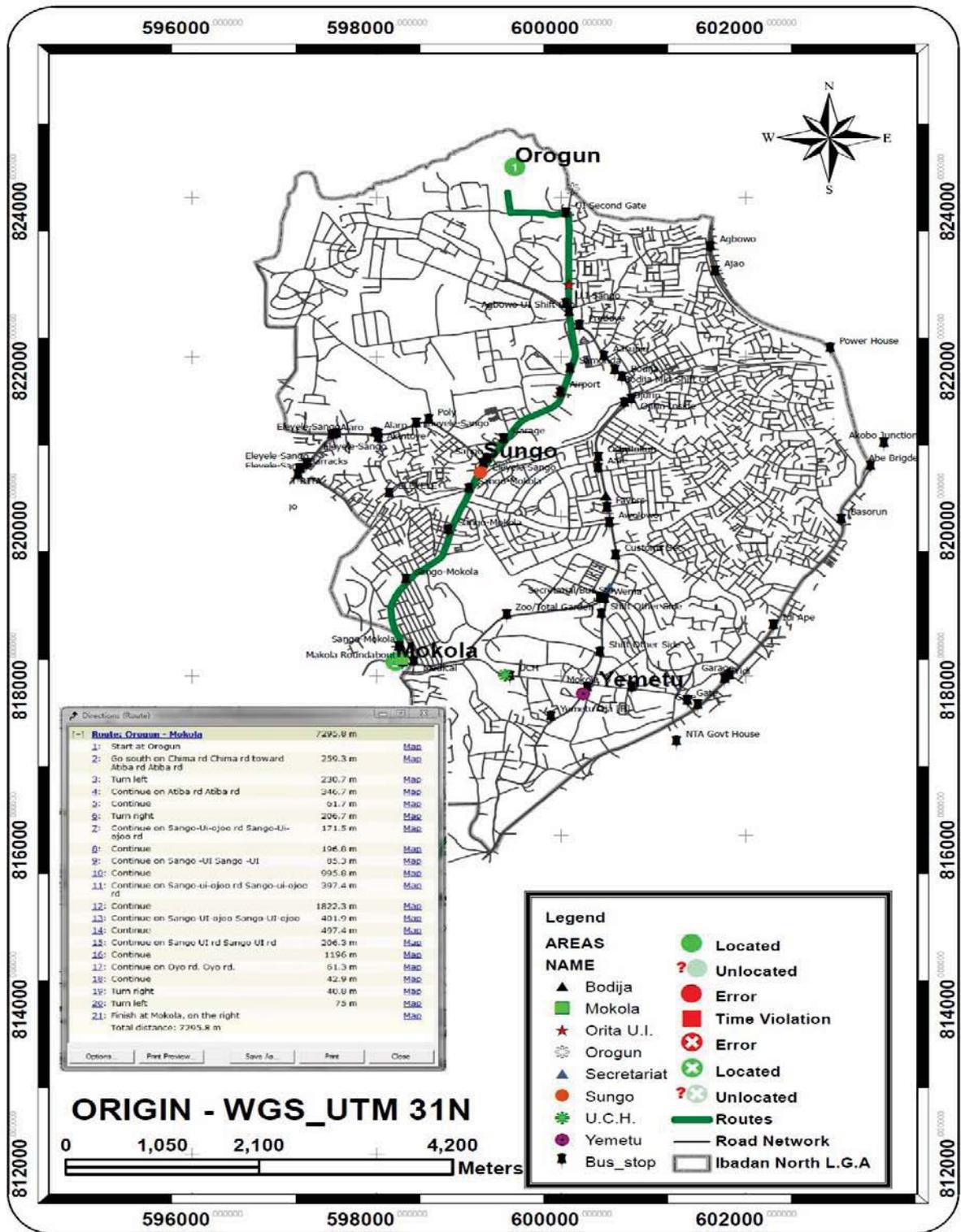


Figure 2 : Integrated Map of Ibadan North L.G.A.

Source: Prepared by the Authors

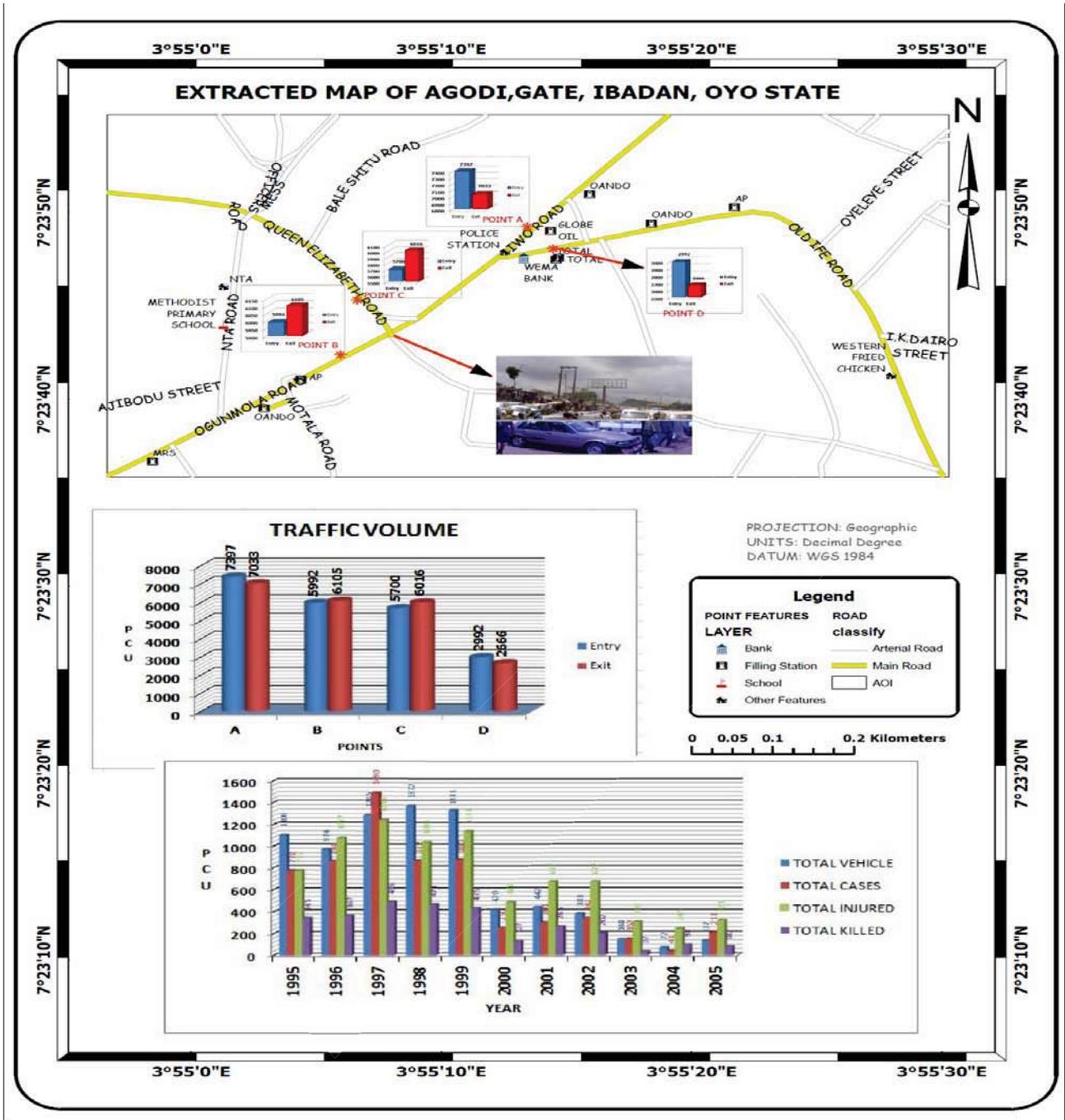


Figure 3 : Extracted Map of Agodi Gate Ibadan from Integrated Map of Ibadan North L.G.A.

Source: Prepared by the Authors

VI. BENEFITS OF TRANSPORT DATA INTEGRATION IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The flexibility in combining data sets is meticulous; this creates enormous simplicity in estimation and generates new indicators on performance transport system as it relates to economic development. One of the indisputable strength of GIS is the capability to eliminate some forms of respondent

error. This is useful in compilation of historical data and predictive data; the entire process helps in economic planning thereby enhancing the reliability, dependability and efficacy of the process. This enhances the various determinants and indices required in economic development to reliably develop in a systematic way to reduce error to the minimum threshold. Another significant benefit of transport data integration in GIS environment is the ability to facilitate scenario analysis e.g figure 2, network analysis. This can be exemplified in

the placement of new infrastructures and its consequences i.e. the effect of new bus stop placement. This comes with visualization and therefore presents additional insights and new hypotheses that pen-ultimately foster economic development.

The whole process allows for querying and asking very specific questions at various levels of economic development. It creates links to rich travel behavioural pattern and other socio-economic information including the household level information. It allows for metadata intensive compilation with overwhelming details and this is a pointer for firm decision making in economic planning and development. The overall analysis using standard techniques is robust being a viable tool in application of GIS to transport which is pivotal to economic development.

VII. RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

a) Recommendation

The conventional method of data gathering, processing and analysis is overwhelmed with great limitations and weaknesses. There are potent lessons in transport data integration that require expedient consideration to enhance economic development. This study recommends that an articulate method of data integration in transport should be adopted in order to eliminate some weaknesses found in traditional methods such as lack of spatial statistical analysis, respondent error cum documentation, poor metadata and geographical information. This will help in taking full advantage of technology by rethinking data integration methodologies for transport planning process and economic development and equally improve data quality and the visualization performance indices.

This study equally recommends that the facilities scenario analysis should always be carried out e.g figure 2 and 3 i.e. new bus stop placement and trip generating activities as to have the predictive insight to the consequences of such development; this will help in firm decision and subsequently showing economic activities performance index. Metadata is an important ingredient in achieving optimal result therefore the study recommends that the socio-economic data should be linked with their spatial reference and must include the metadata as much as possible (the attribute data in Figures 1a, 1b, 2, 3) i.e. traffic count, the number of vehicle counted is the data while the metadata are GPS coordinates (X, Y and Z) and the metadata of the method of collection of the traffic count which may include a picture of the location with the installation, model of device used and the research team (figure3). The process allows for links to be created between different data sources.

It is important to develop transport performance data indices that take into account data mapping,

transferability and if possible that real time with optimal communication system. Since most transportation data possess strong spatial component, the performance of its contribution to the economic development can be measured reflecting strong spatial component. This allows for specific questions to be asked i.e querying of the attribute data; the backend of the map which is the frontend. Therefore, it is recommended that in economic planning in Nigeria, the role of spatial analyst must be guaranteed as to articulately incorporate all these qualities.

b) Conclusion

This study tapped from the robustness of GIS package and explicitly demonstrate the utility of GIS in Data Integration especially as it relate to transportation. The significance of Transport data integration in economic planning and development is highlighted by revealing its benefits. Equally, the imminent failure of large body of data management involved in transport planning must be guarded against, therefore, it is necessary to fashion out a national database to take care of ravaging situation in the area of lack of unified data giving room for fashion of data in the country .i.e. annual accident figures and even the map of Nigeria.

The study has identified and equally demonstrated the spatial analysis capability of GIS technology for integrating all forms of spatially referenced data to give reflection and impacts of the activities in the environment; therefore it is a pointer to an articulated decision making in transport management and other aspects of economic development. The detail and complex data required in transport planning tools is managed better in GIS environment. Therefore, it is not out of place for Nigeria to adopt fully the strong power of integration and spatial analysis tools in GIS to foster its economic development in the area of data gathering, processing, manipulation and analysis. This is because all the vital economic decision must be based on strong economic, socio-political argument which can only come from the volume of data (information) available which must not be bereft of accuracy.

Finally, inculcating the principle and dynamics of data integration would posit out-rightly a sound foundation for virile decision making because of its capability that is reflected in performance indices and impact analysis. Therefore, it is a unique tool available for decision makers for economic development.

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The Dress Code for Lawyers: In Search of Change with Climatic Compatibility in Bangladesh

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Abstract - Dress code is a part of dignity and professionalism with little exception. The outfit of Judges and Advocates with judicial robes seems a mark of dignity and loyalty towards court and justice. Americans refused to adopt the judicial attire of the British after independence. Almost all countries in the Indian subcontinent are in debt to the British for the development of their jurisprudence including dress code. Even, the British has relaxed wearing judicial costumes but these countries including Bangladesh have slight headache to suit the dress code for lawyers as per climatic conformity and culture even after the departure of the British. India has modified dress code for lawyers to a tiny extent but the practice is still like colonized India reminding silent domination of the British. This write up is a venture to explore the historical chronicles of the judicial attire across the world and their recent changing trends and practices with a view to seek a meaningful transformation in Bangladesh.

Keywords : lawyers, dress code, bangladesh, climatic compatibility, adjustment, change.

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Emdadul Haque

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I. INTRODUCTION

Undeniably, the close nexus between profession and dress (Rahman, 2010) is visible all around the globe from time immemorial. Lawyers, Judges, Doctors, Army Personnel, Police Forces and Convict Prisoners follow fixed dress code as directed by respective states. Wearing specific dress code, lawyers are to sweat to earn in many countries with sweltering climate. Question arises that should it be more according to the climate rather than protecting impressed legacy reflecting magnificence or pointing ridicule. Judicial costume preserves respect for authority and the status symbol of the court (Yablon, 1995) for judges and advocates providing a degree of anonymity, mark of dignity, strength, discipline, decency, legal fraternity and respect towards courts. Respect to the court should be reflected by knowledge, and not by dresses, anyways for disciplinary issues, dresses may be decided according to culture and compatibility with the climate of a particular country. Many countries have changed judicial costumes for lawyers to get rid of the British colonial legacy and adjusted the same keeping consistency with climatic compatibility paving the way

for Court's commitment to providing an appropriate and accessible environment (BBC, 2011). But the dress code of lawyers introduced by the British long ago is still in force in Bangladesh causing concerns among the lawyers because of unsuitability and uncomfotability in hot and humid weather in most parts of a year.

The dearth of Indebted legal literature and study materials about prevailing costume jurisprudence in Bangladesh leads the writer to undertake this initiative in a bid to depict the history, tradition and recent change in countries to reconstitute the judicial costumes in Bangladesh keeping pace with climate, heritage and culture, moral and social values. In this study Advocates, Attorneys, Counsel, Solicitor, Barrister, Judges are branded as lawyers.

II. HISTORICAL CHRONICLES OF THE DRESS CODE FOR LAWYERS

Beyond any reasonable doubt in science and technology the domination of either of the British or of America is still sustained even ranging from parliament to the court premises in most parts of the world. Whether we prefer it or not we are to cite the British or America as the pioneer of all creativities, discoveries and inventions. The same fact is echoed while digging out the historical chronicles of dress code for lawyers. This reminds the quotation of Dan Brown, an American author of thriller fiction, the Da Vinci Code, saying history is always written by the winners. He further opines that when two cultures clash, the loser is obliterated, and the winner writes the history books which glorify their own cause and disparage the conquered foe. The English judicial costumes worn by the judges are the most distinctive working wardrobe in existence for more than six centuries (Baker, 1978). The costumes for judges were more or less established by the time of British King Edward III (1327-1377) for attending the Royal court. The material for ceremonial dress or robes was originally given to judges as a grant from the Crown. The division of legal profession in England dates back to 1340, paving the way for the evolution of professional advocacy (Waker, 1980). In 1340, in a public reaction general people opposed the length of the judicial attire but the lawyers obstinately decided to adhere to the

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long robes. The judges during medieval era wore violet robes in the winter and green robes in the summer. The green summer robes fell into disguise by 1534 and after 1534 only the black and violet robes were usually worn.

However, robes can be interpreted to mean wig and gown (Abdulraheem, 2006). Apart from clergy and the military, legal professionals used to wear gown. In Europe as far as forensic dress is concerned, a scholastic and ecclesiastical tradition goes back to the days when long mantles were worn by the avocati-consistorial of papal courts and the lawyers of the Roman Sapienza. Reverend advocates in ecclesiastical and secular courts used to wear toga which subsequently came to be the pleader's uniform. Long robes were imported into the courts first by the priest-original judges and later by those who patronized the courts since 13th century (Haque, 2012). In ancient Rome a judge used to wear a purple-trimmed toga when performing his duties as a judge to derive their authority from monarchies or feudal lords. In England, codification of rules for English judicial uniform occurred with the Judges' Rules, 1635. The Rules introduced no change rather set out what and when the existing costumes to be worn. After 1635 a black robe with a light colour fur or coat in winter and violet or scarlet robes with short-pink taffeta in summer were introduced. A black girdle or cincture was worn with all robes. By the end of 1680s two rectangles of linen tied at the throat. So, in England judges, barristers and solicitors in the 17th century were using black coats, gowns, bands and traditional wigs. Three stories are found in England regarding using of robes. Firstly, robes adopted in 1685 as the symbol of mourning for King Charles II. Secondly, in 1694 it is found that all of the nations judges attended the funeral of Queen Mary II dressed in black robes as a sign of mourning. Since the mourning period lasted a few more years after Mary's burial, the custom of wearing black robes became entrenched in the English judiciary. Thirdly, in memory of Queen Anne in 1714, the same mourning was followed. Italian judges resembling English judges in the 18th century wore black robes, white bands and white wigs. Thus from the tradition of three monarchs the black robes tradition spread around the Britain and then surrounded in the world and still persists today as part of the Britain's colonial adventures (Fred, 1978).

The Muslim countries were not lagging behind in using robes. The ancient Egyptians used to wear wigs to shield their shaved, hairless heads from the sun. After the fall of the Roman Empire, the use of wigs went into oblivion in the West for a thousand year until they were revived again in the 16th century as a means of compensating for hair loss or improving one's personal appearance or complexion. Royal patronage was crucial to the revival of the wig as Queen Elizabeth I of England

famously wore a red wig in a Roman style while French Kings Louis XIII and Louis XIV pioneered wig-wearing. In 1624 Louis XIII went prematurely bald and the fashion conscious king in absence of his natural curly hair used to wear a wig to disguise his baldheadedness in a planned way. His successive king Louis XIV also went prematurely bald and opted for wig as a style leader. Since then wigs were used as fashion which became almost universal for European upper & middle class men by the beginning of the 18th Century. Other rationales included ease of hairdressing, ease of cleaning of hair, comfort while sleeping, ability to change styles and colours and class considerations as wigs were expensive. Wigs were also used after shaving of natural hair to get relieve from head lice. Around 1715, lighter wigs were used as fashion too. It dribbled its custom out of fashion until the 1720's when it was only worn by professionals namely lawyers and doctors. After 1740, it was only worn by judges and had gone completely out of fashion and reversed for ceremonial dress. Bands are official neckwear accustomed to use by clergy and lawyers. Bands used by clergy often called preaching bands and worn by lawyers are usually called barrister's bands. Again the history of adoption of bands credited to England where bands were used for legal, official and ecclesiastical and academic use in the mid-seventeenth century. During mid-seventeenth century plain white bands came to be in variable neckwear of all judges, sergeants, barristers, students, clerical and academicians.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENT COLOURS IN THE JUDICIAL COSTUMES

The colours of judicial costumes have different significance varying from culture to culture. Lawyers in the courts of most countries of the world wear black, red and white ceremonial dress signifying different themes. Basically, black is supposed to be the colour of mourning, authority and power and also implies submission. Priests wear black to purport submission to God. So, in the case of lawyers their submissions are towards court and justice system. On the other hand, red is the second-most admired colour for judicial robes historically associated with royalty and judges were appointed as a servant of the Monarch. Red is also considered as the colour of courage and sacrifice. White symbolizes innocence and purity. Apart from these three colours blue and green are also popular in the judicial dress. Blue signifies justice, perseverance and vigilance while green is supposed to be the colour of justice in Islam. In fact, colour does not have similar theme and significance in all cultural representations. White dress is worn in marriage of the Christian couple while a deceased in the Muslim and Hindu culture is being worn a white dress for burial. To a frustrated lover, blue is a

colour of pain but in the US flag blue background reflects the colour of vigilance, perseverance and justice. So, colour paradox in the judicial costume is cloudy in cultural difference.

IV. BLIND LEGACY OF THE BRITISH JUDICIAL COSTUMES IN THE INDIAN SUBCONTINENT

The imposition of European and English ideas on legal system and judicial attire as well as address in their dominated colonies and exploited regions of the world are still in persistence. The Indian Subcontinent was not an exception to these rather the entire jurisprudence of the Indian Subcontinent has a blind legacy of the British legal system. The present legal and judicial system as well as judicial costumes of the region owes its origin mainly to two hundred years of British rule in the Indian Sub-Continent although some elements of it are remnants of Pre-British era tracing back to Hindu and Muslim administration. India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Bhutan of the Indian Subcontinent were directly ruled by the British, but Nepal had a treaty relationship with the British and was not ruled by the British directly, the silent domination of the British is not denied in the country.

Justice V.R. Krishna Iyer, a former Judge of Indian Supreme Court and a Jurist says more than six decades ago India bid farewell to the British, but the die-hard imperial jurisprudence remains and Indian courts even today copy the British precedents as Indian law (Harsh, 2010). Indian Bar and Bench have borrowed even their costume, including gown, collar and bands, from the British. Indeed, a relic of the British Raj, the sooty robe is believed to have been adopted under a mourning ritual that followed English Monarch's demise. In India, the Advocates Act, 1961 adopted the black outfit and stipulates five layers for male lawyers with a slightly dressed down for female lawyers. The Act mandates male Advocates to wear a black buttoned up coat, chapkan, achkan, sherwani or a black open breast coat while female lawyers are required to wear a black full-sleeve jacket or blouse, paired with sari or long skirts, pants or salwar kameez. In addition, male Advocates are to wear long trousers (white, black striped or grey) or dhoti excluding jeans. Furthermore, in courts other than the Supreme Court, High Courts, District Courts, Sessions Courts or City Civil Courts, a black tie may be worn a male Advocate instead of bands. The senior Advocate in the High Courts and in the Supreme Court wear King's Council's gown. Wearing of Advocates gowns is optional except appearing before in the Supreme Court or in High Courts according to Part VI of Chapter IV of the Bar Council of India Rules under Section 49(1) (gg) of the Advocates Act, 1961. Except in Supreme Court and High Courts during summer, wearing of black coat is

relaxed recently. On the contrary, the Bombay High Court has imposed a mandatory dress code for litigants entering its premises wearing modest dresses and in sober colours (Dhananjay, 2011). As a reason a circular issued by the High Court also adds that these instructions were given so that there were no unsocial activities in the premises. A foreign couple had to pay a fine for entering the court remises for violating the dress code.

Following the British tradition in Pakistan, the courts have continued to uphold the same for lawyers wearing black and white in the courts. However, in 1980s, judges modified their dress to do away with wig and to allow the usage of a black traditional Pakistani Sherwani. Dress code for legal practitioners varies with the season in Pakistan. A formal black suit and tie are worn during the winter months. White trousers and a white neck band are worn during the winter months. In addition, judges wear a black robe over their other garments. Wigs are no longer worn. Dress codes are rigorously enforced within the Superior Courts. Both judges and counsels in Sri Lanka dress in black and white. Male lawyers wear white shirt, black coat, gown, tie and trousers but female lawyers wear sari. Wigs are worn by judges of the Supreme Court, Court of Appeal and President's counsel only on various ceremonial occasions. Like India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, Bangladesh follows the British judicial attire in a similar fashion.

V. LAWYERS ROBES AND LAW IN BANGLADESH

Undoubtedly, lawyer's uniform in Bangladesh has its root in the British aristocracy. In line with the British tradition, the Supreme Court of Bangladesh has provided Civil Rules and Orders (CRO) containing dress code for judicial officers and Advocates. According to Rule 911 of the CRO, male judicial officer in Bangladesh when presiding over the Court wear a king counsel's gown of any black cloth other than silk, stand up, winged white color and bands, a full sleeve white shirt, a black coat of any pattern or black chapkan or achkan and if the coat left unbutton, a black waist coat is worn. They are also required to wear light colour trouser or pant. Judges of the Supreme Court wear almost same dress code but wear wigs in ceremonial occasions not during sessions in court. Lady judicial officers when presiding over the Court wear a king counsel's gown of any black cloth, stand up, winged white color and bands, white and light colored sari or salwar-kamiz, a black coat of any pattern. The wearing of the full robes is compulsory for all judicial officers (CRO, 1982) No deviation of the rule is allowed except in special circumstances to be submitted to the Supreme Court (High Court) for its orders. As per Rule 825 of the CRO, Advocate of Supreme Court shall when appearing in any

court of session, Tribunals or any court of judicial Magistrate wear the same gown as in the Supreme Court. All male advocates appearing before the subordinate courts shall wear a black or white chapkan, achkan or buttoned-up long coat with dark or white trousers to match and a black or dark coloured plain tie and the gown. chapkan, achkan, or serwani with black half sleeved gown and band or Black open breast coat, white shirt, stand up winged white color stiff or soft, with a black gown and band. In either case, long trouser (white, black or black striped or gray) shall be worn if European dress is worn, then a black coat with dark or white trousers and a black or dark colored plain tie and gown. And all lady Advocates– black full sleeved jacket or blouse stand up, winged white color, stiff or soft, with a black gown and band sari or salwar kamiz (white or black) shall be worn. The wearing of the prescribed dress is compulsory for all advocates. In accordance with the Rule 38 of the Supreme Court of Bangladesh (Appellate Division) Rules, 1988, the dress prescribed for Supreme Court Advocates is a short coat or Sherwani of black material, white shirt with turned down collar and white bands in the summer, white trousers, and in the winter, trousers of materials in deeper shades of grey. The Advocate shall wear a short black gown in court, unless the court directs otherwise. The dress of Senior Advocates shall be similar with an additional requirement that they shall wear special gown as prescribed for Barristers appearing before the High Court in London. The dress for Advocates-on-Record shall be as that for Advocates of the Court (SCB, 1988). However, regarding dress code for Judges and Advocates there is no mention in the Bangladesh Legal Practitioners and Bar Council Order, 1972 but the professional conduct and etiquette are well mentioned. Moreover, addressing judge as “My Lord” or “Your Lordship” in the Supreme Court is practiced raising question as to many people God only can be addressed with this salutation. In the subordinate judiciary, the expression “Your Honour” to the judges seems reasonable to Advocates. However, the title used in the courtroom, such as “Learned Friend or Advocate or Counsel” for lawyer is a legal fiction used to show respect to opponent counsel.

VI. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JUDICIAL ATTIRE AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

To analyze whether there are interconnection between judicial attire and access to justice, this part will synthesize the intentions of those who impose formal judicial costume and assess the effects on citizens in seeking justice. The question is unanswered whether judicial attire is more related with subjective satisfaction or objective satisfaction in easy access to justice. Dress code as a part of decorum in the judiciary is an effort to

maintain the order, dignity of the court and canon of judicial ethics requires it. Complete banning can raise questions about race, religion and access to justice but it does not pose a problem. On the other hand, the consequences of the public being barred entry to the courthouse are particularly problematic since it operates as a chill on the public's access to justice. Access to the courthouse should be unfettered. Gerry Weber, an attorney with the Southern Center for Human Rights and former legal director of the American Civil Liberties Union of Georgia, said that courts have fairly broad discretion to ensure that dress complies with standards of decorum for the courtroom. After examining the history of judicial attire, it appears that those who impose changes generally intend to distinguish their judges, have their judges mimic others, or project an image to their citizens. After achieving independence from England, American judges abstain from wearing wigs and fur-lined scarlet robes they wore under English control, and instead wore simpler black robes or shed them altogether to make judges look more human. Some argue that English judges have kept their formal and distinctive attire to distinguish their legal system from other countries (Willy, 2011). From the very inception, robes are thought to project a respectful image to court users, in hopes that lay people like criminal defendants view the proceedings seriously, or that witnesses feel compelled to tell the truth. But, robes also have been used by powerful groups like robber-baron to project oppressive control over restless citizens. In these cases, the dignified look which robes provide can be viewed by lay users as elitist or intimidating – an effect which some leaders might desire.

VII. HUMAN RIGHTS PERSPECTIVE OF THE DRESS CODE

Bangladesh is a pluralistic country in terms of religion, ethnicity, language and laws. In Bangladesh society, an outfit is said to be complete or proper when it respects or meets three values, viz. social, cultural and spiritual values. But the lawyer's costumes in the former British colonies including Bangladesh are against these three values rather these dresses are the symbol of legal enslavement and silent domination of the British. Lawyers without air condition facility and during load shedding hours in the subordinate courts seem to be in the oven but in the superior courts they enjoy air condition facility and electric back up during load shedding hours. Since the black dress code scientifically, absorbs more heat amounting to silent torture and oppression on mind and equivalent to violations of or instrumental to the violations of human rights in wider sense. But, human rights can only be limited to protect the rights of others and to meet just

needs morality, public order and public safety in a democratic society (UDHR, 1948). The climate in most of the European countries is cold and people are white. So, the black robes fit them both in weather and in colour of complexion. But in Bangladesh the weather is excessively hot and the robes are unsuitable for the lawyers in climatic difficulty and appearance of people. It is ironic to judges and Advocates who sometimes express views of change of dress code relaxing cultural imperialism and as an insult to right of choice and a denial of freedom to comply with the tenets of climate, culture and morality. Dressing should respect local culture even though it is regarded as professional dressing to resist the slavish imitation of the British which is not only demeaning to the sovereignty of the country but also culturally insensitive. In line with Bangladesh Constitution, the state shall adopt measures to conserve the cultural traditions, heritage, and arts aiming to enrichment of the national culture (Bangladesh Constitution, 1972). This constitutional provision is unrealized in the court premises. The objective of human rights is to uplift human dignity ensuring freedom, nondiscrimination and justice but the concept in true sense does reflect in case of judicial costumes for lawyers.

VIII. THE WIND OF CHANGE OF THE DRESS CODE AROUND THE WORLD

Undeniably, the role of the British for the legal development in their former colonies is much acclaimed except in the USA and there is less scope to criticize their role in the subcontinent. But the wind of change is blowing all across the globe including the United Kingdom relating to the dress code. The English judiciary has long been regarded as a bastion of conservative mores and sartorial continuity (Independent, 2009). Nonetheless, it has revised its judicial costumes. In November 21, 2011 the President of the UK Supreme Court (UKSC) in a press notice revised the dress code at the UKSC. According to the new guidance lawyers appearing at the UK's highest court set up in October, 2009 will no longer have to wear the traditional wigs and gowns. The purpose of the new costume in line with the court's goal is to make the court as accessible as possible extending the court's commitment to providing an appropriate environment for considered discussion of legal issues. Even if all advocates in a case agree, they may dispense with part or all of court dresses. Supreme Court justices wear no legal costume. The relaxed dress code would also apply to advocates appearing before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council (JCPC). Judges and lawyers appearing in criminal courts still wear traditional wigs and gowns but they can be dispensed in cases involving children. The Supreme Court move followed a

request by the UKSC/JCPC User Group, which represents professional users of the court, for an extension of the practice already adopted in family cases where advocates customarily appear unrobed. The official notice anticipated that some advocates will not wish to take advantage of this dispensation while others may prefer to reduce their legal dress to a simple gown, or to appear without legal dress at all. In 2008, Britain's Lord Chief Justice created a simpler style of court dress in which judges in civil and family cases in England and Wales were stopped wearing wigs (Guardian,2008).

During the early history of the United States, the court dress of judges and practicing lawyers closely mirrored British dress code of the 18th century. After the revolution many of the founders including Thomas Jefferson wanted to purge their nation of any symbols of the old English aristocratic order terming it as a rejected system (Glenn W. 1956). In the then time the judicial wigs were banned but the robes were retained as part of compromise. The practice fell out of favour and died out by the mid-nineteenth century when the states and feds began to increasingly harmonize and from then on almost every judge in America has started to wear a standardized black robe over a formal business suit. Today, generally judges of both state and federal courts are free to select their own courtroom attire. The most common choice is a plain black robe which covers the torso and legs, with sleeves. Female judges will sometimes add to the robe a plain white collar similar to that used in academic dress. Beneath the robes business attire is standard coupled with a shirt as well as tie for men and a woman's suit and stockings for women. The USA as a federal country further left regulation of judicial costume to the jurisdiction of the individual states. Many states especially in the South shared Jefferson's original mentality and had their judges wear no official costume for quite a long period of time. Despite the standardization there are still some quaint exceptions to the black robe hegemony.

Despite no fixed dress code in the court premises for Attorneys in USA, there are some peculiar dress codes in some states in the Federal country. In New Mexico, USA general public are not allowed in the court rooms dressed with shorts, tank or halter-tops, muscle shirts and T-shirts with indecent words or graphics. Lenore Nesbitt, the first female judge appointed to the U.S. Southern District of Florida, used to send women out of her courtroom for wearing open-toed shoes. Allegheny County Common Pleas Judge David R. Cashman orders attorneys out of his courtroom if he feels they're underdressed. Usually when an attorney who wore casual clothes to the office that day is summoned to court unexpectedly. All witnesses appearing in United States District Court in the Eastern District of Washington are asked to dress appropriately

avoiding wearing shorts, tank tops and sandals. An Alabama judge held a defendant in contempt of court for wearing saggy pants showing butt before the court. The judge also jailed the person for three days and instructed him to buy pants that fit or at least get a belt to hold up pants so that underwear doesn't show.

Like America, Canadian judges do not wear wigs and long robes. Canada used to wear British styled robes before 2008. Despite its British heritage Canadians have reconstructed a society based on their own aesthetics rather than copy blindly from the British. Similarly, justices of the Canadian province of Ontario's Superior Court of Justice are no longer addressed as "My Lord," or "My Lady," but are now addressed as "Your Honour."

In Australia court dress varies according to jurisdictions of courts from federal to state levels. Plain black robes have been worn over normal attire since 1988, when the High Court abandoned the previous court dress of black silk robes, bar jackets, jabots or bands and full-bottomed wigs and lace cuffs on formal occasions and bench wigs for ordinary business. Wigs were abolished in Western Australia for both judges and lawyers in all courts in 2010. Stipendiary Magistrates and justices of the peace do not robe, other than in New South Wells where they have worn a black robe over normal business attire since 2005. Prior to 2010, Barristers did not robe before the Federal Magistrates Court. Barristers are now expected to robe for most hearings, but not for interlocutory or interim matters. Wigs full-bottomed or otherwise are not worn on any occasion. Aside from these countries one or two countries have eliminated the tradition of wearing elaborate judicial robes altogether. In Greece and Scandinavia, for example, a suit is fine to wear during any legal proceeding.

In South Africa judges wear British-style robes, although Dutch influences can also be seen as a legacy of Dutch colonialism. High Court judges of South Africa wear black robes to hear civil cases and appeals but red and black robes are used during criminal cases. In the post apartheid South Africa special blue robes are designed for constitutional court judges. At the end of 2004, the Council of the Law Society of South Africa (LSSA) decided court attire for advocates with effect from April 1, 2005. As per the new dress code, an advocate whether appearing in the constitutional court, High court, Magistrate court or in other courts s/he will be dressed with a white shirt or a blouse with a bib, a black jacket, an attorney's gown and a dark trouser or skirt. Now in many African court dresses are lightweight simply because the full outfit would be too hot for most people to wear in that climate. In Kenya, a country of the East Africa in a judge's colloquium in 2011, it is decided that judges will no longer be referred to as "my Lord" rather to be referred as "Your Honour" and wigs will be

discarded with immediate effect (Nation, 2011). Terming the current dress code uncomfortable owing to unbearable heat the colloquium decided to a lighter robe for the judicial officers sensing the necessity of robes as a mark of dignity and respect to courts.

Like much of the former colonial countries the black outfit has stayed with the lawyers in India, although under section 49 of the Advocates Act of 1961, the judicial dress should be prescribed in keeping pace with the climatic conditions. But the practice is quite different showing the colonial hangover. But, in the wake of movement from lawyers' community, the Bar Council of India, in a circular in 2001, dispense with the coat from March 15 to June 15 to lower court lawyers. In spite of such relaxation, most lawyers still adhere to the dress code throughout the year, although subordinate courts are almost never air-conditioned. In another move the Bar Council of India by a resolution in 2006, throws out the phrase "My Lordship" or "My Lord" addressing the judges of the High Courts and Supreme Court in favour of "Your Honour", "Honourable Court" or just "Sir or Madam". This change followed the acceptance of the more socialistic political ideology prevalent in modern Indian society, which has dedicated itself to ending the hierarchies that the legal system reflects and reinforces. But still the new changes are not widely accepted and practiced because of embedded habit and partly out of fear of falling in disfavour with judges. Two writ petitions were filed with Delhi High Court in 2001 seeking change in the dress code of advocates and seeking restraint of senior advocates in India from wearing the Queens Council's gown of England but both of them dismissed by the court terming meritless and misconceived.

Most of the Muslim countries in the Middle East tend to follow anti-western dress code for lawyers. Judges in these countries wear very simplistic costumes denouncing fancy court room dress as western practice. In Afghanistan and in Iran chief justice wear white and black turbans apart from traditional robes. Judges in Libya and Egypt simply wear green sashes over the business suits terming green as the colour of justice in Islam.

IX. RATIONALES OF CHANGE OF DRESS CODE WITH CLIMATIC COMPATIBILITY IN BANGLADESH

Many Lawyers and academicians debate whether the sanctity of the dress code should give way to practicality. The cumbersome compulsion, combined with the scorching heat is uncomfortable and unbearable during summer. They demand a pattern of change with climatic adjustability to restructure our colonial institutions to reflect our oriental culture and needs. Most lawyers in Bangladesh are short in size, brown or dark in screen and so with long robes they

look ridiculous and aliens to common people. Again the history, tradition, heritage, culture and social values of people do not match with the existing dress code for lawyers. Moreover, elite lawyers import judicial costume from Britain which is very expensive while average lawyers use second hand ones for years. Bangladesh is a tropical country in which from March 15 to November 15 a very hot and humid weather persists. Lawyers are to wear the dress code for professional compulsion despite their disinterest. Load shedding in Bangladesh is more acute than India and Pakistan. Weather condition in summer and in rainy season is almost like India and Pakistan and sometimes hotter comparatively. So, in line with many countries as said above Bangladesh needs to change the dress code for lawyers or a relaxation during the summer and rainy season. Government in Bangladesh in 2009 has ordered male government employees to stop wearing suits, jackets and ties to save electricity during hot months between March and November. In an Order the government told the Ministers and employees not to turn their air-conditions below 24C. The order is reiterated in 2012 as a directory to save power but there is no punishment for breach of such order. Like India there is no movement in Bangladesh by any lawyer's body to change the dress code here as lawyers are busy with practice, politics and position. Bar council is the regulatory body of the advocates in Bangladesh and Supreme Court is the guardian of the judiciary but no initiatives is visible by any of the bodies to make the dress code comfortable and suitable for all seasons. The fact is that 40 years of independence is a reasonable length of time for us to restructure our colonial institutions in order to give us a true sense of nationhood and to signal to our contemporary youth towards change we need. I am very optimistic that we have the capacity to design a judicial costume based on Bangladeshi aesthetics. What we need at the moment is a transformative leadership to lead a cultural revolution. Bangladesh has no cultural ties with Britain save through colonization. Commonsense suggests that we have a strong justification to cast away that cultural heritage compared to Canada, the US, Australia, India and other Muslim countries.

Bangladesh can take lesson from the British regarding relaxation of dress code. Prior to change of the dress code in the UK, the Lord Chancellor's consultation paper opines that there is no justification for retaining working court dress on the grounds of tradition alone. The paper said that courts are not a tourist attraction. Lord Chief Justice Taylor of England opined that their judges' formal attire made them look "antique and slightly ridiculous" – in 1990. As a result, progressive change is felt to be initiated or encouraged. Change is yet to take place in Bangladesh because of colonial mind set and attitude of policy-makers,

bureaucrats, politicians and even judges and Advocates. As regard change as a sociological issue requires absolute commitment, honesty, perseverance, and modeling from the top-echelon of society like political leaders as well as members of the civil society.

The change of dress code has taken places in many countries and the pattern of change is not revolutionary rather evolutionary. Keeping in touch with UK, Indian and Pakistani judiciary as these three have resemblances with Bangladesh let's dig out the possible reasons for the change of the dress code. In India the evolutionary movement of change for dress code started in the 1990s and still continuing creating debate on dignity vs. discomfort for the existing dress code of lawyers. In India those who favour the colonial dress code believed that the dress code gave a degree of anonymity to judges and lawyers. The dress code is not merely believed to be a status symbol but an integral part of the profession bringing out distinction, discipline, decorum and dignity among lawyers and give them confidence to fight for justice. It is also termed as a mark of dignity, legal fraternity and respect towards courts differentiating the lawyers from other professionals (Menezes, 1996).

On the other hand, the opponent of the British-style costume find valid grounds to change the dress code or a relaxation of the dress code in summer and rainy seasons for removing physical discomfort and the subsequent health hazards. Probably, change of dress code and redesign of the same according to suitability of climate will not hinder administration of justice. The creation of a new dress code staying away from the legacy of the British attire may boost sub continental cultural entity and heritage in the legal arena. As moral values and legal ethics have already been well added into the legal profession the change in costume will not deteriorate the standard of this profession. Sometimes, neck bands get touch with curry and tea stains, gowns are not dry-cleaned for long days, coats are not dry-cleaned and ironed detracting the dignity that befits the profession. In the rainy season the long robes get soaked with dirty water. Frequent power cuts and lack of power back ups in the courts demand change of such dress code which stipulates five layers for male lawyers and with a slightly dressed down version for female lawyers. In the subordinate judiciary the situation is even worse for the lawyers and judges owing to dearth of facilities but superior courts are spacious with more facilities comparably. Medical opinion too finds the dress code for lawyers in India unreasonable. Pune-based Dr. Avinash Bhutkar opines increase in body heat beyond a point lowers the appetite, slows down digestion as well as stimulates dehydration risk. Dr. Rajon TD, a Mumbai based consultant specialist in skin and sexually transmitted diseases says even low temperatures clubbed with high humidity levels cause

severe discomfort. Nalini Karunakaran, an ayurvedic physician in India points black is a very unhealthy colour and being speedy absorber of heat could lead to a breakdown of health in the long run and also may results skin problems and orthopedic complications. Bangladesh should share experience from India for the modification of dress code in the country. It is notable that, in a survey in the UK in 1992, 85% of the public felt that robes lent dignity to court proceedings, 71% felt the emphasized the witness to tell the truth and ultimately 79% were in favour of retaining robes. In another study was initiated in 2003 to measure how court dress impacts public confidence. The study stressed negative effects of formal attire for victims and witnesses recommending change with the demand of time. Eventually, the UK changed the judicial dress code in a evolutionary way. Similarly, in a study in India in 1990s, around 55.6% felt the black coat was completely unsuitable for the tropical Indian climate while 86% said dress code for lawyers was necessary and around 65.2 percent felt their dress code had merely become a status symbol. The result of the study reflected when Indian Bar Council relaxed dress code for lawyers, although to a little extent.

X. CONCLUSION

Dress code expresses sanctity and commitment of the lawyers toward judicial institutions and enhances their responsibility for the profession. But if the dress code is compatible with season, customs and cultural spirit and principles then the commitment, integrity and respect concerning the noble profession may be expedited. Trend of change of the costume jurisprudence both in the western and oriental countries is a beckon of hope in the direction of liberalism shifting from conservatism. Interestingly, in recent years, English reforms sought to project modernization and simplicity, to ensure that their own citizens maintained respect for their legal system. It is also important to not overlook simple logistical reasons for changing attire. Perhaps most importantly, the distinctive black robes can serve as a reminder to judges of the importance of their responsibility to administer justice and not perpetuate bias. On the other hand, judges who become less formal by removing robes or simplifying them might appear less pompous and more human. The negative consequences of wearing formal attire seem to weigh heavier today. In Europe or in America power cuts is not a problem and climate is not hot whereas frequent power cuts is an acute problem in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. Most of the lawyers in Bangladesh have adapted with the dress code against their intention while some of them feel embarrassed terming it unsuitable and disgusting but yet to raise any concern. Most of the colonial countries have changed their dress code but Bangladesh is the glaring exception to this. Even UK, Canada, Australia, South Africa, India have shown the

pattern as well as way towards change of the judicial costume recently and USA changed it long ago. So, the change of dress code is inevitable in Bangladesh keeping pace with its climate, heritage and cultural, social and moral values.

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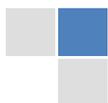
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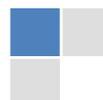
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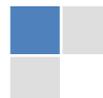
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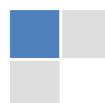
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INDEX

A

Amenities · 47
Anthropological · 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
Appetite · 21, 60
Aristocracy · 56

B

Blasphemous · 5

C

Chronicles · 9, 54
Comatose · 20

D

Daunting · 15
Deteriorate · 60
Devaluation · 11, 19, 34

E

Ecclesiastical · 55
Encompassing · 45
Enslavement · 9, 10, 13, 57
Enteritis · 36
Ethnographically · 1, 2

G

Ghettos · 17
Glaring · 61
Glooming · 13
Gynecological · 35

H

Humiliation · 16

I

Impoverishment · 10, 15
Interlocutory · 59

J

Jurisprudence · 54, 56, 61

K

Keynesian · 18, 29

M

Madden · 23, 26, 27, 32
Meticulous · 50
Molyneux · 3

O

Oberhauser · 3, 7
Obstinately · 54
Offiong · 10, 11
Orthodoxy · 18, 20

P

Palliative · 21
Paradox · 34
Patriarchic · 2, 3
Pauperization · 10, 11, 13, 15
Pisarski · 45, 47, 52
Pragmatic · 15, 17, 19

R

Ridiculous · 21, 60

S

Saboteur · 19
Scarlet · 55, 57
Sloganeering · 17
Spaniards · 10
Summoned · 58

V

Virile · 45, 51

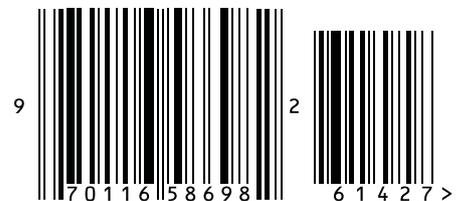


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