

**SYLLABUS****Class - B.Com I Years****Subject - Business Law**

UNIT - I	Indian Contract Act 1872 - Definitions, Nature of Contract, Offer & Acceptance, Capacity of Parties to Contract, Free Consent and Consideration, Expressly declared void agreement, Performance of contracts.
UNIT - II	Breach of Contract, Remedies for breach of Contract, Indemnity and Guarantee Contracts. Special Contracts - Bailment, Pledge and Agency.
UNIT - III	Negotiable Instrument Act, 1881 - Definition, Features, Promissory note, Bill of Exchange and Cheques, Holder and Holder in Due Course. Crossing of Cheque, Types of crossing, Dishonour and Discharge of Negotiable Instruments.
UNIT - IV	Consumer Protection Act 1986 - Main Provisions, Consumer Disputes, Consumer Disputes Redressal Agencies, MRTP Act - Meaning, Scope, Importance and Main Provisions.
UNIT - V	Foreign Exchange Management Act 2000 (FEMA) - Objectives and Main Provisions, Introduction to Intellectual Property Right Act - Copyright, Patent and Trademark.



Unit-I

Subject: Indian Contract Act

The Indian Contract Act 1872

The law of contract in India contained in Indian Contract Act 1872, which is based on English common Law.

It extends to whole of India except the state of Jammu and Kashmir. It came into force on the first Sep. 1872. The Act lays down general principles governing all contracts, but not the rights and duties of the parties. The rights and duties are decided by the parties themselves.

Scheme of the Act: -

The scheme can be divided into two main groups:

1. General principles of the law of contract.
2. Specific kinds of contracts -
 - a. Indemnity and Guarantee
 - b. Contracts of Bailment and Pledge
 - c. Contract of Agency.

Meaning and Definition of an Agreement:

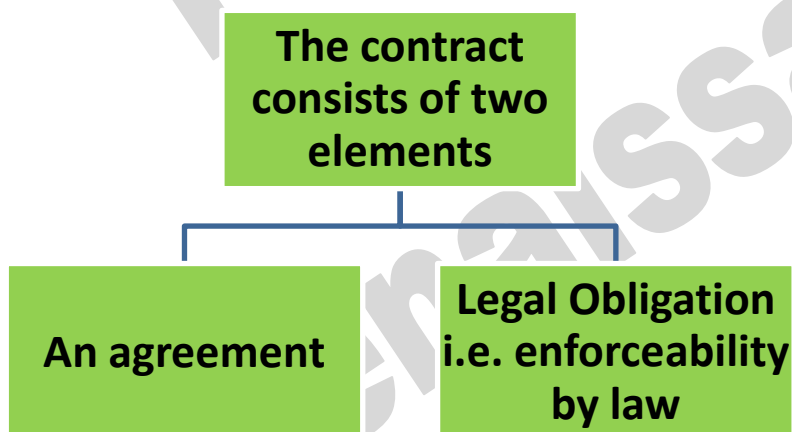
An Agreement consists of an offer by one party and its acceptance by other. In other words, an agreement comes into existence only when one party makes a proposal to the other party and that other party gives acceptance.

Agreement = Proposal + Acceptance of proposal

According to Section 2(e) of Indian Contract Act 1872 "Every promise and every set of promises, forming the consideration for each other is an agreement."

Meaning and Definition of a Contract:

A contract is a promise or set of promises for the breach of which the law gives a remedy or the performance of which the law in some way recognize as duty. In other words, a contract is an agreement the object of which is to create a legal obligation.





Contract = an Agreement + enforceability by law.

According to Section 2(h) of the Indian Contract Act 1872 "An agreement enforceable by law is a contract."

Essential Elements of a valid Contract:

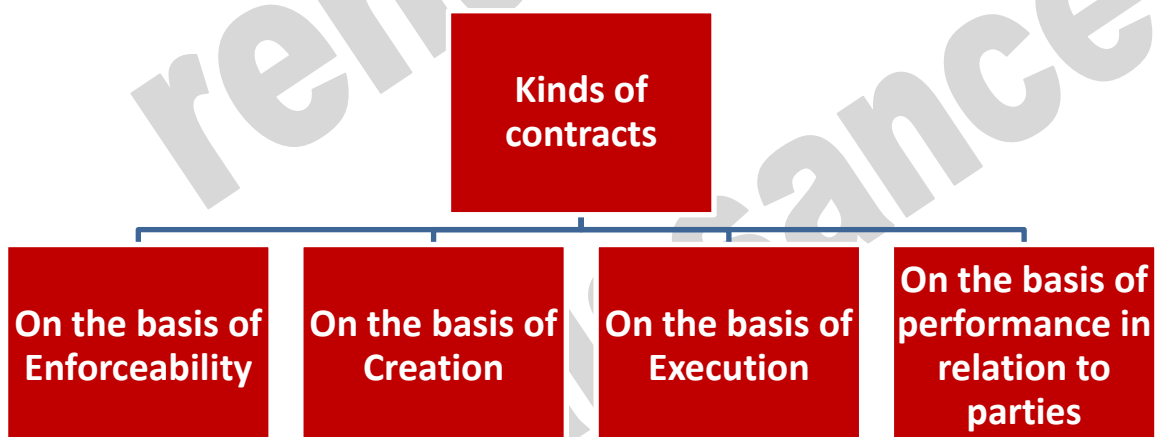


- 1. Offer and Acceptance:** There must be a "lawful offer" and a "lawful acceptance" of the offer, thus resulting in an agreement.
- 2. Intention to create legal relation:** There must be an intention among the parties that the agreement should be attached by legal consequences and create legal obligations. Social agreements do not contemplate legal relations, and so they do not give rise to a contract.



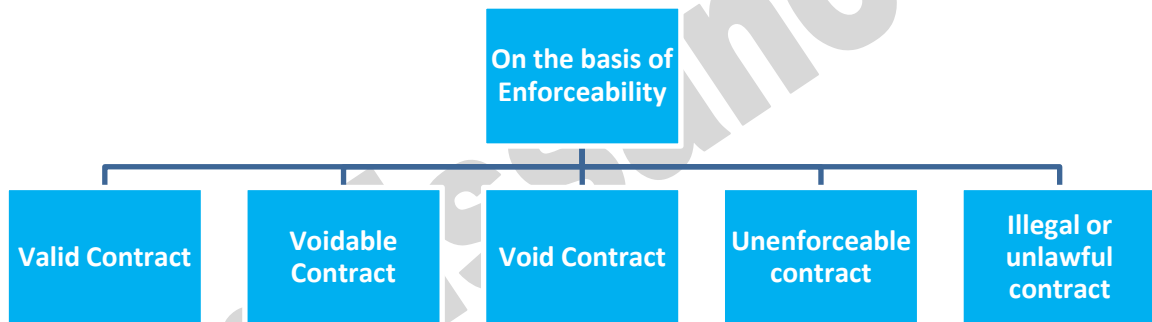
3. **Lawful Considerations:** An agreement is legally enforceable only when each of the parties to it, give something and get something. This something is the price for the promise and is called "Consideration". Only those considerations are valid which 'Lawful'
4. **Capacity of parties:** The parties to an agreement must be competent to contract, otherwise it cannot be enforced by a court. To be competent, the parties must be on majority age and of sound mind and must not be disqualified from contracting by any law to which they are subject.
5. **Free Consent:** "Consent" means that the parties must have agreed upon the same thing in the same sense. Consent is not enough for making a contract. That to must be free. It is said to be free when it is not caused by-
 1. Coercion, or (i) undue influence, or (iii) fraud, or (IV) misrepresentation, or (v) mistake.
6. **Lawful object:** For the formation of a valid contract, it is also necessary that the parties to an agreement must agree for a lawful object. The object must not be fraud or illegal or immoral or must not imply injury to the person or property of other.
7. **Writing and Registration:** Generally the contracts may be oral or written. But in special cases, it lays down that the agreement must be in writing or registered to be valid.
8. **Certainty:** Any agreement can be enforced if its meaning is certain or capable of being made certain agreements the meaning of which is not certain, are void.
9. **Possibility of performance:** The terms of the agreement must also be capable of performance physically as well as legally.
10. **Not expressly declared void:** The agreement must not have been expressly declared void under the act. There are some types of agreements which have been expressly declared to be void.

Kinds or classification of Contracts:-



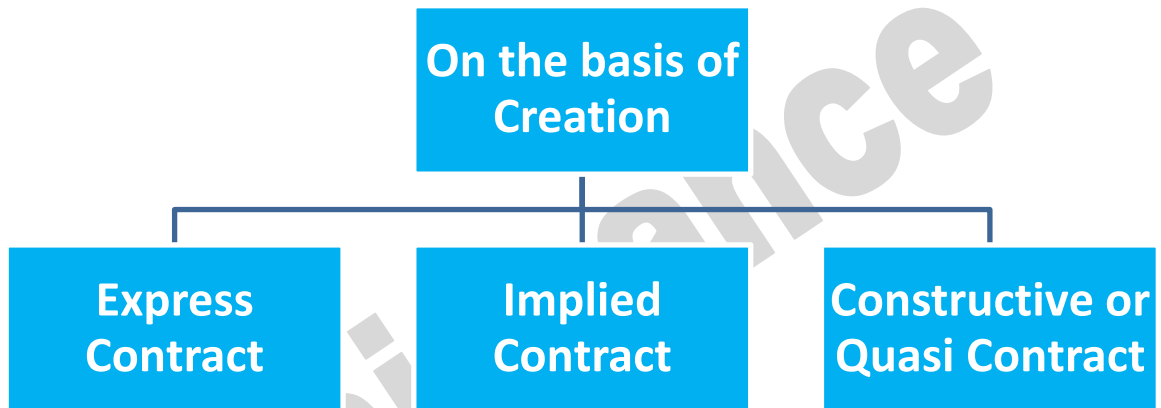


A. On the basis of Enforceability



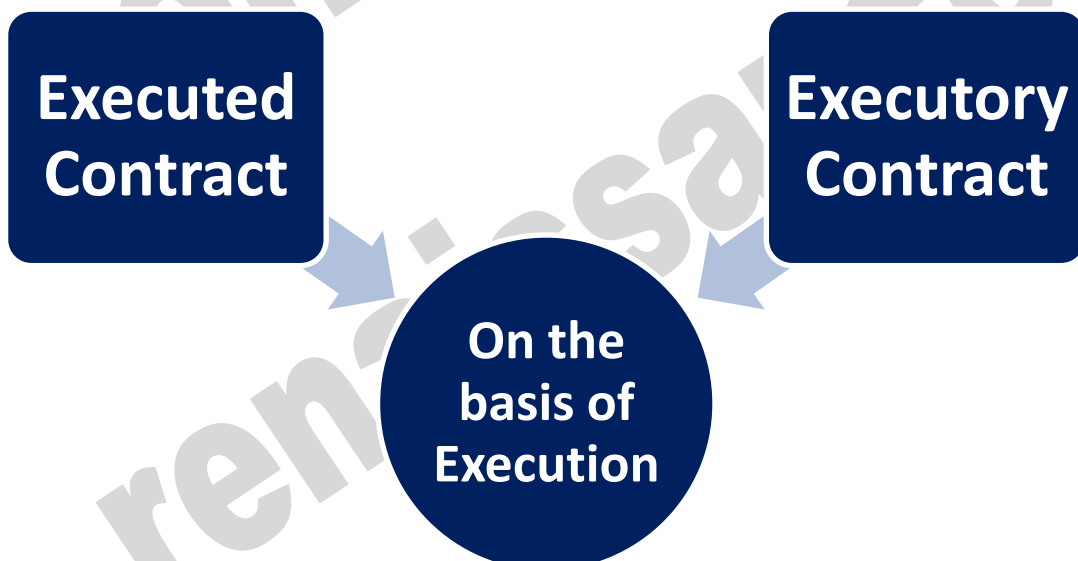
1. **Valid Contract:** A valid contract is an agreement enforceable by law. An agreement becomes enforceable by law when all the essential elements of a valid contract (as per section 10 of the act) are present.
2. **Voidable Contract:** "An agreement which is enforceable by law at the option of one or more of the parties, but not at the option of one or more of the other, is a voidable contract."
3. **Void Contract:** Void means not binding in law. It is valid at the time of making it but becomes void subsequently due to change in circumstances.
Void Agreement: "An agreement not enforceable by law is said to be void" Thus a void agreement does not give rise to any legal consequences and is void ab initio.
4. **Unenforceable contract:** It is one which is valid in it, but is not capable of being enforced in a court of law because of some technical defect such as absence of writing, registration requisite stamp.
5. **Illegal or unlawful contract:** An agreement which is expressly or impliedly prohibited or forbidden by law. It is *void ab initio*.

B. On the basis of Creation:



1. **Express Contract:** It is one in which parties make oral written declaration of the terms and conditions of the contract.
2. **Implied Contract:** It is one in which evidence of contract is gathered from acts and conduct of the parties and not from written or spoken words of parties.
3. **Constructive or Quasi Contract:** It is not a contract made intentionally by the parties by exchange of promises. It is a contract imposed by the law. The basis of this contract is that no one can be allowed to enrich himself at the cost of the other.
- 4.

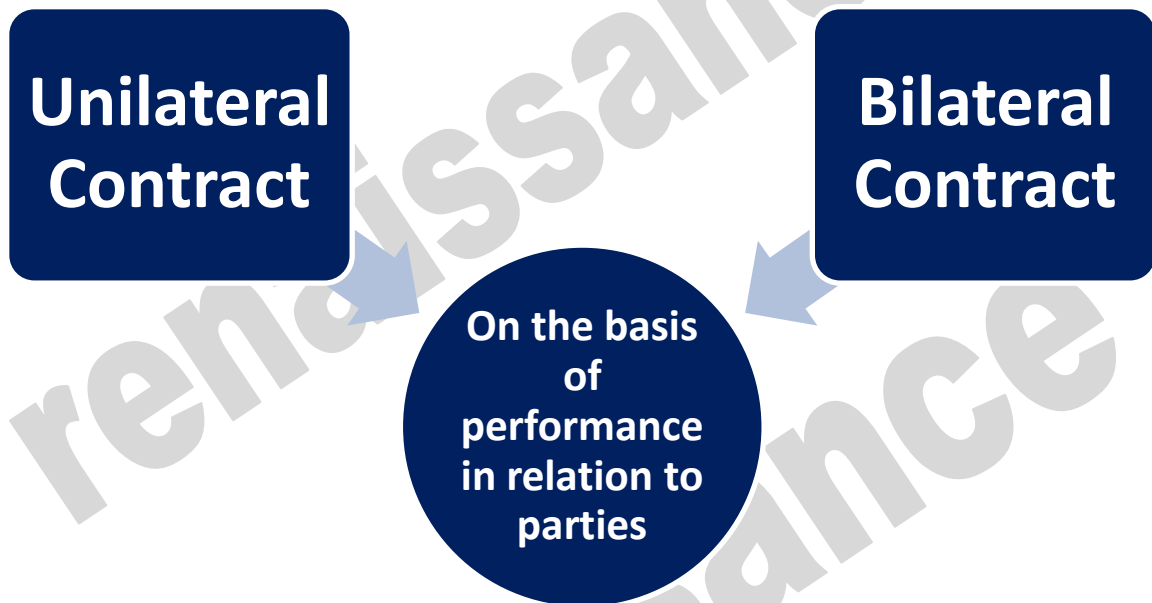
C. On the basis of Execution





1. **Executed Contract:** When both the parties to a contract have completely performed their share of obligations and nothing remains to be done by either party under the contract.
2. **Executory Contract:** When either parties have still to perform their share of obligation in to or there remains something to be done under the contract on both sides.

D. On the basis of performance in relation to parties



1. **Unilateral Contract:** When one party has to perform his obligation, and the other party has performed his obligation at the time of formation of the contract or before it. This is why it is also called one-sided contract.
2. **Bilateral Contract:** When the obligations of both the parties are outstanding at the time of formation of contract. It is similar to Executory contract. It is also called contract with executory consideration.

Capacities of Parties

Meaning of Capacity to Contract

Capacity or competence to contract means legal capacity of parties to enter into a contract. In other words, it is the capacity of parties to enter into a legally binding contract.

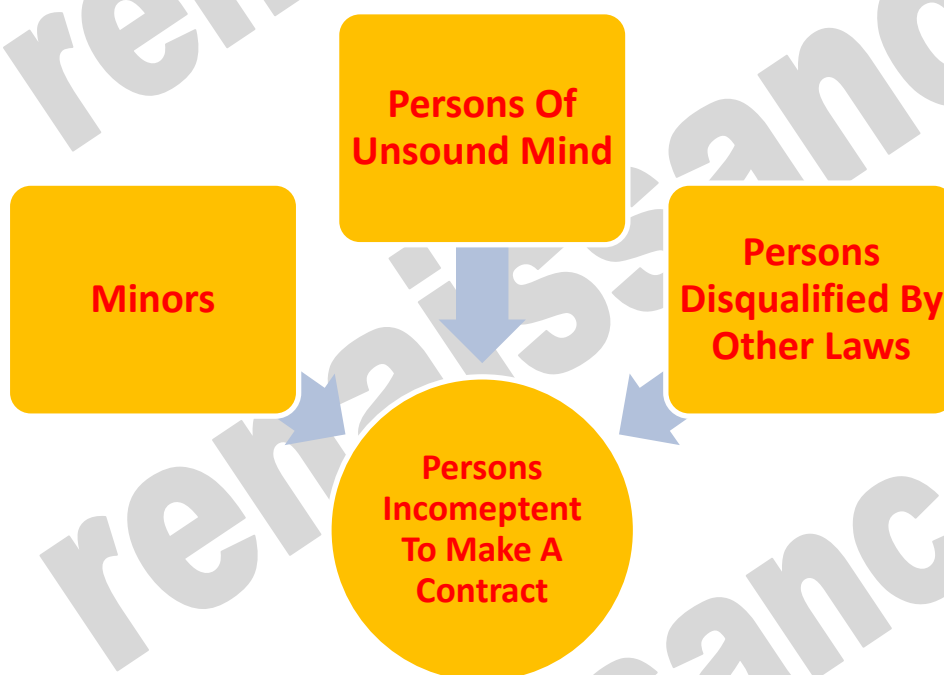


Who are Competent to Contract?

Every person is legally competent to contract if he fulfills the following three condition :

- i. He has attained the age of majority;**
- ii. He is of sound mind; and.**
- iii. He is not disqualified from contracting by any other law to which he is subject**

Who are not competent to contract?



1) MINORS

Any person, who has not attained the age of majority prescribed by law, is known as minor.

Section 3 of the Indian Majority Act prescribes the age limit for majority and says a minor is a person who has not completed eighteen years of age. But the same Act also mentions that in the following two cases a person attains majority only after he completes his age of twenty one years :

- (i) Where a Court has appointed guardian of a minor's person or property or both (under the Guardians and Wards Act, 1890); or
- (ii) Where the minor's property has been placed under the superintendence of a Court of wards.

2) PERSONS OF UNSOUND MIND



A person is said to be of sound mind for the purpose of making a contract (a) if he is capable of understanding the contract at the time of making it, and (b) if he is capable of making a rational judgment as to the effect upon his interests.

Types of Persons of Unsound Mind and their Contracts:

1. Idiot
2. Lunatic
3. Delirious persons
4. Drunken or intoxicated persons
5. Hypnotized persons
6. Mental decay

3) PERSONS DISQUALIFIED BY OTHER LAWS

There are certain persons who are disqualified from contracting by the other laws of our country. They are as under:

1. Alien enemy
2. Foreign sovereigns, diplomatic staff etc.
3. Corporations and companies
4. Insolvents
5. Convicts

Rules /effects as to or Nature of Minor's Agreements

1. **Void ab-initio:** - Minor's agreement is absolutely void from very beginning, i.e. void ab- initio. It is nullity in the eye of law. An agreement with minor, therefore, can never be enforced by law.
2. **Minor can be a promisee or beneficiary:** - A minor can enforce such agreements in which he is a beneficiary or promisee and does not create any obligation on his part.
3. **No ratification:-** A minor cannot be ratify even after attaining the age majority because void agreement cannot be ratified.
4. **Restitution/ Compensation possible:** - If a minor has received benefits under an agreement from the other party, the Court may require the minor to restore the benefit (so far as may be), to the other party at the time of rescission of the agreement. The minor may be asked to restore the benefit to the extent he or his estate has been benefited.
5. **Contract by parent/ guardian/ manager:** - A minor's parent/ guardian/ manager can enter into contract on behalf of the minor provided:
 - i. The parent/ guardian/ manager acts within the scope of his authority; and
 - ii. The contract is for the benefit of the minor.
6. **No liability of parents:** - The parents (guardian) of a minor are not liable for agreements made by their minor ward. However, they can be held liable if the minor makes agreement as their authorized.
7. **Minor as an agent:** - A minor is not entitled to employ an agent; he can be an agent himself for someone else. As an agent he can represent the principal, and bind him for his acts done in the course of agency. But the minor is not responsible to the principal for his acts.
8. **Minor and insolvency:** - A minor cannot be declared insolvent because he is not competent to contract.
9. **Minor as joint Promisor:** - A minor can be a joint promisor with a major, but the minor cannot be held liable under the promise to the promises as well as to his co-promisor. But the major promise cannot escape liability. The major joint promisor can be forced to perform the promise.



10. **Minor shareholder:** - A minor can become a shareholder or member of a company if (a) the shares are fully paid up and (b) the articles of association do not prohibit so.
11. **Liability for necessities of life:** - A minor is incompetent to contract. A minor, therefore, is not personally liable for the payment of price of necessities of life supplied to him or to his legal dependents. However, the person who has furnished such supplies is entitled to be reimbursed from the property of the minor.
12. **Minor Partner:** - According to the Partnership Act, 1932, a minor cannot make a contract of partnership though he may be admitted to its benefits with the consent of all the partners. A minor partner cannot be made personally liable for any obligation of the firm, but his share in the firm's property can be made liable.
13. **No estoppels against minor:** - The term 'estoppels' means prevention of a claim. When a minor enter into contract, representing that he is a major, but in reality he is not, then later on he can plead his minority as a defence and cannot be estopped (prevent) from doing so.

Definition of Consideration

Consideration is one of the essential elements of a valid contract. The term "Consideration" means something in return i.e. quid -pro-quo. Consideration must result in a benefit to the promiser, & a detriment or loss to the promisee or a detriment to both. Without consideration a contract is void or nude i.e. nudum pactum

Section 2(d) of the Indian Contract act, 1872 defines Consideration as follows:

"When, at the desire of the promiser, the promisee or any other person has done or abstained from doing, or does or abstains from doing, or promises to do or abstain from doing something, such act or abstinence or promise is called a consideration for the promise."

ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF A VALID CONSIDERATION:-



- 1 • It must move at the desire of the promisor
- 2 • It may move from the promisee or any other person
- 3 • It may be Past , Present or Future
- 4 • It must be of some value
- 5 • It must be real & not illusory
- 6 • Must be Something other than the promisor's Existing obligation
- 7 • It must not be illegal, immoral or opposed to public policy

- **It must move at the desire of the promisor:** Consideration must have been done at the desire or request of the promisor & not at the desire of a third party or without the desire of the promisor.
- **It may move from the promisee or any other person:** An act constituting consideration may be done by the promisee himself or any other person. Thus, it is immaterial who furnishes the consideration & therefore may move from the promisee or any other person. This means that **even a stranger to the consideration can sue on a contract, provided he is a party to the contract (Case Chinayya V/s Ramayya)**
- **It may be Past , Present or Future:**
 - Past Consideration: The consideration which has already move before the formation of agreement.
 - Present consideration: The consideration which moves simultaneously with the promise.
 - Future Consideration: The consideration which is to be moved after the formation of agreement.
- **It must be of some value:** The consideration need not be adequate to the promise but it must be of some value in the eye of the law.
- **It must be real & not illusory:** Ex. A promise to put life into the B's dead wife & B promises to pay Rs 10,000. This agreement is void because consideration is physically impossible to perform.
- **Must be Something other than the promisor's Existing obligation:** Consideration must be something which the promisor is not already bound to do because a promise to do what a promisor is already bound to do adds nothing to the existing obligation.
- **It must not be illegal, immoral or opposed to public policy.**

A CONTRACT WITHOUT CONSIDERATION IS VOID

The general rule is "**An Agreement made without consideration is void**". Sec 25 & 185 deals with the **Exceptions** to this rule.



These cases are:



1) Love & Affection: A written & registered agreement based on natural love & affection between near relatives is enforceable even if it is without consideration.

Ex: X, for natural love & affection, promises to give his son, Y, Rs 1000. X puts his promise to Y in writing & registers it. This is a contract.

2) Compensation for voluntary services: A promise to compensate wholly or partly, a person who has already voluntarily done something for the promisor, is enforceable even without consideration.

Ex: A finds B's purse & gives it to him. B promises to give Rs 50 to A. This is a contract.

3) Promise to pay a Time barred debt: A promise by a Debtor to pay a time-barred debt if it is made in writing & is signed by the debtor or by his agent is enforceable.

4) Completed gifts: There need not be consideration in case of completed gifts.

5) Agency: No consideration is necessary to create an Agency.

6) Contribution to Charity

STRANGER TO A CONTRACT

Though a stranger to consideration can use because the consideration can be furnished or supplied by any person whether he is the promises or not, but a stranger to a contract cannot sue because of the absence of privity of contract (i.e. relationship subsisting between the parties to a contract).



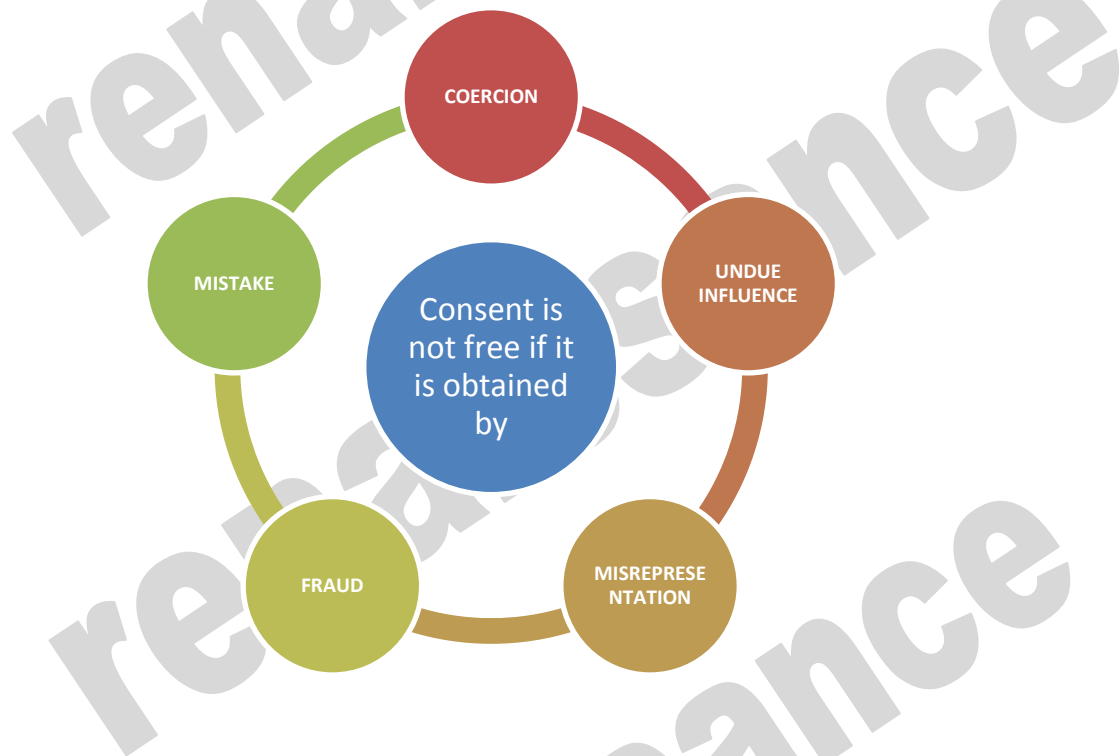
Free Consent

MEANING OF CONSENT

Two or more persons are said to consent when they agree upon the same thing in the same sense at the same time.

MEANING OF FREE CONSENT

Sec. 14 describes the cases when the consent is not free. It lays down that consent is not free if it is caused by coercion, undue influence, fraud, misrepresentation, etc. if the consent is not free, the agreement is avoidable at the option of the party whose consent was not free.



1) **COERCION**

Coercion simply means forcing a person to enter in to a contract. Sec. 15 defines coercion as, "Committing or threatening to commit, any act forbidden by the Indian Penal Code, or unlawful detaining or threatening to detain, any property, to the prejudice of any person whatever with the intention of causing any person to enter into an agreement".

The essential elements of coercion are

- (1) Committing or threatening to commit any act forbidden by Indian Penal Code.
- (2) Unlawful detaining or threatening to detain any property.
- (3) The act of coercion may be directed at any person and not necessarily at the other party to the agreement.



- (4) The act of coercion must be done with the object of inducing or compelling any person to enter into an agreement.

2) **UNDUE INFLUENCE** : It is kind of moral coercion.

Sec. 16(1) defines undue influence as, "A contract is said to be induced by undue influence where the relations subsisting between the parties are such that one of the parties is in a position to dominate the will of other and uses that position to obtain an unfair advantage over the other".

(a) Where he holds a real or apparent authority over the other e.g., in the relationship between master and servant.

(b) Where he stands in fiduciary relation to the other. It implies a relationship of mutual trust and confidence.

(c) Where a contract is made with a person whose mental capacity is affected by reason of age, illness, or mental or bodily distress.

Any innocent or unintentional false statement or assertion of fact made by one party to the other during the course of negotiation of a contract is called a misrepresentation.

3) **MISREPRESENTATION**

As per Sec. 18, misrepresentation is a wrong statement of fact made innocently, i.e., without any intention to deceive the other party. It may be caused.

- (1) By positive statement.
- (2) By breach of duty.
- (3) By mistake regarding the subject matter of the agreement.

Essential of misrepresentation

- (1) There must be a representation or omission of a material fact.
- (2) The representation or omission of duty must be made with a view to inducing the other party to enter into contract.
- (3) The representation or omission of duty must have induced the party to enter into contract.
- (4) The representation must be wrong but the party making the representation should not know that it is wrong.

4) **FRAUD**

Fraud is the intentional misrepresentation or concealment of material facts of an agreement by a party to or by his agent with an intention to deceive and induce the other party to enter into an agreement.

Sec. 17 defines fraud as, any of the following acts committed by a party to a contract (or with his convenience or by his agent) with intention to deceive another party thereto (or his agent) or to induce him to enter into the contract.

- (1) The suggestion that a fact is true when it is not true by a person who does not believe it be true.
- (2) The active concealment of the fact by a person having knowledge or belief of the fact.
- (3) A promise made with out any intention to perform it.
- (4) Any other act fitted to deceive.
- (5) Any such act or omission as the law specifically declares to be fraudulent.

5) **MISTAKE**

Acc. To Sec. 20 mistake means erroneous belief concerning some fact. The parties are said to consent when they agree upon the same thing in the same sense. If they do not agree upon the agreement in the same sense, there will be no contract.

When the consent of one or both the parties to a contract is caused by misconception or erroneous belief, the contract is said to be induced by mistake.

Mistake may be of following types:

- (1) Mistake of law,



- (a) Mistake of law of the country.
 - (b) Mistake of foreign law.
 - (c) Mistake of private rights of the parties
- (2) **Mistake of fact,**
- (A) **Bilateral Mistake :**
 - (1) Mistake as to subject mater :
 - (a) Mistake regarding existence
 - (b) Mistake regarding identity
 - (c) Mistake regarding title.
 - (d) Mistake regarding price
 - (e) Mistake regarding quality
 - (f) Mistake regarding quantity
 - (2) Mistake as to the possibility of performance
 - (a) Physical impossibility
 - (b) Legal impossibility
 - (B) **Unilateral Mistake :**
 - (1) Mistake as to identify of the person contracted with.
 - (2) Mistake as to the nature of contract.

Distinction between an Agreement and a Contract

Basis of distinction	Agreement	Contract
1. Definition	Every promise and every set of promises forming consideration for each other is an agreement	An agreement enforceable by law is a contract.
2. Creation	An agreement is created by acceptance of an offer.	Agreement and its enforceability together create a contract.
3. legal rights and obligations	An agreement may not create legal rights and obligations of the parties	A contract creates legal rights and obligation between the parties.
4. Necessity	No contract is required to make an agreement.	Valid agreement is necessary for making a contract.
5. Legally binding	An agreement is not a concluding or legally binding contract.	A contract is a concluding or legally binding on the parties.
6. Concept	Agreement is a wider concept and includes contracts.	Contract is a narrow concept and it is only a specific of agreement.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN VOID AGREEMENT AND VOID CONTRACT



Basis of distinction	Void Agreement	Void Contract
1. Definition	An agreement not enforceable by law is said to be void. [Sec. 2(g)]	A contract which ceases to be enforceable by law becomes void when it ceases to be enforceable [Sec. 2(j)]
2. Time when becomes void	It is void from very beginning.	It becomes void subsequently due to change in law or change in circumstances.
3. Restitution	Generally no restitution is granted, however, the Court may on equitable grounds grant restitution in case of fraud or misrepresentation by minors.	Restitution may be granted when the contract is discovered to be void or becomes void.
4. Description in the Act	Such agreement have been mentioned as void in the Act. Agreements without consideration, agreements with lawful object or consideration and some other agreements have expressly been declared to be void.	There is no mention of cases of void contracts in the Act. They are created by circumstances and law Courts decide whether they have become void or not.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN VOID AGREEMENT AND VOIDABLE CONTRACT

Basis of distinction	Void Agreement	Voidable Contract
1. Definition	An agreement not enforceable by law is said to be void.	A contract enforceable by law at the option of the aggrieved party, is a voidable contract.
2. Period of validity	It is void from the beginning i.e. void ab initio	It is valid till it is avoided by the aggrieved party to the contract.
3. Legal existence	It is nullity, hence, does not exist in the eye of law.	It has its existence in the eye of law till it is repudiated.
4. Change in status	Status of void agreement does not change with the change in circumstances.	Status of such contract change when the aggrieved party elects to avoid it within a reasonable time. It becomes void when the aggrieved party elects to rescind it.
5. Causes	Any agreement is void when it is made with incompetent parties or for unlawful objects and consideration, or without consideration, or without consideration or it is expressly declared to be void under the law.	A contract is voidable when the consent of the party is caused by coercion or undue influence or fraud or misrepresentation.
6. Transfer of title	The party obtaining goods under void agreement cannot transfer a good title to the third party.	The party obtaining goods under voidable agreement can transfer a good title to the third party if the third party obtains it in good faith and for consideration and the aggrieved party has not avoided the contract before such transfer.
7. Restitution	Parties do not have right to restore the benefits passed on to the other unless the parties were unaware of the	Generally, right restitution is available if the party elects to avoid the contract.



	impossibility of performance at the time of agreement or the party to the agreement was minor.	
8. Damages	No party as a right to get compensation for damages because such agreement has no legal effect.	If a party rightfully rescinds (i.e. puts and end) the contract, he can claim compensation, he can claim compensation of damages sustained by him due to non-fulfilment of the promise.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN VOID AND VOIDABLE CONTRACT

Basis of distinction	Void Contract	Voidable Contract
1. Definition	A contract which ceases to be enforceable by law become void, when it ceases to be enforceable.	A contract which is enforceable by law at the option of the aggrieved party is a voidable contract.
2. Period of validity	It remains valid till it does not cease to be enforceable.	It remains valid if the aggrieved party does not elect to avoid it within a reasonable time.
3. Will of the party	Its validity is not affected by the will of any party. It is decided by the Law Court.	Its validity is affected by the will of the aggrieved party. Aggrieved party has option to treat it either binding or repudiate it.
4. Causes	Contracts become void due to change in circumstances or in the law of land.	Contract is voidable when the consent of the party is caused by coercion, undue influence, fraud or misrepresentation. Sometimes, it may be voidable under the provisions of the Secs. 39, 53 and 55.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN VOID AND ILLEGAL AGREEMENT

Basis of distinction	Void Agreement	Illegal Agreement
1. Definition	An agreement not enforceable by law is void.	An agreement which is expressly or impliedly prohibited by law, is illegal.
2. Effect on collateral agreement	The agreement collateral to the void agreement is not necessarily void.	The agreement collateral to an illegal agreement is always void.
3. Scope	All void agreements need not necessarily be illegal agreements. Hence, the scope is wider than that of the illegal agreements.	All ill agreements are void.
4. Restitution	The Court may grant restitution of money advanced if is minor or if the parties were unaware of the impossibility of performance of the agreement.	Restitution of money is not granted in case of an illegal agreement.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN COERCION AND UNDUE INFLUENCE

Basis of distinction	Coercion	Undue influence
1. Definition	Coercions the committing or threatening to commit, any act	Undue influence is an influence which arises where the relations subsisting between the



	forbidden by the I.P.C. or unlawful detaining or threatening to detain any property with the intention of causing any person to enter into an agreement.	parties are such that one of the parties is in a position to dominate the will of the other and uses that position to obtain an unfair advantage over the other.
2. Relations	In case of coercion, relation between the parties is immaterial.	In case of undue influence, in the relation between the parties the parties must be such that one of them is in a position to dominate the will of other.
3. Intention	Coercion is applied with the intention of causing any person to enter into an agreement.	It is exerted with the intention to obtain an unfair advantage over the other party.
4. Nature of force	It involves physical force.	It involves moral force.
5. Kind of act	It involves criminal act.	It does not involve criminal act.
6. Direction	The coercion may be directed against any person including a stranger.	Under influence is used against the weaker party only.
7. Who exercise	It can be exercised by any person. Even a stranger to contract can exercise it.	It is employed by the person who is in a position to dominate the will of the other.
8. Remedies	A contract caused by coercion, may be avoided by the aggrieved party's contract. [Sec. 19]	In case of undue influence, the aggrieved party may avoid the contract or the Court, may set aside the contract absolutely or conditionally. [Sec. 19 A]

DISTINCTION BETWEEN FRAUD AND MISREPRESENTATION

Basis of distinction	Fraud	Misrepresentation
1. Meaning	A fraud is an intentional misrepresentation or concealment of material fact to induce the other party to enter into a contract.	An innocent or unintentional misrepresentation of material facts by one party to induce the other party to enter into a contract.
2. Intention	Fraud is committed with an intention to deceive	There is no such intention.
3. Belief in the facts	The person committing of a fraudulent act does not believe it to be true.	The person making misrepresentation believes in its facts to be true.
4. Suit for damage	The aggrieved party has right to sue the other party for damages.	The aggrieved party cannot sue for damages.
5. Defence	A party cannot set up a defense that the aggrieved party had means of discovering the truth except in case of fraud by concealment or by silence.	In case of misrepresentation the other party always set up a defense that the aggrieved party had means of discovering the truth.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN CONTINGENT CONTRACT AND WAGERING AGREEMENT

Basis of distinction	Contingent contract	Wagering agreement
1. Meaning	A contingent contract is contract in which the promisor undertakes to perform the contract upon the happening or non-happening of an event, which is collateral to the contract.	A wagering agreement is one in which one person agrees to pay certain amount of money to the other on happening or non-happening of a specific event.



2. Nature of event	The event is collateral to the contract, i.e. not a part of promise or consideration of the contract.	Even is the sole determining factor.
3. Reciprocal promise	There is no reciprocal promise is a contingent contract.	The wagering agreement consist of reciprocal promise.
4. Interest in the subject matter	The parties are interested in the subject-matter of such contracts. Therefore, the happening or non-happening of the event is material for them.	The parties to wagering agreement have no other interest in the subject matter of the agreement except the winning or losing the money at stake.
5. Validity	A contingent contract is valid contract.	A wagering agreement void agreement. In the State of Maharashtra and Gujarat it is illegal.
6. Nature of contract	All contingent contracts are not wagering agreements because all contingent contracts are not void.	All wagering agreements are contingent agreements because their performance is dependent upon uncertain future events.



UNIT-II

DISCHARGE OF CONTRACT

When the rights and obligations arising out of a contract are extinguished, the contract is said to be discharged or terminated.

A contract may be discharged by any of the following ways



1. Discharge by Performance-

Performance of a contract is the most popular manner of discharge of a contract. The performance may be either Actual performance or Attempted performance.

A. Actual performance:-When each party fulfils his obligations arising out of the contract within the time and in a manner prescribed, it is called the actual performance and the contract comes to an end.

B. Attempted performance or Tender:-When the promisor offers to perform his obligation, but is unable to do so because the promisee does not accept the performance, it is called " **Attempted Performance**" or "**tender**". Thus tender is not actual performance but is only an offer to perform the obligation under the contract. **A valid tender of performance is equivalent to performance.**

Essentials of a valid tender:-if it fulfils the following conditions:-

1. It must be unconditional. If A who is a debtor of company B, offers to pay if shares are allotted to him at par. IT is not a tender.
2. It must be made at proper time and place:- A is tenant of B. H offers him rent at a marriage party. B is not bound to accept as tender is not made at a proper place.



3. It must be of the whole obligation contracted for and not only of the part:- e.g. deciding of his own to pay in the installments and offering the first installment was held invalid tender as it was not of the whole amount due .
4. If the tender related to the delivery of goods, it must give a reasonable opportunity to the promisee for inspection of goods so that he may be sure that the goods tendered are of contract description.
5. It must be made by a person who is in a position and is willing to perform the promise.
6. It must be made to the proper person i.e. the promisee or his authorized person.
7. If there are several joint promisees, an offer to any one of them is a valid tender (but the actual payment must be made to all joint promisees, and not to any one of them.)
8. In case of tender of money, exact amount should be tendered in the legal tender money.

Effect of refusal to accept a valid tender: The effect of refusal to accept a properly made “offer of performance” is that the contract is deemed to have been performed by the promisor. And the promisee can be sued for breach of contract. Thus we can say that “a valid tender discharges the contract.”

2. Discharge by Mutual Consent or Agreement:

A contract is created by means of an agreement, it may also be discharged by another agreement between the same parties.-

A. Novation: “Novation occurs when a new contract is substituted for an existing contract, either between the same parties or between different parties, the consideration mutually being the discharge of the old contract.” If the parties are same, then small changes in the in the terms of contract is called “alteration” and not “Novation”. For being “Novation”, the changes must be of significant nature. Novation cannot be compulsory, it can only be with the mutual consent of all the parties.

B. Alteration:-It means that change of one or more of the material terms of a contract. A material alteration is one which alters the legal effect of the contract. e.g. change in the amount of money, change in the rate of interest etc.

Note that a material alteration made in a contract by one party without the consent of the other will make the whole contract void and no person can maintain an action upon it.

C. Rescission. A contract may be discharged before the date of performance, by agreement between the parties to the effect that it shall no longer bind them. Such an agreement amounts to “Rescission” or cancellation of the contract, the consideration being the abandonment by the respective parties of their rights under the contract. Example A promises to deliver some goods to B on say 14th Nov. 2006. But before the date of performance i.e. 14th Nov. 2006, A and B mutually agree that the contract will not be performed. The contract stand discharged by rescission.

If there is non performance of a contract by both the parties for a long time without complaint, it amounts to an implied rescission.

Note: In rescission, the existing contract is cancelled by mutual consent without substituting a new contract in its place.

D. Remission. It is defined as “Acceptance of lesser amount than what was contracted for or a lesser fulfillment of the promise made”

E. Waiver. It means deliberate giving up of a right which a party is entitled to under a contract whereupon the other party to the contract is released from his obligation. Example A promises to stitch a Shirt for B if B sings a song in A’s party and accepting it B sings a song in A’s party. Then later on B says there is no need to stitch shirt for me, to which A gives his consent. Thus the contract is terminated.

3. Discharge by Subsequent or Supervening Impossibility or Illegality.

Impossibility at the time of contract. If you contract for something impossible, the agreement is void *ab initio* the promisor knows about the impossibility after using reasonable efforts, the promisor is bound to compensate the promisee for any loss he may suffer because of non performance of the promise, even if the agreement being void *ab initio*



Subsequent impossibility. Impossibility is found out after the contract is made, " A contract to do an act which, after making the contract, becomes impossible or unlawful, becomes void when the act becomes impossible or unlawful."

Conditions for It...

- (i) the act should have become impossible.
- (ii) The impossibility should be by reason of some event which the promisor could not prevent.
- (iii) the impossibility should not be self induced by the promisor or due to negligence.

To be impossible, it is sufficient that it becomes impracticable or extremely hazardous or useless from the point of view of the object and purpose which the parties had in view,

If the performance of a contract becomes impossible by reason of supervening impossibility or illegality of the act, it is logical to absolve the parties from further performance of it as they never did promise to perform an impossibility.

4. DISCHARGE BY LAPSE OF TIME.

In some circumstances, the lapse of time may also discharge a contract, e.g. the period of limitation for simple contracts is three years under the Limitation Act and therefore on default by a debtor, if the creditor does not file a suit of recovery against him within three years of default, the debt becomes time barred and the creditor will not get the help of the law. This in effect discharges the contract. 'Where time is of essence', if the contract is not performed on time, the contract comes to an end, and the party not at fault need not perform his obligation and may sue the other party for damages.

5. DISCHARGE BY OPERATION OF LAW: -

A contract is discharged by operation of law in the following cases:-

(A) Death: Sometimes a contract is of a personal nature and involves personal skills, of the promisor, In such cases the contract is discharged on the death of the promisor. In such cases the contract is discharged on the death of the promisor.

(B) Insolvency: When a person is adjudged insolvent he is released from his all liabilities in the current order of adjudication. His rights (Assets) and liabilities are transferred to the official assignee or official receiver, on the case may be.

(C) Merger of rights: Sometimes, an inferior right of a person under some or other contract, in such a case the inferior right is vanished and is not required to be enforced, For example an ordinary debt can be merged. In the case of rights of ownership in such a case the inferior right need not to be enforced because this right may merge in to a superior right of mortgage or ownership.

(D) Loss of evidence of contract:-

When the evidence of the existence of the contract is lost or vanished. The contract is discharged for example document of contract is lost or destroyed and no other evidence is available the contract is discharged.

6. DISCHARGE BY BREACH OF CONTRACT:-

A contract is sometimes discharged, by its breach generally, Breach of contract means refusal or failure of any one party to perform his contractual obligation under the contract specifically a breach of contract occurs when a party to a contract does any of the following things.

- (1) Fails or refuses to perform his obligation under the contract.
- (2) Disables himself from performing his part of the contract.
- (3) Makes the performance of contract impossible by his own acts.



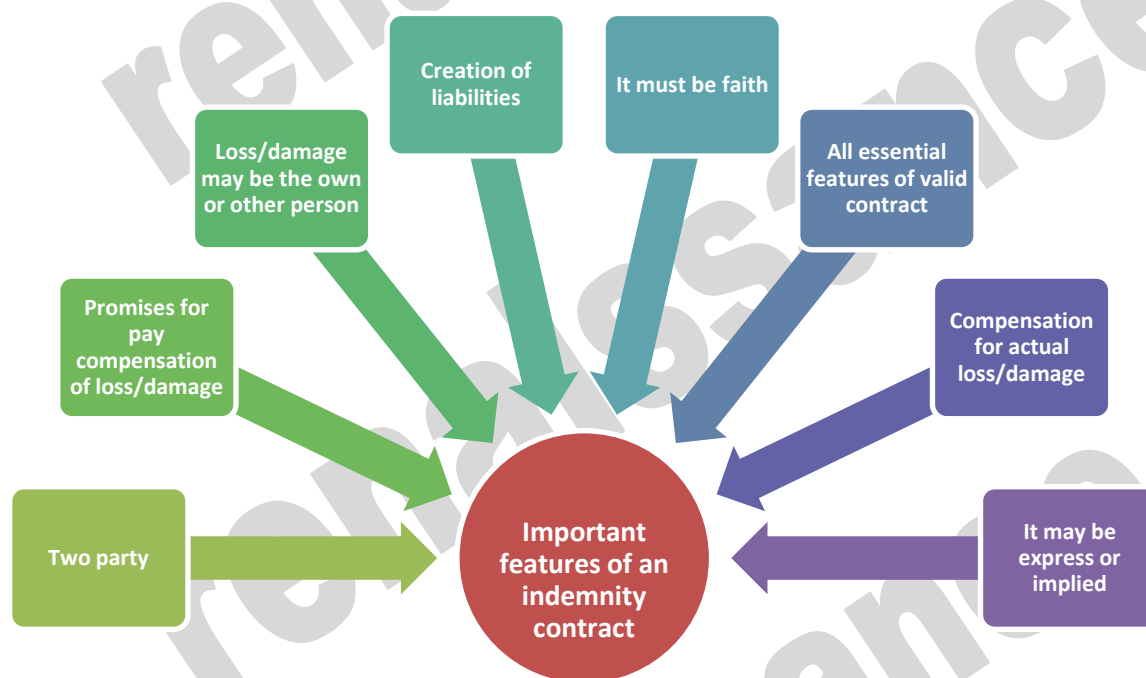
INDEMNITY AND GUARANTEE CONTROL

The contract of indemnity and guarantee are special kinds of contracts. These contract are therefore also required to fulfill all the essential of a valid contract.

Indemnity Contract: Indemnity contract is a type of contingent contract. The term 'Indemnity' Simply means 'Making Somebody Safe' or 'Paying Somebody back'.

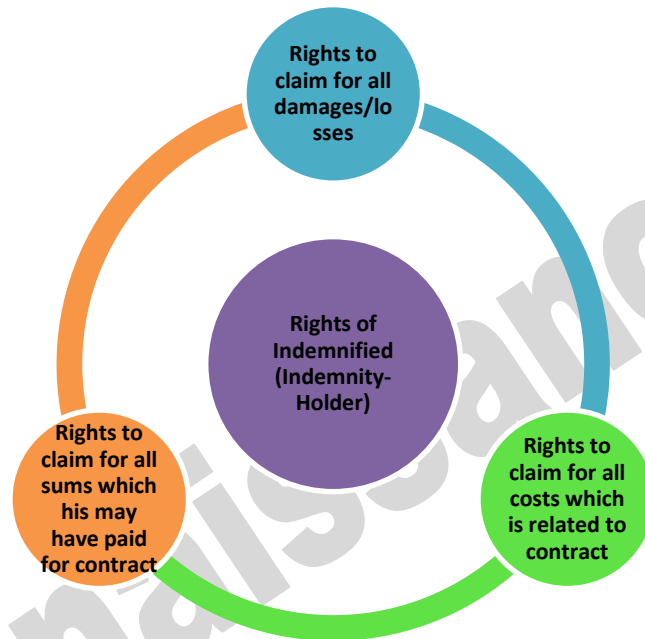
Section 124 of contract Act defines that "A contract by which one party. Promises to save the other from loss caused to him by the conduct of the promise himself by the conduct of any other person, is called a conduct of indemnity".

The party who gives indemnity or who promises to compensate for or to make good the loss, is called. Indemnifier and the party for whose protection or safety the indemnity is given or the party whose loss is made good is called 'Indemnified' or 'indemnity holder'.

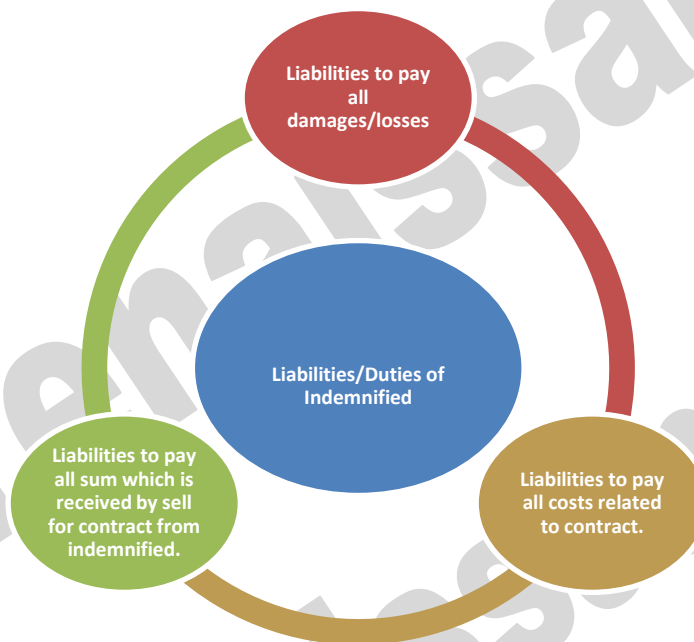


Loss/damage may be caused by some event, or accident, or some natural phenomenon or disaster.

Rights of Indemnified (Indemnity-Holder) –



Liabilities/Duties of Indemnified -



Guarantee Contract

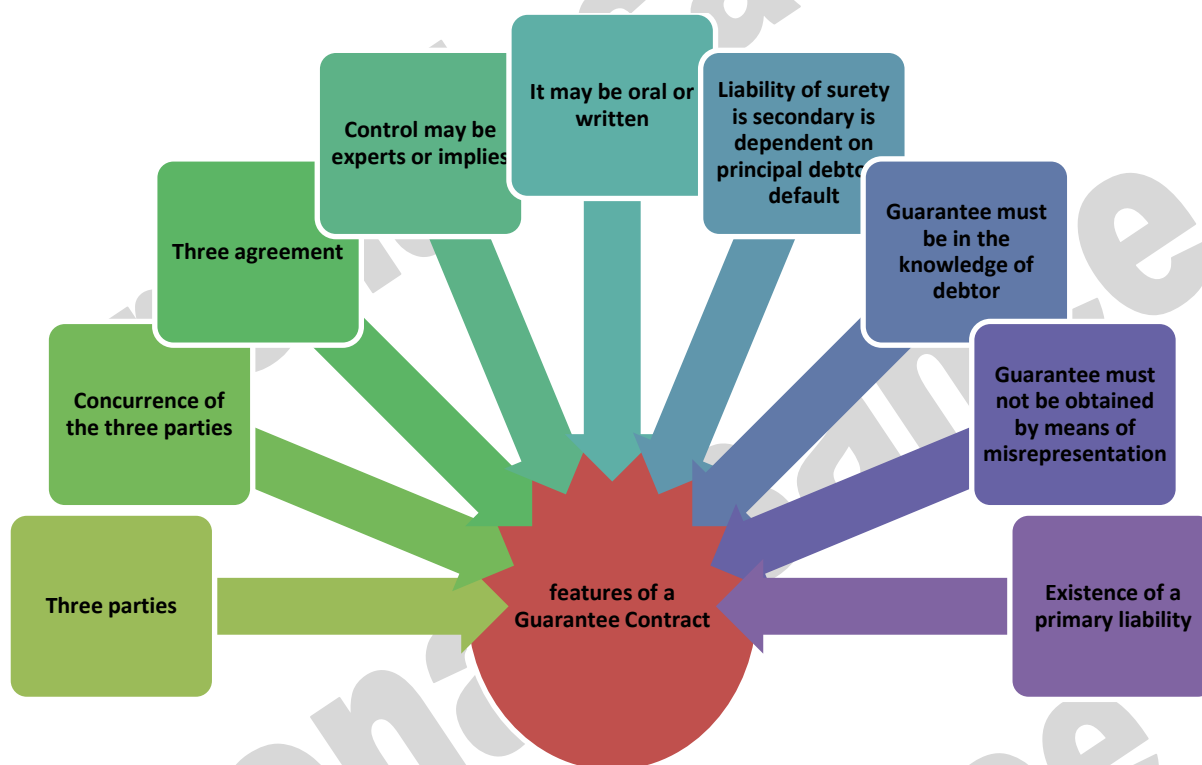


The object of the contract of guarantee is to enable. A person to obtain an employment, or a loan, or some goods or service on credit,

According to section 126 of the contract Act "A contract of guarantee is a contract to perform the promise, or discharge the liability, of a third person in case of his default."

The person who gives the guarantee is called the 'Surety' or 'guarantor' & the person in respect of whose default the guarantee is given is called the **principal debtor** or he is the party on whose behalf. Guarantee is given and the person to whom the guarantee is given is called the '**Creditor**'.

Essential features of a Guarantee Contract -



DISTINCTION BETWEEN A CONTRACT OF INDEMNITY AND GUARANTEE

S.No.	Different Basis	Indemnity Contract	Guarantee Contract
1.	Nature of Contract	Promises to save the other from loss.	One party promises to discharge the liability of the third party in case of his default.
2.	No. of Parties	Only two parties are there	There are three parties.
3.	No. of contracts	There is only one contract	There are three contract between debtors, creditors and surety.
4.	Nature of Liability	The liability of the indemnifier is primary and independent.	The liability of the surety is secondary and dependent.
5.	Arising of Liability	Indemnifier's liability	Arises only after the default of debtor in



		arises only on the happening of a contingency.	payment.
6.	Existence of debt or duty	There is no existence debt or duty in this contract.	There is always some existing debt or duty in this contract.
7.	Request by the debtor	It is not necessary for the indemnifier to act at the request indemnified.	The surely generally gives guarantee to the request of the debtor.
8.	Right to sue	The indemnifier cannot sue the third party for loss in his own name.	It surely has discharged. The debt after the default of the principal debtor, he becomes entitled to sue the debtor in his own name.

Kinds of Guarantee -



- Specific or Simple Guarantee:** When a guarantee is given in respect to a single debt or specific transaction is to come to an end when the guarantee debt is paid or the promise is duly performed. It is called a specific or simple guarantee.
- Continuing guarantee:** Section 129, of the contract Act defines a guarantee which towards to a series of transaction, is called a continuing guarantee, thus, a continuing guarantee is not confined to a single transaction but keeps on moving to several transaction continuously.

Revocation of Guarantee - Revocation of guarantee means cancellation of guarantee already accrued, it may be noted that the specific guarantee cannot be revoked if the liability has already secured. However a continuing guarantee can be revoked and on the revocation of such a guarantee. The liability of the surely or guarantor comes to an end for the future transaction. The surety continues to be liable for the transactions which have taken place up to the time of revocation. A continuing guarantee may be revoked in any of the following ways-



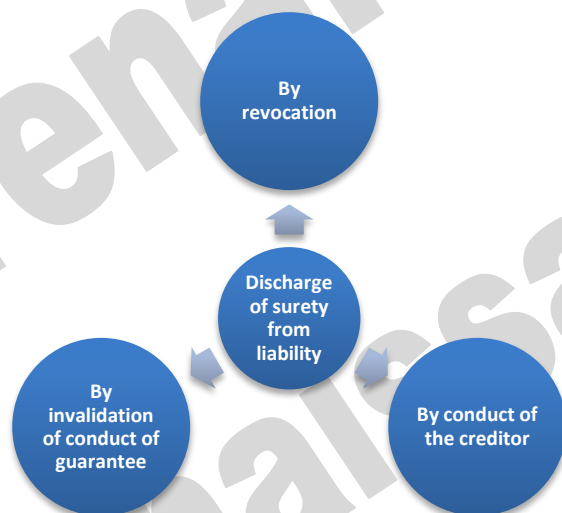
A Guarantee may be revoked in any of the following ways-

1. **By notice of revocation.**
2. **By death of surety.**
3. **By discharge of surety in various circumstances**
 - A. **By novation (Sec.62)**
 - B. **By variance in terms (Sec. 133)**
 - C. **By release/discharge of principal Debtor (Sec.-134)**
 - D. **When the creditor events in to an agreement with the principal debtors (Sec.13..)**
 - E. **By creditor act or omission impairing surety's eventual remedy (Sec. 139)**
 - F. **By loss of security "(Sec. 141)**
 - G. **By invalidation of contract (Sec.142,143,144)**

Nature and Extent of Surety's Liability -

1. The liability of surety is co- extensive.
2. The liability of surety arises the same moment when default is made by the principal debtor.
3. The surety is free to restrict limit his liability.
4. Sometimes the surety is liable though the principal debtors is not liable.
5. If there is a condition precedent for the surety's liability; the surety will be liable, only when that condition is fulfilled first.
6. In a continuing guarantee liability of surety extends to a series of transaction over a period of time.
7. The surety will not be liable if the creditor has obtained guarantee either by misrepresenting a material fact regarding the transaction or by keeping silence to material circumstances.
8. A discharge of principal debtor by operation of law does not discharge the surety from liability.

Discharge of surety from liability -



The following are the modes or circumstances under which a surety is discharge from his liability -

1. By revocation

- a) Notice by surety
- b) Death of surety
- c) Notation.



2. By conduct of the creditor

- a) Variance (change) in terms of the contract
- b) Release or discharge of the principal debtor.
- c) Certain arrangements made by the creditors with the principal debtors without the consent of surety,
- d) Creditors act or omission impairing surety's eventual (ultimate) remedy.
- e) Loss of security.

3. By invalidation of conduct of guarantee

- a) Guarantee obtained by misrepresentations
- b) Guarantee obtained by concealment
- c) Failure of co-surety to join a surety

RIGHTS OF SURETY



I. Right against the Principal debtor

- 1. Right of subrogation
- 2. Right of indemnity

II. Right against the Creditor

- 1. Right to security
- 2. Right to claim set off

III. Right against the Co-Sureties

- 1. Equal contribution
- 2. Liability of co-securities bond in different sums
- 3. Right to share benefits of securities.

Bailment and pledge

Bailment

the word 'bailment' is derived from the French word the French word 'baillier' which means 'to deliver Etymologically, it means any kind of handling over'. In legal sense, it involves change of possession of goods from one person to another for some specific purpose.



Definition of Bailment

Sec. 184 defines Bailment as the delivery of goods by one person to another for some purpose, upon a contract, that they shall, when the purpose is accomplished, be returned or otherwise disposed of according to the directions of the person delivering them. The person delivering the goods is called the 'bailor' and the person to whom they are delivered is called the 'bailee'.

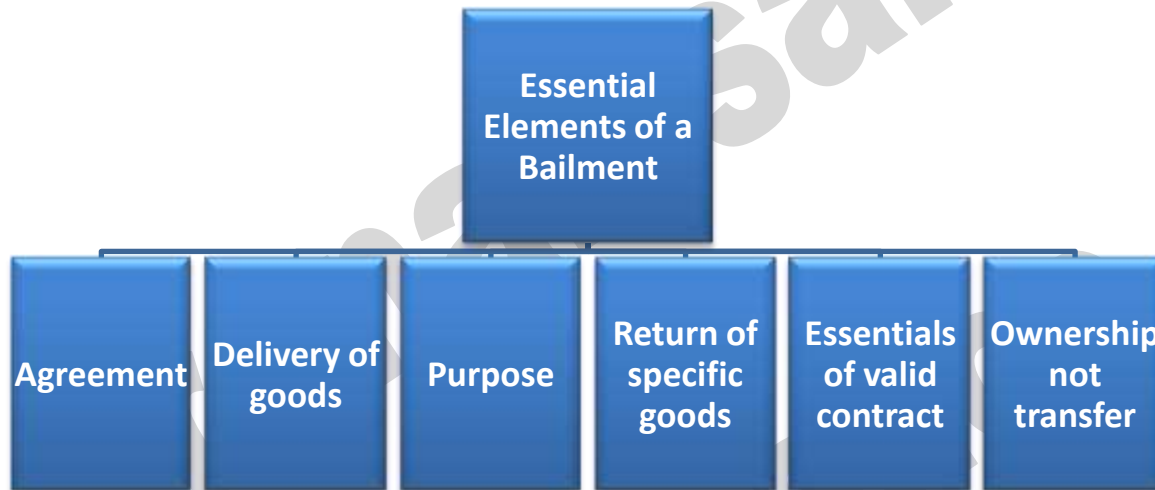
Examples

- (a) A delivers a piece of cloth to B, a bailor, to be stitched into a suit. There is a contract or bailment between A and B.
- (b) A sells certain goods to B who leaves them in the possession of A. The relationship between B and A is that of bailor and bailee.

Consideration in a contract of bailment

In a contract of bailment, the consideration is generally in the form money payment either by the bailor or the bailee, as for example, when A gives his bicycle to B for repair, or when A gives his car to B on hire. Such consideration in money form, however, is not necessary to support the promise on the part of the bailee to return to goods. The detrainment suffered by the bailor, in parting with possession of the goods, is a sufficient consideration to support the contract of bailment.

Essential Elements of a Bailment :-



Distinction between Bailment and Contract of sale

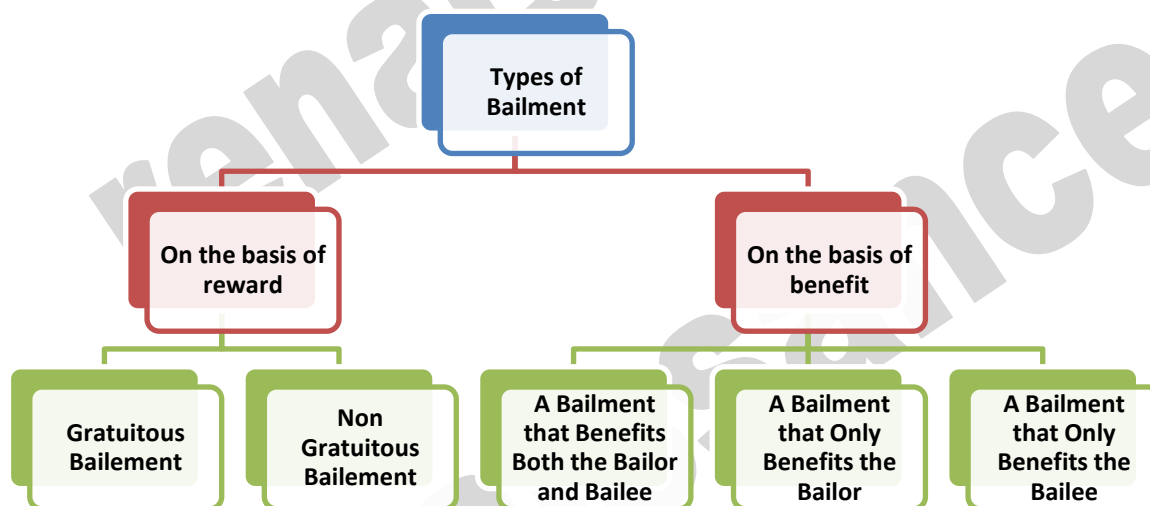
A contract of bailment differs from a contract of sale in the following respects:

S. No.	Basics of distinction	Bailment	Contract of sale
1	Transfers of ownership/possession	There is only a transfer of possession of goods from the bailor to the bailee.	There is a transfer of ownership of goods



			from the seller to the buyer.
2	Consideration not to be passed	The consideration need not be passed between bailor and bailee.	The consideration in terms of price must be passed between seller and buyer.
3	Return of goods	The bailee must return the goods to the bailor on the fulfillment of the purpose for which the bailment is made.	There is no question of such return of goods in contract of sale.

Kinds/types of Bailment:-



DUTIES OF A BAILOR

- Duty to disclose defects [Section 151]
- Duty to bear expenses [Section 158]
- Duty to indemnify the bailee in case of premature termination of gratuitous bailment [Section 159]
- Duty to indemnify the bailee against the defective title of bailor [Section 164]
- Duty to receive back the goods [Section 164]
- Duty to bear the risk of loss [Section 152]
-

DUTIES OF A BAILEE

- Duty to take care of the goods bailed [Section 151&152]
- Duty not to make any unauthorized use of goods [Section 154]
- Duty not to mix bailor’s goods with his own goods [Section 155 to 157]
- Duty to return the goods [Section 160 & 161]
- Duty to return accretion to the goods [Section 163]



Rights of a Bailor

- Right to claim damage in case of negligence [Section 152]
- Right to terminate the contract in case of unauthorized use [Section 153]
- Right to claim compensation in case of unauthorized use [Section 154]
- Right to claim the separation of goods in case of unauthorized mixture of goods which cannot be separated [Section 157]
- Right to demand return of goods [Section 160]
- Right to claim compensation in case of unauthorized retention of goods [Section 161]
- Right to demand accretions to goods [Section 163]

RIGHTS OF A BAILEE

- Right to claim damage [Section 150]
- Right to claim reimbursement of expenses [Section 158]
- Right to be indemnified in case of premature termination of gratuitous bailment [Section 159]
- Right to recover loss in case of bailor's defective title [Section 164]
- Right to recover loss in case of bailor's refusal to take the goods back [Section 164]
- Right to deliver goods to any one of the joint bailors [Section 165]
- Right to deliver goods to bailor in case of bailor's defective title [Section 166]
- Right to particulars lien [Section 170]

RIGHTS OF BAILOR AND BAILEE AGAINST WRONGDOERS

Rights of Bailor and Bailee against Wrongdoer [Section 180] If a third party wrongfully deprives a bailee of the use or possession of the goods bailed, or does them any injury, the bailee is entitled to such remedies as the owner might have used in the like case if no bailment had been made; and either the bailor or the bailee may bring a suit against a third person for such deprivation or injury.

Apportionment of Relief or Compensation Obtained by Such Suits [Section 181] Whatever is obtained by way of relief or compensation in any such suit shall, as between the bailor and the bailee, be dealt with according to their respective interests.

Example X delivered a TV to Y for repairs. Z forcefully takes possession of TV from Y's shop. In this case, either X or Y may sue Z. If Y files the suit, he shall hand over the amount received after deducting his repairs charges to X.

TERMINATION OF BAILMENT

I. Termination of every Contract of Bailment (whether Gratuitous or not)

Every contract of bailment comes to end under the following circumstances:

- (a) On the Expiry of Fixed Period
- (b) On fulfillment of the Purpose
- (c) Inconsistent Use of Goods
- (d) Destruction of the subject Matter of Bailment

II. Termination of Gratuitous Bailment

A contract of gratuitous bailment is terminated in the following circumstances also.

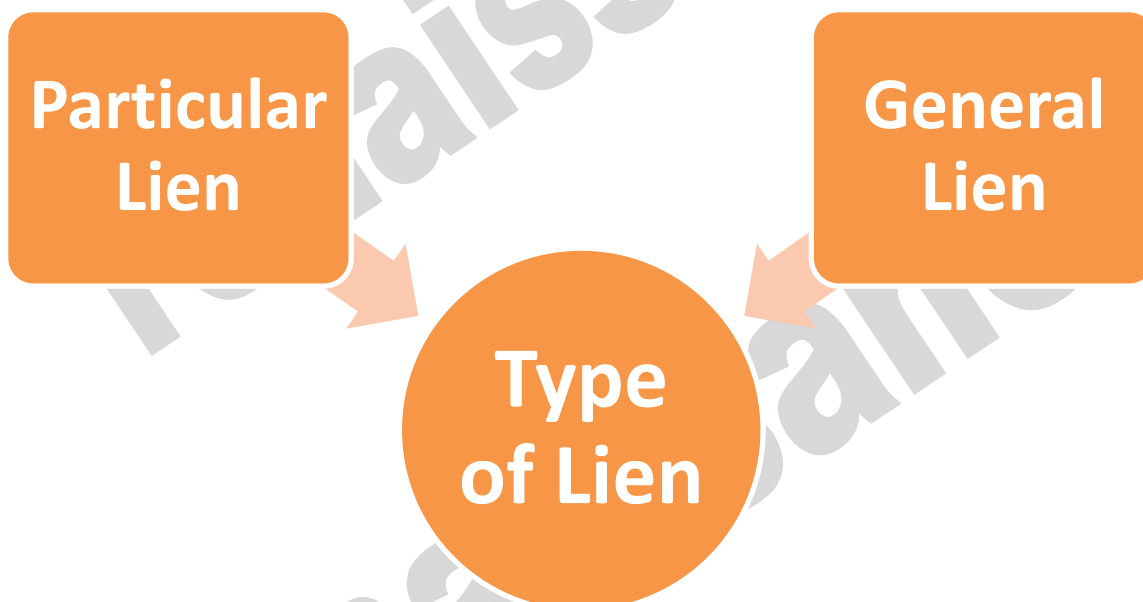
- (a) Before the Expiry of fixed Period
- (b) On Death of Bailor/Bailee

Meaning of Lien



Lien means the right of a person having possession of goods belonging to another to retain those goods until the satisfaction of sum claimed by the person in possession of the goods. It may be noted that the possession of goods must be lawful and continuous. For example, X took Y's godown on rent of Rs.5,000 p.m on an agreement that X can at any time deposit or take out his goods from the godown. After six months, X stopped paying the rent. Y auctioned X's goods and claimed lien. Y cannot claim lien because it was agreed that X can take out his goods whenever he wanted.

Type of Lien:-



(a) **Particular Lien [Section 170]** A particular lien is right to retain only those goods in respect of which some charges are due.

Example:- X gives a piece of cloth to Y, a tailor, to make a coat. Y promises X to deliver the coat as soon as it is finished. Y is entitled to retain the coat till he is paid for (if he has not allowed any credit period) but is not entitled to retain the coat (if he has allow one month's credit for the payment.)

(b) **General Lien [Section 171]** A general lien is a right to retain all the goods as a security for the general balance of account until the full satisfaction of the claims due whether in respect of those goods or other goods. The general lien is available to other person only when there is an express contract to that effect.

Example: - X deposited US 64 units and shares of Reliance Industries Ltd. as security with Citi Bank and took a loan against the shares of Reliance Industries Ltd. Citi Bank may retain both the securities until its claim are fully satisfied.

S. No.	Basic of distinction	Particular lien	General lien
1	Goods in respect of which lien available	It is available against those goods in respect of which	It is available against all goods whether in respect of



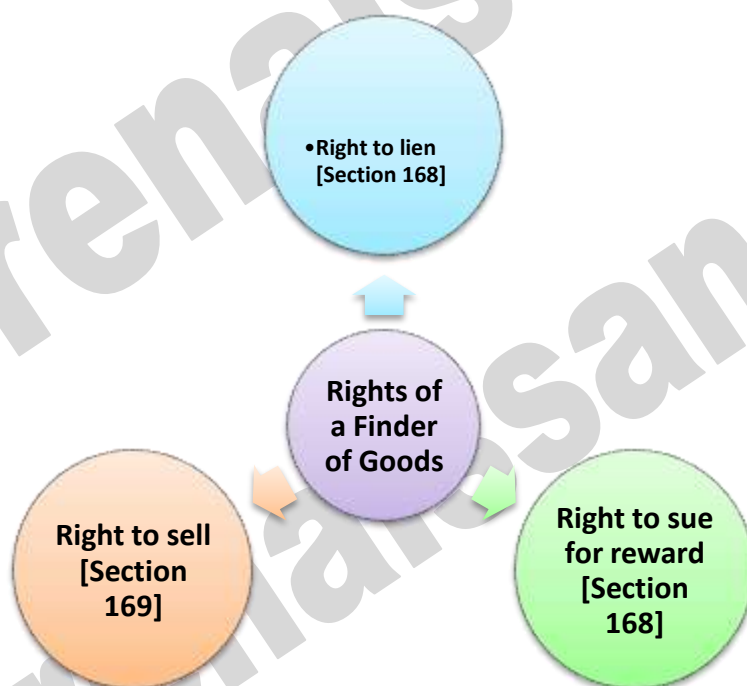
		some charges are due.	which claims are due or not.
2	Purpose	It is available only for non-payment of remuneration for the service.	It is available for a general balance of account.
3	To whom available in the absence of contract to contrary	It is available to every bailee to whom the goods have been bailed.	It is available only to specific bailees like bankers, factors, Wharfingers, attorneys of High Court policy brokers.
4	Rendering of service	It is available only when some service involving the exercise of labour of skill has been rendered.	It is available even when no such service has been rendered.
5	Purpose of delivery of goods	The purpose of delivery of goods is to confer an additional value as the goods bailed.	The purpose of delivery of goods is to deposit the goods as security.

FINDER OF GOODS

Finder of goods is the person whom finds some goods which do not belong to him.

Example if X finds a purse or a diamond ring or a watch, which does not belong to him, he will be called as a finder of goods.

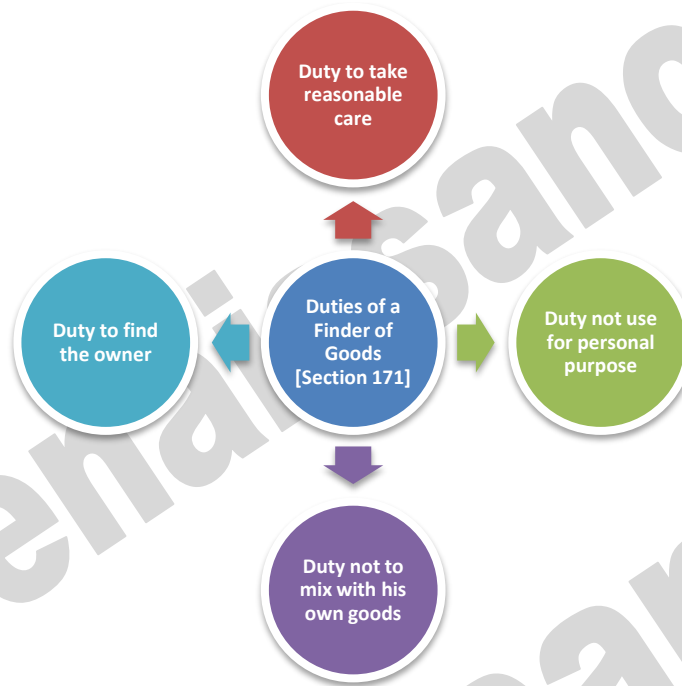
Rights of a Finder of Goods:-





Duties of a Finder of Goods [Section 171] :-

Finder of goods is subject to the same responsibility as a bailee. The duties of a finder of goods are as follows:-



PLEDGE

Meaning of pledge (or pawn) [Section 172]

The bailment of goods as security for payment of a debt or performance of a promise is called pledge (or pawn).

Example X borrows of Rs. 1,00,000 from Citi Bank and keeps his shares as security for payment of a debt. It is a contract of pledge.

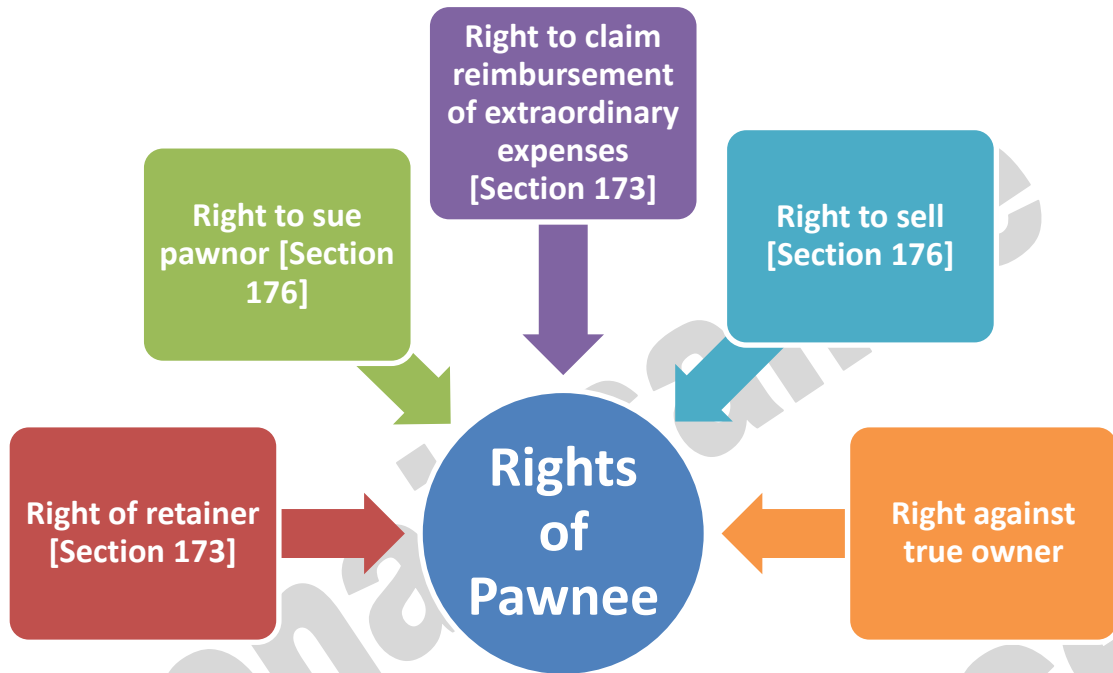
Meaning of A pawner (or pledgor) [Section 172]

The person who delivers the goods as security for payment of a debt or performance of promise is called the pawner or pledgor. In aforesaid example X is pawner

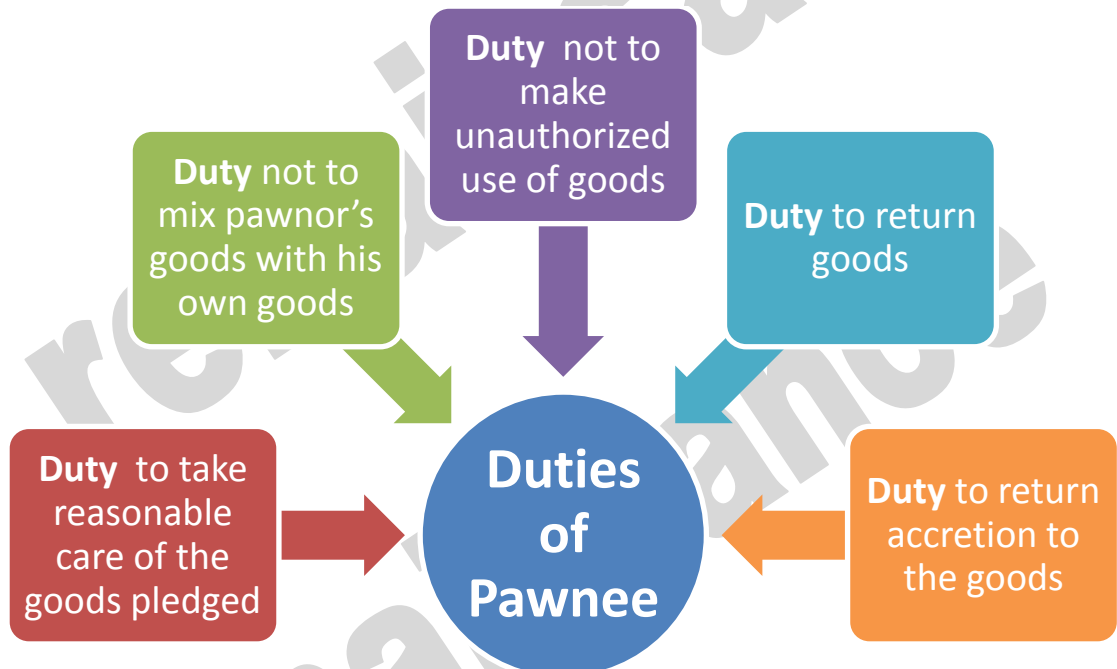
Meaning of Pawnee (or pledgee) [Section 172]

The person to whom the goods are delivered as security for payment of a debt or performance of promise is called the Pawnee or Pledgee. In the aforesaid example. Citi Bank is the Pawnee.

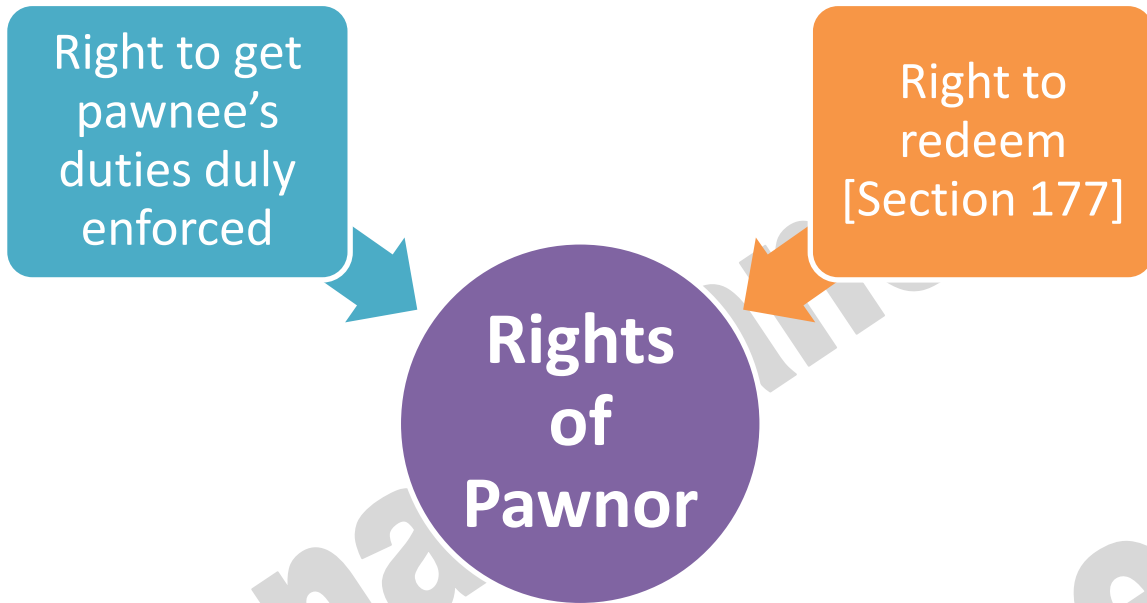
Rights of Pawnee:-



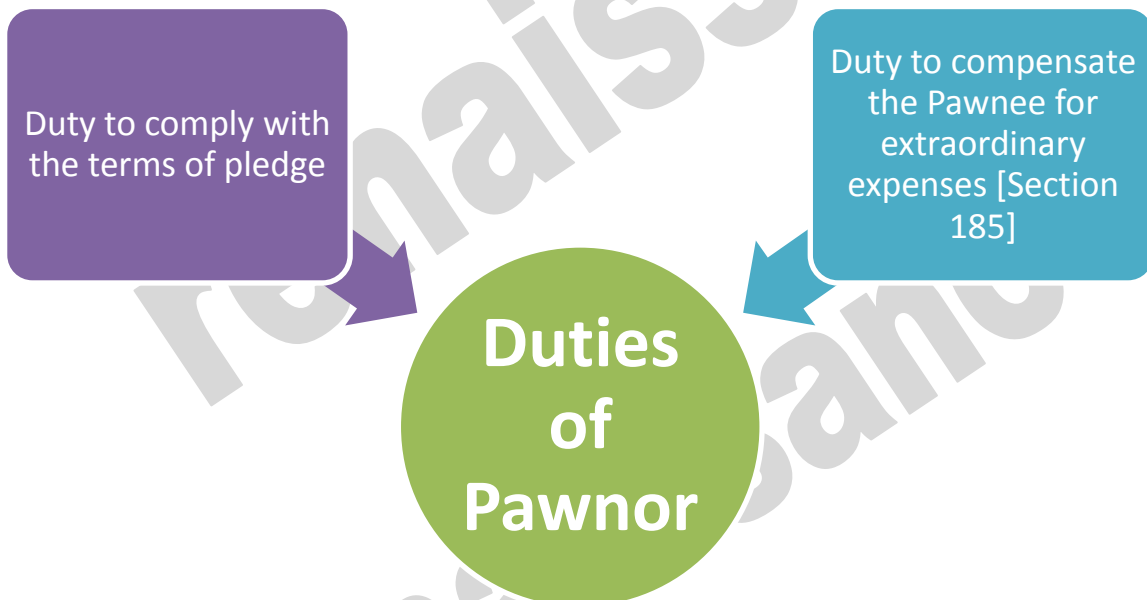
Duties of Pawnee :-



Rights of Pawnor :-



Duties of Pawnor:-



Distinction between Pledge and Bailment

Basic of distinction	Pledge	Bailment
1.Purpose	Pledge is bailment of goods for a specific purpose i.e. repayment of a debt or	Bailment is for a purpose of any kind



	performance of a duty.	
2.Right to use	Pawnee cannot use the goods pledged	Bailee can use the goods as per terms of bailment
3.Right to sell	Pawnee can sell the goods pledge after giving notice to the pawnor in case of default by the pawnor.	Bailment can either retain the goods or sue the bailor for his dues.

Distinction between pledges and Hypothecation

Hypothecation is also one of the modes of providing security. However, it is different from pledge in the following respects:

Basic of distinction	Pledge	Hypothecation
1. possession of goods	Borrower transfer the possession of goods.	Borrower is not transfer the possession of goods.
2. Right to deal with the goods.	Borrower has no right to deal with the goods pledged.	Borrower has a right to deal with the hypothecated.

AGENCY CONTRACT

Meaning of Agency: Agency is relation between an agent his principal created by an agreement.

Section 182 of the Contract Act defines an Agent as “A person employed to do any act for another, or to represent another in dealings with third persons. The person for whom such act is done, or whom is so represented is called the principal”.

Essential Features of Agency:-

Essential Features of Agency

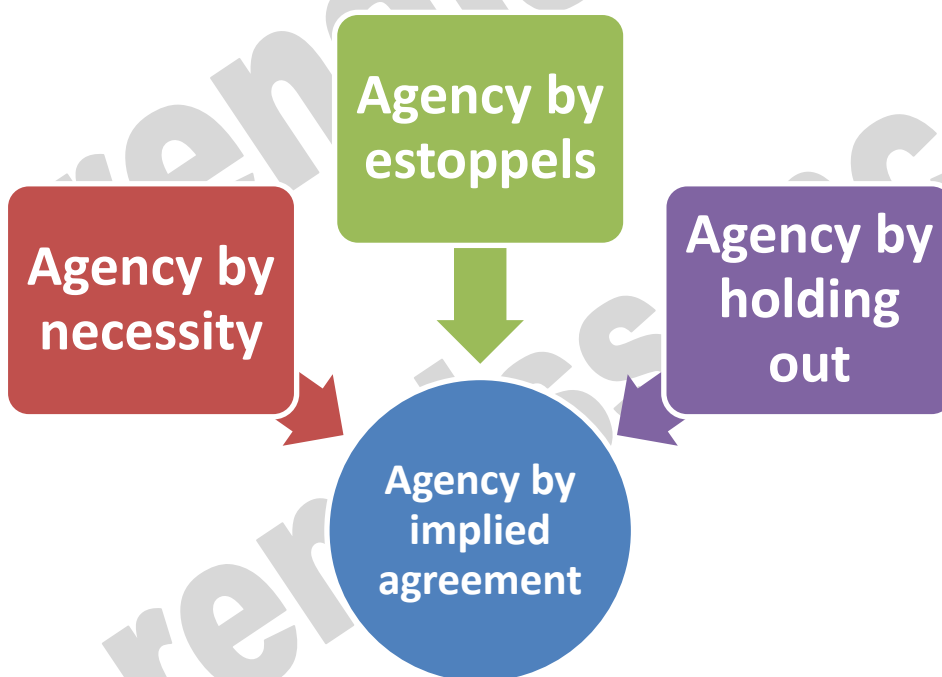
The agent	The principal	An agreement	Consideration not necessary	Representative capacity	Good faith	The competence of the principal
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Modes or Methods or Creation of Agency-



1. **Agency by express agreement:** A contract of agency may be made by express words, whether written or oral.
2. **Agency by implied agreement:** “An authority is said to be implied when it is to be inferred from the circumstances of the case.





- (a) **Agency by estoppels** : When a principal by his conduct or act cause a third person to believe that a certain person is his authorized agent the agency is aid to be an agency by estoppels.
 - (b) **Agency by necessity** : It mean the agency which comes into existence when certain circumstances compel a person to act as an agent for an other without his express authority.
 - (c) **Agency by holding out** : When a principal by his active conduct or act and without any objection permits another to act as his agent, the agency is the result of principal's conduct as to the agent.
3. **Agency by ratification** : Ratification means confirmation of an act which has already been done. Sometimes, an act is done by a person on behalf of another person but without another person's knowledge and authority. If he accepts and confirm the act, he is said to have ratified it.
4. **Agency by operation of law** : In certain circumstances the law treats a person as an agent of another person. For example, (a) when a partnership is formed, every partner automatically becomes agent o another partner. (b) when a company is formed its promoters are treated as its agents by operation of law.

RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF AGENT

Rights of an Agent

1. Right to retain money received on principal's account.
2. Right to receive remuneration.
3. Right of lien on principal's property.
4. Right to be indemnified.
5. Right to compensation for injury caused by principal's neglet.

Duties of an Agent

1. To follow the direction of the principal.
2. To conduct the business of agency with reasonable skill and diligence.
3. To render accounts on demand
4. To communicate with the principal.
5. Not to deal on his own account
6. To pay the amounts received for the principal
7. Not to delegate his authority
8. Not to act in excess of authority
9. Duty on termination of agency by principal's death or insanity.
- 10.

TERMINATION OF AGENCY

Termination of agency means revocation (cancellation) of authority of the agent the modes of termination of agency may be classified are as :

(a) **Termination of Agency by the act of the Parties.**

1. By revocation o authority by the principal
2. By renunciation (giving up) of business of agency by the agency
3. By mutual agreement

(b) **Termination of agency by Operation of Law**

1. Completion of business of agency
2. Death or insanity of principal or agent
3. Insolvency of the principal
4. Destruction of subject matcer
5. Expiry of time
6. Agency subsequently becoming unlawful.
7. Termination of sub agent's authority

revocable agency



when the authority of agent cannot be revoked by the principal it is said to be an irrevocable agency. An agency is irrevocable in the following cases :

1. If the agency is coupled with interest : when an agent himself has a special interest in the property which forms the subject matter of the agency, such agency is said to be coupled with interest.
2. Where the agent has partly exercised his authority
3. When the agent has incurred a personal liability.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN SUB-AGENT AND SUBSTITUTED AGENT

Basic of distinction	Sub-agent	Substituted Agent
1. Appointment	A sub-agent is appointed by the agent, i.e. original agent.	A substituted agent is named by the agent and appointed by the principal.
2. Delegation of Authority	Original agent delegates some of his authority to the sub-agent	Original agent does not delegate his authority to the substituted agent.
3. Control	A sub-agent acts under the control o the agent.	A substituted agent acts under the direction and control of the principal.
4. Privity of contract with principal	There is no privity of contract between sub-agent and the principal. Therefore, both of them cannot directly sue on each other.	There is a privity of contract between substituted agent and the principal. Therefore, both of them can sue each other directly.
5. Liability of the agent	`agent is liable to the principal for the acts of the sub-agent.	Agent is not responsible to the principal for the acts of the substituted agent.
6. Accountability	The sub-agent may be held accountable to the principal only for his wrongful acts or fraud.	A substituted agent is a accountable to the principal for each and every act.
7. Claim for remuneration	A sub-agent has no right to claim remuneration from the principal.	A substituted agent can claim remuneration from the principal.
8. Improper appointment	A sub-agent may be improperly appointed.	A substituted can never be improperly appointed.

UNIT-III

Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881

The Negotiable Instruments Act was enacted, in India, in 1881 and it came into force on 1st March, 1881.

Prior to its enactment, the provision of the English Negotiable Instrument Act were applicable in India, and the present Act is also based on the English Act with certain modifications. It extends to the whole of India except the State of Jammu and Kashmir. The Act operates subject to the provisions of Sections 31 and 32 of the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934



Definition

A "negotiable instrument" means a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque payable either to order or to bearer.

Explanation (i) - A promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque is payable to order which is expressed to be so payable or which is expressed to be payable to a particular person, and does not contain words prohibiting transfer or indicating an intention that it shall not be transferable.

Explanation (ii) - A promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque is payable to bearer which is expressed to be so payable or on which the only or last endorsement is an indorsement in blank.

Explanation (iii) - Where a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque, either originally or by endorsement, is expressed to be payable to the order of a specified person, and not to him or his order, it is nevertheless payable to him or his order at his option.

(2) A negotiable instrument may be made payable to two or more payees jointly, or it may be made payable in the alternative to one of two, or one or some of several payees. The word negotiable means 'transferable by delivery,' and the word instrument means 'a written document by which a right is created in favour of some person.' Thus, the term "negotiable instrument" literally means 'a written document which creates a right in favour of somebody and is freely transferable by delivery.'

A negotiable instrument is a piece of paper which entitles a person to a certain sum of money and which is transferable from one to another person by a delivery or by endorsement and delivery.

"According to Blackburn J, a negotiable instrument has two characteristics namely

1. It is transferable, like cash, by delivery (which assumes it is in a deliverable state) so that the transferee can enforce the rights embodied in it in his own name.

2. The transferee being a bonafide holder for value can acquire a better title to it than that of his transferor."

Negotiable Instrument is moreover a document of title which clearly explains the rights towards the payment of money or a security for money which is transferable by delivery either by custom or by legislation. The use of negotiable Instrument is mainly to facilitate payment for exports and imports of trade. The rapid growth of technology has revolutionized the world with computer, which is used in every field of profession. This has reduced the use of negotiable instrument and in future it may decline more. Even though the electronic revolution has got more advantages it may be considered as the next step because the world needs time to get used to it. But, the negotiable instrument are still in use.

Characteristics of Negotiable Instruments:-



1. Free transferability or easy negotiability

Negotiable instrument is freely transferable from one person to another without any formality. The property (right of ownership) in these instruments passes by either endorsement and delivery (in case



it is payable to order) or by delivery merely (in case it is payable to bearer) and no further evidence of transfer is needed.

2. Title of holder is free from all defects

A person who takes negotiable instrument bona-fide and for value gets the instrument free from all defects in the title. The holder in due course is not affected by defective title of the transferor or of any other party.

3. Transferee can sue in his own name without giving notice to the debtor:

A bill, promissory note or a cheque represents a debt, i.e., an "actionable claim" and implies the right of the creditor to recover something from the debtor.

The creditor can either recover this amount himself or can transfer his right to another person.

In case he transfers his right, the transferee of a negotiable instrument is entitled to sue on the instrument in his own name in case of dishonour, without giving notice to the debtor of the fact that he has become holder.

In case of transfer or assignment of an ordinary "actionable claim" i.e., a book debt evidenced by an entry by the creditor in his account book, under the transfer of property act, notice to the debtor is necessary in order to make the transferee entitled to sue in his own name.

4. Presumptions:

Certain presumptions apply to negotiable instruments. Section 118, 119 and 139 lay down the following presumptions:

(a) For consideration : that every negotiable instrument, was made, drawn, accepted, endorsed or transferred for consideration.

(b) As to date : that every negotiable instrument bearing a date was made or drawn on such date.

(c) As to time of acceptance : that every bill of exchange was accepted within a reasonable time after its date and before its maturity.

(d) As to transfer: that every transfer of a negotiable instrument was made before its maturity

(e) As to time of endorsements : that the endorsements appearing upon a negotiable instrument were made in the order in which they appear thereon.

(f) As to stamps : that a lost promissory-note, bill of exchange or cheque was duly stamped.

(g) As to a holder in due course: that every holder of a negotiable instrument is holder in due course (this presumption would not arise where it is proved that the holder has obtained the instrument from its lawful owner, or from any person in lawful custody thereof, by means of an offence, fraud or for unlawful consideration and in such a case the holder has to prove that he is a holder in due course

(h) As to dishonour: that the instrument was dishonoured, in case a suit upon a dishonoured instrument is filed with the court and the fact of protest is proved.

Section 139 - Presumption in favour of holder:

It shall be presumed, unless the contrary is proved, that the holder of a cheque received the cheque of the nature referred to in section 138 for the discharge, in whole or in part, of any debt or other liability.

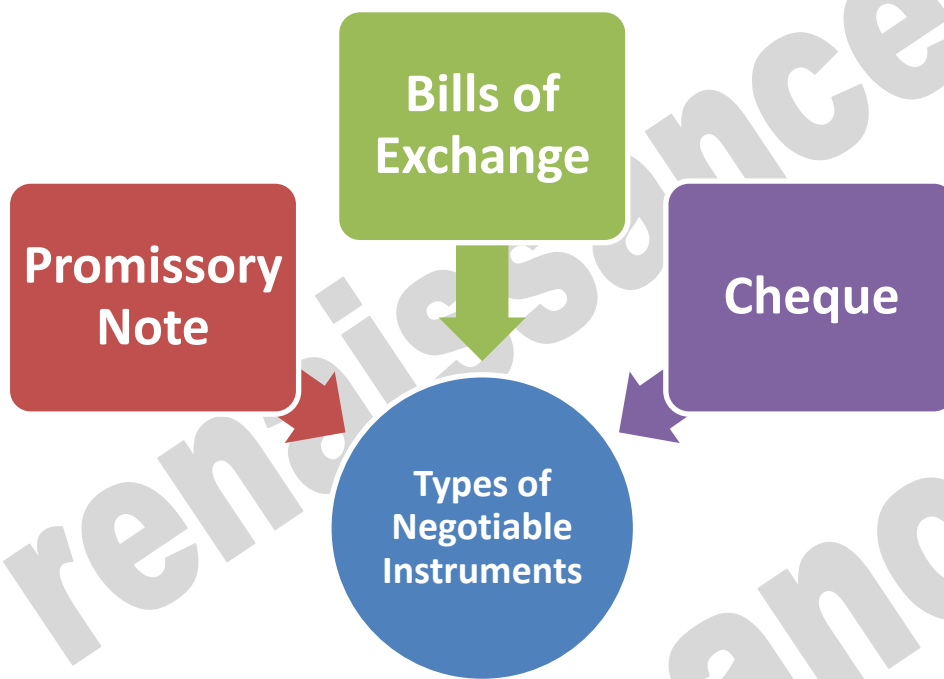
"The effect of these presumptions is to place the evidential burden on the accused of proving that the cheque was not received by the complainant towards the discharge of any liability. Because both sections 138 and 139 require that the court shall presume the liability of the drawer of the cheques for the amounts for which the cheques are drawn...it is obligatory on the courts to raise this presumption in every case where the factual basis for the raising of this presumption had been established. It introduced an exception to the general rule as to the burden of proof in criminal cases and shifts the onus on to the accused."

Types of Negotiable Instruments

There are three types of Negotiable instruments:-



Negotiable Instruments recognized by statutes: The Negotiable Instruments Act mentions only three kinds of negotiable instruments (**Section 13**).



Negotiable instruments recognized by usage or customs of trade: There are certain other instruments which have acquired the characteristic of negotiability by the usage or custom of trade.

For example: Exchequer bills, Bank notes, Share warrants, Circular notes, Bearer debentures, Dividend warrants, Share certificates with blank transfer deeds, etc.

Promissory Note

Definition: According to **Section 4 of Negotiable Instruments Act**, "A promissory note is an instrument in writing (not being a bank-note or a currency-note) containing an unconditional undertaking, signed by the maker, to pay a certain sum of money only to, or to the order of, a certain person, or to the bearer of the instrument."

Parties to a Promissory Note

There are primarily two parties involved in a promissory note. They are:

- (i) The Maker or Drawer:** The person who makes the note and promises to pay the amount stated therein.
- (ii) The Payee** – The person to whom the amount is payable i.e. to whom the payment is to be made is called a payee.

In course of transfer of a promissory note by payee and others, the parties involved may be –

- (a) The Endorser** – the person who endorses the note in favour of another person.
- (b) The Endorsee** – the person in whose favour the note is negotiated by endorsement.

Characteristics of Promissory Note

1. It must be in writing:

A promissory note has to be in writing

An oral promise to pay does not become a promissory note



The writing may be on any paper or book

Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

"I promise to pay B or order Rs.500/-"

"I acknowledge myself to be indebted to B in Rs.1,000/- to be paid on demand, for value received"

Both the above instruments are valid promissory notes.

2. It must contain a promise or undertaking to pay:

There must be a promise or an undertaking to pay

The undertaking to pay may be gathered either from express words or by necessary implication.

A mere acknowledgement of indebtedness is not a promissory note, although it is valid as an agreement and may be sued upon as such

Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

"Mr. B I owe you Rs.1,000"

"I am liable to pay to B Rs.500"

The above instruments are not promissory notes as there is no undertaking or promise to pay.

There is only an acknowledgement of indebtedness.

Where A signs the instrument in the following terms:

"I acknowledge myself to be indebted to B in Rs.1,000, to be paid on demand, for value received," there is a valid promissory note

3. The promise to pay must be unconditional:

A promissory note must contain an unconditional promise to pay

The promise to pay must not depend upon the happening of some uncertain event, i.e., a contingency or the fulfillment of a condition

Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

"I promise to pay B Rs. 500 seven days after my marriage with C"

"I promise to pay B Rs. 500 as soon as I can"

The above instruments are not valid promissory notes as the payment is made depending upon the happening of an uncertain event which may never happen and as a result the sum may never become payable

4. It must be signed by the maker: It is imperative that the promissory note should be duly authenticated by the 'signature' of the maker

'Signature' means the writing or otherwise affixing a person's name or a mark to represent his name, by himself or by his authority with the intention of authenticating a document.

5. The maker must be a certain person:

The instrument must itself indicate with certainty who is the person or are the persons engaging himself or themselves to pay

Alternative promisors are not permitted in law because of the general rule that "where liability lies no ambiguity must lie"

6. The payee must be certain:

Like the maker the payee of a pronote must also be certain on the face of the instrument

A note in favour of fictitious person is illegal and void

A pronote made payable to the maker himself is a nullity, the reason being the same person is both the promisor and the promisee

7. The undertaking must be to pay a certain and definite sum of money only.

For a valid pronote it is also essential that the sum of money promised to be payable must be certain and definite

The amount payable must not be capable of contingent additions or subtractions



Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

"I promise to pay B Rs.500 and all other sums which shall be due to him"

"I promise to pay B Rs.500, first deducting thereout any money which he may owe me"

The above instruments are invalid as promissory notes because the exact amount to be paid by A is not certain

8. The amount payable must be in legal tender money of India:

A document containing a promise to pay a certain amount of foreign money or to deliver a certain quantity of goods is not a promissory note. The payment must be in a legal money of the country.

9. Revenue stamps or requisite value under the stamp Act of the country should be affixed.

10. Other matters of form like number, date, place etc, are usually found given in notes, but they are not essentials in law.

11. A bank note or a currency note is not a promissory note within the meaning of this section.

12. A promissory note cannot be made payable to bearer on demand.

Bill of Exchange

Definition: Section 5 of the Negotiable Instruments Act defines a Bill of Exchange as follows:

"A bill of exchange is an instrument in writing containing an unconditional order, signed by the maker, directing a certain person to pay a certain sum of money only to, or to the order of, a certain person or to the bearer of the instrument." It is also called a Draft.

Illustration:

Mr. X purchases goods from Mr. Y for Rs.1000/-

Mr. Y buys goods from Mr. S for Rs.1000/-

Then Mr. Y may order Mr. X to pay Rs.1000/- Mr. S which will be nothing but a bill of exchange.

Parties to a Bill of Exchange

There are three parties involved in a bill of exchange

(i) **The Drawer** – The person who makes the order for making payment.

(ii) **The Drawee** – The person to whom the order to pay is made. He is generally a debtor of the drawer. The person directed to pay the money by the drawer is called the drawee.

(iii) **The Payee** – The person to whom the payment is to be made. The person named in the instrument, to whom or to whose order the money are directed to be paid by the instruments are called the payee.

The drawer can also draw a bill in his own name thereby he himself becomes the payee. Here the words in the bill would be Pay to us or order.

In a bill where a time period is mentioned, is called a Time Bill.

But a bill may be made payable on demand also. This is called a Demand Bill.

Essentials of a Bill of Exchange

1. **It must be in writing**
2. **It must contain an order to pay. A mere request to pay on account, will not amount to an order**
3. **The order to pay must be unconditional**
4. **It must be signed by the drawer**
The drawer, drawee and payee must be certain. A bill cannot be drawn on two or more drawees but may be made payable in the alternative to one of two or more payees
5. **The sum payable must be certain**
6. **The bill must contain an order to pay money only**
7. **It must comply with the formalities as regards date, consideration, stamps, etc**



Cheque

Definition: A cheque is bill of exchange drawn on a specified banker and not expressed to be payable otherwise than on demand and it includes the electronic image of a truncated cheque and a cheque in the electronic form. (Sec. 6, NIA)

Explanation I - For the purposes of this section, the expressions-

(a) a cheque in the electronic form means a cheque which contains the exact mirror image of a paper cheque, and is generated, written and signed in a secure system ensuring the minimum safety standards with the use of digital signature (with or without biometrics signature) and asymmetric crypto system;

(b) a truncated cheque means a cheque which is truncated during the course of a clearing cycle, either by the clearing house or by the bank whether paying or receiving payment, immediately on generation of an electronic image for transmission, substituting the further physical movement of the cheque in writing.

Explanation II - For the purposes of this section, the expression clearing house means the clearing house managed by the Reserve Bank of India or a clearing house recognised as such by the Reserve Bank of India.

A cheque is a kind of bill of exchange but it has additional qualification namely-

1. It is always drawn on a specified banker and
2. It is always payable on demand without any days of grace.

Parties to a cheque

Drawer: Drawer is the person who draws or makes the cheque.

Drawee: Drawee is the drawer's banker on whom the cheque has been drawn.

Payee: Payee is the person who is entitled to receive the payment of a cheque.

Crossing of Cheque

A Crossed Cheque is one which bears across its face two parallel transverse lines with or without certain words. Such lines are usually drawn on the left side top corner of the face of the Cheque. However, such lines can be drawn anywhere on the face of the Cheque.

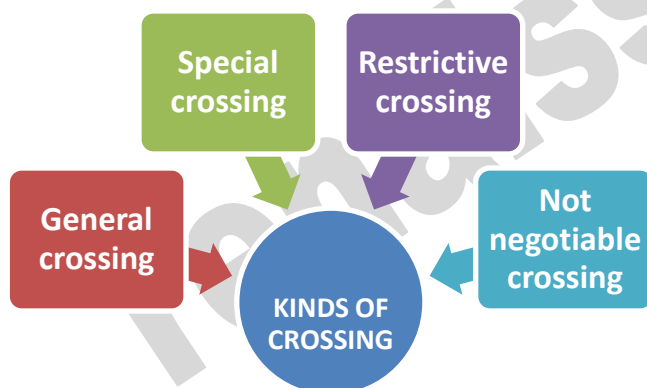
Crossing of Cheque is a direction to the drawee bank to pay the amount of the Cheque to a bank or to a particular bank. Therefore, a crossed Cheque is not payable to the payee or holder at the counter of the bank. In order to get the payment of the Cheque, it is required to be deposited in an account with a bank. The bank, in turn, presents the Cheque to the drawee bank and gets payment on behalf of the payee or indorsee of the Cheque.

The objects of crossing of a Cheque are as follows:

To direct the drawee bank to pay the amount of the Cheque only to a bank or a particular bank;

To prevent the payment of the Cheque to an unauthorized or wrong person.

Kinds of Crossing:-





1. General crossing: A Cheque is deemed to be generally crossed in any of the following cases:

- a. When it bears across its face two parallel transverse lines without any words.
- b. When it bears across its face an addition of the words "and company" or any abbreviation thereof between two parallel transverse lines. It may also be with or without the words 'Not negotiable'.

Effects of general crossing

The Cheque is not payable at the counter of the bank.

The drawee bank shall pay the amount of the Cheque only to a banker. Therefore, the holder will have to deposit the Cheque in an account with any banker. [Sec. 126 Para 1]

2. Special crossing: A Cheque is said to be specially crossed when the name of a banker is added across the face of the Cheque, either with or without words, not negotiable. Usually, two parallel transverse lines are used in special crossing but they are required not by law.

Effects of special crossing:

In the case of a Cheque especially crossed, the payment can be obtained only through the particular banker whose name appears across the face of the Cheque or his agent for collection. [Sec. 126, para2]

3. Restrictive crossing: Restrictive crossing has not been described anywhere in the Negotiable Instrument Act. It is a type of crossing which has evolved out of business and banking usage and now recognized by the law. Every Cheque crossed wither generally or specially may be crossed restrictively credit the proceeds of the Cheque only to the account of the payee.

4. Not negotiable crossing: Sometimes, a Cheque crossed generally or specially contains the words 'not negotiable' A crossing with such words is said to be 'not negotiable' crossing.

The words 'not negotiable' on a crossed Cheque destroy the negotiable character of the Cheque but not the transferability of the Cheque. Therefore, any person taking a crossed Cheque bearing the words 'not negotiable' shall not have and shall not be capable of giving a better title to the Cheque than the title of the person from whom he took it. [Sec. 130]



Parties to a Negotiable Instrument:

Holder and Holder in due course

Holder (Sec. 8, NIA)

Holder means any person entitled in his own name to the possession a promissory note bill of exchange or cheque and to recover or receive the amount due thereon from the parties thereon. A holder must therefore have the possession of the instrument and also the right to recover the money in his own name.

Therefore, holder of a negotiable instrument is the person:

1. Who is entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument, and
2. Who has the right to receive or recover the amount due thereon from the parties thereto.

Characteristics:

- a) Entitled to possession of an instrument
- b) Entitled to receive or recover the amount
- c) Holder of lost or destroyed instrument

Who can be a Holder?

- i. Payee
- ii. Indorsee
- iii. Bearer
- iv. Legal representative or heir

Who is Not a Holder?

- i. Agent
- ii. Servant
- iii. Beneficial
- iv. Thief or finder
- v. Forged indorsee

Powers of Holder

- I. He is entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument.
- II. He can receive or recover the amount due on the instrument.
- III. If necessary, he can sue the parties in order to recover the money due on the instrument.
- IV. He can validly discharge the instrument on payment of the instrument.
- V. He may indorse the instrument to any other person

"Holder in due course" (Sec. 9, NIA)

Holder in due course means any person who for consideration became the possessor of a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque, if payable to the bearer or the payee or indorsee thereof, if payable to the order before the amount mentioned in it became payable, and without having sufficient cause to believe that any defect existed in the title of the person from who he derived his title'

Thus, a person is a holder in due course if he satisfies the following conditions:

- a) He must be a holder (possessor) of a negotiable instrument.
- b) He must have become holder (possessor) of the instrument for consideration.
- c) He must have become holder before maturity of the instrument.
- d) He must have obtained the instrument in good faith.
- e) He must have received the instrument complete and regular on the face of it.

RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES OF HOLDER IN DUE COURSE

A holder in due course enjoys certain rights and privileges. They are available in the following particular cases:



In case of an inchoate instrument: Sometimes a person signs a stamped but otherwise incomplete (inchoate) instrument and delivers it to another person. In such a case, it implies that the holder may fill in any amount for which authority has been given by the maker.

In case of a fictitious bill: Sometimes the name of the drawer or the payee or both is fictitious in a bill. Such a bill is called a fictitious bill. The acceptor of such a fictitious bill is not liable to the holder of the bill. But if the same bill is passed on to a holder in due course, he will have a privilege to claim money on it from the acceptor. [Sec.42]

In case of the liability of prior parties: A holder in due course has a privilege to hold every prior party to a negotiable instrument liable on it until the instrument is duly satisfied. [Sec.36]

In case of instrument without consideration: Sometimes an instrument is made, drawn, accepted, indorsed or transferred without consideration. But, if the same instrument comes into the hands of a holder in due course, he has a privilege to recover the amount from any party thereto [Sec.43]

In case of transfer of title to a subsequent holder: A holder in due course has a privilege to transfer the title to an instrument free from all defects to subsequent holder. Therefore, any holder of a negotiable instrument who derives title to a negotiable instrument from a holder in due course enjoys all the rights and privileges of that holder in due course.

In case of an instrument obtained by unlawful means or for unlawful consideration: Sometimes, a person gets a lost instrument or obtains an instrument by means of an offence (i.e. by stealing or defrauding). In such a case, the holder cannot claim any right against the party liable on it. But if the same instrument is negotiated to a holder in due course, he will get good title to it.

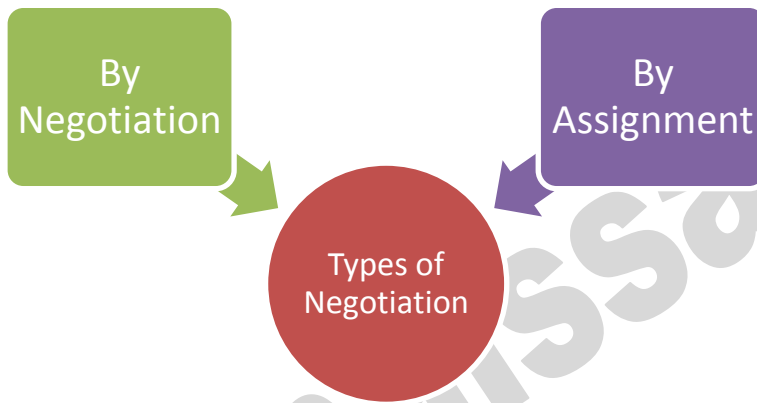
DISTINCTION BETWEEN HOLDER AND HOLDER IN DUE COURSE

Basis of Distinction	Holder	Holder in Due Course
1. Definition	Holder is a person who is entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument and to receive the amount due on it.	Holder in due course is a person who becomes the possessor of the instrument for consideration before its maturity and in good faith. [Sec. 9]
2. Consideration	A holder need not necessarily acquire the instrument for consideration. For instance, a holder may get the instrument by way of gift.	A holder in due course can acquire the instrument for consideration only.
3. Before maturity	A holder may obtain possession before or after the maturity of the instrument.	A holder in due course must obtain the possession before maturity of the instrument.
4. Good faith	A holder need not necessarily acquire possession of the instrument in good faith.	A holder in due course must always acquire possession of the instrument in good faith.
5. Inchoate instrument	A holder can claim only the amount which signer of the inchoate instrument intended to pay.	A holder in due course can claim any amount filled in the inchoate instrument provided it is covered by the stamp affixed on it. [Sec. 20]
6. Right against prior parties	A holder does not have rights against all the prior parties. He has rights against the original parties and his immediate indorser.	A holder in due course has rights against every prior party to the instrument. He can hold them liable jointly and severally.[Sec. 36]
7. Title better than the transferor	A holder can never get a better title than that of the transferor.	A holder in due course can acquire a better title than that of the transferor. In other words he gets the instrument cleansed of all prior defects.



Negotiation

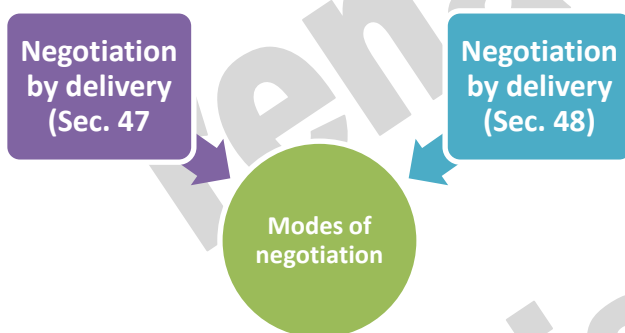
One of the essential features of a negotiable instrument is its transferability. A negotiable instrument may be transferred from one person to another in either of the followings way-



1) By negotiation - The transfer of an instrument by one party to another so as to constitute the transferee a holder is called Negotiation. Negotiation means as the process by which a third party is constituted the holder of the instrument so as to entitle him to the possession of the same and to receive the amount due thereon in his own name.

According to section 14 of the Act, "when a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque is transferred to any person so as to constitute that person the holder thereof, the instrument is said to be negotiated." The main purpose and essence of negotiation is to make the transferee of a promissory note, a bill of exchange or a cheque the holder thereof.

Modes of negotiation (Sec. 47 and 48, NIA):-



1. Negotiation by delivery (Sec. 47): Where a promissory note or a bill of exchange or a cheque is payable to a bearer, it may be negotiated by delivery thereof.

Example: A the holder of a negotiable instrument payable to bearer, delivers it to B's agent to keep it for B. The instrument has been negotiated.

2. Negotiation by delivery (Sec. 48) :

A promissory note, a cheque or a bill of exchange payable to order can be negotiated only by endorsement and delivery. Unless the holder signs his endorsement on the instrument and delivers it, the transferee does not become a holder. If there are more payees than one, all must endorse it.



2) By Assignment –

When a holder of a bill, promissory note or cheque transfers the same to another, he in fact gives his right to receive the payment of the instrument to the transferee.

Difference between Assignment & Negotiation:-

- 1) Mode of transfer- The transfer by negotiation requires only delivery with or without endorsement of a bearer or order instrument. Whereas the transfer by assignment requires a separate written document such as transfer deed signed by the transferor.
- 2) Notice of transfer-Not require in negotiation
- 3) Consideration-consideration must be proved in assignee.
- 4) Title
- 5) Right to sue

Endorsement

The word “endorsement” in its literal sense means, writing on the back of an instrument. But under the Negotiable Instruments Act, it means, the writing of one’s name on the back of the instrument or any paper attached to it with the intention of transferring the rights therein. Thus, endorsement is signing a negotiable instrument for the purpose of negotiation. The person who effects an endorsement is called an “endorser”, and the person to whom negotiable instrument is transferred by endorsement is called the “endorsee”. Who may Endorse / Negotiate [Section 51]: Every Sole maker, drawer, payee or endorsee, or all of several joint makers, drawers, payees or endorsees of a negotiable instrument may endorse and negotiate the same if the negotiability of such instrument has not been restricted or excluded as mentioned in Section 50.

When the maker or holder of a negotiable instrument signs the instrument (otherwise than as maker) for the purpose of its negotiation, it is said to be the Endorsement of the instrument. [Section 15]

Essentials of a Valid Endorsement: Following are the essentials of a valid endorsement:

- 1. Indorsers must be holder:** For a valid Endorsement, the indorser must be holder of the instrument. In other words, indorser must be entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument and recover or receive the amount due thereon. Therefore, a person who steals or finds a lost instrument cannot indorse the instrument because he is not a holder.
- 2. On the instrument:** Endorsement must be on the face or back of the instrument or on a piece of paper annexed to the instrument.
- 3. Signature:** Endorsement must be signed by the indorser for the purpose of negotiation of the instrument. It may be signed by the maker or holder of the instrument but the maker must not sign the Endorsement in the capacity of the maker.
- 4. Additional words and form of words:** Indorser may sign the Endorsement with a without additional words or statement.
- 5. Endorsement by joint holders:** An Endorsement is valid only when all joint holders (i.e. all makers, drawers, indorsees or payees) join in Endorsement unless any one of them has the authority to indorse for the others.
- 6. Endorsement of entire instrument:** Endorsement must be of the entire instrument. An Endorsement which purports to transfer only a part of the amount of the instrument is not a valid Endorsement.
- 7. Delivery:** In order to make a complete and effective Endorsement, the instrument must be delivered by the indorser to the indorsee.

8. It must be made by the holder of the instrument.



9. It must be completed by the delivery of the instrument.

10. It must be signed by the endorser. It must be on the back or face of instrument or on a slip of paper annexed thereto.

Persons Entitled to Indorse:

1. Payee
2. Maker, drawer or holder
3. Indorsee
4. Joint makers, drawers etc.

Kinds of Endorsements



1. Blank or general Endorsement: When the indorser signs his name only on the instrument for the purpose of its negotiation, it is called the blank or general Endorsement. Illustration: Anta has a Cheque payable to 'Anta or order' Anta merely signs on the instrument. It constitutes a blank Endorsement.

2. Full or special Endorsement: When an indorser signs his name and adds a direction to pay the amount mentioned in the instrument to or to the order of a specified person, it is called the Endorsement in full. Illustration: Anita is a holder of a Cheque. He writes 'Pay Banta or Order or Pay Banta only' and signs the Cheque. It is a full or special Endorsement.

3. Restrictive Endorsement: Illustration: (a) 'Pay the contents to Banta only'. (b) 'Pay Banta for my use'.

4. Partial Endorsement: Sometimes, an Endorsement purports to transfer only a part of the amount of the instrument. Such an Endorsement is called as partial Endorsement. It is not a valid Endorsement for the purpose of negotiation.

5. Conditional or qualified Endorsement: When an indorser inserts a condition in his Endorsement, it is called a conditional Endorsement. Sometimes, an indorser by express words in the Endorsement may exclude his liability on the instrument makes the right of the indorsee to receive the amount due thereon on the happening of a specified event or on the implement of some condition. In such a case, the Endorsement is said to be conditional.

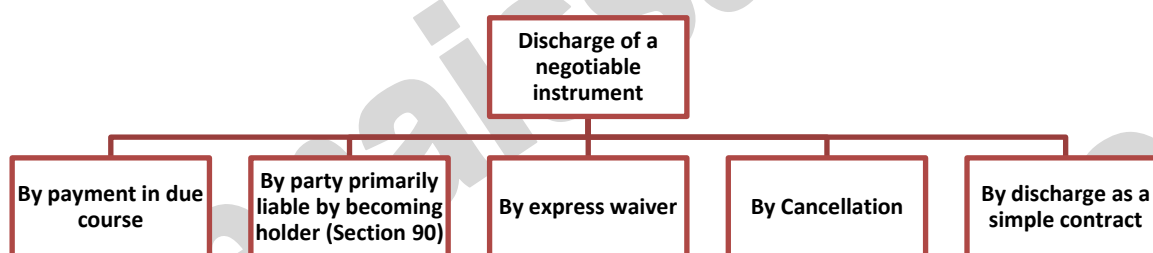
Effects of Endorsement:



1. An unconditional Endorsement of a negotiable instrument followed by an unconditional delivery of the instrument has the following effects:
2. The property in the instrument stands transferred to the indorsee.
3. The indorsee gets the right of further negotiation of the instrument [Sec. 50]
4. The indorsee is entitled to sue all parties, whose names appear on it.

Discharge of a negotiable instrument

“Discharge means release from obligation.” Discharge can take place-



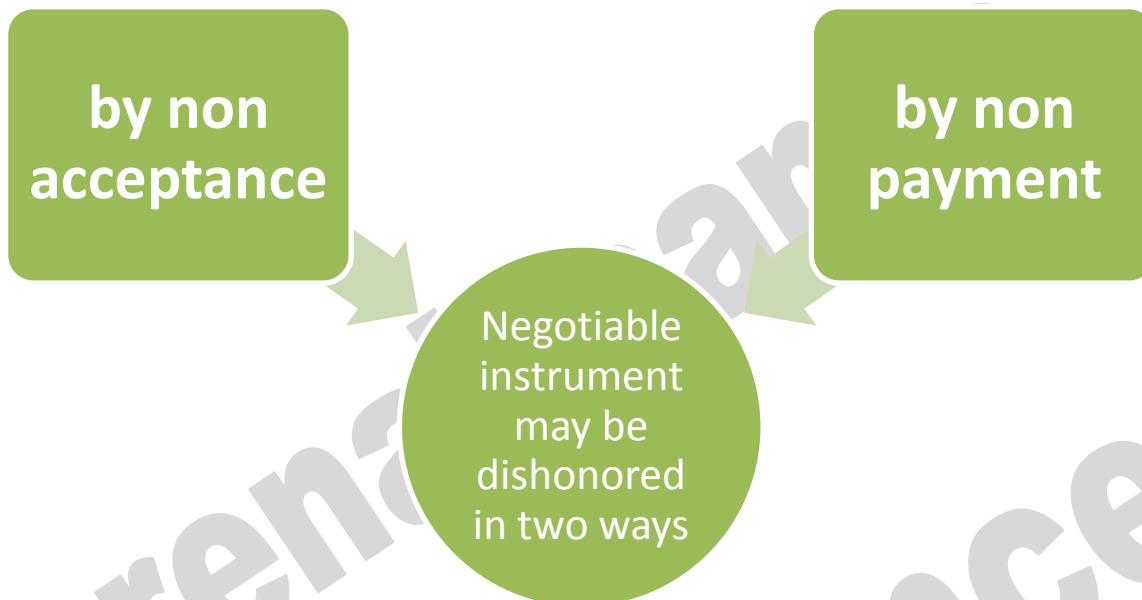
- 1) **By payment in due course:** The instrument is discharged by payment made in due course by the party who is primarily liable to pay, or by a person who is accommodated in case the instrument was made or accepted for his accommodation, The payment must be made at or after the maturity to the holder of the instrument if the maker or acceptor is to be discharged. A payment by a party who is secondarily liable does not discharge the instrument.
- 2) **By party primarily liable by becoming holder (Section 90) :** If the maker of a note or the acceptor of a bill becomes its holder at or after its maturity in his own right, The Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881 4.5 instrument is discharged.
- 3) **By express waiver:** When the holder of a negotiable instrument at or after its maturity absolutely and unconditionally renounces in writing or gives up his rights against all the parties to the instrument, the instrument is discharged. The renunciation must be in writing unless the instrument is delivered up to the party primarily liable.
- 4) **By Cancellation:** Where an instrument is intentionally cancelled by the holder or his agent and the cancellation is apparent thereon, the instrument is discharged. Cancellation may take place; by crossing out signatures on the instrument, or by physical destruction of the instrument with the intention of putting an end to the liability of the parties to the instrument.
- 5) **By discharge as a simple contract:** A negotiable instrument may be discharged in the same way as any other contract for the payment of money. This includes for example, discharge of an instrument by innovation or rescission or by expiry of period of limitation.

Dishonour of a negotiable instrument

An instrument is said to be dishonored when the acceptance and/or payment is refused on a duly presented instrument.



Thus, a negotiable instrument may be dishonored in two ways:



Dishonor by Non-acceptance:

Only a bill may be dishonored by non acceptance. A bill is deemed to be dishonored by non acceptance in any of the following cases:

- a. Refused to accept
- b. Not signed by all the drawees
- c. Not accepted by any partner
- d. Bill not accepted within forty eight hours.
- e. Drawee could not be found

Dishonour by Non-payment:

- a. Default in payment
- b. When excused from presentment

On the dishonour of a cheque, one can file a suit for recovery of the cheque amount along with the cost & interest under order XXXVII of Code of Civil Procedure 1908 (which is a summary procedure and) can also file a Criminal Complaint u/s 138 of Negotiable Instrument Act for punishment to the signatory of the cheque for having committed an offence. However, before filing the said complaint a statutory notice is liable to be given to the other party.

NOTICE OF DISHONOUR

When a negotiable instrument is dishonored by non acceptance (bill) or by non-payment, the holder may sue against the parties liable for the same. But he can do so only when he has served a formal notice to the effect.

The notice of dishonor is necessary for two reasons:

- a. **To warn the party about his liability.**
- b. **To secure rights of the holder**

Notice by Whom?

The notice of dishonor may be given by any of the following:



- i. By the holder.
- ii. By any party receiving the notice of dishonor. He may do so if he wants to hold any prior party liable to himself.
- iii. By an agent of the holder

Notice to Whom?

- i. To all prior parties.
- ii. To some one of the several parties.
- iii. To an agent of the person.
- iv. To the legal representative, in case the party liable is dead.
- v. To the official assignee, in case the party liable has been declared insolvent.

Time and Place of Notice:

- i. The notice must be given within a reasonable time after dishonour.
- ii. The notice must be given at the place of business. In case the party has no place of business, it must be given at the residence of the party.

Dishonour of certain cheques for insufficiency of funds

Provided that nothing contained in this section shall apply unless-

- (a) the cheque has been presented to the bank within a period of three months from the date on which it is drawn or within the period of its validity, whichever is earlier;
- (b) the payee or the holder in due course of the cheque, as the case may be, makes a demand for the payment of the said amount of money by giving a notice in writing, to the drawer of the cheque within thirty days of the receipt of information by him from the bank regarding the return of the cheque as unpaid; and
- (c) the drawer of such cheque fails to make the payment of the said amount of money to the payee or as the case may be, to the holder in due course of the cheque within 15 days of the receipt of the said notice.

Explanation - For the purposes of this section, debt or other liability means a legally enforceable debt or other liability.

Ingredients of the offence under Section 138, NIA: It is manifest that to constitute an offence under Section 138 of NIA, the following ingredients are required to be fulfilled:

1. a person must have drawn a cheque on an account maintained by him in a bank for payment of a certain amount of money to another person from out of that account for the discharge, in whole or in part, of any debt or other liability; that cheque has been presented to bank within a period of three months from the date on which it is drawn or within the period of its validity whichever is earlier;
2. that cheque is returned by the bank unpaid, either because of the amount of money standing to the credit of the account is insufficient to honour the cheque or that it exceeds the amount arranged to be paid from that account by an agreement made with the bank;
3. the payee or the holder in due course of the cheque makes a demand for the payment of the said amount of money by giving a notice in writing, to the drawer of the cheque, within 30 days of the receipt of information by him from the bank regarding the return of the cheque as unpaid;
4. The drawer of such cheque fails to make payment of the said amount of money to the payee or the holder in due course of the cheque within 15 days of the receipt of the said notice.

Section 139 - Presumption in favour of holder

It shall be presumed, unless the contrary is proved, that the holder of a cheque received the cheque of the nature referred to in section 138 for the discharge, in whole or in part, of any debt or other liability.



The effect of these presumptions is to place the evidential burden on the accused of proving that the cheque was not received by the complainant towards the discharge of any liability. Because both sections 138 and 139 require that the court shall presume the liability of the drawer of the cheques for the amounts for which the cheques are drawn...it is obligatory on the courts to raise this presumption in every case where the factual basis for the raising of this presumption had been established. It introduced an exception to the general rule as to the burden of proof in criminal cases and shifts the onus on to the accused.

NOTING

Meaning – Noting is the process of recording the fact and reasons of dishonor of negotiable instrument by the notary public upon the dishonored instrument. In other words, noting consists of recording and authenticating the fact and reasons of dishonor of a negotiable instrument by the notary public.

Need – Noting is not compulsory in the case of an inland bill or note. But noting serves as an authentic and official proof of dishonor of an instrument by non acceptance or non-payment. It serves as an evidence of dishonor of a negotiable instrument in the legal proceedings before the Court.

Procedure of Noting – When a promissory note or a bill of exchange is dishonoured, the holder may request within a reasonable time after its dishonor to a notary public for its noting. On receipt of the request, the notary public takes following steps:

The notary public makes a formal demand upon the acceptor or maker for acceptance or payment. It may be noted that such demand may be made either by the notary public personally or by his clerk. If authorized by agreement or usage, the demand may be made by a registered letter.

When it is not then accepted or paid, the notary public records the fact of dishonor upon the instrument, or upon a paper attached thereto or party upon each.

Such a note must specify the following things:

- a) The fact of dishonour.
- b) The date of dishonor of the instrument.
- c) The reasons, if any, assigned for such dishonor.
- d) If the instrument has not been expressly dishonored, the reasons why the holder treats it as dishonored.
- e) The notary's charges. [Sec. 99]

In addition, the notary public also makes a reference of his register and puts signature with seal on the instrument.

PROTEST

Protest is a certificate issued by a notary public attesting the fact of dishonor of a negotiable instrument recorded upon the dishonored instrument.

Contents of protest

1. The instrument itself or a literal transcript of it which must contain everything written or printed thereon.
2. The name of the person for whom and against whom the instrument has been protested.
3. A statement that payment or acceptance, or better security (as the case may be) has been demanded of such person by the notary public; and the terms of his answer, if any
4. If the person gave no answer, or that he could not be found a statement to that effect.
5. The date, place and time of dishonor of the instrument. If better security has been refused; the place and time of refusal.

Distinction between Noting and Protest

The notice is different from protest on the following grounds:



Nature - Noting consists of recording the fact and reasons of dishonor of a negotiable instrument upon the instrument. Protest is a certificate as to fact and reasons that an instrument has been dishonored or the acceptor has refused to give a better security for the bill.

Contents - The contents of noting are limited to the date and reasons (express or implied) of dishonor. But contents of protest are more detailed as specified under Section 101.

Scope - Noting can be done even without protest but protest is issued only after the noting has been done.

Requirement - Noting is optional in case of inland bill or note. But a foreign bill must be protested if it is required by the law of the place where they are drawn.

Conclusion

Negotiable Instruments plays a major role in the trade world. We can also see the use of negotiable instruments in the international trade. We can assume that the international trade is also developing with the negotiable instrument. The nature of negotiable instrument is an area of law which has major influence on any person in his professional field. Negotiable instrument plays a major role in different part of the world in raising the economy. The negotiable instrument is of contractual in nature and it characterizes the fact that it is negotiable.



UNIT-IV CONSUMER PROTECTION ACT 1986

Introduction

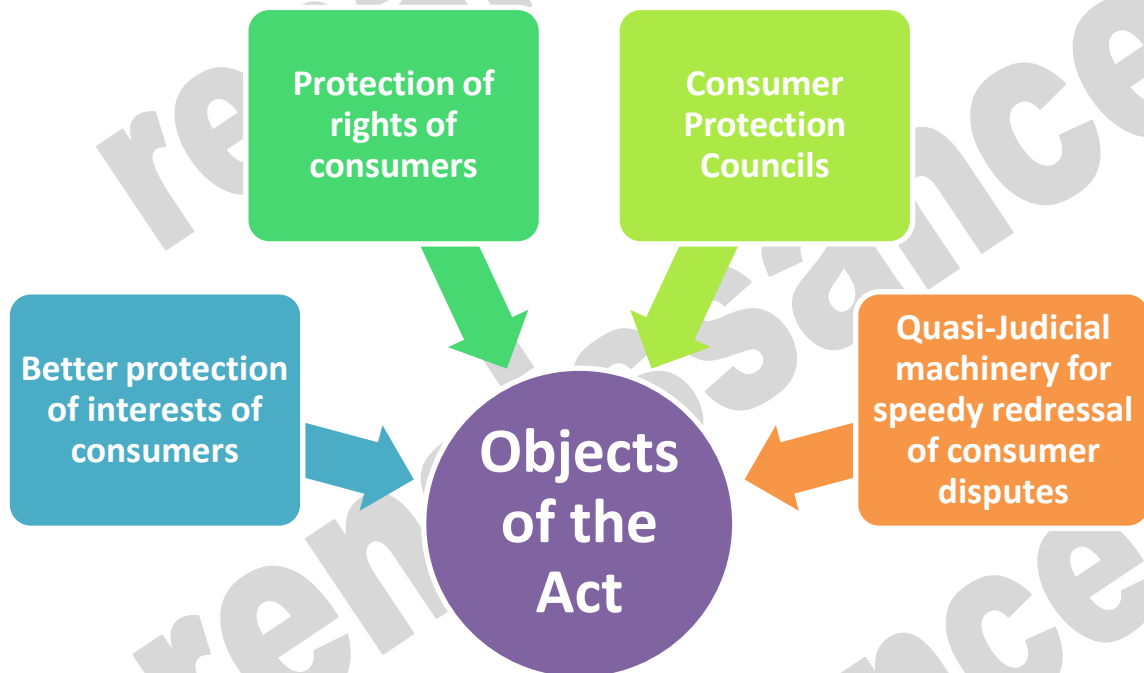
The Consumer Protection Act, 1986 has been enacted to provide for the establishment of consumer councils and other authorities for the settlement of consumers' disputes and for matters connected therewith.

In fact, the basic motive of enacting this important Act is to provide cheaper and speedy remedies to the consumers who are in disadvantageous position in comparison with the traders who are well organised and rule the market.

*The Consumer Protection Act, 1986' extends to the whole of India except the State of Jammu & Kashmir, and save as otherwise expressly provided by the Central Government, this Act shall apply to all goods and services [Section 1]. The Act has come into force on 15.4.1987**

Objects of the Act:-

The objects of the Act are as follows:



1. **Better protection of interests of consumers.** The Act seeks to provide for better protection of the interests of consumers. For that purpose, the Act makes provision for the establishment of Consumer Councils and other authorities for the settlement of consumer disputes and for matters connected therewith.
2. **Protection of rights of consumers.** The Act seeks, inter alia, to promote and protect the rights of consumers such as—
 - a) The right to be protected against marketing of goods or services which are hazardous to life and property ;
 - b) The right to be informed about the quality, quantity, potency, purity, standard and price of goods or services so as to protect the consumers against unfair trade practices ;
 - c) The right to be assured, wherever possible, access to goods and services at competitive prices ;
 - d) The right to be heard and to be assured that consumers' interest will receive due consideration at appropriate forums ;



- e) The right to seek redressal against unfair trade practices or restrictive trade practices or unscrupulous exploitation of consumers ; and
 - f) right to consumer education.
3. **Consumer Protection Councils.** The above objects are sought to be) promoted and protected by the Consumer Protection Councils established at the Central and State levels.
4. **Quasi-Judicial machinery for speedy redressal of consumer disputes.** The Act seeks to provide speedy and simple redressal to consumer disputes. For this purpose, there has been set up a quasi-judicial machinery at the district, State and Central levels.

IMPORTANT DEFINITION

COMPLAINANT Sec. 2(1) (13)

"Complainant" means-

- (i) a consumer; or
- (ii) any voluntary consumer association registered under the Companies Act, 1956 (1 of 1956). Or under any other law for the time being in force; or
- (iii) the Central Government or any State Government, who or which makes a complaint;
- (iv) one or more consumers, where there are numerous consumers having the same interest
- (v) in case of death of a consumer, his legal heir or representative*"

COMPLAINT Sec. 2(1) (C)

"Complaint" means any allegation in writing made by a complaint that-

- (i) an unfair trade practice or a restrictive trade practice has been adopted by any trader; or **service provider***
- (ii) the goods bought by him or agreed to be bought by him; suffer from one or more defect;
- (iii) the services hired or availed of or agreed to be hired or availed by him suffer from deficiency in any respect;
- (iv) a trader or the **service provider** has charged for the goods or for the service mentioned in the complaint a price in excess of the price (a) fixed by or under any law for the time being in force, (b) displayed on the goods or any package containing such goods, (c) displayed on the price list exhibited by him, (d) agreed between the parties.
- (v) Goods which will be hazardous to life and safety when used, are being offered for sale to the public in contravention of any law for the time being in force.
- (vi) service which are hazardous or likely to be hazardous to life and safety of the public when used*"

CONSUMER Sec. 2(1) (D)

'consumer' means any person who:

- (i) Consumer of goods buys any goods for a consideration which has been paid or promised or partly paid and partly promised, or under any system of deferred payment and includes any user of such goods other than the person who buys such goods for consideration paid or promised or partly paid or partly promised, or under any system of deferred payment when such use is made with the approval of such person, but does not include a person who obtains such goods for resale or for any commercial purpose; or
- (ii) Consumer of services hires or avails of any services for a consideration which has been paid or promised or partly paid and partly promised, or under any system of deferred payment and includes any beneficiary of such services other than the person who hires or avails of the services for consideration paid or promised, or partly paid and partly promised, or under any



system of deferred payment, when such services are availed of with the approval of the first mentioned person;”

CONSUMER DISPUTE

“Consumer dispute” means a dispute where the person against whom a complaint has been made, denies or disputes the allegations contained in the complaint;

DEFECT

“Defect” means any fault, imperfection or shortcoming in the quality, quantity, potency, purity, or standard which is required to be maintained by or under any law for the time being for or under any contract, express or implied or as it claimed by the trader in any manner whatsoever in relation to any goods;”

“manufacturer” means a person who-

- (i) makes or manufactures any goods or parts thereof : or
- (ii) does not make or manufacture any goods but assembles parts thereof made or manufactured by other; or
- (iii) puts or causes to be put his own mark on any goods made or manufactured by any other manufacture.

PERSON

“person” includes-

- (i) a firm whether registered or not;
- (ii) a Hindu undivided family;
- (iii) a co-operative society
- (iv) every other association of persons whether registered under the Societies Registration Act.

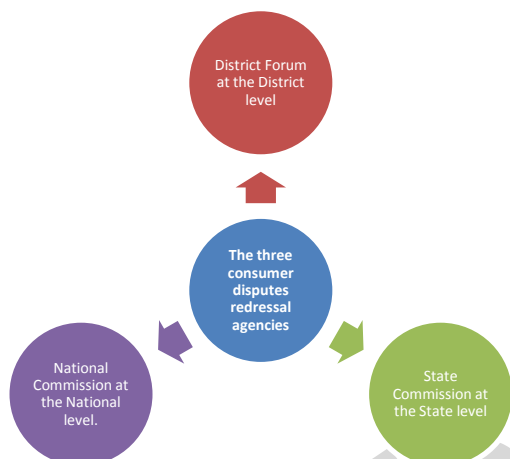
Consumer Disputes Redressal Agencies Three-Tier Redressal System

Introduction

The object of the Consumer Protection, 1986, is to provide better protection to consumers. To secure this object, the Act intends to provide simple, speedy and inexpensive redressal to the consumers’ grievances. For this purpose, the Act provides for the establishment of three-tier quasi-judicial machinery at the District, State and National levels.

The three consumer disputes redressal agencies at the different levels are as under:

1. Consumer Disputes Redressal Forum to be known as District Forum at the District level.
2. Consumer Disputes Redressal Commission to be known as State Commission at the State level.
3. National Consumer Disputes Redressal Commission to be known as National Commission at the National level.



ESTABLISHMENT OF AGENCIES

1 DISTRICT FORUM

The 'District Forum' is the short name of the Consumer Disputes Redressal Forum established in the District under Section 9(a) of the Consumer Protection Act, It is the redressal agency to deal with the complaints of the consumers at the District level.

Legal provision relating to District forum:

1. Composition of the district forum

The District Forum is a body of three persons appointed by the State Government. The qualifications of the President and other members are as follow:

(a) President: A person who is, or has been or is qualified to be, a District Judge shall be the President of the District Forum.

(b) Other Member: A part from the President, the District Forum shall consist of two other members one of whom shall be a woman. The qualification for appointment of other members are:

- (i) He/She must not be less than 36 years of age.
- (ii) He/She must possess a bachelor's degree from a recognised university.
- (iii) He/She must be a person of ability, integrity and standing and have adequate knowledge and experience of at least 10 years in dealing with problems relating to economics, law, commerce, accountancy, industry, public affairs or administrations.

2. Appointment of members of District Forum: The appointment of the President and of the members shall be made by the State Government on the recommendation of the selection committee consisting of (a) the President of the State Commission, (b) Secretary, Law Department of the State, and (c) Secretary, in charge of the Department dealing with consumer affairs in the State.

3. Disqualifications of members :

- a) If he has been convicted and sentenced to imprisonment for an offence, which, in the opinion of the State Government, involves moral turpitude, or
- b) If he is an undischarged insolvent, or
- c) If he is of unsound mind and stands so declared by a competent court, or
- d) If he has been removed or dismissed from the services of the Government or a body corporate owned or controlled by the Government,

4. Tenure of office of the members of the District Forum

A person may act as a President or a member of the District Forum for 5 years or up to the age of 65 years, whichever is earlier. Thus, in any case, a person cannot hold the office of the President or that of the member beyond the age of 65 years.

5 Vacancy in the office of the District Forum

The officer of the President or of any member of the forum may become vacation on his attaining the age of sixty-five years.



5. Jurisdiction of the District Forum

The District Forum has the jurisdiction to entertain complaints where the value of the goods or services and the compensation, if any, claimed does not exceed rupees 20 lakhs.

The limit has been enhanced from Rs. 5 lakhs by the Consumer Protection (Amendment) Act 2002

PROCEDURE ON RECEIPT OF COMPLAINT SECTION-13

The district forum has to observe the procedure mentioned in section. It may be summarised as follows-

- I. **Reference of complaint to opposite party** - Whenever the district forum receives a complaint, relating to a goods, it should refer a copy of the complaint to the opposite party. It must be given within 30 days of receiving the complaint. However, it may be extended by a further period not exceeding 15 days.
- II. **On refusal or dispute by opposite party** - When the opposite party, on receipt of a complaint, refusal/disputes the allegations contained in the complaint or fails to take any action within the time given by the district forum, the forum shall proceed to settle the consumer dispute in the following manner -
 1. Reference of sample to laboratory
 2. Deposit of fees
 3. Forwarding of report to opposite party
 4. Objection by any of the parties.
 5. Reasonable opportunity to parties of being heard and issue order.

Who can complaint in the District Forum

A complaint in relation to any goods sold or delivered or any serviced provided may be filed with a district forum by -

1. Consumer of goods/service
2. Any recognized consumer association.
3. Central or state government

For the purpose of this section "recognised consumer association" means any voluntary consumer association registered under the companies Act 1956 or any other law for the time being in force (Sec. 12)

Power of the District forum -

The district forum shall have the same power as are vested in a civil court under the code of civil procedure, 1908 while trying a suit in respect of the following matter, namely-

1. The summoning and enforcing attendance of any defendant or witness and examining the itness on oath.
2. The discovery and production of any document or other material object producible as evidence.
3. The reception of evidence on affidavits
4. The requisitioning of the report of the concerned analysis or test from the appropriate laboratory or form any other relevant source.
5. Issuing of any commission for the examination of any witness and
6. Any other matter which may be prescribed.

Every proceeding before the district forum shall be deemed to be a judicial proceeding within the meaning of Sec. 193 and 228 of the Indian Penal code; 1860 and the District forum shall be deemed to be a civil court for the purposes of Sec. 195 and chapter XXVI of the code of criminal procedure 1973.

Findings of the District forum (Sec. 14)

If the district forum is satisfied that the goods suffer from any of the defects specified in the complaint or that any of the allegations contained in the complaint about the services are proved, it shall issue an order to the opposite party directing him to take one or more of the following things namely-

- a) To remove the defect pointed out by the appropriate laboratory from the goods in question.
- b) To replace the goods with new goods of similar description which shall be free from any defect.
- c) To return to the complainant the price or as the case may be the charge paid by the complainant.



STATE COMMISSION

'State Commission' is the short name given to the Consumer Disputes Redressal Commission established in the State under Section 9(b) of the Consumer Protection Act, 1986 [Section] 2(1) (p). It is the redressal agency to deal with the complaints of the consumers at the State level.

Legal provision relating to District forum

Composition of the State Commission

Section 16(1) makes the following provisions regarding the qualifications of the President and other members:

- (a) **President:** A person who is or has been a judge of a High Court shall be the President of the State Commission.
- (b) **Other members:** Apart from the President, the State Commission shall consist of two other member one of whom shall be a woman. The qualifications for appointment of the other member are:
 - (i) He/She must not be less than 35 year of age.
 - (ii) He/She must possess a bachelor's degree from a recognised university.
 - (iii) He/She must be a person of ability, integrity and standing and have adequate knowledge or experience of at least 10 years in dealing with problems relating to economics, law, commerce, accountancy, industry, public affairs or administration.

1. Appointment of members of State Commission

The appointment of the President shall be made by the State Government after consultation with the Chief Justice of the High Court of the State. And the appointment of the other members shall be made by the State Government on the recommendation of the selection committee consisting of (a) President of the State Commission, (b) Secretary of the Law Department of the State and (c) Secretary, in charge of Department dealing with consumer affairs in the State.

2. Disqualification of members

These disqualifications are the same as already discussed the District Forum.

3. Tenure of office of the members of the State Commission

The President or the member of the State Commission shall hold office for a term of 5 years or up to the age of 67 year, whichever is earlier. Thus, in any case, a person cannot hold the office of President or that of a member beyond the age of 67 years.

4. Jurisdiction of the State Commission

- (a) **Pecuniary jurisdiction:** The State Commission has the jurisdiction to entertain complaints where the value of the goods or services and compensation, if any, claimed exceeds rupees 20 lakhs but does not exceed rupees one crore.
- (b) **Appellate jurisdiction:** Any person aggrieved by an order made by the District Forum may prefer an appeal to the State Commission with a period of 30 days from the date of the order.

NATIONAL COMMISSION

The 'National Commission' is the short name given to the National Consumer Disputes Redressal Commission established in the country under Section 9(c) of the Consumer Protection Act, 1986.

Legal provision relating to District forum

1. Composition of the National Commission

The 'National Commission' is a body of minimum five persons appointed by the Central Government. Legally, the National Commission shall consist of a President and at least four other members.

- (a) **President:** A person who is or has been a judge of the Supreme Court shall be the President of the National Commission. Thus, only the sitting or retired judges of the Supreme Court are eligible for appointment as President.



(b) Other members: A part from the President, the National Commission shall consist of at least four other members one of whom shall be a woman. The qualifications for appointment of other members are:

(i) He/She must not be less than 35 year of age.

(ii) He/She must possess a bachelor's degree from a recognised university.

He/She must be a person of ability, integrity and standing and have adequate knowledge or experience of at least 10 years in dealing with problems relating to economics, law, commerce, accountancy, industry, public affairs or administration.

2. **Appointment of the members of the National Commission [Section 20(1) (a) (b):**

The appointment of the President shall be made by the Central Government after consultation with the Chief Justice of India. The appointment of the other four members shall be made by the Central Government on the recommendation of the selection committee consisting of (a) sitting judge of the Supreme Court, (b) Secretary in the Department of Legal Affairs, Government of India, (c) Secretary of the Department dealing with consumer affairs in the Government of India

3. **Disqualification of members**

These disqualifications are the same as already discussed in case of members of District Forum and of State Commission. Any other disqualification may also be prescribed the Central Government.

4. **Tenure of office of the members of the National Commission**

The President or the members of the National Commission shall hold the office for a term of 5 year or up to the age of 70 years, whichever is earlier. Thus, in any case, a person cannot hold the office of President or that of a member beyond the age of 70 years.

5. **Jurisdiction of the National Commission**

(a) Pecuniary jurisdiction: The National Commission has the jurisdiction to entertain complaints where the value of the goods or services and compensation, if any claimed exceeds rupees 1 crore. Prior to the Consumer Protection (Amendment) Act, 2002, the National Commission had the jurisdiction where the value of this claim exceeded rupees twenty lakhs.

(b) Appellate jurisdiction: The National Commission also has the appellate jurisdiction to entertain appeals against the order of any State Commission.

CONSUMER PROTECTION COUNCILS

Consumer protection councils have been set up at national and state levels. Their object is to protect rights of consumers. Provisions with regard to consumer protection councils are contained in the consumer protection act wide section 4 to 8.

II. **Central consumer protection Council -**

1. Establishment of this council by a notification of the central government.
2. Central government nominates government and private members from different departments and sectors.
3. At present there are 150 members in the council.
4. Chairman of the council is central government food & civil supplies minister.
5. 3 years term of office of council.
6. If any post of the council falls vacant, it shall be filled up by a same cadre member.
7. 3 meetings are compulsory in a year time and place is fixed by chairman.
8. Main object of council is to expand and protect the rights of consumers.
 - Protection against fatal advertisement of goods/for human life services.
 - Protection against improper trade transaction and service.
 - As far as possible, a right of satisfaction about the various qualities.
 - A right of belief and confidence on goods & services.
 - A right of compensation against mis-behaviour in restricted trade polices.
 - A right of consumer education.

III. **State consumer protection council -**



1. Establishment of this council by notification of state government.
2. Chairman of the council is state minister of food and civil supplies.
3. State government nominated government or private member from different sectors.
4. There must be at least two meetings in a year or arrange according to convened any time.
5. Time and place of meetings shall be fixed by the chairman.
6. Object of council is to protect the interest and rights of consumer in state which is same central council.

APPROPRIATE LABORATORY [Sec. 2(1) (a)]

If means a laboratory or organization –

1. Recognised by central government
2. Recognised by state government, subject to guidelines as may be prescribed by central government.
3. Any laboratory or organization established by or under any law for the time being in force, which is maintained, financed or aided by the central government or state government.

Monopolistic & Restrictive Trade Practice Act

MRTP Act

India has adopted the socialistic pattern of the society as its goal, so with view to restrict the monopolistic & obstructive trading operations of the vast expanding industrial units of managerial houses and to control economic concentration into few hands an act called MRTP Act was promulgated in 1969 except J & K. This act came into force from 1st June 1970 in India. The aim was to control natural resources at equal level and to restrict concentration of economic power.

Objectives of the MRTP Act-

1. Restriction on concentration of Economic power & to control monopolies.
2. To prohibit monopolistic trade practice
3. To promote healthy competition in the Economy
4. To check on unfair trade practices
5. To check on restrictive trade practices

Implementation of the Act: The scheme of MRTP Act provides for a dual machinery for Implementation of its provisions. There two organs are : (i) the Central Government, and (ii) the MRTP commission. This Commission is to be assisted in its work of the Director General of Investigation and Registration including any Additional, Joint, Deputy or Assistant director General.

Monopolistic Practices:- defines dominant undertakings on the basis of market share. In the criteria of market share those undertakings is considered as dominant which by itself or along with inter connected undertakings controls not less than 1/4th of total goods / services that are produced / supplied in India.

Unfair Trade Practices:- Provisions of UTP were incorporated in MRTP Act on 1st Aug. 1984. It is concerned with protection of customer interest. Unfair practices means deceptive Trade Practices and it mainly includes falsely representing Trade Practices.

Restrictive Trade Practices : Here give the definition under Section 2(o).

Under Section 33 : (a) Refusal to deal with particular persons and the right to select customers; (b) Tying arrangements; (c) Exclusive dealing; (d) Price fixing in a concerted manner (or collective agreement); (e) Discrimination in dealings; (f) Re-sale price maintenance; (g) Collaborative agreement; (h) Restriction on competitive products; (i) Exclusion from trade association; (j) Price control



agreement; (k) Purchase inlet control agreement; (l) Knock-out agreements; (m) Any agreement which the Central Government may specify; and (n) Any enforcing agreement.

MRTP Commission

The MRTP Act has set up a permanent statutory body named as MRTPs. It is inasi-judicial body. This commission has judiciary powers in controlling restrictive Trade Practices and Unfair Trade Practices but in case of monopolistic trade practices it only recommendatory powers. In other words MRPs are not decided by MRTPc but we decided by central Government. Appeal against orders issued by MRTPc can be made only in Supreme Court. This commission is headed by a chairman and has two eight members all are appointed by Central Govt. for five years but also eligible for re-appointment. No member can hold this office for a period exceeding 1 year or on attaining the age of 65 years whichever is earlier. Chairmen will e a person who is qualified to e judge of Supreme Court or High Court. The embers should be well acquainted with Economics, laws, Commerce, Accountancy, Industry, Public Administration. The commission can issue cease and desist – order .e. to stop such Trade Practice and not to repeat such practice in future.

The Commission has been empowered to take the following actions:

- (i) To exercise same powers as are vested in a Civil Court;
- (ii) To grant temporary injunction;
- (iii) To award compensation;
- (iv) To enforce the orders of temporary injunction and compensation;
- (v) To make conditional order and to amend or revoke order;
- (vi) To cause investigation to find out whether or not the orders have been complied with;
- (vii) To punish for eontempt;
- (viii) To exempt particular classes of goods form the operation of provisions with regard to resale price maintenance;
- (ix) To enquire into unfair trade practice, and
- (x) To make regulations.

Director General of investigation and Registration : The Director General has two important functions :

- (i) to make investigation for the purposes of the Act. And
- (ii) to maintain a Register of Agreement which have to be registered under the Act.

Powers of The Central Government : The Central Government has the following powers : (i) To direct division of undertaking; (ii) To order for the separation of interconnection between undertaking; (iii) To decide the matters relating to the question of 'group' or the question of 'interconnected



undertaking'; (iv) To decide the application of the Act; (v) To call for information; (vi) To appoint Inspectors; (vii) To regulate approvals' etc; (viii) To require the Commission to submit a report with regard to referred monopolistic or restrictive or unfair trade practices; (x) To make rules to carry out the provisions of the Act.

DEFINITIONS

Dominant Undertaking : [Section 2(d)] *'Dominant undertaking means.*

- (a) *An undertaking which, by itself or alongwith interconnected undertaking, produces, supplies, distributes or otherwise controls not less than 25%, i.e., one-fourth (1/4) of the total goods that are produced, supplied or distributed in India or any substantial part thereof; or*
- (b) *An undertaking which provides or otherwise controls not less than 25%, i.e., one-fourth (1/4) of any services that are rendered in India or any substantial part thereof.*

In a nutshell, dominant undertaking is one which has not less than 25%, i.e. one-fourth (1/4) market share in specified product or service, in the country, (In other words, it has 25% or more share)

Financial Institution [Section 2 (da)] : *Financial Institution means :*

- (i) *A public financial institution specified in Section 4(A) of the companies Act, 1956;*
- (ii) *A State Financial, Industrial or Investment Corporation;*
- (iii) *The State Bank of India and its subsidiary banks;*
- (iv) *A nationalized bank;*
- (v) *The General Insurance Corporation of India;*
- (vi) *The Industrial Reconstruction Corporation of India; or*
- (vii) *Any other institution which the Central Government may, by specify in this behalf*

Goods [Section 2(c)] : *Goods' means goods as defined in the Sale of Goods Act,1930, and includes : (i) products manufactured, processed or mixed in India; (ii) Shares and stocks including issue of shares before allotment; (iii) in relation to goods supplied, distributed or controlled in India, goods imported into India.*

Service [Section2(r)] : *'Service' means service which is made available to potential user and includes the provision of facilities in connection with banking, financing , chit fund, real estate, transport, processing, supply of electrical or other energy, board or lodging or both, entertainment, amusement or the purveying of news or other information; but does not include the rendering of any service free of charge or under a contract of personal service.*

Trade [Section2 (s)] : *'Trade' means any trade, business, industry, profession or occupation relating to the production, supply, distribution or control of goods and includes the provision of any services.*

Non-Applicability of the Act

Section 3 lays down that unless the Central Government otherwise directs by notification, this Act shall not apply to the following :

- (a) Any undertaking owned or controlled by a Government company;
- (b) Any undertaking owned or controlled by the Government;
- (c) Any undertaking owned or controlled by a corporation established by or under any Central, Provincial or State Act;



- (d) Any trade union or other association of workmen or employees formed for their own reasonable protection as such workmen or employees;
- (e) Any undertaking engaged in an industry, the management of which has been taken over by any person or body of persons in pursuance of any authorization made by the Central Government under any law for the time being in force;
- (f) Any undertaking owned by cooperative society formed and registered under any Central, Provincial or State Act relating to cooperative societies;
- (g) Any financial institution.

It should be noted that the Government has withdrawn the exemption to certain public undertakings wide its Notification No. GSR 605 (E) dated 27th September 1991, issued in exercise of the powers conferred by section 3, whereby the Government has brought all the undertakings specified in above mentioned clauses, except trade unions and associations of workmen or employees as given under clause (d) above, within the purview of the MRTP Act.

THE MONOPOLIES AND RESTRICTIVE TRADE PRACTICES ACT, 1969 POLICY, PROVISIONS AND PERFORMANCE

1) The MRTP Act, 1969 has its genesis in the Directive Principles of State Policy embodied in the Constitution of India. Clauses (b) and (c) of Article 39 of the Constitution lay down that the State shall direct its policy towards ensuring:

- (i) that the ownership and control of material resources of the community are so distributed as to best serve the common good; and
- (ii) that the operation of the economic system does not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment.

Provisions Relating to Monopolistic, Restrictive and Unfair Trade Practices

2) Section 10 of the MRTP Act, 1969 empowers the MRTP Commission to enquire into monopolistic or restrictive trade practices upon a reference from the Central Government or upon its own knowledge or on information. The MRTP Act, 1969 also provides for appointment of a Director General of Investigation and Registration for making investigations for the purpose of enquiries by the MRTP Commission and for maintenance of register of agreements relating to restrictive trade practices.

3) The MRTP Commission receives complaints both from registered consumer and trade associations and also from individuals either directly or through various Government Departments. Complaints regarding Restrictive Trade Practices or Unfair Trade Practices from an association are required to be referred to the Director General of Investigation and Registration for conducting preliminary investigation in terms of Sections 11 and 36C of the MRTP Act, 1969 and Regulation 119 of the MRTP Commission Regulations, 1974. The Commission can also order a preliminary investigation by the Director General of Investigation and Registration when a reference on a restrictive trade practice is received from the Central/ State Government, or when Commission's own knowledge warrants a preliminary investigation. Enquiries are instituted by the Commission under relevant Sections of the MRTP Act, 1969 after the Director General of Investigation and Registration has completed the preliminary investigation and as a result of the findings, submits an application to the Commission for an enquiry.

Monopolistic Trade Practices

4) Five enquiries under Section 10(b) were pending with the MRTP Commission at the beginning of the year 2005, while no fresh inquiry was instituted during the period April, 2005-December, 2005. All the 5 enquiries were pending as on 31.12.2005.

Restrictive Trade Practices

Under Section 10(a)(i)



5) 293 enquiries, including 267 brought forward from the previous year, were considered during April 2005-December 2005 of which 48 enquiries were disposed of during the said period and the remaining 245 enquiries were pending with the Commission as on 31st December 2005.

Under Section 10(a)(ii)

6) Neither any enquiry was brought forward from the previous year nor any enquiry was instituted under this Section during the year.

Under Section 10(a)(iii)

7) 39 enquiries including 37 brought forward from the previous year were taken up by the Commission during April 2005 to December 2005. One enquiry was disposed of during the period and the remaining 38 were pending with the Commission as on 31st December 2005.

Under Section 10(a)(iv)

8) 58 enquiries were brought forward from the previous year and 3 fresh enquiries were instituted by the Commission during the year from April 2005 to December 2005. 6 enquiries were disposed of during the said period and 55 enquiries were pending with the Commission as on 31st December 2005.

Unfair Trade Practices

9) Provisions relating to Unfair Trade Practices were incorporated in the MRTP Act, 1969 in 1984. Unfair Trade Practices have been defined in Section 36A as trade practices which for the purpose of promoting the sale, use or supply of any goods or for provision of any services, adopt one or more of the practices mentioned therein and thereby cause loss or injury to the consumers of such goods or services, whether by eliminating or restricting competition or otherwise.

Under Section 36B(a)

10) 491 enquiries including 410 enquiries brought forward from the previous year were considered by the Commission during April, 2005 - December 2005. Of these, 54 enquiries were disposed of and the remaining 437 enquiries were pending as on 31st December 2005.

Under Section 36B(b)

11) Neither any enquiry under Section 36B (b) of the MRTP Act, 1984 was initiated nor any enquiry was brought forward during April, 2005- December, 2005.

Under Section 36B(c)

12) 1 enquiry brought forward from the previous year before the Commission is still pending as on 31.12.2005.

Under Section 36B(d)

13) 176 enquiries, including 169 brought forward from the previous year, were taken up by the Commission during April, 2005 - December 2005. Eight enquiries were disposed of and 168 enquiries were pending with the Commission as on 31st December 2005.

Temporary Injunctions

14) Besides 143 applications pending under Section 12A with the MRTP Commission as on 1st April, 2005, 43 applications were received by the Commission during the period April, 2005 - December 2005. Out of 186 applications, 55 were disposed of and the remaining 131 applications were pending under Section 12A with the Commission as on 31st December, 2005.

Award of Compensation

15) During the period April, 2005 - December 2005, 1341 applications under Section 12B including 1264 applications brought forward from the previous year were considered by the Commission. Of



these, 126 applications were disposed of by the Commission during the period and the remaining 1215 applications were pending as on 31st December, 2005

Registration of Agreements

16) Section 35 of the MRTP Act, 1969 requires every agreement relating to Restrictive Trade Practices falling within one or more of the categories enumerated in Section 33(1) of the Act to be furnished for registration within 60 days of the making of such agreement.

17) In pursuance of this provision, during the period April, 2005 to December 2005, 7 agreements were received for registration. The same were registered and entered in the Register of Agreements.

18) A total number of 39,993 agreements were filed up to the end of 31st December, 2005, by various undertakings. Out of these, particulars of 39,116 agreements were entered in the Register of Agreements.

Investigation by Director General (Investigation & Registration)

Investigation

19) The Director General is required to conduct preliminary investigation in respect of restrictive, monopolistic and unfair trade practices as and when an order of preliminary investigation is received from the MRTP Commission. As on 1.4.2005, one investigation was in progress. During the period from 1.4.2005 to 31.12.2005, 49 fresh orders of preliminary investigations were received. Out of 50 investigations, Preliminary Investigation Report was submitted in 11 cases and 39 investigations were pending at the end of the year. Besides, the Director General has suo motto powers to initiate preliminary investigations into monopolistic, restrictive and unfair trade practices, and in case any of these trade practices are detected during such investigation, the Director General is empowered to file applications under Sections 10(a)(iii)/ 10(b)/36B(c) of the Act for initiation of enquiry proceedings by the MRTP Commission. As a result of such suo moto investigations, 5 applications were filed under Section 36B(c) alongwith 4 applications under Section 12A of the Act for interim injunction during the period 1.4.2005 to 31.12.2005. In addition, 3 applications were filed under Section 10(a)(iii) of the Act for enquiry into restrictive trade practices during the said period. Thus, a total of 12 applications have been filed during the period 1.4.2005 to 31.12.2005.

Consumer Protection

20) Of late, consumer protection movement has been sweeping across the whole country. The consumers have been organising themselves into consumer bodies all over the country to safeguard the public and consumers' interest against unfair trade practices being indulged in by parties through misleading advertisements, bargain-sales, organisation of sale promotion contests, marketing goods which do not conform to standards of safety etc. An independent Chapter regarding unfair trade practices was inserted in the MRTP Act in 1984 and the consumers are taking full benefit of the provisions contained in this Chapter by filing complaints in this office. Facility of speedy redressal of their grievances is provided by this office. During the period April, 2005 to December, 2005, this office has handled as many as 123 complaints received from consumers and other parties including 22 brought forward from the previous year. Of these, 64 complaints were disposed of during the period and 59 complaints were pending as on 31.12.05.

Carriage of proceedings Before the Commission

21) The Director General is the custodian of public interest in the enquiry proceedings before the Commission and he has to appear in person or through his counsel to safeguard the public interest before the Commission. As on 31.12.05, 144 enquiries were being prosecuted before the MRTP Commission.



Before the Supreme Court/ High Courts

22) The position of appeals filed and pending before the Supreme Court/ High Courts is given in table:-

renaissance
renaissance
renaissance



Table

Appeals filed and pending before the Supreme Court/High Courts

	Pending as on 1.4.2005	Filed during 1.4.2005 to 31.12.2005	Disposed of during 1.4.2005 to 31.12.2005	Pending as on 31.12.2005
Appeals before the Supreme Court	69	0	32	37
Writs in different High Courts	70	10	0	80

23) The Director General has been appearing in all the required Appeals/ Writ Petitions before the Supreme Court and High Courts through the counsels appointed by the Central Agency Section Litigation Branches of the Department of Legal Affairs, Ministry of Law & Justice.

COMPETITION ACT 2002

[As amended by the Competition (Amendment) Act.2009]

(The Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Act, 1969 has been repealed by Competition Act.2002)

In 2002, the Government of India enacted the Competition Act in view of the economic development of the country. Section 66 of the Competition Act, 2002 lays down as follows : "The Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Act, 1969 is hereby repealed and the Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Commission shall stand dissolved."

Hence, the dissolution of the MRTP Commission is under process. As such, the MRTP Act, 1969 has lost its importance and relevance. Instead, the Competition Act has come into its place Therefore, we are giving hereinafter the salient features of the Competition Act, 2002.

Salient features of the Competition Act, 2002 -

1. The Background

- The World economics are commonly pursuing globalization as their significant goal.
- India, too, has responded well in this regard by opening up its economy removing controls and resorting to liberalization.
- As a result, the changed environment will be more competitive.
- Hence, the Indian Market has to be geared to face competition from within the country as well as outside it.
- It is in this context that the Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practice Act, 1969 has become obsolete in certain respects in the light of international economics developments especially relating to competition law; and there is a need to shift the focus from curing monopolies to promoting competition.
- A High Level Committee on Competition Policy and Law was constituted by the Central Government which submitted its report on 22nd May,2002.
- The Central Government consulted all the concerned parties including the trade and industry associated and the general public.



- Having considered the suggestion of the trade and industry and the general public, the Central Government decided to enact a law on competition. Accordingly, the Competition Bill was introduced in the Parliament.

2. Extent and Commencement

The Competition Act, 2002 extends to the whole of India except the State of Jammu and Kashmir. It has come into force with effect from 31st March 2003.

3. Objects and Reasons

The Competition Bill seeks to achieve the following objectives :

- A. Need to shift the focus*
- B. Report of the High Level Committee*
- C. Curbing negative aspects of competition*
- D. Curbing negative aspects of competition*
- E. Investigation by the Director-General*
- F. Levying of penalty*
- G. Competition Fund*
- H. Repealing the MRTP Act, 1969*
- I. The specific objectives of the Competition Act, 2002*

4. Competition Appellate Tribunal

This Chapter VIIIA (containing Section 53A to 53U) has been inserted by the Competition (Amendment) Acts., 2007. Under Section 53A, Central Government has established on 12th October, 2007, an Appellate Tribunal to be known as competition Appellate Tribunal for the following two purposes :

1. To hear and dispose of appeals against any direction issued or decision made or order passed by the Commission
2. To adjudicate on claim for compensation that may arise from the finding of the commission or the orders of the Appellate Tribunal.

5. Powers of the Appellate Tribunal

Section 53-O provides that for the purpose of discharging its functions under this Act, the Appellate Tribunal shall have the same powers as vested in a Civil Court under the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908 while trying a suit in respect of the following matters:

- a. Summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person and examining him on oath;*
- b. Requiring the discovery and production of documents;*
- c. Receiving evidence on affidavits;*
- d. Requisitioning any public record or document or copy of such record or document from any office;*
- e. Issuing commissions for the examination of witnesses or documents;*
- f. Reviewing its decisions;*
- g. Dismissing a representation for default or deciding it ex parte;*
- h. Setting aside any order of dismissal of any representation for default or any order passed by it ex parte;*
- i. Any other matter which may be prescribed.*

6. Power to punish for Contempt



Section 53U lays down that the Appellate Tribunal shall have and exercise the same jurisdiction, powers and authority in respect of itself as a High Court has.

7. Appeal to Supreme Court

Section 53T provides that the Central Government or any State Government or Commission or any statutory authority or any enterprise or any person aggrieved by any decision or order of the Appellate Tribunal may file an appeal to the Supreme Court within 60 days from the date of communication of the decision or order of the Appellate Tribunal to them.

8. Repeal of MRTP Act

Section 66 lays down that the Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Act, 1969 is hereby repealed and the Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices Commission shall stand dissolved.



UNIT-V

FEMA 1999 (FOREIGN EXCHANGE MANAGEMENT ACT)

In the context of the ongoing process of economic liberalization, need for better foreign exchange management was felt. Therefore, the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act (FERA) 1973 was reviewed in 1993 in the light of the developments. Experience in relation to foreign trade & investment. The Government came to the conclusion that a better course would be to repeal the existing FERA & enact a new legislation. Therefore, this new Act i.e. Foreign Exchange Management Act (FEMA), 1999 was enacted to replace & repeat the FERA, 1973. The FEMA, 1999 was passed by Lok Sabha on 2 Dec. 1999 & received the assent of the President of India on 9 Dec. 1999.

Extent, Application and Commencement:

1. *The Foreign Exchange Management Act extends to the Whole of India.*
2. *It shall also apply to all Branches, offices and agencies outside India owned or controlled by a person resident in India and also to any contravention there under committed outside India by any person to whom this Act applies. Thus, the Act has extra territorial jurisdiction.*
3. *It shall come into force on such date as the Central government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, appoint.*

It may be noted that this Act came into effect from 1st June, 2000 Objectives of FEMA the main objectives of this Act are as follows —

1. To consolidate & amend the law relating to foreign exchange.
2. To facilitate external trade & payments.
3. To promote the orderly development & maintenance of foreign exchange markets in India.

Terminology

1. **Capital Account Transaction** — CAT means a transaction which alters the assets or liabilities outside India of persons resident in India or assets or liabilities in India of person's resident outside India, & includes transaction referred in Section 6 (3). [Sec 2(e)].
2. **Currency** — Currency includes all currency notes, postal notes, postal orders, money orders, cheques, drafts, traveler's cheques, letters of credit, bills of exchange & promissory notes, credit cards or such other similar instruments as may be notified by the Reserve Bank of India (RBI). [Sec. 2(h)]
3. **Currency Notes** — It means & includes cash in the form of coins & bank notes [Sec. 20]1
4. **Current Account Transaction** — CAT means a transaction other than a capital account transaction & includes the following transactions.
 - a. Payments due in 'connection with foreign trade, other current business, services & short-term banking & credit facilities in the ordinary course of business.
 - b. Payments due as interest on loans & as net income from investments.
 - c. Remittances for living expenses of parents, spouse & children residing abroad.
 - d. Expenses in connection with foreign travel, education & medical care of parents, spouse & children [Sec. 2(f)]
5. **Export** — Export means:
 - a. The taking out of India to a place outside any goods, &
 - b. Providing services from India to any person outside India. [Sec. 2(I)]
6. **Import** — It means bringing into India any goods or services. [Sec. 2(p)].
7. **Foreign Currency** — It means any currency other than Indian currency. (Sec. 2(m))



8. **Foreign Exchange** — it means foreign currency & includes the following:
- Deposits credit and balances payable in any foreign currency.
 - Drafts traveler's cheques, letters of credit or bills of exchange, expressed or drawn in Indian currency but payable in any foreign currency.
 - Drafts, traveler's cheques, letters of credit or bills of exchange drawn by banks; institutions or persons outside India, but payable in Indian Currency. (Sec. 2(n))
- 9 **Security** — Security means shares, stocks, bonds and debentures, Government securities, savings certificates, deposit receipts in respect of deposits of securities and units of the Unit Trust of India or of any mutual fund. The term also includes certificates to title to securities and government promissory notes. But it does not include bill of exchange or promissory notes other than Government promissory notes or any instruments which may be notified by the RBI as security for the purposes of this Act. [Sec. 2(za)]
- Foreign Security** — Foreign security means any security, in the form of shares, stocks, bonds, debentures or any other instrument denominated or expressed in foreign currency. The term security also includes securities expressed in foreign currency, but where redemption or any form of return such as interest or dividends is payable in Indian currency. [Sec.2 (o)].
 - Indian Currency** — Indian currency means which is expressed or drawn in Indian rupees but does not include special bank notes and special One rupee notes issued under Section 28A of the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934. [Sec. 2 (q)]
13. **Persons — Person includes the following:**
- An individual
 - A Hindu Undivided Family (HUF).
 - A company
 - A firm
 - An association of persons or a body of individuals, whether incorporated or not.
 - Every artificial juridical person, not failing within any of the [receding sub-clauses.
 - Any agency, office or branch owned or controlled by such person. (Sec. 2(u)).
13. **Person resident in India** — Persons resident in India includes the following:
- A person who is residing in India for more than 182 days except (a) a person who stays outside India for any purpose (e.g. employment or business) and (b) a person who stays in India for any purpose for an uncertain period.
 - A body corporate registered in India.
 - An office or branch or agency outside India owned or controlled by a person resident in India. [Sec. 2 (w)].
14. **Person resident outside India** - Person resident outside India means a person who is not resident in India. (Sec. 2(w))
15. **Repatriate to India** - Repatriate to India means bringing into India the realized foreign exchange, and:
- The selling of such foreign exchange to an authorized person in India in exchange for rupees, or
 - The holding of realized amount in an account with an authorized person in India to the extent notified by the RBI.



The term also includes use of the realized amount for discharge of a debt on liability denominated in foreign exchange. [Sec. 2 (y)]

16. **Service** - Service means, service of any description which is made available to potential users. Service also includes the provision of facilities in connection with banking, financing, insurance, Medical assistance, legal assistance, chit fund, real estate, transport, processing, supply of electrical or other energy, boarding or lodging or both, entertainment, amusement or the purveying of news or other information. But it does not include the rendering of any service free of charge or under a contract of personal service. [Sec. 2 (zb)].
17. **Transfer** - "Transfer" includes sale, purchase, exchange, mortgage, pledge, gift, loan or any other form of transfer of light, title, possession or lien. (Sec. 2 (ze))
Regulation and Management of Foreign Exchange

The provisions with regard to the following aspects of regulation and management of foreign exchange are as follows -

- I. Provisions as to transactions in foreign exchange, security etc - According to these provisions [Sec. 3], no person shall do the following except as per the provisions of FEMA rules and regulations made under it or with the general or special permission of the RBI:
 1. No person shall deal in or transfer any foreign exchange or foreign security to any person other than an authorized person.
 2. No person shall make any 'payment to-or for the credit of any person resident outside India in any manner.
 3. No person shall receive (otherwise through an authorized person) any payment by order or on behalf of any person resident outside India.
 4. No person shall enter into any financial transaction in India as consideration for or in association with acquisition or creation or transfer of a right to acquire any asset outside India by any person.
- II. Provisions as to holding in foreign exchange, security etc. by residents - No person, resident in India, shall acquire, hold, own, possess or transfer any (i) foreign exchange, (ii) foreign security, or (iii) any immovable property situated outside India except as provided in this Act. [Sec.4]
- III. Provisions as to current account transactions-Any person may sell or draw foreign exchange to or from an authorized person if such sale or drawl is a current account transaction. But the Central Government may, in public interest and in consultation with the RBI, impose such reasonable restrictions for current transactions as may be prescribed. [Sec. 5]
- IV. Provisions as to capital account transactions-Any person may sell or draw foreign exchange to or from an authorized person for a capital account transaction subject to the rules specified by the RBI. [Sec 6(1)]. However, the RBI may, in consultation with the Central Government specify the following —
 1. Any class or classes of capital account transactions which are permissible.
 2. The limit up to which foreign exchange shall be admissible for such transactions. But the RBI shall not impose any restriction on the drawal of foreign exchange for payments due on account of amortization of loans or for depreciation of direct investments in the ordinary course of business. [Sec. 6 (2)]
- V. Provisions as to export of goods and services — Certain provisions have been incorporated in

FEMA

With a view to ensure repatriation of the foreign exchange earned by export of goods and services.

These provisions are as follows in the form of duties of exporters —



1. Furnishing declaration as to the facts relating to export — Every exporter of goods shall furnish to the PSI or to such other authority a declaration in such form and in manner as may be specified. The declaration shall contain true and correct mail-jai particulars, including the amount representing the full export value. [Sec. 7 (1) (a)].
 2. Furnishing information to RBI — Every exporter of goods shall furnish to the RBI or to such other information as may be required by the RBI for the purpose of ensuring the realization of the export proceeds by such exporter. [Sec. 7 (1) (b)].
 3. Duty of exporter of services — Every exporter of services shall furnish to the 1161 or to such other authorities a declaration in such form and in such manner as may be specified. The declaration shall contain the true and correct material particulars in relation; to payment for such services. [Sec. 7 (3)]
- VI. Provisions as to realization and repatriation of foreign exchange — Where any amount of foreign exchange is due or has accrued to any person resident in India, such person shall take all reasonable steps to realize and repatriate to India such foreign exchange within such period and in such manner as may be specified by the RBI. [Sec. 8]

Exemption from Holding and Repatriation —

In the following cases, foreign exchange earned can be held or invested outside India (i.e. against Section 4) or need not be repatriated (i.e. against Section 8) to India [Sec.9):

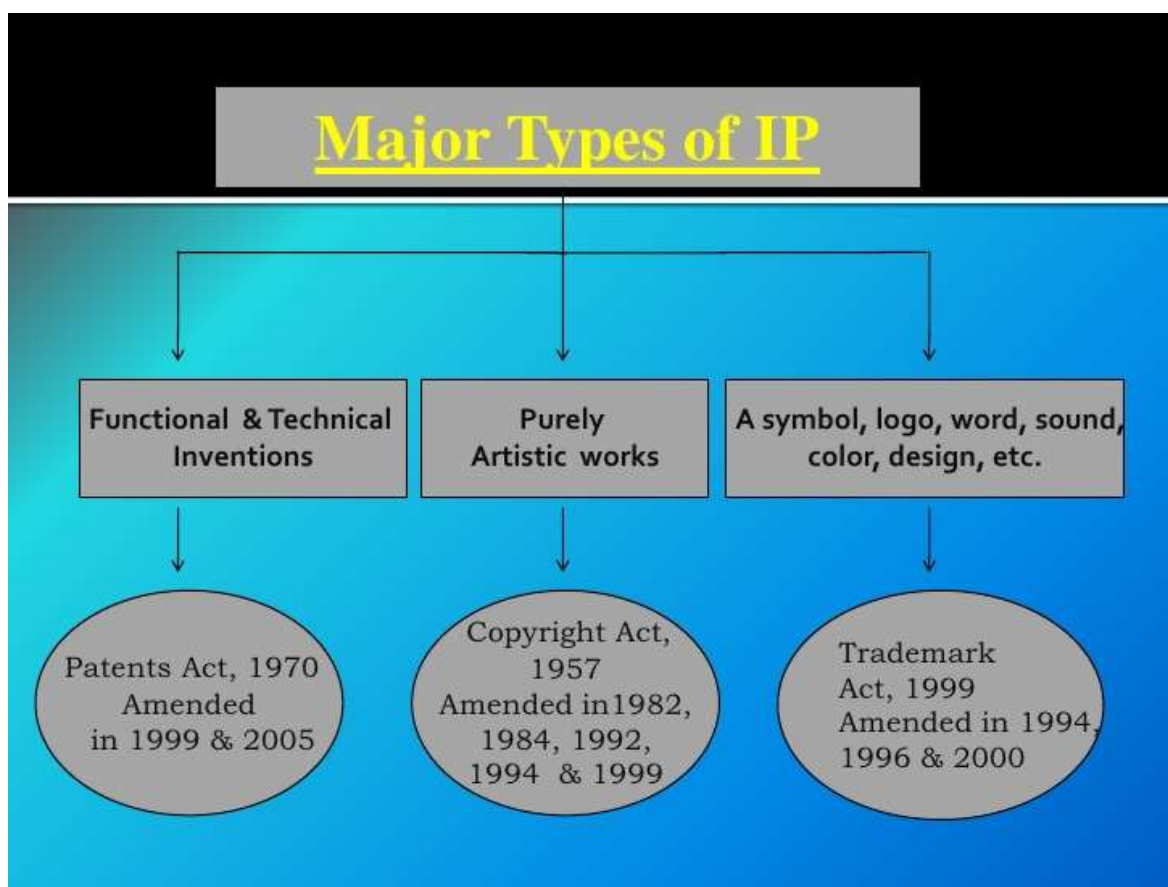
1. Possession of foreign currency up to specified limit
2. Holding foreign currency account
3. Foreign exchange received before July, 1947
4. Foreign exchange acquired by way of gift or inheritance
5. Foreign exchange acquired abroad
6. Any other receipt specified by RBI

Authorized Person

Authorized person means an authorized dealer, money changer, off-shore banking unit or any other person authorized to deal in foreign exchange or foreign securities. [Sec. 2 (c)].

INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY ACT

Intellectual property (IP) is the creation of human intellect. It refers to the ideas, knowledge, invention, innovation, creativity, and research etc, all being the product of human mind and is similar to any property, whether movable or immovable, wherein the proprietor or the owner may exclusively use his property at will and has the right to prevent others from using it, without his permission. The rights relating to intellectual property are known as 'Intellectual Property Rights'



Copyrights

In India the first Copyright Act was passed in the year 1914. At present, the Copyright Act, 1957 (hereinafter referred to as the Act) governs copyright law in India. The original Act of 1957 has been amended in the year 1983, 1984, 1992, 1994, and recently in 1999.

What is copyright?

Like trademarks, a copyright is an intangible property. The subject matter of copyright, the thing protected is called a "work". Copyright subsists throughout India in

(a) original literary, dramatic, musical and artistic works

(b) cinematograph film and

(c) sound recording (Section 13).

These terms are defined in the Act. Apart from these works, no other work is entitled to copyright under the Act.

Section 14 of the Act defines a Copyright for the purposes of the Act. "A Copyright means the exclusive right to do or authorise the doing of acts in respect of a work or any substantial part thereof."

Which are these acts?

1. **Literary, dramatic or musical work:** The owner has exclusive right to reproduce work in any material form including the storing of it in any medium by electronic means, to issue copies to the public, to perform or communicate the work to the public, to make cinematograph or sound recording in respect of the work, to translate or make any adaptation of the work. [14(a)].



2. **Computer programmes:** In addition to the above rights, the owner has exclusive right to sell or give on hire, or offer for sale or hire any copy of the programme. The Copyright (Amendment) Act, 1999 has added one more right; i.e., to sell or give on commercial rental or offer for sale or for commercial rental any copy of the programme. [14(b)].

3. **Cinematograph film:** A producer has exclusive right to make copy of the film including photograph of any image forming part thereof, to sell or give on hire, or offer for sale or hire any copy of the film, to communicate the film to the public.

4. **Sound recording:** A composer has exclusive right to make any other sound recording embodying it, or offer for sale or hire any copy of the film, to communicate the film to the public. [14(e)]. Rights conferred by section 14 upon the author are the economic rights, because exploitation of the work by himself or by licensing it for royalty may bring economic benefit to the author.

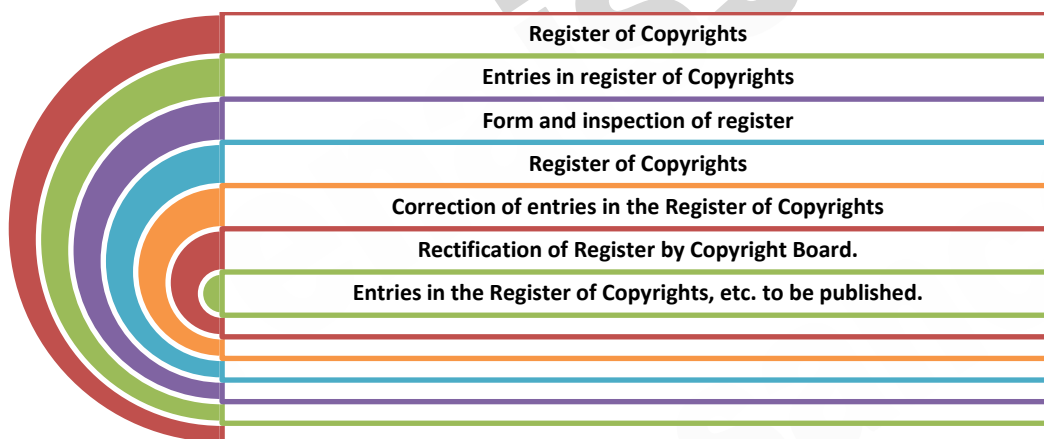
Object of copyright law is to encourage authors, composers and artists to create original works by giving them exclusive right for limited period to reproduce the work for the benefit of the public. It is a negative right to prevent others from copying their work

Term of copyright

Copyright is not a perpetual right. It exists for a specific term. After the expiry of the term, the work falls in the public domain and open to public to use without permission of the owner. **For literary, dramatic, musical and artistic works the term is 60 years from the death of the author; for photograph, cinematograph film, sound recording 60 years from the beginning of the calendar year next following the year in which it is published/ released.**

REGISTRATION OF COPYRIGHT (Section 44-58)

The provisions relating to copyright registration are as follows:



1. Register of Copyrights

There shall be kept at the Copyright Office a register in the prescribed form to be called the Register of Copyright in which may be entered the names or titles or works and the names and addresses of authors, publishers and owners of copyright and such other particulars as may be prescribed. [Section 44]

Registration of Copyright [Sec. 44]

Registration of Copyright is optional. The Act does not deprive an author of the right conferred by this Act on account of the non-registration. The main benefit of the registration is that it is a



prima facie evidence in the favour of person claiming the copyright. Copyright may be registered with Registrar of Copyright by filling Form No. 4 prescribed for this purpose.

2. Entries in register of Copyrights

1. The author or publisher of, or the owner of or other person interested in the copyright, in, any work may make an application in the prescribed form accompanied by the prescribed fee to the Registrar of Copyrights for entering particulars of the work in the Register of Copyrights.
2. On receipt of an application in respect of any work under sub-section (1), the Registrar of Copyrights may, after holding such inquiry as he may deem fit, enter the particulars of the work in the Register of Copyrights. [Section 45]

3. Form and inspection of register

The Register of Copyrights and indexes thereof kept under this Act shall at all reasonable times be open to inspection, and any person shall be entitled to take copies of, or make extracts from; such register or indexes on payment of such fee and subject to such conditions as may be prescribed. [Section 47]

4. Register of Copyrights

Register of Copyrights to be prima facie evidence of particulars entered therein. The Register of Copyrights shall be prima facie evidence of the particulars entered therein and documents purporting to be copies of any entries therein. [Section 48]

5. Correction of entries in the Register of Copyrights

The Registrar of Copyrights may, in the prescribed cases and subject to the prescribed conditions, amend or alter the Register of Copyrights by—

- (a) Correcting any error in any name, address or particulars ; or
- (b) Correcting any other error which may have arisen therein by accidental slip or omission. [Section 49]

6. Rectification of Register by Copyright Board.

The Copyright Board, on application of the Registrar of 'Copyright or of any person aggrieved, shall order the rectification of the Register of Copyrights by—

- (a) the making of any entry wrongly omitted to the register, or
- (b) the expunging of any entry wrongly made in, or remaining on, the register, or
- (c) the correction of any error or defect in the register. [Section 50]

7. Entries in the Register of Copyrights, etc. to be published.

Every entry made in the Register of Copyrights or the particulars of any work entered under section 45, the correction of every entry made in such register under section 49, and every rectification ordered under section 50 shall be published by the Registrar of Copyrights in the Official Gazette or in such other manner as he may deem fit. [Section 50A] 1

Assignment of Copyright [Sections 18-21]

Assignment means transfer of ownership. Copyright is personal moveable property capable of being transferred by assignment. Copyright is a bundle of rights which may be assigned wholly or partially. The assignee becomes the owner of all that which is assigned to him and he alone can sue for the infringement of the rights assigned.

Assignment must be done in writing and it must be stamped according to provisions of Indian Stamp Act

Copyright being a beneficial interest in moveable property is capable of being transferred by assignment evidenced by writing executed by assignor or by his duly authorized agent. However, it need not be registered

Infringement of Copyright [Section 51-53]

When en without authorization from the owner of act or competent authority under the Act any act is r cd out it constitutes infringement of copyright of the work.



Copyright is infringed when any person

- (a) Without a licence does anything for which the exclusive right is by the Act conferred upon the owner of the copyright,
 - (b) without licence permits for profit any place to be used for the communication of the work to the public where such communication constitutes an infringement of the right in work.
 - (c) makes for sale or hire or sells or offers to sell either by trade displays or otherwise distributes or exhibits in public or imports into India any infringing copies of the work.
- However, bringing one copy of the work for domestic and private use is permitted.

Trade Mark

Meaning

A trade mark means a mark used in relation to goods for the purpose of indicating or so as to indicate a connection in the course of trade between the goods and some person having the right as proprietor to use that mark. The function of a trade mark is to give an indication to the purchaser or a possible purchaser as to the manufacture or quality of the goods, to give an indication to his eye of the trade source from which the goods come, or the trade hands through which they pass on their way to the market.

Definition :

"Trade Mark" means a mark capable of being represented graphically and which is capable of distinguishing the goods or services of one person from those of others and may include shape of goods, their packaging and combination of colours, and -

A registered trade mark or a mark used in relation to goods or services for the purpose of indicating or so as to indicate a connection in the course of trade between the goods or services, as the **caCP** maybe, and some person having the right as proprietor to use the mark; and

(ii) A mark used or proposed to be used in relation to goods or services for the purpose of indicating or so to indicate a connection in the course of trade between the goods or services, as the case may be, and some person having the right, either as proprietor or by way of permitted user, to use the mark whether with or without any indication of the identity of that person, .and includes a certification trade mark or collective mark.

Procedure for Registration, of Trade Mark

The following arrangements and procedure setting up for registration of trade marks in India.





1. Appointment of Registrar and other officers- The Central Government appointed a person to be known as the Controller General of Patents, Designs and Trade Marks, who is the Registrar of Trade Marks for the purposes of this Act.

The Central Government also appointed such other officers with such designations as it thinks fit for the purpose of discharging, under the superintendence and direction of the Registrar, such functions of the Registrar under this Act.

2. Trade Marks Registry and of offices thereof- For the purposes of registration of trademarks there shall be a trade marks registry and the Trade Marks Registry established under the Trade and Merchandise Marks Act, 1958 shall be the Trade Marks Registry under this Act. The Central Government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, define the territorial limits within which an office of the Trade Marks Registry may exercise its functions.

There shall be a seal of the Trade Marks Registry.

3. Application for registration- For the registration of a trade mark an application is to be made to the Registrar. A single application can be made for registration of a trade mark for different classes of goods and services by paying prescribed fee for each such class of goods and services.

In the case of a refusal or conditional acceptance of an application, the Registrar shall record in writing the grounds for such refusal or conditional acceptance and the materials used by him in arriving

4. Advertisement of application- When an application for at his decision. Registration of a trade mark has been accepted whether absolutely or subject to conditions or limitations, the Registrar shall, as soon as may be after acceptance, cause the application as accepted together with the conditions or . Limitations, if any, subject to which it has been accepted, to be advertised in

5. Opposition to registration- Any person may, within four months the prescribed manner. from the date of the advertisement or re advertisement of an application for registration, give notice in writing in the prescribed manner and on payment of such fee as may be prescribed, to the Registrar, of opposition to the The Registrar shall serve a copy of the notice on the applicant for registration.

registration and, within two months from the receipt by the applicant of such copy of the notice of opposition, the applicant shall send to the Registrar in the prescribed manner a counter statement of the grounds on which he relies for his application and if he does not do so he shall be deemed to have abandoned his application

If the applicant sends such counter statement, the Registrar shall serve a copy thereof on the person giving notice of opposition.

Any evidence upon which the opponent and the applicant may rely shall be submitted in the prescribed manner and within the prescribed time to the Registrar, and the Registrar shall give an opportunity to them to be heard,

The Registrar shall, after hearing the parties, if so required, and if they so desire considering the evidence, decide whether and subject to what conditions or limitations, if any the registration is to be permitted, and may take into account a ground of objection whether relied upon by the opponent or not.

6. Registration of Trade Mark- This section makes it mandatory on the Registrar to register the trade mark where the procedure for registration of a trademark is completed. When an application for registration of a trade mark has been accepted dismissed and either-

- (a) The application has not been opposed and the time for notice of opposition has expired; or
- (b) The application has been opposed and the opposition has been decided in favour of the applicant.

The Registrar shall, unless the Central Government otherwise directs, register the said trade mark and the trade mark when registered shall be registered as of the date of the making of the said application and that date shall, be deemed to be the date of registration.



7. Registration Certificate- On the registration of a trade mark, the Registrar shall issue to the applicant a certificate in the prescribed form of the registration thereof, sealed with the seal of the Trade Marks Registry.

The Registrar may amend the register or a certificate of registration for the purpose of correcting a clerical error or an obvious mistake.

Effect of Registration

No person shall be entitled to institute any proceeding to prevent, or to recover damages for, the infringement of an unregistered trade mark.

This section provides that no infringement action will lie in respect of an unregistered trade mark, but recognises the common law rights of the trade mark owner to take action against any person for passing off goods as the goods of another person or as services provided by another person or the remedies thereof.

Infringement of registered trade marks

A registered trade mark is infringed by a person who, not being a registered proprietor or a person using by way of permitted use, uses in the course of trade, a mark which is identical with, or deceptively similar to. The trade mark in relation to goods or services in respect of which the trade mark is registered and in such manner as to render the use of the mark likely to be taken as being used as a trade mark.

- (1) A person shall be deemed to falsify a trade mark who, either,
- (a) Without the assent of the proprietor of the trade mark makes that trade mark or a deceptively similar mark; or
 - (b) Falsifies any genuine trade mark, whether by alteration, addition, effacement or otherwise,
- (2) A person shall be deemed to falsely apply to goods or services a trade mark who, without the assent of the proprietor of the trade mark,

- (a) Applies such trade mark or a deceptively similar mark to goods or

Any person who (i) falsifies any trade mark; or (ii) falsely applies to goods or services any trade mark; or (iii) makes, disposes of, or has in his possession, any die, block, machine, plate or other instrument for the purpose of falsifying or of being used for falsifying, a trade mark; or (iv) applies any false description to goods or services; or (v) applies to any goods to which an indication of the country or place in which they are made or produced or the name and address of the manufacturer or person for whom the goods are manufactured is required to be applied, a false indication of such country, place, name or address; (vi) tempers with, alters or effaces an indication of origin; or (vii) causes any of the things above mentioned to be done, shall be punishable with imprisonment for six months to three years and with fine of fifty thousand rupees to two lakh rupees.

Patents Act

The present Patents Act, 1970 came into force in the year 1972, amending and incorporating the existing laws relating to Patents and Designs act 1911 in India. The Patent (amendment) Act 2005 came into force from 1st January 2005, which brought changes in the previous patent system of India wherein product patent was extended to all subjects of technology consisting of food, drugs, chemicals and micro organisms.

Moreover, Section 3(d) introduced in to the said amendment act 2005 and introduces pharmaceutical product patents in India for the first time. The Patent (amendment) Act 2005 defines what invention is and makes it clear that any existing knowledge or thing cannot be patented. The provision defines that a 'novelty' standard - which, along with 'non-obviousness' or 'inventive step' and industrial applicability, are the three prerequisites for 'patentability'. "Discovery" essentially refers to finding out



something which already existed in nature but was unknown or unrecognised. Therefore, discoveries are excluded from patent protection under section 3 of the Indian Patent Act 1970.

A patent is termed as the exclusionary rights given by the government or the authorized authority to its inventor for a particular duration of time, in respect of his invention. It is the part of the intellectual property right, which connotes with all those rights which are granted to any person for protecting its invention, process, discovery, composition or new useful development etc. from its further usage without any authentication.

If more than two persons have jointly applied for patent license, both will own the patent separately. The original word 'patent' has come up from the latin term 'patere', which means 'to lay open' or 'available for public usage'. Sometimes it is also related to the term 'letters patent', which marks to the royal decree granting exclusive rights to patentee. Unlike copyright, patent is not granted on giving mere suggestion or idea. An idea of mere manufacturing machine does not comes under the purview of obtaining patent.

ADMINISTRATION

The Patent Office, under the Ministry of Commerce & Industry, Department of Industrial Policy & Promotion, has been established to administer the various provisions of the Patents Law relating to the grant of Patents & The Designs Law, relating to the registration of Industrial Designs.

MEMBERSHIP OF INTERNATIONAL TREATIES

India is member of the following treaties governing patents:

- Convention establishing World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)
- Trips Agreement under the World Trade Organization.
- Paris Convention for the protection of Industrial Property with effect from Dec. 7, 1998.
- Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT) with effective from Dec. 7, 1998.

TYPES OF PATENTS

- Ordinary Patent
- Patents of addition
- Convention

WHO CAN APPLY

Application may be made, either alone or jointly with another, by the inventor, assignee, legal representative of deceased inventor or assignee. The inventor is entitled to be mentioned in the patent if he applies to do so.

Application may be made jointly by two or more corporations as assignees.

PATENTABLE INVENTIONS

An invention means any new and useful art, process, method or manner of manufacture; machine, apparatus or other article; or substance produced by manufacture, and includes any new and useful improvement of any of them, and an alleged invention.

DOCUMENTS REQUIRED FOR FILING AN APPLICATION

- Application form in triplicate.
- Provisional or complete specification in triplicate. If the provisional specification is filed it must be followed by complete specification within 12 months (15 months with extension).
- Drawing in triplicate (if necessary).
- Abstract of the invention (in triplicate).



- Information and undertaking listing the number, filing date and current status of each foreign patent application in duplicate.
- Priority document (if priority date is claimed).
- Declaration of inventorship where provisional specification is followed by complete specification or in case of convention application.
- Power of attorney (if filed through Patent Agent).
- Fee in cash/by local cheque/by demand draft.

Appropriate Office for Filing An Application

Application is required to be filed according to the territorial limits where the applicant or the first mentioned applicant in case of joint applicants for a patent normally resides or has domicile or has a place of business or the place from where the invention actually originated. If the applicant for the patent or party in a proceeding having no business, place or domicile in India, the appropriate office will be according to the address of service in India given by the applicant or party in a proceeding.

Examination & Publication

All the applications for patent accompanied by complete specification are examined substantively. A first examination report stating the objection(s) is communicated to the applicant or his agents. Application or complete specification may be amended in order to meet the objection(s). Normally all the objections must be met within 15 months from the date of first examination report. Extension of time for three months is available, but application for extension therefore must be made before the expiry of normal period of 15 months. If all the objections are not complied with within the normal period or within the extended period the application will be deemed to have been abandoned. When the application is found to be suitable for acceptance it is published in the gazette of India (Part III, Section 2). It is deemed laid open to the public on the date of publication in the gazette of India.

OPPOSITION

Notice of opposition must be filed within four months of notification in the Gazette. Extension of one month is available, but must be applied for before expiry of initial four month period.

GRANT OR SEALING OF PATENT

If the application is not opposed or the opposition is decided in favour of the applicant or is not refused the patent is granted or sealed on payment of sealing fee within 6 months from the date of advertisement. However, it is extendable by three months.

REGISTER OF PATENTS

The Register of Patents will be kept in the Patent Office and its branch offices. Register of Patents can be inspected or extract from it can be obtained on payment of prescribed fee. Register of Patents contains full details of the Patent which include Patent number, the names and addresses of the patentee; notification of assignment etc.; renewals, particulars in respect of proprietorship of patent etc.

RIGHTS OF PATENTEE

A patent grant gives the patentee the exclusive right to make or use the patented article or use the patented process. He can prevent all others from making or using the patented process. A patentee has also the right to assign the patent, grant licenses under, or otherwise deal with it for any consideration. These rights created by statute are circumscribed by various conditions and limitations.

RENEWAL FEE

Renewal fees are payable every year. The first renewal fee is payable for third year of the patent's life, and must be paid before the patent's second anniversary. If the patent has not been issued within that period, renewal fees may be accumulated and paid immediately after the patent is sealed, or within three months of its recordal in the Register of the Patents.



Date of payment of Renewal fees is measured from the date of the patent. Six months' grace is available with Extension fee. No renewal fees are payable on patents of addition, unless the original patent is revoked and the patent of addition is converted into an independent patent; renewal fees then become payable for the remainder of the term of the main patent.

No renewal fees are payable during the pendency of the application for a patent; renewal fees that become overdue during pendency are payable upon sealing within three months of recordal in the Patent Register.

WORKING

Annual reports as to the extent of working, by every patentee and licensee, are a statutory requirement and must be submitted by March, 31 each year for the previous year ending December, 31.

COMPULSORY LICENSE AND LICENSE OF RIGHT

On failure to work a patent within three years from the date of its sealing, an interested party may file petition for grant of a compulsory license.

Every patent for an invention relating to a method or process for manufacture of substances intended for use, or capable of being used, as food, medicines, or drugs, or relating to substances prepared or produced by chemical process (including alloys, optical glass, semi-conductors and inter-metallic compounds) shall be deemed to be endorsed "Licenses of Right" from the date of expiry of three years from the date of sealing the patent.

ASSIGNMENT

Applications must be filed on the prescribed form with the Controller for the registration of assignments and any other documents creating an interest in a patent in order for them to be valid. In order to be valid, an assignment must be recorded within six months from the date of the document. A six-months extension may be obtained.

LICENSE

Applications must be filed on the prescribed form with the Controller for the registration of licenses and any other documents creating an interest in a patent in order for them to be valid. A license must be recorded within six months from the date of the document.

DURATION

A patent lasts for 14 years from the date of filing the complete specification (if an application is filed with provisional specification on January 1, 1989, and a complete specification is filed on January 1, 1990, the duration is counted from January 1, 1990). However, for food, drug and insecticide patents, the life is seven years from the date of complete specification, or five years from date of sealing, whichever is shorter.

RESTORATION

Application for restoration of a patent that lapses due to nonpayment of renewal fees must be made within one year of lapse. If an overdue annuity is not paid within the extension period, the one-year period for seeking restoration commences from the date of recordal.

INFRINGEMENT

Infringement can consist of taking away essential features of the patented invention; utilizing claimed features; copying patented substances; mechanical equivalence; taking part of the invention. while the patent is in force. Use by the government or for government purposes is not infringement. Such use must be paid for on terms to be agreed upon before or after use. Accidental or temporary use, use for research, use on foreign vessels, do not constitute infringement.

APPEAL

Appeal lies in the High Court. Appeal must be lodged within three months from the decision of the Controller.



UNIT-III

Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881

The Negotiable Instruments Act was enacted, in India, in 1881 and it came into force on 1st March, 1881.

Prior to its enactment, the provision of the English Negotiable Instrument Act were applicable in India, and the present Act is also based on the English Act with certain modifications. It extends to the whole of India except the State of Jammu and Kashmir. The Act operates subject to the provisions of Sections 31 and 32 of the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934

Definition

A "negotiable instrument" means a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque payable either to order or to bearer.

Explanation (i) - A promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque is payable to order which is expressed to be so payable or which is expressed to be payable to a particular person, and does not contain words prohibiting transfer or indicating an intention that it shall not be transferable.

Explanation (ii) - A promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque is payable to bearer which is expressed to be so payable or on which the only or last endorsement is an indorsement in blank.

Explanation (iii) - Where a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque, either originally or by endorsement, is expressed to be payable to the order of a specified person, and not to him or his order, it is nevertheless payable to him or his order at his option.

(2) A negotiable instrument may be made payable to two or more payees jointly, or it may be made payable in the alternative to one of two, or one or some of several payees. The word negotiable means 'transferable by delivery,' and the word instrument means 'a written document by which a right is created in favour of some person.' Thus, the term "negotiable instrument" literally means 'a written document which creates a right in favour of somebody and is freely transferable by delivery.'

A negotiable instrument is a piece of paper which entitles a person to a certain sum of money and which is transferable from one to another person by a delivery or by endorsement and delivery.

*"According to **Blackburn J**, a negotiable instrument has two characteristics namely*

1. It is transferable, like cash, by delivery (which assumes it is in a deliverable state) so that the transferee can enforce the rights embodied in it in his own name.

2. The transferee being a bonafide holder for value can acquire a better title to it than that of his transferor."

Negotiable Instrument is moreover a document of title which clearly explains the rights towards the payment of money or a security for money which is transferable by delivery either by custom or by legislation. The use of negotiable Instrument is mainly to facilitate payment for exports and imports of trade. The rapid growth of technology has revolutionized the world with computer, which is used in every field of profession. This has reduced the use of negotiable instrument and in future it may decline more. Even though the electronic revolution has got more advantages it may be considered as the next step because the world needs time to get used to it. But, the negotiable instrument are still in use.

Characteristics of Negotiable Instruments:-



1. Free transferability or easy negotiability

Negotiable instrument is freely transferable from one person to another without any formality. The property (right of ownership) in these instruments passes by either endorsement and delivery (in case it is payable to order) or by delivery merely (in case it is payable to bearer) and no further evidence of transfer is needed.

2. Title of holder is free from all defects

A person who takes negotiable instrument bona-fide and for value gets the instrument free from all defects in the title. The holder in due course is not affected by defective title of the transferor or of any other party.

3. Transferee can sue in his own name without giving notice to the debtor:

A bill, promissory note or a cheque represents a debt, i.e., an “actionable claim” and implies the right of the creditor to recover something from the debtor.

The creditor can either recover this amount himself or can transfer his right to another person.

In case he transfers his right, the transferee of a negotiable instrument is entitled to sue on the instrument in his own name in case of dishonour, without giving notice to the debtor of the fact that he has become holder.

In case of transfer or assignment of an ordinary “actionable claim” i.e., a book debt evidenced by an entry by the creditor in his account book, under the transfer of property act, notice to the debtor is necessary in order to make the transferee entitled to sue in his own name.

4. Presumptions:

Certain presumptions apply to negotiable instruments. Section 118, 119 and 139 lay down the following presumptions:

(a) For consideration : that every negotiable instrument, was made, drawn, accepted, endorsed or transferred for consideration.

(b) As to date : that every negotiable instrument bearing a date was made or drawn on such date.

(c) As to time of acceptance : that every bill of exchange was accepted within a reasonable time after its date and before its maturity.

(d) As to transfer: that every transfer of a negotiable instrument was made before its maturity

(e) As to time of endorsements : that the endorsements appearing upon a negotiable instrument were made in the order in which they appear thereon.

(f) As to stamps : that a lost promissory-note, bill of exchange or cheque was duly stamped.

(g) As to a holder in due course: that every holder of a negotiable instrument is holder in due course (this presumption would not arise where it is proved that the holder has obtained the instrument from its lawful owner, or from any person in lawful custody thereof, by means of an offence, fraud or for unlawful consideration and in such a case the holder has to prove that he is a holder in due course)



(h) **As to dishonour:** that the instrument was dishonoured, in case a suit upon a dishonoured instrument is filed with the court and the fact of protest is proved.

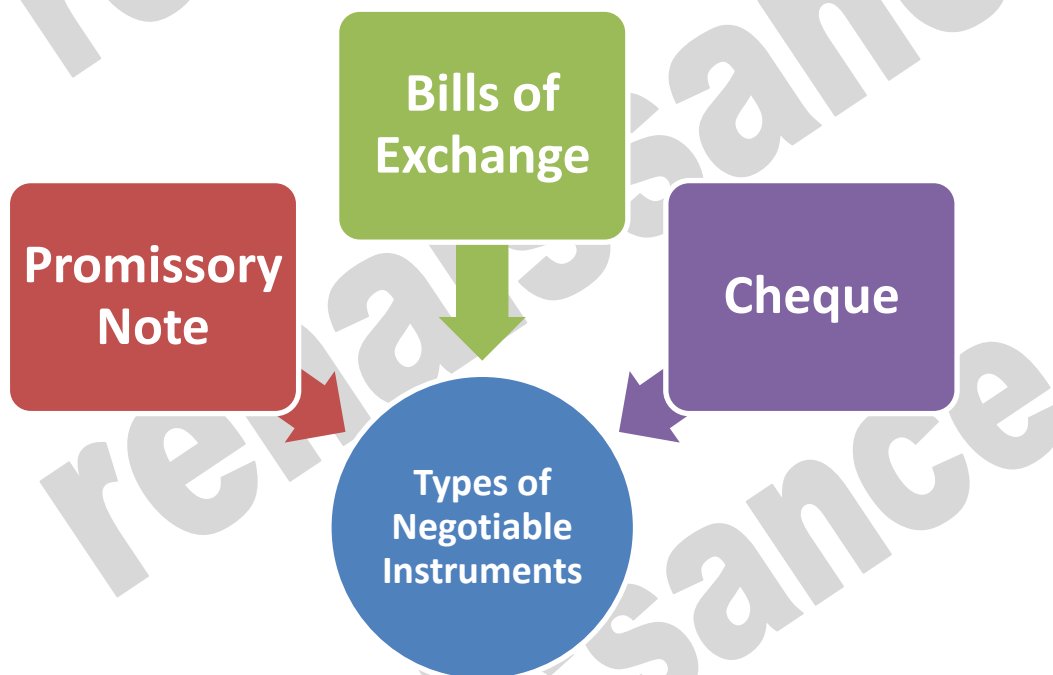
Section 139 - Presumption in favour of holder:

It shall be presumed, unless the contrary is proved, that the holder of a cheque received the cheque of the nature referred to in section 138 for the discharge, in whole or in part, of any debt or other liability. "The effect of these presumptions is to place the evidential burden on the accused of proving that the cheque was not received by the complainant towards the discharge of any liability. Because both sections 138 and 139 require that the court shall presume the liability of the drawer of the cheques for the amounts for which the cheques are drawn...it is obligatory on the courts to raise this presumption in every case where the factual basis for the raising of this presumption had been established. It introduced an exception to the general rule as to the burden of proof in criminal cases and shifts the onus on to the accused."

Types of Negotiable Instruments

There are three types of Negotiable instruments:-

Negotiable Instruments recognized by statutes: The Negotiable Instruments Act mentions only three kinds of negotiable instruments (**Section 13**).



Negotiable instruments recognized by usage or customs of trade: There are certain other instruments which have acquired the characteristic of negotiability by the usage or custom of trade.

For example: Exchequer bills, Bank notes, Share warrants, Circular notes, Bearer debentures, Dividend warrants, Share certificates with blank transfer deeds, etc.

Promissory Note

Definition: According to **Section 4 of Negotiable Instruments Act**, "A promissory note is an instrument in writing (not being a bank-note or a currency-note) containing an unconditional



undertaking, signed by the maker, to pay a certain sum of money only to, or to the order of, a certain person, or to the bearer of the instrument.”

Parties to a Promissory Note

There are primarily two parties involved in a promissory note. They are:

- (i) The Maker or Drawer:** The person who makes the note and promises to pay the amount stated therein.
- (ii) The Payee** – The person to whom the amount is payable i.e. to whom the payment is to be made is called a payee.

In course of transfer of a promissory note by payee and others, the parties involved may be –

- (a) The Endorser** – the person who endorses the note in favour of another person.
- (b) The Endorsee** – the person in whose favour the note is negotiated by endorsement.

Characteristics of Promissory Note

1. It must be in writing:

A promissory note has to be in writing

An oral promise to pay does not become a promissory note

The writing may be on any paper or book

Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

“I promise to pay B or order Rs.500/-”

“I acknowledge myself to be indebted to B in Rs.1,000/- to be paid on demand, for value received”

Both the above instruments are valid promissory notes.

2. It must contain a promise or undertaking to pay:

There must be a promise or an undertaking to pay

The undertaking to pay may be gathered either from express words or by necessary implication.

A mere acknowledgement of indebtedness is not a promissory note, although it is valid as an agreement and may be sued upon as such

Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

“Mr. B I owe you Rs.1,000”

“I am liable to pay to B Rs.500”

The above instruments are not promissory notes as there is no undertaking or promise to pay. There is only an acknowledgement of indebtedness.

Where A signs the instrument in the following terms:

“I acknowledge myself to be indebted to B in Rs.1,000, to be paid on demand, for value received,” there is a valid promissory note

3. The promise to pay must be unconditional:

A promissory note must contain an unconditional promise to pay

The promise to pay must not depend upon the happening of some uncertain event, i.e., a contingency or the fulfillment of a condition

Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

“I promise to pay B Rs. 500 seven days after my marriage with C”

“I promise to pay B Rs. 500 as soon as I can”

The above instruments are not valid promissory notes as the payment is made depending upon the happening of an uncertain event which may never happen and as a result the sum may never become payable

4. It must be signed by the maker: It is imperative that the promissory note should be duly authenticated by the ‘signature’ of the maker



'Signature' means the writing or otherwise affixing a person's name or a mark to represent his name, by himself or by his authority with the intention of authenticating a document.

5. The maker must be a certain person:

The instrument must itself indicate with certainty who is the person or are the persons engaging himself or themselves to pay

Alternative promisors are not permitted in law because of the general rule that "where liability lies no ambiguity must lie"

6. The payee must be certain:

Like the maker the payee of a pronote must also be certain on the face of the instrument

A note in favour of fictitious person is illegal and void

A pronote made payable to the maker himself is a nullity, the reason being the same person is both the promisor and the promisee

7. The undertaking must be to pay a certain and definite sum of money only.

For a valid pronote it is also essential that the sum of money promised to be payable must be certain and definite

The amount payable must not be capable of contingent additions or subtractions

Illustrations: A signs the instruments in the following terms:

"I promise to pay B Rs.500 and all other sums which shall be due to him"

"I promise to pay B Rs.500, first deducting thereout any money which he may owe me"

The above instruments are invalid as promissory notes because the exact amount to be paid by A is not certain

8. The amount payable must be in legal tender money of India:

A document containing a promise to pay a certain amount of foreign money or to deliver a certain quantity of goods is not a pronote. The payment must be in a legal money of the country.

9. Revenue stamps or requisite value under the stamp Act of the country should be affixed.

10. Other matters of form like number, date, place etc, are usually found given in notes, but they are not essentials in law.

11. A bank note or a currency note is not a promissory note within the meaning of this section.

12. A promissory note cannot be made payable to bearer on demand.

Bill of Exchange

Definition: Section 5 of the Negotiable Instruments Act defines a Bill of Exchange as follows:

"A bill of exchange is an instrument in writing containing an unconditional order, signed by the maker, directing a certain person to pay a certain sum of money only to, or to the order of, a certain person or to the bearer of the instrument." It is also called a Draft.

Illustration:

Mr. X purchases goods from Mr. Y for Rs.1000/-

Mr. Y buys goods from Mr. S for Rs.1000/-

Then Mr. Y may order Mr. X to pay Rs.1000/- Mr. S which will be nothing but a bill of exchange.

Parties to a Bill of Exchange

There are three parties involved in a bill of exchange

(i) The Drawer – The person who makes the order for making payment.

(ii) The Drawee – The person to whom the order to pay is made. He is generally a debtor of the drawer. The person directed to pay the money by the drawer is called the drawee.



(iii) **The Payee** – The person to whom the payment is to be made. The person named in the instrument, to whom or to whose order the money are directed to be paid by the instruments are called the payee.

The drawer can also draw a bill in his own name thereby he himself becomes the payee. Here the words in the bill would be Pay to us or order.

In a bill where a time period is mentioned, is called a Time Bill.

But a bill may be made payable on demand also. This is called a Demand Bill.

Essentials of a Bill of Exchange

8. **It must be in writing**

9. **It must contain an order to pay. A mere request to pay on account, will not amount to an order**

10. **The order to pay must be unconditional**

11. **It must be signed by the drawer**

The drawer, drawee and payee must be certain. A bill cannot be drawn on two or more drawees but may be made payable in the alternative to one of two or more payees

12. **The sum payable must be certain**

13. **The bill must contain an order to pay money only**

14. **It must comply with the formalities as regards date, consideration, stamps, etc**

Cheque

Definition: A cheque is bill of exchange drawn on a specified banker and not expressed to be payable otherwise than on demand and it includes the electronic image of a truncated cheque and a cheque in the electronic form. (Sec. 6, NIA)

Explanation I - For the purposes of this section, the expressions-

(a) a cheque in the electronic form means a cheque which contains the exact mirror image of a paper cheque, and is generated, written and signed in a secure system ensuring the minimum safety standards with the use of digital signature (with or without biometrics signature) and asymmetric crypto system;

(b) a truncated cheque means a cheque which is truncated during the course of a clearing cycle, either by the clearing house or by the bank whether paying or receiving payment, immediately on generation of an electronic image for transmission, substituting the further physical movement of the cheque in writing.

Explanation II - For the purposes of this section, the expression clearing house means the clearing house managed by the Reserve Bank of India or a clearing house recognised as such by the Reserve Bank of India.

A cheque is a kind of bill of exchange but it has additional qualification namely-

3. **It is always drawn on a specified banker and**

4. **It is always payable on demand without any days of grace.**

Parties to a cheque

Drawer: Drawer is the person who draws or makes the cheque.

Drawee: Drawee is the drawer's banker on whom the cheque has been drawn.

Payee: Payee is the person who is entitled to receive the payment of a cheque.

Crossing of Cheque

A Crossed Cheque is one which bears across its face two parallel transverse lines with or without certain words. Such lines are usually drawn on the left side top corner of the face of the Cheque. However, such lines can be drawn anywhere on the face of the Cheque.

Crossing of Cheque is a direction to the drawee bank to pay the amount of the Cheque to a bank or to a particular bank. Therefore, a crossed Cheque is not payable to the payee or holder at the counter of the



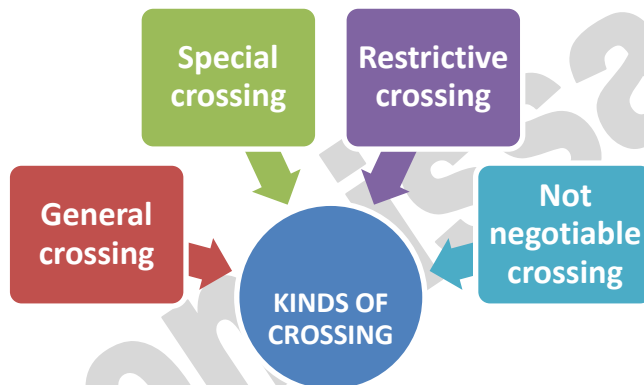
bank. In order to get the payment of the Cheque, it is required to be deposited in an account with a bank. The bank, in turn, presents the Cheque to the drawee bank and gets payment on behalf of the payee or indorsee of the Cheque.

The objects of crossing of a Cheque are as follows:

To direct the drawee bank to pay the amount of the Cheque only to a bank or a particular bank;

To prevent the payment of the Cheque to an unauthorized or wrong person.

Kinds of Crossing:-



1. General crossing: A Cheque is deemed to be generally crossed in any of the following cases:

- c. When it bears across its face two parallel transverse lines without any words.
- d. When it bears across its face an addition of the words “and company” or any abbreviation thereof between two parallel transverse lines. It may also be with or without the words ‘Not negotiable’.

Effects of general crossing

The Cheque is not payable at the counter of the bank.

The drawee bank shall pay the amount of the Cheque only to a banker. Therefore, the holder will have to deposit the Cheque in an account with any banker. [Sec. 126 Para 1]

2. Special crossing: A Cheque is said to be specially crossed when the name of a banker is added across the face of the Cheque, either with or without words, not negotiable. Usually, two parallel transverse lines are used in special crossing but they are required not by law.

Effects of special crossing:

In the case of a Cheque especially crossed, the payment can be obtained only through the particular banker whose name appears across the face of the Cheque or his agent for collection. [Sec. 126, para2]

3. Restrictive crossing: Restrictive crossing has not been described anywhere in the Negotiable Instrument Act. It is a type of crossing which has evolved out of business and banking usage and now recognized by the law. Every Cheque crossed wither generally or specially may be crossed restrictively credit the proceeds of the Cheque only to the account of the payee.

4. Not negotiable crossing: Sometimes, a Cheque crossed generally or specially contains the words ‘not negotiable’ A crossing with such words is said to be ‘not negotiable’ crossing.

The words ‘not negotiable’ on a crossed Cheque destroy the negotiable character of the Cheque but not the transferability of the Cheque. Therefore, any person taking a crossed Cheque bearing the words ‘not negotiable’ shall not have and shall not be capable of giving a better title to the Cheque than the title of the person from whom he took it. [Sec. 130]



Parties to a Negotiable Instrument:

Holder and Holder in due course

Holder (Sec. 8, NIA)

Holder means any person entitled in his own name to the possession a promissory note bill of exchange or cheque and to recover or receive the amount due thereon from the parties thereon. A holder must therefore have the possession of the instrument and also the right to recover the money in his own name.

Therefore, holder of a negotiable instrument is the person:

3. Who is entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument, and
4. Who has the right to receive or recover the amount due thereon from the parties thereto.

Characteristics:

- d) Entitled to possession of an instrument
- e) Entitled to receive or recover the amount
- f) Holder of lost or destroyed instrument

Who can be a Holder?

- v. Payee
- vi. Indorsee
- vii. Bearer
- viii. Legal representative or heir

Who is Not a Holder?

- vi. Agent
- vii. Servant
- viii. Beneficial
- ix. Thief or finder
- x. Forged indorsee

Powers of Holder

- VI. He is entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument.
- VII. He can receive or recover the amount due on the instrument.
- VIII. If necessary, he can sue the parties in order to recover the money due on the instrument.
- IX. He can validly discharge the instrument on payment of the instrument.
- X. He may indorse the instrument to any other person

"Holder in due course" (Sec. 9, NIA)

Holder in due course means any person who for consideration became the possessor of a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque, if payable to the bearer or the payee or indorsee thereof, if payable to the order before the amount mentioned in it became payable, and without having sufficient cause to believe that any defect existed in the title of the person from who he derived his title'

Thus, a person is a holder in due course if he satisfies the following conditions:

- f) He must be a holder (possessor) of a negotiable instrument.
- g) He must have become holder (possessor) of the instrument for consideration.
- h) He must have become holder before maturity of the instrument.
- i) He must have obtained the instrument in good faith.
- j) He must have received the instrument complete and regular on the face of it.

RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES OF HOLDER IN DUE COURSE

A holder in due course enjoys certain rights and privileges. They are available in the following particular cases:



In case of an inchoate instrument: Sometimes a person signs a stamped but otherwise incomplete (inchoate) instrument and delivers it to another person. In such a case, it implies that the holder may fill in any amount for which authority has been given by the maker.

In case of a fictitious bill: Sometimes the name of the drawer or the payee or both is fictitious in a bill. Such a bill is called a fictitious bill. The acceptor of such a fictitious bill is not liable to the holder of the bill. But if the same bill is passed on to a holder in due course, he will have a privilege to claim money on it from the acceptor. [Sec.42]

In case of the liability of prior parties: A holder in due course has a privilege to hold every prior party to a negotiable instrument liable on it until the instrument is duly satisfied. [Sec.36]

In case of instrument without consideration: Sometimes an instrument is made, drawn, accepted, indorsed or transferred without consideration. But, if the same instrument comes into the hands of a holder in due course, he has a privilege to recover the amount from any party thereto [Sec.43]

In case of transfer of title to a subsequent holder: A holder in due course has a privilege to transfer the title to an instrument free from all defects to subsequent holder. Therefore, any holder of a negotiable instrument who derives title to a negotiable instrument from a holder in due course enjoys all the rights and privileges of that holder in due course.

In case of an instrument obtained by unlawful means or for unlawful consideration: Sometimes, a person gets a lost instrument or obtains an instrument by means of an offence (i.e. by stealing or defrauding). In such a case, the holder cannot claim any right against the party liable on it. But if the same instrument is negotiated to a holder in due course, he will get good title to it.

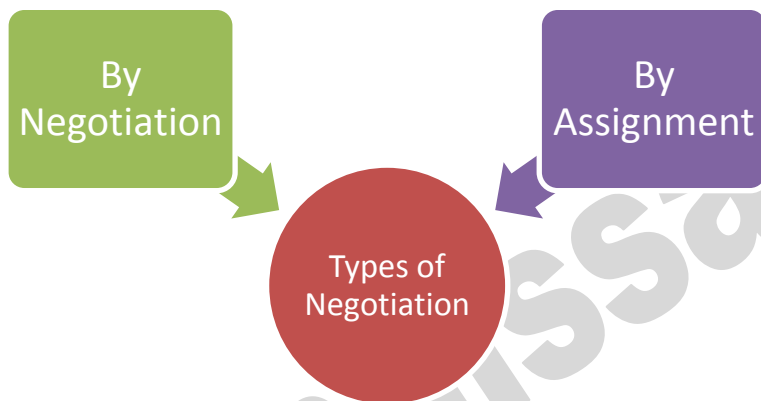
DISTINCTION BETWEEN HOLDER AND HOLDER IN DUE COURSE

Basis of Distinction	Holder	Holder in Due Course
1. Definition	Holder is a person who is entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument and to receive the amount due on it.	Holder in due course is a person who becomes the possessor of the instrument for consideration before its maturity and in good faith. [Sec. 9]
2. Consideration	A holder need not necessarily acquire the instrument for consideration. For instance, a holder may get the instrument by way of gift.	A holder in due course can acquire the instrument for consideration only.
3. Before maturity	A holder may obtain possession before or after the maturity of the instrument.	A holder in due course must obtain the possession before maturity of the instrument.
4. Good faith	A holder need not necessarily acquire possession of the instrument in good faith.	A holder in due course must always acquire possession of the instrument in good faith.
5. Inchoate instrument	A holder can claim only the amount which signer of the inchoate instrument intended to pay.	A holder in due course can claim any amount filled in the inchoate instrument provided it is covered by the stamp affixed on it. [Sec. 20]
6. Right against prior parties	A holder does not have rights against all the prior parties. He has rights against the original parties and his immediate indorser.	A holder in due course has rights against every prior party to the instrument. He can hold them liable jointly and severally.[Sec. 36]
7. Title better than the transferor	A holder can never get a better title than that of the transferor.	A holder in due course can acquire a better title than that of the transferor. In other words he gets the instrument cleansed of all prior defects.



Negotiation

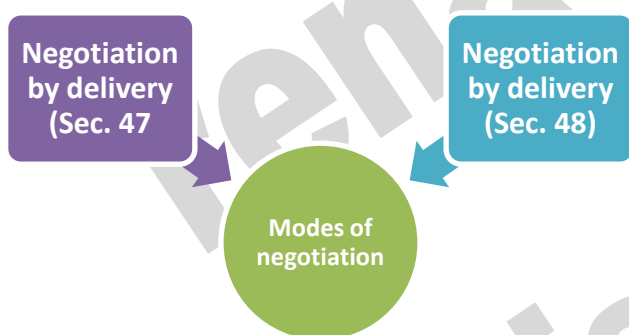
One of the essential features of a negotiable instrument is its transferability. A negotiable instrument may be transferred from one person to another in either of the followings way-



1) By negotiation - The transfer of an instrument by one party to another so as to constitute the transferee a holder is called Negotiation. Negotiation means as the process by which a third party is constituted the holder of the instrument so as to entitle him to the possession of the same and to receive the amount due thereon in his own name.

According to section 14 of the Act, "when a promissory note, bill of exchange or cheque is transferred to any person so as to constitute that person the holder thereof, the instrument is said to be negotiated." The main purpose and essence of negotiation is to make the transferee of a promissory note, a bill of exchange or a cheque the holder there of.

Modes of negotiation (Sec. 47 and 48, NIA):-



1. Negotiation by delivery (Sec. 47): Where a promissory note or a bill of exchange or a cheque is payable to a bearer, it may be negotiated by delivery thereof.

Example: A the holder of a negotiable instrument payable to bearer, delivers it to B's agent to keep it for B. The instrument has been negotiated.

2. Negotiation by delivery (Sec. 48) :

A promissory note, a cheque or a bill of exchange payable to order can be negotiated only by endorsement and delivery. Unless the holder signs his endorsement on the instrument and delivers it, the transferee does not become a holder. If there are more payees than one, all must endorse it.



2) By Assignment –

When a holder of a bill, promissory note or cheque transfers the same to another, he in fact gives his right to receive the payment of the instrument to the transferee.

Difference between Assignment & Negotiation:-

- 6) Mode of transfer- The transfer by negotiation requires only delivery with or without endorsement of a bearer or order instrument. Whereas the transfer by assignment requires a separate written document such as transfer deed signed by the transferor.
- 7) Notice of transfer-Not require in negotiation
- 8) Consideration-consideration must be proved in assignee.
- 9) Title
- 10) Right to sue

Endorsement

The word “endorsement” in its literal sense means, writing on the back of an instrument. But under the Negotiable Instruments Act, it means, the writing of one’s name on the back of the instrument or any paper attached to it with the intention of transferring the rights therein. Thus, endorsement is signing a negotiable instrument for the purpose of negotiation. The person who effects an endorsement is called an “endorser”, and the person to whom negotiable instrument is transferred by endorsement is called the “endorsee”. Who may Endorse / Negotiate [Section 51]: Every Sole maker, drawer, payee or endorsee, or all of several joint makers, drawers, payees or endorsees of a negotiable instrument may endorse and negotiate the same if the negotiability of such instrument has not been restricted or excluded as mentioned in Section 50.

When the maker or holder of a negotiable instrument signs the instrument (otherwise than as maker) for the purpose of its negotiation, it is said to be the Endorsement of the instrument. [Section 15]

Essentials of a Valid Endorsement: Following are the essentials of a valid endorsement:

- 1. Indorsers must be holder:** For a valid Endorsement, the indorser must be holder of the instrument. In other words, indorser must be entitled in his own name to the possession of the instrument and recover or receive the amount due thereon. Therefore, a person who steals or finds a lost instrument cannot indorse the instrument because he is not a holder.
- 2. On the instrument:** Endorsement must be on the face or back of the instrument or on a piece of paper annexed to the instrument.
- 3. Signature:** Endorsement must be signed by the indorser for the purpose of negotiation of the instrument. It may be signed by the maker or holder of the instrument but the maker must not sign the Endorsement in the capacity of the maker.
- 4. Additional words and form of words:** Indorser may sign the Endorsement with a without additional words or statement.
- 5. Endorsement by joint holders:** An Endorsement is valid only when all joint holders (i.e. all makers, drawers, indorsees or payees) join in Endorsement unless any one of them has the authority to indorse for the others.
- 6. Endorsement of entire instrument:** Endorsement must be of the entire instrument. An Endorsement which purports to transfer only a part of the amount of the instrument is not a valid Endorsement.
- 7. Delivery:** In order to make a complete and effective Endorsement, the instrument must be delivered by the indorser to the indorsee.

8. It must be made by the holder of the instrument.



9. It must be completed by the delivery of the instrument.

10. It must be signed by the endorser. It must be on the back or face of instrument or on a slip of paper annexed thereto.

Persons Entitled to Indorse:

5. Payee
6. Maker, drawer or holder
7. Indorsee
8. Joint makers, drawers etc.

Kinds of Endorsements



1. Blank or general Endorsement: When the indorser signs his name only on the instrument for the purpose of its negotiation, it is called the blank or general Endorsement. Illustration: Anta has a Cheque payable to 'Anta or order' Anta merely signs on the instrument. It constitutes a blank Endorsement.

2. Full or special Endorsement: When an indorser signs his name and adds a direction to pay the amount mentioned in the instrument to or to the order of a specified person, it is called the Endorsement in full. Illustration: Anita is a holder of a Cheque. He writes 'Pay Banta or Order or Pay Banta only' and signs the Cheque. It is a full or special Endorsement.

3. Restrictive Endorsement: Illustration: (a) 'Pay the contents to Banta only'. (b) 'Pay Banta for my use'.

4. Partial Endorsement: Sometimes, an Endorsement purports to transfer only a part of the amount of the instrument. Such an Endorsement is called as partial Endorsement. It is not a valid Endorsement for the purpose of negotiation.

5. Conditional or qualified Endorsement: When an indorser inserts a condition in his Endorsement, it is called a conditional Endorsement. Sometimes, an indorser by express words in the Endorsement may exclude his liability on the instrument makes the right of the indorsee to receive the amount due thereon on the happening of a specified event or on the implement of some condition. In such a case, the Endorsement is said to be conditional.

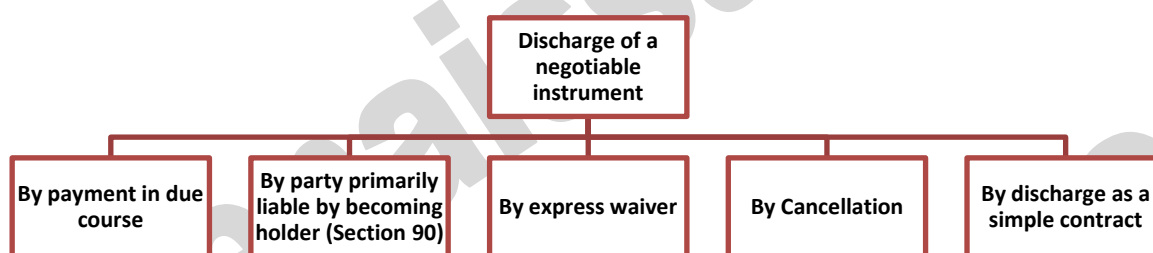
Effects of Endorsement:



5. An unconditional Endorsement of a negotiable instrument followed by an unconditional delivery of the instrument has the following effects:
6. The property in the instrument stands transferred to the indorsee.
7. The indorsee gets the right of further negotiation of the instrument [Sec. 50]
8. The indorsee is entitled to sue all parties, whose names appear on it.

Discharge of a negotiable instrument

“Discharge means release from obligation.” Discharge can take place-



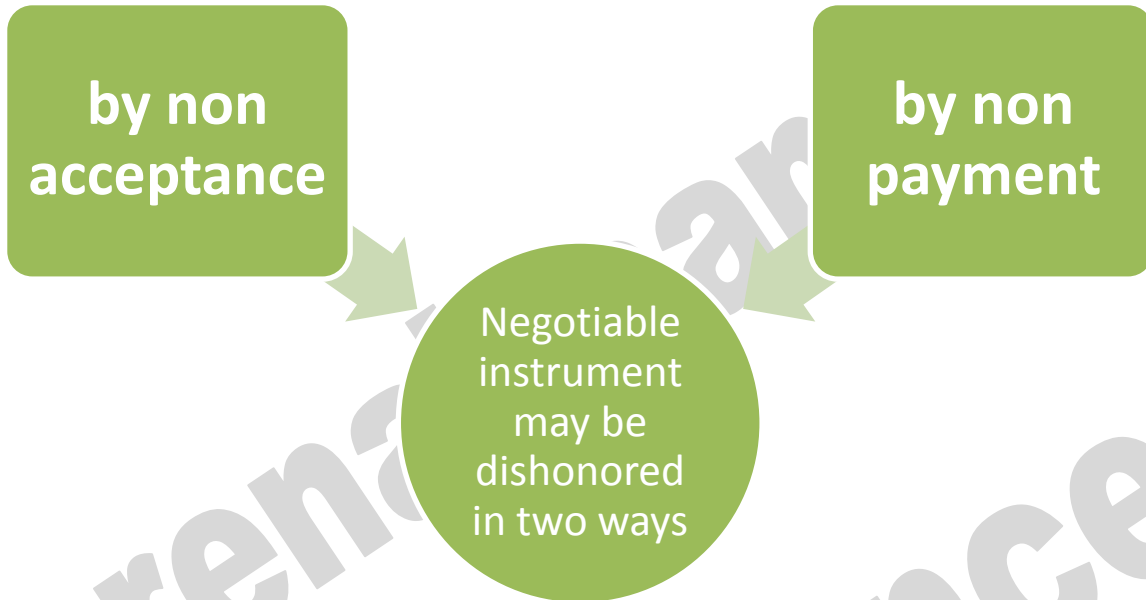
- 6) **By payment in due course:** The instrument is discharged by payment made in due course by the party who is primarily liable to pay, or by a person who is accommodated in case the instrument was made or accepted for his accommodation, The payment must be made at or after the maturity to the holder of the instrument if the maker or acceptor is to be discharged. A payment by a party who is secondarily liable does not discharge the instrument.
- 7) **By party primarily liable by becoming holder (Section 90) :** If the maker of a note or the acceptor of a bill becomes its holder at or after its maturity in his own right, The Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881 4.5 instrument is discharged.
- 8) **By express waiver:** When the holder of a negotiable instrument at or after its maturity absolutely and unconditionally renounces in writing or gives up his rights against all the parties to the instrument, the instrument is discharged. The renunciation must be in writing unless the instrument is delivered up to the party primarily liable.
- 9) **By Cancellation:** Where an instrument is intentionally cancelled by the holder or his agent and the cancellation is apparent thereon, the instrument is discharged. Cancellation may take place; by crossing out signatures on the instrument, or by physical destruction of the instrument with the intention of putting an end to the liability of the parties to the instrument.
- 10) **By discharge as a simple contract:** A negotiable instrument may be discharged in the same way as any other contract for the payment of money. This includes for example, discharge of an instrument by innovation or rescission or by expiry of period of limitation.

Dishonour of a negotiable instrument

An instrument is said to be dishonored when the acceptance and/or payment is refused on a duly presented instrument.



Thus, a negotiable instrument may be dishonored in two ways:



Dishonor by Non-acceptance:

Only a bill may be dishonored by non acceptance. A bill is deemed to be dishonored by non acceptance in any of the following cases:

- f. Refused to accept
- g. Not signed by all the drawees
- h. Not accepted by any partner
- i. Bill not accepted within forty eight hours.
- j. Drawee could not be found

Dishonour by Non-payment:

- c. Default in payment
- d. When excused from presentment

On the dishonour of a cheque, one can file a suit for recovery of the cheque amount along with the cost & interest under order XXXVII of Code of Civil Procedure 1908 (which is a summary procedure and) can also file a Criminal Complaint u/s 138 of Negotiable Instrument Act for punishment to the signatory of the cheque for having committed an offence. However, before filing the said complaint a statutory notice is liable to be given to the other party.

NOTICE OF DISHONOUR

When a negotiable instrument is dishonored by non acceptance (bill) or by non-payment, the holder may sue against the parties liable for the same. But he can do so only when he has served a formal notice to the effect.

The notice of dishonor is necessary for two reasons:

- c. **To warn the party about his liability.**
- d. **To secure rights of the holder**

Notice by Whom?

The notice of dishonor may be given by any of the following:



- iv. By the holder.
- v. By any party receiving the notice of dishonor. He may do so if he wants to hold any prior party liable to himself.
- vi. By an agent of the holder

Notice to Whom?

- vi. To all prior parties.
- vii. To some one of the several parties.
- viii. To an agent of the person.
- ix. To the legal representative, in case the party liable is dead.
- x. To the official assignee, in case the party liable has been declared insolvent.

Time and Place of Notice:

- iii. The notice must be given within a reasonable time after dishonour.
- iv. The notice must be given at the place of business. In case the party has no place of business, it must be given at the residence of the party.

Dishonour of certain cheques for insufficiency of funds

Provided that nothing contained in this section shall apply unless-

- (a) the cheque has been presented to the bank within a period of three months from the date on which it is drawn or within the period of its validity, whichever is earlier;
- (b) the payee or the holder in due course of the cheque, as the case may be, makes a demand for the payment of the said amount of money by giving a notice in writing, to the drawer of the cheque within thirty days of the receipt of information by him from the bank regarding the return of the cheque as unpaid; and
- (c) the drawer of such cheque fails to make the payment of the said amount of money to the payee or as the case may be, to the holder in due course of the cheque within 15 days of the receipt of the said notice.

Explanation - For the purposes of this section, debt or other liability means a legally enforceable debt or other liability.

Ingredients of the offence under Section 138, NIA: It is manifest that to constitute an offence under Section 138 of NIA, the following ingredients are required to be fulfilled:

- 5. a person must have drawn a cheque on an account maintained by him in a bank for payment of a certain amount of money to another person from out of that account for the discharge, in whole or in part, of any debt or other liability; that cheque has been presented to bank within a period of three months from the date on which it is drawn or within the period of its validity whichever is earlier;
- 6. that cheque is returned by the bank unpaid, either because of the amount of money standing to the credit of the account is insufficient to honour the cheque or that it exceeds the amount arranged to be paid from that account by an agreement made with the bank;
- 7. the payee or the holder in due course of the cheque makes a demand for the payment of the said amount of money by giving a notice in writing, to the drawer of the cheque, within 30 days of the receipt of information by him from the bank regarding the return of the cheque as unpaid;
- 8. The drawer of such cheque fails to make payment of the said amount of money to the payee or the holder in due course of the cheque within 15 days of the receipt of the said notice.

Section 139 - Presumption in favour of holder

It shall be presumed, unless the contrary is proved, that the holder of a cheque received the cheque of the nature referred to in section 138 for the discharge, in whole or in part, of any debt or other liability.



The effect of these presumptions is to place the evidential burden on the accused of proving that the cheque was not received by the complainant towards the discharge of any liability. Because both sections 138 and 139 require that the court shall presume the liability of the drawer of the cheques for the amounts for which the cheques are drawn...it is obligatory on the courts to raise this presumption in every case where the factual basis for the raising of this presumption had been established. It introduced an exception to the general rule as to the burden of proof in criminal cases and shifts the onus on to the accused.

NOTING

Meaning – Noting is the process of recording the fact and reasons of dishonor of negotiable instrument by the notary public upon the dishonored instrument. In other words, noting consists of recording and authenticating the fact and reasons of dishonor of a negotiable instrument by the notary public.

Need – Noting is not compulsory in the case of an inland bill or note. But noting serves as an authentic and official proof of dishonor of an instrument by non acceptance or non-payment. It serves as an evidence of dishonor of a negotiable instrument in the legal proceedings before the Court.

Procedure of Noting – When a promissory note or a bill of exchange is dishonoured, the holder may request within a reasonable time after its dishonor to a notary public for its noting. On receipt of the request, the notary public takes following steps:

The notary public makes a formal demand upon the acceptor or maker for acceptance or payment. It may be noted that such demand may be made either by the notary public personally or by his clerk. If authorized by agreement or usage, the demand may be made by a registered letter.

When it is not then accepted or paid, the notary public records the fact of dishonor upon the instrument, or upon a paper attached thereto or party upon each.

Such a note must specify the following things:

- f) The fact of dishonour.
- g) The date of dishonor of the instrument.
- h) The reasons, if any, assigned for such dishonor.
- i) If the instrument has not been expressly dishonored, the reasons why the holder treats it as dishonored.
- j) The notary's charges. [Sec. 99]

In addition, the notary public also makes a reference of his register and puts signature with seal on the instrument.

PROTEST

Protest is a certificate issued by a notary public attesting the fact of dishonor of a negotiable instrument recorded upon the dishonored instrument.

Contents of protest

6. The instrument itself or a literal transcript of it which must contain everything written or printed thereon.
7. The name of the person for whom and against whom the instrument has been protested.
8. A statement that payment or acceptance, or better security (as the case may be) has been demanded of such person by the notary public; and the terms of his answer, if any
9. If the person gave no answer, or that he could not be found a statement to that effect.
10. The date, place and time of dishonor of the instrument. If better security has been refused; the place and time of refusal.

Distinction between Noting and Protest

The notice is different from protest on the following grounds:



Nature - Noting consists of recording the fact and reasons of dishonor of a negotiable instrument upon the instrument. Protest is a certificate as to fact and reasons that an instrument has been dishonored or the acceptor has refused to give a better security for the bill.

Contents - The contents of noting are limited to the date and reasons (express or implied) of dishonor. But contents of protest are more detailed as specified under Section 101.

Scope - Noting can be done even without protest but protest is issued only after the noting has been done.

Requirement - Noting is optional in case of inland bill or note. But a foreign bill must be protested if it is required by the law of the place where they are drawn.

Conclusion

Negotiable Instruments plays a major role in the trade world. We can also see the use of negotiable instruments in the international trade. We can assume that the international trade is also developing with the negotiable instrument. The nature of negotiable instrument is an area of law which has major influence on any person in his professional field. Negotiable instrument plays a major role in different part of the world in raising the economy. The negotiable instrument is of contractual in nature and it characterizes the fact that it is negotiable.