

# JOURNAL OF THE INSTITUTE OF BANGLADESH STUDIES

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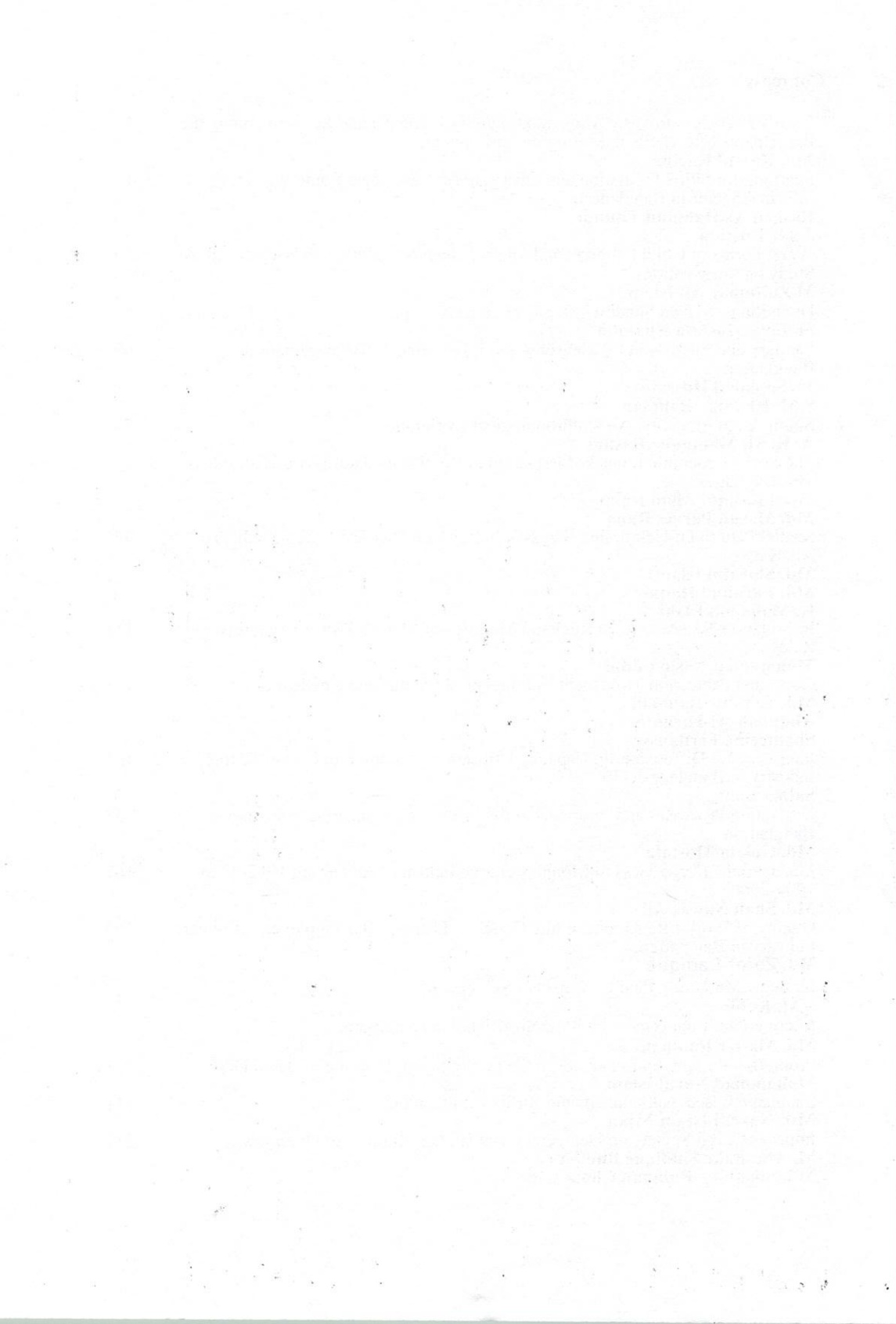
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## **FAMILY FACTORS IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION: FAMILY LIFECYCLE AND DROPOUT AMONG THE PARTICIPANTS OF A MICROCREDIT PROGRAMME IN BANGLADESH**

Md. Rezaul Karim\*

**Abstract:** Scholars have found significant relationship between Family Life Cycle (FLC) and poverty status of the family. Relationship between FLC and success of the poor in poverty alleviation programs, however, yet to examine. Recently, microcredit approach has expanded world-wide as an effective tool to alleviate poverty. But increasing number of dropouts has already emerged as a problem for these programs. Present paper intends to explain this dropout problem using the FLC approach. Data of Grameen Bank microcredit program have been considered. Dropout has been found significantly higher among the participants of earlier FLC stages than later stages. It suggests that family factors, particularly FLC, are important to determine the success of the participants in poverty alleviation programs.

### **I. Introduction**

#### ***The Problem***

Poverty remains as the major concern for the world community particularly for developing countries. According to the UNDP 'poverty clock' the number of people currently living in absolute poverty<sup>1</sup> is approximately 1.3 billion and increases by approximately 47 per minute. These figures indicate not only the extent of poverty today but also the failures of earlier adopted large-scale poverty alleviation and development programs. In the midst, Grameen Bank of Bangladesh has achieved commendable successes both in banking with the poor and in reducing poverty through using microcredit in innovative ways. Following this, the microcredit approach<sup>2</sup> is now extensively in use world-wide as an effective tool for reducing poverty (Hulme and Moseley, 1996; Johnson and Rogaly, 1997; Microcredit Summit, 1997). A large number

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<sup>1</sup> Whose yearly incomes are no more than US\$370/-.

<sup>2</sup> According to the *Microcredit Summit 1997*, microcredit programs extend small loans to the poor people for self-employment projects that generate income, allowing them to care for themselves and their families. In most cases, microcredit programs offer a combination of services and resources to their clients in addition to credit for self-employment. These often include savings facilities, training, networking, and peer support. Microcredit is a powerful anti-poverty tool that has demonstrated relevance to people on six continents and in nearly every country. It is estimated that microcredit programs now reach something on the order of eight million very poor people in developing countries.



of the world's poor are now participating in the microcredit programs. The *Microcredit Summit 1997* ended with a commitment to reach 100 million poor families by the year 2005. (Karim, 1998:107-108) showed that, in Bangladesh, among hundreds of microcredit programs<sup>3</sup>, only ten large programs had about 10.5 million poor participants. This means these programs have already covered the entire poor<sup>4</sup> of Bangladesh. This extensive coverage indicates that poverty alleviation in Bangladesh now largely depends on the successes of these microcredit programs.

Just when much of the world's poverty alleviation depends on the successes of microcredit programs, it is revealed that increasing number of participants of microcredit programs are dropping out (ASA, 1996; Karim, 1998; Karim and Osada, 1998; Noponen, 1992). Examining the panel data of one branch of Grameen Bank Bangladesh, (Karim, 1998:174-175) found that as high as 42.8 percent of the participants had already been dropped out within the eighth year of membership. The proportion was found increasing every year. There is no policy of encouraging drop out from the program, even if any member comes out of poverty. Furthermore, most of these dropouts were found didn't come out of poverty (Karim, 1998: 245). Hence, these dropouts are actually those poor who have failed in the process of escaping from poverty. These increasing number of failed poor have already undermines the successes of the microcredit programs (Karim & Osada, 1998). Though microcredit-based poverty alleviation programs are rapidly increasing world-wide, so far, there is no systematic study on the problem of dropout except the study done by Karim and Osada. Their study, however, mainly focused on assessing the extent of the problem and its possible impacts on the program. They didn't present any systematic analysis of the reasons of dropout based on empirical data.

Every individual in developing countries lives in the family, the vital institution that underpinning these societies. The scholars have identified the family as important in poverty analysis. For example, (Lewis, 1968) mentioned the role of the family in reproduction of poverty. (Safilios-Rothschild, 1980) mentioned that the family adopts important strategies to overcome crisis. The family, however, hardly been considered in poverty studies or in poverty alleviation programs in developing countries (Safilios-Rothschild, 1980). Microcredit programs are not an exception of that. In this context, the present paper, for the first time, intends to study the problem of dropout from the microcredit programs within the perspective of the family theories. It assumes that, being a primary and vital social institution in developing societies, the family has an

<sup>3</sup> Hye (1996, pp.249-258) listed 151 voluntary organisations engaged in poverty alleviation in Bangladesh. 85 of those had microcredit component in their program. He also listed 20 projects under different government Ministries and Agencies were also working in poverty alleviation with Microcredit component. The fact is that, by now, the number of microcredit programs has increased significantly in Bangladesh.

<sup>4</sup> The proportion of rural and urban poor in Bangladesh was 47.9 percent and 44.4 percent respectively in 1996. The population of Bangladesh was 124 million in January 1997 and the proportion of urban population was 20 percent (GOB 1997). Considering these, the absolute number of rural and urban poor stands at approximately 47.5 million and 11.0 million respectively, together 58.5 million. As the average household size of Bangladesh is 5.6 the coverage of the above mentioned microcredit programs, in terms of population, stands at 59.2 million (see Karim, 1998, p.109).

important role in the success or failure of the participants of microcredit based poverty alleviation programs. For the purpose, the family life cycle approach to study of family (Hill & Hansen, 1960; Duvall, 1977; Rodgers, 1973) has been used to explain the dropout behaviour of the world's most successful and model microcredit based poverty alleviation program, the Grameen Bank Bangladesh.

The paper proceeds with a brief description of the Grameen Bank. This has been followed by construction of an appropriate family life cycle stage model for the Bangladeshi family and its implications in the process of success in poverty alleviation programs for the purpose of formulating a hypothesis of the study. In the following section, this hypothesis has been tested with the empirical data collected from one branch of Grameen Bank. In the final section a discussion of the implication of the study findings followed by conclusion have been presented.

### ***The Grameen Bank Program of Bangladesh***

The Grameen (rural) Bank of Bangladesh is a poverty-focused women's development Bank. It provides small credit, average about \$150/- (Yunus, 1997), in simple terms without any collateral and along with other socio-economic services<sup>5</sup> to the rural poor women of Bangladesh allowing them to increase their income through self-employment and coming out of poverty. Started by a University Professor, M. Yunus, in 1976, it turned as a full-pledged bank in 1983. It works at the grassroots level through organising the poor<sup>6</sup> into groups of five and centres consisting of six to eight groups. Group works as solidarity group for its members. It also works as social collateral for the individual member loans. This makes possible to extend credit facilities to the poor who never had access into formal credit sector as they lack physical collateral. Members need to participate in regular weekly meetings and other program activities. All loans are to be repaid by weekly instalments started from the second week of loan allotment. The group responsibility and instalment systems ensure the loan repayment. Grameen Bank's repayment rate is about 98 percent, highest in the world. A branch administers about 60 centres. Then Area, Zone and, finally the Head Office in Dhaka, supervise the operational activities of the program. Now, working with about 2.3 million participants<sup>7</sup> all over Bangladesh, Grameen Bank is the largest and most successful poverty alleviation program in the world. Its success has led to use the microcredit approach as an effective tool for poverty alleviation world-wide<sup>8</sup>.

### ***The Family Life Cycle***

The family life cycle is composed of several consecutive stages that a family passes from its beginning to the end. Hence, it starts with the marriage of a man and a woman

<sup>5</sup> These include training, education, health and family planning services, savings facilities, etc.

<sup>6</sup> Who's family having less than 0.5 acres of land, the principal means of production in rural Bangladesh.

<sup>7</sup> 94.7 percent of these participants are women.

<sup>8</sup> For detail description of the successes of Grameen Bank and, in general, microcredit programs see Amin, et al. (1994); Berger (1989); Ghai (1984); Goetz and Gupta (1996); Hashemi, et al. (1996); Hossain (1983, 1984, 1988<sup>a</sup>, 1988<sup>b</sup>); Hulme and Mosley (1996); Johnson and Rogaly (1997); Khandaker, Khalily and Khan (1995); Mizan (1994); Schuler and Hashemi (1996); Shehabuddin (1992); Rahman (1987, 1989, 1994); Rahman, et al. (1992).



and ends with the death/departure of either or both of the spouses. In this process, every family passes through some particular stages<sup>9</sup>. The family structure, composition, roles and relations of the family members and the relationship of the family with other social processes change as family passes each of these stages. It is proved useful to look into the changes in the family life cycle to understand the dynamics of family as an institution and its relation to other social processes (Duvall, 1977; Glick, 1947; Lansing & Kish, 1958).

Different scholars have developed and used different family life cycle stage models according to their own study design. In most cases marriage; birth, age and movement of the oldest child; and departure of both or either spouse have been used as the criteria for determining the family life cycle stages (Loomis, 1936; Glick, 1947, 1955; Duvall, 1977; Norton, 1983; Tuttle, 1989). Most family life cycle stage models were developed and used for the families in developed societies. Thus, some modifications in these models might be considered as imperative in case of using in a developing society like Bangladesh. (Tuttle, 1989: 271-272) used a seven-stage family life cycle model. These were: Stage-I, *Establishment*— families of husband and wife only, and the head 35 years of age; Stage-II, *Childbearing*— oldest child is less than six years of age; Stage-III, *School age*— oldest child 6-13 years of age; Stage-IV, *adolescent*— oldest child 14-17 years of age; Stage-V, *the young adult* at least one child 18-29 years of age; Stage-VI, *launching*— at least one child left the home within the last year; and Stage-VII, *post-parental*— all the children left home. Tuttle's model was used as the base in the present study. Necessary modifications were made to fit the model according to the Bangladesh society as followings. First, Tuttle's stages I & II were used as such in this study because definitions of these stages congruent the context of Bangladeshi families. Second, Tuttle's stages III & IV also congruent to Bangladeshi context in terms of age structure of the oldest child. However, as the children of Bangladeshi poor families of these age groups do useful household and productive works<sup>10</sup> rather than going to school, these stages were renamed as 'families with pre-adult children' and 'families with adult children' respectively. The latter category also incorporates Tuttle's stage-V. Third, most old age parents in rural Bangladesh live with one or more adult children, particularly son. Hence, it is difficult to identify the completion of launching stage and the family of empty nest in Bangladesh. Thus, Tuttle's stages six & seven are not applicable for Bangladeshi families. Based on the above discussion the following family life cycle stage-model was constructed and used in the present study:

Stage-I: *Establishment*— marriage to birth of 1st child

Stage-II: *Childbearing*— oldest child birth to less than six years of age

Stage-III: *Pre-adult children*— oldest child six to <13 years of age

Stage-IV: *Adult children*— oldest child 13 and above years of age

<sup>9</sup> Glick (1947) described the process as "Typically, a family comes into being when a couple is married. The family gains in size with the birth of each child. From the time when the last child is born until the first child leaves home, the family remains stable in size. As the children leaves home for employment or marriage, the size of the family shrinks gradually back to the original two persons. Eventually one and then the other of the parents die and the family cycle has come to an end" (p.164).

<sup>10</sup> Cain (1979, p.213) showed that Bangladeshi children begin useful household and productive works by age six and at the age 13+ work as long as or longer than adults.



### ***Implications of Family Life Cycle for Poverty Alleviation***

Scholars have successfully used the family life cycle to explain the poverty status of the family. As early as the beginning of the century, (Rowntree, 1906) found that poverty was associated with particular points in the family life cycle as the ratios of breadwinners to dependent changes throughout the family life cycle stages. (Loomis, 1936) found that the total amount of land farmed by the family, which determines its poverty level, fluctuates with the life cycle of the family. (Aldous & Hill, 1969) claimed that families are especially vulnerable to a loss of control over their future at certain stages of their development, for example, the childbearing phase and when their children become adolescents. As the poverty status of the family strongly related to the family life cycle stages, this may be in turn affect the poverty alleviation effort of the family<sup>11</sup>.

Family life cycle could affect the performance of the participants of poverty alleviation programs—in this case Grameen Bank. (Karim & Osada (1998) mentioned that two new roles emerge for the women through joining Grameen Bank program. These are *program participant*—since they didn't not participate in such program earlier and *income earner*—since they were not engaged in income earning activities earlier. These are additional to their traditional roles such as housekeeping, childbearing, etc., as in Bangladesh society male family members usually do not share women's traditional roles. Apart from the question of individual skill to perform, these new roles require extra time, labour and mobility for these women. These time, labour and mobility of women in Bangladesh society vary with the life cycle stage of the participants' family. For example, mobility of women in Bangladesh society is limited and changes with the life course. It increases with age or with having children, means increase in the family life cycle stage. Again, given the position of women in the family and in the society, it is imperative that the Grameen Bank participants need help of other family members both in their traditional roles as well as in investment activities taken by the Grameen Bank loans to get success in the program. It is already found that availability of women's time to do works other than household work and amount of family labour varies with the family life cycle stages (Glick, 1955; Karim, 1996; Krishnan, 1992; Waite, 1980). These indicate that stage of family life cycle of the participants could have important implications for the success of the participants of Grameen Bank. For example, participants from family life cycle stage II, who have young eldest child, may not be able to work or move outside the family compared to the participants of family life cycle stage III or IV, who have productive age eldest child. In the latter case the child may also help the participants in their traditional roles or in investment activities. Certainly these could cause differences in their successes in the program.

<sup>11</sup> It should be noted here that although the participants of the microcredit-based poverty alleviation programs, in this case Grameen Bank Bangladesh, are individual women all of them belong to the family and poverty alleviation efforts take place in the family as a unit.

***Reluctant Attempt to Refer Implications of Family Life Cycle in Poverty Alleviation***

I have already mentioned that poverty scholars in developing countries are little concern about the role of family in poverty alleviation. In the face of continuous failures of the numerous poverty alleviation programs some scholars, however, indicated the importance of family factors, such as family life cycle, without any elaboration<sup>12</sup>. Sometimes, the concept of 'life cycle' has been used with synonymous meaning to family life cycle<sup>13</sup>, as important for the poverty alleviation. For example, (Sharief & Wood (1997: 378) stated that lumps of capital at various stages of the family life cycle could affect the borrowers sustainability in microcredit programs. (Rahman, 1995, p.129), mentioned that 46 percent of the downward mobility pressures, which could interrupt the graduation process of the poor, constitutes by life-cycle factors<sup>14</sup>, such as loss of earning member or increase in the number of dependants,— meaning synonymous to family life cycle. These studies, although, clearly emphasised the importance of family life cycle to explain the success and failure of the participants, particularly women, in poverty alleviation programs, so far, there is no systematic study using the rich body of family life cycle theory in this regard. The present paper has examined the relationship between the family life cycle and poverty alleviation efforts of the poor by analysing the dropout problem of worlds most successful and model microcredit program, the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh. Based on the above theoretical discussion it was hypothesised that *'there is significant differences in the proportion of dropout between different family life cycle stages of the participants'*.

**II. Methodology**

To realise the study objective and to test the study hypothesis one branch of the Grameen Bank was purposively selected. The branch Parila Paba, situated in Rajshahi District of northern Bangladesh. Started in 1989 it had 2,639 female memberships<sup>15</sup> up to the end of 1996. Data about selected individual and family characteristics and 'membership status' up to the end of 1997 for all these memberships was planned to compile from the official records of Grameen Bank. However, data of 531, who took membership in 1989, were not found. Hence, 2108 memberships were considered. Among these 2108 memberships, 1905 (90.4 percent) were married. As the family life cycle is applicable to the married couples only, finally, this was the population of the study. According to the hypothesis of the study 'the family life cycle' was considered as independent variable while 'membership status'; divided into two categories, e.g., 'continuing' (considered as successful) and 'dropout' (considered as failures)<sup>16</sup>; as the

<sup>12</sup> For example, *Hamid(1995)* used life cycle to explain the women's move in and out of poverty with their age. She, however, explained little about why such movements occur.

<sup>13</sup> This might have happened due to lack of clear understanding about the concept of 'family life cycle'.

<sup>14</sup> Two other factors mentioned are 'crisis factors' and 'structural factors' constitute 37 percent and 17 percent respectively.

<sup>15</sup> It could be mentioned that the lone male centre of the branch cancelled in 1997. Thus the branch is a female one.

<sup>16</sup> It is already mentioned that most members are dropping out before coming out of poverty. Besides, there is also no policy in Grameen Bank to inspire its members to dropout, even after graduation (see *Karim and Osada 1998*).



have been compared.

### III. Findings

### 3.1. The Family Life Cycle Stages of the Grameen Bank Participants

into stage-two soon, through having.

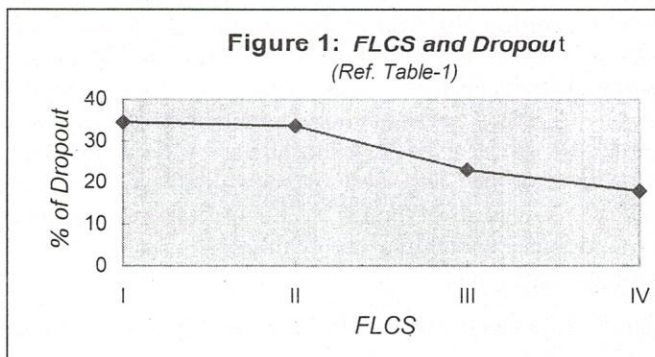
**Table 1: The Family Life Cycle Stages and Membership Status of GB Participants**

[illegible]



### 3.2. *The Family Life Cycle Stages and Dropout from Poverty Alleviation Program*

As explained by the hypothesis of the study, family life cycle stage is found strongly related to dropout or failure in Grameen Bank program. The direction of the relationship is negative, e.g., the proportion of dropout decreases with increase in the family life cycle stage (Table 1 & Graph 1). The high Chi-square value (39.56) and high significance level (0.00) with 3 degrees of freedom indicate very high differences in the proportion of dropouts among different family life cycle stages. Highest proportion (34.5%) of dropout participants is seen in the family life cycle stage-I. This has slightly decreased to 33.6% in stage-II. Then the proportion has declined largely to only 23.0% in stage-III and then again to the lowest to 17.9% in stage-IV. This constant decrease in the proportion of dropout with increase in the family life cycle stage establishes the negative relationship between family life cycle and dropout or failure in poverty alleviation program. However, the sharp decrease in the proportion of dropout from FLCS-II to FLCS-III and slight decrease between FLCS-I & II and FLCS-III & IV could be explained by the presence of productive (full or partly) age child in the family. According to the definition, the main difference between FLCS-I & II and FLCS-III & IV is the presence of productive age children in the family. The productive age children of the members of FLCS-III & IV may have been helping in income earning and household activities facilitating members in playing their roles and in investment activities causing their less dropout from the program.



The relationship between family life cycle and dropout has been analysed by controlling for some individual and family factors. Among the individual factors age is seen significantly related while the other two, i.e., education and members' involvement in income earning earlier were seen not significantly related with dropout (Table 2). It appears that education has no impact on success in the program. It might be caused by the fact that, in the present study sample, only 17% of the members had formal education and the level of education was extremely low, average only 0.86 years of schooling. This low level of education might have no practical implications for economic emancipation. It is seen that dropout happened slightly more among those who were involved in income earning activities earlier. The difference is, however, not statistically significant. It is likely that those who were involved in income earning

activities earlier would get more success in the program. The trend, however, is seen opposite. It appears that those who were involved in income earning activities might have left the program as they find better opportunity than that of the Grameen Bank. The other point need to be mention here is that the proportion of the participants involved in income earning activities was extremely low, only 42(2.2%). Among the family factors, i.e., number of member, land owned and income, are found significantly related with dropout (Table 3).

**Table 2: Relationship Between Some Selected Individual Variables and Dropout**

Variable	Category	Proportion of dropout	Chi-square value	Significance level
Age of the participant	≥ 25 years	31.9	19.72	0.00
	< 25 years	22.8		
Education of the participant	Illiterate	26.6	0.00	1.0
	Literate	26.6		
Participants' involvement in income earning activities	Not involved	26.5	0.99	0.32
	Involved	33.3		

**Table 3: Relationship between Some Selected Family Variables and Dropout**

Variable	Category	Proportion of dropout	Chi-square value	Significance
No. of family member	Up to 4	29.5	13.96	0.00
	5 +	21.6		
Land owned by the family (decimals)	≤ 10	28.9	4.22	0.04
	10 +	24.7		
Annual family income	≤ Tk.8,000/-	32.7	18.0	0.00
	Tk.8,000/- +	23.6		

The relationship between family life cycle and dropout has been examined for controlling these selected individual and family variables. For the purpose as the main difference in the proportion of dropout was seen between the FLCS-I & II and FLCS-III & IV, the four family life cycle stages have accordingly been re-grouped into two. The percentage of dropout and the Chi-square value with significance levels for each category of the controlled variables are presented in Table-4. In general, for all variables, it is seen that the proportions of dropout are higher for the earlier family life cycle stages, e.g., FLCS-I & II than for the higher stages, e.g., FLCS-III & IV. This supports the earlier findings of more dropouts among the participants of the earlier family life cycle stages. It is also seen that in all cases, except literate participants and involved in income earning earlier categories, the relationships between the family life cycle stages and dropout remains highly significant (in most cases the level of significance = 0.00).



**Table 4: chi-square Value and Significance Level by the Family Life Cycle**

Variables	Category	Percent of dropout		Chi-square value	Significance level
		FLCS I&II	FLCS III&IV		
Number of Family member	< 5	33.2	22.8	17.80	0.00
	≥ 5	57.9	20.6	12.86	0.00
Land owned (decimals)	< 18	34.2	21.5	21.39	0.00
	≥ 18	33.0	21.3	13.24	0.00
Income (Tk.) (\$1 = Tk.60/-)	< Tk. 8,000/-	41.8	28.2	25.59	0.00
	≥ Tk. 8,000 +	23.1	20.9	8.72	0.00
Age of the Participant	< 25 Years	35.0	20.0	13.16	0.00
	≥ 25 Years	29.3	21.7	4.74	0.03
Education of the participant	Illiterate	35.4	20.8	41.61	0.00
	Literate	27.7	25.5	0.21	0.65
Participants' involvement in income earning activities earlier	Not involved	33.8	21.1	37.82	0.00
	Involved	31.3	34.6	0.05	0.82

It is evident that among the variables controlled, Age of the participant, number of family members, land owned by the family and family incomes are found to be significantly related to dropout (Table 2 & 3). However, when the family life cycle is controlled these relationships have been well affected (Table 4). For example, age of the participant is found to be negatively related, i.e., higher the age lower the dropout. But when the family life cycle is controlled more dropout (21.7%) among older participants (25 and above years) than among younger women (<25 years, 20.0 percent) in the group of the FLCS-III & IV indicating that this relationship has been affected though the significance of the relationship between family life cycle and dropout remained significant. In the same way it is seen that, when the family life cycle is controlled, relationships between dropout and involvement in income earning earlier, number of family member and family incomes are also affected though the relationship between family life cycle and dropout remained significant except for the case of 'involved' category of the involvement in income earning earlier variable (Table 4). This might have been caused by smaller proportion of such involvement as explained earlier. These findings firmly establish the relationship between the family life cycle stage of the participants and dropout from Grumman Bank.

Finally, it is seen that among the dropout participants the duration of their stay in the program constantly increases with the increase in the stage of the family life cycle. This also supports the negative relationship between the family life cycle and dropout found in this study. The mean years of duration in the program for the dropped out participants of the family life cycle stage-I was 3.8, which increases to 4.1 years for the stage-II, further to 4.6 years for the stage-III and finally highest 4.8 years for the stage-IV (Table 5).

**Table 5: Mean Years of Duration of the Dropped out Participants**

FLCS	Duration in the program (Years)	
	Mean	Std. deviation
FLCS-I	3.83	1.95
FLCS-II	4.12	1.90
FLCS-III	4.62	2.03
FLCS-III	4.81	2.12
All Stages	4.34	2.00

#### IV. Discussion

The findings of this study suggest that the family life cycle stage of the participants be strongly and negatively related with the dropout from microcredit poverty alleviation program. The major difference was seen between the groups of the family life cycle stages I & II and III & IV. What makes this difference? Although it requires extensive study it may be assumed that, as both the groups are from same socio-economic background of the same community<sup>17</sup>, the difference might have been truly caused by the differences in the family life cycle stages. Two aspects could be discussed in this regard. *Firstly*, family situations and needs of the participants of different family life cycle stages are different and seems to be important, particularly those emerge through joining in poverty alleviation program. The major difference between the two family life cycle stage groups was the presence of productive age child in the family. Families of the life cycle stage group II & I had no productive age child in the family while families of the life cycle stage group III & IV had. It is also evident that participants of the latter group tend to be drop out less than the earlier. Hence, productive age children might have contributed to this difference. Productive age children in the families of the life cycle stage group III & IV might have helped the participants (their mother) in household as well as in investment activities which could have contributed to their less dropout. Such involvement of the children in income earning activities has other important implications. For example, education of the children might be hampered due to involvement in household and/or investment activities. This requires in-depth study with greater importance as, in the long run, it could hinder the real emancipation of the poor by depriving their children from education. Again, number of average family member is seen strongly and negatively related with dropout. It is also found that the average number of family member is higher among the FLCS group III & IV than FLCS group I & II (Table 6). As children take part in productive activities more family member means more labour power in the family. Thus, participants of the FLCS group III & IV, again, could have received help in investment and/or household activities that contributed to their fewer dropouts. On the other hand presence of young children<sup>18</sup> in

<sup>17</sup> These are essential pre-conditions of forming a group in the Grameen Bank program.

<sup>18</sup> As already stated, the duration of FLCS-I in Bangladesh society is very short due to the fact that women of this stage are likely to give birth soon after marriage and as such enter into FLCS-



the family could have contributed to more dropout among the participants of the FLCS group I & II, as they need more time for childcare and also lack necessary helping hand (labour) in the family for the purpose, hence, affecting their participation in the program adversely. Involvement of women in income earning activities raises the issue of child welfare too. In the developed countries working women get support in childcare from formal institutions? Such facilities are, however, totally absent in the developing countries. It is already found that rural poor working women face the problem of child care (Chen & Ghuznavi, 1977; Whyte & Whyte, 1982). In Philippines, (Popkin, 1978) found that women's involvement in income earning activities improves the total household welfare of the family but child welfare deteriorates. Thus, without ensuring the provision of child welfare facilities, bringing women of developing countries into the work force may prove to be counter-productive.

**Table 6: Means and Standard Deviations of Selected Variables**

Factors		FLCS I&II		FLCS III&IV	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age (years)	Continuing participants	21.7	3.3	29.3	5.1
	Dropout participants	21.4	2.9	28.6	4.5
Education	Continuing participants	1.2	2.5	0.6	1.7
	Dropout participants	0.9	2.1	0.7	1.7
No. of family members	Continuing participants	3.0	0.8	4.9	1.1
	Dropout participants	3.0	0.9	4.9	1.1
Land own (decimal)	Continuing participants	16.7	15.6	22.9	17.7
	Dropout participants	16.4	15.9	22.7	16.9
Yearly family income (Tk.)	Continuing participants	10363.9	4181.9	10858.1	4078.9
	Dropout participants	8855.6	2520.7	9927.0	2427.7
Duration (Yrs.)	Dropout participants	4.0	1.9	4.7	2.1

*Secondly*, the position of participants (women) in the family and society in relation to their family life cycle stages. Involvement in the program and income earning activities requires substantial mobility, which is severely restricted for women in Bangladesh society. This is particularly applicable for young women as mobility increases with age (Whyte & Whyte, 1982). The major factor in this regard is that seclusion of women prevents them from accessing to market an essential condition for any income generating activity. Hence, women are dependent on husbands or other male family members for marketing needs such as purchasing raw materials or selling produced goods. It is also evident that women are willingly (and are sometimes forced) giving the loans to their male relatives for investment because it is difficult for them to

2. The average (4.3 years) duration of the dropped out participants in the program indicates that dropouts happened after 1 year or more (*Table-5*) of the membership. Thus, the probability of having child within this time by the participants of FLCS-I, whose average age is 20.9 years, could be considered as almost certain. This is also found evident when 28 members, who were in the family life cycle stage-I at their entry into Grameen Bank, visited later. All except 3 of them were found in the family life cycle stage-II and family life cycle stage-III. Having children lessens their time for works other than household and may have contributed to dropout.

invest. In these ways, women may lose their control over the loan (Goetz & Gupta, 1996) though the loan repayment responsibility solely remains on her. Although, it is argued that even in case of men's control over women's loan women's status in the family increases, in case of bad relation with or bad investment and misuse of money by male relative(s), no doubt, women could face a dire economic hardship to repay the loan from their own capacity. Another factor need to be mentioned here is marital hazards, e.g., divorce and separation. Marital relation with husband is one of the most vulnerable aspects for the rural poor women of Bangladesh, which are also more prevalent among the young women. In the case of divorce or separation, women have no alternative but to return to their natal house. This causes her dismemberment from the program because the natal house, usually, far from husbands' villages and contrary to the continuation of membership in the program. So it is evident that events which may facilitate dropout, such as loss of control over loan; less mobility in the society; odds of marital hazards, are more common among the younger participants of poverty alleviation programs. Data in Table 6 clearly shows that participants of the family life cycle stage group I & II are much younger in age (average 21.6 years) compared to the participants of the family life cycle stage group III & IV (average 29.0 years). This may have contributed to more dropouts among the group of the family life cycle stages II & I.

## V. Conclusion and Policy Implications

Highly significant differences in dropout among the participants of different family life cycle stages, even during controlling for other factors, proved the hypothesis of the study that success or failure in poverty alleviation program is related to the participants' stage in the family life cycle. The findings of the study prove that the family, particularly the family life cycle stage, could be very useful in explaining the problem of poverty alleviation, which is, so far, ignored in the on going large scale poverty alleviation programs throughout the world, particularly in developing countries. To say more specifically, it may not unlikely that this might have been contributing significantly in the chronic failures of the poverty alleviation programs in developing world. It seems that more dropout among the participants of the earlier family life cycle stages is associated with the presence of young children in the family and lack of required labour in the family that could be helpful in household and/or investment activities taken with the loans. As it might not feasible to hire labour from outside for smaller projects taken by the smaller Grameen Bank loans, the participants might be advised to take less labour-intensive projects. Question of child welfare, emerges due to either the involvement of children in income earning and/or household activities or due to mothers' involvement in program and income earning activities, seem to be of vital importance. Provision of day care centre or like arrangements within the program or in the community could be useful in this regard. Participants of the earlier family life cycle stages could also be advised to delay in having children through adopting family planning. Participants of the earlier family life cycle stages, who are also younger in age, also lack required mobility for economic activities due to their position in the family and society. Home based productive activities could be helpful in this regard temporarily. However, in the long



run, this should be approached through changing the cultural practices of the society, which would be possible only through better education, and proper motivation of the male authorities in the family and society. Marital hazards and family conflicts are also found to be another factor contributing to more dropout among participants of the earlier family life cycle stages. Family counselling could play a vital role in this regard. But, at present, the Program Workers seem not having such knowledge at all. So, the Program Workers, who could be considered as 'Change Agents' here, should be properly trained up about the subject, so that they can use it during practice. In this study, continuing participants were considered as successful participants. However, it is also likely that there are differences in the rate of successes among these participants which, again, could be caused by the differences in the family factors, such as the family life cycle. Further study is required in this respect.

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## LEARNING FOR SKILLS FORMATION AND EMPLOYABILITY: A STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK FOR INFORMAL SECTOR IN BANGLADESH

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**Abstract:** The formal work environment has undergone a process of rapid transformation in the context of globalisation and technological change, leaving the majority of the workforce in the informal sector. The informalisation of the labour market with concurrent changes in the concept of employability risks exclusion from employment for those without appropriate skills. The process of skill formation for informal sector is further challenged by inadequate capacity of the formal sector institutions. The system, according to the paper, has to evolve from the perspective of learning for skills formation and employability, wherein education, training and the acquisition of core skills is seen as a major, if not the main, instrument available to individuals to improve their chances in labour market, indoctrinated by the principles of decent work.

### I INTRODUCTION

There has been a rapid informalisation of the labour market<sup>1</sup> due to depressed level of employment, increased job insecurity and displacement, growing risk of exclusion from employment for those without appropriate skills, highlighting the urgency of continuous acquisition of skills through training and education. The parallel changes in the concept of employability in an increasingly complex and uncertain labour market warrants modifications in job content, skill requirements and knowledge. Concurrently, the changed organisation of work, characterised by labour market flexibilisation including non-standard forms of employment and shorter product cycles, demands reorientation of education and training system for skill formation which had been based on stable labour market institutions including predictable job careers.

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<sup>1</sup> For example, the majority of jobs (about 500 million) in developing countries have been created in the informal sector (ILO, 1998)



In addition to cater to the demand for skill shifts in response to changes in economic regime and management the world over, the process of skill formation for informal sector is further challenged by inadequate capacity of the formal sector institutions and non-affordability of formal training by those who want to acquire skills. The traditional system is further restrained by its inability to reach the disadvantaged who mostly compose the informal sector and to reduce discrimination in access to training and education, failing their employability in the competitive labour markets in the new economic order.

Fundamentally, the system, therefore, has to evolve from the perspective of *learning for skills formation and employability*, wherein education, training and the acquisition of core skills is seen as a major, if not the main, instrument available to individuals to improve their chances in labour market, indoctrinated by the principles of decent work. In view of these far reaching developments, both enhancing the education and skill levels of workers and finding the most effective means of doing so are assuming central importance in economic, business and employment strategies worldwide. A global consensus is emerging that one of the keys to a productive and competitive economy in this millennium is a well-trained and adaptable workforce (ILO, 1999).

Like many other countries, the formal work environment in Bangladesh is undergoing a process of rapid transformation in the context of globalisation and technological change, leaving the majority of the workforce in the informal sector, composed of non-farm or off-farm rural subsistence activities and of work in family-run, urban micro-enterprises. The rapid expansion of informal sector is a resultant of the inability of the formal sector to generate adequate employment opportunities. In Bangladesh, the labour force is growing much faster than employment opportunities in the formal sector, and therefore, the problems of rising unemployment and underemployment remain high on the development agenda. Although the informal and modern economic sectors are closely interdependent and have many forward and backward linkages, the organised sector in Bangladesh has never provided a very large employment base. The formal sector employment has hardly grown in recent years. Most of the additional jobs which have accrued in the economy in recent years have been in the informal sector. According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) in its Labour Force Survey of 1995-96 (BBS 1996), as much as 87 percent of the country's work force (employed persons aged 15 years or above) are engaged in the private informal sector. The shares of the 'private formal sector' and the 'public autonomous sector' in employment are 8.8 percent and 4.2 percent respectively.

The government policy, arguably, has not paid adequate attention to the informal sector, the burgeoning of the sector has mainly been seen as a transient phenomenon which would eventually fade away or merge into mainstream of the economy. It was thought that the formal sector would witness a sizeable expansion with economic growth and that most of the surplus labour would be absorbed by it. Rather, in reality the informal sector has continued to grow, worsening employment and living conditions. Failure of this process can be attributed to the fact that access to opportunities opened up by growth is rarely equal in Bangladesh, where the

distribution of income and wealth is vastly unequal as evident by the rising gini coefficient. The capital and labour markets are far from 'perfect', and work very much to the detriment of the poorer sections of society. Access to education and training is highly inequitable and thus, the benefits of growth accrue disproportionately to the relatively well-off in the formal sector, let alone to the unorganised informal sector.

In sharp contrast to the earlier faith, it is now gradually being recognised that the informal sector has become a living reality embracing the vast segment of the labour force. It is of utmost importance that national policy on labour should rectify the bias against the informal sector which is emerging as a growing and also seen as a productive source of employment.

The changing concept of employability requires an innovative approach to education, training and skill development for the informal sector. The approach, nevertheless, has to be built to secure decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity.

This article seeks to provide an understanding on the issues and options involved in education, training and skill development for decent work in the informal sector of Bangladesh. The paper intends to suggest a policy framework which promotes improvements in the skills of the workforce, thereby enhancing worker employability, enterprise competitiveness and national growth, and collaboration amongst stakeholders - government, workers, private sector, NGOs. The paper analyses formal and non-formal training programmes provided by various agencies, with a view to identifying weaknesses and emerging needs of skill formation in the informal sector.

The study objectives are restrained by lack of data due to non-availability of studies carried out on skill formation in the informal sector in Bangladesh. The paper has to depend on the analysis of desk level information, and interviews of key informants. The paper is organised in four sections. In the Section II, the paper reviews relevant literature and documents to map out the state of informal sector in Bangladesh. Section III contains information relating to provisions for education, training and skills development for the sector, an assessment of impacts of traditional training outputs. The chapter IV puts forward a strategic framework on education, training and skills development for decent work in the informal sector by reconceptualising the role of education, skill development and training for the sector and by identifying modalities for better institutional design and capacity building.

## II. THE STATE OF INFORMAL SECTOR

One of the principal development challenges for Bangladesh is the creation of employment for new entrants into the labour force and a great many who are currently underemployed. The Labour Force Survey (1996) states that the country has nearly 56 million people in the labour force, of which 34.7 million (62%) are male and 21.3 million (38%) are female (BBS, 1996). The labour force is growing, at almost twice the rate of population growth. This relationship is likely to persist over



the next two decades or longer (World Bank, 1996). The decrease in population growth is more than offset by increased participation rates. The Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) forecast a 42.6% increase in the labour force between 1991 and 2005 for the entire population, with an increase of 31.7% for males and a 126.5% increase in female participation in the labour force. To meet the country's employment needs by 2020 (from the current 56 million to a projected need of 100 million), Bangladesh will have to create 2.25 million jobs every year (Mahmud, 1999).

The Labour Force Surveys since 1983/84 have shown open employment in the range of 1 to 3 percent. However, the unemployment rate rises to 16.5 percent if those who worked less than 15 hours per week are included (BBS, 1996). The rate of underemployment for aged 10 years and above, defined to include those who are working less than 35 hours per week is 34.6 percent. The rate is higher for rural areas (37.9%) than urban areas. At the same time, female unemployment (70.7%) is much more evident than its counterparts (12.4%). Unemployment and under-employment rates of population aged 15 years and over is nearly 40 percent of the reference labour force (Mahmud, 1999).

Labour market in Bangladesh constitutes of three types of market: *formal*, *rural informal* and *urban informal*. The formal market is operated under the legal framework that follows the presence of contractual employment relationships, labour laws and regulations and unions. Only about 30 percent of the labour force works under the legal formal labour market framework. On the other hand, protective labour regulations and unions do not cover the informal sectors, which dominate the labour market in Bangladesh.

### III. THE PROVISIONS OF SKILL DEVELOPMENT

One important characteristic of the labour force, which is of great concern, is that nearly 51 percent has no schooling and only a small fraction, 0.4 percent, has received vocational/technical/skills development training. According to Asian Productivity Organisation, the labour productivity indexes for agriculture and manufacturing have declined in recent years (from 100 in 1986 to about 60 in 1991). Nearly a third of the workforce in the sector have never been to school and half has only primary level education. The urban informal sector also shows lower productivity. A labour force with low levels of education and skills has obviously been one of the principle causes of low productivity in most sectors including the urban informal sector. The provision of education, training and skills development of the labour force can increase the labour productivity, economic growth and the increase of wages of the labours are inter-linked to each other. The present state of the informal sector in Bangladesh highly demands education, training and skills for decent work in the informal sector.

#### 3.1 Public Sector

The public sector training system is mainly administered by two ministries, the Ministry of Labour & Employment (MOLE) and the Ministry of Education (MOE). An inter-ministerial organisation called the National Council For Skill Development



and Training (NCSDT) was established in order to facilitate national policy co-ordination with respect to vocational training and education. MOLE, MOE and other ministries offering vocational training as well as labour union and other private agencies are represented on the NCSDT. The Bureau of Manpower and Employment and Training (BMET) of MOLE serves as the secretariat of NCSDT. In addition, Ministries of Women and Youth provides training for skill formation.

Under MOLE, vocational training is provided by 11 Technical Training Centres (TTCs) located in large urban areas and the Bangladesh Institute of Marine Technology (BIMT). Under MOE, vocational training is provided at 51 Vocational Training Institutes (VTIs), mostly located at various district and subdistrict levels, under the direct supervision of the Directorate of Technical Education. Of these, 4 VTIs are of larger size (with enrolment of about 200 each) located in larger district towns and the reminder with enrolment of about 80 each are located in semi urban areas.

Government initiatives in recent years include establishment of 13 new modern equipped VTIs to cover all 64 districts in the country. The 7 new institutions are in operation from the year 2000. They offer Secondary School Certificate (Vocational) and Higher Secondary Certificate (Vocational) courses under the Ministries of Education (MOE).

Under the Ministries of Youth & Sports, there exist 45 centres mostly located in urban and semi urban areas throughout the country which provide training in livestock, poultry, fisheries & basic computer courses. Approximately 1000 students are enrolled and passed out from 3/4 months duration training programme in every year from each institutes.

### ***The Bangladesh Technical Education Board Affiliated VTIs***

The VTIs offer instructions in curriculum areas authorised by the statutory accreditation organisation called the Bangladesh Technical Education Board (BTEB). The following are the curriculum areas authorised by the BTEB.

- |                         |                                      |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| • Automotive            | • Plumbing and Pipe Fitting          |
| • Electrical            | • Farm Machinery                     |
| • Weaving               | • Food Processing                    |
| • Agro-based Food       | • Building & Maintenance             |
| • Welding               | • Mechanics                          |
| • Carpentry             | • Radio & TV                         |
| • General Mechanics     | • Refrigeration and Air Conditioning |
| • Turner                | • Civil Construction                 |
| • Drafting (Mechanical) | • Dress Making and Tailoring         |
| • Drafting (Civil)      |                                      |

Different programmes have different grade requirements for admissions. Requirements for entry into the BTEB affiliated institutions are shown below. The minimum qualification for studying in the VTIs is grade VIII but in some courses like dress making, weaving etc., the qualifications have been lowered in the past. However, in general, it is said that many applicants are 'over qualified' i.e., they have completed grade X or even grade XII.

**Table 1: Courses, Duration and Entry Qualification in BTEB Affiliated Institutions**

Course	Duration	Entry Qualification
Diploma in Technical Education	1 Year	Diploma Engineering
Diploma in Engineering / Marine /Printing /Ceramic / Agriculture/Textiles/ Forestry	3 Year	SSC or equivalent
Diploma in Survey	1 Year	Survey Final
Diploma in Vocational in Education	1 Year	Certificate in Vocational Education
Certificate in Vocational Education	1 Year	Trade Certificate/ SSC equivalent
Diploma in Agriculture (Distance Education)	3 Year	SSC or equivalent (Science Group )
Higher Secondary Certificate (Business Management)	2 Year	SSC or equivalent
Higher Secondary Certificate (Vocational)	2 Year	SSC (Vocational )
Diploma in Commerce	2 Year	SSC or equivalent
Certificate in Secretarial Science	1Year	SSC or equivalent
Certificate in Leather Technology (Part- ii)	1 Year	Certificate in Leather Technology (Part-I)
Certificate in Leather Technology (Part-I)	1 Year	SSC or equivalent
Survey Final Certificate	1 Year	Aminship Certificate
Aminship Certificate	1 Year	SSC or equivalent
Secondary School Certificate (Vocational) /Textile	2 Year	Class-VIII Pass
National Skill Standard Grade-II Certificate	1 Year	NSS-III Certificate
National Skill Standard Grade-I Certificate	1 Year	Class-VIII Pass
Training Business Typing Certificate	6 Months	SSC or equivalent
Basic Trade Course	360 hrs	Class-VIII

Source: compiled from various documents

**Table 2: BTEB Affiliated Institutions and Responsible Agencies**

BTEB Affiliated Institutions	Total Centres	Responsible Agency/ Ministry
Technical Teachers Training College, Dhaka	1	Ministry of Education
Vocational Teachers Training Institute, Bogra	2	Ministry of Education
Polytechnical Institute	20	Ministry of Education
Bangladesh Institute of Marine Technology	1	Ministry of Labour and Employment
Institute of Glass & Ceramics	1	Ministry of Education
Graphics Arts Institute	1	Ministry of Education
Forest School	3	Ministry of Forestry
Agricultural Training Institute	11	Ministry of Agriculture.
Vocational Training Institute	51	Ministry of Education
Technical Training Centre	11	Ministry of Labour and Employment
Bangladesh Survey Institute	1	Ministry of Education
Engineering and Survey Institute	1	Local Government
District Textile Institute	1	Ministry of Textile.
Textile Training Centres	27	Ministry of Textile.

Sources: compiled from various documents



Under BTEB affiliated institutions, two levels of instruction is provided. Successful completion of the first year leads to National Skill Standard (NSS) III certificate. Students may then choose to enter the second year of instruction, leading to NSSII certificate. Each year is divided into 9 months of laboratory and class room instruction and 3 months of industry attachment.

Enrolment in each of the trades offered in VTI remained quite low in the earlier years as can be observed from the following table. This is also evident in the subjects offered as many of the trade courses did not match the local demand, and consequently enrolment remained low. This is more if the training performances of the institutions is compared with the intake capacity of the institutions.

**Table 3: Intake Capacity at Entry Point in the BTEB Institutions**

Course	Intake Capacity
Technical Education Diploma	120
Vocational Education Diploma	80
Vocational Teacher Education Certificate	120
Engineering Diploma	4420
Agriculture Diploma (Regular)	6000
Agriculture Diploma (Make-up)	6000
Marine Engineering Diploma	40
Glass & Ceramics Diploma	40
Forestry Diploma	35
Commerce Diploma	400
Survey Diploma	40
Textile Diploma	300
Survey Final Certificate	60
Aminship Certificate	80
Secretarial Science	40
HSC(Business Management)	4000
Secondary School Certificate (Vocational) Textile	540
Secondary School Certificate (Vocational)	9500
Basic Trade Certificate	30,000

Source: BTEB

Information on gender composition of trainees in VTIs shows a small participation of women in such training. Female students have been admitted in these programmes since the mid eighties. In January 1990, 2827 students were enrolled in Part I of the programme. Among them 71 were female, constituting only 2.5 percent of all students. Only two VTIs provide dormitory facilities for women (out of 51 VTIs) which are hardly used by women. Moreover the dropout rate is high among the female students, from the 71 admitted in January 1990, 18 females students dropped out by December.

### ***The Bureau of Manpower, Education and Training Run TTCs***

The Bureau of Manpower and Training (BMET) of MOLE runs 11 TTCs in the larger cities. The pattern of instruction is similar to that of VTIs. Like VTIs, each year is divided into 9 months of formal instruction and 3 months of trade related work experience.



The training performance of BMET during the Fourth Five Year Plan and during fiscal year 1995/96 to 1998/99 reveals that the apprenticeship training has been minimal and has not increased at the same rate although there has been sustained increase in institutional training over the plan periods.

The apprenticeship scheme has not been a successful one in Bangladesh. The number of trainees in a year varied widely and the maximum number was 555 in 1983. Since then the number has gone down considerably and in 1997/98 there were only 60 trainees attached to various establishments. In 1998/99, only 65 trainees were attached whereas the target was set at 1000. Initially the public sector parastatal organisations were able to accommodate a number of trainees under the Act. However, with gradual privatisation and slowing down of public sector initiatives the possible places for trainees are hard to find.

**Table 4: Performance of Skill Development Programme under MOLE**

Types of Training	1997/98		1998/99	
	Target	Actual	Target	Actual
Institutional Training	7,000	13,258	10,000	10,738
Apprenticeship Training	5,00	60	1,000	65
Language Training for Nurses	305	89	350	90
	7,805	13,407	11,350	10,893

Source: *Mid Term Review of the Fifth Five Year Plan (1997-2002)*.

*Planning Commission, December 2000*

Among the total students admitted from 1988/89 to 1993/94, about 7 percent were females. The male-female ratio of students improved slightly over the years. A survey of TTC trainees (NVTRP 1995) reveals that most of the female students of TTCs' had relatives in the BMET or TTC staff members (Rahman,2000), pointing to the fact that it has not been able to expand its reach.

### ***Ministry of Youth and Sports***

The 45 centres under the Ministry of Youth and Sports have targeted to provide skills development training in the area of livestock, poultry, fisheries and basic computer to 4,66,071 persons during 1997-1999. It is claimed that the centres have achieved 93 percent of their target.

**Table 5: Skill Development Programme under the Ministry of Youth (1997-1999)**

Organisation	Target	Implementation	Achievement
Ministry of Youth	466,071	432,142	93 %

Source: *Mid Term Review of the Fifth Five Year plan (1997-2002)*.

*Planning Commission, December 2000*

### **Ministry of Women Affairs**

During 1997 and 1999, two organisations under the Ministry of Women Affairs have provided women skill development programme in tailoring, embroidery, blocked boutique, painting, nakshi khata, food processing, jute works leather crafts and typing. The Jatiyo Mohila Sangstha has attained 87.70 percent of its target, and the Department of Women Affairs has captured 96.17 per cent of its target.

**Table 6: Women's Skill Development Programme (1997-1999)**

Organisation	Duration of Training	Target	Actual	Actual as % of Target
Jatiyo Mohila Sangstha	7 days	105	105	
	3 to 4 months	6000	5600	
	6 months	3000	2280	
<i>Sub total</i>		9105	7985	87.70
Department of Women Affairs	7 days	572	1,813	
	15 days	160,988	156,169	
	2 months	1071	1,071	
	3 months	18,600	15,312	
	4 months	4850	4,845	
	6 months	2113	1,772	
<i>Sub total</i>		188,687	181,456	96.17
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>197,792</b>	<b>189,441</b>	<b>95.78</b>

Source: *Mid Term Review of the Fifth Five Year plan (1997-2002)*,  
Planning Commission, December 2000

### **Strengths and Weaknesses of Public Sector Vocational Training System**

There exists a great mismatch between the demand for and supply of skill formation. The macro level performance of the formal system within Bangladesh is minimal. The outcome of technical/vocational education at the certificate level amounts to only 1.8 percent of the similar level graduates at SSC level, and the number of diploma technicians is only 1.4 percent of the HSC level graduates. Moreover, formal provision of training and vocational education is minuscule in relation to the informal ways the people actually become skilled. Only 0.4 percent of those in the labour force had any vocational/technical/commercial training. The formal training system account for only a small fraction of the occupational skills needed to be acquired each year.

### **Lack of Linkage with Job Market**

The important features of the public sector technical and vocational education are lack of sufficient linkages with employers and labour market. The main problem seems to be a lack of clear labour market connections. TTCs/VTIs cannot be made into good investments unless more of the graduates find employment in the fields in which they were trained (World Bank, 1990). Training institutions lack linkages with the local labour market surrounding the institution. This is caused by excessive centralisation and rigidity in the system. Financial controls are also inflexible and



institutional managers can not give incentives and rewards for teacher performance. In short, there is a lack of delegation of authority to the heads of training centres.

Employers complain that the public sector organisations are not quick enough to update curricula in short notice (i.e., introduce new courses, expand those in demand and reduce or close those for which demand has slackened) to compete with technological changes in enterprises (for example, TEB updates curricula in every five years). Polytechnics, in particular, were slow to integrate computers and instrumentation as integral parts of training in all fields.

Training institutions do not have the capacity to carry out occupational analyses of the skills in demand in the local area. There is no institutional flexibility for priority training to upgrade skills for those who are already employed in occupations, including skills in the non formal sector.

### *Underfinancing*

Technical vocational education and training involve more cost than general education because it requires more instructors per student and for practice in workshops. TVET requires money for equipment, in-service training and consumable supplies. Most of these necessary inputs are insufficient in public institutions at present.

Most VTIs, polytechnics and specialised degree programmes are imparted with outdated, obsolete and worn out equipment. The share of total revenue spending allocated to TVET declined by about 17 percent, from 2.4 percent in 1990/91 to 2.0 percent in 1996/97. It declined further to 1.5 percent in 1997/98. Capital investment in TVET virtually dried up in the 1990s (World Bank, 2000). Within the institutions students receive group training rather than individual training. Lesson plans and job sheets are rarely used in the training. Consequently, institutions can not properly impart the intended practical training.

The success of the public sector vocational training system can not be judged through the achievement of quantitative targets: the number of organisation in operation or the number of students who graduated. The success of such training has to be manifested in feeding a growing informal sector with appropriate skills. Moreover, the public sector institutions are providing training for formal sectors.

The formal training system suffers from system rigidity and inadequate flexibility in the courses or for lack of continuous revision of curriculum which is mostly in-demand for the informal sector. Such rigidity results in mismatch between the skill generation and skill utilisation. Removal of such rigidities will require appropriate linkage with the other sectors. There is no institutional process of dialogue with stakeholders - the employees and the employers. Moreover, the informal sector is not organised to have such dialogues. There is also no effective system in place to ensure the participation of employers and labour representatives in policy formulation and planning for skill generation.

## **3.2 Private Sector**

The private sector in Bangladesh also provides vocational training. However, the private sector initiatives have been of a non-institutional type, far short of meeting standards and thus, yet to join the mainstream of vocational training.



According to one estimate, there are about 159 private institutions offering various vocational training courses in the country (ADB 1995). The main objective of these private trade schools is to earn a profit without putting emphasis on standards. The growth of private trade schools in the country is primarily connected to the large scale export of skilled and semi-skilled manpower across the region but primarily in the Middle East. These types of schools offer non-formal and non-standard training of short duration, in most cases, have no standard facilities or qualified instructors. It is difficult to obtain accurate data on the number of trade schools or the type and quality of training. They are not required to register or affiliate with any training agency. They design their own training programmes and materials.

**Table 7: Private Vocational Training Centres Offering Courses**

Name of Trade	Duration of Courses	Enrolled in 1995
Electrical	2 years / 1 year / 6 months	854
Welding	3 years / 18 months/ 6 months	100
Radio/ TV	1 year/ 6 months	108
Refrigeration	6 months/3 months	113
Carpentry	4 years/2 years/18 months/6 months	162
Embroidering	2 years/1 year /6 months	576
Bamboo and Cane Works	2 years/1 years/6 months	482
Tailoring and Sewing	4 years/3 years/2 years/ 1 years/6 months	780
Electronics	3 months	45
Printing	1 year	28
Painting	3 years	10
Tinsmith	3 months	40
Motorcycle	6 months	26
Watch repair	6 months	24
Lath operator	2 years	31
Auto	1 year	10
Mechanic	6 months/3 months	32
Shallow Pump	6 months	30
Civil Drafting	6 months	7
Computer	6 months	20
Preparation of Sanitary Latrines	1 year	25
Cycle Rickshaw repair	1 year	10
Tape Recorder Repair	6 months	28
Photography	1 year	15
Commercial Art	1 year	11

Source: ADB (1995)

The training capacity is also difficult to determine. The training curricula varied widely from the traditional industrial subjects such as mechanics training and welding to driving. Trainees are charged a fee for training, and it is not uncommon to see trainees paying from Tk.3,000 to Tk.8,000 per month for private training courses.

Although, most training is of a few months duration, the length of training varies widely from few weeks to more than a year.

The Directorate of Technical Education (DTE), through its Office of the Director of Vocational Education, provides some financial support to small private vocational training institutes, which number around 157 in 1995 in the country. These vocational training institutes offer training in various trades. The most popular trades appear to be tailoring/sewing, embroidering and bamboo/cane works (for women) and electrical, welding, radio/television, refrigeration and carpentry (for men). The entry requirements to such courses vary widely. Total enrolment in these 157 institutes in 1995 was 3600.

A very recent development has been the establishment of 'export-oriented' training programmes instituted through joint collaboration with foreign companies who are willing to accept successful trainees as migrant workers. These programmes are run on full cost recovery basis and training is given in a narrow front. Successful trainees are given 'certificates' which are recognised by the foreign companies for employment in their own countries. Such joint venture training establishments are, however, not under the purview of BTEB for the usual NSS certification.

The private sector has initiated a little effort in providing education, training and skills development in the institutional shape. The BTEB affiliated institutes and their number in the private sector are given in the Table 8.

**Table 8: The BTEB Affiliated Institutes in the Private Sector**

Institutes	Number	Location
ITVET of Ahasanullah University of Science & Technology	1	Dhaka
Institutions Offering Diploma in Commerce	5	---
A. M. Vocational Training Institute	1	Dhaka
Secondary Schools Offering SSC (VOC)	11	2 in Dhaka 1 in Chittagong
Higher Secondary College Offering HSC (VOC)	6	1 in Dhaka
Women Career Training Institute	2	Dhaka

*Source: Various documents*

It is expected that in future the private sector will find it quite 'profitable' to provide vocational training. It is likely to expand in a pace that one can draw a parallel with the existing private sector general secondary education (GSE) capability which constitutes nearly 95% of the system. In such an eventuality, the government may consider providing support to private training institutions (as being provided to GSE now) as well.

### **3.3 NGO Training Activities**

Many NGOs have come forward to provide training for generating self-employment. Two types of NGOs are involved in imparting skill training: one category specialises in the training functions, for them the provision of other inputs is of



secondary importance; the other category includes NGOs whose major function is provision of credit, training being of secondary importance.

Within the first category, over 100 NGOs have taken initiatives in vocational training. Given the nature and intent of the NGOs, such programmes are directed at the poor. Statistical information regarding such programmes (school based or otherwise) is not available with any single authority. The Association of Development Agencies in Bangladesh (ADAB), which coordinates the activities of international and national NGOs, and the Association of Private Non-Profit Trade Schools (APNTS), which promotes the programmes of private trade schools (many owned by NGOs), also do not keep statistics needed for their report.

According to an ILO study, NGOs run 107 institutions which have provided training to 16,039 persons during 1991 to 1995 period (Table 9). In addition to the training NGO, many of the large multi-input NGOs provide micro-credit as well as various types of training.

**Table 9: NGO Training Institutes (Engineering Trade) and their Performance**

Trades	Number of Institutes	Capacity	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	Persons Trained
Automotive	10	8-16	118	123	160	190	150	741
Welding	20	8-75	341	335	381	385	355	1797
Carpentry	18	8-36	371	935	941	921	474	3642
Electrical	20	8-80	412	971	1103	1134	627	4247
Machinist	9	12-50	170	450	480	440	184	1724
Refrigerator & Aircondition	2	20-60	87	61	71	130	95	444
Radio/ TV	2	20-60	33	38	52	93	65	281
Turner	9	15-56	176	462	476	443	184	1741
Diesel Engine Mechanic	5	10-30	59	68	81	72	69	349
Plumber & Pipe Fitting	2	10-20	18	9	21	14	12	74
Metal Work	4	10-80	8	8	172	156	130	474
Masonry	3	10-24	32	32	30	33	47	174
General Mechanics	2	10-30	19	13	31	27	9	109
Farm Mechanics	3	10-38	44	63	64	56	15	242
Total			1888	3578	4063	4094	2416	16039

Source: Mahmud (1999)

An ILO commission study (Mahmud, 1999) has lauded the performance of two NGO training organizations: UCEP and Mirpur Agricultural Workshop and Training Programs through training centres located in three main cities which are also characterized by high industrial concentration. UCEP offer training courses in 14 different trades. UCEP closely monitors the employment and earning prospects of various skills. The ILO expert recommends that in view of the high quality of their infrastructures close linkage with industries and an informal labour market



information system, UCEP could be a good NGO to provide training to the retrenched workers. It also recommends MAWTS for such retraining. The prospect of involving UCEP for retraining should also be judged cautiously. UCEP provides training only to children in the age range of 10 to 14 years.

Within the second category of NGOs whose primary goal is other than training, provide training programmes on subjects in which they are active. These include training on agricultural production, eco-agriculture, legal aid, gender awareness, handicrafts etc. Most trainings are of general nature and do not address skill development adequately.

Organisations which provide quality training have limited capacity. For example MAWTS trains less than 100 workers a year. Training programmes of the credit NGOs are usually directed to rural areas and do not adequately target urban poor and those living just above the poverty threshold. These NGOs also only concentrate on their borrowers. Most training is conducted with poor materials. The course contents do not include all the essential ingredients. Inadequate physical facilities and lack of equipment along with poor quality of trainers with poor salary and job prospects result in poor quality of training. The duration of course is short, ranging from a few days to two/three weeks, resulting in shortage of skills needed to sustain and compete in the labour market. Fundamentally, training is often conducted without proper assessment of the demand for skills provided which often results in frustration not only among the trainees but also in the trainer institution.

### 3.4 The Traditional System

The traditional system in Bangladesh has served as a medium of skill transfer to informal sector workers. The trainee learns the skills by observing and assisting the 'master' (or as it is called '*ostad*' in the Bangladesh informal sector context). By observing the actual operation of the enterprise at close quarters and helping *ostad* in all kinds of work, the trainees learn how to produce a particular good and how to provide the services that go along.

The relation between the trainer and trainee is quite different from that in the formal system. The relationship can be potentially exploitative. Nevertheless, in Bangladesh, it is an institution that has successfully transferred skills over the years. It is an on-the-job, workplace based, hands-on instruction system. Its unstructured and improvised character makes it flexible and adaptable to immediate needs of the employers.

After completion of training, the graduate usually stays on at the workshop as a skilled worker until he/she eventually starts his/her own business. Informal apprenticeship therefore usually leads to self employment, whereas formal apprenticeship is usually for wage employment in formal sector firms.

Its major disadvantage is that it imparts a very narrow range of skills of variable quality with, in most cases, no defined standards and usually no access to supporting technical and social knowledge and skills. The major difficulties faced by this traditionally trained workers are adoption of basic modern technology. In the

traditional training system, the workers lack knowledge base of the machines, thus putting potential health and technical hazards.

### **3.5 Skills Development in Bangladesh: The Lessons Learned**

The sort of vocational training currently available from government, private sector and NGO sponsored institutions are far from the capacity needed to service the growing demand and always appears not to be very relevant in terms of curriculum, linkages with the enterprise and for whom the training is directed. These fall short of reflecting on the realities of the labour market and thus have not adequately matched the needs of the trainees. At the same time most training institutions do not have capacity or the mandate to reach out to people who work in the informal sector.

There is neither master plan nor comprehensive programme for skill formation catering to the needs of the informal sector. In most cases the training institutes have not been able to establish precisely who is to benefit and how to implement to benefit. In the absence of concrete policies as regards skill formation for the informal sector, a balance between training for school leavers who are prone to end up in the informal sector, and training for people who already work in micro-enterprises is far from observance in Bangladesh.

The analysis points to the lack of a training strategy for the informal sector which is designed on need analysis of the national labour market with the focus on informal sector workers. We are constrained by the lack of sharp picture of both the demand and supply side of the training system which may only allow to formulate precise reasons for intervening, to set priorities, such as based on equity considerations, to quantify objectives, and to specify resource implications. There is a strong need and urgency for investigation based on data collected through primary sources.

## **IV. SKILLS DEVELOPMENT: A STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK**

### **4.1 Reconceptualising Role of Education, Skills Development and Training**

#### **4.1.1 Modes of Skill Formation**

In Bangladesh, three modes of the delivery of skills training can be identified. First, the school mode provides a wide range of general, technical and vocational courses on a full time basis in vocational schools. Second, the dual mode encompassing apprenticeship programmes offering initial vocational training under the formal school system and part time training in enterprise or industry. Third, the mixed mode which resembles the dual mode but places greater emphasis on training in the non-formal sector.

The present system of delivery bears brunt of the colonial legacy<sup>2</sup>. Colonialised by the British, the skill formation in Bangladesh followed a form of an elitist approach, and completely overlooked the need of those who needed most. The only skills that were promoted were craft-related skills such as carpentry. One of the most damaging effects of colonial involvement had been in destroying indigenous

<sup>2</sup> See Singh (2001) for reflections on colonial legacy in Indian vocational education.



education patterns which had close links to technical and vocational learning and cultural practices of local people. Till today, the lack of emphasis on technical and industrial education emanating from the colonial legacy is transmitted through the western paradigms represented in the ideas of multilateral and bilateral donor agencies decisively dictating policy options in countries like Bangladesh. Most of the policies of the bilateral and multilateral donors followed the top down model ignoring to a great extent the local context and felt needs.

The prevailing delivery - the age old and traditional school-based teacher-centred approach - has not been able to be learner-centred. The system has not been adaptive to accept learning as a free-wheel exchange of ideas within a wider frame of flexible curriculum, and trainees are not given the opportunity to decide her/his own learning needs, time and medium of learning.

#### **4.1.2 Towards a New Framework for Skill Development**

If vocational training and education is to cater to informal labour markets, along with the formal one, it needs to capture the traditions and values of the sector and the society within which it operates. First, the training provision has to be *need based*: i.e. it has to be based on an understanding of the kinds of competencies people in the informal sector want in order to optimise their potential. Second, the training has to be *context specific*: i.e. it has to capture the socio-economic and cultural contexts within which people in the informal sector work. Often optimal outcome can not be obtained as vocational education and training are conceived from a narrow perspective of human capital. The human capital approach bases on the individualistic notion and ignores the wider social context within which much learning take place, as well as the relationships - personal and institutional - which actually constitute the vehicles or channels through which learning takes place. Third, the provision of skill formation has to embody *coping strategy*: how people in the informal sector cope in order to sustain their livelihood strategies. It is accentuated by the fact that the concern is not simply one of employment but also of attaining decent livelihood and right to work for all.

In a rapidly changing world, modes of education, training and skill development must integrate the process of technological change, required levels of skills and changes in organisation of work. There is little place for fragmented strategies. Emphasis needs to be laid on conceptual learning, technological literacy, cross-disciplinary relationships, worker flexibility and smooth transfer of skills.

The present relationship between skill formation and the labour market indicates that training has to be planned and monitored closely in related segments as it does not necessarily lead to related jobs for which the training is intended. It is important that training institutions and enterprises must work together and complement each others' efforts. The relationship between training institutions and jobs is complex and problematic. It can not be assumed that training will lead to related jobs nor those jobs needing specialised skills will be met by training programmes. Thus, the main issue is not one of diversification and vocationalisation, nor is the issue only an economic one (earning opportunities, better jobs), but one of how to integrate

science, technology and socio-technical reality of working life into the curriculum, and how to combine education with productive work (Corvalan, 1988)

What is urgently needed now is a broader view of education and training that would link schooling with work, i.e. the system has to evolve to provide people with opportunities for continuing acquisition of knowledge and skills. There has been much debate to compare the short-term and narrow skills development approach of the non formal sector and those of the long-term general skills development of the formal sector. Life-long continuing education now emerges as the main component of the broader view of education, training and skill development. The broader view bases on the premise that a system of skill formation is difficult, if not impossible, to be instituted without a solid educational base at foundation and basic levels.

General and vocational competencies are regarded as interrelated dimensions of vocational learning. Equally important are personal and social competencies. In addition to cognitive competencies there is a need for acquiring 'learning to learn' competencies. Of course, specialised skills and knowledge are needed; the issue is however one of the balance between them and wider forms of knowledge (Krug, 1999).

The broader view advocated by the present paper departs from school mode, dual mode and mixed mode and presents a cooperation based integrative system since learning is provided by a host of institutions at different levels - societal, formal and enterprise. Competencies are acquired and utilised in relation to societal institutions - family and community - in addition to educational, training institutes and enterprises. Modes of learning need to be developed in agreement with social partners as well as through improved co-operation between learning sites. Education and training institutions have to evolve to become client oriented centres of open learning for empowering trainees by playing the role of facilitators.

The education and training system must guarantee sufficient flexibility in the organisation of the curriculum. In view of the increase in occupational and geographical mobility, it is also necessary to promote the acquisition of language skills. There is also a need to introduce elements of modularisation in learning. The system must be so structured as to allow transparency, diversity and flexibility.

#### ***4.1.3 Inter-linking Formal, Non-formal and Informal Learning***

The envisaged system of skill formation demands the recognition of formal, non-formal and informal learning as equally valuable medium of the overall vocational learning process. While basic and primary-school education is necessary for promoting cognitive competencies, non-formal basic education can be an alternative instrument to transmit competencies linked to economic activities. Studies have indicated that non-formal training programmes for the informal sector, including trade courses, survival training, apprentice training and other training measures within the framework of community development might be useful in the informal economy. The non-formal training programmes, nevertheless, should contain modules of basic and foundation levels. It is important to recognise informal learning experiences in the family and community and relate with learning domains.



#### **4.1.4 Diversification of Training System**

With the expansion of the informal economy, it is necessary that vocational training institutions reflect economic opportunities and respond to the competency requirements of the majority of the labour force, and undergo diversification to suit the needs of the expanded clientele. This requires restructuring in terms of the subject matter and re-designing of the learning processes. Diversification also implies promotion of self-employment by tying learning processes with opportunities that help gain competencies and income benefit.

An inverse relationship between the employment potential and level of competencies is found in the informal sector, and a growing number of self-employment is losing out in competition due to lack of facilities needed to edge out. As the informal and formal labour markets are linked through forward and backward linkages, curriculum development has to be conducted on a system-wide rather than a segmented basis, and the training should be diversified to promote work-based learning.

### **4.2 Institutional Design and Capacity Building**

#### **4.2.1 Role of the Public Sector**

The Constitution of Bangladesh provides for not only education as a basic right for her citizens, but also calls for 'relating education to the needs of the society and producing properly trained and motivated citizens to serve those needs'. The World Declaration of Education for All promoted 'an expanded vision' going beyond literacy and numeracy.

In addition to the pledges in the Constitution and World Declarations, there is a need for effective role of the state in terms of engagement and promotion. The public intervention is accentuated from the reality of 'market failure' which is much pronounced in the developing countries due to conflict over the distribution of the costs and benefits of training since individual often lacks finance to invest in an asset over which they have little control. In countries like Bangladesh, there is a strong case for government financing of skill formation especially in case of informal sector, the employers of the sector are rarely in a position to finance the large fixed costs associated with training.

#### *Strategic Elements of an Integrated Skill Development Programme*

There is a strong need for balance between the capacity of existing trades and teaching staff, and new emerging trades for efficient and effective utilisation of the training institutions. System of skill upgradation programme at the plant level should be developed in a way which ensures sustained improvement of enterprise productivity. This will ensure the quality of occupational competency and Bangladesh will benefit from sustained availability of qualified supply of labour force.

There is no standard recipe towards improving conditions of the informal sector. However, appropriate programmes may be designed by drawing general lessons from experience in a variety of countries, in particular looking at the best practices.

**Social Accord:** Before developing a training strategy for informal sector enterprises, it is important to reach a consensus amongst the stakeholders about the share of responsibility, priorities, targeting, use of resources and partnership etc.

**Equity Oriented Targeting:** The system of targeting has to be based on equity grounds, favouring over measures aimed at 'picking a few winners'; offering training courses to them who need most.

**Participatory Governance:** It is now widely recognised that ownership matters and so does the effectiveness of training increase as and when clients are involved in making decisions which affect them. Equally important is the case for exploration of decentralising public provision including the devolution of control over budgets to training managers. It is also important that programme implementers are encapacitated with room for manoeuvre and to carry out experiment, for example as regards training contents and methodology.

**Flexibilisation of the System:** There is no denying the fact to try and make training systems and their products more flexible than what is usually the case, especially it is desirable to keep in mind the future skill requirements.

**Gradualism:** The basic approach to systemic reform is to be crafted to pursue gradual changes in existing structures and procedures than wholesale change. There should be ample opportunity for evaluation and for adjustments as appropriate.

**Area of Coverage:** The present system has to be reoriented to go well beyond typical, government-sponsored, two-or three year programmes to include, among others, the school leavers. Therefore, related concepts notably that of trainee and trainer should be defined accordingly.

**Access to Complementarities:** Training is by no means self-serving. For training to achieve its desired result in the informal sector, training for work in micro-enterprises should be complemented by before - and after-training services, such as vocational guidance and trouble shooting in respect of access to credit, market or access to technology.

#### 4.2.2 Role of the Private Sector

The private sector provides for traditional skill development without institutional framework in many areas of urban informal sector. These activities in the private sector can be institutionalised. The owners of the informal sector or their association can establish training institutes for the skill development of the workers, which will play a prime role in enhancing productivity.

The private sector can seek support from the government including credit facilities and logistics. The tax exemption for the private sector investment in this regard can be considered. The capacity building includes set up of new institutes to upgrade curriculum, intake capacity and increase the level of skills of the instructors and strengthen the industrial and market attachment.



### **4.2.3 Reorientation of Curriculum**

#### *Vocationalising the School Curriculum*

The National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) offers general curriculum for SSC & HSC. The curriculum emphasised mainly on building foundation for higher studies in various discipline. The school curriculum can include various vocational courses as compulsory or optional. This way the students can get some skill in various engineering or non-engineering trades. Many students of the country have now not been able to get higher studies in universities and colleges. So vocationalising the school curriculum may create job opportunity for the drop out students. The NCTB can consider the proposal of vocationalising the school curriculum for the skill development of the workers in the urban informal sector in Bangladesh. This may help formal and informal sector workers to get education at a minimum cost as the existing school and college infrastructure can be used for the purpose. This will not only benefit the drop out students but also create good opportunity for enhancing the job related or market oriented competencies of the labour forces.

#### *Matching the Market Demand*

There is a direct correlation between the quality of trained workers and the implementation of productivity improvement programmes. Relevant productivity related subjects should be incorporated in the curricula of the VTIs /TTCs. Efforts should be made for conducting productivity -biased on-the-job training programmes. The course curricula of the training institutes should be designed in a way that they are flexible enough to respond to the changed situation of the market. Practical and need based training should be strengthened.

It is evident that achieving an occupational match will increase productivity and returns. Development of a comprehensive labour market information system would be a positive measure in resolving the problem.

#### *Use of Communication and Information Technology*

The information and communication technology can play an important role in promoting the provision of training, education and skill development for decent work in the informal sector. Although the IT sector is recognised as a thrust sector its substantive development has not yet been attained.

### **4.2.4 Affirmative Action for Women Participation**

Nearly 50% of the population in Bangladesh are women. But the women participation in economic value addition is yet low. Many unorganised enterprises and engineering workshops have hardly women participation. During the last few years employment as "sales workers" has grown more than 10 percent and this has occurred largely among female workers, though the number of professional and technical workers has grown by 5 percent and here too female labour dominates the growth pattern. Although there exists some provisions of training for female workers in the TTCs & VTIs in the public sector, the gender disparity is very high.

The female labour force participation underscores a significant need for integration of females into formal skills training programmes that will enable them to make significant inroads into active and meaningful labour force participation. There is a need for effective intervention to support skill development for women workers in non-standard forms of works. Financial assistance such as subsidised loan as well as opening of specialised training institutes for women can enable them to edge out the problems of gender segregation. There is a need for affirmative and equal opportunity programmes as well as promulgation of anti-discrimination laws for overcoming employer practices that exclude women for equal access to training.

### 4.3 Forging Strategic Partnerships

Partnership and cooperation amongst the key stakeholders are the pre-requisite condition for the qualitative and quantitative development of education, training and skills for decent work in the informal sector. Although the informal sector enterprise exists outside government regulations and not registered with authorities, there has been an inter-linkage between the formal and informal sector. The government has to play the central role to increase the economic potentiality of the informal sector enterprise by providing sufficient provision on education, training and skill development for decent work.

The government can play an effective role in the field of resource mobilisation. The government can create fund to provide sufficient credit facilities for the development of education and training for decent work in the informal sector. Interest free loan or nominal interest bearing credit can be allocated by the government for education, training and skill development purpose, which can encourage the informal sector entrepreneurs to invest in skill formation. The financial institutes like Employment Bank can service the demand in this regard. However, government's own efforts in this regard may seem not quite enough due to resource constraints. Herein development partners can come forward.

Such strategic partnership has several important advantages. First, it relates to incentives - employers' associations, trade unions and NGOs all have incentives to use their influence. The involvement of multi-stakeholders constitutes a powerful counterforce to market failure in training. A purely administrative approach can not mobilise such pressures. The NGOs including community based organisation can play a pivotal role in such alliance since the employers of the informal sector are rarely in a position to finance the large fixed costs associated with training. Second advantage relates to commitment - the influence of employers' associations and trade unions over the multi-stakeholder arrangements provides a potentially valuable source of increased commitment, particularly by employers, to training goals which they might try to evade under a purely administrative approach. Third advantage is of support services -- employers associations and trade unions provide potentially valuable training-related services including apprenticeship arrangement.



# Note

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## **WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOURERS AND THEIR VULNERABLE SIBLINGS IN BANGLADESH: A STUDY ON INTERVENTIONS**

M Zulfiquar Ali Islam\*

**Abstract:** The paper identifies the worst forms of child labourers in match industries and their vulnerable younger siblings. It depicts on their socio-demographic profile and attempts to find out the reasons due to what the parents are impelled to send their children to workplace of match industries in Dhaka as well. The paper enthusiastically tries to show how the detrimental affects of hazardous match producing activities divest the children from their proper socialisation rights and opportunities and furthermore dragoon them into the duties of early adulthood. Also it plans for preventing their vulnerable younger siblings from the involvement with hazardous and exploitative environment of child labour in Bangladesh through the potential interventions which may be adopted by other policy planners and implementers and development agencies.

### **I. Introduction**

The socialisation renders the human savage into a socially and culturally sound member of human society. The complete socialisation involves specific roles and statuses in each stages of life cycle. This proper way to be expecting social being may be distorted by some sort of cultural, social, and economic impediments. Because of such impediments the children have to be deprived of enjoying some stages of their life cycle and consequently, they are impelled to be socially and mentally immature. The worst form of child labour in match production is such an impediment that may offer them lower status in the social hierarchy in comparison with their child counterparts provided with proper socialisation support system.

The child labour situation throughout the world is nowadays the most striking and alarming phenomenon. It is disappointing but the fact that the under-aged children are impelled to participate in multifarious income earning activities. Although, the child labour is legally restricted in many countries of the world yet, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) estimated that there were about 40 million children below 15 years who were engaged in paid employment in 1985. In spite of repeated penalties declared by many nations, the number still remained at 34 million until 1988 (see Jomo 1992). A recent ILO survey indicated that 73 million world's children are employed equivalent to 13 percent of those aged 10 to 14, which is

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another example of this issue (see ILO 1996). As we come to accept the fact that there are millions of under aged children who are employed as potential labour force throughout the world, the imposition of laws could not, however, control the family employment when people find it as easy means to circumvent of the regulations. It is therefore quite likely that the participation of the children from the low-income families in both domestic and production sectors will continue to increase in future. And there is no doubt that this sort of patronisation of child labour must have some detrimental effect on children's schooling and also on their total socialisation in the long run.

The proper socialisation of children and the development of their potentialities claim an environmentally sound habitat. Such habitat may provide the children with the opportunities and privileges for becoming the active and skilled member of the society. It is noteworthy that the factors that are liable for the children's vulnerability must be identified. Accordingly, the senior and responsible members of the society must prevent and eliminate those factors for ensuring the proper development of the children's potentialities. But the fact is that the level of awareness on this crucial issue is surprisingly disappointing in Bangladesh. It is to be noted here that the ILO has already started to launch various action programs in a planned way to prevent and to eliminate the child labour throughout the world with the collaborative efforts of its member states, constituents and other national stakeholders. This paper is based on the findings of an action research<sup>1</sup> in Bangladesh of the USDOL Worst Forms of Child Labour Project launched by the International Programmes on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) of the ILO.

## **II. Child Labour Situation in Bangladesh**

A preponderant majority of the population of Bangladesh has to confront with the hardship in their daily life. It is nothing but the regular scene of the cities of Bangladesh. Since this situation is associated with high rate of illiteracy and economic hardship, the parents do not have any awareness and capability as well up to the mark to socialise their children in the expecting ways. Their prodigious need impels them to employ their children's potentialities in economic activities (Islam 1995, 1997). Consequently, it prevents their children from receiving schooling. It is because that the parents cannot minimise the gap between their very low and often irregular income and expenditure for their daily requirements. It is surprising but fact that they have to allocate their total income for satisfying their daily food requirements. Islam (1995) found in his study villages of north-western Bangladesh that the household heads spend more than 93 percent of their total daily income on daily food (for similar evidence, see Sadeque 1990). It is notable that our average Bangladeshi household deserves the economic standing for spending its less than 1 percent of the total income on health and education (GPRB 1992). Such odd situation compels them to engage their children in paid and/or unpaid domestic activities and also in works for emolument in various large- or small-scale industries in Dhaka and Narayanganj cities.

The large army of children in the labour force indicates an odd feature of the job market in Bangladesh. The 1995-96 Labour Force Survey identified 6.6 million children of the country in its labour force. They constituted 19 percent of the total children (less than 3.5 crores) of 5 to 14 years old (BBS 1996a) and they are nearly 12 (11.79%) percent of the total labour force of 56 million (BBS 1996b). It is known that the high population growth rates, high dependency ratio, chronic rural poverty, increasing migration to urban areas, and the like intensify this alarming condition every year. It is a generally increasing trend in the child participation in urban job market.

A considerable size of children in Bangladesh is compelled to work under hazardous, exploitative, and vulnerable environment. This adverse environment destroys their potentialities and consequently prevents them from being educated and skilled member of the society. A characteristic mark of the child labour situation of the study *thanas*<sup>2</sup> of Dhaka and Narayanganj is that a considerable proportion of children are working at the match factories, *viz.*, Dhaka Match Industries, Uzala Match Factory, R.K. Industries 2, and Jalalabad Match Industries. They assist their parents and/or other senior match workers at the factories. They work in almost every sector of the match producing mechanism. They sell their labour for lower wages in carrying wood garbage, pulling the trays of sliced wood for match boxes and sticks, preparing and collecting wooden match boxes and sticks, filling match sticks in boxes and packing match boxes and cartoons as well. It is notable here that the researcher observed as far that a few number of children also work in the risky and hazardous section of chemical preparation. The unhygienic, smelly, smoky, and fire-prone environment of match industries creates health hazards and the child workers are more vulnerable to such hazardous conditions. Because of the parents' ignorance and economic hardship, they are compelled to work at this hazardous place. Their involvement in selling manual labour for emolument dissociates them from receiving schooling. At this stage of life cycle, the children should be enrolled in formal education for the development of their potentialities. It is the usually desirable child involvement for their proper socialisation.

### III. Conceptual Framework

The wide variation is usually found in the conceptualisation of the terms 'child' and 'child labour'. These concepts diverge from time to time, from country to country, and even from one activity to another within the same country and also they vary on the biological age of the labourer. Furthermore, Boyden, Ling and Myers (1998:19) asserted the fact that "the venerable term 'child labour' has over the years lost its original connotation of regular, toilsome, low-skilled paid work, and is now so thoroughly confused with the broader notion of child work that it is no longer useful in precise discussion." These concepts involve critical debate among the scholars and policy planners and implementers. In this alarming situation, the action research organised by the ILO-Bangladesh has independently framed operational definitions of some key concepts which are frequently used in this paper. The concept 'child' usually indicates the human being who is an innocent, protected and dependent one. But this paper concerns the children aged between 5 to 17 years who work in the



match industries in the Dhaka City. They may not be innocent as their characteristic mark of 'child' designates, not be protected as their parents are economically and intellectually incapable to protect them, and also not to be dependent as they have to understand their own problems and to solve those.

As all the match-producing activities directly attack the child workers with its poisonous and smelly essence, all these match-producing activities at the industry premises are considered as the worst forms of child labour here. The long span of involvement with such risky activities causes health hazards to the child workers aged between 5 to 17 years. The cash earning by them reduces their dependency on parents and consequently, they start to be disobedient and involved in various deviant social activities. In respect of health and social status, the child labour in match factory causes hazards to the child workers and their families and also to their social environment. The vulnerable group to this worst group of child workers consists of the child match workers' younger siblings of below 5 years old who do not do any job of the match production.

#### **IV. Study Area and Data Sources**

The ILO-Bangladesh has selected four match industries, *viz.*, Dhaka Match Industries, Uzala Match Factory, R.K. Industries 2, and Jalalabad Match Industries, in Dhaka City for exploring the child labour situation and then for implementing their interventions in order to withdraw child workers from these industries. This paper based on an action research report prepared by the author and the research was sponsored and designed by the ILO-Bangladesh in 2001.

The child labourers are identified at the premises of 4 match industries in the Dhaka City at first and then a household-level baseline survey is conducted in 69 localities of Keraniganj, Shyampur, Sutrapur Thanas of Dhaka District and Fatullah Thana of Narayanganj District. The households (N=611) of child labourers (N=855) working in the match industries are considered as the appropriate units of analysis. The household heads are interviewed directly for collecting data required. In some cases, the absentee household head is replaced by any of the adult and responsible members of that household. This research conducted at least 10 percent of the households surveyed earlier as samples. In addition to two-tier survey, the employers and/or their managerial personnel of each match industry and the trade union leaders are interviewed. A total of 7 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) is conducted with the community members of child match workers. This paper confines its focus on the findings of informal interviews with the stakeholders and FGDs only.

#### **V. Demographic Structure of the Child Match Labourers**

The demographic composition of a population indicates its age groups, sex differentials, sex ratio, and also its distribution on the basis of any socio-economic variables. The working children are dependent but potential proportion of the total population. The membership of specific age group involves the specific social roles and statuses in social hierarchy. As a matter of fact, the senior members of society have to socialise their generation in the way they expect.

It is empirically identified that the preponderant majority (55.20%) of child match labourers work in Dhaka Match Industries (Table 1). Among them, the female workers (56.14%; n=265 of 472) are more than their male counterparts (43.86%; n=207 of 472). The following proportions of them are found in R.K. Industries 2 (21.29%), Uzala Match Factory (19.30%), and Jalalabad Match industries (4.21%).

**Table 1: Child Match Labourers and Their Households by Match Industries**

Match Industries	Child Match Labourers		Households	
	n	%	n	%
Dhaka Match Industries	472	55.20	289	47.30
R.K. Industries 2	182	21.29	156	25.53
Uzala Match Factory	165	19.30	134	21.93
Jalalabad Match Industries	36	4.21	32	5.24
<b>Total</b>	<b>855</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>611</b>	<b>100</b>

More than 47 percent households provide child match labourers with Dhaka Match Industries. The child match labourers of R.K. Industries 2 are the members of 156 (25.53%) households. This industry is followed by Uzala Match Factory (21.93%), and Jalalabad Match Industries (5.24%).

The empirical data indicate that the preponderant majority of the child match workers belong to the age group of  $\geq 5$  to  $\leq 12$ . The age group of  $\geq 5$  to  $\leq 12$  comprises the highest proportion (47.84%; n=409 of 855) of the total child labour force in the match factories (Table 2). This is followed by the age groups of  $\geq 13$  to  $\leq 14$  (29.94%; n=256 of 855), and  $\geq 15$  to  $\leq 17$  (22.22%; n=190 of 855). The vulnerable younger siblings of worst forms of child match labourers are 137 in number. This group consists of 51.82 percent male and 48.16 percent female.

The highest proportion of female child workers is found in the age group of  $\geq 5$  to  $\leq 12$ . They constitute 50.12 percent of their age group and it is slightly higher than their male counterparts. Also they are 47.90 percent of the total female labour force (N=428). In respect of district level distribution, the same findings are evident in Dhaka and Narayanganj districts as well. It is noteworthy that nearly 90 percent (n=769 of 855) child match labourers are dwelling in Dhaka District and the rest of them (10.06%; n=86 of 855) are residing in Narayanganj District. The male child match labourers (50.46%) are the majority in number in comparison with their female counterparts (49.54%) in Dhaka District while the female child match labourers (54.65%) are the majority in Narayanganj District.

The child match labourers of Dhaka District are originated from 543 (88.87%) households and their co-workers are the members of 68 (11.13%) households located in Narayanganj District. The calculation indicates that the ratio of household and child match labourer is 1:1.40. In this respect, the ratio status of Dhaka (1:1.42) is slightly higher than that of Narayanganj (1:1.26). The ratio statuses of both districts are slightly lower than the grand total ratio.



**Table 2: Demographic Distribution of the Worst Forms of Child Labourers**

Worst Forms of Child Match Labourers	District	Age Group	Male		Female		Total	Household		CML / HH
			n	%	n	%		n	%	
Dhaka		≥5 - <12	185	49.60	188	50.40	373			
		≥13 - <14	118	51.53	111	48.47	229			
		≥15 - <17	85	50.90	82	49.10	167			
		<b>Total</b>	<b>388</b>	<b>50.46</b>	<b>381</b>	<b>49.54</b>	<b>769</b>			
N'ganj		≥5 - <12	19	52.78	17	47.22	36			
		≥13 - <14	12	44.44	15	55.56	27			
		≥15 - <17	8	34.78	15	65.22	23			
		<b>Total</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>45.35</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>54.65</b>	<b>86</b>			
Grand Total		≥5 - <12	204	49.88	205	50.12	409			
		≥13 - <14	130	50.78	126	49.22	256			
		≥15 - <17	93	48.95	97	51.05	190			
		<b>Total</b>	<b>427</b>	<b>49.94</b>	<b>428</b>	<b>50.06</b>	<b>855</b>			
VYS	Up to <5		71	51.82	66	48.16	137	611	100	0.22

Note: C ML/HH indicates Child Match Labourers per household.

VYS indicates Vulnerable Younger Siblings.

## VI. Daily Match Producing Output and Income

The child match labourers are not registered and regular workers of the study match industries. They are contracted to work in match industries by the registered and regular labourers and/or other contractors appointed by the industry authority. There are three types of labourers here. They are permanent, shifting, and contracted labourers. The first ones are registered and are paid according to the national pay scale. The labourers of second category work in two shifts in a day. The first shift starts at 0600 hours and ends at 1400 hours and the span of second one is 1400 to 2000 hours. One shifting labourer may work in both shifts. The wage for each shift is \$37.00. The contracted labourers work here on the basis on their contract with contractors. They are paid \$2.25 for 1 unit (144 matchboxes) of match production. It is found that more than 98 percent child match labourers do the job of filling matchsticks into wooden matchboxes. They are not obliged to meet any quota in respect of time and work as well and thus they are paid on the basis of the unit of their production output only. In paying, these contracted labourers, the working hour is not considered. The permanent and shifting labourers are directly appointed by the industry authority but the contracted labourers have no direct communication with the owners.

A child match labourer can produce 66.92 unit wooden matchsticks daily on an average (Table 3). In this job, the female child (77.50 units) can produce considerably more units than their male co-workers (56.33 units). The labourers of ≥5 to <12 (75.75 units) are more efficient in producing wooden matchsticks than those of ≥13 to <14 (67.50 units) and of ≥15 to <17 (57.50 units). The average daily match producing output in filling matchsticks into wooden boxes for each child labourer are 25.21 units. This output is followed by chemical coating (16.94 units),

and preparing wooden matchboxes (5.83 units). In respect of age group, the average daily output by the children of  $\geq 5$  to  $\leq 12$ , and  $\geq 13$  to  $\leq 14$  are higher in quantity in producing wooden match sticks (75.75 units), and wooden match boxes (10.00 units) than those of other age group. Furthermore, the age group of  $\geq 15$  to  $\leq 17$  has more production than other two age groups in doing chemical coating (20.00 units), and filling matchsticks into wooden boxes (32.58 units).

**Table 3: Child Match Workers' Average Daily Match Producing Output**

Production Activities	Average Daily Output				
	Sex	$\geq 5 - \leq 12$	$\geq 13 - \leq 14$	$\geq 15 - \leq 17$	Total
Wooden Matchbox Preparation	Male	3.00	18.00	10.00	10.00
	Female	-	2.00	2.00	1.33
	<b>Total</b>	<b>1.50</b>	<b>10.00</b>	<b>6.00</b>	<b>5.83</b>
Wooden Matchstick Preparation	Male	69.00	50.00	50.00	56.33
	Female	82.50	85.00	65.00	77.50
	<b>Total</b>	<b>75.75</b>	<b>67.50</b>	<b>57.50</b>	<b>66.92</b>
Chemical Coating	Male	16.00	11.33	20.00	15.78
	Female	12.00	22.33	20.00	18.11
	<b>Total</b>	<b>14.00</b>	<b>16.83</b>	<b>20.00</b>	<b>16.94</b>
Matchstick Filling	Male	18.43	24.02	41.10	27.85
	Female	18.69	24.98	24.05	22.57
	<b>Total</b>	<b>18.56</b>	<b>24.50</b>	<b>32.58</b>	<b>25.21</b>

## VII. Health Hazard and Risk Involvement in Match Production

The child match workers have to face injury and/or accident at their workplace as they directly handle chemical and burning materials for producing match. According to a considerable proportion of them, the frequencies of such injury and/or accident are very common at their workplace. Some of them reported that it is occasional and rare as well. The female child workers are slightly more vulnerable to such injury and/or accident. They have to meet the cost of treatment required for such injury and/or accident by themselves. Some of them are provided with such cost of treatment by their employers. The child workers are used to face some common type of illness at their workplace in the match industry premises. These are fire burns, chemical burns, shin diseases, and coughing. It is reported that 78.60 percent (n=672 of 855) working children are hurt and/or suffered from the activity of matchstick filling. They are followed by 2.22 percent (n=19 of 855) from wooden matchbox preparation, 1.40 percent (n=12 of 855) from wooden matchstick preparation and 0.82 percent (n=7 of 855) from chemical coating. The rest 16.96 percent (n=145 of 855) of them had not to face such hurt and/or suffering.

## VIII. Socio-economic Profile of Their Households

Most of the working children (87.89%; n=537 of 855) dwell in the rented house in the slum areas of Dhaka and Narayanganj. A fewer of them (9.98%; n=61 of 855) have dwelling house of their own. Only 4 respondents (0.65% of 855) reported that the employers had provided them with accommodation for dwelling. Another 1.47 percent (n=9 of 855) of them have somehow managed unpaid temporary shelter.



They are used to drink water from tube well (75.94%), water supply (26.29%), and other sources (3.76%). The preponderant majority of them (51.23%) use unhygienic latrine and only 48.77 percent of them use hygienic latrine. Most of them (91.49%; n=559 of 855) reported that their biggest burden is the cost for food in maintaining family survival. Furthermore, 7.53 percent (n=46 of 855) of them have to face the house rent as their biggest burden. As a matter of fact, they have to confront with some adversity in maintaining family survival if they had to withdraw their children from match producing activities.

The most likely consequences of their children's withdrawal are 'household cannot afford to live' (65.63%; n=401 of 855), 'decline of household's living standard' (31.75%; n=194 of 855), 'siblings have to leave school' (1.47%; n=9 of 855), and 'others' (1.15%; n=7 of 855). As the withdrawal of their children from the match producing activities will cause the decline their livelihood, the respondent parents have preferred some income generating activities (IGAs) for maintaining their family. They infer that these IGAs may be viable and effective in meeting the gap between their present household status and the most likely consequences of their children withdrawal from the match producing activities. Their first preferences rank poultry farming (42.23%), opening up of small grocery (30.93%), and buying paddy, husking and selling the product (8.67%) at the top (Table 4: 1<sup>st</sup> Preference).

**Table 4: Three Most Preferred IGAs of the Child Labourers' Households**

Income Generating Activities	1 <sup>st</sup> Preference		2 <sup>nd</sup> Preference		3 <sup>rd</sup> Preference	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Poultry Farming	258	42.23	97	15.88	37	6.06
Opening up of a Small Grocery Shop	189	30.93	115	18.82	60	9.82
Buying Paddy, Husking and Selling the Product	53	8.67	82	13.42	64	10.47
Engaging in Cottage Industry	50	8.18	34	5.56	83	13.58
Cattle/goat Rearing	37	6.06	216	35.35	56	9.17
Growing of Vegetables and Fruits	22	3.60	32	5.24	143	23.40
Mushroom Farming	1	0.16	10	1.64	10	1.64
Others	1	0.16	25	4.09	158	25.86
<b>Total</b>	<b>611</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>611</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>611</b>	<b>100</b>

Their second preferences comprise cattle and/or goat rearing (35.35%), opening up of small grocery (18.82%), and poultry farming (15.88%) at the top of hierarchy (Table 4: 2<sup>nd</sup> Preference). Also they furnished third preferences in the following way: growing of vegetables and fruits (23.40%), engaging in cottage industries like making fishing nets, sewing, embroidering quilts, etc. (13.58%), buying paddy, husking and selling the product (10.47%) and so on (see Table 4: 3<sup>rd</sup> Preference).

## **IX. Views of the Stakeholders and Community People**

### *a. Employers and/or Their Managerial Personnel*

The employers and their managerial personnel fervently opined that the child labour from Bangladesh must be eliminated and prevented as well. They expected that the

government and non-government organisations should provide the parents with education and economic support. Also they should undertake motivational and legitimate measures for eliminating and preventing child labour in a befitting manner from Bangladesh. The children's potentialities should be appropriated in proper way for the future of our nation. Simultaneously, they also admitted that no initiative is undertaken by them in this regard to date.

The entire respondent employers and managerial personnel opined that they personally do not support the child labour. The children should be enrolled in the school and attend the class on a regular basis. They argue that the child labour prevents them from involving any juvenile delinquencies, as the children are not enrolled in the school. Because of ignorance and economic hardship the parents are impelled to send their children to the workplace.

Some of them claim that the working environment of their industries is better and it does not involve any risk and/or injury. It is evident that only the Dhaka and Uzala Match have the fire service and first aid medical facilities. None of them has, to date, undertaken any safety and/or protective measures for reducing health hazard. They express their willingness to support to any interventions planned for the benefits of child match labourers. Also they will provide favour in withdrawing the child labourers from their industries as they claim that they consider only the quality of production: not the age group of labourers. It is apparently clear that they are not willing to provide any financial assistance with the child development projects. They may not play any negative role in this context.

#### *b. Trade Union Leaders*

The trade union leaders of the match industries may play vital role in implementing the interventions for eliminating and preventing child labour from match industries in Dhaka. Also they may suggest the strategies and planning to be adopted for materialising the project. Since the child match workers are direct members of their professional community, their views and opinions should be considered in this regard.

The trade union leaders are devoted to place the demand of the workers to the owners in time and also to make it materialised. They are to ensure the regular payment of wages to the workers and to have benefits other than the regular wages from the owners. They own some workers' rights by themselves as a result of their effort through trade union. Some temporary workers of Dhaka Match and R.K. 2 Match have been appointed as registered labourers. Some of them are benefited from uniform allocated by the owner of Dhaka Match. The trade union of Uzala Match received arrears bill of the workers from the Grants Commission and three-fourth bonus of the production.

They are always ready to provide assistance and Cupertino whatever they can do to implement the activities under this project. They recommended some appropriate interventions required for eliminating child labour. They suggested that the parents of child labourers should be provided with regular and adequate income. The children should be enrolled in non-formal and vocational education. They identified some



areas requiring improvements and or rectification to safeguard workers' interests but suggested no ways for doing these. These areas are adequate and regular wages, uniform festival allowances, share of production bonus, medical allowances, recreational allowances, and allowances for risks induced by machine and chemical substances.

The trade union leaders emphatically express their views and ideas on the adequacy and reforms of existing legislative provisions for match sector. They need the adequate and effective rules for recruiting and terminating the match workers. They opined that some of the inspectors disturb the female and child workers using slang. They ignore the interests of the workers but of the owners only. They should be viable bridges between the owners and the workers. The match industries should ensure the establishment of modern machines and adequate space for doing works and this may prevent the fire burns and chemical burns. As the child workers are not officially approved, they cannot be the members of trade unions. In spite of this, they would like to support the withdrawal of the child labourers from match activities and their enrolment in non-formal or vocational education as well.

All the unions are registered and recognised by the owners. The owners restrict the enrolment of workers in trade union. The leaders of Dhaka Match reported that their owner allows only 1 per 50 workers to be enrolled in the union. The project should ensure the implementation of the trade union rights prescribed by the government and it will pave the way for affiliating to the Collective Bargaining Agent (CBA). It should also ascertain the implementation of government rules and privileges for the match workers.

#### *c. Community People of the Child Match Labourers*

The preventive and curative measures for eradicating the social ill of child labour induced by the match industries of Dhaka and Narayanganj should be formulated and undertaken as the community people desire and would like to accept. The FGDs participants (N=272) enthusiastically do not support the child labour. They would like to see their children in the school but their children have to supplement the family income for maintaining their subsistence. Many of them would like to engage their children in such activities for 3-4 hours as they have to grapple with daily economic adversity. Some of them are not aware of their children's future in education. They frankly expressed their opinion in this way that they found no use of education and they have to work from this moment.

Almost all are aware of the unhealthy and risk inducing environment of match industries but they are impelled to do the job for maintaining their family survival. They are occasionally injured and/or suffered from fire burns, chemical burns, and also other accidents caused by machine. They feel suffocation in the area of chemical coating and it is hazardous to their health. They are frequently suffered from cough, gastric, jaundice, and suffocation, etc. Sometimes they have to be physically handicapped and it is cause by some of the match producing activities. The child labour causes some social consequences to them. According to them, it belittles the status of female child as bride and also causes early marriages that contribute to the

population growth of the country. The cash money in the hand of child labourers encourages them to be involved in juvenile delinquencies, smoking, and even drug addiction. In some cases, they involve themselves in illegitimate sex relations with their co-workers of opposite sex and/or others. The child labour prevents the working children from receiving schooling and its ultimate result is that they inflate the rate of existing illiteracy of Bangladesh.

They opined that the owners may not take part in the project of interventions and may not be against the project. The participants expressed their opinion in respect of their vision on their children's lives that their children should be enrolled in the school first and they should be provided with education for pleasure. They have to be educated up to the mark so that they can procure a good job. They may be provided with vocational education as well. They insistently urged that to ensure all these things, the parents of the child workers have to be financially capable enough for affording the cost of education up to the desire. They expect that it will be ensured through the project of interventions and thus the withdrawal of their children from match industries will be effective without any harm to their family. They prefer the following activities for generating their family income: small-scale business, poultry raising, handicrafts, grocery, rickshaw pulling, fisheries at their rural residence, dairy at their rural residence, garments factory, etc.

They are willing to provide enthusiastic support with the educational program for their children. They prefer match-producing activities, which involve no accident and/o injury. As a matter of fact, they prefer those activities through which they can earn regular and adequate income and those, which are free from hazardous environment. Most of them have to reside in the slum areas of Dhaka and Narayanganj and thus they have no access to education, health services, credit program, and other social services. They expect that they will be provided with such facilities and social services launched by the GOs and NGOs.

## **X. Views and Recommendations**

The process of socialisation that spans the events from birth to death involves specific role and status in every stages of human life cycle. But the child match workers have no opportunities of enjoying every stages of their life cycle. They are impelled to enter the early adulthood directly from the stage of infancy. They have been deprived from the support system of socialisation provided by their family and other social institutions. This support system is expected and required for the stages of life cycle between infancy and early adulthood. The stages they lost due to familial and social adversity are childhood, youth, and adolescence. The child match workers of Dhaka and Narayanganj pass all these stages of life cycle physically but are deprived from familial, social, and psychological aid prescribed and provided by their own culture. In this way, they are not properly socialised the society prescribes and expects. Conversely, they have to play the role of early adult member of their family. Their prime duty is to supplement the familial income with their income from match and to assist their parents in other household management activities as well. The total number of child workers (N=855) may be provided with biological and



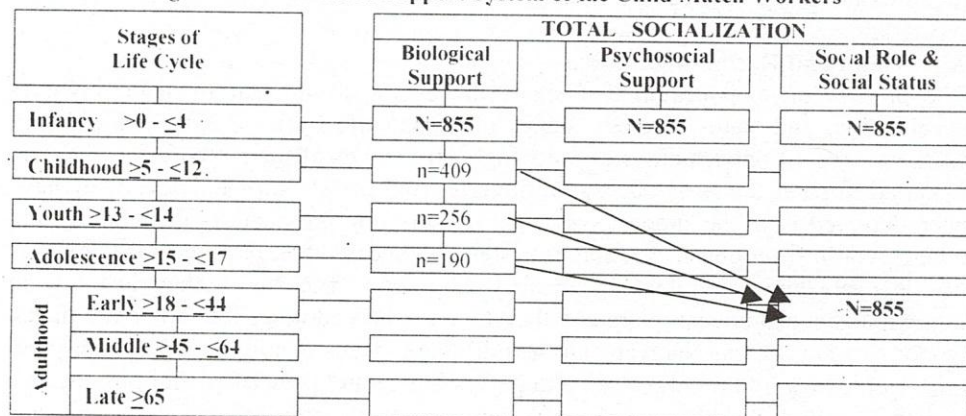
psychosocial support and received opportunities of playing roles as infant (up to the age of 4 years) within their familial capability. But among them, the child workers of  $\geq 5$  to  $\leq 12$  (47.84%; n=409 of 855),  $\geq 13$  to  $\leq 14$  (29.94%; n=256 of 855), and  $\geq 15$  to  $\leq 17$  (22.22%; n=190 of 855) have no opportunities of enjoying the socialisation support as their stages of life cycle claims. Moreover, the child workers of childhood, youth, and adolescence are dragooned into match producing activities to supplement their irregular and uncertain familial income. In fact, the economic culture of Bangladesh prescribes this role in the early adulthood (see Figure 1).

The following measures for implementing sustainable interventions for eliminating and preventing child labour in Dhaka and Narayanganj Districts should be undertaken. These recommendations are framed on the basis of findings of the present research (see Figure 2). One thing should be kept in mind that the preponderant majority of child match workers (87.89%; n=537 of 611 households of them) are emigrated to Dhaka and Narayanganj from the different rural areas of Bangladesh. Most of the respondents are willing to be resettled with income generating activities in their original places, as they have to grapple with the slum environment at home and hazardous working environment at match industries.

*a. Social Mobilisation*

1. At the primer level, the implementers of the projects for feasible interventions should socially mobilise the child match workers' parents (CMWPs) and their community people (CP).
- a. The parents of the child match workers (CMWs) and their community people should be clearly oriented about both the health and social hazards induced by the match producing activities.

**Figure 1: Socialisation Support System of the Child Match Workers**



**Figure 2 Potential Interventions for Elimination and Prevention of Child Labour**

Interventions Level			Target Measures to be Undertaken		Target Group
Primer Level	Social Mobilisation	Orientation	Parents' Rally	Health Hazards of Match Production Social Hazards of Match Production	CMWPs CP
		Motivation		Withdrawal of Child Match Workers Enrolment in Education Program	CMWPs CP
Implementation Level	Feasible Interventions	Curative Capsule	Resettlement of CMWPs in their Original Place Skill and Financial Aid for IGAs Adult Education Vocational Training Employment in Befitting Manners		CMWPs
			Required Health Care Services Corrective Measures for Delinquents		CMWs Withdrawn
			Non-formal Education Vocational Education		CMWs Withdrawn
		Preventive Capsule	Motivational Support System Adult Education Adequate Alternative Employment		CMWPs CP
			Formal Education Vocational Education Health Care Services		All Younger Children of $\geq 0 - \leq 4$
Monitoring		Implementation Activities			Project Workers
		Use of Interventions			Project Users
Social Protection		Maintenance of the Programmes Proper Use of the Programmes			Project Users
Evaluation Research	Field Experiment		Every Year During Implementation		Benefited CMWs
	Outcome Evaluation		After 3 <sup>rd</sup> Year of Implementation		Parents of CMWs

b. They have to be motivated for withdrawing their working children from the match producing activities and for enrolling them in non-formal and formal education programs as well.

2. The implementers may organize parents' rallies for orienting and motivating the child match workers' parents and their community people.

#### b. Feasible Interventions

1. At the implementation level, the implementers should provide both the child match workers' parents and the child match workers withdrawn from the match producing activities with the curative capsule for resettlement.

a. A great majority of the parents of child match workers prefer to resettle themselves in their places of origin from where they have been immigrated to



their present residential areas and workplaces. They have no access to the urban facilities and privileges in the Dhaka City and its adjoining Fatulla Thana of Narayanganj District. Most of them have to reside in the slum dwelling unit and found lack of security in respect of daily life. The employment with adequate income on regular basis in their original places should be provided with the parents of child match workers.

- b. The child match workers' parents should be privileged with required skills and financial aid, adult education, vocational training, employment in befitting manner, and the like.
- c. They should be provided with the following income generating activities: poultry farming, opening up of small grocery, cattle and/or goat, buying paddy, husking and selling the product, engaging in cottage industries like making fishing nets, sewing, embroidering quilts, etc., growing of vegetables and fruits, and mushroom farming as they prefer.
- d. The required health care services and corrective measures for delinquents should be pressed into service for the child match workers withdrawn.
- e. Also the implementers should pave the way of non-formal and vocational education for the child match workers withdrawn.
2. The child match workers' parents and community people and their younger children of up to 4 years old should be provided with the preventive capsule for protecting them from the social evil of child labour.
  - a. The child match workers' parents and their community people should be aided with the motivational support system, adult education, adequate alternative employment, and so on.
  - b. The implementers should build a support system of formal education, vocational education, and health care services as well for the younger siblings of child match workers and their counterparts of up to 4 years old. This support system may prevent this group of younger children from any worst form of child labour.

*c. Monitoring*

1. The implementers should develop and operate a two-tier monitoring system. It should be a dynamic and effective one in its operation.
  - a. The workers for implementing the intervention projects must be supervised and monitored in a stimulating way.
  - b. The social monitors should build a rapport with the users of intervention projects. They have to affably monitor the users and also provide them with required aid and suggestion for using those projects.

*d. Social Protection*

The social protection involves not only the economic support system for them, but also non-formal adult education, formal education for children, strengthening the agencies of law and order, recreation, health-care system and the like. The following measures may be formulated and undertaken for the social protection of the proposed intervention projects:

1. The implementers should organise the beneficiaries for using the intervention project programs properly.
2. They have to be properly motivated that these programs are for their development and thus it is their duty to protect these.
3. They should enthusiastically undertake some indigenous measures for protecting these programs from any harm.
4. They should be careful enough in using these programs and thus the implementers should provide them with necessary knowledge and training for using these in a befitting manner.

*c. Evaluation Research*

1. The implementers should undertake and formulate considerable and necessary strategies for evaluating the intervention projects.
  - a. The pilot projects may be developed first and evaluate their outcome. In doing the job properly and scientifically, the implementers may conduct evaluative research of field experiment.
  - b. The full-fazed intervention projects should be implemented if the findings of field experiment evaluative research prescribe in positive way.
2. The outcome evaluation research should be conducted after 3<sup>rd</sup> year of the implementation of intervention projects.
3. The benefited child match workers withdrawn, their parents, and their community people should be covered by the evaluative research of field experiment and by outcome evaluation as well.

## **XI. Concluding Remarks**

The majority parents of the child match workers are compelled to send their children to the workplace of match factories for maintaining their family subsistence. They have to employ their children's economic potentialities for supplementing their low and irregular family income at the cost of their schooling. These children should be withdrawn from risky and unhygienic match producing activities in the hazardous environment of industry premises. The risk involving and hazardous environment frequently causes their vulnerability to various injuries and diseases.

The government and UN organisations should collaboratively formulate and undertake intervention activities for their withdrawal. The withdrawal interventions should be supported and activated by the stakeholders and the community people as well. The parents of working children withdrawn should be provided with adequate employment opportunities and also should be resettled in their places of origin from where they are migrated to Dhaka City. The proposed potential intervention strategies will be viable and effective in lessening the population pressure in the city and finally these will be the part of the strategies and efforts for making Dhaka a liveable city.

The findings of this action research on the match working children carry both the practical and policy implications. The survey findings provide the students of rural development and child socialisation with empirical information and knowledge on



this subject. It may be the baseline for practical social science researchers in this specific area of research. More specifically, it would guide the policy planners and implementers of the various action programs for preventing and eliminating the worst forms of child labour in both the formal and informal sectors of Bangladesh.

### Endnotes

<sup>1</sup>Action research is, in accordance with the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, inquiry or research in the context focused efforts to improve the quality of an organisation and its performance. It claims planning to take actions to improve the present situation of society. The four definitions framed by the Florida Atlantic University has emphasised the planning to take actions (see GSEGMU 2002). The findings of this paper are based on the action research sponsored by ILO-Bangladesh in 2001. This UN organisation has already started the action to withdraw the child workers from these match industries in 2002.

<sup>2</sup>It are a higher tier of the local government administration in Bangladesh. It is positioned in the third step of administration, e.g., Division, District, and then *Thana*.

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## DWINDLING 'SYLVAN SHADOW': STEPS TO CONSERVE

Sultana Mustafa Khanum\*

**Abstract:** The present paper is an attempt to identify the main causes of forest resources extraction by the people living in and around the forest areas. The paper explores the fact that along with others, the main cause of dwindling forests is lack of alternate income earning sources for these people. The paper suggests some ways in which the opportunity of alternate income sources could be opened up and protect the forest in a sustainable way.

### I. Introduction

The relationship and interdependence between the forest and man date back to the prehistoric epoch. Forest is the first shelter and food provider of mankind. With the socio-cultural evolution and changing social needs man has changed his lifestyle and livelihood but the dependency upon the forest is almost remained as usual. Man has been continually extracting forest resources to meet additional demand for continued population growth. This has resulted in the dwindling of the forest areas at an alarming rate globally and causing environmental imbalance. To combat this situation a global effort has taken up to protect forests and developing silviculture through the implementation of social and community forestry.

Bangladesh also take part in forest protection and plantation programmes. In 1980 The Bangladesh Forest Department took up a social forestry programme with the assistance of the Asian Development Bank (Imam, 1999). Much emphasis was given on the afforestation programme in the third Five Year Plan of Bangladesh Government (1985-90). A draft of National Forestry Master Plan was formulated in 1994 (Huq, 1994). The Ministry of Environment and Forestry planned for setting up the National Conservation Strategy during 1989-91 and its constitution was passed in 1991. The activities of National Conservation Strategy were not activated until 1995 when NORAD came up with the financial assistance.

The project targeted four areas for implementation, namely Tanguar Haor (Sylhet), Narikel Jinjira (St. Martin's Island), The Barind Tract (Northwestern Bangladesh) and Forests in the hilly region of south Chittagong.

The first phase of the National Conservation Strategy Implementation Project-I continued from March 1996 to October 1997 (Bari, 1999:65). Research of the project were mainly based on the fauna and flora of the forest areas surveyed excepting only

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the study conducted by the Bangladesh Centre for Advanced Studies (1997), which added a new dimension to work with inclusion of socio-economic aspects.

The second phase of the NCSIP -I started in January 2001. The study was based on south Chittagong hill forest areas. Although Chunati (Wild life Reserve), Himchari (National Park) and Teknaf (Game Reserve) were included in the study areas but the emphasis was given on the Teknaf Game Reserve. The data used in the present paper are gathered from this study.

### *Objective*

The objective of this study is to identify the main causes of forest resources extraction by the people living in and around the forest areas. The study seeks to explore the ways in which alternate income sources could be provided to the people, who depend on forest for their livelihood.

### *Methods and Techniques of Data Collection*

The data used in the paper is largely collected through Participatory Learning Experience (PLE) yet secondary data were obtained from the report of BCAS (1997), a survey based study carried out by the Bangladesh Centre for Advanced Studies in the same areas in 1997. PLE is a research technique used by the action researchers to interact with the people and learn their problems and development from their own eyes. In the present study PLEs were facilitated by using various tools such as mapping, wealth ranking, vector scoring, time trend analysis and Focus Group Discussion based on a well defined checklist. Information was also collected through pie diagram, bar diagram, seasonal chart drawn by the respondents. Formal interviews were also carried out with the Forest Department personnel, Forest guards, banjaigirders (informal forest guards) and person in charge of the Noyapara Rohingya Camp, Teknaf. Information was also obtained from the record of the union parishad office and BBS, Teknaf.

### *The Sample and the PLE Sessions*

Four unions were selected as sample areas, such as: Chunati (Chittagong), Himchari (Cox's Bazar), Hnilla (Cox's Bazar) and Teknaf (Cox's Bazar). The sample villages were Chunati (Chunati), Ferdousnagar, Bhangamora (Himchari), Pulerdaile (Hnilla) and Naitongpara (Teknaf). The PLE sessions were facilitated with 20-25 respondents consisting farmers, traders, landowners, school teachers, representative people, wage labourers, members of NGOs, present and ex- UP chairmen, religious leaders, local politicians and women in each of the unions. Although the study was carried out in four unions yet emphasis was given on Teknaf since Teknaf could be used as the representative union of three others because they do not differ much in all respect.

### *Demographic Profile of the Study Area*

Total Area of Teknaf is 388.68 sq.km. The number of Unions and villages are 6 and 145 respectively. According to the BBS Report (1994) the total population of Teknaf is 152557 (Census:1991) while the number of rural people is 125651, among which 64530 are male and 61121 are female. There are 143 villages in Teknaf and number of households of these villages is 19241. Majority of the people is Muslims

(121781) followed by Buddhists (2625), Hindus (1119), other (122) and Christian (5). The number of tribal people is 3642.

In terms of ethnicity 99.9% of the population is Bangalee, 2.6% Santal and 0.1 is Burmese (BCAS,1997:22). This condition is a bit different from our field observation during the PLEs. In our sample area, the village named Naitongpara, more than 70% people are Burmese Muslims. In this village the some of the Bangladeshis have erected small huts and have rented them out to the Burmese Bangalees, migrated from Myanmar. This village is known as 'Rohingya para'. There are about 25-30 Raikhan households at Teknaf as well. The average household size is 6.47 and the average age of household head is 41.68. About 32.72% of the population are under 10 years of age (BCAS,1997:21).

## II. Reasons for Forest Resource Extraction

It is needless to say that the villagers, living in and around the forest, depend on forest resources for making their shelter to use it as fuel. But the main reason for it is absence of alternate income earning activities. However, factors responsible to force people or allure them in extracting forest products could be identified as follows:

- Lack of local resources and inadequate income sources
- Paucity of agricultural land
- Forest as a secured source of earning
- Rohingya Encroachment
- Construction of Merine Drive Road and chain migration
- Vulnerable position of the local leaders
- Lack of institutional strength

### *Lack of Local Resources and Inadequate Income Sources*

Apart from depleting natural resources Teknaf is deprived of mentionable local or national resources. Teknaf is one of the most poverty-stricken areas of Bangladesh with low levels of income, a large degree of landlessness and joblessness, and a large refugee community to deal with. There is virtually no industry in the Teknaf area, apart from ailing shrimp ponds and hatcheries, saltpans and the two brickfields. Only 2.9% of all households in Teknaf have electricity in their houses. The level of inadequate income sources is apparent from the following Table:

**Table 1: Primary Occupation of Household Heads (N=696)**

Occupation	Percentage
Farming (headed by male)	42.20
Daily wage labour	27.70
Farming (headed by female)	1.60
Business	12.40
Service	5.30
Rikshaw puller	1.70
Salt production	-
Extracting forest resource	2.70
Fishing	3.40
Others	2.30
Total	100

Source: Adopted from BCAS. 1997:27



According to BCAS (1997) report, the primary occupation of the people living in Teknaf is agriculture. But our study, through PLE, revealed that agriculture is not the primary occupation of the people since major parts of crop lands yield only one crop a year, i.e. monocropping farm land. This is due to a lack of opportunities and resources for irrigation, which could otherwise allow a second crop. The data become stronger if it is considered from a broad spectrum. According to the Census of 1998,<sup>1</sup> 63.46% families depend on agriculture for their livelihood. Of them 4% are large farmers while 15% belonging to the middle range group. Beside, 39% are marginal farmers and 42% are landless farmers. They are although engaged in farming yet they can not do with the farming alone for their livelihood around the year. Besides occasional farming, they therefore carry out small-scale vending, daily labour in the salt fields/ sand fields, shrimp fry catching or simply they remain without any work. When jobless condition becomes acute in the months of *Bhadra-Kartik* some of them migrate to the other areas for three to four months.

Ninety percent people engage themselves in catching shrimp fries in the sea when they do not find any work. The children also contribute to this activity. They earn Tk. 30-80 for per 100 shrimp fries. They earn about Tk.100.00-150.00 daily. They sell these to the *sawdagars* (middlemen). The middlemen also employ their permanent labour for catching shrimp fries or fishing. They pay Tk. 5000-6000 per annum per person for this. In such cases the fishermen/ fish traders are compelled to sell the fish/ shrimp fries to the middlemen at the lowest rate in the market. This system is known as '*dadan*'. Seventy five percent are engaged through '*dadan*'. Very few fishermen have their own boat or large fishing nets. Either they rent the boat or work for the fishermen as labour. The fishermen fish continuously for 20-22 days every month. Sometimes they can catch fish in the sea upto Tk. 18000 to 20000 when they go to the sea in a large group. Twenty to 25 labourers fish together in a boat/trawler when the fishing group is bigger. Each fisherman labour is paid with Tk.1000 for such a fishing trip. Usually each labour can earn Tk. 70 to Tk.100 per day from such a fishing trip. They sell the fish to the middlemen or to the small fish traders. A single basket contains about 20kg. of fishes. They sell each basket of such fishes at the rate of Tk.150.00-200.00. Petty fish traders walk 2 to 3 hours in order to reach the trading sites in the coast for buying the fish and bring them back to the local market for selling.

Agricultural labourers also remain engaged in farming for six months a year and the rest they engage themselves likewise. During their six working months in farming they extract bamboo and wood from the forest for fuel, house repairing, betel vine making etc. When they do not find any work in farming and in other sectors they extract fuelwood /bamboos from the forest for selling them in the local market atleast twice a week. Nevertheless it is clear from the fact that the large amount of family income for majority of the households comes from the forest.

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<sup>1</sup>A small scale census was carried out at Teknaf in 1998, data obtained from the BBS, Teknaf office.

However, tending betel vine is another source of income of the marginal farmers for six months. They earn Tk. 50-80 every week. The large farmers can earn upto 200000.00 from the large betel vines. According to PLE respondents 2% farmers own more than 7 acres of land, 25%-30% own 2 acres while 70%-80% farmers are landless. About 10% are timber traders, 5% are petty traders, 1% are service holders, 2% are fish traders, 5% are permanent fishermen while the rest are occasional fishermen and/or labourers.

#### *Paucity of Agricultural Land*

The local people almost entirely depend on forests for their livelihood because of the topographic nature of the locality, which is apparent from the following Table:

**Table 2 Land Use in Teknaf**

Land Categories	Areas
Forest Area	194.77 sq. km.
Effective Area	191.71 sq.km.
Reverine Area	2.20 sq.km
Cultivated Area	21517 acres
Permanent Crop area	2993 acres
Homestead Area	20.61 sq.km

Source: BBS, 1998, data obtained from BBS, Teknaf

Agriculture fails to ensure sustainable source of income of a great majority of the population at Teknaf. There are 21517 acres of land which has brought under cultivation representing 45% of the total effective land area. There is only 13% of cultivable land representing 2993 acres which are used as permanent crop area.

As indicated earlier 45% of the total effective land area is cultivated for either permanent or seasonal farming because existing irrigation facilities are very inadequate. Only 16% of the arable land (3562 acres) is regarded as irrigated area, the situation is apparent in the following Table :

**Table 3: Agricultural Land Use Pattern**

Land use Pattern	Land in acres
Effective Area	47372.57
Cultivable Area	21517 (45%)
Permanent crop Area	2993 (13%)
Irrigated Area	3562 (16%)

Source: BBS, 1998, data obtained from BBS, Teknaf

Aush is the main paddy although Aman and IRRI varieties are also cultivated. Most of the farmers who own their land tend betel vines. The price of the betel leaves varies depending on the seasonality. For instance, one can get Tk. 3000 for one *beera* at pick season (*Magh* to *jaistha*) which comes down to Tk. 500 in the month of *Asharh*. The marginal farmers can earn Tk. 50-70 every week from their vines during the betel growing season (*Magh* to *Ashars*). Large farmers can earn as much



as Tk.2.00000 a year. Betel nuts is also cultivated. Those having a land area of 2 acres with the betel nut trees on, can earn Tk. 25000-30000 a year. This is possible only for the large farmers. In the homestead many families have 4-5 such trees. The betel nuts are sold at a price of Tk. 60 for a *pan* (80 nuts make a *pan*).

There are 16879 farmer households. Of these 9751 own their arable lands representing 57% of the farmer households. Of the latter 3.79% are large farmer, 15.12% middle, 38.96% marginal while landless households represent 42.22% Only the large and a section of midrange farmers can do with their livelihood through farming only. The marginal and landless farmers can not depend only on the agriculture for their livelihood.

The types of farmer households and seasonal calendar could be shown as follows:

**Table 4: Farmer households based on land ownership**

Owning cultivable land	9751 (57.7%)
Landless	7128 (42.22%)

**Table 5: Pattern of Farmer Households**

Types of farmer households	Percentage
Large farmer households	3.79%
Middle farmer households	15.12%
Marginal farmer households	38.96%
Landless farmer households	42.22%

Source: BBS, 1998, data obtained from BBS, Teknaf

**Table 6: The Patterns of Agricultural Land ownership<sup>2</sup>**

Land owning groups (quantity in acre)	Households (%)
0.5-49	31.28
50-99	12.46
1.00-1.49	9.83
1.50-2.49	13.88
2.50-7.49	25.99
7.50 and Above	6.56

Source: BBS, 1998, data obtained from BBS, Teknaf

**Table 7: The Types and Numbers of Farmer Households**

Types	Number
Large Farmer Households	640
Middle Farmer Households	2534
Small Farmer Households	6577
Agricultural Landless Farmer Households	7045
Landless Farmer Households	83

Source: BBS, 1998, data obtained from BBS, Teknaf

<sup>2</sup>The data on land use, land ownership and household patterns were collected from BBS, Teknaf. A Census was carried out at Teknaf in 1998.

Table 8: Seasonal Calendar (Agriculture)

Months	Activities
Baishakh (April-May)	Harvesting IRRI, Planting IRRI
Jaistha (May-June)	Preparing field for Aush and spreading Aush seeds
Asharh (June-July)	Weeding
Sraban (July-August)	Preparing field for Aman and planting Aman
Bhadra (August-September)	Same
Asshin (September-October)	No work
Kartik (October-November)	No work
Oghran (November-December)	Harvesting Aman, preparing betel vine, planting water melon)
Poush (December-January)	Harvesting Aman, Planting Rabi shashya (Kharif) and Vegetables.
Mugh (January-February)	Start harvesting betel leave, water melon, planting IRRI
Falgun (February - March)	Harvesting Kharif
Chaitra (March-April)	Harvesting Kharif

It is worth mentioning that all the farmers can not maintain this seasonal calendar round the year excepting very few of them. Majority of them participate in farming on seasonal basis.

#### *Forest: The Secured Bread Provider*

In the Teknaf areas, forest remain as the main bread provider for a large section of population including the agricultural labourers. Because landless agricultural labourers rarely find work everyday during their six months working period. Their working days remain at the maximum level of 20 days a month. During a lull in farming activities, and when opportunities in other sectors are lacking, local people resort to extraction of forest produce, extracting fuelwood and bamboo from the forest, which is then sold in the local market. Respondents informed that they usually sell this produce at least twice a week. When jobless condition becomes acute in the months of *Bhadra-Kartik* some of the agricultural labourers (20%) migrate to the other areas for three to four months. A good number of the rests go to other places in search of work for 2-3 days a week. The women and children of such families extract forest resources for selling purpose to meet their basic necessities. In general, when other income generating areas get uncertain, the forest provides them with certain earnings whatever it is, for their livelihood.

During jobless days in such a lull period, the forests provide them with earnings in some other ways as well. The timber traders engage the local poor in illegal felling of the trees. Becoming a part of such a big gang they can earn up to Tk. 2000 a month working only for two days and in this way they can earn as much as Tk. 8500 in six months. Similar involvement in a big fishing group brings them Tk. 12000 in six months. This income is much more than that they get from working in the agricultural land. Because, if it is accounted from the point of their wage rate in



agriculture, they get Tk.70 per day. For six months they can earn Tk 8400, which is their yearly income from agricultural land.

On the contrary one can earn Tk.60 a day by cutting and selling a mound of fuelwood. A single labour working for timber traders can procure five mounds of fuelwood and take them down to the ground from the hill a day. He is paid with Tk. 15.00 for every mound of fuel wood. In this way he can earn Tk. 75.00 each day on the average. He can bring 15 mounds of wood working 3 days a week. Thus a single labourer depending only on the wood cutting in the forest can earn Tk. 10800.00 a year. Generally traking up the hill, cutting the woods, collecting them and carrying them down the hill takes three days of work for a single trip. When a wood cutter works for himself in this way he needs to take the collected fuelwood to the market for selling on head load. He can not carry more than a mound at a single trip. This brings him Tk. 60 .00 everyday. In such a way he can earn Tk.8640.00 a year. In terms of illegal felling, it takes 10 labourers to fell a big teak tree. In such cases each labourer is paid with Tk.200.00. If a labourer finds such work twice a month he can earn Tk. 9600.00 yearly.

Apart from this, lion earning of the timber traders come from such illegal felling and their ultimate sawing. The terrorists also take a toll of such earnings. The farmer families, representing 4% and/or 15%, which are entirely dependent on agriculture, some of their younger members get engaged in such illegal felling and their such income is never brought into book through interviews excepting only the PLEs.

The Timber smugglers utilise wage labourers for illegal felling and smuggling timber from the forest. Beside scattered felling, it is also done in large scales and in an organised way. The timber traders and smugglers send a group of woodcutters consisting 100 individuals to the hilly deep forest. Each labour is paid at the rate of Tk. 100 per day. The labourers spend the whole day to reach deep in the forest. They work at night by litting kerosene torches. They size the logs in definite measurements. Later these logs are sawed into planks. Next day they bring these logs to the areas of the hill from where descending can be easier. At nightfall these are carried by pickups or trucks. According to the PLE respondents, these traders/smugglers bribe the personnel of the Forest Department for this purpose. When these gangs are challenged by the forest guards they resist it by using sophisticated weapons.

Besides the household heads engaged in any occupation, his other family members including women and children, also earn in a similar way but at a much lower rate for their physical inability. Their earnings are also added to the total household income. In female headed households, their minor children can bring half a mound of fuel wood and sell it to the market. In many cases this is the only income of the households.

In such a situation, when their total yearly family income is considered, it is evident that majority of them earn more from the forest than from any other sources. This is a bit contrary to the report of BCAS (1997) which indicated that one fifth of their family income came from the forest and only 2.70% extracted forest resources as their primary occupation. If it is considered in terms of yearly working hours,

they spend more hours in forest. From this point of view it appears that although they are engaged in various income generating activities like farming, catching shrimp fries, fishing, working in the salt field or lifting sand yet forest is their main source of earning. Those who are termed as 'Doing nothing' in the BCAS report, most of them are actually engaged in extraction of forest resources.

### *Rohingya Encroachment*

Rohingya refugee problem has become one of the obstructions to the sustainable management of natural resources in Teknaf. The Rohingyas started pouring into the Cox's Bazar from Myanmar and establish settlements in the forests since December 1991<sup>3</sup>. All are from Arakan province, which is home to Myanmar's Muslim minority. In 1992 the number of these Rohingya rose up to 264116 (Source: Noyapara Rohingya Camp, Teknaf). As most settled in the Teknaf region, this meant that the population in the peninsula increased by more than 50% at the time.<sup>4</sup> The Government of Bangladesh, NGOs and UNHCR established 20 refugee camps for their settlement. According to the Forest Department 2600 hectors of land, 4000 cft of timbers, 85000 cft of fuelwood and 214819 creepers were used for constructing sheds and maintenance of the camps (BCAS :1997). The Rohingya were estimated to have consumed about 130,000m of fuelwood and timber by the end of August 1992, equivalent to approximately 1,625 ha of productive forest (Jordan, 1992). Forestry Department calculations at the time put the estimate at 2,000 ha of forest affected by fuelwood collection (CBFD, 1999). The conclusion by the GFA team was that 'fuelwood extraction from nearby forest reserves by Rohingya refugees is causing major damages up to complete deforestation.' The provenance of fuelwood and timber was reported by the UNHCR team to be primarily natural forest in Cox's Bazar, and little was derived from plantations or other sources. The presence of refugees imposed a serious threat to the ecosystem, not only by their own day-by-day fuelwood cutting but also by the fact that local people start exploiting the forest in a rather destructive way putting the blame on the hosted refugees. The Chief Conservator of Forests at the time commented that 'in the name of the Rohingya refugees the forests disappear' (Jordan, 1992).

By 1993 about 233,000 Rohingyas had been resettled in Myanmar, and some 30,000 remain in Cox's Bazar, many in the Teknaf area. At present there are 2,169 households comprising 12907 people living in the Nayapara Refugee Camp in Teknaf, which was established in 1992. All the people staying in the camps are Muslims. There are eight schools and thirteen mosques in the camp. Each of the refugees is provided with 2.98kg of rice, 350 gms pulse, along with other food stuffs, soaps and oil on a weekly basis. The World Food Programme supplies the food.

<sup>3</sup>There was an earlier influx in 1978, but this was small and minor, by comparison.

<sup>4</sup>At the time the total population of Cox's Bazar Division (which has seven Thana, including Teknaf) was just over 1.5 million (BBS, 1998)



UNHCR has been supporting their rehabilitation programme. The person in charge of the camp, Fazlul Karim Chowdhury, the Senior Assistant Secretary pointed out that the refugees are not allowed to be engaged in any type of income generating activities. They no longer have any impact on forest resource since for fuel they are supplied with compressed husk block. After 1993, wood and timber materials needed for them have been imported from Myanmar. We were not allowed to talk to any Rohingya living in the camp, but could see many trails leading from camp into the formerly forested hills nearby.

There are a good number of Rohingyas living outside the camp. Naitongpara is a village located near the Teknaf Forest Range Office. The respondents of the PLE indicated that more than 70% people living in the village belong to the Rohingya community and all of them are Muslims. They have good relationship with the local Bangladeshi Muslim community. Six such Rohingya families have established relationship with the locals through intermarriages. It appears that Muslim brotherhood helps forge close relationship. Local people are sympathetic towards the Rohingyas rather than viewing them as competitors over the natural or local resources. These Rohingyas also depend on forest for their livelihood, just as the local villagers do. All of them are wage labourers. Very few Rohingya women work on other's houses and some have been reduced to begging. Some of the Bangladeshis has constructed thatched huts and have rented them to the Rohingya families at a monthly rate of Tk. 100-150. Since the houses are made of bamboo, it is another indication of forest resource extraction, caused by the Rohingyas.

#### *Construction of Marine Drive Road and Chain Migration*

One category of encroachers are those who have lost their houses and/or land as a result of the construction of Marine Drive Road. This road is under construction along the western coastline, from Cox's Bazar to Teknaf. The road passed through a populated village, (having 100 households) named Ferdousnagar near Himchari. The most villagers had to be evacuated. According to villagers the Army Corps of Engineers (who are carrying out construction) told them to construct their houses in the hills, and they were forced to take shelter there. We found 35 families were living atop the hill, and were deforesting the adjoining areas. Chain migration is taking place in the hills very rapidly. The chairman of Hnilla Union Parishad, Teknaf informed us that at least 50 cases are being filed every month on the issue of taking possession right over hill/forest. Majority of the encroachers consist of landless farmers from nearby villages and thanas, but some also come here from other parts of the country as wage labourers, and are tempted to settle in the Teknaf area. A good number of refugees from Myanmar is also settled in a village- Naitong Para, which is known as Rohingya para, as indicated earlier. Nevertheless, finding no other ways, all of them extract forest resources to meet up their basic necessities.

#### *The Vulnerable Position of the Local Leaders and Chairman of Union Parishad*

Local leaders, with affinities to various political parties, and the UP Chairman cannot resist these traders, smugglers, labourers and poor people for felling down

of the trees, for in doing so, they would lose their votes and may be replaced after the next elections.

On the other hand some of their view is that although they know the adverse impact of felling trees on environment yet they overlook such activities on humanitarian ground:

*'You can not simply watch a man dying without food, can you?'*

#### *Lack of Institutional Strength*

The staffs of the Forest Department have pointed out the constraints to safeguard the forest resources and plantation, which include:

- (i) As per volume of work, i.e., guarding the total area, as directed, number of staff is not enough. As a result they need to make surveillance area every night which is not only difficult but also impossible. For example, the Beat Officer together with the guards needs to cover an area of 5000 ha. every night for surveillance. As a result they can not discharge their duties as per schedule. Their statement claims authenticity if we have a look at the list of Forest staff responsible for safeguarding the forest at Head Quarter Beat Office

**Table 14: Number of Forest Staff at Beat Office**

Name of the Post	Number of Staffs
Range Officer	1
Beat Officer	1
Probationary Beat Officer	1
Guard	2
Gardener	3
Speed boat driver	2

Moreover the Beat Officers are not provided with 4-WD vehicles. Motorbike is allocated only to the Beat Officers for patrolling the forest areas while the cost of required fuel and lubricants of the bikes is to be borne by them. The area to be looked after at a Head Quarter Beat Office is 10000 ha. every night.

- (ii) The Forest Guards are provided with arms, which are not sophisticated enough, to combat the miscreants because the latter are usually armed with more advanced weapons.

- (iii) At a Beat Office the stationary materials such as pen, paper, carbon etc. are to be procured by the cost of the forest personnel themselves.

- (iv) When the illegal fellers are captured by the forest guards/staffs, the accuseds are to be taken to the police/court for prosecution at their own cost. In such cases the travel cost, court fee etc. are to be borne by the FD staffs.



(v) In terms of plantation, the amount of money given to the Forest Department is too little to manage the programme successfully. According to the view of some of the Beat Officers the Government allocates Tk. 8000 for the planting and maintenance of 1.0 hac. of seedling which is far below the present minimal requirement of Tk.15000 per ha.

### **III. Conclusion and Recommendation**

It appears from the PLE report that the villagers are quite aware of the fact that depletion of forest brings about environmental degradation. Still they are forced to do it deliberately since they have no other source of earning except forest extraction. In such a situation, in order to provide the local people with alternate income earning sources, the following steps are recommended:

#### *Hill Top Irrigation Facilities*

Hill top irrigation facilities could be introduced by adopting 'fog trapping' and 'percolation strategy' adopted in Brazil and Chile respectively. The strategies could be mentioned here:

- (i) Fog Trapping : The fishing nets are spreaded over the slopes of the hills in the winter nights. These nets catch the dew drops which melt in the morning irrigating the slopes.
- (ii) Percolation Strategy: Some pitchers, having holes in the bottom, are placed along the mountain slopes and fill them with water. The water comes out through the holes in the bottom and dribbles down the hill slopes thus irrigating them.

#### *Goat Farming*

Goat farming could be an effective way of providing an alternate means of earning of the hilly people. Some of the goat species tending in the rocky hills of Pakistan, Afghanistan are very effective in climbing and descending from the hills. Most of the hilly forest, we have visited, appears to be denuded. This type of goats climb and descend long distance in search of food. Introduction of these goats in the hill districts could be an effective way of introducing alternate source of income. The animal husbandry department can import such goats. They could be distributed to those who are completely dependant on forest for their only source of income. Two or three goats are to be distributed to the women on easy terms of repayment through the NGOs with substantial subsidy from the Government. Insemination or artificial insemination programmes for such goats should be available to the localities through the Department of animal husbandry..

#### *Cultivation of Crops in the Hill Forest Areas*

(i) Tea Plantation: Development of organised tea gardens could be an alternate source of earning for the hill people. Tea plants grow well in the slopes of the hills under the shade of the trees.

(ii) Developing Cashewnut Garden: In Rangamati areas cashewnut is being commercially nurtured. There is no very differences in the climatic condition between these hilly areas and Rangamati. If cashewnut planing is successful, this could be widely disseminated because it has a global market. From plantation to production, harvesting, processing and exporting it can open up a horizon of economic upliftment including employment and poverty alleviation in the areas.

#### *Establishment of Micro Industries*

Micro industries, connected with pine apple, honey, cashewnuts etc. processing, could be established, which could provide jobs to the local people.

#### *Initiate Apiculture*

Recently the European bees, Apis mellifera, which produce more honey, has been introduced in Bangladesh. In order to introduce it to the marginal farmers, poor women, wood cutters bee keeper association in the cluster villages could be formed through motivation. They bee keeper should be given training. The honey should be purchased at reasonable rates by the authority, may be certain NGO.

#### *Expanding Pisciculture*

Fish culture in local *charras* could be initiated. Besides, there is a potential scope for expanding pisciculture by setting up a good number of hatcheries in the locality.

#### *Establishment of Cluster Villages outside Hill Forest Areas*

The Local Government Engineering Department can establish cluster villages for providing accommodation to flood victims, migrants and local people. On one hand it will help resist encroachment and provides the people with work in construction sectors, on the other.

The above mentioned programmes could be undertaken by the Government with the collaboration of NGOs. Along with, the villagers should be motivated and assisted to try to find out alternate source of income by themselves. This can be done through setting up of co-operative society in order to develop capital needed for small scale co-operative business, farming or they may seek help of the local NGOs.

It was found that the villagers have ideas about necessity of preserving trees but most of them are completely ignorant about the conservation of wild life. They have no idea what impact animals have in the ecosystem of the forest. They know deforestation will bring about degradation of the environment but they are unaware about the magnitude of the far reaching damage to the environment. They could be made aware and continuously made aware of the ultimate affect of deforestation about which they have little idea. Imams of the mosques, school teachers etc. can contribute significantly to participate in such motivation programmes.

The Government of Bangladesh has given emphasis on social forestry programmes which is indeed a positive step to expand the area of 'Green belt' but we must not overlook the fact that the social forestry will never be able to replace the natural 'sylvan shadow' and its impact on the eco-system of the country. Alongwith



the social forestry programmes, steps should be taken to conserve the natural forests by providing the local people with alternate income earning activities.

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## SANITARY AND PHYTOSANITARY MEASURES AND ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT IN BANGLADESH

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**Abstract:** The aim of Plant Quarantine is to protect agriculture from avoidable damages by hazardous organisms. While the Plant Quarantine Service is basically to prevent the introduction of pest, it is also essential that the Plant Quarantine Service have to be constantly receptive to Phytosanitary and other problems relating to the export of plant produces in a pest free area. At present sixteen Plant Quarantine stations, moderately equipped with Plant Quarantine facilities, are functioning in different entry points of Bangladesh. Import and export of plants and plant products are regulated by the "Destructive Insects and Pest Rules, 1966 (Plant Quarantine)" amended up to July 1989. These rules are not adequate to protect human, animal and plant life or health and therefore, as a signatory to FAO International Plant Protection Commission, should be framed in the light of the Agreement on Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures on the basis of international standard, guidelines and recommendations.

### Introduction

The Uruguay Round Agreement on the Application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures (WTO SPS Agreement) recognises the right of the member countries to adopt measure to protect human, animal or plant life or health (WTO, 1995). In Bangladesh, numerous harmful organisms threaten Plant Production, which causes severe loss in the field of Bangladesh Agriculture. It is obviously of the greatest importance to combat all disorders already present in the country in the best possible way. But it is equal importance to try keep out of the country new exotic and serious plant disorders as it otherwise will add to the burden of defeating those already presents.

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Plant Quarantine historically has been practised in this subcontinent. In Bangladesh, import and export of agricultural commodities are regulated by the 'Destructive Insects and Pests Rules, 1966 (Plant Quarantine) amended up to July, 1989 framed under 'Destructive Insects and Pests Act 1914.

### **Alignment of the SPS Agreement with IPPC**

The SPS Agreement dealt only with risks to human, animal or plant health, and other requirements on Products that were addressed by the TBT Agreement. Bangladesh became a signatory to FAO, International Plant Protection Commission with the express commitment of formulates Rules and Regulations to prevent the introduction into and spread within the country of destructive plant pests and diseases through appropriate plant Quarantine Measures (Faruque, 1998).

The SPS Agreement dealt with all aspects of Phytosanitary measure that may directly or indirectly affect trade. It was emphasised that it would be most useful if the IPPC covered at least the same issues as the SPS Agreement. As trade is global it was considered essential that standard are international rather than regional.

### **Brief Review of the SPS Agreement**

The aim of plant Quarantine is to protect agriculture from avoidable damage by hazardous organisms, which may have been inadvertently introduced into a particular country. Dangerous pathogens and pests, which do not occur in the importing country but which, when introduced, may spread very quickly. As well as pathogens and pests that do not occur or have a limited distribution in the importing country, and which have a moderate rate of increase, their introduction into an non-infested area or field being of particular importance to the growers concerned. Enforcement of Quarantine Legislation is the main way to protect the introduction and spread of these pathogens. In Bangladesh Plant Quarantine officers and staffs are engaged for enforcing Quarantine Rules Regulations in this regard on behalf of Plant Protection Wing, Department of Agriculture Extension, Ministry of Agriculture. For enforcing the Quarantine Rules Regulations there should have utmost need to developed clear knowledge to the technical officers and staffs serving in the Plant Quarantine Section about Quarantine plant viruses in the context of their mode of infection, symptomatology, and pathogenesis, host range, pathways of transmission, detection techniques and phytosanitary measures. To avoid unjustifiable trade barriers among the trading partners, FAO and various plant protection organisations have formulated technically sound plant quarantine principles and procedures for trade (Frommer, 1990).

#### **a) Positive Consequences**

The aim of plant Quarantine is to protect agriculture from avoidable damage by hazardous organisms While the plant Quarantine Service is basically to prevent the introduction of pest it is also essential that the Plant Quarantine Service has to be

constantly receptive to Phytosanitary and other problems relating to the export of plant produce in a pest free areas. It is equally important to ensure successful trading of Agricultural Products in international market. Exporting countries must maintain a pest free agricultural environment if they want to export quality products. There are some views that may be opposing, but what is important, is not the actual application of plant Quarantine that is a barrier to trade. Stringent and strict Quarantine is required to maintain credibility. Quality and Quarantine must go together. Quality control should be maintained to get into international markets. Customs, Immigration, Quarantine Service of the Department of Agriculture and concerned Ministries all over the world must recognise the common issue. Phytosanitary measures are desirable and become, sometimes and occupational hazards, one must work to sustain Quarantine Procedures to ensure quality as well as credibility of agricultural products.

#### **b) Negative Consequences**

The movement of Agriculture commodities in international trade is affected by plant quarantine Protective measures. Normally there should not be encountered any serious delay by commercial establishment with the movement of commodities, if there exists, among trading partners, co-operation and understanding between the exporter, importer and the plant quarantine authorities. The facilitation of commodity movement would as well organised, their personnel are properly trained and the legal basis upon which the plant quarantine activities are based is established on the appropriate principles. On the other hand there are also some countries in the world, which would unreasonably associate physical and morphological specifications of certain commodities as part and parcel of a Quarantine requirement for importation. Thus creating injudicious and unnecessary barriers to trade between the trading partners.

#### **Present development of Plant-Quarantine Procedure**

The International Plant Protection Convention (IPPC) in to line with the assessment on the application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary measures (SPS Agreement) conducted within the frame work of the Uruguay round and to include recent development in establishing standard setting procedures under the IPPC. Within the SPS Agreement, the Secretariat of the IPPC is recognised as one of the major International standard setting organisations.

In response to the negotiations in the Uruguay round in 1989 the 25<sup>th</sup> FAO Conference agreed to establish a secretariat for the IPPC, within FAO, to address all issues related to harmonisation and information exchange in the area of Plant Quarantine. The conference carefully considered the proposed program of work of the secretariat and agreed that its main task should be development.



- Harmonised guide lines for pest risk assessment;
- Harmonised Plant Quarantine principle governing Phytosanitary laws and Regulations; and
- Harmonised Plant Quarantine procedures.

The IPPC secretariat became functional in 1992. In 1993 the 27<sup>th</sup> FAO Conference adopted for the development of Phytosanitary standards.

The Plant protection wing of Department of Agricultural Extension (DAE) under the Ministry of Agriculture is multi-agency responsibility organisation. At the national level of the DAE is headed by Director General who is assisted by 'Director' from each of the wing namely Plant Protection, Field Service, Food Crops, Cash Crops and Training. Besides these wings, Personnel and Administration (P&A) and Planning and Evaluation (P&E) are the two separate wings direct linked with Director General, DAE.

Director, Plant Protection wing is responsible for execution and implementation of the existing Plant Quarantine legislation in the country. There are five sections in the Plant Protection with viz., Plant Quarantine Section, Pesticide Administration and Quality Control, Operation (Aerial and ground), Surveillance and Forecasting and Integrated Pest Management. Plant Quarantine section is headed by Deputy Director, who is assisted by Senior Quarantine Pathologist, Quarantine Entomologist, Plant Pathologist, Plant Quarantine Inspector and Inspector and the Junior Technical and supporting staff.

At present in Bangladesh, sixteen Plant Quarantine stations are functioning in different entry points of the country. Some of these Quarantine stations are moderately equipped with Plant Quarantine facilities. Bangladesh and India signed the bilateral MOU in 1978. According to the bilateral MOU about 15 Land border Check-post were surveyed to study the feasibility of importance of opening new Plant Quarantine Stations. Bangladesh established nine-land border check-post.

Considering the volume of Import and Export of agricultural products and other Quarantine activities Chittagong seaport and Benapole land border check-post have been upgraded.

In Bangladesh, at present different Plant Quarantine station are functioning in the following entry points:

- A. Plant Quarantine Headquarter, Khamarbari, Dhaka.
- B. Airports
  1. Zia International Airport, Dhaka.
  2. Chittagong Airport, Chittagong.
  3. Osmani Airport, Sylhet.
- C. Sea ports
  1. Chittagong Seaport, Chittagong
  2. Mongla Seaport, Khulna
- D. Land Border Check-post
  1. Benapole, Jessore

2. Darshana, Chuadanga
  3. Tamabil, Sylhet
  4. Burimari, Lalmonirhat
  5. Teknaf, Cox's Bazar
  6. Akhaura, B. Baria
  7. Hilli, Dinajpur
  8. Sonamasjid, Chapainababgonj
  9. Bhomra, Satkhira
- E. River Port
1. Narayangonj, Narayangonj

### Probable consequence of the Agreement on Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures

#### *Implementation for Import of Bangladesh*

Annually on an average 15 lakh M. Ton plants and plant products are imported through the Plant Quarantine Service of Plant Protection Wing (Table 1a, 1b & 1c). On arrival of plants and plant products at the port of entry, the importer shall inform to the Plant Quarantine Officer concern who shall conduct necessary examination, render appropriate treatments if required, and issues release order. Due to the import liberalisation policy of the government, many consumer goods of agricultural and industrial origin are being imported in large quantities. Live animals, poultry birds, fish fry are also regularly imported into the country for direct consumption and multiplication. Importation of food grain in bulk, namely, rice, wheat, pulse, dry chilies and oil seeds by government against barter deal, grant or purchase without import permit from Plant Quarantine Service. If these imports are allowed into the country without necessary examination, fumigation and treatments, the result may be disastrous for human, animal and plant life and health (Rahman, 1997). Introduction of SPS Agreement of the Uruguay round can go a long way to improve the situation in this respect. Application of the Sanitary and Phytosanitary measures will serve as a check to unrestricted flow of foreign pests and diseases.

**Table 1a: Import of Vegetables Seeds during 1995-96, 1996-97 1997-98**

Year	Quantity of Imported Vegetable Seeds	Name of Seeds
1995-96	773.47 M. Ton	Gourd, Lady's Finger, Cucumber, Papaya, Radish, Watermelon, Tomato, Cauliflower, Cabbage, Lettuce, Spinach, Turnip, Knolkhol etc.
1996-97	984.91 M. Ton	
1997-98	2232.62 M. Ton	

Source: Plant Protection Wing, DAE.



**Table 1b: Imports of Plants & Plant Products during the Year 1993-1998**

Name of imported Plant products	1993-94 M. Ton	1994-95 M. Ton	1995-96 M. Ton	1996-97 M. Ton	1997-98 M. Ton
1. Raw Cotton	34898	44531	62018	64361	68268
2. Fresh Fruits	11939	76930	134887	143892	27231
3. Dry Fruits	2443	6771	570	621	13912
4. Spices	8209	14371	9324	9506	3301
5. Chick pea Pea	77197	21035	15420	21405	78133
6. Gram	29117	6707	34532	45586	39498
7. Lentil	6585	6777	10183	11775	12151
8. Black Gram	8713	250	513	2059	81
9. Sago dana	4089	3887	2544	2818	4729
10. Tapioca Starch	3241	1785	2138	3115	3269
11. Others Starch	1248	5000	4000	4120	4380
12. Arrowroot	198	285	456	564	2861
13. Mastered rape seed	65948	225373	185967	229289	226700
14. Veg. & Fruit Seed	816	235	419	506	2196
15. Betel nut	6786	4186	4291	5831	2098
16. Ground nut	337	796	42	59	50
17. Potato	642	474	354		36
18. Rice	41074	18041	668998	714710	366646
19. Wheat	118491	422661	699738	796172	308121
20. Maize	3002	750	416	564	509
21. Garlic Onion	125297	13966	38310	3505	9391
22. Ginger Turmeric	4787	1029	2458	3429	1285
23. Raisin	1687	1523	1067	1276	820
24. Tobacco Leaf	1369	1267	2070	2588	1180
25. Medicinal Plants	60	83	86	122	307
26. Fruits Plants	9824	459	532	402	995
27. Pulu Plants	38	35	23	25	30
28. Copra	51476	416608	55865	50444	56685
29. Dry chilies	8379	4731	30697	20550	19500
30. Dry Dates	8740	6653	9744	9753	8500
31. Timber	8420	18041	13702	9589	34421
32. Others	1371	1134	1012	1032	1112
Total	646421	1326374	1992376	2159668	1298396

Source: Plant Protection Wing, DAE.

**Table 1c: Imports of Plants and Plant Products during the Year, 1993-1998 Released after Treatment/Fumigation**

Name of imported Plant products	1993-94 M. Ton	1994-95 M. Ton	1995-96 M. Ton	1996-97 M. Ton	1997-98 M. Ton
1. American Cotton	14313	31348	49192	47162	68369
2. Betel nut	35	30	-	-	-
3. Cumin seeds	69	30	-	27	20
4. Lentil	64	216	-	600	400
5. Gram	215	79	-	-	-
6. Cloves	-	-	1	-	-
7. Rice	-	-	-	6500	1025
8. Tobacco	-	-	-	198	250
Total	14696	31703	49193	51487	70064

Source: Plant Protection Wing, DAE.

### Implication of Export from Bangladesh

Our major agricultural exports are raw jute, jute products and tea. It is our traditional export and so far faced no barrier on health hazard grounds. On an average 3.50 lakh M. Ton of Agricultural commodities, indigenous fruits and vegetables are inspected per annum for the purpose of export for which Phytosanitary certificate are issued (Table 2a, 2b & 2c). We can expect that export of these traditional plants and plant products will continue to grow in future. But introduction of restriction by some of the European Union (EU) countries on Sanitary and Phytosanitary ground has the potential to create adverse effects for our exports.

**Table 2a: Exports of Plants and Plant Products**

Name of Exported Plant Products	1993-94 M. Ton	1994-95 M. Ton	1995-96 M. Ton	1996-97 M. Ton	1997-98 M. Ton
1. Tea	12726	11185	16177	16457	13407
2. Raw Jute	210542	214513	230456	257396	299379
3. Jute goods	14189	16449	18799	21883	17664
4. Vegetables	7317	4904	3619	3879	4443
5. Fresh Fruits	695	511	482	517	1101
6. Betel Leaf	396	671	723	775	883
7. Dry Fruits	16	12			640
8. Spices	105	152	119	14	
9. Flower Duster	107	37	45		
10. Bamboo stick	58	197	200	250	5317
11. Cocomoss	20	12	3		5317
12. Tobacco Leaf	258	21	50		1192
13. Wooden Products	102	153	251	218	8535
14. Flower & Fruit Plants	1728	4925	13662		
15. Handicrafts	31	32	211	213	250
16. Raw Cotton	194	1800	1155		20
17. Dry Fruits	361	117	119	94	90
18. Fine Rice	43	56	60	94	
19. Others	117	197	101	148	200
Total	249005	255944	286232	301938	358438

Source: Plant Protection Wing, DAE.

**Table 2b: Exported Vegetables and Indigenous Fruits**

Year	Exported Plants & Plant Products	Quantity (M. Ton)	Exported Country	Name of Exported Vegetable & Fruits
1995-96	Vegetables, Fresh Fruits, Betel Leaves	361935 48250 72375	UK, UAE, Saudi Arabia, Germany, France, Italy, Belgium, Canada, Malaysia, Singapore etc.	Pumpkin, White Gourd, Stolon, Snake Gourd, Amaranth, Peper, corn, long beans, Brinjal, Beans, Seeds of Beans, Sweet Gourd, arum, Bitter Gourd, Papaya, Cucumber, Radish, Green Banana, Lady's Finger, Betel Leaves, Lemon, Olive, Jack Fruits, Pineapple, Guava, Wood Apple, Litchi etc.
1996-97	Vegetables Fresh Fruits Betel Leaves	387930 51725 77585		
1997-98	Vegetables Fresh Fruits Betel Leaves	444351 110128 88390		

Source: Plant Protection Wing, DAE.



**Table 2c: Post Entry Quarantine Reports of HQ Laboratory**

Year	Plants & Seeds for Post entry Quarantine reports		Released		Destroyed		Remarks
	of Plants	of Seed Samples	of Plants	of Seed Sample	of Plants	of Seed Samples	
1995-96	824	3	776	3	48	-	Plants: Mango, Dates, Rose, Grapes, Cashew nut, Rambhutm, Olive etc. Seed Samples: Onion, gourd, Beans, Potato, Tomato, Maize, Rice & Clove etc.
1996-97	649	6	614	5	35	1	
1997-98	273	7	240	7	33	-	

Source: Plant Protection Wing, DAE.

### **Important features of the Agreement on Sanitary and Phytosanitary measures**

1. The Agreement recognises the enforcing measures necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health.
2. The Agreement recognises the use of Sanitary and Phytosanitary measures on the basis of international standard, guidelines and recommendations.
3. Recognising that developing countries encounter special difficulties in complying with the Sanitary and Phytosanitary measures.
4. To avoid unjustifiable trade barriers among the trading partners, FAO and various plants protection organisations have formulated technically sound Plant Quarantine principles and procedures for trade.

### **Present Application in Bangladesh**

In Bangladesh, at present Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries, Ministry of Health and Family Planning look after the Sanitary Phytosanitary measures of the country. The Director, Plant Protection Wing of Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for execution and implementation of the existing national or international Plant Quarantine Legislation and Agreement. Aquatic animal health or health or livestock is look after by the Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries. By the administrative order Fisheries Department and Directorate of Livestock arranges inspection of imported animal, poultry bird, fish fries, look for sign and symptom of disease and pest and put them quarantine procedures.

Import and Export of plants and plant products are regulated by the "Destructive Insects and Pest Rules, 1966 (Plant Quarantine)" amended up to July 1989 framed under "Destructive Insects and Pest Acts, 1914".

### Conclusion

The present plant inspection and quarantine rules of Bangladesh are out of date and should totally renewed in order to fulfill the needs of the country and to comply with the FAO convention and the application of Sanitary and Phytosanitary measures (WTO SPS agreement). A list of important plant disorders present in Bangladesh will not only be considerable value to the country itself but also international. At present no co-operation exists between the plant quarantine inspection and quarantine service in Bangladesh and the corresponding ones in the neighbouring countries. Generally, it can be concluded that there is great demand for more information at all levels about the work and importance of plant health inspection and quarantine.

Bangladesh, as least developed country, at the initial stage some consideration may be allowed to export and import of agricultural commodities with regards to phytosanitary and environmental issues. This will help to export more agricultural commodities to the EU, Middle East countries and others. However, financial assistance will be needed to develop physical and other facilities for developing sanitary, phytosanitary and environmental facilities in Bangladesh.

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## **SOUTH ASIAN ETHNICITY: AN ANTHROPOLOGICAL EXPLORATION**

A. K. M. Mamunur Rashid\*

**Abstract:** The article highlights on some major issues in South Asian ethnicity. In a multi-ethnic plural society, a distinct characteristic becomes ethnically relevant only when people apply it to mark themselves off from others or when outsiders use it to impose an identity. Ethnicity is a rapidly changing process, and that nations or ethnic groups are not fixed entities. Therefore, we cannot find a permanent or fixed solution, rather it is a different matter to devise the mechanism to bring about the arrangement. Ethnic distinctions are social constructs. Popular wisdom and ideologies that define and interpret ethnic distinctions both shape and are shaped by the objective conditions of colonially instituted, class-based and ethnically segmented labour market. Ethnic distinctions are not 'rooted' in 'perceptions' (of lifestyle or otherwise), but emanate from dialectic between perceptions/values/ideologies and the material conditions, which structure them.

### **1 Introduction**

Segments of a population form ethnic groups by virtue of sharing the combination of common descent (real or supposed), a socially relevant cultural or physical characteristics, and a set of attitudes and behaviour. Since blood ties actually or putatively relate ethnic group members to one another, an ethnic group is a kind of a super-extended family.

Here a primary basis for differentiation between ethnic groups can be either cultural- such as language, a nationality and a religion – or physical- such as skin pigmentation and body shape- or both. The distinguishing feature is considered significant in the society, and the people use it in differentiating themselves from others.

To form a real ethnic group and not just a mere ethnic collection of people, people must, at least to some degree, perceive themselves as a distinct ethnic group ('we' and 'they' feelings), sense a common fate, interact more among themselves than with outsiders, and think and behave similarly (Smootha, 1980:267-272).

Furthermore, a distinct characteristic becomes ethnically relevant only when people apply it to mark themselves off from others or when outsiders use it to impose an identity. Ethnicity is not presumed to exist when any of these defining criteria is missing. Lacking an idea of common descent, women, the sane, or non-believers, should not be regarded as ethnic group although each of these categories of people is distinguished by evident cultural or biological traits.

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## 2 Formation of Ethnic Groups in South Asia

Ethnicity crystallises only in situations where people of different background come into contact or share the same institutions or political system. Linguistically based ethnic groups emerged in India only after the British established administrative divisions, which in 1948 turned into provincial states, along linguistic lines, so creating linguistic majorities and minorities. Before that for centuries speakers of different languages intermingled freely and did not form linguistically based ethnic groups (Khan, 1992:873-879).

## 3 Meaning of Ethnicity

Ethnicity as a concept is derived from the Greek word *ethnos*, which means nation, people, caste, tribe, and such others. (Danda, 1991:51)

The meaning of ethnicity is not easy to specify precisely, but two aspects appear in most definitions. Objective and subjective facets are the aspects, where an objective facet refers to descent from an earlier cultural group in the senses of being offspring and being derivative. Subjective facet in character, involving a sense of identity with or attachment to the group; people feel they belong and work to maintain the group and their membership in it. The both aspects are usually considered necessary defining an ethno-cultural group (Berry *et al.* 1992:294).

Ethnic divisions are evident throughout human history, yet they become more pervasive in recent times because technological advances multiplied inter-group contacts and brought together hitherto separate peoples. The great historical forces that fashioned the world ethnic mosaic are colonialism, imperialism, annexation, involuntary migration, free migration and nationalism.

New ethnic divisions are regularly formed as the result of involuntary population movements, including mass expulsions, flows of refugees, indentured or contracted laborers and large-scale enslavement. The rise of nationalism has stimulated the crystallisation of ethnicity in many parts of the world. Nationalism is the claim of ethnic groups to self-determination. These factors clearly indicate that ethnicity is not something static, but flexible, adaptable and capable of taking different forms and meanings depending on the situation and perceptions of advantage. Consequently ethnic groups emerge, merge, and split constantly (Khan, 1992: 875). Acculturation<sup>1</sup>, assimilation<sup>2</sup>, diffusion<sup>3</sup> and ethnic revitalisation<sup>4</sup> are the major social processes in ethnic mobility.

<sup>1</sup> Acculturation occurs when one group changes so completely that it becomes fully integrated into the dominant society or when two groups merge into a new cultural system.

<sup>2</sup> Assimilation is a long-range process and is more easily accomplished by individuals motivated to change than by entire groups. Assimilation involves continuous and intense contact between two previously autonomous cultural traditions, usually leading to extensive changes in one or both systems. It entails large-scale reorganisation of a society to accommodate to the presence of another cultural group.

<sup>3</sup> Diffusion is the process of a people borrowing an idea, a place of equipment, or a type of food from another people and incorporating it into their way of life.

<sup>4</sup> Ethnic revitalisation happens, when racial or class barriers to assimilation determine total

Having recognised that ethnicity is a rapidly changing process, and that nations or ethnic groups are not fixed entities, we cannot find a permanent or fixed solution, rather it is a different matter to devise the mechanism to bring about the arrangement.

We probably have to see the matter in much broader sense. Ethnic distinctions are, rather, social constructs. That is the cognitive model; popular wisdom and ideologies that define and interpret ethnic distinctions both shape and are shaped by the objective conditions of colonially-instituted, class-based and ethnically segmented labour market. Ethnic distinctions are not 'rooted' in 'perceptions' (of lifestyle or otherwise), but emanate from dialectic between perceptions/values/ideologies and the material conditions, which structure them.

#### **4 Ethnicity in South Asia**

In south Asia there are about 200 ethnic groups, majority of them are small in size. Largest concentration is found in India. Among 187 linguistic communities, 97% of the total population 'speaks in 23 languages (Bromley and Markov, 1982:77-91).

##### **4.1 India**

Ethnic issues have featured prominently in the politics of south Asian countries in the contemporary world when the political power of the central government in India is identified by disadvantaged regional groups as Punjabi domination.

In India, no single ethnic group can be similarly identified as the dominant holder of state power at the centre. Politics of ethnicity in India has by and large, been diffused on to local areas, taking the form of 'communalism'. They revolve around demands of underprivileged or 'backward' ethnic groups for positive action in their favour, for quotas in jobs and educational opportunities whereas privileged groups oppose quotas and favour their allocation on the basis of 'merit'.

Local competition between ethnic groups often results in communal conflict and violence. Further, the so-called 'untouchables or dolits' are a special category of underprivileged groups. Their depressed status is qualitatively different from that of other disadvantaged groups.

Finally, in India there are one or two special cases, such as that of militant Sikh movement for an independent Khalistan, which falls into a category of its own. An examination of the politics of ethnicity in the region suggests the fact that there is one class or social group whose material interests have come to the core of ethnic competition and conflict, although other class forces too play a role in it. That class was a product of the colonial transformation of Indian social structure in the nineteenth century and it consists of those who have received an education that equips them for employment in the state apparatus, at various levels, as scribes and functionaries (Alavi, 1989:222-246)

##### **4.2 Pakistan**

It could be said that localised communal conflict and the issue of quotas are not absent in Pakistan, but its political scene is overshadowed by sub-nationalism of regional groups. In the case of sub-national or regional movement, other factors enter

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changes in lifestyle, or when people become disillusioned and frustrated in accommodating to a powerful foreign culture. Attempts to revitalise the old system may emerge.



into the equation, such as political ambitions of local level power-holders that seek to profit from regional autonomy. Powerful landholders and tribal leaders in various regions of Pakistan constitute that category. They have much to gain from ethnic politics of the salariat section because of the lure of political power in regional government. They also gain when, in the rhetorical claims of ethnic solidarity, class struggle is demoted and de-legitimised. Subordinate classes, the bulk of the working class and the impoverished peasantry, on the other hand, have the least to gain from the politics of ethnicity.

Conversely, members of a privileged ethnic group who are in control of state power to the exclusion of others, as Punjabis in Pakistan, denounce ethnicity as parochial and appeal to larger categories, such as the nation or the 'brotherhood of Islam' in the name of which they seek to de-legitimise ethnic demands (Alavi, 1989:224).

### 4.3 *Srilanka*

A striking religious and linguistic congruence has been the hallmark of group differentiation amongst the two largest ethnic groups of Srilanka, the Sinhalese and the Tamils. Thus, more than 90% of the sinhala-speaking majority community (70% of the population) are Buddhists. The case of the predominantly Hindu, Tamil-speaking community of the Tamils (21% of the total population) is similar. As regards the Moors, the second largest minority community (7% of the total population), almost all of them are Muslims, with Tamil as the language of their hearth and home. Notwithstanding such distinctiveness in linguistic and religious terms, Sinhalese/Tamil. Social structures do have certain elements of religio-cultural commonality. These features reflect the processes of integration between the Sinhalese and the Tamils, the genesis of which can be traced back to the period preceding the advent of the western colonial powers. In June 1956, the declaration of Sinhalese as the only official language has laid the solid foundation for minority Tamils to revolt (Wijeratne, 1994:467-487).

On the other hand over the decades, an acute competition for political power and scarce economic resources and limited opportunities has been the major cause of the exacerbation of inter-ethnic group conflicts in the politics of Sri Lanka. In such a competition, the political leadership of both the Sinhalese and the Ceylon Tamils manipulated ethnic symbols to underline the political identity of the respective groups and thereby mobilize community consciousness. The ethnic nationalism of the Sinhalese had its resonance amongst the Ceylon Tamils, whose minority complex was aggravated the circumstance of their being a socially mobilised community with a distinct and regional and linguistic identity. The rise of Tamil ethnic nationalism was symbolic of the wants and expectations of Tamil youth in 1978, so was the insurgency of 1971. Tamil militant movement was growing and July 1983 saw ethnic violence erupting in Sri Lanka, which is continued today. Only recently, a peace process began in a more positive political context (Phadins, 1978:191-213).

#### 4.4 Bangladesh

In terms of ethnic composition, Bangladesh compared to most countries in the world, is a relatively homogeneous country, where almost 99% of the population are 'Bangalee'; by ethnicity. It was on the basis of this identity that Bangladesh become an independent state in 1971.

While almost 99% of the population of Bangladesh are Bangalees, there are small ethnic groups in the country who do not identify themselves as Bangalee. These small ethnic groups, which number around 30, include the Chakmas, the Santals, the Garos and so on.

In Bangladesh, the term 'tribal' (*upajatiya*) denotes general designation for all the ethnic groups who are not Bangalee. In the Chittagong Hill Tracts, where the term '*pahari*' (hill people) is used as a collective name for all the 'tribal' groups. The British colonial administrators have introduced the term 'tribal' in order to develop a special schema for ethnic classification. The tribal people are thought to be living in 'primitive' conditions and in isolation from the mainstream of Bangladesh's national life. Politics of ethnicity of small tribal groups have reached its new dimension in the socio-political context of the liberation war of Bangladesh in 1971 and its post independence period. If we analyze the politics of ethnicity in Bangladesh in the framework of discourse, it means a system of representation that reflects and reinforces relations of power. We can then understand the conceptions of the identities of these culturally distinctive small ethnic groups who have been significantly transformed by discursive forces. However, they must not be viewed as passive participants in the discourse of power. They have responded with their own cultural constructions. The idea of *Jumma* nation is one such constructions (Tripura, 1992).

In the ultimate analysis, the discourse on ethnicity in Bangladesh shows that knowledge and views about 'self' and 'others' are closely linked with power relations between the two. Thus cultural constructions tend to remain divisive and conflicting.

From the above discussion, the problem of ethnicity clearly indicates that it is not only rapidly developing but also varies in diverse cultural and ecological settings and is closely interrelated with political, economic and social factors.

#### 5 Approaches to Address the Ethnic Issues

To address the ethnic issue there is need to have a multidisciplinary approach. To propose a solution to ethnic conflict it is objective and necessary to take into account particular context of ethnicity and devise strategies in accordance with the specific nature of the conflict.

In the light of the discussion, state-plus-nation approach could be considered as a step towards the search for a solution to ethnic conflict. The framework of the state-plus-nation approach is potentially useful in solving ethnic conflicts if the framework could be modified and applied to the necessity of a given context (Gidon, 1994:100-112).



It should be mentioned here that the basic idea of this framework is to devise mechanisms whereby the political and cultural interests of nations without states or ethnic groups can be accommodated without further fragmentation of the territorial states

## 6 Conclusions

Nations or ethnic groups are not given entities. The ways they are imagined, constituted and mobilised do not reflect any permanent attachment to a fixed past, rather they are active and future oriented. Permanent attachment to a given territory is also not an expression of any innate human nature. Taking the long-range evolutionary view, humans are basically hunter-gatherers with a brief recent history of farming and industry. Homo Sapiens may have existed in essentially modern form at least 50000 years before people started to cultivate. And only with a switch to agriculture based economy the territorial states had developed. Then how to define nations in relation to territorial state? Whether the idea of homeland has any lasting impression on people? Will people stop from moving to places where there are better jobs and higher standard of living? Thus many factors suggest the fact that we still lack adequate data about ethnic groups, ethnicity and causes of ethnic conflicts. For this purpose, more serious studies on the ethnic issues could be undertaken as an urgent task; and thereby the gap of knowledge could be minimised. Without having adequate empirical data about ethnic groups as well as proper understanding about present ethnic processes, any unrealistically proposed solution can make the problem more difficult.

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## THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF IRRIGATION IN RURAL BANGLADESH: A CASE STUDY OF THREE VILLAGES

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**Abstract:** This paper deals with the key role of Deep Tubewell (DTW) Irrigation in bringing about agricultural and socio-economic development. The results of the study express that, presently, the farmers of the study area are leading a higher standard of livings comparing with the previous time when there was no DTW irrigation facilities. The information shows that, with the certainty of irrigation water, the farmers have chosen to switch to more valuable crops and have invariably increased their cropping intensity as well as raised their productivity. The results reveal that having certain and high productivity of crops the farmers have achieved a developed socio-economic conditions.

### I. Introduction

Agriculture plays an important role in the growth and stability of the economy of Bangladesh generally and of Rural Bangladesh especially. The largest share of manpower 68.5% are engaged in agriculture and 32% of Gross Domestic Products come from agriculture (BBS, 1998). The main activity of rural people is farming and they maintain all types of basic demands from agriculture. The agriculture in Bangladesh is under tremendous population pressure with an agricultural density of 915 persons per square kilometer of agricultural land in the years of 1991. The scope for horizontal expansion of arable land in the country is extremely limited and only way left boosting the crop production up in the large-scale adoption of multiple cropping (Khan and Hassan, 1989). The massive agricultural development, viz. mechanisation of agriculture may bring positive growth of rural economy. Despite such importance of agriculture, we are deprived of present technological facilities presently used in agriculture. It may be mentioned that the sudden deterioration of agricultural production may break the socio-economic conditions of Rural Bangladesh. The farmers are still in habit of using traditional equipment of farming in different parts of rural Bangladesh. But, it is a matter of satisfaction that we have started to use the mechanised tools of agriculture partially, viz. Irrigation, Fertiliser, Pesticides, Insecticides, High Yielding Varieties (HYV) seeds etc. The farmers of our

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country have already gained massive development using these types of facilities. This research has been planned to examine the socio-economic changes having Deep Tubewell (DTW) Irrigation facilities in rural area of Bangladesh.

The use of farm technology begun as early as 1960s in Bangladesh adopting several package schemes and new strategies were adopted for the development of agriculture (Vylder, 1982). The spread of HYVs and fertiliser use has largely followed the spread of irrigation. It is therefore the irrigation that has been termed the leading output (IRRI, 1995). In early 1960, the Government of Bangladesh introduced irrigation facilities through large-scale projects. The areas irrigated by such projects made up a total of about 10% of the total irrigated area, and were exceedingly costly because both the capital and current costs were borne by the government. Bangladesh Agricultural Development Corporation (BADC) initiated the minor irrigation equipment by installing Deep Tubewell, Shallow Tubewell (STW) and Low Lift Pump (LLP) at subsidised prices. The BADC selected technologies, imported standardised equipment, and regulated their location in the fields. DTWs and LLPs were rented out seasonally to farmers' groups until the mid 1970s. DTWs were installed in response to the demands of farmers' informal groups after site inspections by the BADC, and were rented annually to the group. Gradually the government expenditure on irrigation declined as lending and assistance from donor agencies decreased. The subsidies decreased gradually, and privatisation and deregulation policies were introduced in developing irrigation facilities during the period from 1980-88, the period when the system of distribution of irrigation equipment was shifted from government to the private sector. DTWs were sold to Farmer's Co-operatives (KSS) and private individuals at a subsidised price (Akteruzzaman & Jaim, 1999). Until 1987, the irrigated area was about one-fourth of the cultivated area but by 1993 the percentage increased 43% and tubewell irrigation accounted for 70% of the total irrigated area. It was found that irrigation in Bangladesh was rice-based. Rice occupied more than 83% of the total irrigated area and again the share of *boro* rice alone was 71% (BBS, 1995).

## **II. The Study, Objectives and Methodology**

### *Objectives*

The present study focuses upon the impact of Deep Tubewell Irrigation on the agriculture and socio-economic changes in Rural Bangladesh. The objectives of this study are threefold: *Firstly*, to examine the irrigation facilities in rural area of Bangladesh; *Secondly*, to examine the agricultural development through DTirrigation; and *Thirdly*, to examine the socio-economic changes for agricultural development in Rural Bangladesh.

### *Study Area*

The three villages, Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat of Mohanpur Upazila of Rajshahi District of Bangladesh, has been selected as the sample study area on the basis of purposive sampling. The Mohanpur Upazila lies between 24°32' and 24°39' north latitude and between 88°33' and 88°44' east longitude (BBS, 1996). The Upazila occupies an area of 163 square kilometers.

### *Data and Methodology*

The necessary data, analysed in this study, have been collected from primary and secondary sources. Primary data have been collected directly from field through plot-to-plot and questionnaire survey. The questionnaire survey has been conducted only from those farmers who were taking DTW Irrigation facilities. The information has been collected from 240 farmers of the study area in which 60 from Gangapara, 120 from Molladangi and 60 from Nandanhat villages. The field observation and questionnaire survey conducted from the month of May to July in 1999. The secondary data have been collected from published and unpublished sources, official records of the different government and private institutions. Data processing implied editing, classification and tabulation of collected data so that they are amenable to analyse and interpretation (Rahman and Khan, 1992). After finishing the field survey, efforts have been made to process and tabulate the collected data. The technique of data analysis has been adopted in keeping with the objectives of the study. Simple tabular technique has been used in the study to classify the data into meaningful categories. The collected data has been analysed and compared in terms of two situations i.e. Situation 1 and Situation 2. Situation 1 reveals the situation of before DTW installation and Situation 2 reveals the situation of after DTW installation in the study area.

## **III. DTW Irrigation and Agricultural Development**

### *3.1 Irrigation Facilities*

Irrigation means the application of water to the soil for the purpose of crop production. In other words, irrigation is essentially the artificial application of water to overcome deficiencies in rainfall for growing crops (Carton, 1967). But the irrigation is necessary not only for growing crops but also getting a stable prosecution (Alim, 1974). In respect of this view, irrigation is inevitable in Bangladesh, where rainfall is unreliable, inadequate and unpredictable. In the study area, at present DTW irrigation is more usable than other traditional and modern methods of irrigation and has been supplying water successfully.

### *3.2 Area under Irrigation*

As can be seen in Table-1, in the study area taken as a whole, the percentage increase in the total cultivated area after the installation of DTW was 126 percent. Considered on village basis, the percentage increase in Nandanhat was high (162%), followed by Molladangi (131%) and Gangapara (92%) villages (Table 1).

**Table 1: Total Cultivated are before and after DTW Install  
(Area in Acres)**

Study Area	Area in Situation 1	Area in Situation 2	Percentage Change
Gangapara	50	96	92
Molladangi	70	162	131
Nandanhat	35	92	162
Total Area	155	350	126

Source: Survey, 1999. Thana Agriculture Office, Mohanpur



### 3.3 Cropping Pattern

As regards the allocation of total cultivated area between different crops, it appears that after the installation of DTW, the area under rice crops in all seasons increased sharply. Table-2 reveals that area under wheat and potato increased from 23.65 % to 27.25 % and 21.87 % to 28.19 % respectively. The areas under vegetables have also increased in different seasons. But, only the area under jute has decreased remarkably in the study area. It is clear that a large proportion of cultivated area in the study area is under rice crops of different varieties.

**Table 2: Share of Crops in the total cultivated area in the study area**

Crops Season	Percentage of Cultivated Area	
	Situation 1	Situation 2
<b><u>Kharif 1</u></b>	<u>32.95</u>	<u>43.53</u>
Rice (Aus)	25.63	36.39
Rice (Bona Aman)	12.75	6.20
Jute	10.56	1.88
Vegetables	3.18	2.06
<b><u>Kharif 2</u></b>	<u>29.67</u>	<u>45.53</u>
Rice(Ropa Amon)	20.46	38.53
Vegetables	2.51	2.69
<b><u>Rabi</u></b>	<u>65.28</u>	<u>80.19</u>
Rice (Boro)	25.39	55.45
Wheat	23.65	27.25
Potato	21.87	28.19
Vegetables	1.68	3.70

Source: Survey, 1999. Thana Agriculture Office, Mohanpur.

### 3.4 Cropping Intensity

In the study area, the cropping intensity before DTW installation averaged at 110 %, which has increased to 202.66 % after the installation of DTW. In other words, DTW farmers had 92.66 % higher intensity of cropping compared to the situation when these farmers had not taken DTW irrigation facilities in their farms (Table 3).

**Table 3: Cropping Intensity in the Study Area**

Study Area	Situation 1			Situation 2			Difference % change in TCI*
	Kharif	Rabi	TCI*	Kharif	Rabi	TCI*	
Gangapara	52.34	54	110	61.90	66	186	76
Molladangi	76	89.75	110	109.02	123.12	232	122
Nandanhat	59.38	92.18	112	84.13	106.20	190	78
Total Area	62.57	78.64	110	85	98.44	202.66	92.66

Source: Survey, 1999. \*TCI= Total Cropping Intensity, Thana Agriculture Office, Mohanpur.

During Kharif season the cropping intensity on DTW farms was as high as 85 %, compared with 62% in situation 1. During Rabi season, the cropping intensity of DTW farmers was 98.44 % and 78.64 % in situation 1 (Table 3).

The analysis, however, reveals that the cropping intensity of DTW farmers is high enough compared to the situation prevailing before these farmers had installed DTW.

### 3.5 Production of Selected Crops in the study area

One of the reasons for low per acre yield is the lack of irrigation water. It can, therefore, be said that an increase in irrigation water lead to an increase in per acre yield (Ikramullah, 1990). In Table-4, the results of field survey reveal that the observed per hectare production of different crops in the study area after the installation of DTW, is significantly higher than before the availability of DTW water. The production data presented in Table-4 confirms the improved performance of crop yield with additional supplies of water with high yielding varieties of seeds and increasing use of chemical fertilizers.

**Table 4: Increase of Production in the Study Area (In hectare/metric ton)**

Crops	Situation 1	Situation 2	Percentage Change
Rice(Aus)	2.29	3.04	24.38
Rice(Aman)	1.40	1.90	25.80
Rice(Boro)	2.10	3	29.80
Wheat	1.39	1.75	19.20
Potato	15.65	20.57	23.87
Vegetables	23.72	27.10	12.45

Source: Survey, 1999. Thana Agriculture Office, Mohanpur

### 3.6 Use of HYV and Fertilizer in the study area

Before the installation of DTWs, improved seeds were sown on 39.36 % of the total cropped area. The same farmers, after the installation of tubewells, devoted 87.25 % of their total cropped area to improved seeds. After the installation of DTWs the area sown with improved seeds has increased by 47.89 % in the study area (Table 5).

The application of chemical fertilizers needs sufficient supply of irrigation water. The availability of additional water due to tubewell installation increase the use of chemical fertilizers (Ikramullah, 1990). In the study area, the application of chemical fertilisers after DTW installation was as high as 97.98 % compared to 66.34 %, in situation 1. The summary statistics in Table-5 reveal that in the study area taken as a whole, percentage increase of fertiliser users in the area in situation 2 was about 31.64 %.

**Table 5: Area wise use of HYV Seeds and Fertilizer (Percentage of total cropped area)**

Study Area	High Yielding Varieties		Fertiliser	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
Gangapara	38.29	85.59	60.56	98.56
Molladangi	37.25	88.23	65.89	97.54
Nandanhat	42.56	87.95	72.59	97.85
Total Study Area	39.36	87.25	66.34	97.98

Source: Survey, 1999. Thana Agriculture Office, Mohanpur



#### IV. Socio-economic Issues for Agricultural Development

##### 4.1 Socio-economic Impacts

Technology, in the agricultural sector, has provided a higher standard of living, promoting socio-economic conditions. Although, with limited level of mechanisation of agriculture (viz., Irrigation, chemical fertiliser, pesticides, insecticides, herbicides, high yielding seeds, tractor etc), the irrigation facilities, especially DTW irrigation, have changed the socio-economic conditions of the study area. Some of the indicators of socio-economic changes for agricultural development have been analysed below.

##### 4.2 Population

The population of a country can be regarded as a resource and on the other hand, it can be regarded as a barrier of development if that country is over populated. In Bangladesh, population is one of the great problems because of its large size. Basically in the rural Bangladesh, population growth rate is very high even though the growth rate of population is gradually decreasing in recent years. In the study area, the population sizes in different structures is in changing condition (Table-6). This indicates the people's awareness on population problem in the study area. The dependency ratio also shows good socio-economic conditions in 1999, compared to the previous two years.

**Table 6: Changing Pattern of Population Structure and Dependency Ratio**

Population	Gangapara			Molladangi			Nandanhat		
	1981	1991	1999	1981	1991	1999	1981	1991	1999
0-14	240 (56.47)	228 (43.69)	145 (43.15)	348 (49.50)	378 (45.54)	307 (44.62)	211 (55.38)	232 (45.85)	147 (44.68)
15-64	182 (42.82)	283 (54.21)	187 (55.66)	328 (46.66)	427 (51.45)	371 (53.93)	166 (43.57)	252 (49.80)	149 (54.41)
65 and above	3 (0.71)	11 (2.10)	4 (1.19)	27 (3.84)	25 (3.01)	10 (1.45)	4 (1.05)	22 (4.35)	3 (0.91)
Total	425 (100)	522 (100)	336 (100)	703 (100)	830 (100)	688 (100)	381 (100)	506 (100)	329 (100)
Total dependency Ratio	134	84	80	114	94	85	130	101	84

Source: (i) Survey, 1999

(ii) Population Census of Bangladesh, 1981 and 1991.

Notes: Figures in the parentheses indicate percentage.

##### 4.3 Changing Pattern of Literacy Condition

Table 7 shows the educational level of the villagers in the study area. In situation 1, the proportion of people passed in primary level, S.S.C. and H.S.C. were 20%, 6.66% and 3.33% respectively in the Gangapara village. On the other hand, in situation 2, this figure increased to 51.66%, 16.66% and 8.33% in respective levels. In Molladangi village, the level of education was very poor. Only 10.83% and 1.66% were passed in primary level and SSC in situation 1, respectively. But in situation 2, this number was higher than before i.e. situation 1 (Table 7).

**Table 7: Literacy Status of the Study Area by Households (HH)***(In Percentage)*

Category	Gangapara		Molladangi		Nandanhat	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
primary level	20.00	51.66	10.83	26.66	16.66	36.66
SSC passed	6.66	16.66	1.66	12.60	5.00	15.00
HSC passed	3.33	8.33	-	2.50	-	5.00

Source: Survey, 1999

**4.4 Changing Pattern of House Types**

In this study, houses (main) have been categorized into three types on the basis of structural characteristics: (i) Pucca, (ii) Semi-pucca and (iii) Kutcha. It has been found that the house types have changed in number and quality with the changes of economic conditions in the study area.

Village-wise changing pattern of house types is stated in Table-8. The data represents that 3.33%, 10.00% and 86.67% houses were respectively pucca, semi-pucca and kutcha in Gangapara village in situation -1. On the other hand, in situation 2 this percentage changed remarkably. In this village 8.33%, 25.00% and 66.67% houses were pucca, semi-pucca and kutcha only. In Molladangi village, from situation 1 to situation 2 the total number of pucca, semi-pucca and kutcha houses have increased from 2.50% to 9.16%, 3.33% to 21.66% and 94.17% to 69.18% respectively. And in Nandanhat village, this change also shows positive increase of pucca, semi-pucca and kutcha houses. In situation 1, the total number of pucca, semi-pucca and kutcha houses were 5.00%, 6.66% and 88.34%. Whereas, in situation 2, these proportion increased to 15.00%, 31.66% and 53.34% respectively.

**Table 8: Changing Pattern of House (Main) Types***(In Percentage)*

Types of Houses	Gangapara		Molladangi		Nandanhat	
	situation 1	situation 2	situation 1	situation 2	situation 1	situation 2
Pucca	3.33	95.00	80.83	94.16	90.00	98.33
Semi-pucca	10.00	25.00	3.33	21.66	6.66	37.66
Kutcha	86.67	66.67	94.17	69.18	88.34	53.34
Total HHs	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Survey, 1999

**4.5 Changing Pattern of Annual Average Income**

Income is an important and convenient criterion of economic condition and has intimate relation with the basic needs of man. Income pattern is also inevitable to generate other socio-economic benefits. Table-9 shows that in the study area, income pattern has not changed remarkably. It may be said that the people of the villages were in poverty and below subsistence level before DTW installation. Having the DTW irrigation facilities, they, however, have brought out themselves to better conditions than before.

It can be noted from the Table-9 that 50.00%, 53.34% and 45.00% of the total head of the households were under 0-10,000 income group before the DTW



installation in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat village respectively. On the other hand, this figure declined by 28.33% 19.16% and 13.33% after DTW installation in the respective villages. The deterioration of income in this group, by those in others income groups viz. 10,001-20,000, 20,001-30,000 has been augmented remarkably. Before the DTW installation, 23.33%, 39.16% and 30.00% of the head of the households were in 10,001-20,000 income groups and this figure changed into 30.00%, 63.33% and 50.00% after having DTW facilities in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat village respectively (Table-9). These types of changes show the gradual economic development of these areas.

**Table 9: Distribution of Income Pattern by Households**

(In Percentage)

Income Group (Annual average income)	Gangapara		Molladangi		Nandanhat	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
0-10,000	50.00	28.33	53.34	19.16	45.00	13.33
10,001-20,000	23.33	30.00	39.16	63.33	30.00	50.00
20,001-30,000	13.33	20.00	5.00	8.33	18.44	20.00
30,001-40,000	8.33	11.67	1.66	5.00	3.33	10.00
40,001-50,000	5.00	10.00	0.84	3.33	3.33	5.00
50,001 and above	-	-	-	0.85	-	1.67
Total HHs	100	100	100	100	-	100

Source: Survey, 1999

#### 4.6 Changing Pattern of Family Planning Facilities

An attempt has been made to know the people's views in the study area about family planning. Table-10 shows the information regarding this issue.

From Table 10 it may be seen that most of the respondents (head of the households) i.e. 80.00%, 87.67% and 68.33% are in favor of adopting family planning in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat villages after the DTW installation respectively. But, before this time, only 51.67%, 53.33% and 44.33% respondents were in favor of adopting family planning. On the other hand, 10.00%, 10.00% and 21.67% respondents thinking that they should not adopt family planning after DTW irrigation and these figures were 38.33%, 37.50% and 36.67% before DTW installation. Another 10.00%, 8.33% and 10.00% respondents could not give a clear opinion on family planning after DTW irrigation and this proportion was approximately same i.e. 10.00%, 9.17% and 15.00% before the DTW installation.

**Table 10: Changing Pattern of Opinion on Family Planning (In Percentage)**

Study area	Adopt		Should not adopt		Unclear	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
Gangapara	51.67	80.00	38.33	10.00	10.00	10.00
Molladangi	53.33	87.67	37.50	10.00	9.17	8.33
Nandanhat	48.33	68.33	36.67	21.67	15.00	10.00

Source: Survey, 1999

#### 4.7 Changing Pattern of Modern Opportunities

Agricultural development and economic improvement can bring out the modern opportunities for the people. The people of the study area were deprived of recreation, communication and simple transportation facilities. But, there has been a remarkable change after agricultural development, due mainly to increasing use of DTW irrigation system.

Table 11 depicts that before DTW irrigation facilities 3.33%, 5.00% and 3.33% head of the households were able to take service of watch, radio and bicycle in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat villages respectively. And 25.00%, 26.66% and 26.66% households were able to take service of watch and radio in respective villages. After the DTW irrigation facilities, 36.67%, 37.50% and 40.00% head of the households have been taking service of watch and radio, and 38.33%, 31.66% and 38.34% have been taking services of watch, radio and cycle in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat villages (Table-11). There was no television in all the villages in situation 1 but after the development they were enjoying television facilities.

**Table 11: Changing Pattern of Taking Modern Opportunities**

(In Percentage)

Modern opportunities	Gangapara		Molladangi		Nandanhat	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
Watch	3.33	0.00	4.16	0.00	1.66	0.00
Radio	20.00	0.00	19.16	0.00	20.00	0.00
TV	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.83	0.00	0.00
Bicycle	28.33	8.33	15.83	9.16	25.00	6.67
Cassette	8.33	5.00	5.83	4.17	11.66	3.33
Watch+radio	25.00	36.67	26.66	37.50	26.66	40.00
Watch+Cassette	6.66	10.00	9.16	15.83	8.33	8.33
Watch+radio+cycle	3.33	38.33	5.00	31.66	3.33	38.34
Watch+radio+cycle+TV	0.00	1.67	0.00	0.83	0.00	3.33
None	5.00	0.00	5.83	0.00	3.33	0.00
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Survey, 1999

#### 4.8 Changing Pattern of Latrine Facilities

Table 12 shows the distribution of latrine facilities by households (in percentage) in the study area. It can be observed that before DTW installation 10.00%, 1.67% and 38.33% head of the households had sanitary latrines in the three study areas respectively. And 36.67% 5.00% and 18.33% had kutchra latrine and 53.33%, 93.33% and 43.34% of the total respondents were without latrine facilities. But after the installation of DTW and changes of economic conditions, villagers have developed their latrine facilities. In this time 20.00%, 6.67% and 50.00% households possessed sanitary latrines, 56.67%, 60.00% and 35.00% possessed kutchra latrines and 23.33%, 33.33% and 15.00% of the total respondents possessed no latrine facilities in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat village respectively.



**Table 12: Changing Pattern of Latrine Facilities***(In Percentage)*

Study Area	Sanitary		Kutchha		None	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
Gangapara	10.00	20.00	36.67	56.67	53.33	23.33
Molladangi	1.67	6.67	5.00	60.00	93.33	33.33
Nandanhat	38.33	50.00	18.33	35.00	43.34	15.00

Source: Survey, 1999

**4.9 Changing Pattern of Drinking Water Facilities**

Table 13 shows that, before DTW installation 61.67%, 97.50% and 93.33% respondents were relying on Tube well, 25.00%, 2.50% and 6.67% were relying on hand tubewell in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat villages respectively and only in Gangapara, 13.33 % households were dependent on pond in Gangapara for supply of drinking water. But, after DTW installation these figure change to 8.33%, 5.83% and 3.33% who were relying on hand tubewell in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat villages respectively. And only 5.00% were relying on well in Gangapara villages.

**Table 13: Sources of Drinking Water by Households***(In Percentage)*

Study area	Hand Tubewell		DTW+Tubewell		Well		Pond	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
Gangapara	61.67	8.33	-	86.67	25.00	5.00	13.33	-
Molladangi	97.50	5.83	-	94.17	2.50	-	-	-
Nandanhat	93.33	3.33	-	96.67	6.67	-	-	-

Source: Survey, 1999

**4.10 Changing Pattern of Food Production**

Bangladesh is densely populated having a small area as bulk of the population suffers from malnutrition. The food crops are often affected by vagaries of nature such as drought, flood and cyclone. Thus, there is continued insecurity in domestic food supply, which remains one of the major concerns for the country. The study area was also in food deficit region before the introduction of DTW irrigation system. Because, most of the land was cultivable wasteland. But, after the DTW installation this wasteland changed into cultivable land, which removed food deficiency in the study area significantly.

**Table 14: Changing Pattern of Food Production in the Study Area***(In Percentage)*

Study area	Have food problem		Have no food problem	
	Situation 1	Situation 2	Situation 1	Situation 2
Gangapara	87.33	25.00	21.67	75.00
Molladangi	76.66	26.67	23.34	73.33
Nandanhat	63.33	18.33	36.67	81.67

Source: Survey, 1999

Note: X= Number of Households, Y= Percentage of Households.

Table 14 illustrates the situation of food production in the study area on the basis of two situations i.e. situation 1 and situation 2. In situation 1, 78.33%, 76.66% and 63.33% respondents were in food problem in Gangapara, Molladangi and Nandanhat village respectively. On the other hand, only 25.00%, 26.67% and 18.33% were in food problem in situation 2 in respective village. In situation 2, 21.67%, 23.34% and 36.67% were not in food problem. On the contrary, 75.00%, 73.33% and 81.67% of the study area were not in food problems in situation 2.

## V. Conclusion

This paper is divided into two main sections. The first section deals with DTW irrigation and agricultural development and the comparison is between the situation before and after the installation of DTW. The second section is concerned only with the socio-economic issues for the agricultural development in the study area.

The socio-economic conditions of Bangladesh are characterised by high population growth rate; high unemployment rate; large scale absolute poverty; increasing landlessness; widening disparity in income, wealth and opportunities; low educational level; high infant mortality; poor health and sanitation; malnutrition; vulnerability to natural disasters, severe inflationary pressure; and overwhelming dependence of foreign capital, and imported food and raw materials (Werrengren, *et al.* 1984). Only, the agriculture plays a vital role to promote socio-economic conditions having high yielding varieties and modern inputs.

In the present study, the impact of DTW irrigation, as a modern input, in socio-economic conditions has been observed. The result shows that, there is a positive correlation between DTW irrigation facilities and socio-economic developments. The availability of DTW water enabled farmers in general not only to meet the water requirement of the already existing cultivated land, but also to extend water application to the previously uncultivated land. Furthermore, the cropping intensity was found to be higher after DTW installation than before the installation. The agricultural development has generated improvement in the socio-economic conditions. Finally, it is important to say that there have much opportunities to improve the socio-economic conditions giving more and more privilege to the agriculture sector, viz. agricultural inputs, by the Government of Bangladesh.



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## **SPATIAL PATTERN OF HELMINTHIC DISEASES IN RAJSHAHI DISTRICT: A GEO-MEDICAL ANALYSIS**

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**Abstract:** The present study focuses on the spatial pattern of the helminthic diseases in Rajshahi district of Bangladesh. The study found that the existing mortality rate due to helminthic diseases can be reduced by appropriate preventive and control measures. The temporal pattern of helminthiasis attacks indicates an oscillating trend through time and a set of environmental factors are responsible. There is a strong relationship between the helminthiasis attacks and the environmental factors. The study identified helminthiasis risk zones, which in turn may be helpful for a reliable health planning and could lead to improvement of health facilities in future.

### **I. Introduction**

Helminthic diseases are the most common public health problems in the developing and least developed countries like Bangladesh. Prevalence of different helminthic diseases is high in the tropical and subtropical countries. It is also higher in the developing and least developed countries than the developed world. Prevalence of helminthiasis has been always very high in Bangladesh and the causes are thought to be due to poor hygienic and environmental condition caused by poverty and illiteracy.

Various kinds of diseases are caused by endoparasites inhabiting in the human alimentary canal. They form a group of diseases known as the helminthic diseases or more commonly the worm diseases. Generally it produces symptoms like pain in the abdomen, vomiting, anorexia, diarrhoea and indigestion. It may sometimes produce several clinical manifestations like anaemia, intestinal tract problem through peptic or typhoid ulcers.

A large number of people of Rajshahi district suffer from helminthic diseases. In Rajshahi it has been estimated that over 60 percent of the population suffers from parasitic infestations. In this district, the worm diseases have always maintained a high rate of infestation. Modern facilities for health care, sanitation etc. are very low

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in this district. The people of the villages are the most sufferers, especially the younger age groups and this is due to lack of knowledge regarding personal hygiene. Helminthiasis is maintaining a cycle among the rural communities. If it is allowed to continue the people would likely to suffer from permanent damages such as stunted physical and mental growth especially in case of the children. Rajshahi is prone to helminthiasis due to environmental and other phenomena. In 1998 the total helminthiasis attacks were 89352 persons.

### ***1.1 The Study Area***

The study area comprises the whole of Rajshahi district. It is situated in the north-western part of Bangladesh. It is bounded on the north by Naogaon district, on the east by Natore district, on the south by Kushtia district and India and on the west by Nawabgonj district. It lies between 24°07' to 24°43' north latitudes and between 88°17' to 88°58' east longitudes. The total area of the district is 2,407.01 Sq. Km. (929.35 Sq. miles) of which 62.37 Sq. Km is under river (Fig.1). According to B.B.S. Zila series, Rajshahi, 1991, this district comprises ten Thanas i.e. Durgapur, Charghat, Godagari, Boalia, Paba, Puthia, Tanore, Mohonpur, Bagmara and Bagha. The present study comprises the area of these ten thanas included in the B.B.S Zila series, Rajshahi, 1991. Rajshahi is characterised by typically tropical monsoon climate with high temperature and moderate rainfall. The average yearly temperature of 26°C and the annual rainfall of about 1319 millimetres were recorded in 1998 (Bangladesh Meteorological Department, Dhaka, 1998). The study area is divided into two physiographic divisions-Barind tract and the Ganges flood plain. Geologically the Barind is a part of the old alluvial terraces of middle Pleistocene age. Outside the Barind, the landscape is of low silty loamy soil known as flood plain (Fig. 2).

### ***1.2 Objectives of the Study***

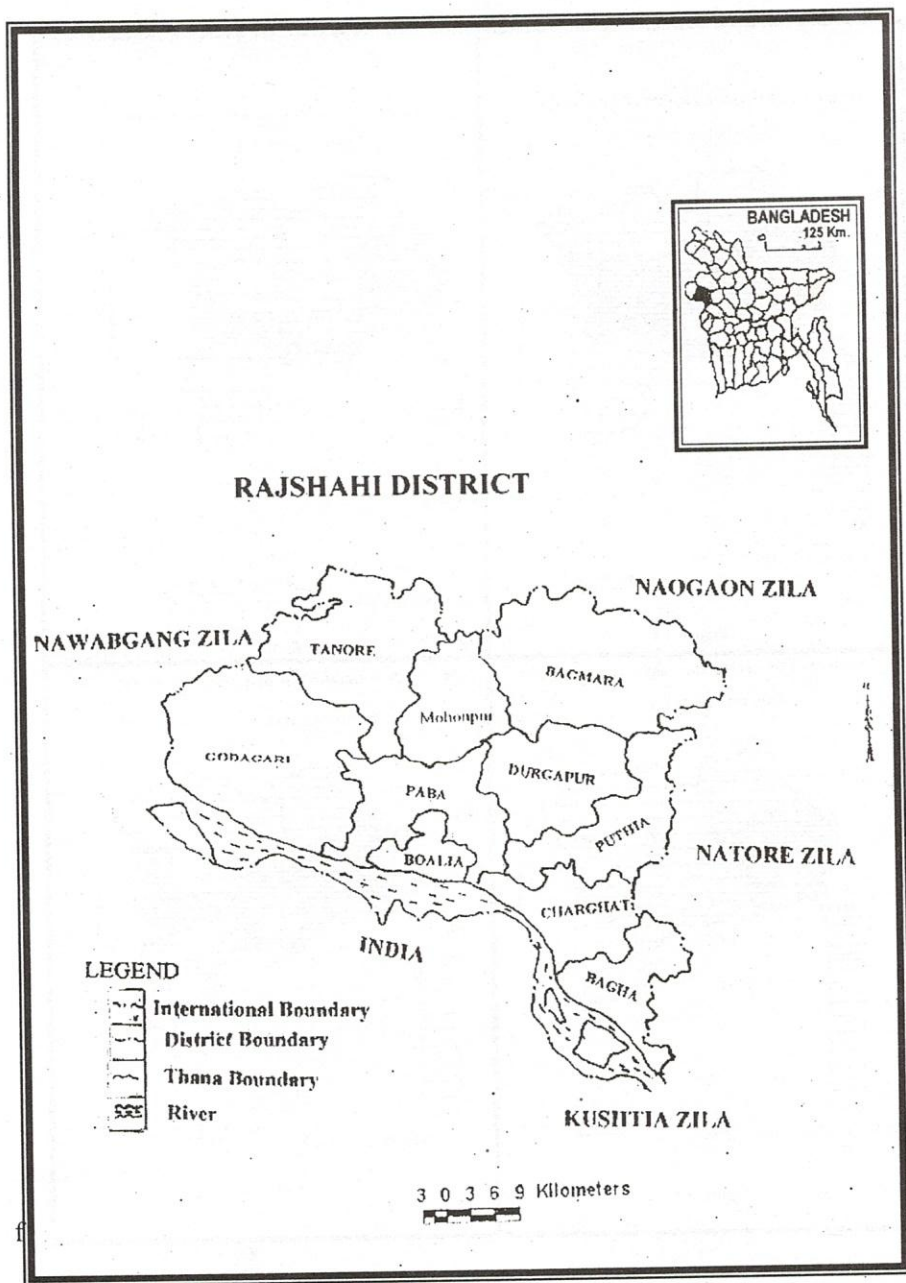
This study primarily focuses upon the spatial pattern of the helminthic diseases in Rajshahi district of Bangladesh. The specific objectives of the study are to:

- find out the incidence of helminthic diseases in Rajshahi for the last eight years (1991-1998).
- present the spatial pattern of helminthic diseases for the last eight years (1991-1998).
- Identify the common factors on which prevalence of helminthiasis depends.

### ***1.3 Data and Methodology***

This study is entirely based on secondary data sources. In this study, a large database from published and unpublished sources has been used. These were collected from various government and non-government institutions. Data on helminthic attack-rate of thanas during 1991-1998 were collected from each Thana Health Complex and the total attack-rate of helminthic diseases in Rajshahi district were collected from Civil Surgeon Office Rajshahi. Supporting data of selected environmental parameters

# Location Map of Study Area





## Location Map

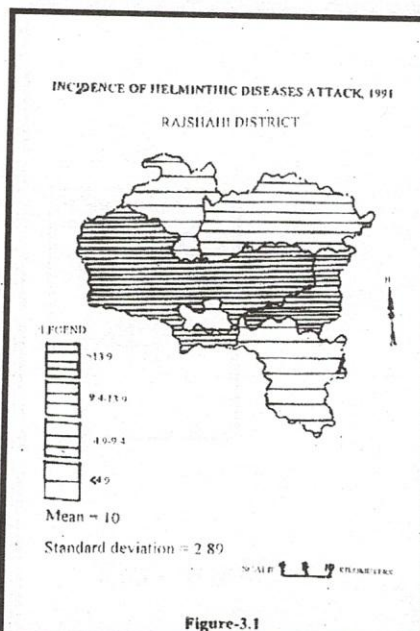


Figure-3.1

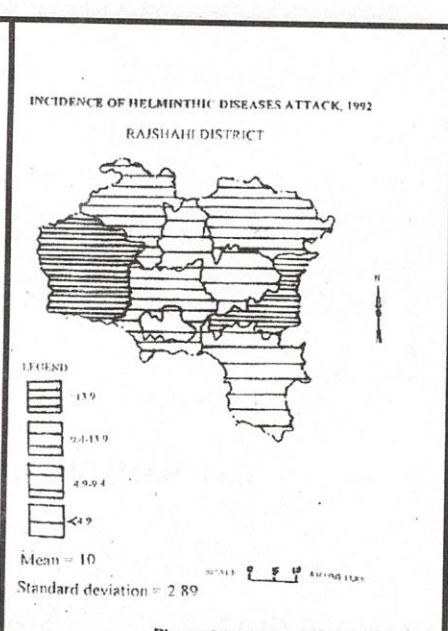


Figure-3.2

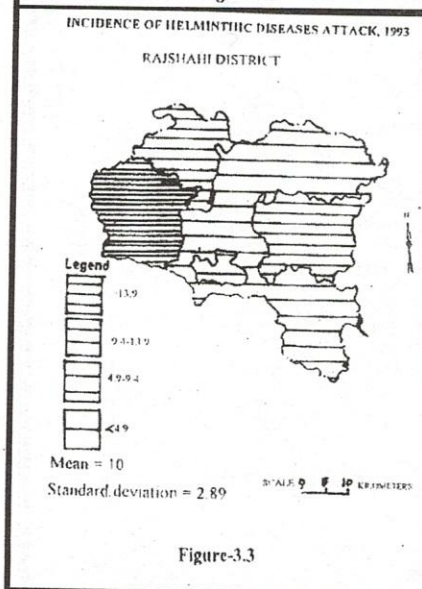


Figure-3.3

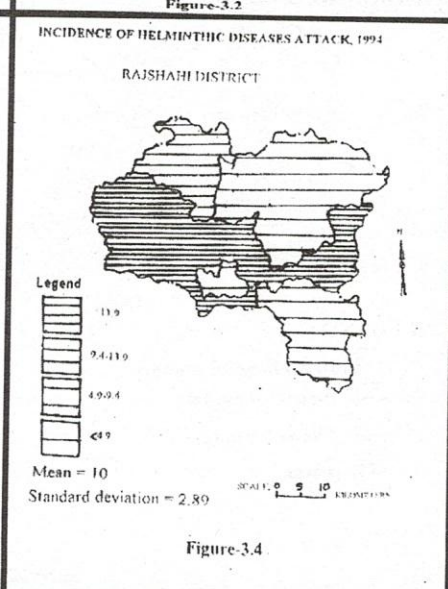


Figure-3.4

# Location Map

INCIDENCE OF HELMINTHIC DISEASES ATTACK, 1995  
RAJSHAHI DISTRICT

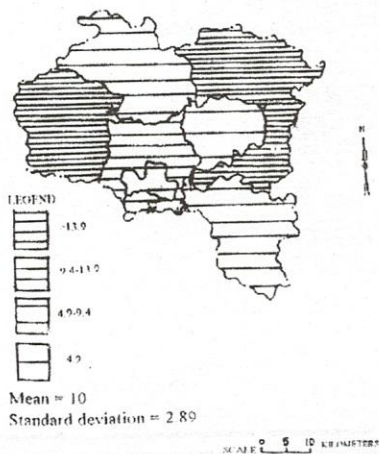


Figure-4.1

INCIDENCE OF HELMINTHIC DISEASES ATTACK, 1996  
RAJSHAHI DISTRICT

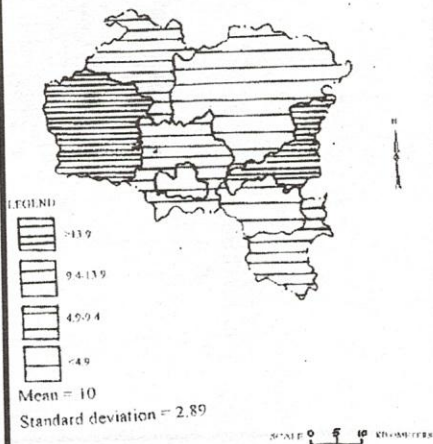


Figure-4.2

INCIDENCE OF HELMINTHIC DISEASES ATTACK, 1997  
RAJSHAHI DISTRICT

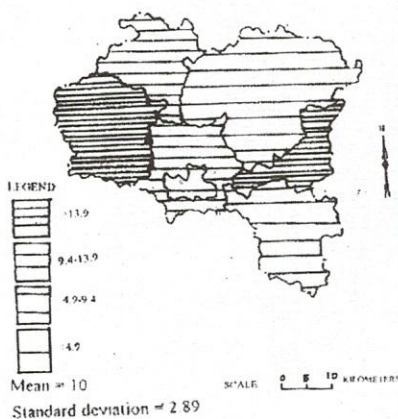


Figure-4.3

INCIDENCE OF HELMINTHIC DISEASES ATTACK, 1998  
RAJSHAHI DISTRICT

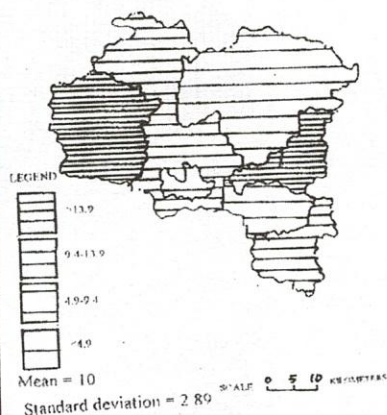
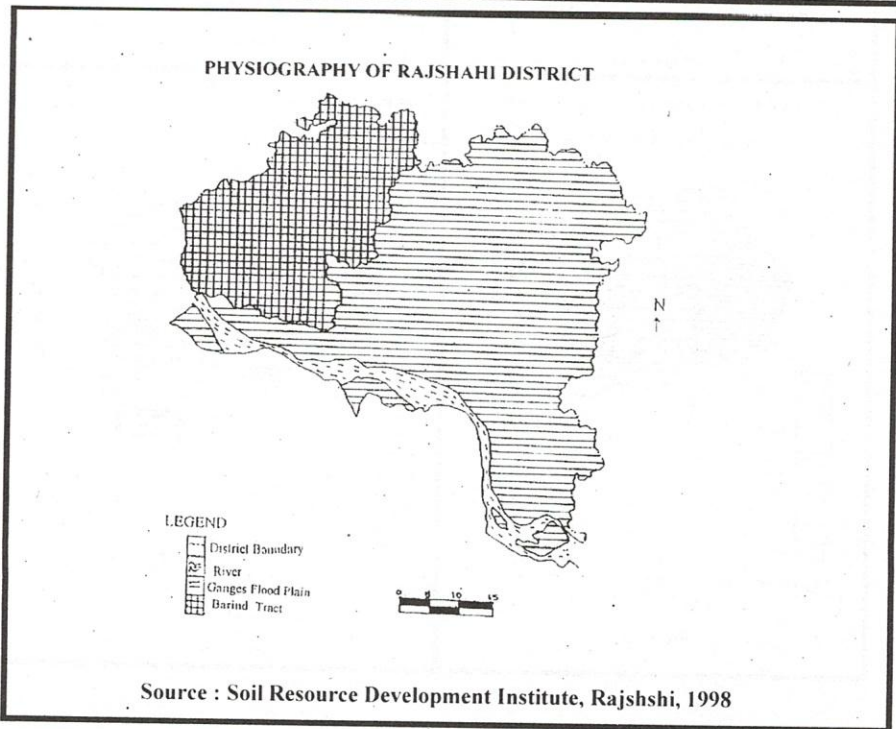
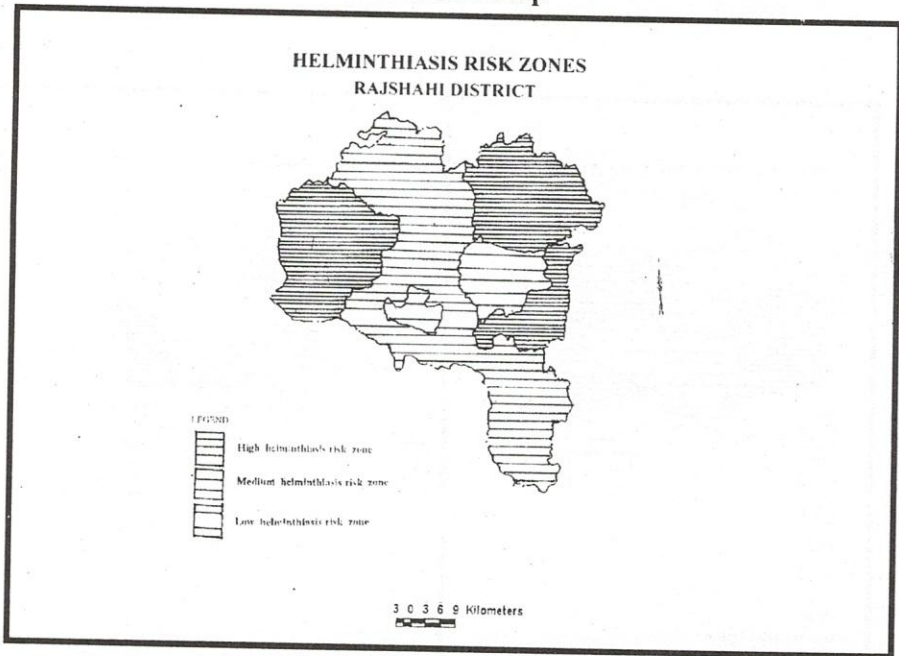


Figure-4.4



## Location Map



having bearing on helminthic diseases were collected from population census report, 1991 (Zilla series, Rajshahi) published by Bangladesh Bureau of statistics in 1993. In conformity with the objectives of the study, collected data were processed by statistical method.

Data on the helminthiasis affected population for 8 years (1991-1998) have been collected and weighted to be ranged by standard deviation method (Table 3). The spatial distribution pattern of helminthic diseases have been presented on 8 maps on the basis of the grouping of standard deviation shown on the maps (Figure: 3-4).

Primarily seventeen environmental and epidemiological factors related to helminthic diseases were selected from the literature review and focused interview with the doctor of each Thana Health complex. From these factors, nine most effective variables, such as literacy, density, agriculture population, non-farm population, sanitation facilities (Sanitary latrine facilities), housing types (Katcha & Pucca), tube-well water facilities, tap water facilities have been considered as environmental factors (Table-2).

## II. Spatial Aspects of Helminthic Diseases

Helminthiasis attack-rate in Rajshahi varies from year to year and region to region since the transmission of helminthiasis is directly influenced by the surrounding geogene.<sup>1</sup>

In 1991, Godagari, Paba, Durgapur and Puthia Thanas were apparently stable in the highest level of helminthis infection, which had the range of above 12.03 percent. The second highest attacks were found at Mohonpur and Bagmara having between 9.14 percent to 12.03 percent. Boalia is the lowest helminthic disease intensity Thana with less than 6.25 percent of helminthiasis attack (Figure 3.1). The total number of helminthic attacks in this year was about 89352 persons.

In 1992, the attacked rate of helminthic diseases was high. There were two helminthic infected Thanas (Godagari, Puthia) in the range of above 13.9 percent in this year. In these Thanas 73.16 & 67.59 percent people did not use sanitary latrine. In these two Thanas 36.62% & 29.26% people worked in agricultural field, 94.12 & 93.6 percent household lived in Katcha houses. Tanore, Bagmara, Paba were within the range of 9.4 to 13.9 percent. Bagha, Charghat, Durgapur and Mohonpur were in the range of 4.9. to 9.4 percent, which come under the third highest group. Boalia was the least infected (below 4.9 percent) area in 1992. The total numbers of helminthic attacks in Rajshahi were 84469 persons.

The spatial pattern of helminthic infection in 1993 was slightly different from 1992. In 1993, the spatial trend of highest incidence level of helminthic (i.e. about 13.9 percent) was fairly stable in Godagari Thana. Within the rate of incidence of 9.4 to 13.9 percent were Tanore, Durgapur and Puthia Thanas. But the rate of incidence was comparatively low in Mohonpur, Bagmara, Bagha, Paba and Charghat Thanas. In this year Boalia was the least infected (Below 4.9 percent) Thana (Figure -3.3). The total number of helminthic attacks in this year in Rajshahi were 77320 persons.

In 1994, Godagari, Paba and Puthia Thanas were apparently stable in the highest

<sup>1</sup> Geogene means Geographical factors that are related to diseases.



level of helminthic infection, which belonged to the range of above 13.90 percent. Tanore was the second highest (i.e. 9.4 to 13.9) incidence Thana. Bagha, Charghat, Durgapur, Bagmara, Mohonpur Thanas were included in the third incidence level group with 4.9 to 9.4 percent of helminthic attacks (Figure-4).

In 1995, Godagari, Bagmara and Puthia Thanas were apparently stable in the highest level of helminthic infection, which belonged to the range of above 13.9 percent. The rate of weighted helminthic attack in Paba Thana was slightly low from previous level. The nature of sharp decrease of helminthic incidence was found in Tanore Thana but Mohonpur, Charghat and Bagha were comparatively stable in the third infected group. In this year sharp decrease of helminthic incidence was found in Durgapur Thana. In this year Durgapur and Boalia were the least infected (Below 4.9 percent) Thanas (Figure 4.1).

In 1996, the weighted helminthic attacks were very high in Godagari and Puthia Thanas (i.e. above 13.90 percent). Tanore, Paba and Bagmara Thanas were included in the second incidence level with 9.4 to 13.9 percent of helminthic attacks (Figure 4.2). The nature of sharp decrease of helminthic incidence was found in Bagha Thana from the previous level. In this year, the total number of helminthic attacks was about 90595 persons.

The spatial pattern of helminthic infection in 1997 was slightly different from 1996. There were two helminthic infected thanas in the range of above 13.90 percent in 1997. The second highest group were Tanore and Paba included with the range 9.4 to 13.9 percent. Mohonpur, Bagmara, Durgapur, Charghat, Bagha thanas were included in the third incidence level with 4.9 to 9.4 percent of helminthic attacks (Figure 4.3). Boalia was the least attacked area. The total numbers of helminthic attacks in this year were about 8825 persons.

In 1998, the weighted percentage of helminthic attacks were very high in Godagari and Puthia thanas (i.e. above 13.90 percent). Tanore, Paba and Bagha thanas were included in the second incidence level with 9.4 to 13.9 percent of helminthic attack (Figure 4.4). In this year, the total number of helminthic attacks were about 85675 persons.

Table 3: Prevalence of Helminthic Diseases in Rajshahi district (1991-1998)

Thana	Weighted % 1991	Weighted % 1992	Weighted % 1993	Weighted % 1994	Weighted % 1995	Weighted % 1996	Weighted % 1997	Weighted % 1998
Bagha	8.58	7.08	9.38	5.61	8.90	11.11	8.76	11.52
Bagmara	9.46	11.85	9.33	8.91	14.20	7.60	5.72	8.44
Boalia	4.22	4.71	4.78	3.74	3.64	3.19	3.17	2.61
Charghat	7.76	8.51	8.20	6.56	4.92	7.03	8.50	6.31
Durgapur	12.99	5.99	11.26	8.32	4.36	4.92	5.07	7.42
Godagari	12.83	14.83	14.98	18.82	16.57	19.84	21.34	20.34
Mohonpur	10.85	9.32	8.02	5.46	5.44	6.72	6.78	6.10
Paba	12.15	11.64	9.23	14.92	13.26	11.07	12.79	11.58
Puthia	13.02	14.82	13.46	17.31	19.83	17.33	16.37	15.55
Tanore	8.12	11.46	11.44	10.27	8.93	11.52	11.51	10.08

source: Disease profiles of each Thana Health Complex

Table 4: Environmental, Socio-demographic factors for Helminthic infection

Thana	Sanitary %	Tub-well %	Density persons/sq.km	Agricultural worker %	Katcha houses %	Literacy rate %
HIGH HELMINTHIASIS RISK ZONE						
Godagari	5.46	70.12	461	26.62	94.12	27.6
Puthia	7.98	96.19	827	29.26	93.6	25.5
Bagmara	3.93	85.59	778	33.17	97.93	22.9
Average	5.76	83.96	688.68	29.67	93.55	25.33
MODERATE HELMINTHIASIS RISK ZONE						
Tanore	3.94	82.64	467	33.81	90.5	28.00
Paba	6.26	92.01	761	25.69	90.57	25.1
Mohonpur	6.24	89.59	777	31.12	98.70	25.2
Charghat	8.64	85.87	996	23.87	90.48	26.6
Bagha	8.95	89.38	835	27.52	93.68	26.6
Average	6.80	87.89	767.2	28.40	92.78	26.22
LOW HELMINTHIASIS RISK ZONE						
Boalia	52.47	68.59	3042	2.10	41.71	58.3
Durgapur	3.89	97.15	706	34.83	98.36	20.2
Average	28.18	82.87	1874	18.46	70.03	39.25

Source: B.B.S. (1991)

Following the above discussion of weighted percentage of helminthic attacks during 1991 to 1998 it was found that the western and north-western parts were the worst affected areas in Rajshahi district.

Geo-ecological conditions in these areas are most favourable for helminthiasis living. The causes of helminthic diseases in this district were insufficient supply of pure drinking water, poor health and sanitation facilities, relatively high population density, low literacy rate, high rate of peasants, high rate of katcha houses etc. Except these factors, other local factors may also contribute to this high fluctuation rate of helminthiasis infection in some years. These factors are local malnutrition, occurrence of flood etc. To analyze the above spatial pattern of helminthic diseases, 10 Thanas of Rajshahi were grouped into a number of helminthic prone zones (Table-4). The bases for the identification of helminthic risk zones are as follows:

1. Impacts of katcha houses
2. Impact of agriculture population
3. Sources of drinking water
4. Impacts of population density (persons per square kilometer)
5. Health and sanitation facilities and
6. Percentage of literacy for all ages.

On the basis of the above factors and the correlation value of helminthic (Table 2a and b) three risk zones of helminthic attacks have been identified (Figure 5).

### III. Helminthiasis Risk Zones

#### 3.1 High helminthiasis risk zone

Godagari, Puthia and Bagmara Thanas are high helminthiasis affected zone in Rajshahi. In this zone the range of weighted percentage of helminthiasis attacks is highest. The factors, which are associated with helminthiasis infection, are highly



present in this zone. The characteristics of environmental factors of this zone are:

- a) Average 93.55 percent houses of these Thanas are katcha houses. Helminthic diseases are soil born diseases. Soil acts as intermediary host in the life process of helminthiasis. So, it affects those persons who live in katcha houses. To protect or decrease the infection of helminthiasis in this zone the people should avoid katcha houses.
- b) An average 29.67 percent people are farmers in this zone. Day labourers, farmers, earth digging workers and brick field workers who move on the soil bare footed are more susceptible to helminthiasis. The percentage of peasants is high in this zone. So this zone is highly affected.
- c) An average 83.96 percent households use tube-well as their main source of drinking water and other domestic uses. Rests of them have no access to pure drinking water. Thus they tend to use contaminated water which early creates the environment of helminthic infection. Moreover the Padma River is very near to this zone. So the people of this part always use river water for bathing, drinking and washing.
- d) Only 5.9 percent households of these zones have sanitary latrines. The remainders (94.21%) have not hygienic latrines, which lead to a high helminthiasis infection rate. The practice of defecation in open space tends to contaminate surface water. Defecation on open places favours the transmission of helminthiasis.
- e) Low literacy rate is the main factor to spread helminthic diseases. In this zone average literacy rate by all ages is 25.33 percent. So most of the people have no awareness about helminthic diseases. They do not know how to be protected from helminthiasis. The above factors tend to directly proliferate the helminthiasis attack and high helminthiasis risk zone.

### **3.2 Medium Helminthiasis Risk Zone**

Medium risk zone of helminthiasis consists of five Thanas of Rajshahi, viz. Tanore, Paba, Mohonpur, Charghat and Bagha. The Thana wise weighted attack rate of this zone is less than the high risk zone (9.4-13.9 percent). The characteristics of the environmental factors of this zone are as follows:

- a) Average 92.78 percent houses of these Thanas are katcha houses. This rate is lower than that of highly helminthiasis risk zone.
- b) An average 28.44 percent people are farmers in this zone, which is lower than that of highly helminthiasis risk zone.
- c) Tube-well is the main source of drinking water in this zone. An average of 87.89 percent of households uses tube-well water as the source of drinking water and this rate is higher than in the highly helminthiasis risk zone. Few Thanas have tap water facilities as their drinking water sources.
- d) The sanitary facilities in this zone are better than highly helminthiasis risk zone. An average 6.80 percent people of this zone

have sanitary latrine facilities.

- e) The literacy rate of this zone is higher than that in the highly helminthiasis risk zone. This may as well influence the level of health awareness as regards helminthic and other diseases.

However, the factors responsible for helminthiasis infection in high risk zone are similar in this zone but in lesser degree.

### **3.3 Low Helminthiasis Risk Zone**

Low risk zone of helminthiasis is found in two Thanas of Rajshahi i.e. Boalia and Durgapur. Average percentage of katcha houses of this Thana is lower than other zones. The percentage of agriculture worker is very low in this zone that is only 18.46 percent. The main source of drinking water of this zone is tube-well and tap. The percentage of sanitary latrine of this zone is higher than other zones.

## **IV. Conclusion**

Helminthiasis is a major health problem in Rajshahi. Every year a large number of people suffer from these diseases. The existing mortality rate of the people due to helminthic disease can be reduced by appropriate preventive and control measures. Still this infection remains a significant challenge in Rajshahi as the district has to fight against poverty, lack of education and sanitation problems. Basic infrastructure facilities and technical facilities for curative and preventive measures are not available in Rajshahi district. The temporal pattern of helminthiasis attacks indicates an oscillating trend through time. For this fluctuation of helminthiasis attacks through time and place of Rajshahi, a set of environmental factors are responsible, i.e. insufficient supply of drinking water, ill sanitation facilities, bad housing conditions, illiteracy, high population density etc. There is a strong relationship between the helminthiasis attacks and the environmental factors. High, medium and low helminthiasis risk zones have been identified by comparing these factors with helminthiasis attacks. These zones may be helpful for a reliable health planning and improvement of health facilities in future to reduce helminthiasis infections in Rajshahi. It is proposed that environment-oriented education programmes should be implemented for creating awareness regarding ill effects of polluted environment, so that the root of environmental diseases can be eliminated. This programme must be related to local environmental conditions and also the traditional and social structure of the people. Good health of the people will not be assured by extending health care service alone, because the determining factors of health and diseases are linked to poverty, environmental, nutritional and educational factors. Adequate financing, expansion facilities and the extensive use of scientific methods and medicines can reduce helminthic infection in Rajshahi district and also in Bangladesh.



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Appendix-A  
Table 2a: Tables of variables for co-efficient of correlation

Thana	Attacked	L-rate	Sanitary	Other	None	Density	Industry	Non-farm population	Katcha houses	Pucca houses	Hsize	Well	House worker	Agri-population	Tap	Tub-well	Pond	River/ Canal
Bagha	8.58	26.20	8.95	23.76	67.28	835.0	0.59	0.43	93.68	4.65	5.29	10.13	38.10	27.52	0.03	89.38	0.19	0.27
Bagnara	9.46	22.90	3.93	24.36	71.71	778.0	0.34	0.34	97.3	1.72	4.90	13.97	41.90	33.17	0.06	85.59	0.32	0.05
Baolia	4.22	58.30	52.47	30.12	17.41	3042.0	2.40	2.30	41.71	57.22	5.52	2.97	33.18	2.10	28.75	68.15	0.27	0.12
Charghat	7.76	26.60	8.64	15.98	75.39	996.0	0.27	0.59	90.48	8.90	5.28	12.60	34.79	23.87	1.07	85.87	0.35	0.11
Durgapur	12.99	20.20	3.98	28.38	67.73	706.0	0.23	0.22	98.36	0.90	4.96	1.78	40.11	34.83	0.11	97.15	0.94	0.03
Godaguri	12.83	27.60	5.46	21.38	73.16	461.0	0.29	0.45	94.012	5.46	5.44	25.22	39.60	26.62	0.32	70.15	1.74	0.15
Mohompur	10.85	25.20	6.24	38.50	55.26	777.0	0.63	0.27	98.70	1.16	5.09	9.83	40.98	31.12	0.15	89.59	0.41	0.21
Paba	12.15	25.10	6.26	16.54	77.20	761.0	0.51	0.47	90.57	9.12	5.32	6.92	37.70	25.69	1.01	92.01	0.04	0.23
Puthia	13.02	25.50	7.98	24.44	67.59	827.0	0.56	0.45	93.60	6.02	5.22	3.51	37.99	29.26	0.12	96.19	0.18	0.01
Tanore	8.12	28.00	3.94	17.43	78.63	467.0	0.55	0.41	90.50	0.30	5.02	13.02	41.44	33.83	0.19	82.64	2.02	0.06

Source: BBS, Zila series, 1991.



Table 2b: Matrix of co-efficient of correlation between Helminthic attacks and the variables

	Attacked	L-rate	Sanitary	Other	None	Density	House work	Agriculture	Industry	Non-farm population	Tap	Tube-well	Pond	River/Canal	Katcha	Pucca	H/Hsize	Well
Attacked	1																	
L-rate	-0.752	1																
sanitary	-0.712	0.979	1															
Others	-0.008	0.211	0.286	1														
None	0.435	-0.88	-0.929	-0.62	1													
Density	-0.721	0.941	0.986	0.311	-0.93	1												
House worker	0.468	-0.69	-0.737	0.139	0.549	-0.751	1											
Agriculture population	0.741	-0.91	-0.944	-0.15	0.829	-0.96	0.854	1										
Industry	-0.513	0.804	0.808	0.18	-0.73	0.817	-0.777	-0.962	1									
Non-farm population	-0.734	0.979	0.971	0.141	0.859	0.942	-0.815	-0.938	0.831	1								
Tap	-0.703	0.958	-0.992	0.279	-0.92	0.978	-0.687	-0.921	0.759	0.959	1							
Tube-well	0.547	-0.71	-0.603	0.024	0.484	-0.513	0.326	0.412	-0.371	-0.668	-0.63	1						
Pond	0.11	-0.11	-0.26	-0.23	0.299	-0.373	0.45	0.464	-0.424	0.175	-0.19	-0.36	1					
River/canal	-0.306	0.152	0.133	0.354	-0.25	0.09	-0.074	-0.039	0.272	0.106	0.069	-0.29	-	1				
Katcha	0.733	-0.98	-0.983	-0.14	0.859	-0.957	0.737	0.914	-0.792	-0.983	-0.99	0.64	0.08	-	1			
Pucca	-0.677	0.972	0.99	0.15	-0.89	0.977	-0.776	-0.95	0.787	0.978	0.984	-0.61	0.16	0.04	-	1		
H/Hsize	-0.275	0.635	0.604	-0.17	-0.43	0.53	-0.799	-0.62	0.558	0.708	0.55	-0.584	0.26	0.06	-0.987	1		
Well	-0.374	-0.22	-0.367	-0.34	0.421	-0.455	0.348	0.471	-0.376	0.253	-0.35	-0.505	0.15	0.29	-0.62	0.658	1	
													0.6	0.28	0.315	-0.341	0.1059	1

## INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY IN REGIONAL LIBRARIES OF BANGLADESH: AVAILABILITY AND RELEVANCE

Mohammad Nasir Uddin\*

**Abstract:** This paper primarily focuses on the using of modern technologies, their availability and relevance in the divisional library and information centres of Bangladesh. It also examines the contemporary status of Information technologies in Bangladesh and report the subsequent status of some fifteen regional libraries in adopting the IT application in their library and Information work. Given that there is a wide gap of library facilities among the divisional areas of the country other than the capital city, and that there is an acute lacking in information infrastructure, this paper represents the real need of the local libraries by analysing their strength and weakness. Finally, it made some recommendation by which IT potential can best be utilised in the libraries and by which better library facilities can be instituted throughout the country.

### I. Introduction

Information and development, these two terms are now using almost inseparably. Information and its absolute power have been changing the dimension of human lives and are considering as a highly focused resource for any development activities in the globe. It can dominate every segment of human activity as well as can embolden the economic development rather forcefully. A well-managed information flow can upgrade the living standard of peoples and can ensure their humanitarian lives. However information in isolated form is static and does not worth too much. To make it for a productive use, information infrastructure, by which information is transmitted and received globally, are to be created. Yet, there has to be a mediator, which is usually an information agency, mainly for shouldering the responsibility of managing, organising, collecting, converting, and transmitting information between the sources and seekers of information. Among the types of information agency, library and information centre is on the topmost position for serving intermediary between the information and it's production, information and it's seekers, and also for holding the responsibility of processing and satisfying the need of information at all level.

The Library & Information centre was originated primarily to preserve the books and journals, i.e. knowledge, of one generation so that it could be passed on to the

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next. But the explosive growth of world literature and the rapid advancement of telecommunication and computing media have forced the library to upgrade its role as an information generating, repackaging and diffusing centre well beside the role of information gathering, processing and administering. Today, a well-equipped library with the facilities of modern information infrastructures and technologies can only consider satisfying the maximum information need of users who might have other alternatives to meet their needs.

In view of this global technological influence in libraries, Bangladesh, a less developing country of South Asia, is comparatively having a poor status in the use of technology not only than the countries of South-East Asia but also than the countries of its neighbour. The adoption and application of information communication technologies in the development sectors of Bangladesh and especially in the field of library and information science is still in elementary level. Because of the very small size of Bangladeshi economy, the government has been facing many problems to put emphasis on information technology although it has announced a first draft of ICT policy for Bangladesh in 2000. Besides, it is observed that a paramount focus on IT is been given only in the capital city whilst other districts and divisional unit is neglected. On this ground, this study is an attempt to examine the current use of Information technologies in the libraries and information centres at the regional level of Bangladesh to determine their need for further development.

### ***Aims and Objectives of the Study***

Bearing the context, the aims of the study were to:

- identify the level of IT use in the regional libraries of Bangladesh.
- determine the intensity of ICT application in the information work of the libraries
- plan and develop strategic priorities for better IT application in the regional libraries.

The specific objectives were to:

- trace the existing ICT environment in Bangladesh and their length of use in libraries and information centres.
- identify the infrastructure of regional libraries to determine their ability of adopting modern technologies in library organisation and services.
- explore the strength and weakness of existing ICT application and formulate future policies for pragmatic IT environment in libraries.

### ***Sample Area of the Research***

The country has 64 districts governing by a partition of six larger groups, popularly called Division. Each of the division is named after the name of its principal district where the divisional city is located. For the sample area of this research, among the six divisions, Rajshahi Division was chosen considering its containment of the second highest number of educational institutions and libraries. Although, Dhaka division has the highest number of institutions, it was excluded for the location of Capital City. Rajshahi division, a combination of seventeen districts, has more than

500 government and non-government college libraries, one government university library, one divisional government public library, some non-government. Thana (a small administrative unit of government) public libraries, and a few special libraries affiliated with some of research and NGO organisations. In technologies, the division has been experiencing inadequate using of telecommunication, computing and networking facilities. Of the division, Rajshahi, the principal district has been providing Internet facilities since the year 2001, while interestingly, one of the other districts Bogra inaugurated Internet from the year 1997. Consequently, the uses of technologies are remarkable in this two district compared with the other districts of the division. Ironically, the library & Information services, their minimum infrastructure facilities and the level of technological application are notable only in these two districts. The other divisional districts in Rajshahi are outlying part and do not have any workable technological facilities nor have any modernised library & Information service. So the surveying of the research samples was reasonably restricted and confined only to those who had minimum infrastructure ability to provide yielding library service and had effort to introducing modern technologies. The following is the percentage of the surveyed library & Information centres:

**Table 1 : Percentage of the respondent libraries**

Type of Library	Number of respondent	Percentage of Respondent
Academic Library	8	53.33
Public Library	1	6.67
Special Library	6	40
Total	15	100

The reason of rather small sample of academic libraries has already stated that their arrangement of serviceable infrastructure were more or less poor and efforts were made to survey those who had been maintaining minimum standard. This observation of the prevailing condition is based on the survey of CDL and BANBAIS (Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information Statistics) and by the author himself for a research project conducted under the Rajshahi University. A single public Library run by government was surveyed excluding the private funded public libraries as their position were far behind than the acceptable standard. Special libraries that were affiliated with some reputed NGOs or their branches in Rajshahi, were all investigated.

### **Research Method**

The surveying of the sample describing the technology use in libraries was made by a structured questionnaire. Both open and close ended questions were included to collect data on different study variables concerning the services of library & Information centres, infrastructure facilities, types of resources, IT use, status of computerisation, data communication mode, status of information repackaging, facilities to easy access to information resources, willingness to networking & resource sharing, priorities on problems etc. The study variables were developed and



pre-tested by a preliminary interviewing of three professional librarians based on their need of technologies in information services. An extensive literature review was also made for a theoretical framework. To fill the questionnaire duly, data was collected by visiting the sample libraries and by a face-to-face interview session. In most cases, the interviewee was the head of the library or in-charge of the library. While, none of them was available, the senior most staff was interviewed. Collected data were analysed and presented by using the spreadsheet program of computer so that proper understanding could be depicted through a graphical way.

## **II. Background**

### ***IT scenario***

Though the computer use in Bangladesh was first began in 1964, the country had its first connection to the Internet only a few years back in 1996 when Bangladesh Telephone & Telegraphic Board (BTTB) agreed to provide license to ISN (Information services Network Ltd.) and Grameen Cybernet to install VSAT. Since then things has been changed a lot and Bangladesh is experiencing a steady development in IT sector though not too satisfyingly. A recent survey on 1836 IT organisation has revealed the following pictures of IT status in Bangladesh:

**Table 2 : IT status in Bangladesh**

<b>Types of Organisation</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Hardware/software marketing	10.9
Data Processing services	6.2
Human resources development	41.3
User of IT(Govt. officers, banks, NGO, private and personal users)	26.3
Others	15.2

Source: Ministry of Science & Technology, 2001

From the same survey the functional categorisation of IT personnel revealed that 44 percent are data entry operator, 16 percent trainer and teacher, 13 percent database manager, 6 percent programmer, 5 percent hardware engineer, 4 percent network expert, 3 percent system analyst and the other remaining portions are DTP operator, database expert, etc.

### ***Status of Computer Use***

The waiving of taxes and duties from the software in 1998 and waiving the same from the hardware in the 1998-99 budgets had opened a revolutionary acceleration of computer culture in Bangladesh. As a nucleus in every IT facilities, computers are now available very cheaply in the country. Particularly, the clone computers offered by most of the computer business firms are likely to be as cheap as can be affordable by the middle income family. There is approximately 0.8 million unit of computer are now using around the country. The penetration rate of computer use in Bangladesh is approximately nine per 1 thousand inhabitants. However, the nature of computer applications is not yet pervasive. Word-processing represents most common use. A few use databases, personal management and some spreadsheet program. Large operative organisations such as airlines, the central bank and private

sector businesses as commercial banks (City based mainly), multinational companies and foreign financed non-government organisations with international links, publishing industry tend to have more expensive use of computer application.

### ***Telephone status***

The telecom infrastructure of the country is mostly a combination of analogue and digital owned by both BTTB (Bangladesh Telephone and Telegraphic Board) and private operators. In May 2002, there was 1.57 million telephones among which 0.7 million was fixed phones and 0.87 million was mobile. A total of 64 thousands fixed phones are still analogue, though it is expected that within the year 2003 all the rest analogue exchanges will be converted to digital exchanges. Besides this, BTTB has planned to introduce Global Standard of Mobile Communication (GSM) technology at a cheaper rate by the year 2003. It has plan to install 0.4 million cellular Mobile phones initially in the capital and then some other parts of the country and that in future, the number will be increased considering the demand and supply. Unfortunately, the efforts that have been made are not enough to meet the reasonable need of people's telephone requirement. A very low per capita telephone density with about five per thousand and a long waiting period, approximately ten years, for a telephone line have imposed a bottleneck in the development of data communication in Bangladesh.

### ***Transmission System***

Presently, in Bangladesh the use of optical fiber is very limited except some city areas or campus area networks for interconnecting the departments, local exchange and remote switching units (RSU) in multi exchange network. In fact, we have a revering country and thus the BTTB long route transmission systems are mainly composed of microwave, UHF (Ultra High Frequency) and VHF (Very High Frequency) radio Links. Some of the district headquarters and all the Thana headquarters (the smallest administrative Units) are connected with their respective district through UHF links. Most of such UHF links are digital radio systems. The major backbone transmission links in Bangladesh are presently using star formation network structure. Besides, expansion and rehabilitation programs have been taken up for laying of 12 core optical fiber cable between Dhaka and Chittagong, which is the busiest route and still analogue (Ministry of Science & Technology, 2000)

### ***Privatisation of the Telecommunication Service***

Though the Bangladesh T & T Board was the sole authority in the telecom sector just a few years ago, it has now been liberalised for private investment except for international voice communication. Now the private telecom operators operate almost all form of communications such as cellular mobile, paging system, radio trunking system, rural telephone service as well as Internet services. There are four cellular mobile phone operators in private sector with about 0.8 million subscribers and the other provides analogue AMPS and Call Device Multiple Access (CDMA) services to about 33,000 subscribers. At present only Grameen phone has covered the



entire country to provide its mobile phone services by using the Fiber Optic Cable Network of Bangladesh Railway available along the railway route all over Bangladesh. Grameen phone is also establishing a 140 Mbps microwave link between Khulna & Chittagong via Barisal. Among the other three PBTL (Pacific Bangladesh Telecom Limited) and Telekom Malaysia International (TMIB) have service in Chittagong City and Sheba Telecom in the Capital.

### ***International Telecommunication Facilities***

The overseas transmission routes of Bangladesh are mainly dependent on four satellite earth stations working with INTELSAT satellites in IOR. The first standard A satellite earth station was commissioned in Bangladesh in 1975 at Bethunia to work with INTELSAT system. The international telecommunication facilities became easier and versatile after installation of standard B satellite station at Talibabad. The third satellite earth station along with an International Trunk Exchange (ITX) was commissioned in 1994 at Mohakhali in Dhaka. Another Direct satellite link was commissioned in between Sylhet and London since June 1995. Besides these satellite links, there is an overseas terrestrial microwave (analogue) route with India having 60 channels capacity to work between Dhaka and Calcutta. (Ministry of Planning, 2000). Recently in September 2002, Bangladesh has signed a Memorandum Of Understanding to join in the submarine cable network Sea-Me-We 4, which is expected to be ready for an international high-speed connectivity with 14 countries within the year 2004.

### ***Internet Services***

Internet service business in Bangladesh has been facing lots of obstacles for the low Tele density and high cost of operating and installing VSAT. Because of the traditional telecommunication line, that is, in most cases a twisted pair wires with a capacity of only 9kbps bandwidth, the end user is getting a very poor Internet speed. Besides, access to the online Internet node from Bangladesh through VSAT links is not direct. Except a few, most of the local ISP server has to get connected with the Asia Sat – a communication satellite and then to the overseas ISP server mostly with Hong Kong and Singapore and after then on to the global Internet. Eventually, it is increasing the cost of data communication as well as the cost of using Internet in the country. In spite of this problems Internet usage is rapidly growing. There are now more than 70 ISP in Bangladesh with about 0.2 million users. The penetration rate is one per 800 inhabitants.

### ***Library scenario***

The application of information technologies in Libraries and Information centres of the country, as one of the neglecting field, is been much meagre throughout the year. A few surveys were made about the prevailing condition but most of them were based on the capital city. Since, the surroundings and values of Capital City are always advantageous for better exuberance of any organisation in a developing country like us, the environment existed in the libraries of Capital City cannot

represent the same as existed in other district and divisional libraries. The ratio of IT use in the capital libraries is far greater than remote Libraries. Only the special libraries, most of which are funded by foreign organisation, are well ahead in the adaptation and diversification of IT application. While, among the academic libraries, only the university libraries run by both government and private authority have been striving hard to manage the IT application in their traditional environment. Nevertheless, the percentage in college (institution for higher secondary and undergraduate degree) and school (Institute for secondary school certificate) libraries is almost zero. There are 665 special libraries and information centres, 29 government and private university libraries, one central Public Library with 66 branch, 463 Thana (small administrative Unit) public libraries, and 11019 school libraries in the country in 1998. A recent survey conducted by Community Development Library(CDL) on 88 libraries and Information institutions (60 percent of the interviewees were located outside Dhaka and 40 percent interviewees were focused in colleges and Universities) revealed that 28 percent of the total respondent was technologically equipped. They use facilities such as Email, Internet and multimedia. Forty-five percent of the respondents have computer and 20 percent were actually connected online (CDL, 1999). Sattar (1996) conducted a survey on 132 Libraries and Information Centres of Bangladesh, which had revealed the following position of using technologies.

**Table 3 : Percentage showing respondent libraries and use of new technologies**

Type of Library	Surveyed	Respondent		Computer		CD-ROM		Email	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
University	17	12	70.6	10	83.3	3	25	3	25
College	20	8	40	0	0	0	0	0	0
School	10	1	10	1	10	0	0	0	0
Public	1(66)	1	100	1	100	0	0	0	0
Community	1(40)	1	100	1	100	1	100	1	100
Special	80	66	82.5	36	54.5	7	10.6	5	7.6
National	3	3	100	2	66.7	2	66.7	1	33.3
Total	132	92	69.7	50	54.3	13	14.1	10	10.9

Another survey conducted by Mannan (1998) on 25 libraries of the country where he found that 64 percent of the libraries initiated computerisation of their documents among which 44 percent started recording acquisition, over 87 percent provided computerised cataloguing and only 12 percent provided serial control. He also found that among the 25 libraries, only 16 percent were using telex, 36 percent were using Email/Internet, and 44 percent were using FAX.

However, the use of technologies in libraries has been growing rapidly since the year 2000 for some lucrative decision of the government. Computers and telecommunication facilities are becoming cheaper and awareness in libraries toward the digitisation is significantly increasing. The present environment is favourable and it may not take much time to reach the satisfactory stage in IT application. What is needed is to rethink and re-look at the library positions and redesign their real IT



need on the basis of empirical evidence. Besides, equity shall have to be considered and regional libraries have to be brought under the investigation. On this ground, the present study has some particular value to represent the existing IT move of regional libraries and to draw on the strategic need by which the IT potential can best be utilised in libraries.

### **III. Conceptual view**

To diffuse the isolated information to the grasp of every individual information seeker and to make it a prime factor in every development endeavour, scientists have been doing a lot to invent and innovate sophisticated microelectronic, computing and communication tools. Some of them have artificial intelligence in raising billions of decisions within a fraction of second and are able to oversee and operate almost all types of productivity including the job of processing, converting, transmitting and transforming information to enfold it as a power to rule the universe. However, there are several terms that are to be explained to get a broader concept of technology and its relevance to development.

The term Information, Information Technology, Information industry, Information economy and information infrastructures have individual meanings. The new technologies that have been ceaselessly evolved to reshape the old ones and are intensifying the information gathering, sharing and reproducing activities emphasising on the producing of knowledge within an exquisitely controlled tripartite convergence of microelectronic, telecommunication and computer technology can be termed as 'Information Technology'. "It is the aggregate of scientific technical discipline basic to the production of devices (tools/machines) and systems for the capture, transportation, storage, processing and retrieval of voice, text, numerical and pictorial information" (Zachariah, 1996:65).

The term 'Information' is actually an organised sequence of facts, events or experience whether be accumulated in abstract or concrete way must have a need or value in any dimension of human activity. Stevens viewed it as "the factual data, ideas and other knowledge emanating from any segment of society that are identified as being of value, sometimes gathered on regular basis, organised in some fashion, transmitted to other and used in some meaningful fashion" (Stevens, 1966:2).

Another term 'Information Industry' is emanated from a new industrial revolution - revolution in the production of information, information storage devices and communication technologies. The definition could cover the Library automation system and services, bibliographic agencies, publishers and database producers, specialist software houses and computer companies, online vendors, hosts and gateways, CDROM publishers and vendors, business information providers, consultants, conference organisers, and professional organisations. It is the communication of knowledge and the application and exploitation of computing and related technologies in the generation and supply of information as a marketable commodity (Holmes, 1991).

Information Economy implies on the substantial, dominant, and combined contribution of IT and IT related industries to the national economy. When the

convergence of IT, communication and entertainment has the potential to generate significant economic growth by better information infrastructure and information mobility- the economic development may be termed as Information Economy. It is emerging where trade and investment are global and firms compete with knowledge, networking and agility on a global basis (Talero & Gaudette, 1996). Information economy depends upon the economic access to information and education, entertainment and culture, distribution of goods and services, transaction of business and finance, legal and accounting, health, etc. that are directly related to the GDP.

Finally the term 'Information infrastructure' consists of both telecommunication networks and strategic information system necessary for sustainable economic development. Typical among the strategic systems are sector wide information systems for education, health, public financial management and transportation (Talero & Gaudette, 1996).

### *IT Concept in Libraries*

It is beyond the question that like any other organisation, library, a dominating organisation in the society, was forced to alter its techniques and devices to perform the role of information dissemination just after the sophisticated information technologies were emerged. All the segments and ingredients of library system, that is the physical structure, document, personnel, finance and user, are now renovating their form to cope with the changing pattern of information demand and information distribution. Library service, which was initially modernised by the publication of a library classification scheme by Melville Dewey in 1873, has been redeveloping all along the twentieth century to till twenty first millennium by the name of Documentation, Information storage, Information storage & Retrieval and finally Information Science. Now library's role is diversified. From the 1980s they not only serve the intermediary between information and information production but they too serve the purpose of connecting global intellectual institutions by networking. Satellite, fiber optics and VSAT (Very small Aperture Terminal) technologies have enabled all the information institutions to be in a global village by linking them in Information superhighway. In this age library users may not be interested to visit the library physically, they can simply turn on the computer, log on to the internet through the local ISP and can search for a suitable library's website or database for their required information from anywhere of the globe. Almost all types of library materials whether they are books, journals, newspaper, films, or even the audio-video materials are now available in electronic format. Huge encyclopaedias in CDROM, catalogues in online database, delivery of full text in electronic way are becoming more common. The growth of information continues to abound in film, microfilm, computer tapes, videotapes, and in hard disk. At the same time books, journals, reports, conference proceedings, seminar papers, etc. are continue to proliferate astoundingly. So keeping the traditional sense of searching, selecting, purchasing, processing, shelving, and circulating of library materials means the future is not ours. Our existence will be more powerful when the communication



and transmission technologies will be available for use in all types of library and information management such as, in information retrieving, analysing, amalgamating, consolidating, repackaging and in information disseminating.

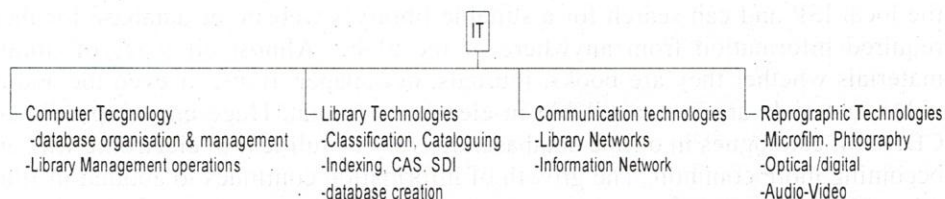
**Table 4: Comparison of new and old technologies in Library & Information centres**

Functions	Old technologies	New Technologies
Text entry, edit And composing.	Typing, type setting	Electronic word processing (fax, telex), computer word processing software, optical reader scanner, electronic publishing.
Replication	Printing	Computer, display unit, laser printing, Xerox.
Information search, select, retrieve	Catalogue search, browsing/scanning of shelves	Computer database software, OPAC.
Storage	Shelving/Cataloguing	Hard disk, Floppy disk, CDROM, DVD, Digital mass store.
Communication	Mail, freight, Personal travel, Tele phone	Computer Network, Internet, Fax, email, satellite, Video conferencing, Audio conferencing.

Source: BRANSCOMB, LM. Electronic Library. 1981 p.147

So, with the invention of digital computer, electronic media, storage and communication tools, libraries are heading toward the digital environment for coping with the new dimension of information seeking behaviour. We the professional now need to be conscious to adopt to the newer technologies to exploit the opportunities provided by the new media, but not to lose sight of our primary concern, i.e. the message which is more important than the medium through which it is communicated. It may be noted that whereas the technologies are becoming smart, knowledge and information are also becoming highly complex simultaneously (Singh and Kalra, 1996). The challenge is to ensure widespread, and equitable access to information to one and all.

#### IT relevance in Libraries



Chandrakumaran, Nair (1996) identified the following areas where IT can perform as per the changing need of libraries :

- *Computerisation of internal Library functions such as book management system, serial control, technical processing, indexing, circulation of document with appropriate packages.*

- *help to maintain large-scale information storage and retrieval system and thereby ensure effective bibliographical control and its proper use in libraries.*
- *Remote and speedier access to global library/information centre's database, share of organisational resources, ability to communicate to distant destinations, transfers the information in bulk.*
- *Management of union catalogue/database systems.*

Besides, IT application in libraries will enrich library's connectivity, resource capability, and alacrity in monitoring and evaluating functional needs and performance. It ensure the mobility of information from multiple locations, enhance the distributed learning environment, motivate digitalisation to preserve collection in online, and offer hypertext searches that are manually impractical. However the prime facilities lies in designing and developing user-friendly online library information system and services that provides easy and multiple accesses to information.

#### **IV. Data Analysis and Results**

In order to view the background information to determine the rudimentary ability with such factor as i) base of document resources, ii) serviceability, iii) mode of clientele, and iv) human resources, several questions were asked to the head of the library & Information centres. Their responses represented in the table V. The result reveals the fundamental basis of sample libraries in performing their duties of serving information. However, Rajshahi University Library, one of the large university libraries in Bangladesh, is apparently enjoying the maximum resources though it is responsible for serving almost twenty-five thousand students, eight hundred teachers and faculty members. Similarly, other academic libraries e.g. Bangladesh Institute of Technology Library (BIT, L), Rajshahi Medical College Library (RMC.L), Rajshahi College Library (RCL), Edward and Azizul Haque University College Libraries are responsible mainly to serve the students and faculty members but have rather small quantity of resources. Among the special libraries, Rural Development Academy (RDA), and Institute of Bangladesh Studies (IBS) are comparatively ranking on the top for their better resources and serviceability. While, in survey it was interesting to observe that non-professional person heads 25 percent of the academic libraries and 66.7 percent of the special libraries i.e., the head of the library did not have any professional qualifications nor had any commensurate education to suit their designation. The average number of users per day was also less than the satisfying level if it is compared with the total population of the library expected to be served. This does not indicate the lower reading habit of the user but primarily it is because of the service facilities and infrastructure abilities, which are poor enough to discourage the user interest in libraries.



**Table 5: Background information of Libraries**

Name of The Library	Type	Total collection		Budget (1999-2000) in Taka (Lakh)	Total Manpower	Average number of User (Per day)
		Books	Journals			
Rajshahi University Library(RUL)	Academic	30.0000	40.000	92.2	P - 21 SP- 22 NP-56	T-45, S-830 R-22, O-13
Bangladesh Institute of Technology Library (BIT)	Academic	21.151	500	2.0	P - 01 SP-01 NP-07	T-10, S-50 R-02, -
Rajshahi Medical college library (RMC)	Academic	17.000	60 titles 1851(BJ)	2.0	P - 02 SP-- NP-02	T-30, S-150 - O-10
Rajshahi College Librray(RCL)	Academic	70.100	500	0.22	P - 02 NP-02	T-15, S-200 R-05
Instate of Bangladesh Studies Library (IBS)	Special	15.692	30 titles	0.50	P - 03 NP- 06	T-05, S-03 F-30
Bangladesh Council on Scientific Information Research Library(BCSIR)	Special	2357	2230	0.25	NP - 01	T-03, S-02 R-52
Bangladesh Rice Research Institute Library(BRRI)	Special	735	400	0.15	NP - 01	T-02, S-02 R-03, F-03
Rural Development Academy Library(RDA)	Special	20.593	1000 851(BJ)	1.4	P - 05 NP- 07	T-30, S-50 R-40
Bangladesh Rural advancement Committee Library (BRAC)	Special	1000	.50 Titles	0.50	NP - 02	T-12, S-05 R-01, O-15
CARITAS Library	Special	3000	550	0.75	NP - 03	T-10, S-03 R-01, O-7
Divisional Public Library (DPL)	Public	40.225	12 Titles 95 (BJ)	16.43	P - 01 SP- 02 NP-09	T-02, S-240 R-01, O-07
Rajshahi Agricultural College Library	Academic	1853	-	2.0	NP- 02	T-10, S-150
Kamarpukur College Library	Academic	2.300	30	0.30	NP-2	T-10, S-60
Edward University College Library	Academic	24.200	-	0.16	P - 01 NP-04	T-05, S-80
Azizul Haque University Library	Academic	18.000	2000	2.25	P - 02 NP-07	- S-200 - O-03

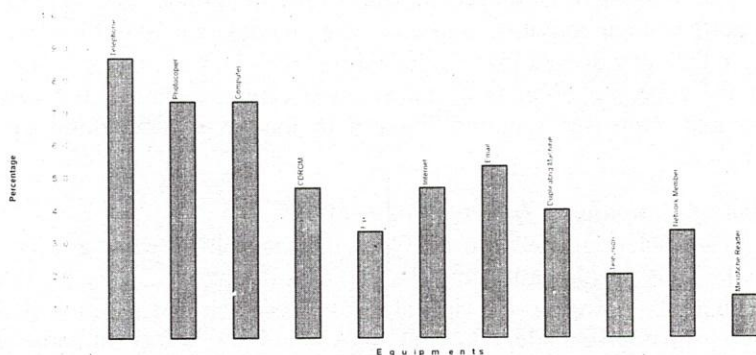
P = Professional, SP= Semi-professional, NP = Non-professional, T = teacher, S = students, R = researchers, F = farmers, O = others, BJ = Bound Journal

### Ranking of using technologies in Libraries

It is absolutely difficult today to keep the interest and willingness of users on a certain information organisations unless they use the modern technologies. A well decorated technology dependent library and information centre can only offer diversified service and can provide maximum satisfaction in fulfilling patron's need. In Rajshahi, the numbers of specialised information centres are quite small and almost half of them are local branches while the head organisation is located in the capital city. BCSIR, BRAC, and CARITAS are this type of information centres and are not being properly treated by their parent organisation. Other specialised centres, that is, RDA, IBS, and BRR are also not well occupied with technologies as per their user demand. On the other hand, academic libraries have never got the expected attention by the authorities.

Figure 1 indicates that 73.33 percent of the surveyed libraries is using computer.

Fig. 1: Share of Poverty in Using Technologies



46.67 percent is connected with the Internet, and 53.33 percent is enjoying email facility. Besides, 46.66 percent have CD-ROM driver and 33.33 percent got the Fax machine. In some cases, the processing capability of computer was only 100 MHz based on the Intel 00486 microprocessor. A few libraries expressed their expectation that they were in process to have new machines shortly. However, the ratio of using technologies between academic and public libraries are given below.

Table 6 : Ratio of using technologies between academic and public Libraries

Technology	Percentage of using IT	
	Academic library	Special Library
Computer	50	100
Internet	37.5	66.67
Email	37.5	83.33
CD-ROM	37.5	66.67
Fax	25	50
Telephone	75	100
Network member	25	50



Ownership of the audio-visual equipment was also far below the satisfaction level. The percentage of using photocopier, duplicating machine, and television in the above libraries is 73.33, 40 and 20 percent respectively. It should be noted that in some cases, the availability of the above technologies in special libraries did not belong to the library use only but for the whole organisation for their administrative work, correspondence and for other minor purposes.

In the field of networking thirty three percent libraries reported that they have access to some national and international networking system mainly to share the resources related to their field. Among them RUL and BCSIR are connected to Bangladesh National Scientific Library and Information Network (BANSLINK), RMCL is linked with Health Literature, Library & Information Science (HELLIS), BRRI with Agricultural Information System (AGRIS), and finally RDA is linked with four networking system such as BANSLINK, AGRIS, DEVINSA (Development Information Network on South Asia), and POPLINE (Population Information Network). Yet, it is questionable that whether these libraries are actually benefited through this networking system because most of the foregoing systems are not active enough to perform their activities in remote level, though, some of them have already crossed more than one decade from its inception level. However, it is positive that 87 percent of the surveyed libraries & Information centres admitted the necessity of networking and expressed their willingness to join in a networking process for sharing resources.

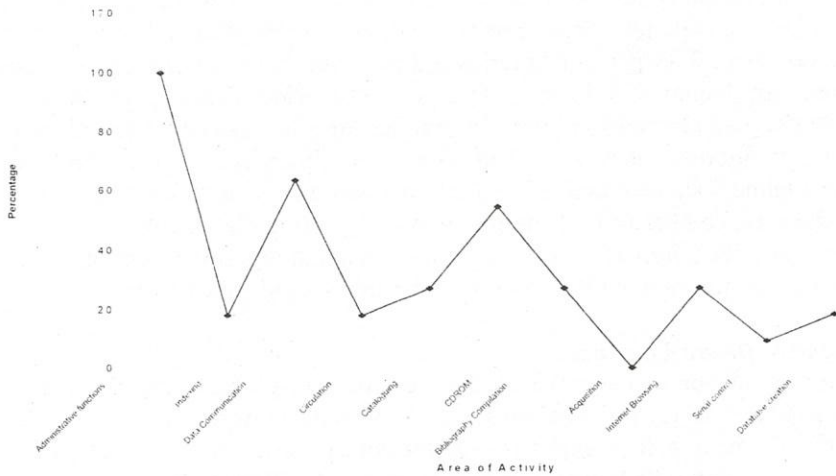
#### ***Exploitation of Computer in Information work***

Computer is a nucleus to perform all types of information work and served as a fundamental basis of disseminating electronic information. The appearance of e-books and journals as well as the appearance of research and learning materials in full text web format have made it possible to own a digital library at home simply by having a personal computer, telephone line and Internet connection through local ISP. So the existence of future library depends on the variegated approach of the library professional and the computerisation of Library work.

Chart 2 Shows that the libraries are using computer mainly for administrative functions and for data communication, that is, for simple data processing works and for correspondence. Among the libraries, which are owning computer, percentage of computer use in indexing (18%), circulation (18%), CD-ROM searching (55%), cataloguing (27%), bibliography compilation (27%), and in serial control (9%) are very poor. Only 27 percent libraries are offering Internet browsing facilities occasionally on demand by their members. None of the libraries had automated their acquisition system during the investigation. In database creation, it was found that none of the libraries were using any recognised library management software. Of the two mere institution, Rajshahi University Library was using simple word processor to make a list of journal while BRAC was using dBase 4 and Fox pro program to make their own database. In fact, the literacy of computer use and its application in multiple library service was strenuous to the most of the library authorities and

practically they were more content and comfortable in traditional system than any troublesome effort to initiate computerisation in their library works.

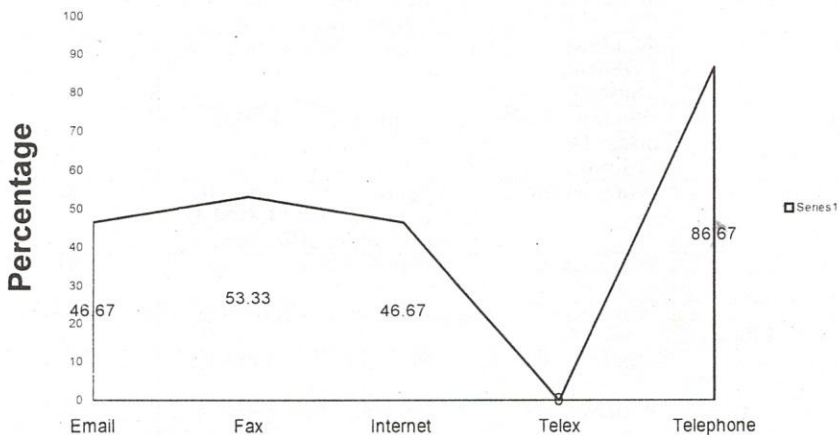
Fig 2: Computer use in Libraries



#### *Document Delivery and Communication*

During the period of investigation, only 46.67 libraries had Internet connectivity not for their clientele but for the office and staff use only. Most of the libraries stated that the restriction is mainly because of the unavailability of ISP as well as high price tag of Internet use until around the beginning of 2002 and now as it is becoming cheap they are thinking of getting to it extensively as soon as possible.

Fig 3: Mode of Communication





However, offline email through a central domain have been available in Rajshahi since the year 1997 and so far 53.33 percent libraries are having email to communicate with other libraries and publishers. Some other libraries, who have not those emailed or Internet, are also occasionally maintaining email communication from commercial business centres in case of dire necessity. The same is true to the use of Fax (46.67%). Only telephonic communication is common though there is also a lacking given that 13.33 percent libraries did not even have a telephone line for their own use. In document delivery, 90.91 percent provide photocopying service, while in case of demand, almost 47 percent libraries are using postal communication to provide information services. A sum of 33 percent library is also using FAX for this purpose. Online document delivery via Internet was practically unavailable in the libraries while surveyed because of the limitation of creating documents in digitised format. However, RUL reported that they were maintaining some sort of online information sharing through the BANSDOC under the BANSLINK project.

### ***Hardware and Software Facilities***

The computer installation of the surveyed libraries does not go back than the year of 1992-93. In fact, most of the libraries had started to have the computer in their official use after 1997. Of the total 31 computers used for library work, seven were PC AT

**Table 7: Hardware and software facilities**

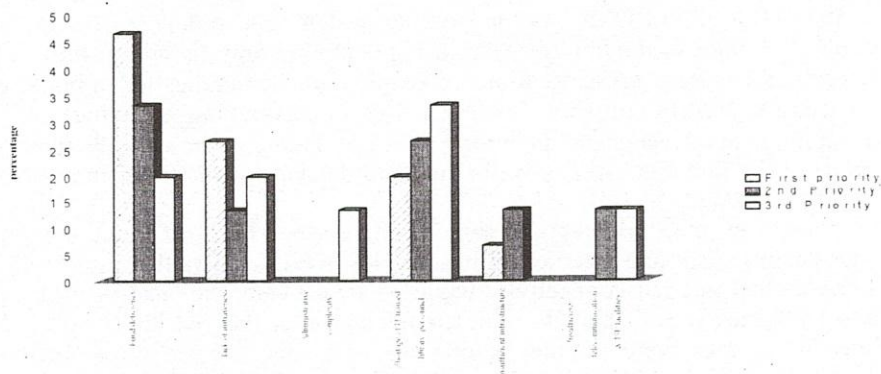
Library Name	Software in Use	Hardware (Processor)	Total Number of Computer
RUL	Windows 3.1/98	Intel 00486, 100 MHz. Pentium-III, 500 MHz	05
RMC, L	Windows 95/98	Pentium-III, 450 MHz Pentium-I, 166 MHz	02
IBS, L	Windows 95	Pentium-I, 100 MHz Pentium-III, 600 MHz	06
BCSIR	Windows 98	Pentium-III 500 MHz (including office use)	02
RDA	Windows 3.1, CDS/ISIS, dBase IV	Intel 00486, 100 MHz	04
BRAC	Windows 95/98, dBase IV, Fox pro.	Pentium-II 400Mhz	02
CARITAS	Windows 98	Pentium-III 500 MHz Pentium -II 450 MHz (including office use)	04
DPL	Windows 98	Pentium -II	01
Azizul Haq University Library	Windows 95	Pentium-I 200 MHz	01
BRR1	Windows 98	Pentium - III, 500 Mhz	03
BIT	Windows 98	Pentium - III, 550Mhz	01

based on Intel 00486 microchip and 24 were Pentium. The commonly used operating systems were windows 3.1, 95, 98 and DOS. However, none of the libraries were used to having any specialised software package for library management. Only RDA had installed CDS/ISIS (Computerised Documentation System/Integrated Set of information System), a library management software developed by UNESCO and is distributing free for the developing countries.

## V. Strategic Priorities in Problem Findings

A technique to the identification of problems relating to the use of information technologies in the libraries was ascribed strategically from the authority point of view to extract their actual need. Poor telecommunication and logistic support as well as the wider wanting of IT educated information professionals have been observed by many authorities as major reasons of unsound IT application in the library and Information organisations in our country. During investigation, it was unveiled that IT related infrastructure facilities were much less than the reasonable standard and most organisations were not cognisant about the IT application

Fig 4: Ranking of Problems



especially the divergent use of computer and telecommunication in information service. The poor educated people who have not any high professional degree nor have any IT backgrounds handled the responsibility of serving information and information products to the user. More fabulously, some special libraries headed by organisational chief and administered by non-professional staff with one or two computer operator were running their day to day organisational routine without imposing any extra importance on better library service. To visualise the thinking of library authorities in facing the complexities of IT application, several factors influenced on IT environment in Library and information centre were listed in the questionnaire and were asked to rank them on priority basis according to the librarian's experience and need. The factors are i) administrative complexity, ii) fund deficiency, iii) need of IT skilled information professional, iv) insufficient infrastructure, v) unemployment phobia, vi) unwillingness and improper initiatives,



vii) insufficient telecommunication and ISP facilities, viii) unawareness of user and authority, ix) high cost of hardware and software, and so on. The library authorities had prioritised five leading factors, which are depicted in the following:

Chart 4 shows that the highest number of authority (46.67%) expresses their first concern on fund deficiency. 26.7, 20 and 6.7 percent libraries also focus their foremost prioritisation on lack of initiatives, shortage of IT trained information professional, and on insufficient infrastructure subsequently. However, these four factors are indispensably focused in all first, second and third priority by the libraries. Other factors such as insufficient telecommunication, administrative complexities, unawareness of authority etc. got less priority.

## **VI. Conclusion**

On the whole the study results provides that the regional libraries of Bangladesh are still in the meagre position in introducing and adopting information technologies in their library environment. Though the samples were selected and restricted to smaller numbers depending on the library size and infrastructures, they are still presenting a disappointing picture. Results showed that 25 percent academic libraries and 66.7 special libraries had no professional staff during the time of this investigation. Of the surveyed libraries, fifty percent of the academic libraries did not have any computer even, when most of the lower middle class family can afford it. Lacking in the availability of CD-ROM, Fax, networking system, and online accessing were also acute. Yet, most of the libraries were using computer only for administrative purpose suppose for word processing or record keeping and sometimes for in-house database by using CDS/ISIS software. Computer uses in cataloguing, indexing, bibliography compiling, purchasing and in information circulating were entirely unconvincing. None of the libraries had any well-structured database while the name of the OPAC is yet to introduce.

However, the study exposed some positive aspects too. It found a beginning to introducing email and Internet in the libraries. Result shows that almost 47 percent libraries had Internet connectivity while 53 percent libraries had been using email. Most libraries were installed online connection after the year 2001 and apparently, special libraries were on the leading position. Because we have satellite based Internet connectivity, the insufficient ISP facilities, little bandwidth and high rate of browsing are obstructing the libraries to better usage of Internet. Since, only 20 percent libraries are offering Internet browsing on demand for their researchers, the exploitation of Internet for OPAC and for web based information services will not develop unless apropos measures will be taken.

In summary, most of the libraries in the regional level of the country are very keen to use modern information technologies to automate their library services. They said that they need a separate development budget, more professionals and IT literate staff, more initiatives from the superior library authority, and sufficient telecommunication and ISP facilities. There is nothing irrational about their need; Bangladeshi librarians are demanding to use the technologies when most of the technologies are easily available in the world. To subsist this profession in near future, there is an absolute need to restructure our library and information science education at the university level. By giving more emphasis on information

communication technologies, fresh graduates can prepare themselves to work for an integrated computerised library system or even for customising software according to the organisation need. The library professional must cope with the variegated use of computer in libraries and its convergence with electronic communication. Library & information centres should also train up their existing manpower to develop them capable at least in a special area of IT application. Building databases of local resources by using a standard bibliographical description of materials and make them easily available to the local clientele should be another important concern. Priority should be given to convert the local collection into machine readable format for making an online library catalogue which would ultimately leads to union catalogue by merging different databases of different libraries. Such databases are prerequisite for sound networking and resource sharing system (Chandel and Suraiya, 1998). Financial solvency may be an obstacle but if the organisations have enough willingness and initiatives, money will not obstruct the overall development. Globalisation facilitates the availability of fund in economic development and certain agencies and NGO's always come forward to help the information sector if we could establish our need, priority, and urgency. Library Management software with networking capability is still a headache for the libraries of our country, as it may be very expensive to get a well-suited software from the abroad. Only alternative may be to encourage the local companies with logistic support and with an accurate information communication policy to market software packages that could adhere appropriately with local libraries need.

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## CONSUMER PROTECTION MOVEMENT IN BANGLADESH: STATUS AND CHALLENGES

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Shameema Ferdousy<sup>\*\*\*</sup>

**Abstract:** The present paper seeks to analyse a historical perspective of the consumer movement and social background of consumerism in Bangladesh. The study shows that existing legal regime and administrative measure is not sufficient to cope with problems that consumers facing today. This provides rationale and justification for playing the pivotal role by non-governmental organisations in the field of consumer protection in a given situation. The study focuses the performances of Consumers Association of Bangladesh and evaluates its activities. It is revealed that social, economic and cultural factors may work as determinant for efficient and effective functioning of such organisation. The study has also attempted to suggest recommendations towards the goal of achieving the objectives of CAB.

### Introduction

Consumer protection movement has assumed a global phenomenon in the last half of the twentieth century. The rationale of the movement can be attributed to the concern of the right of the buyers, growing complexity of product liability and need to protect the interests of the consumers. The existence of a strong and active consumer movement is considered essential prerequisite for improving the position of ordinary people, for setting up institutional structures and implementing policies for consumer protection.

In Bangladesh, this phenomenon is, however, still evolving. It should be mentioned that Bangladesh is yet to have any uniform legal framework to undertake this responsibilities. There is no central governmental body or agency to regulate the behaviour of the sellers. Against this backdrop, some organisations are working with the objectives of protecting the rights of the buyer's community and contributing substantially to the development of consumer movement in Bangladesh. Consumers Association of Bangladesh (CAB) is one of the organisations, which is playing the pioneering role in the field of consumer protection.

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The present paper is an attempt to provide perspective of the development of consumer movement, to examine comprehensively the activities of CAB, to evaluate its achievement and situate the position of CAB in the proper perspective. The paper will also highlight some drawbacks of the organisation and try to put forward some recommendations in the light of the findings of the study.

### **Historical Development of Consumer Protection Movement**

The movement of consumer protection was evolved in the western countries, in particular, Scandinavian countries from helplessness and insecurity of the consumer in the market place. In articulating world-wide consumer movement, one writer mentions three historical phases of its development<sup>1</sup>:

The first phase began in the early 1900s stirred by rising prices. The second phase took place in the mid-1930s, was culminated by an upturn in consumer prices during the economic depression. The third movement started in the 1960s with the products becoming more complex and hazardous and growing consciousness among people about their consumer rights. In 1960, an International Organisation of Consumers Union (I.O.C.U.) was established in The Hague by the concerted efforts of many consumer associations of developed States like U.S.A., U.K., Australia, Belgium and the Netherlands, which contributed significantly to the process of formation of global consumer movement. However, the conception of 'consumer rights' got concrete shape by American President John F. Kennedy in 1962 when he declared the fundamental principles of consumer protection. According to these principles, consumers should have at least following rights, e.g. the right to safety, to be informed, to choose, and to be heard.<sup>2</sup>

Later on, the issue is truly internationalised when the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a set of general Guidelines for consumer protection in 1985, which reflects the important bearing of consumer protection on economic and social development.<sup>3</sup> The basic objectives of the Guidelines are pointed out in the following words, "consumer face imbalances in economic terms, educational levels, and bargaining power" and that consumers should have "the right of access to non-hazardous products, as well as the right to promote just, equitable and sustainable economic development." It also recognises that measures should be undertaken to ensure, (i) minimum levels of safety and quality, (ii) that consumers have adequate and accurate information to enable them to make informed individual choices; (iii) the high ethical standards are observed in the market place; and (iv) that consumers have adequate and enforceable legal rights when their legitimate expectations are not realised. The Guidelines also stressed that all the member states and its agencies should formulate comprehensive policies on consumer protection. Thus 'consumer protection movement' is increasingly defined by set of rights and corresponding duties of the consumer. The present movement of the consumer protection is characterised by the following elements: effective legal framework, strong role of consumer associations, spontaneous controlling by the concerted efforts of the business community. The consumer movement does, not only, attribute certain rights to the buyers, but also confer some duties on the consumers. The traditional buyers'

rights include: not to buy a product that is offered for sale, to expect the product to be safe; to expect the product to perform as claimed; to be well-informed about important aspects of the product; to be protected against questionable products and marketing practices. On the other hand, consumers have to discharge responsibilities, e.g. consumer should be aware of the standard and qualities of the products and services; choose the proper product after bargaining; should be sensible enough so that his conduct does not hamper the rights of others, etc.

### **Consumerism in Bangladesh**

It is axiomatic that in the market place, the sellers stand in more advantageous position in relation to the buyers since they have too little information, education and protection to judge their best interests. Although consumers have the responsibility to protect themselves by exercising reasonable carefulness, he is often, no matter how careful he or she might be, faced with inadequate information and therefore quite incapable of assessing whether goods and services conform with basic safety requirements. They are deceived also in other respects, such as quality, performance, and durability of the goods. This fact, combined with the growth of mass communications methods with more sophisticated marketing claims, also make consumers more susceptible to misleading claims which may be made by traders. The complexity of an industrial product makes it impossible for a buyer to evaluate it by observation: he has to rely on the skill, judgement and representations made by the manufacturers and distributors. Very often the increasing size of many businesses, resulting in markets becoming more concentrated on fewer hands adds to the inequitable bargaining power as between consumers and business. For many consumers, increased material standards of living have also led to greater individual levels of consumption. Moreover, developing country like Bangladesh, which is in the transition to move into free market economy, has to face many challenges of privatisation and urbanisation. These changes have also many significant bearings on life style of consumers. The state of consumer protection in the situation of a developing country which is in transition of economic transformation, has been succinctly elaborated by one writer in the following words:

Particular problems arise where in a state of transition from a subsistence to a market economy, they are faced with complex and unfamiliar choices, problems which can be exacerbated when there is an exodus of population from rural areas to increasingly crowded cities. Tendencies in many countries towards privatisation of areas of economic activity and liberalisation of markets mean that where basic consumer protection laws are few or even non-existent, or can not be adequately enforced, consumers are even more vulnerable to unsafe or sub-standard goods and services and unscrupulous marketing prices.<sup>4</sup>

Needless to say, in these situations, consumer deception has assumed now widespread practice in our country. This covers varieties of deceptive and unlawful activities, such as, adulteration of goods, shortage in weights and measures and deceptive advertising, supply of sub-standard goods, poor marketing information



system, absence of consumer's safety, choice and hearing; absence of congenial transactional environment, misbranding, quoting highly inconsistent price etc. Various factors are responsible for this situation, e.g. "illiteracy, non-conversance with legal knowledge, indifferences of the law-enforcing agencies, absence of consumer interest groups, exercise of increased tolerance, absence of social accountability and absence of marketing audit are some of the leading factors responsible for customer deception in different countries of the world."<sup>5</sup> Again, the scenario of the consumerism in our country has been depicted in the following words:

Consumer movement is a complicated social step in our present socio-economic condition. Unlimited desire for profiteering having no control brings unbearable sufferings for the consumers and particularly for the people of limited income, as they cannot adjust themselves with the great and sudden change in price level. At present with the price hike, adulterated and imitated articles of essential goods flooded the market, and no protest and agitation from the innocent and silent consumers, is making the situation all the worse.<sup>6</sup>

The situation for the consumer is worsened by the development of standard-form contracts. The widespread use of one-sided standard form contracts, not in fact subject to scrutiny and often depriving consumers of basic rights in relation to purchases, causes injustices to the consumers. The legal basis of contract is founded on twin assumption of freedom and equality of parties, but there is an enormous gap between the theory of contractual freedom of equality, and the reality of modern consumer transactions. Such contracts may save time, but they may also put the consumer at a disadvantageous position.

Despite these circumstances, there is no strong governmental step to curb these deceptive practices. The role of existing governmental agencies remains still marginal. Although with increased literacy rate, social change, growing consciousness, increased human tendency towards socio-environmental factors leading to the culmination of movement of consumerism, the achievement is too little in comparison with growing concern over consumer's welfare.

### **Existing Laws on Consumer Protection**

The legal basis of consumer protection is to be found in the Part Three of the Constitution of Bangladesh, which deals with fundamental principles of State policy. Article 18 of the Constitution provides that "The State shall regard the raising of the level of nutrition and the improvement of public health as among its primary duties, and in particular shall adopt effective measures to prevent the consumption, except for medical purposes or for such other purposes as may be prescribed by law of alcoholic and other intoxicating drinks and of drugs which are injurious to health." This article obligates upon the State to take effective measures for protecting consumers from products, processes and services, which can endanger their health and safety. Apart from this, some fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution can also be interpreted to include the rights of the consumers. Among these, the most

important is - right to life, which embraces all aspects of human welfare touching the existence of human being.

Apart from the constitutional safeguard, there are some specific laws, which deal directly with consumer rights.

**Penal Code, 1860** makes some acts as offences, which are injurious to public health and also make provision for punishment. For example, it declares that adulteration of food or drink, selling of noxious food or drink, adulteration of drug or medical preparation and selling of such adulterated drugs or medical preparation are punishable offences. Moreover, using false trademark and counterfeiting trademark or property mark are described as punishable offence.

**The Sale of Goods Act, 1930** is a comprehensive law on consumer rights and it defines some conceptions of consumer's right e.g. contract, condition and warranty, transfer of property, title of property, rights and duties of seller and buyer, rights of unpaid seller against the goods, stoppage in transit etc. The most important principle enunciated in the Act is Caveat Emptor principle (let the buyer beware). The rule is as much a cornerstone of the law of consumer protection in the sub-continent for a long times that of England. However, due to sophistication of technology modern consumer products are complex. It is hardly possible for a buyer to detect faults even though he may have a chance or opportunity to inspect them. Hence in view of the developments the age-old doctrine of 'caveat emptor' needs to be substantially modified.

**The Trade Mark Act, 1940** provides that every manufactured commodity should have trade mark so that consumer may choose that commodity from among other commodities.

**The Control of Essential Commodities Act, 1956** empowers the government to declare some commodities to be essential from time to time and to control production, distribution, preservation, use and business of these commodities. It also lays down provision for license and permit system for the control of certain commodities, for compelling the boarder of commodities to sell goods in a fixed price, to keep proper account of sale of essential commodities.

**The Pure Food Stuff Ordinance, 1959** was passed in order to ascertain production, supply and distribution of pure foodstuff. It seeks to preserve the quality and standards of certain goods and drinks. According to this law, persons with infected diseases are prohibited to take part in the processes of preparation and sale of foodstuff. It also requires that production and distribution should be examined and inspected by public health department.

**The Price and Distribution of Essential Commodities Ordinance, 1970** was enacted for ensuring correct price and distribution of essential commodities so that importers, producers and businessmen may not earn illegal profits. According to this law, the prices of commodities should be attached to them and the list of the price



should be hanged in an open place and a receipt for sale of goods must be delivered to the purchaser.

**The Special Power Act, 1974** imposes severe penalties for hoarding or dealing in black market, smuggling, adulteration of or sale of adulterated food, drink, drugs or cosmetics.

**The Drug (Control) Ordinance, 1982** was promulgated with a view to controlling manufacture, import, distribution of 1707 medicines were prohibited and registration or license with regard to them stood cancelled. It made provisions for punishment for manufacture, import, distribution and sale of unauthorised medicine, of sub-standard drugs, for sale of medicine or import or sale of pharmaceutical raw materials at a higher price, for illegal advertisement and claims.

**The Breast-Milk Substitute (Regulation of Marketing) Ordinance, 1984** was enacted with a view to promoting breast-feeding by regulating the marketing of breast-milk substitute following the general principles of the International Code of Marketing, 1981.

**The Tobacco Goods Marketing (Control) Act, 1988** was passed in order to control and discourage use of tobacco. It lays down provision that advertisement displaying tobacco goods must contain the warning note of "smoking is injurious to health".

From the foregoing analysis, it is clear that existing legal regime for the consumer protection would seem to be exhaustive and adequate in theory. However, in reality though there is enough statutory recognition of consumer rights, their enforcement and actual application of these laws are not satisfactory one.<sup>8</sup> Provisions in the above laws as regard filing a case for breach of consumer rights are really cumbersome and detrimental to consumer interests. Most of these laws do not authorise a common consumer to initiate any legal action against the wrongdoer. Rather, it is provided in the laws that only competent government officials are entitled to institute a case against any person accused of violations of 'consumer laws.' For example, Drugs (Control) Ordinance, 1982 provides that only the Drug Authority may institute legal proceedings against persons/firms accused of violation of the ordinance.

Existing consumer protection legislation are largely outside the ordinary person's experience, and it would be naïve to believe that consumers are, in general, aware of the rights and protections conferred upon them by legislative enactments. Despite the various statutory provisions containing protection and remedies for aggrieved consumers, their efficiency depends ultimately upon consumers' awareness of the rights and remedies involved. This must lead us to consider problems such as consumers' ignorance of their legal rights, and the difficulties they face in seeking redress. The aggrieved person must first be aware that he or she has a possible remedy in law. Even he know the law, he can not understand the phrases and expressions which have technical legal meaning which most consumer will not easily understand. Moreover, our legal system is plagued by many procedural problems.

delay and inefficient mechanism, which can hardly redress the grievances of the ordinary citizen.

### **Establishment of CAB and Its Activities**

In many developing countries, where the governments are more concerned with satisfying the basic needs of the people, the consumers' rights can hardly receive priority in the policies of government. In Bangladesh, consumer protection remains neglected issue in the context of social and economic development. Against this backdrop, Consumers Association of Bangladesh (CAB) was established in 1978 as a voluntary organisation with a view to achieving broader goals of protection and promotion of consumer rights.<sup>9</sup> According to the constituent documents of the CAB, it has following aims and objectives<sup>10</sup>:

- a. to educate the consumers to increase awareness;
- b. to focus on problems of consumer through seminar and workshop;
- c. to provide assistance and training to the organisations engaged in the social and economic activities at the local level;
- d. to encourage the low-income group of people to form consumer association and to assist in conducting the shops administered by the consumer associations;
- e. to conduct the adult education programme;
- f. to manufacture and supply educational equipment to educate the consumers;
- g. to examine the standard of the conventional goods;
- h. to provide legal aid to the aggrieved and defrauded consumers when necessary;
- i. to form information cell for consumers;
- j. to carry out social research and inquiry on consumer issues.

To pursue and realise its above-mentioned goals, CAB is working on consumer rights in the following areas.

### **Legal Action and Legal Aid**

Although the law provides provision for remedy to the consumers in case of deceptive practices and the supply of defective goods, the expenses of litigation, lack of knowledge about rights and sociological and psychological factors resulting in alienation from the legal system makes such provisions a rather hollow gesture especially in the case of the most severely disadvantaged consumers. In some laws it is provided that only competent government officers are entitled to institute a case against the culprit for violation of such laws. A common consumer can't initiate any legal action against him. Due to these legal flaws consumers are not duly protected. Ignorance of consumers as to their legal protection is one of the reasons for non-implementation of the legal provisions for their protection. Moreover, people want to avoid legal action due to unnecessary expenses incurred in a court of law. In such circumstances, it is necessary that representative suit should be initiated by which organisation can represent a group of individuals before the court and seek relief on behalf of aggrieved consumers. As a matter of fact, organisation is in advantageous



position regarding initiating legal action against the responsible persons. CAB frequently tries to seek judicial intervention through public interest litigation, which has already been recognised pivotal instrument for protecting collective rights of the consumers. CAB has filed public interest litigations in many cases at its own initiative and in some cases with the collaboration with other NGOs. 'Public Interested Litigation' (PIL) cases initiated by CAB are related with medical negligence, iodine salt, condensed milk, anti-smoking etc. Very recently, it initiated suit against "Voyage of Discovery", campaigning of multinational tobacco company and the High Court Division of the Supreme Court gave verdict in favour of CAB.

### **Consumer Information**

It is imperative for the consumer to have adequate information to exercise his real freedom of choice. Information is required primarily in three areas: the quality and safety of goods and services available on the market; the price of goods and services offered and the rights that consumers can exercise in their dealings with suppliers.<sup>11</sup> CAB collects the market prices of the goods from eighteen markets of Dhaka city and made a report thereon<sup>12</sup>. It also informs consumer and government the real situation of the market and to assist the government to take necessary action in this regard. It also collects the news of market prices of the goods from other major cities of Bangladesh through market observation. It advises consumers on various issues like measuring the quality of goods, rules for use, proper weight, date of manufacturing and date of expiry. These activities help to grow up the trend on purchasing goods after bargaining and encourage the consumers to receive cash memo at once.

### **Complaint Resolution**

Complaint handling is one of the important tools for consumer protection. CAB has evolved complaint mechanism by which individual can submit their written complaint to the CAB office against any seller and whose rights have been violated by the conduct of supplier. It receives complaints at its head office and tries to resolve them. In case of failure, it persuades the aggrieved consumer to initiate legal action.<sup>13</sup> CAB scrutinises these allegations and formally inquires into these allegations and tries to seek compensation from the alleged supplier of goods. In many cases, these attempt ended in successful negotiation and exacting some kind of compensation for the consumer. In some cases, the sellers beg apologies and in some cases, they simply deny the allegations lodged against them. This complaint mechanism is particularly helpful for the consumers who cannot articulate their grievances against the seller, as they are not in position to make any formal protest or complaint to any governmental authority or lodge suit for the violation of their rights. It also clarifies the expectation of consumer regarding the rights.

### **Consumer Education**

For the proper functioning of the legal system, it is necessary that knowledge of the availability of a legal remedy should be so widely disseminated that people as a whole become conscious of their rights. Once the people are made conscious of their

rights, they may, perhaps, feel encouraged to struggle against exploitation by manufacturers and traders. Thus, people's awareness is likely to evolve a better mechanism for putting the trade on some level of discipline. With this mission, CAB has undertaken some programme like workshop, seminars, distribution of leaflets, sticker and other kind of campaigning for with a view to making people educated, to disseminate knowledge on consumerism among the consumers and to create awareness among the people about rights and duties of the consumer. It regularly arranges seminar, discussion and group meeting at both in Dhaka and outside the capital city. CAB publishes a regular newsletter named 'Consumer Voice', which focuses on various issues related with consumer problems, marketing analysis and advocacy on policy reform for consumers rights. It also collects data and various information and contains the opinion of the consumers for making their voice to be heard.

### **Measuring Safety Standard**

An important aspect of product safety is the development of safety standards. Such standards may specify the performance or design of products, but often deal with information which consumers require for the safe use of goods, e.g., labelling warning of dangers inherent in the product or instructions for safe use and storage. Although there is a government agency BSTI (Bangladesh Standard and Testing Institution) for measuring standard of the goods and mandatory provision for maintaining standard, due to lack of skilled personnel and logistic support, bureaucratic process combined with corruption, the activities of the agency is very limited and also ineffective, to a large extent. CAB carries out test and research on the quality and standard of different items of consumer commodities at different times and published reports on this test in newspapers. Among them are "Pure milk-Milkvita" and "D.D.T. Mosquito coil" are worth mentioning<sup>14</sup>. Product testing is important both in making available to the public information which would otherwise not be available and also in providing evidence to assist their efforts to persuade government authorities to take action.

### **CAB's Draft Law**

Although the consumer's rights are protected within legal framework, existing legislative arrangements are scattered and are not adequate to cope with the growing problem of consumerism. Moreover, existing laws become, in many cases, obsolete and in some cases are overlapping which creates inconsistency in legal action. Therefore, it is imperative that existing laws should be modified and it is also desirable to enact a comprehensive code of consumer law. Considering these, CAB has demanded concrete and single enactment on consumer laws. To that end, it drafted legislative proposal in 1998<sup>15</sup>. The broad aim of proposed law is the protection of consumer's interest and to formulate proper policy for regulating trade and commerce. The proposed law aims at following objectives:

- i. to protect consumers from harm to bodily safety and security;



- ii. to safeguard the fair interest of trade and commerce from illegal, dishonest, deceptive activities;
- iii. to ensure goods of proper quality, standard and proper service without injuring real manufacturer and seller;
- iv. to protect all lawful rights of the consumer and to guarantee remedy in case of violation of such rights;
- v. to provide information and training for effective and meaningful exercise of consumer's rights and freedom of choice.

It also attempts to provide exhaustive definition of 'complainant,' 'complaint', 'consumer', 'restrictive trade,' 'service', 'illegal trading', which is essential for conceptual clarity and uniformity amongst the various laws. Section 3 of the proposed laws prohibits certain acts, such as: i. restrictive trade, ii. illegal trading, iii. defective and goods of inadequate standard and trade in service, iv. any trade of risky and dangerous goods, v. trade of time expired goods, vi. manufacturing, importing, delivering and selling of goods which is not consistent with government's rules and regulation, vii. manufacturing, importing, distribution or selling of adulterated goods, drugs, machinery or cosmetics or these goods with confusing labelling, viii. selling goods with price which exceeds it determined by the government or prescribed in the package of goods. The proposed law also seeks to establish Commission, a hierarchical structure institution to be engaged in consumer protection. The proposed Commission will resolve consumer's complaint and measure compensation. It will work on both national and district level e.g. National Commission and District Commission.

The proposed law, if implemented, will be a great advancement in the field of consumer protection. Under the existing laws, one has to go before the ordinary civil courts and face long delays, heavy court fee and lawyer's toll. What the proposed law does, is that it gives a new forum, which will be comparatively free from all these weakness. Court fee is not there; lawyers are not needed and time-limit is set for disposal. Although they are not supposed to substitute existing courts, they will be vested with some powers of a civil court to render inexpensive and speedy remedies to consumers. These forums are not supposed to supplant but supplement the existing judicial system. These mechanisms will provide an additional forum providing inexpensive and speedy resolution of disputes arising between consumers and suppliers of goods and services. Indeed, the entire draft law revolves around the welfare of the consumers and is designed to protect their interest. The provisions of the proposed law are specially declared to be in addition to and not in derogation of any other law for the time being in force. The code provides a remedy in addition to the remedial framework of the existing legal system. The code provides a new remedy leaving the substantive rights to be the same as they were before.

However, the draft law lacks provision for consumers' right to be informed about the quality, quantity, potency, purity, standard and price of goods to protect against unfair trade practices.

### Other Activities

Apart from the above-mentioned main activities, it has undertaken following activities:

*Policy advocacy:* CAB's policy advocacy programme focuses on evaluation of yearly budget on general consumer, devaluation of currency and its impact on national economy, safety and security of the passengers, professional responsibility, impact of free market economic policy etc.<sup>16</sup>

*Public Health:* From 1981 CAB has been working on the Drug Policy. The National Drug Policy was formulated in 1982 and since then CAB is actively monitoring the market survey on drug. It has undertaken vigorous steps to encourage breastfeeding, to build awareness about impact of drug on health.<sup>17</sup>

*Dirty Dozen Campaign:* It is the movement on twelve hazardous pesticides. CAB has proved the extent of danger of these 12 pesticides on human population and its environment.<sup>18</sup>

*Anti-smoking Campaign:* CAB has taken up a programme on the anti-smoking. Now all types of advertisement on smoking are banned in the mass media like Television and Radio due to the massive anti-smoking campaign of CAB and other like organisations.<sup>19</sup>

*Export Import Policy:* After reviewing the impact of the Import and Export Policy on the people, CAB directs its activities accordingly.<sup>20</sup> In relation to importing products, generally it is true that both the lack of sufficient control of safety and quality, and of standards of fair trading may make a country vulnerable to becoming 'a dumping' ground for substandard including hazardous goods from other countries. On the other hand, regarding exporting goods, the exporting country should notify the importing country the quality and safety of the goods.

*Housing Problems:* CAB has drawn the attention of the concerned authorities on housing problems in Dhaka city and urged them to take action to stop unjustified enhancement of rent and harassment of the tenants by the house owners.<sup>21</sup>

*Monitoring Market Price:* CAB monitors regularly the price of the goods in market and record the fluctuating market situation. Currently, CAB monitors and surveys the price situation of forty-five kinds of goods in Dhaka.<sup>22</sup> Regular monitoring of the market place is important, both to help identify products which may need investigation with a view to regulatory action being taken and also to ascertain whether products are being sold in breach of existing regulations.

### Evaluation of the Activities of CAB

CAB has been able to exist as an organisation for nearly a quarter century, which amply speaks its credibility and relevance in our social-economic context. In terms of length of its existence and performance, it will be fair to comment that it has stood the test of necessity for which it was established. CAB's achievements should be evaluated in terms of our social environment where the issue of consumer's



protection is yet to be given eminence in welfare scheme. Within the various limitations, CAB is providing assistance to consumers either individually or collectively. CAB is also contributing to the policy formulation by advocacy programme and maintaining liaison with civil society. In evaluating CAB's efforts, one author aptly remarks: "An evaluation of CAB activities for the last decade or so allows to construe that it has crossed the initial difficulties and obstacles and grown into a mature organisation. It has not kept itself confined in the sphere of control of commodity price and adulterations only, but has diversified its activities over a whole range of issues including social, economic and environmental interests of the consumers."<sup>23</sup> However, every organisation has to work in social-economic context, which sometimes imposes limitation in the sphere of operation. CAB is not an exception in this regard. It also faces many limitations. Among these, resource constraint is the main problem that non-governmental voluntary organisation faces in our country. This hampers many genuine efforts of these organisations. Due to absence of any income generation activities, it has to sustain its existence on the foreign donation. This dependency on financial support constraints other activities. Consequently, CAB's activities are largely limited within urban areas and it can hardly reach the most marginalized section of the people who live in the rural areas. In terms of legal protection, its performance is also in comparison to other activities. It may be attributed to the lack of skilled staff having law background. Moreover, its linkage with other similar organisations is not based on solid foundation. This linkage may be improved by adopting common strategies to achieve common goals. Notwithstanding these shortcomings, the achievement of CAB in the field of consumer protection is quite commendable. Particularly, it has developed strategies and techniques, which are, in many ways: unique and other organisations may be benefited from the experiences of CAB.

### **Concluding Remarks**

Consumer protection is seen as ultimately concerned with basic issues of social and economic policy. It is a daunting task for the State to undertake social welfare measures for improving millions of people. Rather, it requires concerted efforts of all elements of society including voluntary organisations for synergic approach towards achieving consumers' rights. In this regard, undoubtedly, CAB is playing crucial role in the field of consumer protection and is thus contributing to the higher standard of living and to the enhancement of the quality of life.

Although CAB's effort is commendable in terms of activities it has carried out, consumer movement still remains at rudimentary stage. Consumer movement is not an isolated incident. Moreover, effort of a single organisation is not enough for effective protection of the consumer rights. It needs holistic and integrated approach of both governmental agencies and non-governmental organisations. Apart from organisational efforts, success of consumer protection movement depends upon some other relevant factors, e.g., sound legal system, widening access to information, publicity of the issues through media, adequate financial support etc.

The success of consumer movement does not depend upon the mere effort of the few organisations, but it entails holistic approach of all elements of the society. However, CAB is carrying out relentless effort to contribute to the consumer movement. In this regard, we like to put some recommendations, which may be useful for CAB in terms of achieving its goals more effectively.

- a. CAB should exploit the potentialities of information technology in order to obtain more information about consumer grievances against individual or agency. That is to say, individual consumer can communicate with CAB through information technology about his allegations.
- b. It should collect more data on violation of consumers' rights in rural areas through newspaper and undertake necessary steps in this regard. It can also inform local authorities about these violations and provide suggestions on how to tackle them.
- c. It should explore ways of integrating its work with the government. On the other hand, government's patronage is also needed for CAB for carrying out its activities.
- d. It should develop capacity building in the field of technical investigation. It can also consult with specialist bodies and interested parties to resolve technical problems of standard measuring and product safety.
- e. As the leading organisation for consumer protection in Bangladesh, CAB has both the opportunity and in some respects the responsibility to ascertain how other NGOs have adapted its model to their own operations. Through field visits and conferences involving other organisations that have been working for consumer protection for years, it could deepen its own expertise and spread information about lessons learned.
- f. A comprehensive law is needed for consumer protection. In this regard, the draft law of CAB may be immediately implemented by the Parliament with necessary modification. An exhaustive code on consumers' rights should also recognise the voluntary organisations' effort in the field of consumer protection.
- g. It can make initiative for some income generation activities in order to reduce the dependency on foreign donation.



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## **INTER-SECTORAL DIFFERENCES IN CAPACITY UTILISATION: A LOOK INTO COTTON TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN BANGLADESH (1987-1997)**

Salma Banu\*

**Abstract:** Better utilisation of existing capacities is an important indicator of efficient running of any industry as it leads to lower cost and higher profitability. The present study evaluated the inter-sectoral differences in capacity utilisation of the cotton textile industry in Bangladesh. The study found much better utilisation of capacity in private sector mills as compared to public sector mills. Some private mills were performing very well with 90% to 100% capacity during 5 to 7 years of their existence. The study also identified power failure/cut, absenteeism and unscheduled breakdown of old and obsolete machinery as the main factors which contributed most to spindle stoppage in the public sector mills. In private sector labour unrest/absenteeism had an insignificant impact on capacity utilisation but power cut/failure, shortage of spare parts and maintenance of machinery affected capacity utilisation to a great extent.

### **I. INTRODUCTION**

Capacity utilisation is an important measure of production efficiency, particularly for a developing country like Bangladesh. Better utilisation of existing capacities is an important indicator of efficient running of an industry as it pulls down the existing capital output and labour output ratios which in turn lead to lower cost and higher profitability. The problem of under utilisation of capacity particularly in public sector industries has received considerable attention from policy makers. The potential contribution and capacity utilisation of both public and private sector industries should be assessed in the context of a free market economy.

The profitability of any industry depends a great deal on the rate of capacity utilisation achieved. The textile industry is highly labour intensive. It requires heavy fixed charges and confronted with various constraints like power failure, labour trouble, non-availability of raw cotton and spare parts etc. These drawbacks are the major hindrances to proper capacity utilisation.

It is very unfortunate that the performance of running textile mills under BTMC has been far from satisfactory and they have failed to contribute positively to the national economy. Like other nationalised industries, textile industries have been

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subjected to criticism in the public media for mismanagement, under utilisation of capacity and corruption. In the present context, this study of inter-sectoral differences in capacity utilisation assumes even greater importance.

In this context, the present study seeks to examine the rate of capacity utilisation of public and private sector cotton textile mills in Bangladesh with a view to finding out inter-sectoral differences and also to identify the reasons for under-utilisation of capacity.

This is a study of 20 cotton textile spinning mills which covers a period of 10 years from 1987-88 to 1996-97. It covers 10 spinning mills in public sector and the same number in the private sector. No specific criteria were adopted to select the mills under study. The selection of the sample mills was mainly based on availability of data and co-operation of the management. The sample mills selected from the public sector are: Sundarban Textiles ( $A_1$ ), Darwani Textiles ( $A_2$ ), Dinajpur Textiles ( $A_3$ ), Dost Textiles ( $A_4$ ), Orient Textiles ( $A_5$ ), Quaderia Textiles ( $A_6$ ), Bengal Textiles ( $A_7$ ), Rajshahi Textiles ( $A_8$ ), Kurigram Textiles ( $A_9$ ) and Magura Textiles ( $A_{10}$ ). 10 private sector mills been included namely, Quasem Cotton Mills Ltd. ( $B_1$ ), Alhaj Textile Mills Ltd. ( $B_2$ ), Eagle Star Textile Mills Ltd. ( $B_3$ ), Ashraf Textile Mills Ltd. ( $B_4$ ), Quasem Rotor Spg. Mills Ltd. ( $B_5$ ), Dullamia Cotton Spg. Mills Ltd. ( $B_6$ ), Padma Textile Mills Ltd. ( $B_7$ ), Tallu Spg. Mills Ltd. ( $B_8$ ), Sonargaon Textiles ( $B_9$ ) and Prime Textile Spg. Mills Ltd. ( $B_{10}$ ). Basic data were collected from the annual reports and official records of BTMC and the concerned mills of BTMA. A schedule was prepared and the production managers were asked to rank the reasons for idle capacity on the basis of importance. However, due to non-availability of mill level data from private sector, the extent of idle capacity by reasons could not be measured and compared between the two sectors.

## II. CONCEPT OF CAPACITY

Like the concept of productivity, the term Capacity is often used to connote different meanings. It has different meanings when looked from different angles. The different concepts of capacity are discussed below:

**Licensed Capacity**— It means the capacity for which a firm has obtained a licence from the competent issuing authorities.

**Designed capacity**— After the licence is obtained, the job of erection or supply of plant is given to a manufacturer or supplier, who designs a plant for certain capacity which may not be equal to licensed capacity.

**Installed capacity**— Being satisfied that the plant is properly installed according to specifications, the manufacturers and management declare the installed capacity of the plant. This is the maximum possible capacity, which can be gainfully utilised. This installed capacity may or may not be equal to licensed or designed capacity.

**Rated capacity**— It refers to the maximum capacity, which can be utilised under the conditions prevailing in a country.

**Attainable Capacity**— Rated capacity of the plant can never be achieved due to certain unforeseen and uncontrollable factors which may cause a shift in the ideal conditions. The maximum possible capacity under the changed circumstances is called 'attainable capacity'.

**Available Capacity**— Attainable capacity may not be available for certain period of time due to some factors of temporary nature such as non-availability of power, feed stocks, spares, which may exist for a few months or even few years. They temporarily reduce the capacity of the plant. The maximum capacity, which can be utilised during a particular period within a given set of conditions, can be called 'available capacity'.

An important question arises as to whether capacity utilisation should be worked on the basis of designed, installed, rated, attainable or available capacity. It depends upon the purpose of the study and the availability of data. In the present study, the available sources of data provided information only regarding installed capacity. Hence, we measured and analysed the same in terms of spindles by dividing the spindles actually operated by the installed spindles.

### III. INTER-SECTORAL DIFFERENCES IN CAPACITY UTILISATION

The levels and trends of capacity utilisation in the textile mills under public and private sector that have been calculated year-wise are presented in Table 1.

#### *Year-wise Trend Analysis*

- (i) **1988-89:** The year 1988-89 can be termed as a year of high-rated utilisation of capacity in both the sectors. The rate of capacity utilisation improved in all the cases under public sector except Mill-A<sub>7</sub> in which the rate decreased over 1987-88 due to initial year of its second unit. The average rate for the public sector improved to 81% as against 77% in 1987-88. In the private sector, only four mills namely B<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>2</sub>, B<sub>3</sub> and B<sub>4</sub> were in operation during 1988-89 and the rate of capacity utilisation increased in all the cases except Mill-B<sub>1</sub>.
- (ii) **1989-90:** This year was also the year of high utilisation of capacity. The rate of capacity utilisation improved in most of the cases. Mills having an increase were A<sub>3</sub>, A<sub>5</sub>, A<sub>6</sub>, A<sub>7</sub>, A<sub>8</sub> and A<sub>10</sub>. Mills having a decrease were A<sub>1</sub>, A<sub>2</sub>, A<sub>4</sub> and A<sub>9</sub>. The average rate of capacity utilisation in the public sector was 83% as against 81% in 1987-88. On the other hand, out of four mills, the rate increased in two mills viz B<sub>1</sub> and B<sub>4</sub> whereas the rate decreased in Mills B<sub>2</sub> and B<sub>3</sub>. The three new mills (B<sub>6</sub>, B<sub>7</sub> and B<sub>8</sub>) started operation this year and their capacity utilisation rates were 97%, 100% and 80% respectively. The average rate of seven mills was 92%, same as was in 1988-89.



**Table 1: Capacity Utilisation in the Cotton Textile Industry ( in % )**

Table I. Capacity Utilisation in the Cotton Textile Industry ( in %)											
Year Mills	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91	1991-92	1992-93	1993-94	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97	
PUBLIC SECTOR	A <sub>1</sub>	85	89	88	92	87	88	81	71	57	44
	A <sub>2</sub>	75	85	82	84	80	78	82	64	64	23
	A <sub>3</sub>	67	78	88	91	90	89	74	55	58	15
	A <sub>4</sub>	86	88	86	85	86	76	49	63	69	39
	A <sub>5</sub>	85	86	91	89	89	71	32	49	38	16
	A <sub>6</sub>	77	82	83	94	92	76	61	62	39	15
	A <sub>7</sub>	82	71*	81	87	87	84	52	56	61	42
	A <sub>8</sub>	64	71	76	76	78	67	51	57	55	12
	A <sub>9</sub>	85	84	76	76	78	68	67	60	51	15
	A <sub>10</sub>	65	73	83	72	69	76	79	63	36	05
	Ave	77	81	83	85	84	77	63	60	53	23
PRIVATE SECTOR	B <sub>1</sub>	96	94	98	84	42*	34	68	71	54	50
	B <sub>2</sub>	91	93	92	80	85	92	92	95	94	92
	B <sub>3</sub>	87	93	91	85	84	91	88	90	93	83
	B <sub>4</sub>	87	88	88	87	87	88	96	96	93	88
	B <sub>5</sub>	-	-	NA	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	B <sub>6</sub>	-	-	97	98	99	98	99	98	98	98
	B <sub>7</sub>	-	-	100	100	84*	100	100	90*	100	68*
	B <sub>8</sub>	-	-	80	82	85	88	87	88	88	87
	B <sub>9</sub>	-	-	-	-	NA	91	94	62*	80	88
	B <sub>10</sub>	-	-	-	-	NA	84	96	92	92	92
	Ave	90	92	92	90	83	87	92	88	89	85

**Source:** Official Records of BTMC and Member Mills of BTMA.

**Notes :** i) '-' indicates the period before establishment and commencement of production,  
 ii) NA= Not Available;

iii) \* Indicates initial year of expansion programme.

- (iii) **1990-91:** There was an improvement in capacity utilisation in public sector but a decline in the private sector. Seven public mills had an increase whereas three mills had a decline in capacity utilisation. Among the eight private mills under review, the rate decreased in four mills and increased in two mills while two mills (B<sub>5</sub> and B<sub>7</sub>) were in 100% utilisation of capacity. The average rate of capacity utilisation for the public sector was 85% over 83% in previous year while it was 90% for the private sector over 92% in previous year.
- (iv) **1991-92:** There was an overall decline in capacity utilisation. The public sector average fell down to 84% as against 85% in the previous year; the private sector average fell down to 83% as compared to 90% in the previous year. Out of ten public mills the rate rose in three mills but declined in five mills and remained same in two mills over previous year. While on the other hand, out of eight private mills, the rate of capacity utilisation increased in three mills and declined in three mills while in two mills the rate remained the same as it was in previous year.

- (v) **1992-93 & 1993-94:** The years can be termed as years of low capacity utilisation for public sector. Eight mills had a decline in the rate of capacity utilisation while two mills had an increase in the rate. The average rate for the public sector fell down to 77% and 63% respectively during the years while in private sector, the rate increased to 87% in 1992-93 and 92% in 1993-94 respectively. The rate decreased in only two mills. Mills- B<sub>9</sub> and B<sub>10</sub> started production in 1992-93 and their rate of capacity utilisation increased to 94% and 96% respectively in 1993-94 as against 91% and 84% respectively in previous year.
- (vi) **1994-95:** There was an overall decline in capacity utilisation in textile industry. The public sector average rate fell down to 60% and in private sector it declined to 88% as compared to 63% and 92% respectively in 1993-94. The rate of capacity utilisation decreased in five public mills. Among the four private mills having decline, the rate declined in two mills (B<sub>7</sub> and B<sub>9</sub>) due to initial year of expansion programme.
- (vii) **1995-96:** The public sector average went down to 53% as against 60% in 1994-95 whereas the private sector average increased to 89% as against 88% in 1994-95. The rate decreased in six public mills and increased in four mills. Whereas it decreased in three private mills, increased in three mills and it remained the same in four mills, as it was in the previous year.
- (viii) **1996-97:** There was a massive decline in capacity utilisation in case of all the public mills. The average rate went down to only 23% as against 53% in 1995-96. The private sector average rate of capacity utilisation fell down to 85% from 89% in 1995-96.

There was an overall better performance in capacity utilisation in private sector as compared to that of public sector. The sectoral differences in capacity utilisation have also been presented in Table. 2.

**Table 2: Capacity Utilisation in Textile Industry (Increase/Decrease)**

Year	Public Sector				Private Sector			
	No. of Mills having increase	No. of Mills having no change	No. of Mills having decrease	Total	No. of Mills having increase	No. of Mills having no change	No. of Mills having decrease	Total
1988-89	9	0	1	10	3	0	1	4
1989-90	6	0	4	10	2	0	2	4
1990-91	7	0	3	10	2	2	4	8
1991-92	3	2	5	10	3	2	3	8
1993-94	2	0	8	10	5	3	2	10
1994-95	5	0	5	10	4	2	4	10
1995-96	3	1	6	10	3	4	3	10
1996-97	-	-	10	10	1	3	6	10

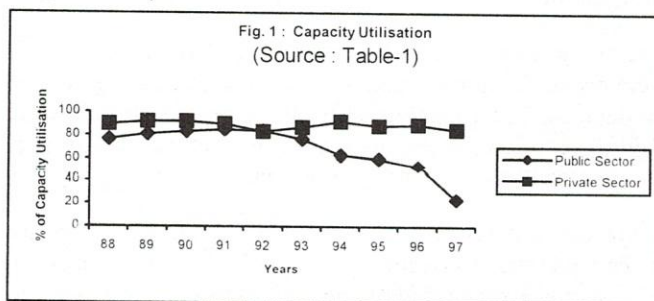


There was an overall better utilisation of capacity in private sector textile mills as compared to that of public sector. The mean capacity utilisation of the private sector is significantly above the public sector at the 5 percent level of significance<sup>2</sup>. The sectoral differences in capacity utilisation may also be presented in Fig.1.

### Reasons for Spindles Stoppage

There are enumerate actors, which cause spindles stoppage in a firm or in an industry. Singh (1975)<sup>3</sup> has broadly categorised them as follows :

- i) Factors which affect the industry as a whole : Power failure, transport bottle necks, licensing policies, law and order situation etc.
- ii) Factors whose impact is normally restricted to a particular industry:
  - a) Demand factors like lack of demand, uncertainties in demand estimation, price control etc.
  - b) Supply factors such as shortage of raw materials, labour troubles, gestation period etc.



In addition to these, there are certain internal technical factors, which affect capacity utilisation.

Ratnam (1992)<sup>4</sup> in his study in India reveals that mills not working seven days in a week and 24 hours in a day contributed most to under-utilisation of spindle. Other factors cited in his study are shortage of workers, back stuff and spares, strikes, lockouts and power failure.

The present study brought out the following main reasons for idle capacity existed in the selected textile mills under public and private sector, which are shown on the basis of importance.

Public sector		Private sector	
1.	Workers absenteeism	1.	Power failure
2.	Power failure/cut	2.	Shortage of spare parts
3.	Unscheduled breakdown of machinery.	3.	Maintenance of machinery
4.	Shortage of spare parts	4.	Workers absenteeism
5.	Shortage of raw cotton	5.	Machinery breakdown
6.	Count change	6.	Count change
7.	Others (shortage of back process, religious purpose etc.)	7.	Others (Religious purpose, shortage of back process etc.)

In most of the mills under public and private sector, power failure contributed most to loss in spindle utilisation. The frequency of power failure increased in summer with load shedding. Absenteeism of workers was another major factor in case of public sector mills as well as in some private sector mills. The rate of absenteeism increased depending on the working condition, climate, festive season, etc. Machinery breakdown and shortage of spare parts also contributed a significant part to spindle under-utilisation in all the public sector mills vis-a-vis some private sector mills.]

#### IV. CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Inter-sectoral differences in capacity utilisation indicate a higher level of efficiency of the private sector mills in comparison to the public sector mills. The private sector's average rate of capacity utilisation was much higher than that of public sector during all the years under study. The maximum average utilisation of capacity in public sector was 85% during 1990-91 while the private sector achieved the maximum rate of 92% during 1989-90 and 1993-94. In 1996-97 there was a massive decline in capacity utilisation in case of all the public sector mills which pulled down the average rate at 23% as against 85% in private sector. Sector wise analysis of t-test showed that the private sector mills were significantly (at the 5 percent level) above those of public sector mills. The rate of capacity utilisation was affected by a number of factors across both the sectors; the management of mills can control many of them. Absenteeism, power failure, unscheduled breakdown of old and absolute machinery, shortage of spare parts and shortage of raw cotton were the major factors affecting capacity utilisation in public sector mills. On the other hand, power failure contributed most among the reasons for low capacity utilisation in private sector mills followed by shortage of spare parts and maintenance of machinery.

Capacity utilisation is the key factor influencing the productivity and thus profit level of any industry. All the selected textile mills under public sector became uneconomical and sick. The machinery they have been using in production are very old and out dated. Under-utilisation of capacity in these mills leads to locking of scarce resources, results in increasing cost of production and affects the economic viability of the mills adversely.

On the basis of knowledge about the installed, planned and actual capacity to produce, measures should be adopted to optimise the capacity utilisation in both the sectors. The following measures may be taken towards improving the same.

- (i) Replacement and Modernisation of the old and irretrievably out dated machinery of public sector textile mills is essential in order to increase capacity utilisation and to compete with private sector textile mills in producing quantity and quality yarn. It requires greater efforts on the part of government, financial institutions and other concerned agencies.
- (ii) Power failure is probably the most serious hindrance to optimum utilisation of capacity in both public and private sector. Installation of power generators would only encounter the problem of power shortage and power cut.



- (iii) Preventive maintenance system should be developed in order to prevent mechanical and electrical trouble.
- (iv) Absenteeism of workers may be removed by way of providing incentives or awards and increased salary to the best performers.
- (v) Labour disturbance emerges from the low living conditions, price hike, political motivation etc. should be solved through national policy planning.

### Notes And References

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2. Note: Results of t-test are as follows :
 

Public Sector	Private Sector
$x_1 = 68.00$	$x_2 = 88.80$
$SD_1 = 19.540$	$SD_2 = 3.084$
$V_1 = 381.822$	$V_2 = 9.511$

$t \text{ value} = 3.224$

(Table value of  $t = 2.101$  at 0.05 level of significance)
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## INNOVATION PROCESSES AND PROBLEMS OF THE STEEL AND ENGINEERING INDUSTRIES IN BANGLADESH

Md. Golam Mostafa\*

**Abstract:** Over the last 30 years (1971-2000), Bangladesh has been gradually advancing to industrialisation, but maximum number of industries face several problems like industrial unrest, shortage of raw materials, political instabilities etc. Financial problem is the major problem in organisation. Every organisation tries to walk with head on high but organisations fail to innovate for lack of resources, failure to recognise opportunity, resistance to change etc.

### I. Introduction

Innovation is a function of management. If the manager merely attempts to do what he has been doing in the past and achieves the best possible in the context of prevailing circumstances and available resources, his organisation will be at best a static one.<sup>1</sup>

Innovation, perceived as new by people, triggers change in anything that is already established. It is a process of creating, building, improving, adopting and bettering. Innovation is not invention, not science, but it is application of science.<sup>2</sup> It begins with the need analysis and ends with customer satisfaction.<sup>3</sup> Innovation management generates excellence, ensures better quality of life and meets human aspirations. Peter Drucker<sup>4</sup> wrote, managing a business cannot be a bureaucratic, an administrative, or even a policy-making job. It must be a creative rather than an adaptive task. Ernest Dale<sup>5</sup> author of 'Management: Theory and Practice' is of the opinion that innovation should be included in the functions of management. A manager can innovate in various ways. He/she may develop new ideas, combine new ideas with old ones, pick up ideas from other fields and adapt them to his own use or he may stimulate others to develop and carry out innovations.

No company can avoid innovation because markets are bound to change and technology to progress. people working in companies change too. Cost reductions were demanded over and above quality and delivery improvement, and would have been unattainable without drastic corporate restructuring or organisational innovation. these intensive corporate endeavours resulted in remarkable improvement in the innovative capability of on-site plant workers, technical expertise of production engineers, and capability of design engineers. Innovation is a must for small businesses to maintain their competitive edge in a given market.<sup>6</sup> But in our

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industrial enterprises very often production targets can not be achieved and can not ensure the quality product. This results mainly from the poor product design and unfavourable business environment and labour unrest on the one hand and from the lack of implementing innovation activities.

This paper attempts to highlight the following:- Factors and global challenges in the process of innovation in Bangladesh steel and engineering industries. Problems of innovation process and causes behind and subdue the problems in implementing innovation programme in this particular industry in Bangladesh.

The study is descriptive in nature based on fieldwork through questionnaire and limited to five selected enterprises out of twelve of Bangladesh Steel and Engineering Corporation (BSEC). This study also depends on MIS Reports during 1991-92 to 2000-2001 and Annual Reports during 1991-92 to 1995-96 of BSEC.

### **III. Review Works**

Richard E. Walton<sup>7</sup> has shown in article entitled "Work innovations in the United States" that American tend to do things by trial and error, and in dealing with changes in the way they work, they are no different. He found out three separate aspects of a work improvement efforts like design techniques, intended results and work culture: the intermediate effects. He offered the following guidelines :

- a) Attempt for work improvement because of its intrinsic positive values, not because it might be a way to avoid unionisation.
- b) Recognise the basic difference between opportunities in new facilities and opportunities in existing ones.
- c) Avoid either-or conceptions of work organisation and
- d) Do not avoid one answer: spread a way of looking for answers.

M. Solaiman and T. Haque<sup>8</sup> presented the paper, "Innovation Management in small and informal business enterprises in developing countries: Case of Bangladesh" that the relevant issues and environmental challenges in the process of innovation in terms of growth of small and informal business enterprises in Bangladesh. The problems are, poor product design and unfavourable environmental factors, which have adversely affected the innovative management. He recommended that the innovative entrepreneurship development courses may be introduced in the curricula of formal and informal educational, training, and mass communication institutions in Bangladesh.

M. M. Haque and M. Uddin<sup>9</sup> explain that, light Engineering Industries in Bangladesh have tremendous scope. In Bangladesh, Innovation may take place in various ways and encompass a replicated product, a modified replicated product, a new product, new technique, new practice, a new idea or object perceived as new by the individual.

Innovation promotion of these small scale engineering industries in Bangladesh can occur in manifold ways. Firstly, they can acquire the capability to replicate an existing foreign technology or goods following 'Reverse Engineering' practice, secondly, the replicated technology or product can further be modified or developed to suit various needs and levels, thus facilitating the process of dynamic flourishing

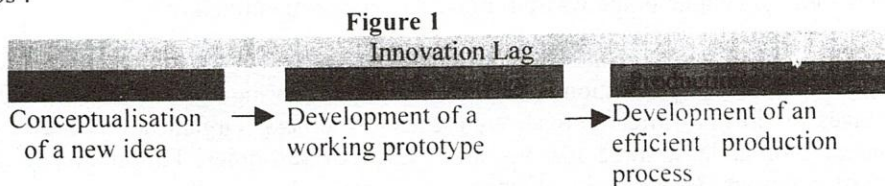
of technology. Thirdly, innovation can emerge individually as new goods or technology without replication. Innovation promotion through technology transaction is very limited in nature. Factors contributing to the weak technology transaction linkages are manifold and quite diverse. Some of these factors are : competition with foreign goods, weak product development linkages (horizontal and vertical), absence of trained manpower, absence of standard for quality gradation, lack of design capability, high price of quality raw materials, inadequate bank loan facility and inability to spend money for product up gradation.

Innovation promotion is basically a division of labour within and among enterprises. Innovation promotion through technology transaction is very limited in nature. Some factors contributing to the weak technology transaction linkages are manifold and quite diverse. i.e., competition with foreign goods, weak product development linkages (horizontal and vertical), absence of trained manpower, absence of standard for quality gradation, lack of design capability, high price of quality raw materials, inadequate bank loan facility and inability to spend money for product up gradation. Innovation promotion in Light Engineering Industries the need for cross-sectoral linkages and establishing support networking appears to be very significant.

### III. Findings

#### 3.1. The Innovation Process

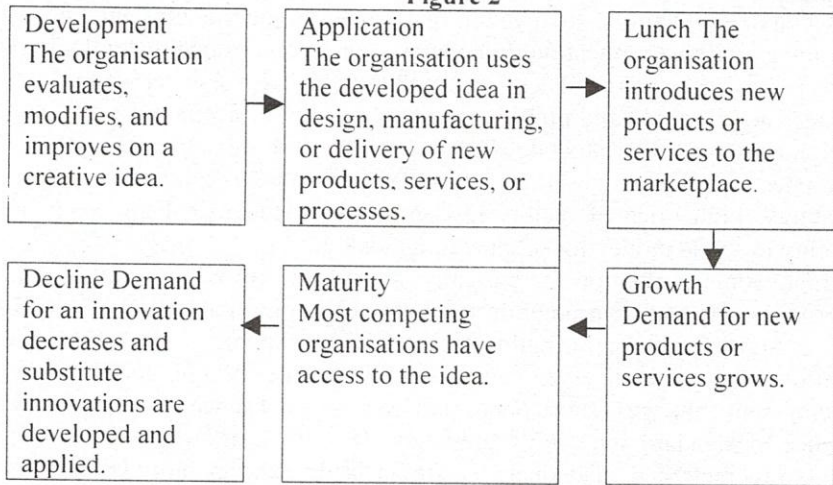
Innovation process is as the systematic development and practical application of a new idea.<sup>10</sup> The process of innovation is a series of changes in the combination of the three factors, i.e. human resources, information, and facilities, that make up technology. While the sequence of innovation varies, a common pattern is human resources → information → facilities. Human resources are motivated towards innovation, information gathering, and establishment of new ideas, then the necessary facilities are created in place.<sup>11</sup> The innovation process comprises three steps :<sup>12</sup>



For the conceptualisation step, a new idea occurs to someone. Development of a working prototype is next step, and this is called product technology. This involves actually creating a product that will work as usual. The third and final step is developing a production process to create a profitable quantity-quality-price relationship i.e; production technology. The time taken for a new idea translated into satisfied demand is treated as innovation lag.

The figure of organisational innovation process consists of developing, applying, launching, growing, and managing the maturity and decline of creative ideas:<sup>13</sup>



**Figure 2**

Source : (Griffin, 1997: 368).

### 3.2. *Forms of Innovation*

Each creative idea of an organisation has a different challenge for the innovation process. Innovations can be radical or incremental, technical or managerial, selected to product or process

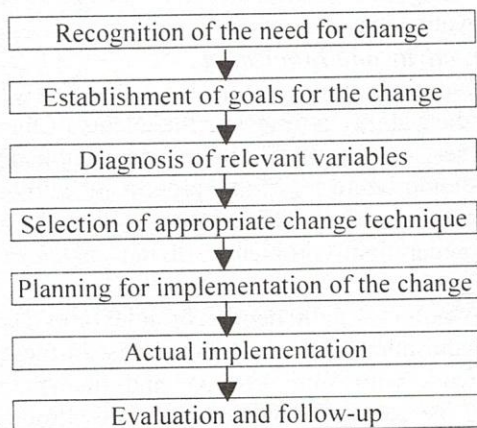
Radical innovation: a new product, service or technology that completely replaces an existing one. Incremental innovation : a new product, service or technology which modifies an existing one. Technical innovation : a change in appearance or performance of products or services or the physical processes through which a product or service passes. Managerial innovation : change in the management process in an organisation. Product innovation : a change in the physical characteristics of a product or service of the creation of a new one. Process innovation : a change in the way a product or service manufactured.<sup>14</sup>

### 3.3. *The Failure to Innovate*

Many innovative organisations are not successful at bringing out new products or services or do only after innovations created by others. Organisations may fail to innovate for at least three reasons are : Lack of resources, Failure to recognise opportunities and Resistance to change.

### 3.4. *Managing Change in Organisations*

Any change must be systematic and logical to have a realistic opportunity for success. Managers must know how to implement change. A manager while implementing change, follows a logical and orderly sequence while some manager's change process is haphazard and poorly conceived. Steps in the change process in an organisation may be as follows:

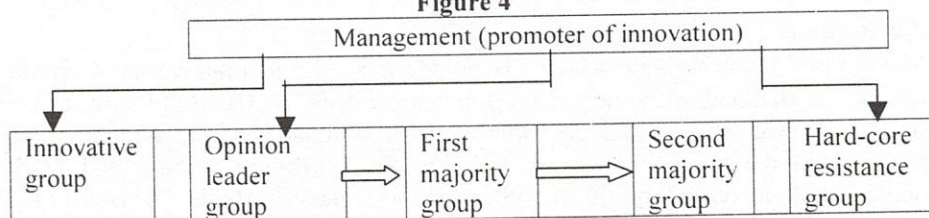
**Figure 3**

Source : (Griffin,1997:354-355).

### 3.5. Promotion of innovation

Top executives need to obtain the understanding and support of employees and at the same time follow the goals of innovation. No innovation is free from resistance: people find comfort in routine work and resist innovations as these are involved with uncertainty and insecurity.

Employees are grouped into five groups on the basis of their reaction toward innovation: innovative, opinion leaders, first majority, second majority and hard-core resisters. An innovation programme is implemented when it has all five groups. The process of company wide involvement is taken as the cycle of innovation. When innovation steps are implemented with cycles of innovation, organisations can be innovative.<sup>15</sup> The cycle of innovation is given in Figure 4.

**Figure 4**

Source : (Rogers,1962: 162).

Figure 4. Cycle of innovation within a business. Arrows represent main flows of innovation.

### 3.6. Managing Creativity and Innovation

Creativity is defined as the generation of a new idea and innovation is the translation of these ideas into new companies, products, services, processes and methods of production. Innovation is the source of success in the market economy, a view that is



reinforced by today's changing and competitive environment. The organisation that is not creative and innovative may not survive.<sup>16</sup>

### ***3.7. Organisational Creativity and Innovation***

Just as individual differ in their ability to translate their creative talents in to results, organisations differ In their ability to translate the talents of their members into new products, processes or services. To enable their organisations to use creativity most effectively, managers should be aware of this process of innovation in organisations and steps to encourage this process. The creative process in organisations follows three steps : idea generation, problem solving or idea development and implementation.

For successful innovation, a high degree of integration is needed among the various units of the organisation. Technical specialists, in the engineering side of a new product, are to work with administrative and financial specialists who are responsible for keeping the cost of innovation in details. Production managers, help specifications of the new product and work with marketing managers, responsible for test marketing, advertising and promoting it. Proper integration of all these groups is needed for a successful innovation produced in time.<sup>17</sup>

Increasingly, creativity and innovation are the key to survival in competitive and global economy, organisation vary in their level of creativity and their ability to translate creativity into usable functions. Important process is an organisational climate, which encourages innovation and creativity.

### ***3.8. Establishing an enabling environment for organisational Creativity and Innovation***

Creativity is always developed in a permissive climate, one that encourages the exploration of new ideas and new ways of doing things. Many managers find difficulty to create such an enabling environment. They are uncomfortable with a continuing process of change, which is the essential element of creativity.<sup>18</sup>

### ***3.9. Analysis***

Maximum number of industries of Bangladesh Steel and Engineering Corporation (BSEC) in Bangladesh do not follow innovation. Now only two units out of twelve of BSEC have been innovated namely, Atlas Bangladesh Ltd. assembled Motor Cycle from the beginning subsequently except innovation process and produces Mishuk and increased profit. In other side Bangladesh Blade Factory Ltd. face smuggled Blade and acute competition with various brand of locally produced inferior quality blades but there can't be technological innovation due to financial problems, overhead loan and government policy. Dockyard and Engineering Works Ltd.(DEWL) is job type industries but they have no work now because DEWL can't be the lowest participant of tender. Planning and Innovation are necessary for this industry. Similarly Eastern Tubes Ltd.(ETL) faces selling problem of Tube Lights because about 35 brands of Tube Lights are available in market but maximum number of tube lights are of low price, poor in quality, there are infiltrated and imitated products etc. So ETL must follow product innovation and proper

implementation of govt. import policy to overcome the situation. Production is most dependent on sales. Hence due to sales constraints production could not be increased to the level of target. Actual production of Eastern Cables Ltd. (ECL) gradually decreased before ten years (1991-2001).

**Table 1: Enterprise-wise Performance during the period of 1991-1992 to 2000-2001**

*Value in crore Taka*

Name of Enterprise	Eastern Tubes Ltd.		Eastern Cables Ltd.		Bangladesh Blade Factory Ltd.		Dockyard and Engg. Works Ltd.		Atlas Bangladesh Ltd.	
	Production	Sale	Production	Sale	Production	Sale	Production	Sale	Production	Sale
1991-1992	5.56	10.42	28.95	25.95	3.08	4.09	26.14	23.13	36.19	39.08
1992-1993	5.82	10.71	28.33	37.20	3.17	4.29	31.53	32.32	42.41	42.52
1993-1994	4.99	8.22	27.23	51.65	2.85	3.38	6.27	10.47	32.79	39.21
1994-1995	4.85	8.21	39.42	48.50	1.95	1.96	6.36	4.56	32.34	36.97
1995-1996	4.83	7.67	40.48	44.95	2.33	2.31	7.85	12.18	37.85	43.26
1996-1997	5.02	8.29	31.75	37.85	2.00	1.68	12.61	7.05	40.29	47.22
1997-1998	4.79	8.17	26.87	29.88	1.62	2.01	14.02	6.04	36.15	43.66
1998-1999	4.63	8.07	26.64	34.33	2.05	1.43	8.47	24.92	44.86	53.24
1999-2000	4.58	7.62	38.84	44.89	2.82	2.81	8.35	15.00	49.92	54.02
2000-2001	4.65	7.43	35.62	47.17	3.42	3.74	1.63	1.85	58.10	66.37

Source : Annual Report of BSEC, 1995-1996 and MIS Report of BSEC, 1991-1992 to 2000-2001.

The above table shows in consistency between product values and sales value. Production difficulties are due to lack of BMRE, power failure, mechanical troubles, shortage of raw materials etc. Sales problems are due to lack of marketing opportunity, unfair competition and high cost of production. These demand for innovation in production techniques, marketing efforts and promotion activities.

#### IV. Conclusion

Innovation process in Engineering Industries in Bangladesh is still informal and suffers from shortcomings, which are related to technological management and government policy regime. The major reasons for employee resistance to innovation are : lack of information, inability to break with established practices, apathy, indecisiveness, lack of confidence and concern and frustration over delayed success.

Many organisations fail to innovate because they lack the required creative individuals or are committed to too many other creative activities, fail to recognise opportunities or resist the change that innovation requires. Organisations can use a variety of tools to overcome these problems, including the reward system, entrepreneurship and organisational culture. Many of the units need innovation to increase their production capacity. Man hour utilisation, overcoming the financial



problem, removal of overhead loan and determination of right government policy are crying need for the industry.

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## MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS OF MONNO CERAMIC INDUSTRY LTD DURING 1992-93 TO 1999-2000

Md. Shah Nowaz Ali\*

**Abstract:** Monno Ceramic Industry Ltd. (MCIL) has been playing an important role for the interest in the economic development of Bangladesh. This study aims at measuring the managerial effectiveness during the period of 1992-93 to 1999-2000 of Monno Ceramic Industry Ltd. Net profit, gross profit, capital employed, net worth etc. were selected to measure the managerial effectiveness. The MCI Ltd. had the increasing trend in Net profit, gross profit, capital employed, net worth etc. The MCI Ltd. has been successful in attaining their targets during the period under study. This is due to efficient management of the company. This might be a good lesson for our young entrepreneurs.

### Introduction

The Monno Ceramic Industry Ltd. has been incorporated, on 21st pril, 1981, as a public limited company under the Companies Act, 1913 & its shares are listed with the Dhaka & Chittagong Stock Exchange Ltd. The company owns and operates a modern ceramic wares factory and produces high quality porcelain table wares and sells them in the local & foreign market by sponsors.<sup>1</sup> Above 44% funds are arranged by the directors and others rest i.e. 56% funds were collected from the public and the foreign inventors during June, 1995.<sup>2</sup>

### Objectives of the Study

The major objective of the study is to evaluate managerial effectiveness of MCI Ltd. during 1992-93 to 1999-2000. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- To identify the indicators for managerial effectiveness of MCI during 1983-99.
- To measure its productivity during 1983-99.

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- To analyse its profitability for the said period.
- To give suggestions for better managerial performance.

### ***Rationale of the Study***

Management development is the process of educating and developing selected personnel so that they have the knowledge and skills needed to manage future positions. Modern managers face three managerial tasks. These are managing work and organisations, managing people and managing production and operations. Managerial effectiveness is the output of efficient management of these 3 tasks. Practical challenges and required knowledge of modern manager consists of planning, organising and controlling to the 3 fundamental managerial tasks and the three approaches to the study of management.

We know that managers have interpersonal roles, informational roles, decisional roles and management roles. There are three levels of management like strategic level, technical level and operational level. These are treated as top level, middle level and first level managers. Certain skills are needed for effective managerial performance, which are human skill, technical skill and conceptual skill. In this context the present study is taken as to help the management to know their strengths and weaknesses so that they can raise their performance as per goal of management and expectation of different stakeholders.<sup>2A</sup>

### ***Methodological Aspects***

All the relevant data have been collected mainly from the secondary source, i.e., annual reports of the company. The study covers the selected period of 8 years, i.e., 1993-2000. For measuring the managerial effectiveness, net profit, gross profit, capital employed, net worth and productivity, are considered for the period under consideration.

### ***Terms and Concepts for the Study***

*Effectiveness:* The term effectiveness implies how well the out put is produced from a mix of inputs to achieve the desired goal.<sup>3</sup>

*Managerial effectiveness:* Managerial effectiveness indicates the degree to which a manager has succeeded in achieving the predetermined objectives of the firm.<sup>4</sup>

According to Peter. F. Drucker<sup>5</sup> "Managerial performance has been discussed in terms of efficiency and effectiveness. He noted, efficiency means, "doing things right and effectiveness means, doing the right things". Efficiency is divided into two parts i.e (i) organisational efficiency and (ii) individual efficiency.

Hrishikesh Chakraborty<sup>6</sup> states that operational efficiency is the measures of profitability of a business. These are return on capital employed, operating ratio, capital turnover, gross profit percentage, and stock turnover, operating profit ratio

etc. Productivity is a type of input output ratio. Output is physical unit of labour such as production per labour hour, per man days etc. It can be determined through labour hours, machine hours, capital employed & productivity index.

Efficiency is the achievement of the ends with the least amount of resources; accomplishment of objectives at the least cost or other unsought consequences. Effectiveness is the achievement of objectives, the achievement of desired effects. According to D.Lew<sup>7</sup>

$$E_i = \frac{E_t}{E_p}$$

Where,  $E_i$  = Efficiency of the plant  
 $E_p$  = The greatest possible of efficiency i.e. sales  
 $E_t$  = Total efficiency i.e. Total Assets / CE

Economic efficiency refers to the maximisation of the amount of output per unit of input. C.T. Horngren defines efficiency as the degree to which inputs are used in relation to a given level of outputs while effectiveness is the degree to which a predetermined objectives or target is met.<sup>8</sup>

Efficiency represents the cost benefit ratio incurred in pursuing those goals. Efficiency is a measure of how many inputs—raw materials; money and people—are necessary to attain a specific output or a particular goal. Such as achieving certain level of production.

**Net worth:** Net worth is the wealth of the shareholders at book value. It is the difference between total assets and total liabilities.

**Capital employed:** Capital employed i.e. equity plus long-term liabilities.

**Gross profit:** It represents the excess of income over expenditure after providing for depreciation and charges relating to previous year but before giving interest, selling and distribution overhead. The excess of net sales over cost of goods sold is called gross profit.<sup>9</sup>

**EAT/Net profit:** The excess of gross profit from sales over operating expenses. The amount of profit and loss earned by a business / institution / firm over an accounting period is called profit and loss.<sup>10</sup>



**Table 1: Profitability Ratios of the MCI Ltd. during 1993-2001.**

Year	Gross profit to sales	Gross profit to total assets	Gross profit net worth	Net profit to net worth	Net profit to total assets	Net profit to sales
	1.1 (%)	2.2 (%)	1.3 (%)	1.4 (%)	1.5 (%)	1. (%)
1992-93	26.71	17.21	33.97	19.60	9.93	15.41
1993-94	25.08	17.46	29.61	14.29	8.43	12.11
1994-95	25.22	21.80	33.91	20.24	13.01	15.06
1995-96	25.17	21.63	73.36	40.93	12.07	14.04
1996-97	24.32	23.96	84.26	32.30	9.18	9.32
1997-98	24.99	28.52	82.37	30.35	10.51	9.21
1998-99	24.55	26.16	74.80	21.68	7.58	7.12
1999-2000	22.13	21.50	81.12	16.62	4.40	4.53
Avg.	24.77	22.28	31.68	24.50	9.39	10.85
S.D.	1.28	3.91	24.47	9.11	2.70	3.95
C.V (%)	5.17	17.54	39.68	37.19	28.74	36.40
Max. Lev.	26.71	28.52	84.26	40.93	13.01	15.41
Min. Lev.	22.13	17.21	29.61	14.29	4.40	4.53
AGR (%)	82.85	124.89	238.83	84.78	44.33	29.41
AAGR (%)	341.22	342.22	343.22	344.22	345.22	346.22
EGR (%)	7.15	25.14	96.68	9.99	42.89	92.60

Source: Annual Reports of MCIL during 1992-93 to 1999-2000.

Table 1 shows that profitability ratios are highly satisfactory although it had declining trend during 1997-2000 as against that in 1992-96. AGR, AAGR and EGR are also encouraging for the management.

**Table-2: Productivity Ratios of the MCI Ltd. during 1993-2000**

Year	Value of production to capital employed	Value of production to total assets	Sales to capital employed	Inventory to sales	Inventory to value of production
	2.1 (%)	2.2 (%)	2.3 (%)	2.4 (%)	2.5 (%)
1992-93	85.34	61.48	89.45	26.31	27.57
1993-94	97.15	60.91	111.00	19.89	22.72
1994-95	97.03	65.56	127.93	20.62	27.18
1995-96	77.50	75.57	88.14	23.19	26.37
1996-97	91.34	90.80	99.07	25.87	28.06
1997-98	88.98	84.28	120.47	17.89	24.22
1998-99	87.67	83.14	112.35	20.05	25.69
1999-2000	90.57	82.85	106.20	23.08	27.06
Avg.	89.45	75.57	106.83	22.11	26.11
S.D.	6.38	11.54	14.10	3.00	1.82
C.V (%)	7.13	15.26	13.20	13.58	6.98
Max. Lev.	97.15	90.80	127.93	26.31	28.06
Min. Lev.	77.50	60.91	88.14	17.89	22.72
AGR (%)	106.13	134.76	118.72	87.74	98.15
AAGR (%)	356.22	357.22	358.22	358.22	359.22
EGR (%)	0.97	25.74	6.17	6.14	1.00

Source: Annual Reports of MCIL during 1992-93 to 1999-2000.

Table 2 refers to productivity ratios of the company. Value of production to capital, total assets, inventory to sales, inventory to value of production are highly satisfactory. Their growth sales are also satisfactory for the decision makers.



**Table 3: Management Ratios of the MCI Ltd. during 1993-2000**

Year	Current Ratio	Quick Ratio
	Current Assets to C.L.	C.A. - Inventory to C.L.
	3.1 (%)	3.2 (%)
1992-93	2.13	1.01
1993-94	1.71	0.81
1994-95	2.38	1.09
1995-96	1.39	0.60
1996-97	1.58	0.61
1997-98	1.66	0.92
1998-99	1.92	1.09
1999-2000	1.45	0.78
Avg.	1.78	0.86
S.D.	0.34	0.20
C.V (%)	19.16	22.96
Max. Lev.	2.38	1.09
Min. Lev.	1.39	0.60
AGR (%)	68.21	77.16
AAGR (%)	360.22	361.22
EGR (%)	16.47	4.41

Source: Annual Reports of MCIL during 1992-93 to 1999-2000.

Table 3 reveals that current ratio and quick ratio of the company were also very much satisfactory during 1992-93 to 1999-2000. This shows efficient fund management of the company.

**Table 4: Consolidated Information of the MCI Ltd. during 1993-2000**  
(Tk. in lakh)

Year	Net sales	Gross profit	Net profit	Proposed dividend	Rate dividend
	1	2	3	4	5 %
1992-93	3102.10	828.64	478.18	407.10	25%
1993-94	3879.11	972.92	469.60	423.74	30%
1994-95	4604.50	1161.38	693.25	513.97	30%
1995-96	4694.86	1181.72	659.23	1373.03	30%
1996-97	5411.35	1616.27	504.58	427.03	30%
1997-98	6619.36	1654.41	609.51	613.55	35%
1998-99	6517.52	1600.26	463.73	487.46	25%
1999-2000	6496.75	1437.73	294.50	14.96	30%
Avg.	5165.69	1269.17	521.57	532.61	0.29
S.D.	1321.42	290.26	128.69	382.09	0.03
C.V (%)	25.58	22.87	24.67	71.74	10.91
Max. Lev.	6619.36	1654.41	693.25	1373.03	0.35
Min. Lev.	3102.10	828.64	294.50	14.96	0.25
AGR (%)	209.43	173.50	61.59	3.67	120.00
AAGR (%)	342.22	343.22	346.22	347.22	353.22
EGR (%)	3440.75	905.71	600.72	918.64	0.28

Source: Ibid.

Table 4 indicates that volume of sales, gross profit, net profit, dividend payment and dividend rates had increasing trend during the period.

Management is the act of managing an enterprise, no matter, the enterprise is industrial, commercial, political, philanthropic and cultural or educational. Behavioural scientists define management as working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish enterprise goals. Virtually, it is the leadership in which the accomplishment of enterprise goal is paramount. French industrialist Henry Fayol, the real father of modern management, emphasised on managerial qualities and



training, general principles of management and elements of management for its effectiveness. The basic functional areas of management are human resource management, materials management, financial management and marketing management, all these need to be blended for the purpose of achieving its goals through the satisfaction of interest groups.

### Conclusions

The Monno Ceramic Company has nice managerial effectiveness measured in terms of profitability, productivity liquidity, and business growth activities. 8 year information shows a very satisfactory trend. Average payment of dividend was 29 percent during the period. Management has become able to develop good equity base, reserve fund, dividend payment, working capital, increasing sales margin and other achievements. To develop the business strength, management should follow the given techniques:

- (a) Concept of total quality management should be given importance.
- (b) More emphasis should be given on human resource management, operations management, through motivation and consultative management techniques.
- (c) More attention should be given on market research to know the competition in market.
- (d) Product development and diversification are highly important.
- (e) Management audit, management by objectives, management by exception should be followed strictly.

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## **QUALITY OF WORK LIFE AMONG WHITE COLLAR AND BLUE COLLAR EMPLOYEES OF SUGAR INDUSTRY IN BANGLADESH**

Md. Zafor Sadique\*

**ABSTRACT:** This study presents an analysis of Quality of Work Life (QWL) among the white-collar and the blue-collar employees of sugar industry in Bangladesh. The sample size was 100 employees of whom 50 were white-collar employees and the 50 were blue-collar employees drawn from five sugar mills situated in the Rajshahi division. The results revealed that: a) the white collar employees perceived significantly higher QWL than the blue collar employees and b) there was a significant gap in QWL between the two categories of employees.

### **I. Introduction**

The term Quality of Work Life (QWL) covers employees' work dimensions including economic benefits, organisational and interpersonal relations, job security, growth and development, working conditions, social status and also mental and physical wellbeing of employees. Walton (1973) stated that QWL is a process by which an organisation responds to the employee needs for developing mechanisms to allow them to share fully in making the decisions that design their lives at work. In general, QWL provides (a) healthier, satisfied and productive employee; (b) efficient and profitable organisation. Now-a-days, productivity is the key issue in any organisation. Quality of work life and productivity are not two separate subjects. Productivity is closely inter-linked with human resource development. Failure to motivate human resources has been the major cause of the failure to achieve higher productivity (Natarajan, 1991). Accordant to Gadon (1984) QWL programmes have two objectives: (a) to enhance productivity and (b) to increase the satisfaction of employees.

Quality of work life signifies the existence of a certain set of organisational conditions and practices. A high quality of work life exists when democratic management practices are prevalent in an organisation and management, workers, union leaders, government official and employers share organisational responsibility. After the Arden House meet in New York in 1972 the term QWL came to be used in a much broader perspective, which led to establish of International Centre for QWL. Venkatachalam and Velayudhan (1997) found that QWL is positively related with

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improving the work satisfaction of employees as an effective corporate motivational strategy. According to Newstrom and Davis (1993), close attention to QWL provides the higher order needs of workers as well as their basic needs. Havlovic (1991) found in his research that QWL has direct impact on human resource outcome. According to him QWL is found to significantly reduce absenteeism, minor accidents, grievances and quits. A good number of studies were carried out on QWL in manufacturing organisation in many countries but studies on QWL in Bangladesh are rare to find.

## II. Objectives And Hypotheses

### 2.1. Objectives

This paper has the following objectives:

- i) to examine the white collar and the blue collar employees' reaction to the quality of work life (QWL);
- ii) to make a comparative learning of the existing QWL between the white collar and the blue collar employees in sugar industry; and
- iii) to examine the problem areas of QWL in the concerned sugar mills vis-a-vis industry.

### 2.2. Hypotheses

To achieve these objectives, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested.

**H-1:** *There is a significant gap in QWL between the white collar employees and the blue collar employees of sugar industry.*

**Justification:** The traditional ways of organising work in industrialised society are in conflict with basic human needs related to creativity, influence and growth (Gardell, 1976). The considerations are earning from the job, educational status of the employees, job satisfaction of employees and socio-economic condition of Bangladesh.

**H-2:** *The QWL of white collar employees is better than the blue collar employees of sugar industry.*

**Justification:** The position within any organisation has been repeatedly shown to have psychological implications for individual organisation member (Porter and Lowyer, 1965; Payne and Mansfield, 1978). The different status/ position of employees will cause quality of work life as differentiating factor.

## III. Methodology

### 3.1 Sample

The present study was carried out on a sample of 100 employees selected from five leading sugar mills situated in Rajshahi division. In selecting sample stratified random sampling techniques were used. Using proportional allocation method the sample sizes of different selected sugar mills are shown in table 1.

**Table 1: Distribution of sample employees – Mill wise**

Name of the Sugar Mills	Employees	Percentage
1. Syampur Sugar Mills Ltd. (SSML)	15	15%
2. Rajshahi Sugar Mills Ltd. (RASML)	26	26%
3. Natore Sugar Mills Ltd. (NSML)	19	19%
4. Rangpur Sugar Mills Ltd. (RSML)	17	17%
5. Joypurhat Sugar Mills Ltd (JSML)	23	23%
Total	100	100%

The sample of the study consisted of 100 employees of whom 50 were white collar employees and the rest of 50 were blue collar employees. The demographic variables of the sample are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2: Demography Variables of the Sample (N=100)**

Employee	Age (years)	Education		Income Per month (Taka)	Experience (years)	Marital Status	
		Levels	N			Married	Unmarried
White Collar	Range :35-56  Mean: 43.63	1. Primary (I-V)	-	Range 4000.00-17500.00  Mean 7932.26	Range : 4-37  Mean: 18.86	94%	6%
		2. Secondary (VI-X)	6				
		3. Higher Secondary (XI-XII)	14				
		4. Graduate (XIII-XIV)	14				
		5. Masters (XV-XVI)	16				
Blue Collar	Range :29-57  Mean: 40.40	1. Primary (I-V)	27	Range: 1500.00-5500.00  Mean 2698.00	Range : 7-33  Mean: 19.22	96%	4%
		2. Secondary (VI-X)	22				
		3. Higher Secondary (XI-XII)	-				
		4. Graduate (XIII-XIV)	1				
		5. Masters (XV-XVI)	-				

Demographic variable indicates that the mean age of the white and the blue collar employees were 43.63 and 40.40 year respectively. Per-month income of the blue collar was very low (mean salary taka 2698.00) and their education level was also low (mean level primary). The average work experience of the white collar and the blue collar employees were 18.86 and 19.22 years respectively.

### 3.2. Measuring Instruments

For the purpose of this study the following nine determinants of QWL were selected on the basis of available literature:

1. Pay and fair compensation
2. Safe and healthy working conditions



3. Promotional avenues
4. Opportunity for continued growth and security
5. Social integration in the work organisation
6. Constitutionalism in the work organisation
7. Work and total life space
8. The social relevance of working life
9. Job stress

On the basis of objectives of the present study a questionnaire was designed to collect data from the respondents. The respondents were requested to give their rating of the various components of QWL on a five point scale ranging from 1 to 5, low score representing poor QWL and high score representing better QWL. To collect data on QWL the questionnaire includes 52 items from nine major components of QWL.

#### **IV. Literature Review**

Anita and Rao (1998) dealt with the concept of QWL, its indicators, measurement and assessment in commercial banks in India. They found that the employees were dissatisfied with promotional policy, transfer policy and largely with management's cooperation in their career development. Takezawa et al. (1982) conducted a study on the changing patterns of the quality of work life in three major industries in Japan. They pointed out that the workers' sense of worth in doing and sense of fulfillment in living has raised their level of satisfaction. Kumar and Shanubhogue (1996) analysed and compared QWL in university systems. They found that there was a considerable gap between the existing and the expected quality of work life of university teachers. Hoque and Rahman (1999) found in their study that workers of the private sector textile mills perceived significantly higher QWL than the workers of the public sector textile mills.

The present study attempts to examine the level of perceived QWL of the white collar employees and the blue collar employees of sugar mills and to find whether the white collar employees and the blue collar employees differ with respect to their perceived QWL. No work has so far been carried out on QWL of the sugar mill employees in Bangladesh. Sugar industry has come under several criticisms for poor performance, both in terms of production and profit. Hence, a look into the QWL as perceived by the sugar mill employees may throw some light on the human side of this industry—a major aspect contributing to efficient running of it

#### **V. Analysis of data and Results**

##### *5.1. Analysis of data*

Descriptive statistical tools and Z test were used to analyze the data collected from the respondents. The data were grouped into two categories: relating to white collar employees and blue collar employees. According to the objectives of the present study, the mean comparison of QWL factors and total QWL were analysed between white collar and blue collar employees.

### 5.2. Results

Table 3 shows the mean and standard deviation for each of the components of QWL as perceived by the white collar and the blue collar employees in sugar industry. It is observed from this table that the mean total QWL was 3.48 for the white collar employees and the mean total QWL was 2.93 for the blue collar employees. Most of the **Z** values were significant and **Z** values for total QWL was also significant. Mean scores of all QWL determinants and total QWL of the white collar employees of sugar mills were higher than the same of the blue collar employees.

**Table 3: Mean, Standard Deviation and Z Scores of the Quality of Work Life**

Determinants of QWL	White Collar Employee		Blue Collar Employee		Z-Values
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
1. Pay and fair compensation	2.63	1.56	1.99	1.31	2.2216 *
2. Safe and healthy working conditions	3.69	1.06	3.16	1.25	2.2867*
3. Promotional avenues	3.63	1.18	3.04	1.29	2.3863*
4. Opportunity for continued growth and security	2.88	1.20	2.69	1.21	0.7884
5. Social integration in the work organisation	3.73	1.32	3.14	1.55	2.0492*
6. Constitutionalism in the work organisation	2.83	1.43	2.48	1.46	1.2110
7. Work and total Life space	4.22	1.24	3.54	1.57	2.4034*
8. The social relevance of working life	3.67	1.08	3.15	1.26	2.2157*
9. Job stress	3.93	.98	3.21	1.47	2.8817**
Total QWL	3.48	1.34	2.93	1.44	1.9771*

\* Significant at 5% level of significance. \*\* Significant at 1% level of significance.

### VI. Discussion

It can be observed from table-3 that the 'Z' values for the seven determinants out of nine are significant at 1% and 5% level of significance and the total QWL is also significant at 5% level of significance. This indicates that a significant gap on QWL exists between the white collar employees and the blue collar employees. Thus the first hypothesis that there is a significant gap on QWL between the white collar employees and the blue collar employees of sugar industry is accepted.

It also appears from the results (Table 3) that the white collar employees of sugar industry perceived significantly higher QWL for all the nine determinants than their counter parts of the blue collar employees. Thus, the second hypothesis that the QWL of the white collar employees is better than the blue collar employees of sugar industry is true for all the nine determinants of QWL.



## VII. Conclusions

It can be concluded from the findings of the present study that the quality of work life in the sugar industry is not very satisfactory for the betterment of the employees. There exists a significant gap in QWL between the white collar employees and the blue collar employees. The findings also reveal that the white collar employees perceive better QWL than the blue collar employees. Findings of the present study also depicts that the selected sugar mills are functioning in an environment where three major determinants of QWL i.e., 'pay and fair compensation', 'opportunity for continued growth and security', and 'constitutionalism in the work organisation' are not conducive to sugar mill employees, the mean score is less than 3 on a 5 point rating scale. This signifies that employees are not very satisfied with their pay and job security. The employees of sugar industry would like to see an environment that includes these determinants. Chander and Singh (1993) pointed out that the mean score less than 3 on a 5 point rating scale signify low score.

Since QWL is closely related to productivity, a poor QWL in sugar industry has negative influence on production and performance of the employees. Management and government have responsibilities to take necessary measures to improve the quality of work life of the sugar mill employees, which will further enhance better performance and productivity.

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## STRATEGIC MARKETING PLAN FOR RAJSHAHI SILK FACTORY

S.M. Kabir\*

**Abstract:** Rajshahi Silk Factory (RSF) is one of the state-owned silk fabrics producing enterprises in Bangladesh. Despite a huge demand both in domestic and international markets, RSF has been facing severe difficulties to sell silk products profitably. It is an extremely losing one, ever since it has started operation in 1961. In this study attempts have been made to find out the causes of failure and to identify the strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats for Rajshahi Silk Factory (RSF). In order to ensure the survival and sustainable growth of RSF a strategic marketing plan is recommended in this paper with special attention to the specific marketing tactics.

### I. Introduction

One of the greatest challenges for Bangladesh are to accelerate the pace of economic growth, to place the economy in a sound footing and reap the benefits of globalisation through maximising the economic potentials of its limited economic resources. But the poor performances of many industrial units particularly the state owned enterprises, have created serious constraints to the economic development of Bangladesh. Rajshahi Silk Factory (RSF) is one of the state-owned enterprises with a very frustrating performance. Owing to under utilisation of capacity and many other reasons RSF since inception in 1961 has never earned profit (Table 1). From the very beginning it has been running with a huge subsidy, which in no way is justifiable when the economy is moving toward market economy and RSF has a well-defined objective of running its operation on commercial basis. Notice that the competing privately owned silk fabric producing units are increasingly earning profit. So, reasons to believe that there is something wrong in RSFs' policies and strategies.

Throughout the past few years some changes in practices were taken to improve the condition of RSF. But in comparison to efforts and supports necessary to make RSF commercially profitable, those attempts were inadequate, proved ineffective and failed to change the fate of RSF. Situation encouraged the author to an in-depth understanding of the environment including competitors and market with special attention to the users. Increasing competition, changing environment and current

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**Table 1 : Income and Expenditure (In '00,000, Taka)**

Year	Income (sales)	Expenditure	Loss
1990-91	115.46	159	-43.54
1991-92	120.5	164.74	-44.24
1992-93	116.6	218.08	-101.48
1993-94	104.41	209.67	-105.26
1994-95	135.58	224.1	-88.52
1995-96	97.02	201	-103.98
1996-97	95.48	201	-105.52
1997-98	59.16	161.05	-101.89

Source: Tathya O Parishankhan (Information & Statistics) –1994, BSB & Official records of RSF

performance have created a need for strategic orientation in RSF's marketing planning. Strategic marketing provides an organised and cohesive framework for understanding and improving the managerial approach to marketing and the total practice of marketing (Thomas, 1985). The aim of strategic planning is to shape the company's business and products so that they yield target profits and growth (Kotler, 2001). As such, an attempt to develop a strategic marketing plan considering the environmental threats and opportunities would have immense importance to make RSF commercially viable. The strategic plan would be useful to develop, maintain and defend a competitive position for RSF in the industry.

In the above context, the present study seeks to:

- evaluate the overall performance of RSF;
- analyse the competitive environment in Bangladesh and to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to RSF;
- develop a strategic marketing plan for Rajshahi Silk Factory so that it can serve its' purpose effectively.

This article is prepared on the basis of the management research report (MRR) submitted by the author in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Management (MBM), Asian Institute of Management, Manila. In view of the objectives mentioned above, the author conducted a Usage Attitude and Image (UAI) study on a sample of 100 households and a thorough study on RSF operations and policy matters. Author also interviewed some key personnel of four competing units and talked with the concerned officials of the Bangladesh Silk Foundation (BSF) and Bangladesh Sericulture Board (BSB), organisations working for the betterment of the silk industry in Bangladesh. However, in order to make the study meaningful and informative secondary data from various sources like Export Promotion Bureau of Bangladesh, Internet, journals and workshop papers were also collected and analysed duly.

## **II. Situation Analysis**

### **2.1 Competitor Analysis**

In Bangladesh, silk fabrics weaving and marketing are done both in the private and public sector. Two units including RSF are in the public sector, 2 units under the

ownership of NGOs, 2,124 power looms and 8,093 handlooms are operating in silk fabrics weaving (TSMU, 1997). Imported and smuggled silk fabrics are also available in Bangladesh. Compared to RSF products most of these imported items are better designed. Smuggled items are cheaper with attractive prints and designs. But noticed that these low priced smuggled silk fabrics are not made of 100% silk. However, it affects the market share of local producers.

Among the local marketers the major competitors of RSF are the privately owned silk producing units like Sopura, Dowel, Padma Usha etc. These competitors have wide varieties of products with novelty prints and attractive designs. They have well decorated sales and display centres mostly in Rajshahi and Dhaka. Sales people working at those centres are very sincere and efficient in convincing visiting buyers to make purchase there. Noticed from customers that most of these privately run enterprises have enough flexibility in operation. These units are capable of supplying minimum five pieces of sarees according to the given designs by customers at a reasonable price. Such a practice is helping these marketers to build strong relationship and consumer loyalty. In case of price, these companies provide loyal and regular customers with small concession from the listed price. The concession amount is negligible but it works as ingredient to build relationship and to make customers coming back.

A firm's competitive position usually measured by its market share, is also an important determinant of the types of strategies it adopts (Linden, 1990). UAI study shows that in 1999, Sopura is the vulnerable market leader with 36% current market share and 1.29 relative market share (RMS). RSF is one of the major contenders with 9% market share and 0.25 relative market share (RMS). In the previous year RSFs' market share was 16%. Market share of other competitors like Sopura Dowel and Usha is increasing while RSFs' market share is declining gradually. Need to mention that figures mentioned here are not representing the whole domestic market competition. This calculation is based on the opinion of the consumers interviewed for the UAI study. But, it can be treated as the basis to measure the competitive performance of the competing units, RSF in particular. Based on competitor analysis it is found that the units operating in the private sector are in a better position in many areas of operation and marketing against RSF. These are:

- Attractive designs and prints;
- Wide varieties of designs, qualities and number of items;
- In the privately run units maximum utilisation of installed capacity is contributing in lower production cost.
- Effective management control system helps to maximise labour productivity which is also contributing to reduce per unit production cost;
- Highly decorated showrooms and efficient sales force created a favourable atmosphere for the visiting buyers; and
- Accountability of performance encouraging employees to do their best job for the company.



## 2.2 *Market Analysis*

Market for silk fabrics in Bangladesh is composed of various types of buyers like business buyers, institutional buyers and household consumers. Some enterprises are buying kora dan (fabrics before bleaching, any kind of dyeing and printing) or plain silk fabrics and selling after dyeing and printing or making ready made garments with attractive designs and hand stitch embroidery under their own management. Among the institutional buyers Bangladesh Biman, foreign missions and international organisations, aristocratic hotels like Sonargaon, Sheraton etc. are remarkable. These organisations frequently buy fine fabrics for dressing their people and decoration of rooms and lounges. Besides, a good number of diplomatic corps and international organisations are working in Bangladesh can be the potential buyers of silk fabrics. Households having enough disposable income, tourists, expatriates are under the individual household category, constituted the market for silk fabrics.

According to Bangladesh Silk Foundation (BSF) the current domestic demand for silk fabrics is roughly 260,00,000 meters but the domestic production is only 40,00,000 meters (Tariquzzaman, 1998<sup>a</sup>). A World Bank study in 1995 revealed that the domestic demand for silk products in Bangladesh is growing by 6-8% (Tariquzzaman, 1998<sup>b</sup>). In addition, as people in advanced countries like USA and Europe are shifting from synthetic to natural fibre the world market for silk products is expanding. It is estimated that there is a US \$ 2 billion world market for silk products (Tariquzzaman, 1998<sup>c</sup>). Based on increasing demand, consistent growth rate it can be concluded that the silk industry in Bangladesh is still very attractive. Situation encouraged to think that RSF should not face any problem in selling its products as long as it can comply to the market requirements.

## 2.3 *Current Production & Cost of Production*

RSF is a complete fabric production unit with reeling, weaving and dyeing and printing facilities. Currently the reeling unit is not in operation. Actual production capacity of RSF is 1,10,000 meters per year. From 1994 some looms are not in a good shape. That is why production capacity dropped significantly. But the number of employees and workers are remaining same.

After 1988-89 RSF did not prepare any cost statement. Based on the consumption statement 1997-98 and financial statement as on June 30, 1998, cost of production per meter is Tk. 1,087. In 1997-98 total production cost was Tk. 13,352,306 of which Tk. 1,498,526 is variable cost and Tk. 11,853,780 is fixed cost. Based on the total production cost per meter variable and fixed cost are Tk. 122 and Tk. 965 respectively in the year 1997-98. The reason behind abnormal fixed cost is under utilisation of capacity and huge overhead cost. Notice that production cost in RSF is higher than the privately owned units. In other word RSF has no competitive advantage in terms of cost over its competitors. Following are the major reasons contributing in higher production cost in RSF:

**Exhibit 1: Production Cost Structure (Based on consumption statement and financial statement of 1997-98)**

Cost Elements	1997-98	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
<b>Variable Costs</b>						
Yarn	66	60	60	60	60	60
Furnace Oil	5	5	5	5	5	5
Power	1	1	1	1	1	1
Repair and Maintenance	8	8	8	8	8	8
Spare Parts & Others	12	12	12	12	12	12
Dyes & Chemicals	15	15	15	15	15	15
Other direct Materials	15	15	15	15	15	15
Total Per Unit Variable Cost	122	116	116	116	116	116
Total Production (Meters)	12,283	125,000	180,000	180,000	180,000	180,000
Total Variable Cost	1,498,526	14,500,000	20,880,000	20,880,000	20,880,000	20,880,000
<b>Fixed Costs</b>						
Salaries of workers	11,780,952	11,780,952	11,780,952	11,780,952	11,780,952	11,780,952
Depreciation	72,828	45,946	42,533	39,531	36,871	34,498
Total Fixed Cost	11,853,780	11,826,898	11,823,485	11,820,483	11,817,823	11,815,450
Per Unit Fixed Cost	965	95	66	66	66	66
Total Production Cost Per Meter	1,087	211	182	182	182	182
Total Production Cost (COGS)	13,352,306	26,326,898	32,703,485	32,700,483	32,697,823	32,695,450
Break-Even Volume (Meters)	82,894	103,745	103,715	103,688	103,665	103,644

\* Cost calculated on the basis of RSF consumption statement 1997-98 & industry standard.



- RSF uses much yarn to make fabrics strong and thicker texture which increases cost of yarn and cost of production per meter;
- Under utilisation of capacity increases per unit fixed cost;
- Employees and workers are mostly sitting idle taking full benefits. Such a situation of receiving pay without any production contributing to higher cost of production; and
- Lack of enough cost control measures.

## **2.4 Current Marketing Program**

### *Product*

Basic policy of RSF is to produce 100% pure silk fabrics. RSF usually gives maximum emphasis on longevity of fabrics considering longevity as the most important indicator of quality. But the UAI study shows that longevity is less important to most of the frequent users of silk fabrics. Based on the UAI study (using 1-4 rating scale, where 1 indicates the lowest and 4 indicates the highest importance) the average importance to consumers of fastness of colour is 4.00 followed by design and print 3.96 while longevity is only 2.34. Notice that design development process at RSF is time consuming and bureaucratic. After developing a design it needs 3 to 6 months to get approval from the authority of nominated by BSB. RSF usually sells its' fabrics by meter and as ready made garments like shirts, punjabi and tie.

### *Price*

In fact, RSF has no authority to set price for its' product. Considering the price of competing units BSB usually set price under production cost. But the current price level is still higher than the competitors. RSF's price for Balaka category is around Tk. 275 - 335 and Dupion is Tk. 575 per meter while the industry average price is around Tk. 180 - 220 and Tk. 400 - 450 respectively.

### *Distribution*

RSF distributes its' products through traditional direct and indirect channels. RSF is directly selling products to the customers through the three sales and display centres located in Dhaka, Khulna and Rajshahi. Besides, RSF uses a few independent wholesalers and retailers with a commission of 2.5 % to 10%. Low margin and slow turn over made these channel members reluctant to RSF products.

People working at the sales and display centres have lacking in creative and persuasive selling techniques. Display of items are not attractive, visible and easily accessible to the visiting customers. These three display centres are not enough to make RSF products available to the customers scattered all over the country.

### *Promotion*

RSF usually does not use electronic media for advertising. It is doing promotion through a very limited exposure in journals and local newspaper. Irregular and very

limited promotion is not enough and satisfactory to position RSF brand in consumer mind and to create favourable consumer image. UAI survey shows that only 2% respondents received information from RSF promotion, which indicates the ineffectiveness and insufficiency of promotional measures.

### *Research & Development*

RSF has no research facilities for any level of operation including production and marketing. However, BSB has a research department named Bangladesh Sericulture Research and Training Institute (BSRTI). But the activities of this institute are mostly confined to the agricultural part of sericulture like silk cocoon production, pest control and training of people concerned. It has nothing to do with the new product innovation, product development and quality of RSF product.

Effective marketing needs to understand consumer demography, consumption pattern, market trend, competitive environment etc. This requires collection and analysis of appropriate, relevant and timely information. But no such steps have yet been taken by RSF. As such, without understanding consumer needs and expectations it is really difficult for RSF to develop quality product and to satisfy consumer. Lack of appropriate recording system it is difficult to find out which items are moving fast and which are moving slow. But it is important to develop balanced product mix to avoid unsold stock.

## **III. SWOT Analysis**

### **3.1 Strengths**

1. Suitable working condition (Physical Facilities): RSF has a big factory shed with enough ventilation and lighting. Enough space inside the factory allows employees to move freely during the time of working.
2. Image of Rajshahi Silk Closely Associated with RSF: In Bangladesh, silk production is centred in Rajshahi. People have a perception that if it is from Rajshahi the fabric is a genuine silk. Old age people in particular, associate the glory of Silk with RSF, since it is the oldest silk producing unit in Bangladesh. Besides, RSF has a distinctive image of 100% silk fabric producer.
3. Huge production capacity: RSF is the largest in terms of number of looms, labor and physical facilities. It is a complete fabric production unit with reeling, weaving, dyeing and printing facilities.

### **3.2 Weaknesses**

1. Higher production cost: Under utilisation of capacity, higher procurement cost, low productivity, huge overhead cost contributed to higher production cost at RSF.
2. Lack of regular and sufficient working capital: Sales revenue is not enough to meet the cost of production and other overhead expenses. RSF has to depend on subsidy or grants from government through BSB. But subsidy and grants are not regular.



3. Less flexibility: Bureaucracy and complexity in decision making and implementation make RSF inflexible to respond to the market trend duly.
4. Mistrust and misunderstanding between labour union and management: Lack of sound employee relation affecting employee morale, team spirit and performance negatively.
5. Poor design and print: Design and prints are the driver in fabrics marketing. But RSF is far behind of its' competitors in terms of design and print quality.
6. Lack of effective marketing: Lack of effective marketing efforts RSF has failed to keep and increase enough market share in the face of increasing competition.

### **3.3 Opportunities**

1. Huge demand and consistent growth rate: Market demand for silk fabrics exceeds the supply. Demand and consistent growth rate indicates that RSF has great opportunity to utilise its' capacity with quality fabrics as desired by market.
2. Consumer Trend: Because of increasing health consciousness, world-wide consumers are shifting to natural fibers from artificial fibers. Such a trend might increase the global market for silk fabrics.

### **3.4 Threats**

1. Import dependency: RSF reeling unit is not in operation. Currently, in most of the cases RSF is using imported yarn. Any change or crisis in the yarn producing countries will affect the silk production in Bangladesh.
2. WTO and Economic liberalisation: WTO provisions and economic liberalisation increase the intensity of competition. International competitiveness is essential to ensure the survival. But having no competitiveness, it would be difficult for RSF to stay in business.
3. Substitutes: It is true that consumers are shifting from man made fabrics to natural fabrics like silk. But that is mostly in developed countries. Consumer consciousness in developing countries like Bangladesh is not in that level. In Bangladesh uniqueness and attractiveness of design and prints are encouraging many consumers to buy georgette, velvet and other man made synthetic fabrics.

## **IV. Strategic Marketing Plan**

### ***Business Mission***

Mission defines what the company is and what it does and provides guidelines in formulating strategies. Stated mission helps management to decide on strategic choices regarding setting objectives, business composition, use of resources and building capabilities. Business enterprises need to have a specific mission. Considering the prime objectives of establishing the RSF and ongoing concerns the mission of RSF should be "meeting the demand for fabrics, promoting silk products, earning profit and generating employment in Bangladesh".

### Objectives & Goals

Objectives need to be set so that the performance of the enterprise can be gauged (Cravens, 2000). Under the broad mission as mentioned above, at this moment RSF should set following specific objectives:

1. Increase sales volume up to 125,000 meters in 2001-02 and 180,000 meters by the year 2002-03.
2. Generate profit by the year 2002-03.

Current production capacity is 77,000 meters in single shift operation. But as shown in the exhibit-1 the break-even volume is more than 100,000 meters. So, with the current single shift production it is quite impossible to earn any profit. As such RSF should run its production in double shift, which in one hand, will make better utilisation of existing manpower and facilities; on the other hand, will turn down the per unit production cost. Thus, double shift production is very critical to achieve the sales and profit goals as mentioned above.

### Target Market

Silk products are perceived as speciality, luxury and fashion items to meet the psychogenic needs and aristocracy of the higher income class people with wide discretionary income. UAI study shows that the households having monthly income more than Tk. 15,000 are the frequent users of silk fabrics. Thus, the target market for RSF product should be composed of educated, aristocrat and fashion oriented local people having monthly income more than Tk. 15,000. Expatriates, institutional buyers like foreign missions, international organisations working in Bangladesh, aristocratic hotels, Bangladesh BIM and Parjaton Corporation, business buyers like Prestigious retailers, fashion houses etc. can be the target market for RSF. There are 685,506 households with 5,650,450 members in Bangladesh having monthly income

more than Tk 15,000 (BBS, 2001). More than 102 diplomatic corps and 24 international organisations are working in Bangladesh (BBS, 1998). So, it can be assumed that the size of target market is good enough for RSF production and sales target.

**Table 3 : Market Potential for RSF Target Market**

Monthly Income	Population	Per capita Use	Average price	Market Potential	Market Potential
		(in meter)		(in meter)	(in Taka)
15,000 - 17,499	1,794,152	0.65	277	1,166,199	323,037,068
17,500 - 19,999	973,828	1.15	325	1,119,902	363,968,215
20,000 and above	2,882,480	1.25	325	3,603,100	1,171,007,500
				<b>5,889,201</b>	<b>1,858,012,783</b>

Source: UAI survey data & Statistical Year Book of Bangladesh 1999.



The market potential shown in the table 3 is only for the household consumers. The calculation of market potential is based on UAI survey data using the following formula (Kotler, 1994):

$$Q = nqp$$

Where,

Q = Total market potential

n = Total number of buyers in the specific product/market under given circumstances

q = Quantity purchased by a buyer on average

p = Average price per unit

### ***Generic Strategy***

Since unique design is the driver in silk marketing, RSF should follow differentiation as the generic strategy to achieve the defined goals. However, it is true that at this moment with huge overhead expenses RSF is not in a position to gain cost leadership in the industry. But it can not ignore the cost factor in competition. Because it's premium prices will be nullified by markedly inferior cost position. Perhaps, RSF need to maintain cost parity or proximity relative to it's competitors by reducing cost in all areas that do not affect differentiation (Saha, 1996).

### ***Product***

Since design and print are the key, instead of giving emphasis on longevity RSF should improve design and print. For the improvement of design and print RSF need competent and creative designer. But it will be a hard time for RSF to get a competent and creative designer with its' current pay scale. In that case following alternative measures would be helpful:

- RSF can buy attractive designs from the commercial designers:
- RSF can subcontract this part of production process:
- Designs developed by the existing designer can be placed at the display centers. Showing these collecting feedback from the visiting customers would be useful to improve the design further as desired by the customers:

Aside from the design and print RSF should offer varieties of designs and readymade garment items. It will provide customers with wide range of choice.

### ***Distribution***

Following steps can be useful to develop an effective distribution system:

- Contractual Vertical Marketing System (VMS) with the independent wholesalers and retailers having reputation and access to the target market:
- RSF can select some retailers from strategically important locations like Gulshan, Banani, Bailey road, New market and Eastern Plaza in Dhaka.

To motivate these independent sellers RSF should provide them with higher and competitive profit margin and commission. Alternately, RSF can sell its' products to these retailers at wholesale price and allow them to sell those at competitive price set by themselves.

The existing sales and display centers should be well decorated in such a manner, so that the visiting customers can enjoy easy access to any of the items as well as shopping.

Aside from the traditional system some non-traditional sales and display centres at the ZIA international airport, Sonargaon and Sheraton hotels would be useful to promote RSF products and generate significant sales volume. Besides, during the time of festivals like Eid and Pooja, temporary sales centres can be opened in different locations in the country. Interested students for the adjacent Rajshahi University can be entrusted with the responsibility of these non-traditional and temporary sales centres.

### *Price*

Notice from focus group discussion that consumers are ready to pay premium price for attractive design and fine stitch particularly for hand stitch. Creativity in design, print, colour combination and attractive hand stitch may provide RSF with wider profit margin beyond the projection made in the exhibit-2. So, Price should not be based on cost only. Consumers perceived value should be considered in price setting with due importance. However, RSF can follow the industry practice by setting price for Balaka at Tk. 220 and Dupion at Tk. 450 per meter. The suggested price of RSF fabrics will be supported by improved quality in terms of design, print and its' image as a producer of 100% pure silk fabric.

### *Promotion*

In co-operation with the organisations engaged in promoting silk products RSF can arrange fashion show and trade fair. For the electronic media like TV advertising RSF can use following themes:

- Congratulating some one at birthday or success for getting job or achievement by presenting RSF products;
- Showing a person wearing RSF products comfortable, smart and successful in the job interview, and other occasions;
- Cheerful attitude of the members of a family after getting RSF products as gift in the religious occasions like Eid and Pooja.

In order to develop image and market awareness in favour of RSF products, 1% of sales should be allocated for promotional activities.

In addition, to support personal selling efforts and to build relationship with the institutional and business buyers RSF should increase travelling and entertainment expenses up to 1% of total sales.



**Exhibit 2: Projected Income Statement**

	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
Net Sales	28,937,500	41,670,000	41,670,000	41,670,000	41,670,000
COGS	26,326,898	32,703,485	32,700,483	32,697,823	32,695,450
Gross Margin	2,610,602	8,966,515	8,969,517	8,972,177	8,974,550
Operating Expenses					
Selling & Administrative	3,514,290	3,514,290	3,514,290	3,514,290	3,514,290
Insurance	150,000	150,000	150,000	150,000	150,000
Welfare	30,000	40,000	50,000	50,000	50,000
Rent & Others	200,000	210,000	220,500	231,525	243,101
Travelling & Entertainment	289,375	416,700	416,700	416,700	416,700
Postage & Telephone	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000
R & D	289,375	416,700	416,700	416,700	416,700
Design	100,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000
Promotional Expenses	289,375	416,700	416,700	416,700	416,700
Stationary	50,000	51,000	52,020	53,060	54,122
Total Operating Expenses	4,937,415	5,440,390	5,461,910	5,473,975	5,486,613
Operating Profit	-2,326,813	3,526,125	3,507,607	3,498,202	3,487,937
Profit Share for the Employees	0	1,763,063	1,753,804	1,749,101	1,743,969
Festival Bonus	586000	586000	586000	586000	586000
Annual dinner	0	30,000	30,000	30,000	30,000
Net Income	-2,912,813	1,147,063	1,137,804	1,133,101	1,127,969

**Assumptions:**

1. No income tax up to 2005-06.
2. Price for Balaka is Tk. 220 and for Dupuon is Tk. 450 per meter.
3. 50% of operating profit will be distributed equally among the workers and employees.
4. 1% of net sales will be spent for promotional expenses.
5. 1% of net sales will be spent for entertainment and travelling.
6. 1% of net sales will be spent for R & D.

### Research and Development

In order to get useful market information RSF measures can be effective:

- In co-operation with the Rajshahi University Marketing Department, RSF can conduct periodic consumer study on consumer needs, choices, preferences, attitude, expectation and fashion trend.
- Besides, RSF can discuss the critical issues with the marketing experts to solve marketing problems and to update its marketing strategy.
- Special arrangement with the channel members can be an effective measure to collect market information.
- Various information supplied by the government, non-government and international organisations like International Silk Association (ISA), Global Information System for Silk (GISS) etc. regarding marketing and production of silk products should be considered with due importance.

### V. Conclusion

The Proposed strategic plan may not be able to change the fate of RSF overnight rather it needs noble intention, sincerity and co-operative attitude of all levels of employees and management. To be successful, RSF need to make its' people customer oriented. Because no matter how good is product, it would not be able to generate expected sales if sales people do not approach customers effectively. Sales people can play a significant role in developing relationship between customers and company. Such a relationship can ensure customers coming back for repeat purchase and to build consumer loyalty. Time to time sales people should meet to discuss performance and the ways of making customers delight through services. The author believes, successful implementation of the recommended marketing plan and tactics would be able to make distinct contribution to ensure the survivability, sustainability and growth of RSF as commercially viable industrial unit.

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## MICRO CREDIT MANAGEMENT OF RAJSHAHI KRISHI UNNAYAN BANK

Md. Matiar Rahman\*

**Abstract:** RAKUB has mainly six micro credit/poverty alleviation programs like *Swanirvar* Credit Program, United Nations Credit Development Fund, Pilot Employment Generation Program for rural poor women and women artisans, Women Entrepreneurship Development Program, Marginal and Small Farmer System Crops Intensification Program and RAKUB Self Help Credit Program. The article seeks to evaluate of Rajshahi krishi Unnayan BAnk. Out of the six schemes highest amount has been disbursed in MSFSCIP followed by RSCP, *Swanirvar*, UNCDF, WEDP and PEGP respectively. Cumulative recovery rate was highest in RSCP i.e. 99%. It was 98% in RAKUB NGO program, 90% being in MSFSCIP, 80% in WEDP, 72% in *Swanirvar*, 53% in UNCDF & 57% in PEGP. Overdues were highest in UNCDF, followed by *Swanirvar* RSCP and WEDP respectively.

### I. Introduction

Rajshahi Krishi Unnayan Bank (RAKUB) was established under *Rajshahi Krishi Unnayan Bank Ordinance, 1986*. It started functioning on March 15, 1987. The main objective of RAKUB is to provide credit facilities for agricultural development and the economical development of poor farmers of Rajshahi Division. It also supports credit for agrobased industries, commercial and other allied agricultural activities. Apart from these, the bank has taken a gigantic program for poverty alleviation. These programs are (1) *Swanirvar* Credit Program (2) United Nations Credit Development Fund (3) Pilot Employment Generation Program for rural poor women and women artisans (4) Women Entrepreneurship Development

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Program (5) Marginal and Small Farm Systems Crop Intensification Program and (6) RAKUB Self Help Credit Program.<sup>1</sup>

RAKUB had good earnings during 1987 to 1991. It started to have net loss in 1992. Up to 99 there had been continuous net loss, Net loss was highest in 1995. The volume was Tk.148.10 crore. It earned a net profit of Tk.2.14 crore in 2000.<sup>2</sup> The objects of the study are to evaluate the success of different micro credit program of RAKUB during 1991-92 to 2000-2001. The study seeks to evaluate micro-credit management of RAKUB. The study is based mainly on the official records, statements, circulars, bulletins of RAKUB, available in its Head Office, Annual Reports of the bank are collected for the purpose. The following variables are given importance: (a) Different programs for micro credit; (b) Year wise loan disbursement target; (c) achievement and recovery; (d) Scheme wise disbursement, target, achievement and recovery; (e) Cumulative loan disbursement, recovery up to April 2001; (f) No of loan outstanding and their volume; (g) Cumulative recovery rates; and (h) No. of over due loans & their volume.

### Review

Momtaz Uddin Ahmed<sup>3</sup>, had an article on "Poverty Alleviation Through Micro-credit in Bangladesh: An Analysis of the Efficacy of A Government Department Sponsored Initiative". It is a family-based micro-credit approach to poverty alleviation through employment and income generation for the landless and assetless/unemployed youth. During 1991 to 1997, over 2 lacs of beneficiaries got micro-credit of Tk.1410 million and non-formal livelihood training, 1600 received entrepreneurial training, 1.62 lacs beneficiaries obtained functional literacy, 1.48 lacs adopted family planning practices and 3.92 lacs of trees were planted. Thousands of disadvantaged became economically self-reliant, socially conscious, enlightened and empowered and acquired healthy life style and above all achieved better standard of living.

Fahmida Chowdhury,<sup>4</sup> wrote an article on "Managerial Effectiveness: A Case Study of Bangladesh Krishi Bank". Bangladesh Krishi Bank (BKB) has been playing a very important role in the economy of Bangladesh. The bank consistently pursued the policy of expansion and growth of branches. This paper aims at examining the bank's managerial effectiveness over a period of 1981 to 1998. Managerial effectiveness of BKB has been measured on the basis of some indicators viz. general banking business including net profit, employee and branch performance measures, and commercial profitability measures. The study shows that the effectiveness measures showed neither upward nor downward trends. The bank has not been successful in attaining any of the targets it fixed in the period under study. That is the bank fails to attain the level of managerial effectiveness continuously. BKB as a public sector enterprise helps the Government in realising its social welfare objectives. It is not purely guided by profit motive and the target for loan disbursement fixed by the authority at the same point of view. The bank

must be conscious about the improvement of their managerial effectiveness by improving their overall performance.

Rushidan I. Rahman & Shahidur R. Khandker<sup>5</sup> had an article on "Role of Targeted Credit Programs in Promoting Employment and Productivity of the Poor in Bangladesh". The success of credit programs for the landless poor lies in the alleviation of poverty. The process of alleviation of poverty can be more clearly understood through an analysis of the employment that is generated with the credit and the return from activities where such employment is generated. The paper shows that the three credit programs, (BRAC, BRDB and Grameen Bank) have been successful in expanding the opportunities of self-employment. Labour force participation rates among women have increased. Participation rates and employment per worker are higher among program participants than among target group population in the control area. The average return to self-employment is higher than the wage rate. Self-employment pays-off at a rate higher than the wage rate. The average returns are higher in non-agriculture compared with those in livestock and agriculture (crop production activities). The marginal productivity estimates of different types of labour shows that the marginal return to non-agriculture is the highest followed by agriculture and livestock production. However, the marginal productivity of each category of family labour, male and female, varies substantially by type of self-employment. In agriculture, the marginal productivity of female (family) labour is positive and significant, and that of male (family) labour is zero. In contrast, the marginal productivity of male (family) labour in non-agriculture is positive and significant and that of female (family) labour is zero.

### Major Observations

**Swanirvar Credit Program:** Under this program, target groups consisting of 5 members either male or female of similar minded are financed without collateral and each member is given upto Tk.5000/- only. Major activities under this program are processing of agricultural produces, horticulture and forestry, fishery & livestock service oriented items and rural trading etc. At presents 63 branches of 28 thanas of 9 districts e.g. Pabna, Joypurhat, Natore, Rangpur, Kurigram, Nilphamari, Gaibandha, Thakurgoan and Panchagar are conducting this program with greater success.

**Table 1: Swanirvar Scheme**

	(Tk. in lac)										
Particulars	'91-'92	'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99	99-2000	2000-01	Avg.
Disbursement	47.05	90.68	115.42	414.09	168.28	142.46	58.17	52.73	270.63	179.40	153.89
Recovery	35.70	68.67	92.54	104.85	110.95	110.65	59.44	18.62	174.16	135.18	91.08
Recovery rate %	75.87	75.73	80.17	74.31	65.93	77.67	102.18	35.31	64.35	75.35	72.69

Source: Official Records of RAKUB.



Average loan distributed under this scheme was Tk.153.89 during 1991-92 to 2000-2001. Average recovery was 72.69 percent. Highest recovery was in 1997-98 and lowest was in 1998-99. Recovery had an increasing trend due to sincere efforts of branch management.

**United Nations Credit Development Fund (UNCDF) (RAKUB BSCIC Joint Collaboration):** This credit program is being followed by 210 branches of 12 districts namely Rangpur, Nilphamari, Lalmonirhat, Gaibandha, Kurigram, Dinajpur, Thakurgoan, Panchagar, Rajshahi, Chapai-Nawabgonj, Nogôan and Natore. Loan amount is given through the collaboration of BSCIC up to Tk.30,000/- to a borrower for different types of cottage industry activities. Collateral security is asked for the loan exceeding Tk.20,000/-. The nature of security may be land and other immovable property.

**Table 2: United Nations Credit Development Fund Scheme**

(Tk. in lac)

Particulars	'91-'92	'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99	99-2000	000-01	Avg.
Disbursement	57.45	75.27	60.54	59.11	21.01	27.56	50.32	30.13	75.03	45.23	50.17
59.30 Recovery	59.30	66.36	71.48	57.39	22.96	30.30	50.89	16.59	71.62	44.17	49.11
Recovery rate	103.22	88.16	118.07	97.09	109.28	109.99	101.13	55.06	95.45	97.65	97.88

Source: Official Records of RAKUB.

Recovery percentage was very much satisfactory as the average was 97.88 percent during the period. Highest recovery was 118.07 percent in 1993-94 but lowest was 55.06 percent in 1998-99. This was also due to co-operation of the borrowers and bank officials.

***Pilot Employment Generation Program for Poor Women and Women Artisans***

Under this Program the rural poor women and women Artisans are given up to Tk.6,000/- without any collateral for the productive activities like tailoring, weaving, preparation of bamboo-cane products, mat, lime, soap, candle etc. In some cases, the credit limit may be extended up to Tk. 8,000/- per borrower. A total number of 16 branches of 7 districts namely Noagoan, Natore, Pabna, Shirajgonj Chapai-Nawabgonj, Rajshahi and Joypurhat of Rajshahi Division are following this Program with success.

**Table 3: Pilot Employment Generation Program for Poor Women and Women Artisans**

(Tk. in lac)

Particulars	'91-'92	'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99	'99-'00	'00-'01	Avg.
Recovery rate	30.31	26.34	33.44	314.00	95.00	73.84	108.45	47.25	64.50	81.14	61.01
Recovery	2.21	1.27	1.02	1.57	0.95	2.40	3.85	1.12	6.96	3.83	2.52
Disbursement	7.29	4.82	3.05	0.50	1.00	3.25	3.55	2.37	10.79	4.72	4.13

Source: Official Records of RAKUB.

Average recovery was 61.01 percent and this is also encouraging.

**Women Entrepreneurship Development (Program (WEDP):** This credit program is being followed by 23 branches of 8 districts namely Rangpur, Dinajpur, Gaibandha, Rajshahi, Natore, Pabna, Shirajgonj and Joypurhat of Rajshahi Division. Loans under this scheme are distributed for women engaged in different types of cottage industries and handicraft activities. The maximum credit given is Tk.20,000/- per borrower without any collateral security. This program is highly successful.

**Table 4: Women Entrepreneurship Development (Program (WEDP)**

(Tk. in lac)

Particulars	'91-'92	'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99	'99-'00	'00-'01	Avg.
Disbursement	21.94	36.14	43.09	71.67	36.24	45.90	56.18	33.25	49.68	19.50	41.36
Recovery	21.86	29.59	46.91	48.93	39.26	49.31	49.72	22.88	53.07	33.10	39.46
Recovery rate	99.63	81.87	108.86	68.27	108.33	107.42	88.50	38.81	106.82	169.74	95.40

Source: Official Records of RAKUB.

Here we also see satisfactory recovery i.e. 95.40 percent and this is profitable for RAKUB.

**Marginal and Small Farm Systems Crop Intensification Program (MSFSCIP):**

Under this program, the landless, marginal and small farmers of Kurigram district are helped in a group basis for farm and off farm activities. Groups are made either by male or female separately consisting of 10 to 20 members. The group members have to deposit their weekly savings in the Bank regularly. Credit facilities within



this program are given for crop-production, livestock, fish culture, agricultural equipments, orchard, poultry farming, small trading, rural transport, rice husking etc. but there is no need for collateral security. The performance of this program also very satisfactory.

**Table 5: Marginal and Small Farm Systems Crop Intensification Program**

(Tk. in lac)

Particulars	'91-92	'92-'93	'93-'94	'94-'95	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99	'99-00	2000-01	Avg.
Disbursement	19.06	131.67	151.19	305.42	323.72	32.55	339.37	75.82	301.34	95.36	177.55
Recovery	4.18	39.42	167.26	200.58	275.27	336.61	358.24	69.32	290.39	155.87	189.71
Recovery rate	21.93	29.93	110.62	65.67	85.03	105.01	105.56	91.42	96.35	163.45	106.84

Source: Official Records of RAKUB.

Under this scheme, average recovery rate is also encouraging.

#### ***RAKUB Self Help Credit Program (RSCP)***

This credit program has already been implemented in 134 branches of 15 districts except Kurigram of Rajshahi Division. Gradually this program will be extended to all RAKUB branches. Male and Female groups are made separately consisting of landless, marginal and small farmers having 8 to 12 members in each group. After group is made, the group members have to deposit their weekly savings regularly for six months and then the group is considered eligible for loan in the activities like crop production, livestock, pisciculture, agricultural equipment, orchard, poultry farming, small trading, rural transport, rice husking etc. and there is no need for collateral security. The performance of this program is also satisfactory.

**Table 6: RAKUB Self Help Credit Program**

(Tk. in lac)

Particulars	'95-'96	'96-'97	'97-'98	'98-'99	'99-2000	2000-01	Avg.
Disbursement	50.26	71.19	195.07	267.51	1151.88	800.45	422.73
Recovery	32.27	44.85	115.24	130.36	791.62	751.12	310.91
Recovery rate	64.20	63.00	59.07	48.73	68.72	93.83	71.84

Source: Official Records of RAKUB.

Average recovery is lowest among all the schemes and this shows poor picture in this scheme although in 2000-1, it was highly satisfactory.

**Table 7: Micro Credit Success up to April 2001**

Particular	No. of Loan	Disbursement	Recovery	Cumulative disbursement	Cumulative Recovery	Percent age
SNCP	3310	179.40	135.18	1596.22	1189.26	72
UNCDF	543	45.23	44.17	690.42	594.70	53
PEGP	91	4.72	3.83	55.17	49.83	57
WEDP	299	19.50	33.10	443.15	435.44	80
MSFSCIP	1079	95.36	155.87	2327.85	2075.18	90
RSCP	9055	804.25	751.12	2988.65	2133.53	99
Total	14377	1148.46	1123.27	8101.46	6477.94	451

Cumulative disbursement was Tk.8101.46 lacs up to April 2001. Cumulative recovery was Tk.6477.94 lacs, the average recovery being about 80%

**Table 8: Overdues & Uncollectible Debts**

Particular	No. of Loan	Disbursement	% of over dues
Swanirvar	469.18	858.69	54.63
UNCDF	535.37	752.25	71.16
PEGP	30.78	47.80	64.39
WEDP	105.21	175.94	59.79
MSFSCIP	223.65	768.10	29.11
RSCP	20.90	1123.22	1.85
Total	1385.09	3726.00	46.82

Table indicates that total over dues were Tk.1385.09 lacs out of Tk.2726 lacs uncollectible debts, the percentage being only 37.17. So it is not discouraging for the bank. The impact of different programmes reveal that the clients had better clothing, food, shelter, education & health during post loan situation compared to that in pre-loan situation. Poverty alleviation has been easier and clients are more self reliant.

The rural poor are interested to have loan for processing agricultural produces, horticulture and forestry, fisheries and livestock, rural trading, tailoring, weaving, preparation of bamboo cane products, poultry farming, small trading, rural transport, rice husking etc.

### Conclusion

The micro credit program of RAKUB is highly satisfactory. Average recovery rate was about 80 percent during 1991-92 to 2000-2001. Recovery rate was highest in 1993-94 i.e. 101.58 percent but was lowest in 1998-99 i.e. 56.05 percent. It had better recovery rates in 1996-97 and 1997-1998. Compared to 1991-92. It had worse recovery in 1994-95 and 1995-96. Average disbursement was Tk. 478.82 lacs in



1991-92 to 1998-99 through micro credit program and average recovery was Tk. 384.26 lacs during the period. Highest disbursement was in 1997-98 but lowest disbursement was in 1991-92. The Bank had increasing trend in disbursement of micro credit up to 1997-98. It declined in 1998-99. The recovery volume had also increasing trend up to 1997-99.

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## PROMOTION POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR BANKING IN BANGLADESH

Mohammad Nurul Islam\*

**Abstract:** This paper aims at examining conceptual dimensions of evaluating promotion policies and practices in public sector banks for identifying some basic indicators to assess the effects of the existing promotion practices on employee motivation. Having identified some indicators an attempt has been made to evaluate the existing policies and practices of promotion. The main indicators used in the study include promotion policies, promotion criterion, promotion procedure, promotional line, promotional interval, factors considered for promotion, effectiveness of the present promotion system and the weaknesses of the present promotion system. The study reveals that some of such indicators showed encouraging results while the rest did not move in the same direction. It is believed that the existing promotion policies and practices could bring more benefits through creating motivational atmosphere, had the planning monitoring and follow-up measures for materialising the practices been improved.

### I. Introduction

Promotion is a widely accepted and long established policy in many organisations. It is now an integral component of personnel policies of almost all organisations. Promotion refers to the filling of a vacancy at a higher post of the organisation by the internal movement of present employee from his or her present post. It is an upliftment to immediate higher level. The new position normally carries higher pay, status and job conditions as compared to the old. An increase of ranks a precondition of promotion. Increased earnings without increase of rank is not promotion. When promotion policies are administered properly, it can offer several distinct advantages including development of employee morale and achievement of enhanced organisational effectiveness.<sup>1</sup> If promotion is based on actual performance, employees tend to work harder to earn promotion. Existing promotion system of public sector banks has been studied and the views of the respondent employees examined in this regard. It has been found that the present system of promotion could not reasonably satisfy a large number of executives and employees working in

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different public sector banks. It was observed that promotions in different public sector banks were not handled squarely. As a result, it has created a resentment among other employees who did not receive promotion and it affected both the morale and future job performance of these persons.

### ***1.1. Objectives of the study***

The general objectives of the study is to assess the effectiveness of the existing promotion practices in different public sector banks in Bangladesh and to suggest new and innovative ways to improve the existing promotion policies and practices for creating more motivating atmosphere in the public sector banks of Bangladesh. For the purpose the author attempted to find out and identify the present promotion system practiced by the public sector banks in the light of management principles. The study is designed to investigate the effectiveness of the present promotion system that exist in public sector banks as well as the influencing factors of promotion in management. The specific objectives of the study are to:

- investigate the effectiveness of the existing policies and practices of promotion in public sector banks for employee motivation;
- determine the level of satisfaction and know the view of the executives and employees regarding promotion in public sector banks;
- outline current thought of the executives and employees on promotion practices of different public sector banks;
- assist in developing an understanding of needs, experiences, values and attitudes about promotion that cause them to behave differently;
- determine and evaluate critically the reasons for dissatisfaction toward existing promotion policies by the executives and employees of public sector banks in Bangladesh;
- emphasise the need for a straight and sound promotion policy for employee motivation; and
- Suggest new and innovative promotional measures to restore the lost motivational condition of the executives and employees of the public sector banks in Bangladesh.

To achieve the above objectives, the study purposes the following hypotheses, which are duly tested by primary and secondary data:

1. The existing promotion policies and practices are not sound and fair that can create employee motivation.
2. Executives and employees are not satisfied with the existing promotion practices of public sector banks.
3. The existing promotion policies have been failed to create positive attitude towards smooth functioning of the public sector banks.

4. In absence of fixed criteria for promotion, political pressure, nepotism, favouritism, regionalism etc. can influence the present practices of promotion in the public sector banks.
5. There are many weaknesses of the existing promotion procedure, which should be rectified.

### **1.2 Study methodology**

The study is base on empirical survey and information. Most of the information required for the study have been collected through interview of three groups: (a) Executive decision makers of public sector banks; (b) Employees of public sector banks; and (c) Trade Union Leaders of public sector banks.

For the purpose of the study, 195 officers and executives, 324 employees and 42 trade union leaders from 50 offices and branches, of different public sector banks were selected purposively for interview. Interview of appropriate representation, the selection of the branches and offices were made on the basis of random sample table. To make the paper more concrete, sample from the head offices, divisional offices, area offices, regional offices, training institutes, corporate branches, local offices and branches of different grades and status have been selected for interview and investigation. Secondary data were also used in consideration of the object and scope of the investigation and suitability of secondary data where no better result can be obtained through primary investigation.

## **II. Findings of the study**

One of the major objectives of the study was the determination of the promotion elements that determine the executives and the employees motivation for higher productivity. It was expected that it would be useful for the policy makers if they know before hand what tools and devices may be used to activate the executives and employees' interest regarding promotion for sustained efforts directed towards raising the productive efficiency of public sector banks. Here some special aspects relating to promotion are discussed to summarise the findings of the present study in the light of the hypothesis framed.

### **2.1. Promotion policies in public sector banks**

As the largest commercial banks in Bangladesh are in public sector, they provide employment to a large number of educated people of the country. Hence, comprehensive promotion policy is necessary for the smooth operation of the bank and growth of the economy. Traditionally the public sector banks follow some promotion policy to keep the work of the banks going and to motivate their employees to discharge their responsibilities. How far the existing promotion policy has created positive attitude towards smooth functioning of the bank was tested by a question in the schedule of interview. The following table shows the respondents view about promotion policy.



**Table 1: Observation of straight promotion policy in public sector banks**

Category of respondents	Observation: whether straight promotion policy is observed (%)			Total
	Yes	No	Partly	
Executives	5.6	86.2	8.2	100.0
Employees	-	91.7	8.3	100.0
Trade union leaders	-	100	-	100.0
Total	5.6	277.9	16.5	300.0

Note: Percentage adds to 300% as three categories of respondents made their responses.

The table (table 1) reveals that 80.0%, 78.1% and 92.9% of the executives, employees and trade union leaders respectively thinks that public sector banks do not follow any straight promotion policy. However, almost 100 per cent of the respondents of all categories expressed their dissatisfaction with the existing promotion policy. This view is reflected in Table 2.

**Table 2: Percentage distribution of satisfaction regarding promotion policy**

Category of respondents	Satisfaction regarding existing Promotion policy followed in public sector banks (%)			Total
	Yes	No	Partly	
Executives	5.6	86.2	8.2	100.0
Employees	-	91.7	8.3	100.0
Trade union leaders	-	100.0	-	100.0
Total	5.6	277.9	16.5	300.0

Note: Percentage adds to 300% as three categories of respondents made their responses.

It appears that executives, employees and Trade Union Leaders irrespective of their position have expressed their dissatisfaction with the existing promotion policy of public sector banks. The most burning problem with promotion is that there is no promotion in time and regular basis. Besides, a practice of nepotism and favouritism exists in the promotion affairs. Executives, employees and Trade Union Leaders, irrespective of their official position, expect that the top management of public sector banks should be fair to them in respect of rewards and punishments since they are superior in terms of job-skill, job knowledge, dealings and judgements. They further expect that top management should not show partiality to any body on any matter and resort favouritism for certain groups of people against other. Their dealings and behaviour patterns should be free from bias, emotion and fear of pressure from any concern. They should also not be dictated by whims. The top management of public sector banks in Bangladesh must be guided by reasons, base their judgement on facts rather intuition or guess.

### 2.2. *Promotion opportunities in public sector banks*

During the course of study it was observed that promotional policies exist widely in public sector banks. To re-iterate, promotional opportunities are one of the important factors of motivation that contributes toward employee performance. Most of the respondents are of the opinion that they have more promotional opportunities in comparison to employees of other organisations and services. Such feeling regarding promotional opportunities on the part of an overwhelming majority of the respondents indicate a good perception regarding their banks. This has relevance to their views regarding their careers. But almost 100 per cent of the respondents think that their idea become wrong due to inefficiency of bank management and the present promotional opportunities are not at all attractive. It may be inferred that a great dissatisfaction is prevailing in the banks either for the present policies of promotion or the way such policies are implemented. Here some light is thrown on what the respondents of the samples have been getting the opportunity for promotion and advancement in public sector banking in Bangladesh. The information obtained during the course of interview is presented in the following table.

**Table 3: Promotion opportunity in public sector banks is poor (%)**

No. of promotion	Executives	Employees	Total
0	21.0	26.8	24.7
1	6.7	71.3	47.0
2	43.6	1.9	17.5
3	21.0	-	7.9
4	6.7	-	2.5
5	1.0	-	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Average	2	1	100.0

The above table shows that the promotion opportunity in public sector banks is very poor which reflected in the motivational condition of the executives and employees.

### 2.3. *Promotional criterion followed in public sector banks*

There are four major dimensions, which are considered as criteria for examining the suitability of promotion. These are: (1) Minimum service for a period of three years in the present post; (2) passing of Banking Diploma Examinations Part I and Part II; (3) Marks on annual confidential report (ACR); and (4) evaluation by the board.

In addition to those factors, excess length of service, academic qualifications, training received etc. are also given weight. But the executives and employees of public sector banks think that management of these banks does not follow fixed criteria for promotion and frequent change is observed to their decision. Besides, political factors, regionalism, personal links, regionalism, union pressure etc. are also the common factors that influence the present promotion practices of the banks. A



large number of respondents of the banks think that the authorities sometimes offered promotions on unfair considerations (Table 4).<sup>2</sup>

**Table 4: Showing the frequency of the factors considered in giving promotion (in %)**

<b>Factors considered for promotion</b>	<b>Always</b>	<b>Frequently</b>	<b>sometimes</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Never</b>	<b>Total</b>
Efficiency and merit	44	14	23	14	5	100
Seniority	49	7	34	5	5	100
Political factors	3	9	29	36	23	100
Regionalism	1	2	26	33	38	100
Relational/ Personal links	7	13	30	30	20	100
Regionalism	1	5	10	32	52	100
Union pressure	2	11	27	37	23	100
Total	107	61	179	187	166	700

Note: Percentage adds to 700 as seven choices were given to consider.

#### 2.4. *Evaluation procedure for promotion*

Executives and employees of almost all the public sector banks who are eligible for promotion are rated on a total of 100 points where annual confidential report (ACR), academic qualifications, Diploma on Banking Part I and II, special training in Banking, length of service and Boards Evaluation are given weightage. The opinion of the respondents are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5: Distribution of points on different factors considered for promotion**

<b>Factors considered for promotion</b>	<b>Distribution of points</b>
Annual Confidential Report (ACR)	50
Academic Qualifications	8
Banking Diploma Part I & II	5
Training received	2
Length of service	15
Board's evaluation	20
Total	100

#### 2.5. *Promotional line public sector banks*

There are three promotional strategies that have been established in the public sector banks depending on types of employees. These are: (a) one for the non-clerical employees; (b) one for the clerical employees; and (c) the other for the officers and executives. Non-clerical employees are Sweepers, Peons and Guards. Subject to fulfilment of promotional criteria, Peons are promoted to the post of Assistant CareTaker (ACT) and CareTaker (CT). But scope for promotions for these employees are very limited. As they gather experience, they are granted time scale in the next higher scale without changing designation. Though not a promotion, it is some kind of promotion. Clerical employees include Junior Clerks and Cashiers who

have the opportunity to be promoted to senior clerks, senior cashiers and subsequently to Junior Officers and so on. The opportunities of promotion of Officer are Senior Officer (SO), Principal Officer (PO), Senior Principal Officer (SPO), Assistant General Manager (AGM) and Deputy General Manager (DGM). An officer can move up to the rank of DGM under normal procedure. The next promotion opportunities are General Manager (GM), Deputy Managing Director (DMD), and Managing Director (MD). But there is no systematic procedure for promotion to such top ranking positions by the bank authorities. The Government through the Ministry of Finance directly appoints them, keeping in view the DGM and equivalent officers of all nationalised banks and financial institutions together. Vacancies of lower grades up to senior officers generally involve initial appointments and these have to be made through recruitment afresh from outside the organisation. However, a quota system operates for promotion to the level of Officers and Senior Officers from lower level. Usually, 50 per cent of the Officers and Senior Officers are filled through internal promotions and the remaining 50 per cent through fresh recruitment from outside.

#### 2.6. *Promotional interval in public sector banks*

Promotion is a regular process. It should be a planned activity and there should be no phenomenon of promotional 'bunching' in one period and 'drought' in another.<sup>3</sup> According to the existing promotional policy, an incumbent should ordinarily serve his present grade or post for a minimum of 3 years. Generally, the employees consider this minimum period (3 years) as 'normal' and the period over this minimum period (over 3 years) as deliberate 'delay' in promotion. Almost all the respondents of the study indicate their experience of dilatoriness in promotion. Amongst them some experienced long delay and the others a short delay. The respondent employee reported the cause of such delay in promotion due to appropriate vacancies, blockade created by direct recruitment, frequent change in promotional policies, partiality of management, apathy of management, failures in the diploma examinations of banking etc. The following table reflects these views of the respondents.

**Table 6: Respondents' Perception on Reasons for Delay in promotion**

Reasons for delay in promotion	Respondents	Percentage
Lack of vacancies	39	13
Apathy of management	53	18
Partiality of management	14	5
Blockade of created in promotion policies	27	9
Frequent changes in promotion policies	25	8
Little emphasis on higher education	12	4
Failure in banking diploma examination(s)	43	14
Reason not known to the respondents	87	29
Total	300	100

Source: Adapted from Khan (1991:63).



### 2.7. *Direct Recruitment Policy*

All the nationalised banks of Bangladesh have a policy of direct recruitment at the rate of 50 per cent of the total vacancies amongst officers and senior officer. The employees of the banks feel that 100 per cent of the vacancies should be filled-up from internal source by promotion. Promotion from within has several advantages: Firstly, an organisation always has good knowledge of the strengths and weakness of its own employees. But this can not be judged properly in the case of outside recruitment. Secondly, employees' morale and motivation are positively affected by internal promotions. Finally, most organisations have a sizeable investment on their employees. If it use the abilities of its present employees to their fullest extent, that help to improve the organisation's return on its investment.<sup>4</sup> However, certain potential dangers must also be acknowledged before adopting a policy of promotion from within. One danger is that employees tend to be promoted to their level of incompetence. They tend to be continually promoted until they finally reach a level at which they are unable to perform.<sup>5</sup> The second danger involves unbridling of ideas. Probably, keeping in mind of these dangers, management of public sector banks has taken such criteria of promotion. But a majority of the respondents felt the system of direct recruitment as a blocked to the opportunities of existing employees.

On the other hand direct recruitment will enable the management to share with the new ideas and experiences, which is most essential for dynamic management. At the same time, terms and condition of bank service should be made more attractive. From the Malaysian context it appears that lack of managerial and technical manpower occurs due to two reasons: (a) Unavailability of competent manager, (b) The terms and conditions of employment deter them from entering the public enterprise sector. Unfortunately, public sector management is not free to set their own terms and conditions of service. As a result, several high executives of public sector banks were leaving the banks for taking up more lucrative executive positions in other private sector banks. This situation has created a great vacuum in the top management of public sector banks. Despite this situation, no deadlock has occurred at the government or decision-making level. It, rather, created a new opportunity for the remaining executives to reach the higher echelon of the bank before the time they would have reached normally. Quick promotion, however, made them unconscious about the consequence of the bank. As a result, time has ripen for public sector banks to reshuffle their top management for two reasons:

- a) New competition with private sector banks and release of government restrictions led them to a competitive market, which they never experienced after nationalisation.
- b) The absence of executives with dynamism and self-confidence deprived them from grasping the opportunity of entrepreneurship and competition.

## 2.8. *Factors Generally Considered for Promotion*

As stated earlier, there are many factors generally considered for promotion. These are, Annual Confidential Report (ACR), Academic Qualifications, Length of services, Professional Training and Assessment Criteria of Departmental Promotion Committee (DPC).

### 2.8.1. *Annual Confidential Report (ACR)*

One of the most important criteria that are considered for promotion is ACR, which carries 50% marks or points out of 100. Therefore, it is observed that ACR is given the maximum weight in the ranking of candidates eligible for promotion. The ACR is prepared by the immediate superior of the employee concerned and countersigned by the superior at the next higher level. For preparing ACR, three forms are used, one for the staff (Clerical and non-clerical), one for the Junior Officers and the other for the higher level managerial incumbents (starting from officers). All the forms contain items for quantitative and qualitative evaluation of behaviour, performance and potential. The ACR form used for clerical and non-clerical staff is very brief and contains more or less 10 items, e.g., intelligence and mental alertness, initiative and drive, quality and out put of work, performance and devotion to duty, appearance and dress, willingness to co-operate, health and physical fitness, reliability and dependability, punctuality and observance of security measures. Each of these items is evaluated on a five point scale divided as follows: (a) Outstanding: 10 marks, (b) Above average: 7 marks, (c) Average: 5 marks, (d) Below average: 3 marks, and (e) Poor: 1 mark. On the basis of such evaluation, both the reporting officer and the countersigning officer recommend the employee commenting his fitness for promotion.

The ACR form for the Officer and higher Category is quite length and comprehensive which has three major parts. The first part is about evaluation, the second part contains the information about the progress of the branches under the direct control of the officer concerned and the third part contains spaces for recording information on the conduct of the officer in question during strikes, interest and proficiency in using Bengali in day to day works, and evaluation about fitness for promotion. Some items of the first part of the ACR are common with the forms used for clerical and non-clerical staffs. Some of the uncommon items of this part are judgement and sense of proportion, power of expression in writing and speech, ability to plan, organise and supervise work, knowledge about rules and regulations and procedures, capacity to guide and train subordinates, intellectual and moral integrity, sense of responsibility, personality, behavioural dealings with public, contacts with local officers, relations and behaviour with subordinates and colleagues etc. It is observed from the comments of good number of respondents that such heavy marks on ACR can not be justified. They feel that management sometimes resort partiality in preparing ACR. Management experts suggest that it would be better to look towards a relationship of frank discussion between management and employees about review results of evaluation. It is also suggested that if grievance existed or if employee have shortcomings, those could no be reduced or removed



simply by delaying promotion. Sooner or later, those matters must have to be brought for discussion.<sup>6</sup> But the existing practice of public sector banks in this regard is that top security of ACR is maintained and there is no scope of any frank discussion on the issue. In this situation, an employee can not know about his strong or weak points and as such fails to take corrective measures for improving their weak points.

### 2.8.2. *Academic Qualifications and Seniority in service*

Academic qualification are also important while considering for promotion. Under the present procedure an weightage of 4 points or marks are given to Secondary School Certificate (SSC) or equivalent, 5 to Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) or equivalent, 6 to simple Graduates, 7 to Honours Graduates and 8 to the Master Degree. Here a mixed reaction was observed among the employees and executives. Half of the respondents advocated for weightage to the holders of higher degrees and the remaining half felt that the existing marks should be reduced specially in case of higher degrees.

There are maximum of 15 points reserved for length of service considering 3 points for every one year of service. The respondents raised some differences of opinions regarding allocation of such marks for length of service. The direct recruits who had short length of services, but higher qualifications were not given due weightage. The overall re-actions of the respondents on the question of preference of weightage criterion on promotion are presented in table 7.

**Table 7: Percentage of respondents' reactions on preferred basis of promotion**

Preferred basis	Responses (in %)
Qualifications	8
Seniority	9
Both qualification and seniority	67
Qualification to get more weight than seniority	10
Seniority to get more weight to qualification	6
Total	100

Source: Adapted from Khan (199167)

### 2.8.3. *Diploma in Banking*

More than three fourth of the respondents of a study conducted by Khan viewed that failure in Banking Diploma Examination, conducted by the Institute of Bankers, Bangladesh (IBB), should not stand as a bottleneck in the way of promotions. According to the existing promotion policy, the passing of Banking Diploma is a precondition for promotion. Serious allegations were, however, raised against the IBB, and its conducting procedure of the examinations malpractice and bribes were reportedly practiced by the officials of the IBB. The respondents stated that the supervision, and examination of scripts, tabulation and publication of the results are not fair. Free style unfair means, giving passes to reported scripts, leakage of questions papers, interchanges of code numbers of the scripts, linkage with examiners etc. were very common in this examination. It was reported that there were

agents in all the banks and the IBB for doing these immoral business.<sup>7</sup> Such Examination with full of free style unfair means should not be given weightage until measures for honestly conducting of the examination is not ensured.<sup>8</sup>

#### 2.8.4. Professional Training and Evaluation of Board

Under the present promotion policy in banking horizon, training is also considered for promotion. As per existing promotion policies, any special training taken by an employee is given a maximum of 2 marks or points in both commercial and industrial banks. A maximum of 20 marks has been kept at the discretion of the Selection Board. Which is constituted for this purpose. Officers eligible for promotion presently in the rank of Senior Principal Officer (SPO) and above have to appear in an oral examination conducted by a selection board. Employees below the rank of SPO though no required to appear for such viva-voce, get the points basing on an overall review of their personal files.

#### 2.9. Effectiveness of the Present System of Promotion

Only a few respondents thought that the present promotion system had been successful in increasing employees' morale and vast majority of them were not sure whether it had any positive effect on the morale of the employees. This meant that the present system of promotion failed to satisfy reasonably a vast majority of the employees working in public sector banks. Therefore, the existing promotion policy deserves a thorough revision.

#### 2.10. Observed Weaknesses of Present Promotion System

Questions were asked to mention two weaknesses of the existing promotional procedure, which should be rectified and the answers are summarised in table 8.

**Table 8: Percentage showing the weaknesses of the existing promotion procedure**

Elements of weakness	Opinions of different category of employees			Total
	Executives	Employees	Trade Union Leaders	
Nepotism and Favouritism	19.5	14.2	14.3	48.0
Irregular Promotion	29.2	44.4	52.4	126.0
No fixed policy for promotion	15.4	3.4	33.3	52.1
Promotion policy not followed-up	14.5	16.0	-	30.3
No Promotion on seniority basis	11.8	16.1	-	27.9
No post created for promotion	2.1	-	-	2.1
Restriction on Banking Diploma	3.1	2.5	-	5.6
Assessment by board	4.6	3.4	-	8.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	300.0



### **III. Enhancing Effectiveness of the Promotion Policy: Policy Options**

It is evident from the foregoing discussions that there were definite views towards different aspects of the present promotion policies and procedures in public sector banks. In the light of the above discussions some policy options seem to be very relevant for enhancing the effectiveness of the existing promotion policy in public sector banks. These are:

- With some limitations, promotional policies of public sector banks seemed to be fairly reasonable. But one of the main problems with them was about their circulation. The promotion policies and ranking procedures should be widely circulated among the employees.
- The existing ranking procedure followed by public sector banks seemed to be defective for high markings in ACR. Overwhelming majority of the respondents opined this. It is suggested that re-adjustments may be made for the allocation of markings or distribution of points with reduction in ACR, increase in length of service and further diminution in Selection Board.
- It is not practicable in giving promotion to all the employees after the expiry of minimum or reasonable period of time. But management should be sincere enough to explain and communicate these practical problems to the concerned employees through appropriate means to avoid confusion and misunderstandings.
- It is observed that executives and employees of public banks have a lot of misunderstanding about the existing process of preparing and evaluating the ACR. The ACR should be made easily understandable and the reporting authority should be more conscious in its evaluation process.
- Neutrality of the management of public sector banks seemed to have been called in question by overwhelming majority of the executives and employees regarding the existing promotion practices and procedures. These concerned with ascertaining promotional fitness must demonstrate an unquestionable integrity and impartiality through their attitudes and actions.
- It is also observed that the executives and employees have developed a negative attitude towards Diploma Examinations of Banking owing to alleged malpractices at various stages of conducting and controlling these examinations. These allegations should be enquired into and strict measures should be taken to

check all sorts of corruptive practices for making these examinations truly fair and meaningful.

- It is observed during the course of study that many managers unfortunately look at promotion in a negative fashion and attempt to provide as few as possible. Such an attitude neglects all the positive things that happen when employees are satisfied with their promotion. Managers should not look at promotion as a necessary evil but should view it as a tool to help achieve good employee performance.

### III. Conclusion

One of the important factors of motivation is the fair opportunity for promotion and advancement. People have to be attracted to join the organisation and to remain with it. If an organisation is to be successful, it must be able first of all to induce people to join and then try to retain them. People may join initially in an organisation when he is unemployed without thinking of better opportunities and prospects in it. After joining the job, they will naturally search for better prospect. Without better opportunities for promotion, people will not be happy in their organisation. Normally an organisation will require employees who can perform duties at more than expected speeds. If the firm want to overcome environmental situation, it must attract employees of initiative and drive and assign them tasks with sufficient independence so as to perform those with innovative and creative approaches. Thus as opportunity could be created for promotion and advancement.

Hence public sector banks should follow a clearly stated promotion policy so as to make the jobs of the bank attractive. Bank management should follow that policy blindly at the time of implementation. However, there should have the scope for improvement in the policy wherever necessary. But new policy of promotion during every promotion season should be avoided. It is observed that the vital cause of dissatisfaction of the employees of almost all level is the non-compliance of a stated pre-determined promotion policy. This situation disheartened the employees and frustrate their working spontaneously. Hence, the promotion policy should be clear-cut and open to all the employees of all level so that all the employees can pay their utmost efforts to prove eligibility which will remove all doubts and discontents and ultimately help good performance.

In fine, a conclusion may be drawn that neither legislation nor the structural change in the management of public sector banks can by themselves be sufficient to achieve the objectives envisaged in the policy change. What is important and needed is a change in outlook on the part of the authorities and also a readiness by them to learn new techniques and new methods or procedures so that targeted objectives are achieved with little inconvenience. Public sector banks should have a stable promotion policy. It is observed that bank management does not follow any straight or stated promotion policy. Here lies many scopes for adopting unfair means in promotion. Nepotism, favouritism and corruption take place in the promotion



process. All this has created negative attitude among the employees. The easy solution in this case is to maintain a permanently declared promotion policy where the promotion criteria will be straight and every employee will know about the criteria. This will help the employees to work with initiative and enthusiasm for building-up a better career.

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## LANGUAGE BASED NATIONALISM AND BIRTH OF BANGLADESH

Md. Nazrul Islam Mian\*

**Abstract:** Pakistan was created on the basis of Muslim nationalism. Pakistan had two wings – East and West Pakistan. The Eastern part had larger population and Bengali was their mother tongue. The then government arbitrarily strived to impose Urdu as the only State language of Pakistan. This antagonised the Bengalis severely. Consequently, they resorted to constitutional means to get their mother tongue recognised and eventually Bengali was recognised as one of the two State languages. However, socio-economic and political domination over the Bengalis compelled the Awami League – the sole spokesman of the Bengalis to adopt the 6-point programme. This 6-point struck at the root of the Pakistani rulers. The 1970 election disowned the Pakistani ruling elite. Subsequently, some painful events led to the creation of Bangladesh. The article is directed towards the creation of Bangladesh in the light of linguistic nationalism along with other related factors.

### Introduction

Pakistan was created on the basis of Muslim nationalism under the leadership of the Muslim League. The Muslim League leadership had always been in the hands of the non Bengalis. The Bengal Muslim League leaders accepted the Pakistan scheme with great reluctance. Because, despite their opposition the original Lahore Resolution that had contained a provision of a separate homeland for the people of Bengal and Assam was nullified in 1946. Again, at the eleventh hour of the Partition of British India, an attempt was made by some of the progressive Bengali leaders like H.S. Suhrawardy, Abul Hashim, Sarat Bose, etc. for the establishment of the independent Bengal. But this effort was also foiled owing to the reactionary policy of the Muslim League and the Congress. However, after Partition, the Bengalis expected that in Pakistan they would get their due share in power, services and recourses. But it was proved illusory owing to the exploitative and suppressive policy of the incumbent Muslim League government.

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Immediately after partition in 1947 the Bengalis had to face a serious communication problem with government officials for public activities because of the use of English and Urdu as official languages. Moreover, most of the government officials were non-Bengalis. Naturally, a fear arose among the East Bengal leaders, intelligentsia and students that if this state of affairs continued to exist, they would lose their identity inspite of being majority. This apprehension was further aggravated by public declarations made by the ruling elite for making Urdu as the only state language of Pakistan. So the East Bengal intellectuals like Prof. Abul Quasem, Prof. Motahar Hossain, etc. of Dhaka University; political leaders H.S. Suhrawardy, Maulana Bhashani, etc and student leaders Sheikh Mujibur Rahman (Then a student of Dhaka University), Md. Toaha and others articulated through different forums and organisations for the recognition of Bengali as one of the state languages with a view to ascertaining their own national identity. The state language issue was settled down in exchange of blood in the fifties. But the economic and service disparity between two wings of Pakistan and the political domination over the Bengalis that had begun following the partition went on increasingly which turned into autonomy movement (6-point movement) in the sixties and at the end culminated into nationalist movement while the Bengalis were denied to enjoy the fruit of 1970 elections. And out of this nationalist movement, the state of Bangladesh emerged in 1971.

The article is an attempt to briefly analyse as to how and in what way the demand for the recognition of Bengali as one of the state languages ultimately disintegrated Pakistan just like as the demand of the Muslim league for separate electorates had led to the partition of British India in 1947.<sup>1</sup> This study has been accomplished on the basis of secondary data derived mainly from the survey of books, journals and news papers.

### **Genesis of Linguistic Nationalism**

Language is the medium of communication and interaction among human beings. It is one of the fundamental rights. It is one of the elements of nationalism too. Pakistan was created with a pledge to safeguard and materialise the legitimate rights and interests of the Pakistanis. The famous Lahore Resolution on which Pakistan was established had contained that adequate, effective and mandatory safeguards should be specially provided in the constitutions for the protection of religious, cultural economic, political, administrative and other rights and interests.<sup>2</sup> Pakistan was a multi-linguistic state. Usually, in a multi-linguistic democratic state, regional languages are constitutionally encouraged to exist and one or two languages are recognised as state languages. For example, Article 343 of the Indian Constitution lays down that Hindi would be the state language of India and English would continue to be used as government language for 15 years following the commencement of the constitution.<sup>3</sup> Articles 345-347 further state that whatever may be the state language, the state legislature can determine the question of Provincial official language<sup>4</sup>. The official language Act of 1967 provides that Hindi

would be the state language and English as subsidiary language<sup>5</sup>. The Act also stipulates that the regional governments would determine their own official languages but in case of correspondence with the central government, provincial official papers are translated into Hindi and English. Even in a non democratic multilingualistic state linguistic diversity is constitutionally protected. For example, Article 4 of the constitution of the People's Republic of China stipulates that the state would help the cultural development of all nationalities. It further says that the nationalities are entitled to retain and develop their own spoken and written languages in their own ways and customs<sup>6</sup>.

But the case in Pakistan was totally reverse. In Pakistan East Bengal had 56% of the population of Pakistan<sup>7</sup>. Bengali language was spoken by 56.40% of the people while Urdu was the mother tongue of only 3.37%. Naturally, it was expected that Bengali would be recognised as one of the state languages. But unfortunately, the Bengalis had to have it in exchange of blood.

Table 1

Language	East Pakistan		West Pakistan		Pakistan	
	1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961
Bengali	98.16	98.42	0.02	0.11	56.40	55.48
Panjabi	0.20	0.20	67.08	66.39	28.55	29.02
Pushtu	-	0.01	8.16	8.47	3.48	3.70
Sindhi	0.01	0.01	12.85	12.59	5.47	5.51
Urdu	0.64	0.61	7.05	7.57	3.37	3.65
English	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.02
Baluchi	-	-	3.04	2.49	1.29	1.09

Adapted from Moudud Ahmed, *Bangladesh: Constitutional Quest for Autonomy*, (Dhaka, 1979) p.12.

Before partition, English and Urdu were used as official languages. These two languages were almost foreign to the Bengalis. Consequently, in the early days of Pakistan, the Bengalis had to face severe communication problem with government officials for public activities because of the use of English and Urdu in official correspondences. Moreover, most of the officials were non-Bengalis (West Pakistanis). So a strong sense of fear arose among the Bengalis that the non-Bengali officials would not learn the local language of East Bengal rather they expected the Bengalis to learn Urdu or English. Not only that all government documents including the postcard, money order form, and the like were inscribed in English and Urdu. Nowhere Bengali was found on any government document<sup>8</sup>. Naturally, an awareness developed among the Bengalis that if only English and Urdu were allowed to continue as a means of official transaction, they would be subservient and lose their national identity.



Meanwhile, it was apprehended that Urdu was going to be the state language of Pakistan. And the Muslim league incumbent government very tactfully through eminent scholars and holding conferences started mobilising opinion in its favour even before the actual partition took place on August 14, 1947. For example, Dr Ziauddin Ahmed, the Vice Chancellor of Aligarh University proposed in July, 1947 to make Urdu the State language of Pakistan<sup>9</sup>. But Dr. Muhammad Shahidullah, scholar linguist, vehemently repudiated it arguing that Urdu was not the mothertongue of any region of Pakistan. He advocated for Bengali and very dimly for Urdu<sup>10</sup>. However, the National Educational Conference held in Karachi in the first week of December, 1947 recommended Urdu to the Constituent Assembly for recognition as the 'Lingua Franca' of Pakistan<sup>11</sup>. By preparing the preliminary ground the ruling elite started official effort to attain the goal. Thus, the Committee on the Rules and Procedures of the Business of the Constituent Assembly on December 17, 1947 recommended that Urdu and English would be used as official languages<sup>12</sup>. All these events led the Bengalis to realise that their apprehension was correct. So they began to articulate that Bengali be recognised as one of the state languages. It would be worthy to mention here that the Gano Azadi League took its birth in July 1947 with Kamruddin Ahmed as its convenor following the declaration of Maunbatten plan of June 3, 1947 with a programme of action for the nascent state of Pakistan. It was stated in its programme, political independence is meaningless without economic freedom. For the realisation of socio-cultural development, economic emancipation is inevitable<sup>13</sup>. This was probably the first assertion for protecting the identity of the Bengalis in the new State of Pakistan. Though the language question was dormant, yet it was implicit in the cultural aspect of the programme. It would be more worthy to recall that the language question originated in the threshold of Pakistan. Abul Hashim, the then secretary of the Bengal Muslim League prepared a draft manifesto for placing to the Bengal Muslim League council in 1946 that contained Bengali is the mother tongue, to be used as medium of instruction and be the state language of East Bengal<sup>14</sup>. Therefore, the idea of preserving linguistic identity had originated before partition and was accelerated due to the irrational policies of the ruling elite. It would be more appropriate to mention here that the Bengalis alongwith the spirit of preserving the cultural identity had wanted to protect their socio-economic, political and other rights in the context of the Lahore Resolution. It was reflected in their attempt to establish a sovereign Bengal<sup>15</sup>. Under the leadership of H. S. Suhrawardy, (Chief Minister of Bengal: March 1946-1947) Abul Hashim (Secretary of the Bengal Muslim League) and Sarat Bose (Congress leader). They possibly contemplated this plan because of the hostile and dominating attitude of the non-Bengali Muslim League leaders that had embittered the Bengal Muslim League leaders in April 1946 when the Lahore Resolution was modified in the face of strong opposition of Bengal Muslim League leaders<sup>16</sup>.

However, activeness of the ruling elite to arbitrarily impose Urdu as the only state language as a strategy of domination and exploitation expedited the growth of the Tamuddun Majlis on September 2, 1947 under the enterprise of some teachers

(Prof. Qazi Motahar Hassain, Department of Statistics, Prof. Abul Quasem, Department of Physics, etc) and students of Dhaka University<sup>17</sup>. This Tamuddun Majlis played a very significant role in repelling the unwitty policy of the government. A booklet entitled 'The State Language'; Whether Bengali or Urdu?' was circulated among the educated segments of the society. In that booklet Prof. Abul Quasem by his writings proposed that Bengali would be used as medium of instruction as well as official and court-language in East Pakistan. In the Lahore Resolution, each unit was allowed to enjoy sovereign and autonomous entity. So each unit would determine their respective regional language, he opined<sup>18</sup>. Qazi Motahar Hossain in the same booklet warned that the people would not tolerate exploitation of the ruling elite any more in new state. If Urdu was imposed by force as the state language on the Bengalis at the present moment be foiled. Because the long drawn discontent could not be contained. There was a great fear of the end of East West relations, if the ruling elite fails to take rational decision in matters of state language, he claimed<sup>19</sup>.

Abul Monsur Ahmed in his article entitled "The National Language of Pakistan-whether Bengali or Urdu?" [in Bengali] stated that if Urdu was made the state language of Pakistan, the Bengalis would turn into illiterate overnight and be disqualified for any job as happened when the British's replaced Persian language by English in mid 19th century India<sup>20</sup>. Mr. Shamsul Haq, the secretary of the East Pakistan Democratic Jubo League (Originated on September 7, 1947 with a promise to build an enlightened Democratic Polity in Pakistan<sup>21</sup>) said, "Bengali shall be used as medium of instruction as well as the official language of East Pakistan. And as to the national language, the verdict of the people will be final<sup>22</sup>". If construed, the above writings and proposals, perhaps one be convinced that the Bengalis not only did articulate recognition of Bengali as one of the state languages but simultaneously warned that if they were being deprived of their due share in every sphere of state life, living together with would be difficult. So it forecast the emergence of language based state.

The Indian Independence Act of 1947 stipulated that Pakistan would have a Constituent Assembly for framing a constitution for Pakistan. It was also provided that till the formation of a new constitution, it would act as the law-making body also. The first session of the Constituent Assembly was held in Karachi on February 23, 1948<sup>23</sup>. It was declared in this session that Urdu and 'English' would be used in the conduct of the business of the House. Mr. Dharendra Nath Dutta (Member of the Constituent Assembly) from East Bengal proposed to use Bengali along with Urdu and English as official languages<sup>24</sup>. In reply, Liaquat Ali Khan, the Prime Minister of Pakistan, said, "Pakistan is a Muslim state. Urdu is the language of the Muslim and this Muslim Language would be the state language of Pakistan<sup>25</sup>". Rejection of the proposal of Dharendra Nath Dutta in the House generated a great repercussion in East Bengal. It shocked the intellectual and students severely. Because before beginning the session the State Language Action Committee led by Prof. Nurul Huq Bhuiyan gave a memorandum to Mr. Fazlur Rahman, the Education Minister of



Pakistan on February 1, 1948 for consideration and necessary action<sup>26</sup>. So as a mark of protest, the students observed strike on February 26, 1948<sup>27</sup>. And on March 2, 1948 an All Party State Language Action committee was formed with Shamsul Huq as convener<sup>28</sup>. This Action Committee called for *Hartal* on March 11, 1948 across East Bengal that paralysed the normal life of the country.

Meanwhile the first session of the East Bengal Legislative Assembly was convened on March 15, 1948. The Action Committee again called for *Hartal* on that day<sup>29</sup>. By this time Mr. Mohammad Ali Jinnah's (the Governor General of Pakistan) visit to East Pakistan was announced that would start from March 19, 1948<sup>30</sup>. Khwaja Nazimuddin, Chief Minister of East Bengal was under heavy pressure of the students on question of state language. In this circumstances, Chief Minister Khwaja Nazimuddin was compelled to make a 8 point accord with the Action Committee on March 15, 1948<sup>31</sup> for keeping peaceful political atmosphere perhaps both for holding the legislative session and visit of the Governor General. In view of the agreement, a resolution was adopted in East Bengal Legislative Assembly on April 6, 1948 urging the centre to recognise Bengali as one of the state languages<sup>32</sup>.

As per schedule, Mr. Mohammad Ali Jinnah, the first Governor General of Pakistan came to East Bengal on March 19, 1948. He, on March 21, 1948 at his reception meeting<sup>33</sup> at Race Course resorted to the weapon of Islam possibly to soothe the commotion of the Bengalis on language question. He said, *"Do we forget the teachings of 1400 years ago? I am an outsider like you. Who are the originals? Those living here are not the Bengalis too. As such it is absurd to talk about the Bengalis or Sindhi or Pathan or Panjabi. In fact, we all are Muslims"*<sup>34</sup>. Thus, he perhaps with ill-motive of domination of the Bengalis identified Muslim with Islam and thereby strived to cripple the Bengali identity. It was reflected in the denouncement of the agreement between the Action Committee and Khwaja Nazimuddin. Jinnah said, *"No citizen of Pakistan has right to claim any language as state language other than Urdu"*<sup>35</sup>. One who claims it is undoubtedly the state-enemy, Indian pet-spy and as such incapable of being a citizen. So it is the responsibility of the state to control him with iron hand<sup>36</sup>. He said, *"The state language of Pakistan is going to be Urdu and no other language. Anyone who tries to mislead you is really the enemy of Pakistan, without one state language, no nation can remain tied up solidly together and function"*<sup>37</sup>. He further made the same utterance at the Dhaka University convocation on March 24, 1948. The students present shouted 'No, No', Despite shouting, he again said, *"It is upto the parents to give language to their children"*<sup>38</sup>. These authoritative public speeches of the Governor General threw the Bengalis in great despair. During Jinnah's Governor Generalship, there was none to oppose him in Pakistan. He was the supreme arbitrator in Pakistan and in fact, he was Pakistan<sup>39</sup>.

The Basic Principles Committee under Prime Minister Liaquat Ali Khan in its interim report of September 17, 1950 proposed, Urdu as the state language of Pakistan. This report created a great storm of discontent across East Bengal<sup>40</sup>. In the House, Liaquat Ali Khan faced a strong criticism and opposition of the Bengali

leaders. Against this backdrop, he postponed the discussion of the report in the House and invited suggestions<sup>41</sup>. However, these anti-Bengali attitudes and policies of the ruling elite paved the way for the growth of opposition forces in East Bengal. The East Bengal students league took its birth on January 4, 1948 with Sheikh Mujibur Rahman as organising secretary. It launched movement for the recognition of Bengali as one of the state languages of Pakistan<sup>42</sup>. The East Bengal Muslim Awami League was formed on June 23, 1949 with Maulana Bhashani as the President and Sheikh Mujibur Rahman as one of the two joint Secretaries. It resurrected the Lahore Resolution of 1940. It issued 42 point Programme including the demand for the recognition of Bengali as one of the state language. It further asserted that the unity of Pakistan could be achieved not by talking about Islam but by giving East Bengal her due share in power, resources and surrices<sup>43</sup>. The Youth League and the East Bengal Students Union came into existence in 1951 and 1952 respectively. And by 1953 A.K. Fazlul Huq revived his Krishak Proja Party with the demand for provincial autonomy of East Bengal on the basis of the Lahore Resolution.

In October, 1950 First Report of the Basic Principles Committee was published under Prime Minister Liaquat Ali Khan. It proposed Urdu, as the only State Language of Pakistan. This report intensified the reaction of the Bengalis. Soon a grand national convention was organised by the Committee of Action For Democratic Federation on November 4, 1950 to withstand this irrational move of the government<sup>44</sup>. Presided over by Ataur Rahman Khan, the convention turning down the report proposed a draft constitution based on the Lahore Resolution with a provision of 'Bengali' and Urdu as state languages of Pakistan<sup>45</sup>. Meanwhile, the Government Language Committee submitted its report on December 7, 1950 recommending Urdu as the second language to be taught at all educational institutions in East Bengal<sup>46</sup>. It antagonised the Bengalis further. With the assassination of Liaquat Ali Khan, Khwaja Nazimuddin became the Prime Minister of Pakistan. After being Prime Minister, Khwaja Nazimuddin changed his stand on language issue. He, in a public meeting in Dhaka on January 26, 1952 declared that 'Urdu' would be state language of Pakistan violating the accord made with the students on March 15, 1948 during his Chief Ministership in East Bengal<sup>47</sup>. In protest, the students observed strike in all educational institutions in Dhaka on January 30, 1952 and formed All Party Action Committee to strengthen the movement. Accordingly, February 21, 1952 was declared as 'Strike Day' throughout East Bengal. From government side section-144 of the Cr.P.C was imposed<sup>48</sup>. The students brought out processions and demonstrations with the slogan that Bengali be recognised as one of the state languages ignoring the government order. Consequently, police opened fire that took the lives of Rafiq, Barkat, Jabbar, and others. This tragic episode consolidated the sense of Bengali Nationalism.

The Second Report of the Basic Principles Committee submitted to the Constituent Assembly on December 22, 1952 under the leadership of Prime Minister



Khwaja Nazimuddin was silent on question of state language. This created suspicion and hostile attitude among the Bengalis again.

The Third Report of the Basic Principles Committee commonly known as Mohammad Ali Formula accepted by the constituent Assembly on September 21, 1954 enunciated that the official language of the Republic should be Urdu and 'Bengali' and such other languages as may be declared to be such by the Head of the state on the recommendation of the provincial legislature<sup>49</sup>. In the mean time, the Constituent Assembly strived to curtail the vast power the Governor General enjoyed under the Indian Independence Act, 1947. In retaliation the Constituent Assembly was dissolved by the Governor General in October, 1954.

However, election to the Legislative Assembly of East Bengal was held in March 1954 for the first time after partition. In this election the United Front comprising the Awami League, the Krishak Sromik Party, the Nizam-i-Islam and the Ganatantridol issued 21-point election manifesto. Of the 21-point programme, the demand for Bengali as one of the state languages and provincial autonomy based on the Lahore Resolution were very significant<sup>50</sup>. On the other hand, the incumbent Muslim League government under Chief Minister Nurul Amin emphasised on Islamic solidarity and warned the Bengalis that the United Front, if voted to power, would not only destroy Islam but also sell out the country to India<sup>51</sup>. Nurul Amin argued "The Muslim League is alone the saviour of the Mussalmans. If the Muslim League is destroyed, Pakistan and Mussalman will also be destroyed"<sup>52</sup>. In this election, the United Front routed the Muslim League from East Bengal securing 223 out of 237 Muslim seats and the Muslim League got only 9 seats in the House of 309<sup>53</sup>. This victory made the ruling elite severely nervous because of its loss of monopoly in East Bengal Politics. So on the alibi of failure of preserving law and order situation in the Adamjee Jute Mill and Karnafully Paper Mill areas (Where riot took place between Bengalis and non Bengalis) A.K. Fazlul Huq government was dismissed on May 29, 1954 only after its two months in office by the central government.

From October, 1954 to April, 1955 Pakistan had no legislative body. A sort of legal chaos was prevalent in Pakistan during this period. Ordinances were the only mechanisms for running state affairs. Governor General Golam Mohammad at one time attempted to make a constitution for Pakistan by ordinance. But he was resisted by the Federal Court. The court said "The Governor General has no power to make Constitutional provisions"<sup>54</sup>. However, as per the directive of the Federal court the Governor General constituted the Second Constituent Assembly in May 1955. This Assembly had eighty members divided equally between East Bengal and West Pakistan. From East Bengal the ruling Muslim League had only one member in this body. Meanwhile H.S. Suhrawardy as Pragmatic Politician after joining the Cabinet of talents" under Mohammad Ali of Bogra on December 20, 1954. as the Law Minister accepted the parity principle in the representation of the provinces in the central legislature (The National Assembly). H. S. Suhrawardy, it was argued, since then began to engage in nation building consensus and became less concerned about East Bengal. It was manifested in his approach to the then politics. He said,

"Democracy means an agreement between the people and friendship and co-operation. It also refers to the policy of give and take<sup>55</sup>."

The Second Constituent Assembly met at Muree on June 7, 1955 and the leaders of all parties reached an agreement on question of state language. Thus, the Muree Pact stipulated that Urdu and 'Bengali' would be the state languages of Pakistan<sup>56</sup>. Aside from the language settlement, the ruling elite very tactfully changed the age-old name of East Bengal into East Pakistan perhaps for eradicating the national identity despite opposition of the Bengali leaders. When the proposal for renaming of East Bengal came up before the Constituent Assembly in August 1955, Sheikh Mujibur (Member of the Constituent Assembly) Rahman vehemently objected it. He argued, "They (ruling elite) want to name East Pakistan in lieu of East Bengal. We have demanded time and again for keeping the name of this part of Pakistan as Bengal. Bengal has its history, tradition and culture, etc. You can't do this without people's mandate. If you really want it, I will have to go back to East Bengal for asking them whether they want this change of name or not"<sup>57</sup>. But the ruling elite was restive. So, in protest the Awami League members of the Constituent Assembly did not sign the constitution<sup>58</sup>.

However, the constitution of 1956 passed on February 29, 1956 and put into operation on March 23, 1956 recognised Bengali as one of the state languages. Article 214 lays down that the state language shall be Urdu and *Bengali* provided that for the period of 20 years from the Constitution Day (March 23, 1956) English shall continue to be used for all official purposes for which it was used in Pakistan immediately before the Constitution Day<sup>59</sup>.

Although the language issue was resolved constitutionally in the fifties, yet overt and covert efforts were on to crush the cultural identity of the Bengalis till the last days of Pakistan. These were reflected in the speeches and activities of the ruling elite. Mr. Shahabuddin, the Information Minister of Pakistan said, "Rabindra Sangeet is an anti Islamic song, it is also against the tradition of Pakistan. Hence it will not be broadcast over radio and television"<sup>60</sup>. Accordingly, Tagore Songs which have universal appeal were banned from radio stations in East Pakistan on June 23, 1967<sup>61</sup>. Mr Hamidur Rahman, justice of the Supreme Court of Pakistan at a discussion meeting on the occasion of the observance of the Independence Day on August 14, 1967 proposed for the introduction of Arabic alphabets both for Bengali and Urdu. It would bring about national solidarity and national integration. "Arabic is the only language that can easily be used in Bengali" he opined further<sup>62</sup>. As per the Islamisation policy of the ruling elite, the Bangla Academy was entrusted with the task of replacing Sanskritic influences over Bengali language and literature by Arabic and Roman words for Bengali. For example, it translated some works of Imam Gazzali, Ibn Khaldun and Islamic theology. Mr. Sabur Khan a veteran member of the ruling elite from East Pakistan depicted that the *Pahela Baishak* is a Hindu festival and urged the people not to observe it<sup>63</sup>. Even Abdul Monaem Khan the Governor of East Pakistan under Ayub regime declared that Bengali is a non-Muslim language and bogey of cultural domination by Calcutta. He further said, "We can no



longer tolerate any infiltration of alien culture either in text books or works of literature<sup>64</sup>." Accordingly, importation of books and films from India was also banned. By this way the ruling elite strived to destroy the linguistic and cultural heritage of the Bengalis till the disintegration of Pakistan.

### **The Ayub Regime and the 6-point Movement**

Along with the linguistic and cultural domination, unequal share between East and West Pakistan in resources and services that had started in the early years of Pakistan went on growing in large volume owing to the parochial policies of the ruling elite. In 1949-50 per capita income in East Bengal was Rs. 228 while Rs 373 in West Pakistan<sup>65</sup>. During 1947-48 to 1954 the central government spent Rs 42 crore and 66 lakh in East Bengal while 780 crore and 67 lakh in West Pakistan<sup>66</sup>. Similarly 39 crores and 12 lakhs of rupees of foreign aid received during the same period East Bengal's share was only 3 crore and 37 lakh and the rest went to West Pakistan. This state of affairs created a sense of deprivation among the Bengalis. It was echoed in Begum Shaista Ikramulla's statement in the Constituent Assembly in February, 1948 "A feeling is growing among the East Pakistanis that Eastern Pakistan is being neglected and treated merely as a colony of Western Pakistan<sup>67</sup>. The Bengalis accepted the 1956 constitution in the hope of getting just share in all spheres of state privileges. Perhaps, to meet these grievances of the East Bengalis, Articles 29, 31 and 118 were inserted in the constitution of 1956<sup>68</sup>. But the constitution was not put into operation in actual practice. It was abrogated in October, 1958 in the interest of the ruling elite and thereby to deprive the East Bengalis of their legitimate rights and interests.

Frustration of the Bengalis was further intensified with the imposition of authoritarian constitution of 1962 by President Ayub. The system of government envisaged was so centralised that it was termed as Constitutional Autocracy by K.B. Sayeed. Ayub constantly said, "an emerging country needs stability and a firm government for its economic and social development. It was in fact, a government 'of the President, by the President and for the President'. Of course, there was a facade legislature called the National Assembly. The unique electoral system consisting of 80,000 Basic Democrats (Local Councilors) was intended to perpetuate the policy of domination over the Bengalis. In this circumstances, a number of students studying in London formed a committee for restoring democracy in Pakistan. This committee by the end of 1962 through the publication of a leaflet entitled "The Unhappy East Pakistan" highlighted the grievances of the East Bengalis and thereby mobilised opinion<sup>69</sup>.

The disparity that had started in the early fifties between the two wings in different spheres reached the climax during the Ayub regime. From 1947-58 there were 4 Governors General/President of whom only one was from East Bengal. of the 7 Prime Ministers during the same period only 3 were East Bengalis. Under the constitutional dictatorship of Ayub Khan some East Pakistanis recruited to the ruling

class were disgruntled in East Pakistan. During 1964-65 the disparity in per capita income between East and West Pakistan was 46% while in 1969-70 it reached 60%<sup>70</sup>. Foreign trade balances from 1948-67 show that East Bengal's cumulative surplus amounted to 4,878 million rupees, yet during this period East Pakistan had a deficit trade balances of 5,712 million rupees with west Pakistan<sup>71</sup>. In the field of services, East Pakistan's share was hopelessly frustrating. In fact, East Pakistan turned into a colony of West Pakistan.

The sense of deprivation and exploitation was further deepened during the Indo-Park war in September 1965, when East Pakistan was totally cut off from west Pakistan and People of East Bengal felt completely helpless. In fact East Pakistanis were left to the mercy of India during the war. Immediately after the cessation of war. Sheikh Mujib, the Awami League Chief at a press conference stated that time has come for making East Pakistan self sufficient in all respects<sup>72</sup>. Capitalising the situation the Awami League started autonomy movement that turned into nationalist movement in the late sixties. With this end in view, Sheikh Mujib submitted the historic 6-point programme under the sub-title "Our Right To Live" at a conference of the opposition parties in Lahore on February 6, 1966 for the emancipation of the Bangalis<sup>73</sup>. The opposition parties did not accept the 6-point. Sheikh Mujib on February 10, 1966 at a press conference in Lahore explained the objectives of the 6-point<sup>74</sup>.

The 6-point was in essence a demand for economic independence of East Pakistan within a semi-federal structure. This programme received tremendous mass support in East Pakistan because in it they found their salvation. But the regime branded the 6-point as a secessionist move. President Ayub in a meeting of his Pakistan Muslim League Party in Dhaka in March 1966, warned, if necessary he would use the language of weapon against the disruptionist elements who would talk of 6-point. On March 16, 1966 he further said, "the 6-point of the opposition is aimed at achievement of their dream of greater sovereign Bengal which will spell disaster for the country and turn East-Pakistanis into slaves. This 6-point programme was a great challenge to the Ayub regime. So the regime took repressive measures against the advocates and activists of the programme. Sheikh Mujib was arrested on May 9, 1966 under section-32 of the Defence of Pakistan Rules for quelling the autonomy movement. The *Ittefaq*, the mouthpiece of the Awami League was also banned. On January 19, 1968 the Agartala Conspiracy case was instituted against Sheikh Mujib and 34 other high Bengali civil and military officers for alleged conspiracy to bring about secession of East Pakistan with Indian assistance. In fact, this case and other repressive measures were intended to crush the autonomy movement in East Pakistan and thereby to perpetuate the reign of the west Pakistan colonialists. In the absence of Sheikh Mujib (Symbol of Bengali Nationalism) the 6-point movement no doubt lost its momentum to some extent for the time being. But the students as the 'watch dog' over the repressive actions and policies of the regime took the lead of the 6-point movement. Accordingly, on January 4, 1969 the Students League and two groups of Students Union formed an All Party Students' Action Committee with Tofael Ahmed



(the then V.P. of Dhaka University) as its President. This committee declared on January 5, 1969 the historic repressive actions and policies of the regime took the lead of the 6-point movement. Accordingly, on January 4, 1969 the Students League and two groups of Students Union formed an All Party Students' Action Committee with Tofael Ahmed 11- point programme and launched anti-Ayub movement. Since this 11-point was identical with the 6-point programme, therefore, it gained tremendous support all over East Pakistan. The Action Committee held demonstration on January 20, 1969 defying 144 of the -Cr. P.C. a demonstrator named Asad was killed by police firing that created a storm of agitation among the students. As a result, the 'Mass Upsurge Day' was observed on January 24, 1969. Consequently, the Agartala Conspiracy case was revoked. Sheikh Mujib and all political prisoners were set free on February 22, 1969. Against the backdrop of mass upheaval Ayub Khan was forced to step-down by handing over power to General Yahya Khan on March 24, 1969.

### **Election of 1970 and General Yahya's betrayal role**

On assuming power, General Yahya Khan took steps for restoring democracy. Accordingly, he lifted all sorts of restrictions on politics and promulgated Legal Frame Work Order on March 30, 1970 for holding a general election. The LFO contained that there would be a 313-member National Assembly for making a constitution. Out of 313, 300 members would be directly elected and the rest reserved for women to be filled in indirectly. Both kinds of seats be allocated on population basis. The LFO was not consistent with 6-point. But its provision of simple majority in the National Assembly for making the constitution afforded an opportunity for the Awami League. So Sheikh Mujib accepted it, perhaps for legitimising himself and his Party as the sole spokesman of the Bengalis for the cause of autonomy through electoral process.

However, election was held in December, 1970. In the electoral address to the nation over Radio and Television Sheikh Mujib declared that the Awami League was committed to establish real democracy. He warned that any conspiracy to dislodge democracy would lead to destruction. In this Election The Awami League obtained 160 out of 162 seats in the National Assembly allocated to East Pakistan securing 75.11% of the votes cast<sup>75</sup>. In the East Pakistan Provincial Assembly the Awami League, bagged 288 seats in the 300-member House. This landslide victory made Sheikh Mujib as the 'Messiah' of the Bengalis.

Table 2

## Party Position in the National Assembly election (1970) in Pakistan

Party	General Seats		Seats reserved of women	Seats for the Tribal Areas	Total
	E.P	W.P			
The Awami League	160		7	-	167
Peoples Party		83	5	-	88
Muslim League (Quayyum)		9		-	9
Muslim League (Council)		7		-	7
NAP(Wali)		6	1	-	7
Muslim League (Convention)		2		-	2
Jamaat-e-Islam		4		-	4
Jamaat-e-Ulema-e-Pakistan		7		-	7
Jamaat-e-Ulema-e-Islami		7		-	7
P.D.P.	1	-		-	1
Independent	1	6		7	14
Total					313

Source: Md. Mozzammel Huq, *Bangladesher Shasan Byabastha o Rajniti, (1757-1990)*, (Dhaka: Hasan Book House, 1991), p. 246.

This decisive victory struck at the very roots of power and privileges of the vested interests of Pakistan. Some high army officials were shocked and one corps commander termed the results a disaster. Meanwhile on January 3, 1971 at a mammoth gathering at the Race Course Maidan Sheikh Mujib administered the oath to the people's representatives.

"The future constitution of the country would be framed on the basis of 6- point and 11-point. A referendum was held on these programmes. These are no more my party's programmes. The Awami League can not amend it now. None would be able to stop us in framing the constitution on the basis of the 6- point programme"<sup>76</sup>. This oath-taking by Sheikh Mujib frightened the ruling elite in regard to national integrity.

Why was the 6-point a threat to the ruling elite? The answer is simple. It is argued that the 6-point, if implemented would turn Pakistan into a confederal polity which would be against the integrity of Pakistan. However, during January 1971 nationalist fervour began to be accentuated in East Pakistan. Bhashani in a public meeting in Dhaka said that the victory of the Awami League was not the success of the Awami League as the single majority party but the victory of Bengali nationalism. He regarded the Awami League victory as the people's verdict for a separate East Pakistan and threatened to start mass movement, if the Awami League



realised from it<sup>77</sup>. These Political events in East Pakistan possibly shocked the president of Pakistan. So, Sheikh Mujib was invited to Rawalpindi by Yahya Khan following his oath-taking ceremony, but the former declined. Yahya himself visited East Pakistan on January 12, 1971 and held talks with Sheikh Mujib. At one stage of the meeting, Yahya asked, "Sheikh Shahib, what is this you have done at the Race Course on January 3, 1971?" Mujib replied that it was his bargaining point and he would not secede from Pakistan. Yahya Khan advised Sheikh Mujib to take the co-operation of the majority party in West Pakistan in framing the constitution. Sheikh responded positively and urged Yahya to convene the National Assembly on February 15, at the latest. However, before leaving Dhaka, President Yahya congratulated Sheikh Mujib as the future Prime Minister of Pakistan on January 14, 1971<sup>78</sup>. Then, a people's party's delegation met Sheikh Mujib in Dhaka on January 27, 1971 and urged to modify the 6- point because in their opinion there was an apprehension in West Pakistan that the 6-point would split Pakistan. Mujib was requested to be reasonable on question of 6-point, but he remained silent.

In the meantime, delay in holding the session of the National Assembly generated an impression in East Pakistan that power might not be transferred. Bhutto, backed by some army generals, perhaps feared of retaliation that might be taken by the Bengalis under the leadership of the Awami League. It was echoed in his discussion with President Yahya on February 11, 1971. He said that the Awami League sought to impose constitutional obligations of intolerable financial burdens on the West Pakistan provinces to compensate East Pakistan for past inequalities. President Yahya who had already clung to the conspiracy with Bhutto after Larkana meeting responded quickly and postponed on March 1, 1971 the National Assembly session scheduled on March 3, 1971. *sine die*.

On this day Sheikh Mujib called for non-cooperation and non violent movement and urged all segments of the people to observe it till the realisation of the demands of the people. In fact, with this call, Yahya regime in East Pakistan collapsed totally and a defacto government under Mujib emerged. from March 3 to March 25, 1971. During this period Mujib issued 31 orders for the governance of East Pakistan<sup>79</sup>. However, after the killing of March 3, 1971 by the army, situation in East Pakistan became tumultuous. And Sheikh Mujib on March 7, 1971 in his last address to the people in the United Pakistan at Race Course declared the next course of action.

The substance of the programme of action was as follows:

Sheikh Mujib narrating briefly the history of 23 years of suppression, oppression and exploitation of the Bengalis by the West Pakistani ruling elite and the brutal killing of March 3, 1971 declared, "The struggle this time is a struggle for freedom and the fight this time has to be a fight for independence... I call upon you to turn every home into a fort against their onslaught ! Use whatever you can put in your hands on to confront the enemy. Every road must be blocked. We have already had to shed our blood, we will have to sacrifice more. But, God

willing, the people of this land shall be set free! The fight, this time, is for liberation! The struggle, this time, is for independence".<sup>80</sup>

It is claimed that Sheikh Mujib by his declaration of March 7, 1971 in fact, proclaimed independence of Bangladesh. Meanwhile, Bhutto on March 14, 1971 proposed to transfer power to the majority parties of East and West Pakistan in their respective wings<sup>81</sup>. However, President Yahya held a series of farcical dialogues with Sheikh Mujib (from 16-24 March, 1971) to resolve the political crisis but with no result. The students (who had been playing crucial role in politics from the inception of Pakistan) declared March 23, 1971 as RESISTANCE DAY and flew Bangladesh flags all over East Pakistan. On the same day Sheikh Mujib went to meet President Yahya with Bangladesh flag flying on his car<sup>82</sup>. However, with this failure, as a part of the secret plan, Yahya's army attacked the unarmed and innocent people of East Pakistan on the night of March 25, 1971 for ruining the Bengalis as a nation. It was reflected in the execution of the Bengali intelligentsia on December 14, 1971 meticulously and awful genocide and atrocities carried on by the occupation army that took the lives of 30 lakhs people. However, Sheikh Mujib, the Messiah of the Bengalis was arrested on the night of March 25, 1971 at 1.30 A.M. and put custody in West Pakistan.

### Birth of a Nation

Prior to his arrest Sheikh Mujib himself proclaimed independence. His declaration was as follows:

*The Pakistan Army has suddenly attacked the EPR base at Peelkhana and Rajarbagh Police Line and killed citizens: Street battles are going on in every street of Dhaka and Chittagong. I appeal to the nations of the world for help. Our freedom fighters are gallantly fighting the enemy to free the motherland. I appeal and order you all in the name of Almighty Allah to fight to the last drop of blood to liberate the country. No compromise, victory is ours. Drive out the last enemy from the holy soil of our motherland. Convey this message to all Awami League leaders, workers and other patriots and lovers."*

*May Allah bless you.*

*Joy Bangla*<sup>83</sup>

*Sheikh Mujib*

*25th March, 1971*

With proclamation of independence, spontaneous and uncoordinated resistance started against the occupation army throughout the country. Systematic and well coordinated central direction was the urgent need of the moment. This also required the formalisation of declaration of independence through the formation of government. For this, some elected members of the Awami League to the National and provincial



Assemblies met at some place near India-Bangladesh border in Kushtia on April 10, 1971 and issued the proclamation of Independence order. This proclamation confirmed the declaration of independence made in the name of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman from *Shadhin Bangla Betar Kendra* at *Kalurghat* on March 26, 1971. This proclamation made Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, the President of the Republic and Syed Nazrul Islam its vice President. It was stipulated that in absence of the President the vice President would be the acting Head of the State. An exile-government was formed on April 13, 1971 with Tajuddin Ahmed (1925-1975) as the Prime Minister by the acting of President, Syed Nazrul Islam.

However, with the formation of the exile government a co-ordinated liberation war started. Tajuddin Ahmed in his first statement as the Prime Minister over Bangladesh Radio defined the tasks of his government of which carrying the liberation war to a successful completion and preparation for the take over of a divested country and rebuilding it. Tajuddin played a crucial role in the liberation war. It was he who for the first time went to Delhi on April 2, 1971 and sought all sorts of Indian support to liberate the country<sup>84</sup>

The exile Government along with the conduct of systematic liberation war sent representatives to world forum and communities to mobilise world opinion in favour of the Bengalis. Abdus Samad Azad was sent to Budapest Peace Conference to uphold the legitimate cause of the Bengalis in May, 1971. Bengali diplomats and representatives serving outside showed allegiance to the new government. Abu Syeed Chowdhury, who had been representing Pakistan in Geneva Human Rights Commission Conference began to act as emissary in European countries for the exile government. Likewise Hussain Ali, the Deputy High Commissioner in Calcutta, Mohiuddin Ahmed, a diplomat in London etc. withdrew their allegiance to Yahya regime. In this way, the diplomats, officials and immigrant Bengalis extended whole hearted support, mobilise world opinion and collected funds for the exile government.

However, trial of Sheikh Mujib started on August 11 for treason but Washington was against it as she did it in March for Sheikh Mujib by way of putting pressure on Yahya regime. At one stage, Yahya under international pressure particularly the pressure of Washington and Peking agreed to resolve the crisis through direct negotiations with the exile government. But India stood in the way of direct negotiations. It was reflected in Qaiyum version on September 23, 1971 with U.S Consul in Calcutta that the Indian government had formally asked Bangladesh Leadership to route all contacts through New Delhi<sup>85</sup>. Despite Pakistan's reluctance U.S. State Department proposed to the Indian ambassador in Washington direct negotiations between Pakistan and Bangladesh representatives without any conditions. The ambassador demanded the release of Sheikh Mujib and the immediate independence of East Pakistan. So the American initiative failed. All on a sudden, Pakistan attacked the Western Frontier of India on December 3, 1971. India, which so far had been lending moral and material support had no alternative but to be directly involved in war with Pakistan. In retaliation, India recognised Bangladesh

Government on December 6, 1971. The Mukti Bahini and the Indian Army taking the name of ALLIED FORCE liberated the country on December 16, 1971. Thus, the state of Bangladesh came into existence.

### Conclusion

On assuming power of the new state of Pakistan, the Muslim League government attempted to impose Urdu as the only state language of Pakistan. Against this backdrop, the spirit of protecting national identity among the Bengalis originated in the form of demand for the recognition of Bengali as one of the state languages of Pakistan. Later, this language issue had coupled with other potential factors (power, services and resource disparity between the two wings of Pakistan) and led the Bengalis to assert their due share through the 6-point programme in the sixties. However, in the face of strong political upheaval, President Ayub had to tender resignation in the late sixties. The regime under General Yahya emerged with a pledge to restore democracy. By holding a free and fair polls, Yahya did a lot towards that end in the early seventies. But soon he fell into the clutch of Bhutto and other army generals. And he reversed his course of action and became too hostile to the cause of the Bengalis because of Sheikh Mujib's intractable stand on the 6-point. Yahya and his associates insisted Sheikh Mujib to modify 6-point but Mujib persisted on it.

Yahya Postponing the National Assembly session of March 3, 1971 arranged a farcical negotiations for political settlement from March 15, to March 24, 1971. Under the cover of this dialogue, the regime took military preparation. And all on a sudden on the night of March 25, 1971 army was set in against the Bengalis to exterminate them as a nation. In this circumstances, the Bengalis under the leadership of the Awami League were compelled to declare independence and form an exile government to liberate the country. After a long nine month of guerrilla war the backbone of the occupation army was destroyed and ultimately the country was liberated by Mukti Bahini in co-operation with Indian army on December 16, 1971. Therefore, it can be argued that the seed of nationalism that had been sowed in the state language movement eventually culminated in the birth of a new state called Bangladesh. It was echoed by Sheikh Hasina, Prime Minister of Bangladesh the time, when she said in the inaugural speech in Calcutta book fair on January 27, 1999 that Bangladesh is the only country in South-Asia that came into existence out of linguistic nationalism.<sup>86</sup>

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## IMPACT OF CIVIL SOCIETY ON DEMOCRACY AND HUMAN RIGHTS: AN OVERVIEW

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**Abstract:** Civil society is generally considered as the complementary organ of the government. Now-a-days in the political arena, the civil society has become a central issue. In this article the role of civil society on democracy and human rights is examined. Under what circumstances the civil society has been recognised as a decisive agency on human rights in a democratic society has also been discussed. An overall assessment on the role of civil society on democracy and human rights has been examined in the following discussion.

### Introduction

In recent years, "Civil Society" has become the central issue in our social and political discourse. It can not be separated from other important issues like democracy, human rights, people's participation etc. The purview of civil society includes non government organisation (NGOs), social welfare organisations, interest groups, research organisations, professional organisations, trade unions, community based organisations, advocacy groups and the media in the private sector. Academically, there are continuous efforts on re-constructing the concept of civil society adequate to contemporary condition<sup>1</sup> since it is felt that there is still certain gap between normative models of democracy and the dynamics of civil society.

This article will try to trace the importance of civil society by exploring its connection with democratic aspirations. As a background, the second part will explore the meaning and substance of civil society in the democratisation process while the third part will see the context of importance and emergence of civil society in the Southeast Asia including Bangladesh. Based on the understanding, this article will conclude with some important points on how to strengthen civil society.

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All type of states, developed and under-developed, poor and rich, have become more violent, despite the strong position of free market economy theory after the fall of state socialism, though the degree of violence varies qualitatively and quantitatively from state to state. The physical and mental torture by the state on the individuals are increasing gradually, and it's nature is also changing.<sup>2</sup>

Under the circumstances the idea of civil society has appeared with all its possibilities. It is thought that the stronger the organisation of civil society, the more will be possible to strengthen the principle of democracy in a state and the possibility of oppression by the state on the individual becomes less likely.

## **Civil Society**

### ***Theoretical Framework: Defining State-Civil Society Relations***

To understand an essential meaning of Civil Society, we cannot separate this from the context of "State-Civil relations". For most of political thinkers, this relationship is something obscure and controversial since it always depends on various approaches used.<sup>3</sup> As a concept civil society is also problematic, in that sense the meaning and interpretation have changed largely over time.<sup>4</sup> From the perspective of historical thoughts, we can trace its root from an ancient Greek Aristotle's notion up to 18<sup>th</sup> century (where the term "state", "civil society" and "political society" were used as interchangeable ideas) throughout the classic thinkers (where they drew a strict line between terms of "state" and "civil society") until the existing contemporary thinking (1980s-1990s).<sup>5</sup>

To grasp civil society concept clearly, it will be useful to start with two other related terms, which developed in 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century evolutionary political thought: 'natural society' and 'political society'.<sup>6</sup> Natural society was a society whereby men lived in a state of nature and there was no public law. The existing law was the law of nature. According to Thomas Hobbes, this was a society in which everybody was free and was in a position to do whatever he liked.

To improve the situation people then agreed to give up their sovereignty to a higher body called "the state". The state was an institution with absolute power, in order to be able to control the populace. With the birth of the state, 'political society' was created to replace 'natural society'. Political society in this sense was progressive, bringing law and order, stability and security in the society.

However, the absolute power of the state to regulate the society eventually was not to everybody's liking, because of the possibility of the state to abuse its power. Within this context, John Locke then started to talk about the function of the state to protect the basic rights of man namely, the right to life, the right to freedom and the right to property. If the state failed to protect these basic rights, the people had the right to overthrow the state and government.

### **Importance of Civil Society Movements**

With the revolutions swept across Central and Eastern Europe of 1989-90 and the political change in the Soviet Union – where communism collapsed throughout the region – and some transformation in Latin America and Asia; a new consciousness emerged that civil society is an effective power to resist and pursue authoritarian regime to change. This phenomenon, bring us back to re-thinking and reflecting about the interaction between the “state” and “society”. It is convinced that both are conducive factors to create “democratisation”. Because there is strong assumption that when civil society is relatively strong vis-à-vis the state, democracy prevails or the other way around is also true: when the state is strong and civil society is weak, democracy fails.<sup>7</sup>

If strong society is a pre-requisite to democracy, this condition can only develop and society has a chance and opportunity to develop its capacity. In other words, “democratisation” can be understood as a process of strengthening civil society and encouraging people’s participation. As an applicable concept, democracy itself cannot be understood in its static meaning because civil societies have their own dynamism in their own specific contexts.

Democracy has been a major global trend during the twentieth century. It has been spread out with particular vigour since 1970s. In 1975 at least 68% countries throughout the world were authoritarian; by the end of 1995 only about 26% were authoritarian, all the rest having some sort of competitive elections and adopted at least formal guarantees of political and civil rights<sup>8</sup>. This rapid political transformation began in Southern Europe in the mid 1970s, spread out to Latin America and parts of Asia in the 1980s, and then moved on to parts of sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern European and the Soviet Union in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

### ***The Asian Context***

Potters’ typology about political regime shows that most of the Asian countries can be categorised as “partial democratic”/“semi-democratic” or “authoritarian” regime<sup>9</sup>. Although they are adopting characteristic features of Western-style liberal democracy<sup>10</sup> but challenging of economic development, national security or internal insurgency sometimes force them to modify some elements of democracy. The result is: “Asian-style democracy”. The details differ from country to country, but the overall pattern includes the following characteristic elements. Confucianism (China, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Vietnam), patron-client communitarianism (Southeast Asia), personalism (China, Taiwan, North Korea, Cambodia, Philippines, Burma, Indonesia), authority dominant political party (Malaysia, Indonesia), and strong state.

Most Asian states<sup>11</sup> in the modern era have been strong enough to dominate or co-opt independent groups such as political parties, business associations, farmers’ organisations, and labour unions. So Asian political systems generally do not have many strong, autonomous, organised, non-governmental groups, based for instance, on occupation, region and class; that would be able to



balance the power of the state, prevent it from monopolising political power, provide a source of new ideas and play a "recruitment" role by encouraging people to participate in politics. This weak position of society vis-a vis the state in turn creates practices of abuse of power, civil rights' repression or lack of accountability in the state management.

But certain conditions (economic development, middle class expansion, globalisation) to some extent cannot prevent peoples' aspiration for demanding broader space for their political participation. The manifestation of civil society movements in those countries are very clear in Thailand's student democratic movement of 1970's and 1990's, Philippines' people power of 1980's, Malaysia's "reform" opposition of 1990's, Indonesia's "total reformation" movement of 1990's, and the flourishing numbers of significant force of NGOs in most of Asian countries during 1980's.<sup>12</sup>

### ***The East European Context***

There are at least two major aspects to any account of the origins of democratisation in Eastern Europe – on one side the causes of collapse of authoritarian communist rule (external aspect) and, on the other, the roots of the political changes that sustain changes leading to development of a liberal democratic order (internal aspect). The first is closely related to changes in Soviet regional policy under the leadership of Mikhail Gorbachev and the abandonment of the Brezhnev Doctrine of limited sovereignty and the second is connected within the political systems of the East European countries themselves, and the declining effectiveness of military and coercive power.

Eastern Europe, in this context, refers to the countries that came under Soviet control after the Second World War and remained under Soviet domination until the collapse of communist rule in 1989. The group was made up of six countries: Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic (East Germany), Hungary, Poland and Romania (Yugoslavia and Albania were communist states but remained mostly outside the sphere of Soviet influence). Between April 1989, (when Polish Solidarity representatives reached an agreement with the communist authorities about the re-legalisation of the independent trade union) and December 1989 (when the tyrannical Ceausescu regime in Romania was overthrown) communist systems throughout the region suddenly began to fall apart.

It is interesting to observe here, the 1980 strikes that gave birth 'Solidarity' in Poland, coercion and security organisations in Czechoslovakia and East Germany that were unable to prevent the development and survival of core opposition groups which were ultimately able to attract much more extensive support. Or political repression that failed in Romania together with the limited success of post- 1981 martial law in Poland.

Regardless of the stand of party leaders and policies of the communist authorities, social forces in Eastern Europe showed a growing capacity for self-organisation and an increasing ability to challenge state power. Starting in the

late 1970s they took a different form in each country (independent political party formation in Hungary, trade unions in Poland, Protestant churches in East Germany, artists and intellectuals in Czechoslovakia) but jointly reflected the emergence of a comparable civil society in several countries of Eastern Europe. In Poland, specifically the resilience of the opposition had been strengthened by the continuing resistance of the Catholic Church to communist power and its contribution to the preservation of major areas of social and intellectual autonomy, as well as the survival of several influential human right groups.

At least three key factors can be identified in the democratisation process of Eastern Europe, although reached in different times: (1) resignation of the communist party from its monopolistic ruling position; (2) constitutional amendments introduced to establish liberal democracy and (3) free elections and the establishment of a parliamentary democratic legislature.<sup>13</sup>

### **Impact of Civil Society on Democracy and Human Rights**

The concept of civil society is related to these basic rights of man, which then called "civil rights" (although the contents have changed, not limited to those Locke's three basic rights). Civil society is not similar to natural society. It is more than that, however, not a political society with basic rights. Civil society is there where the power of the states ends. The state, according to this concept, is to replace natural society to protect civil society.

In the philosophy of Hegel, the state found a new interpretation. Civil society was considered as the realm of individuals, of private domain, of self-interest, of short-sighted view whereby everybody did not care about everybody else and was not concerned with prosperity of the society as a whole (*human commune*). In a sense, civil society in this concept bore many similarities with natural society. According to Hegel, it was the state that had a view of totality, of the prosperity of the whole society, of the progress of history. The state fulfilled, in itself, the mission of human history. It was natural that the individual interest of civil society had to surrender to the public interest of the state.

Then entered Marx, who succeeded to put the Hegelian interpretation upside down. According to Marx, the state was not above society, but it was rather the reflection of society. The existing structure of civil society (divided into dominant and exploited classes) was reflected in the state. This was, no doubt, a new interpretation of the state. The famous quotation of Marx that the *state was the executives of the ruling class* clearly demonstrates Marx's position on this issue. Thus, the dynamics of history, the determinant of social change do not lie in the dynamics of the state (Hegel), but in civil society. It was civil society, divided into social classes, that was the real force that moved the history of mankind.

One version of Marxist interpretation was given by Antonio Gramsci. According to Gramsci, civil society was an aspect of the superstructure, together with the state. The base or the infrastructure was the mode of



production, or the dominant economic system of society. There were two aspects of superstructure: the state (aspect of force) and civil society (aspect of culture where the hegemony of the ruling class was cultivated). In this sense, the state was not the competitor of civil society. Instead, they both served and strengthened the position of the ruling class.

The consequence of Gramsci's new interpretation of civil society is apparent. Democratisation is to be achieved through strengthening civil society, because civil society is not in contradiction with the state. Civil society works hand in hand with the state to strengthen the existing dominant social system or mode of production. They stand side by side not face-to-face. Democracy is a function of the historical development of the dominant social system, not the dynamisation of civil society. For Gramsci, it is the study of class struggle that is most important. Who are the oppressive classes and who are the oppressed? Democratisation has to be put within this perspective of class struggle, whether it serves the oppressive or the oppressed.

Usually in looking of the dynamic of democratisation process different writers will use different theoretical assumptions, just to mention some, of Hegelian, Marxian or Gramscian. But no matter what theoretical assumptions are, the most important is that those analyses can examine the complex picture of democratisation.

Civil society can play a vital role in recruiting and training of new political leadership. For example, the Evelio B Javier Foundation in the Philippines offer training program for locally and nationally elected officials and candidates on non-partisan basis. In this training program emphasis is given not only on technical and administrative skills but also on normative standards of public accountability and transparency.<sup>14</sup>

### ***Civil Society and Democracy***

Democracy is one of the most durable ideas in politics and it has become, in the twentieth century, one of the most central point. Democracy is likely to remain not only a contestable concept, but also a "critical" concept: that is a norm or ideal by which reality is tested and found wanting.<sup>15</sup> Although, in its development there are many models of democracy, with two main broad classificatory labels<sup>16</sup> (direct or participatory democracy and liberal or representative democracy); the most important here for our understanding is the essence ideas of democracy and why then become closely connected with civil society.

At the root of all definitions of democracy, however refined and complex, lies the idea of *popular power*, of a situation in which power and authority rests with the people. The power or authority is usually thought of as being political, and therefore takes the form of an "idea of popular sovereignty" – the people as the ultimate political authority<sup>17</sup>. But this term need not be exclusively political. Democracy, in term of Alexis de Tocqueville, is not always taken to signify

only a form of government, or of choosing a government: it may be a term applied to a *whole society*.

This core conception is basic, particularly to counter any claim that a certain state or government, regime or society is 'really' democratic or not. It must involve the implication that in some way they serve or represent the people; that the 'real' will of the people is expressed through them or that the people support them, even if this support is not necessarily demonstrated through such formalities as elections.

In the real practice, some critical questions may appear as part of potential areas for disagreement, like: who are 'the people'? Does it include all citizen groups like woman, minority, and workers? How broadly or narrowly the scope of rule? Does it cover law and order, relations between states, the economy, the domestic or private sphere? Were the rules of the 'people' be obeyed? What is the place of obligation and dissent?

Whatever the theoretical formulations or models of democracy, one thing is clear that democracy cannot work without "participation". People's participation is an inseparable part of democratic process and it is the task of civil society to strengthen them to guarantee the participation of all segments of society.

Participatory democracy ensures that the greater the extent of citizen participation in government, the more the conventional distinction between government and governed is dissolved. In such term, it is not true that democracy is simply a form, method, or political device of government. Participatory democracy necessarily has implications for social life, and is better regarded as a way of life.

As basic democratic principle, J.S. Mill wrote that as far as possible the people should govern themselves, and that therefore the ultimate objective had to be the maximum of direct, personal participation:

.... it is evident only that government which can fully satisfy all the exigencies of the social state is one in which the whole people participate; that any participation, even in the smallest public function, is useful; that the participation should everywhere be as great as the general degree of improvement of the community will allow; and that nothing less can ultimately be desirable than the admission of all to share in the sovereign power of the state.<sup>18</sup>

### **Civil Society and Bangladesh**

In Bangladesh activists and leaders of political parties and the members of the parliament lack political wisdom. Besides, in most cases necessary skills for building a proper political culture is absent. Rather the presence of political rhetoric is apparent in our political culture. It may not be wise to say that these tendencies are completely absent in politics of the developed countries;



nevertheless there is a quantitative and qualitative difference between the political culture of developing and developed countries. In these circumstances, civil society is able to play a vital role in creating positive tendencies among the political parties with an aim to establish a proper democratic process. In Bangladesh, because of the priority of vote politics, political leaders creating distance between the voters and the leaders. After applying the right of franchise individual is no more involved in political process. After winning the election a candidate's interaction with the constituency remains confined to party based programs only, with few exceptions. But as the people's representative, the solemn duty of a parliament member is to get involved in the welfare of the people of the constituency. The organisation of civil society can make the members of the parliament aware of ensuring public interest of their constituencies<sup>19</sup> as well as the country.

The organisation of civil society is not yet able to perform these roles. Here civil society can be more active in influencing the state machinery to reform judicial and legislative system, show institutional respect for individual liberty and ensure the rights of the minorities.<sup>20</sup>

In Bangladesh the civil society, by creating a sustainable and organised pressure from the grass root level can help the development of political and social equalities along with quality, responsiveness and legitimacy of democracy and human rights. It can play a vital role in recruiting and training of new political leadership. Side by side can help creating positive tendencies among the political parties with a view to establishing a proper democratic process.

The press and audio-visual machinery have a vital role to create congenial atmosphere to enhance the attitude and values among the leaders and the followers. Since, the rate of formal literacy is less such mass-media communication network is essential for a developing country like Bangladesh. The ruling party and the opposition party have equal responsibility to come forward in forming and sustaining civic sense among the general people. Thus, only the concept and values of civil society can be established in Bangladesh.

### **Conclusion**

The evidences from various societies clearly show that democratisation process is not an easy and a simple way. It needs continuous and long-term effort of both significant actors: the "state" and "society". In this context, the existence of Civil society -- which is usually viewed as a social life sphere situated between the "state" and "local communities" where there is accumulated power of society to maintain peoples' freedom, pluralism and independence vis-a-vis state power and government -- is very important.

As one of the explanatory factors in the democratisation process, civil society has offered an alternative perspective toward two dichotomous choices that is always hummed by authoritarian regime in the world: centralist and

autocratic political system or chaos, which is characterised by anarchy, communal conflict and disintegration.

Facing this *pseudo-dichotomy* choice trap, civil society shows its power, because this concept clearly signs the emergence of responsible *civil liberties*, the real diverse opinion, and the form of voluntarily unions without co-optation of formal or state networks. While democratisation process shows its positive prospect, it is the time for re-thinking of methods and ways of empowerment of civil society, so that the tendency of co-optation which at anytime can come back and weakened civil society can be avoided. To consolidate themselves, probably important for Civil society to concern with five conditions for democratic survival<sup>21</sup>: (a) when the polity has geographical, constitutional and political legitimacy; (b) where there is agreement about the rules of the political game and the parties abide by them; (c) where opposing groups agree on policy restraint; (d) where there are low or decline levels of poverty and (e) where ethnic, cultural and religious cleavages are not deep and uncompromising.

To establish liberal democracy and to strengthen it, a powerful strong middle class is supposed to be inevitable. Again, civil society also focuses on the aspirations of the middle class<sup>22</sup>. Though the present mainstream political parties of Bangladesh are involved in multifarious quarrels, they are unanimous (at least theoretically) in establishing a liberal democratic system. At this stage, it is possible to deny the importance of civil society to create a proper state<sup>23</sup>. In Bangladesh, till now the state interferes in the human rights and the personal life of the individual. And the state fails to bring different political paths in one platform. Here class-based politics is weak, on the other hand, hatred and disregard prevail among people about religion-based politics. Therefore to make the individual insulated from the misdeeds of state, a strong civil society is necessary.

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<sup>2</sup> For details see, James Ron 'Varying Methods of State Violence' in *International Organization* Vol. 51; No.2, Spring 1997 (MIT Press). pp. 275-300.

<sup>3</sup> Christopher Pierson (1996) *The Modern State*. London: Routledge, pp. 64-93.

<sup>4</sup> Budiman, Arief (ed.) (1990), *State and Civil Society in Indonesia*. Monash Papers on Southeast Asia No. 22, Glen Waverley: Aristoc Press Pty. Ltd., p. 3

<sup>5</sup> The basic ideas of thinkers like Aristotle, Cicero, Thomas Aquinas (up to 18<sup>th</sup> century), then continued by the classic thinkers like Adam Ferguson-1767, Thomas Paine-1791, GWF Hegel-1821, Alexis de Tocquille-1835 and Antonio Gramsci-1948. There are extensive literatures of today's thinkers, like John Keane-1988, Edward Shills-1991, Andrew Arato and Cohen-1992, Adam Seligman-1992, Ernest Gellner-1994, John A. Hall-1995.



<sup>6</sup> Budiman, *supra* note 3 pp. 3-5

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid.* p. 3

<sup>8</sup> Potter, David, David Goldblatt, Margareth Kiloh and Paul Lewis (ed.) (1997) *Democratization*. Cambridge: Polity Press, p. 1

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.* pp. 4-5

<sup>10</sup> Dahl, 1989, 221 in Potter, David, David Goldblatt, Margareth Kiloh and Paul Lewis (ed.) (1997) *Democratization*. Cambridge: Polity Press, p. 4.

<sup>11</sup> The term state, as used by political scientists, simply refers to public officials, both elective and appointive, who decide public policy, as well as to the actual machinery of government. (Neher, 1995: p. 21).

<sup>12</sup> Gerard Clarke (1998) *The Politics of NGO in Southeast Asia: Participation and Protest in the Philippines*. London: Routledge, pp. 23-38.

<sup>13</sup> Potter, *supra* note 7 pp. 407

<sup>14</sup> See, Dette Pacsual, "Organizing People Power in the Philippines" in *Journal of Democracy*, 1 (Winter 1990); pp. 102-109.

<sup>15</sup> Arblaster, Anthony (1996) *Democracy*. Buckingham: Open University Press, p. 7

<sup>16</sup> Held, David (1996) *Models of Democracy*. California: Stanford University Press, p. 6

<sup>17</sup> Arblaster, *supra* note 13 p. 9

<sup>18</sup> See, J.S. Mill (1976), *Representative Government*, in *Utilitarianism. On Liberty and Representative Government*. London: JM Dent, 217 in Anthony Arblaster (1996), *Democracy*. Buckingham: Open University Press, p. 61.

<sup>19</sup> Larry Diamond, 'Rethinking Civil Society' in B.E. Brown and Roy C. Macridis (ed.), *Comparative Politics*, (1996) Wordsworth Publishing Company; P.210. as well as the country.

<sup>20</sup> Shantanu Majumder, 'Role of Civil Society in Bangladesh: An Overview', in *Social Science Review (Part-D)*, December 1998, Dhaka University, pp. 137-38

<sup>21</sup> Leftwich, 1997, pp. 525-532

<sup>22</sup> Mohammed Farashuddin, 'Civil Society in an Emerging Democracy' in *Weekend Independent*, 3 January, 1997, (Dhaka). p.13.

<sup>23</sup> See Shantanu Majumder, *supra* note 20 above p 139

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