

Innovation in Governance

Lessons from Transition Economy

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Edited by

Sharif As-Saber
Aka Firowz Ahmad
Niaz Ahmed Khan



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The researchers who are persistently exploring the
realm of knowledge with wisdom

Preface

The Book 'Innovation in Governance' lessons from Transition Economy is the compilation of twenty four papers presented in the 1st International Integrative Research Conference GAIN-2014 held on December 18-19, 2014 in Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development (BARD), Comilla, Bangladesh. The Conference was jointly organized by Netinsench International-Network for Integrative Research, Center for Administrative Research and Innovation (CARI), University of Dhaka, Stamford University Bangladesh and GAIN International that emphasized on multidisciplinary approach to address the different issues related to governance. Among 85 papers presented in the conference, articles related to innovation and governance have been included in the three parts of this book titled as 'Public Policy, Administration and Governance', 'Political Culture, Media and Governance' and 'Entrepreneurship, E-Governance and Digital Culture.'

Efforts of many individuals at the different stages in editing, manuscript preparation, formatting and printing have contributed to the publication of the book in the present form. A team of young researchers including Khandaker Al Farid Uddin, Akram Hossain, Mamunur Rashid, Al-Irfan Hossain Mollah and Jahidul Islam worked hard to prepare the manuscript and provided all sorts of supports to the editors of this book while needed. Their contribution can not be only recognized simply by giving them thanks and expressing gratefulness in words only. We cordially wish meaningful life with wisdom and knowledge for them.

Professor Dr. Hannan Feroj, the President and Founder of Stamford University Bangladesh extended his all out co-operation in holding the conference and in publishing conference papers in book form. We express our gratitude to him and Stamford family for standing beside our efforts. Osder Publications took the sole responsibility to publish the book with much enthusiasm and care and published it in time. Our heartiest thanks are also due to Osder Publications and its functionaries.

We could not have enough time to produce this book and had to work within some unavoidable constraints. So, it is obvious that there are some mistakes and shortcomings in the book for which we are solely responsible. We express our apology to the readers for unwanted mistakes. We hope to overcome the present limitations and we shall accommodate the valuable suggestions of the readers in the next edition of the book.

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Introduction

Nowadays, in the era of globalization, extensive and frequent changes have become natural phenomena for any society. The level of this transformation is more rapid in a transition economy where market forces are the main drivers of human future. New and complex problems are emerging in the society and there are no easy solutions for any government to tackle this situation. Thereby, a compulsive condition appears for governance innovation that involves formulation and implementation of new strategies, public policies and services. Compared to other public service innovation is more important because it creates the future (Glor, 2007). Previously, innovation was considered as the sole area for private sector where development of new products, modern technologies and competitive strategies are the main concern. But today, public sector innovation draws great attention all over the world and governments are striving for innovative methods and strategies to enhance their capacity to deal with the complex phenomena prevailing in the society. However, Fisman & Werker (2011) argued that innovation in governance and innovation in other products and services can be viewed through the same lens. But the market for governance is quite different from the other products.

Innovation means intentionally 'bringing into existence' something new that can be sustained and repeated and which has some value or utility. That is, innovation is always related to some practical 'in-the-world' value. It is about making new tools, products or processes, bringing forth something 'new' which allows human beings to accomplish something they were not able to accomplish previously (Jim Selman, 2015). Innovation in governance is a difficult term to understand since it usually deals with services and welfare to the citizens. Here, innovation is not like a physical artifact in private sector rather a change in the process of service delivery and in the relationships between government and citizens. Moreover, all changes are not regarded as innovation. Moore et al. (1997) recognized the changes as innovations which are new to the organizations, be large enough, general enough and durable enough to appreciably affect the operations or character of the organization. Public sector innovation can also be the citizens' participation in planning as well as implementing process of any services (Hartley, 2005). Governments themselves are, many times, found to oppose any innovation in governance, rather they try to gain advantages from the ambiguities around rules of business and their enforcement. At the same time, to bring change, reformers within governments can utilize outside pressures those include aid conditionality and international competition (Fisman & Werker 2011). Another important aspect of innovation is that it cannot be transfer intact from one country to another since innovation is the unique solution for each environment and it can be effective for other environment after extensive consideration, adaptation and testing within the new context (Glor, 2007).

This book titled 'Innovation in Governance: Lessons from a Transitional Economy' is the collection of articles presented in International Conference on

Governance and Innovation: Business, Society and Environment in Developing Countries held at BARD, Comilla, Bangladesh on 19-20 December 2014. The conference was jointly organized by the Centre for Administrative Research and Innovation (CARI), University of Dhaka, Bangladesh along with Governance and Administration Innovation Network (GAIN) International, Network for Integrative Research (netinsearch) and Public Administration and Governance Research Network (PAGRN). The conference focusing primarily on governance and innovation bears special academic, intellectual as well as functional importance due to significant role of governance and innovation in all spheres of individual and collective life. The conference aimed at a) exploring a holistic approach using integrative methodology to find innovative solutions to problems related to governance of business, society and environment; b) facilitating an interactive and sustainable network of researchers and academics across disciplines; and c) developing a community-based approach in conducting research on governance and innovation.

The book is divided into three parts. The Part One concentrates on public policy, administration and governance. Part two focuses on political culture, media and governance. Third part is consists with the articles related to entrepreneurship, e-governance and digital culture. These three parts include 24 articles.

Article one (Public service delivery and multi-level governance: Politics and the room for innovation) responds to the general challenge of public service delivery through an exploration of the room to manoeuvre of the state within the existing institutional arrangement and to innovate new linkages, institutions and partnerships. The paper proposes a new model of *innovative governance* based on multi-level governance, to enhance public service delivery. The article illustrates this model through some case studies from India and concludes with some general lessons of the Indian case, particularly (but not exclusively) for South Asian and transitional societies. Article 2 (Good Governance in Bangladesh: A Post- Colonial Encounter) focusing post-colonial standpoint argues that the machinery of public administration or governance in Bangladesh culturally and psychologically is not ready to adopt the essence of good governance. The colonial mind set of the government officials and shadow colonial administrative culture are anti- thesis to the fundamental elements of good governance such as participatory and consensus oriented governing system.

Article three (Public Participation towards the Democratic Governance in Bangladesh) intends to review the present scenario and condition of public participation in democratic governance in Bangladesh. Public participation has been justified here in terms of voter's turnout, effective role of parliament, media and civil society, democratic practice in political parties and consensus among political parties, etc. The fourth article (Governance of Upazila Parishad (UZP) in the Context of Globalization) focuses to find the answers of two research questions; how the UZP perform its responsibilities in respond to

the need of local people and economy and what role the local government should perform to fulfill the demand of changed situation.

The next article (Localizing Public Service Delivery in Bangladesh: The Gap between Policy and Practice) seeks to identify the gaps between the policy statements and their implementation, their consequences on the nature of service delivery and the underlying reasons for the prevailing gaps. As a case, the chapter looks into the delivery of public health services in rural areas. Article 7 (Japan-USA Relations in the Postwar Period: Learning for Bangladesh) evaluates different aspects of relationship between USA and Japan and offers some recommendations for Bangladesh to improve its relationship with Japan.

The next article (Rural Development in the Contemporary Globalized World: Boon or Bane) focuses to find out what impact globalization has made on poverty and rural society in Bangladesh. It argues that exponential increases of rice production and wages of labour employed in agriculture have contributed to reduction of rural poverty in Bangladesh. The new dynamics of rural development emanated from globalization has challenged contemporary cooperative organizations and socio-cultural values in the rural society. Article nine (Higher Education in Selected Public and Private Universities in Chittagong: A Study on the Problem and Challenges in Ensuring Quality Education) focuses to explore the present scenario of quality Higher education of Bangladesh. Nonetheless, the chapter emphasizes on the teachers and students opinion about present education system of public and private universities, existing problems and challenges faced by higher education.

Article 10 (Civil Society and Good Governance in Bangladesh: The Strategies of the Civil Society to Influence the Electoral Process) attempts to investigate the role of SHUJON as civil society in Bangladesh promoting democracy and hence good governance. It specifically looks into the strategies used by SHUJON to promote good governance through reforming as well as democratising electoral process in Bangladesh.

Article 11 (Defending Finer's Accountability Argument: Experience of Social Accountability in the Context of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme in India) attempts to provide an answer to the question, 'How to ensure accountability of the administrators is a classic question in the field of public administration?' by using an example of Social Audits in the implementation of the National Employment Guarantee Scheme in India. The chapter defends Finer's stance on the necessity of external mechanism in ensuring accountability of the administrators. Further, it concludes that Finer's stance of accountability to legislators will not be effective in Indian and in south Asian context but direct accountability to the people through social accountability mechanism will be more suitable. The next article () tries to highlight Kautilya's discourses on knowledge and knowledge management that may be used to develop public knowledge management approach suitable for modern governments. The paper would like to bring the Kautilya's four sciences into forefront as an argument for holistic approach of KM in public

governance. 'Anvikshiki' or philosophy, 'Trayi' or three Vedas, 'Vartta' or economics and 'Dandaniti' or politics are the four sciences of Kautilya which covered both normative and technical type of knowledge. Nowadays, the main crisis of governance is related to unethical behavior in decision making as well as in implementation process. The four sciences of Kautilya can contribute to a great extent to overcome the present catastrophe in public governance system. The ideologies of Kautilya regarding state, statecraft and ethics are still very realistic and effectively applicable in current context of governance.

Part two of this book covers 'Political Culture, Media and Governance' which is divided into six articles. Article 13 (Rethinking Political Culture: Bangladesh Perspective) attempts to summarize the nature of Bangladeshi political culture by analyzing the political activities during the various regimes of government. The next article (Influence of Political Parties in the Judicial Process in Bangladesh) examines access to justice by assessing the influence of the political parties over the judicial process in Bangladesh. The article shows that it is the political parties (especially ruling political party) which are threatening equal access to justice in Bangladesh. The constitution framers' hoped for independence of the judiciary but now it is being challenged by the unexpected influence of the ruling political parties. Political party affiliation is considered even in the judicial decision making. Article Fifteen (Role of Media and Governance for Bridging Socio-Political Barriers: Japan-Bangladesh Perspective) advocates some pronged strategy and policy suggestions that can improve to overcome the constraints of media and governance and open new windows for Bangladesh. This chapter also attempts to analyze the determinants between governance and media that surely leads a country to the way of socio-political, cultural and economic advancement. The next article (Role of Media and Governance for bridging socio-political barriers: Japan-Bangladesh perspective) investigates the Role of Media in Promoting Good Governance. The roles of media in promoting good governance are being recognized in various countries. Media are (mostly) the non-state actors who define themselves apart from the state and from all other societal actors. It plays a crucial role in shaping a healthy democracy and ensuring good governs. As an importance source of information media has been functioning the role of the heart of democratic society and Good governance. It is an important assumption that the Media speaks for the people, represents the interests of the society, and serves as a check on the government. This process holds government accountable; makes visible what it is doing, so that people can judge. As an important source of public information Media could be expected to be a vehicle to encourage the promotion of the principles of good governance. Article Seventeen (Promoting Good Governance Role of Media) and Eighteen (Freedom of Mass Media in Bangladesh: A Quest for Legal Barriers) focuses on role of media in governance and the situation of media regarding freedom and its legal barriers. It is unanimous that a proper legal regulation is of prominent necessity and cannot go unnoticed to prevent the underlying threat hidden in unleashing power of mass media to affect the very society. Therefore the question may arise how much restraint is to be imposed

to ensure filtration of harmful information from crude one? The objectives of this chapter are to explore when such imposition would be considered as exaggerate and what types of amendments should be made for the well protection of Mass Media in the context of Bangladesh. The final article of this part (Emerging Digital Culture of Bangladesh and in Higher Education) investigates the role of digitalization regarding the higher education in Bangladesh.

Part Three of the book discusses about Entrepreneurship, E-Governance and Digital Culture. It includes Articles. Article 20 assesses the Status of E-Services Delivery in Bangladesh through Content Analysis of Selected Government Websites. The article compares and contrasts the functionality and maturity of e-services provided on the National Online portal, District portals, Ministry and Departments' websites. The author of the paper argues that whilst significant steps have been made in the development of e-government in Bangladesh since the early 2000s, key challenges remain in the delivery of user-friendly and customer-oriented web-based e-services to citizens. The next article (Information Technology and Changing Practices of Management: A Study on Small and Medium Scale Industries of Bangladesh) discusses about the Small and Medium Scale Industries of Bangladesh in terms of using Information Technology and Changing Practices of Management. It focuses on the importance of small scale industries in the national economy and use of Information Technology by the SME's. The chapter argues that Bangladesh is travelling over the information super highway in this information technology era. But the use is confined with only some communication purposes and which has no relation with the spreading of business by the SME's in Bangladesh. Article 22 (Understanding Citizen's Intention to Use Mobile Government Services in Bangladesh: Role of Perceived Good Governance and Less Corruption) aims to understand the factors influencing the citizen's intention to use Mobile Government services by using the UTAUT as a based theoretical model. Citizen's perceived good governance and less corruption is considered as an additional factor that influences their intention to use m-government services. Article 23 (Bureaucracy and E-government: A study of e-Procurement initiatives in Bangladesh) presents a case study on the Bangladesh public sector e-procurement implementation process, based on a study of e-procurement initiatives across four government ministries. It explores the role of bureaucracy in implementing e-procurement in Bangladesh. Overall, the chapter offers a tentative framework to make the role of bureaucracy effective towards successful e-procurement. The final paper (The Role of Union Information and Service Centers (UISC) In Developing Entrepreneurship) evaluates the role of Union Information and Service Centres in Bangladesh in developing entrepreneurship among rural youths catalysed by the Public-Private Partnership (PPP). Contrary to engaging full grown entrepreneurs the UISC has employed local youths with limited or no business skill with less ability to invest. Hence, understanding the issue of entrepreneurship attains significance for its implications for the sustainability of the model.

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Part One
Public Policy, Administration and
Governance

1. Public Service Delivery and Multi-level Governance: Politics and the Room for Innovation¹

Subrata K. Mitra

Introduction

Working at a frenetic pace, the indefatigable Mr Narendra Modi, India's recently elected Prime Minister has made public service delivery an important part of his mission. Wielding a broom on one occasion and a shovel on another, he has been personally at the forefront of *swachha bharat abhiyan* – the clean India movement. The Union government, the first to rule with the backing of a majority in the Lok Sabha since nearly three decades, has already taken several initiatives in this direction.

Where does the salience being attached to public service delivery come from? Thanks to the global flow of culture, the delivery of public services has become a key indicator of good governance, and a major status symbol. A robust democracy, with a citizenry well served with basic necessities attracts the flow of capital, tourism and high global ranking. International conventions to which most states today are signatories, set human development² as the basic minimum criterion of civilised life. The conventional profile of the nation state – as regulator, rule-maker, watchman and provider of last resort – stands challenged today by the new international norms such as universal and basic human rights, the 'obligation to protect', the 'coalition of the willing', that make it possible for the global civil society to skip over the nation state and reach out directly to the vulnerable sections of the society, refugees on the march, and in some cases, the victims of state violence. As such, as much for the need to protect national autonomy as to ensure legitimacy, modern states, can ill afford to ignore public service delivery.

¹ Keynote address, prepared for presentation at the International Conference on Governance and Innovation: Business, Society and Environment in Developing Countries, 19-20 December 2014, BARD Comilla, Bangladesh. I would like to thank Radu Carciumaru for his excellent research backup and critical reading of the earlier drafts, and Mobasser Monem, Rahul Mukherji and Jivanta Schoettli for their very helpful comments. The current text is part of a larger project. Readers are welcome to communicate with me at mitra@uni-heidelberg.de

² The Undp Has Set The Following Eight Objectives As The Millennium Development Goals For 2015: Eradicate Extreme Poverty And Hunger, Promote Gender Equality And Empower Women, Reduce Child Mortality, Improve Maternal Health, Combat Hiv/Aids, Malaria And Other Diseases, Develop A Global Partnership For Development .

These, then, are the multiple challenges that face the state in Modi's India, as the country seeks to find what it considers its rightful place in global ranking. The article responds to this general challenge of public service delivery through an exploration of the room to manoeuvre of the state within the existing institutional arrangement and to innovate new linkages, institutions and partnerships. The paper proposes a new model of *innovative governance* based on multi-level governance, to enhance public service delivery. The article illustrates this model through some case studies from India and concludes with some general lessons of the Indian case, particularly (but not exclusively) for South Asian and transitional societies.

Risk, Incentives, Social Recognition and Innovation in Public Service Delivery

India's record in providing basic literacy, primary education, life expectancy or income is not significantly better than non-democracies like China. Countries where democracy has not fared as well as India are not far behind either. A standard response to this finding is the ubiquitous argument that India lacks political will (Barrington Moore 1968); that there is pervasive corruption, or for that matter, Indian culture is caste-bound, lacking in entrepreneurship. These observations are not very helpful for deeper, policy analysis for two reasons. First, if Indians are lacking in political will, are corrupt and non-entrepreneurial, why does the record in public service delivery vary so radically within the country? Secondly, if these three sets of factors constrain progress in public service delivery in India, why does incremental change for the better take place anyway?

Instead of these macro phenomena such as pervasive corruption or lack of political will, I argue that in the local and regional context, a lock-in of patronage-driven power-sharing and vote-harvesting might produce coalitions of dominant interests that do not stand to gain from public service delivery. In fact, accelerated public service delivery might empower potential opponents of their rule which, thanks to the fig-leaf of democratic rhetoric, can co-exist with great deprivation of sections below them in social status. We discuss in this section some factors that, alone or in combination, account for efficient public service delivery.

Innovation

Effective public service delivery requires a spirit of innovation. Mulgan and Albury (2003: 3) define innovation "as new ideas that work". "To be more precise", they add, "Successful innovation is the creation and implementation of new processes, products, services and methods of delivery which result in significant improvements in outcomes efficiency, effectiveness or quality." Incentives for individuals and teams are important. What motivates innovation? Mulgan and Albury (2003: 24) add, "Additional monetary reward is less powerful as a motivator for innovation in the public sector. Recognition, especially by peers, is more effective. The person or team whose innovation is adopted widely feels a sense of pride

and contribution to public service and the creation of public value. The identifying of ‘beacon’ schools, hospitals and local authorities feeds on these motivations, as well as encouraging the lateral spread of good practice by creating new networks around the best. Formal prizes and awards also have their place.”

The final argument of Mulgan and Albury (2003: 27) for innovation is: “beware of best practice: one size seldom fits all”. “...public expectations are increasingly that services will be tailored to personal and local needs ... innovation takes place in highly differentiated organisational and local contexts. But there is a further reason for being cautious about the universalisation of ‘best’ practice. Even on the basis of robust evidence, standardisation reduces the ability of services and systems to innovate to meet future unforeseen and unforeseeable circumstances. A level of diversity is necessary for robustness against the future. For example, the widespread use of antibiotics in health care may have both created antibiotic-resistant conditions and inhibited the development of alternative approaches to disease prevention and treatment.”

Partnership Functions of the State

For effective public service delivery, the state needs to get off its Westphalian heights and re-conceptualise its role as striking a balance between the sovereign function and the collaborative function. Three propositions by Entwistle and Martin (2005) reinforce the argument about the ‘collaborative role’ of the state (Figure 3) as a catalyst for accelerated, regular and sustained public service delivery. These are: “...by encouraging trust, partnership reduces conflict in relational exchange” (p. 237); “...partnership unlocks the distinctive competencies of other sectors”³ (p. 238), and “transformation delivers a transformational approach to service improvement.”

What leads to innovation? Kamarck says that “frustration with the status quo, financial or political crisis, an emphasis on results or the possibilities of new technology have led public sector employees to engage in innovative behaviour.” (Kamarck 2003: 3) The important point here that the government should be receptive to and supportive of the idea of innovation. of course, it helps to have a government with a solid majority as opposed to a government based on a tenuous coalition arrangement of partners that are constantly bickering.

³ Citing the experience of the Department of Transport, Local Government and the Regions (DTLR), Entwistle and Martin (2005, p. 238) add: “...strategic partnering can provide access to new skills, resources and ways of doing things allow for innovation (DTLR 2001, p. 3). By working with business, local authorities can, it claims, access new funds for capital investment, benefit from economies of scale, bring in managerial, technical or professional expertise, develop more flexible approaches to service provision, and share risk.”

Kamarck (2003) provides further valuable insights into what leads to innovation. Innovation, both in the private sector as well as the public sector “disrupts established relationships and behaviours. Innovation, therefore, requires imagination and courage. But in the private sector innovation can often result in large financial rewards and greater market share. Thus people in the private sector have tended to value, promote, and invest in innovation. This is largely not so in public sector. There financial rewards from successful innovation are likely to accrue to the state, not to the individuals involved in the innovation. And since the public sector has traditionally been a monopoly provider of many goods and services, people in the public sector have had little incentive to engage in, much less invest in, innovation.” (Kamarck 2003: 2)

Why Strategic Reforms Fail to Materialise Sometimes?

Picking up the thread of the previous argument, let us ask once again, why does strategic reform not happen always? Local autonomy can conceal locally entrenched interests whose feathers a weak government would be loath to ruffle. A bipartisan consensus might prevail over protecting the status quo, and the bureaucracy, in the name of neutrality, might actually protect profoundly conservative interests.

In the final analysis, improving public service delivery requires “creating a government that costs less, requires introducing the notion of productivity into the government and deciding which government pursuits are most important in achieving the objectives of the country.” (Kamarck 2003: 43)

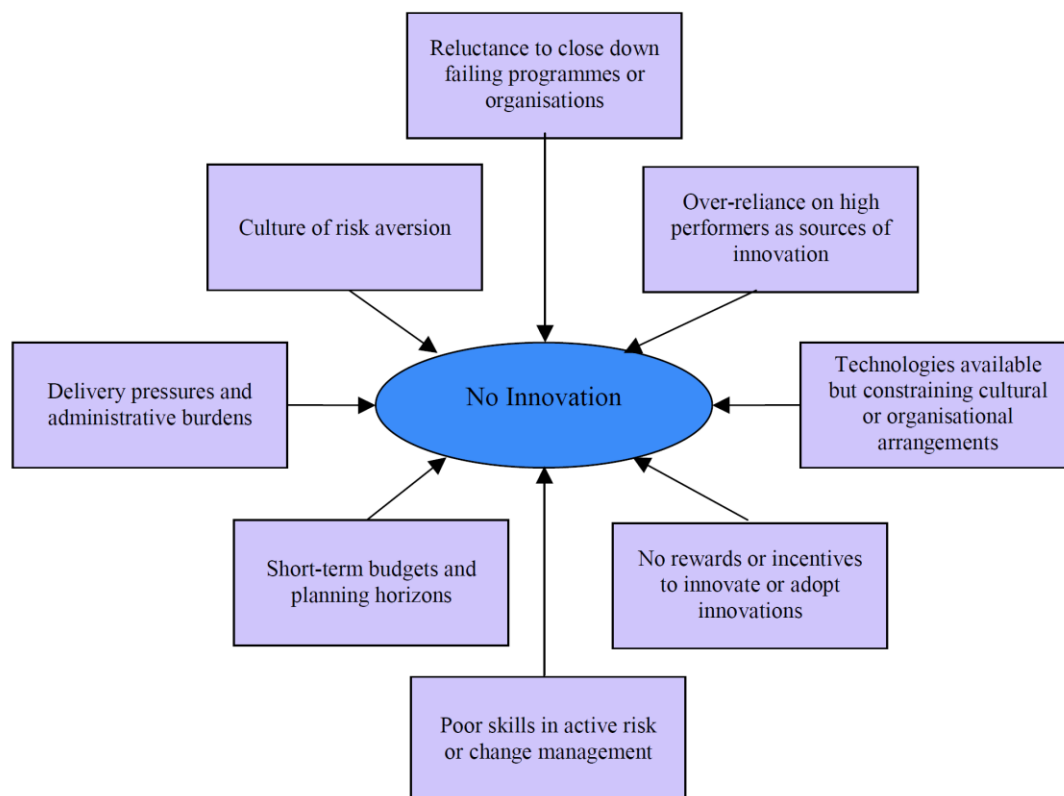
Tumin and Fung (2010: 7) have listed a number of issues and challenges to accelerate public service delivery. These are:

- How do we make change persist? If gov. 2.0 changes the world, how can we assure those changes last administration to administration, and we don't have to reset and start over each time anew?
- How can we use these tools to improve the quality of public services, mobilizing a broad swath of citizens participating?
- How can we accelerate changes and move to a culture of collaboration?
- How can we include legislative and justice institutions for greater collaboration with citizens on improving laws?
- When we open the web for citizen participation, how can we assure not just quantity of input, but quality? How can we sort noise from signal to find the reliable voice – one worthy of designing social systems around?
- What new performance measures and metrics must we invent that reflect the new challenge of management in a shared-mission world?
- Management and politics can have separate agendas and clash. In a web 2.0 world, how do we bring them together for mutual benefit?
- We are learning important lessons already. How do we best translate them into practice to make the changes sustainable?

- Typically, citizens who oppose new measures are the most active. What's the best way to broaden the platform to include all voices, not just amplify the opponents?
- How can IT technologies be brought to a population that is fairly illiterate, so that they will be able to participate in the affairs of the state and policy development of the government?
- When will the voice of the citizens matter again? Gov 2.0 is not enough. We blog about it. We facebook about it. We have all kinds of different websites about these issues. How can we assure that really makes a difference?
- How do you measure success? How do you ensure that innovation and successful programs continue, are iterated upon, enhanced and developed?
- How can individual citizens help influence decisions made at the federal government departmental level in a meaningful way?
- Circumstances may require fast decisions. How do we reconcile that with the requirements and possibilities for transparency and public consultations in a gov. 2.0 world?

For public service delivery, there has to be a sense of incentive, risk and an institutional arrangement that makes sure that entrepreneurs are adequately rewarded for the efforts that they put in. This is what we get from Mulgan & Albury 2003. (see Figure 1, below).

Figure 1: Barriers to innovation



Source: Mulgan & Albury 2003: 31

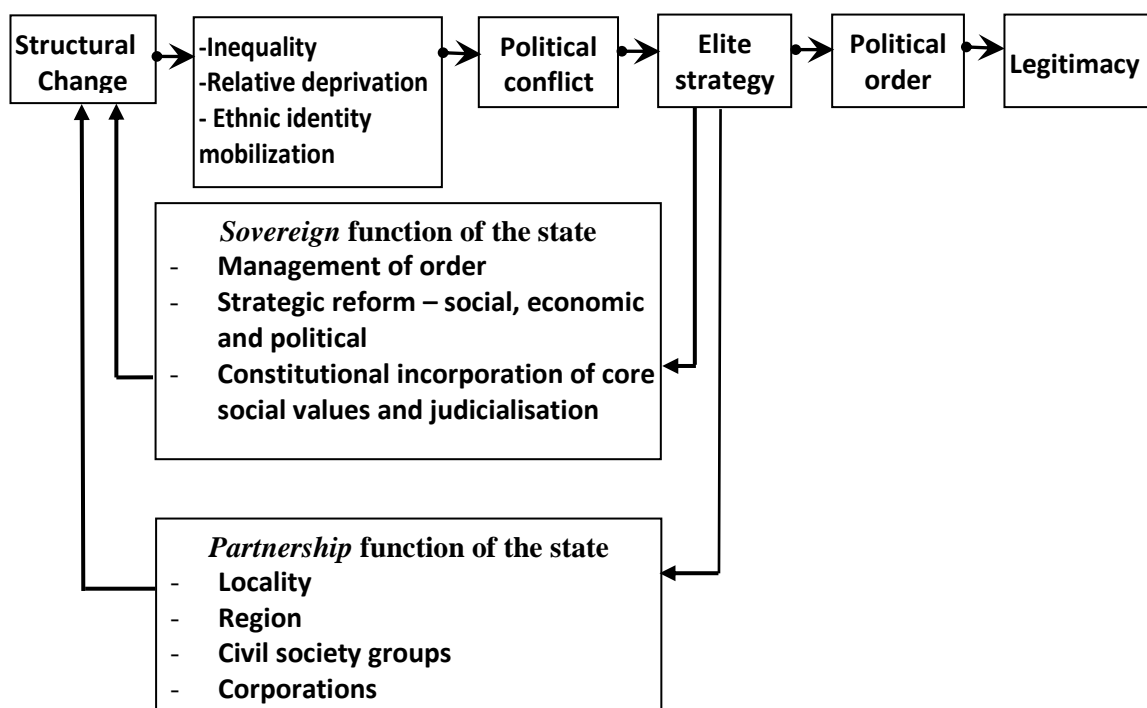
We shall now bundle the ideas that have emerged from the discussions into a set of criteria whose presence greatly facilitates public service delivery. Main among these of course is the capacity of the state to cater to both its sovereign as well as partnership functions.

Innovative Political Institutions and Public Service Delivery

It is important is to ask how one can reach these goals without restricting the freedom of political transaction which is the very basis of electoral democracy. This bears introspection, for democratic empowerment is also part of the cause of the decline of democracy. The ‘rights’ to disrupt parliament, encroach on public space by hawkers and builders of instant temples are seen by these law-breakers as an integral right of Indian citizens. The ship of India’s electoral democracy is not ready for the scrap yard yet: but it needs fixing.

Strategic social and economic reform, within the framework of the Constitution as suggested in Figure 1 above, can vastly enhance administrative efficiency and political legitimacy. Of course, measures like ‘direct cash transfer’ or the ‘Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act’ are bound to raise a trail of political controversy around them, but that is germane to Indian democracy and its political culture of contestation. Some of these innovative ideas are brought together in a new model that adds one further layer to the functions of the state, suggesting a collaboration between the national state with governments at the local and regional levels, as well as the market, civic society and corporations as an optimal way of generating public service delivery. (Figure 2)

Figure 2 : Innovative governance, combining the sovereign and partnership functions of the state



Source: Mitra 2014

The importance of what I have called the partnership function of the state for efficient public service delivery emerges clearly from recent scholarship on Indian politics.⁴ I shall analyse below reports on two recent Indian initiatives – the MGNREGS, intended to generate employment and fight rural poverty, and Social Forestry, aimed at public-private partnership to enhance both social justice and productivity – to track down the combination of circumstances and variables that help augment public service delivery.

Innovative Governance and Public Service Delivery

Over the past decades, attempts have been made in India to introduce policies aimed at enhancing public service delivery. It is neither possible nor necessary to consider the whole spectrum of these initiatives.⁵ The discussion below will focus on two different kinds of innovative policies – the MGNREGS, directly addressed to the issue of poverty and economic justice⁶ – and the other, Social Forestry, which aimed at community-wide asset building.

The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme

The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS), born out of an act of the Indian Parliament in 2005, was meant to re-calibrate the balance of growth and justice.

The Act is quite generous in its provision of work-fare as it guarantees those Below Poverty Level 100 days of employment, or, when work is not available, a money equivalent to the wages. Mukherji and Jha argue that the

⁴ See Robin Jeffrey, “‘Clean India!’ Miles to Go Before We Sweep?” in ISAS Special Report No. 21 – 21 November 2014 Institute of South Asian Studies National University of Singapore

<http://www.isas.nus.edu.sg/Attachments/PublisherAttachment/ISAS_Special_Report_No._21_-_Clean_India_Miles_to_Go_Before_We_Sweep_21112014160828.pdf

At their worst, local governments go to war with each other. In an example from Chennai, one municipality runs a fairly effective waste management programme, including composting and well-designed landfill. A neighbouring council engages in poorly planned, often random dumping, including infringing on the better-managed council’s territory and facilities. Even in New Delhi, officials of its local governments complain that the Government of India, which has overall control of land use in the Union Territory, refuses to release land that would enable comprehensive waste management centres to be established. Disputes such as these end up in the courts with one unit of government bringing cases against another.

⁵ There has been a whole host of new legislation – the Right to Education Act, 2009, the Right to Information Act, the Right to Food... that need careful empirical analysis in order to assess their contribution to the enhancement of public service delivery.

⁶ I am most grateful to Rahul Mukherji for generously giving me access to his unpublished report to the World Bank on which I have drawn copiously in order to assess the relationship of our model (Figure 2) and the real world of public service delivery.

success of the right to employment in Andhra Pradesh depended heavily on the capacity of the sub-national state, especially in the ability of chief minister Reddy to insulate a committed rural development bureaucracy from powerful farmers with a clear interest in thwarting the program. Mukherji and Jha (2014, manuscript) highlight the role of state capacity in working out an architecture that checked corruption – nay even exploited actors in society strategically to achieve ends. They argue that elections in a democracy have the propensity to elevate citizen concern over particularistic populism driven by ethnic considerations that have characterized large parts of India.

The intention to balance growth and justice was based on a calculation of the knock-on effect of a Keynesian pumping money into the country side in order to generate developmental work and local asset-creation. Mukherji and Jha argue:

If the scheme was well-targeted, households in poorer States would presumably demand more work and these States would provide the largest share of employment. However, on this metric, the data presents a damning story. Accountability Initiative's analysis found that in 2010-11, poorer States such as Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh, which together account for 59 per cent of the country's rural BPL population, generated only 34 per cent of employment through MGNREGA. On the other hand, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu, which house eight per cent of the BPL population, accounted for 23 per cent of the total employment generated that year.

An autonomous bureaucracy was central to the achievement of delivering services to the poor. Reddy's ascent to the position of chief minister played a vital role in insulating the bureaucracy from a powerful lobby for farmers and construction workers. Farmers would oppose the right to employment as this would increase wages of workers toiling in their farms. The larger the farmer, the greater would be opposition to employment guarantee. We interviewed one former rural development minister who argued quite forcefully that MGNREGS would stifle the agricultural potential of Andhra Pradesh. We will describe later how village governments needed to be regulated, considering the power of farmers that could be manifested from these governance institutions. The construction lobby was quite powerful too. Powerful ministers wanted MGNREGS funds to be utilized for the construction of roads. The state worked hard to devise a way to make the work enticing for marginal farmers and laborers but un-remunerative for construction companies.

The bureaucracy convinced Chief Minister Reddy that MGNREGS would enjoy excellent electoral consequences if it were insulated from powerful opponents of the program. The insulation of the

bureaucracy from vested interests helped Raju and his team to move very quickly with the design and implementation of the program. They moved so quickly that much was achieved even before the opponents could realize what was in store for them. There was a core team of six government officers who worked tirelessly on this project. The strategy of implementing the program began in Andhra Pradesh around April or May 2005, which was before the act was passed in the Parliament on September 5 2005. Implementation only began in 2006. Considering synergies between the Congress Party in the Centre and in Andhra Pradesh, the bureaucracy was able to pre-empt the act in manner that would lead to speedy successful implementation. MGNREGS implementation began from the first day of the program in Andhra Pradesh.

The Case of Social Forestry⁷

Social forestry represents another kind of initiative, contingent on public-private cooperation, with goals somewhat different from MGNREGS. It was introduced in 1976 by the National Commission on Agriculture in India introduced to encourage those who were dependent on fuel wood, fodder and other forest products, to meet their own needs through various activities, in order to reduce the burden on the Forests (Arnold, 1991). This concept was further refined by FAO in 1978, by defining community forestry as the programme which intimately involved local people in afforestation, irrespective of the pattern of land ownership. While the traditional forestry covered the protection and production roles, social forestry was intended to play the social role. Its primary objective was to generate employment, protect the environment while ensuring basic needs of fodder, fuel and timber. It meant to revive the ‘historical’ functions of the ‘local community’ in the management of ‘their forests’ “for the supply of fuel, fodder, fiber, timber, food and herbal medicines while maintaining an ecological balance. However, with the pressure from growing human and livestock populations, lack of technical skills, poor investments and change in the ownership, forests in India have depleted rapidly over the past five decades. This led to the involvement of rural communities in forestry development during the early 1970s. However, the schemes could not fulfill the objectives due to lack of people’s participation”. “Hence”, Hegde recommends, “the community forestry during the next decade should focus on enhancing the productivity of natural resources, while empowering the local communities”. (Hegde 2010: 11)⁸

⁷ The section builds on a major article on social forestry by *N.G. Hegde*, “Challenges of Community Forestry in India” *Asia Pacific Forestry Research – Vision 2010*. Proc. of the Regional Seminar. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 2000. Mar.26-27, 1999.: 11-20.

⁸ Hegde explains the wishful thinking about the ‘rural community’ that underpinned this programme as part of the reasons of its very moderate success.

Once it became clear that the cohesion of the 'village community' was so much Gandhian nostalgia, a new structure of governance was created. The emphasis was thereafter laid on Joint Forest Management which involved people's organisations to launch tree plantations both on forest and non-forest lands.

This programme emphasized on the formation of Village Forest Committees and capacity building of the committee members to take suitable decisions on afforestation and its protection without any interference from the donor agencies and Forest Department. In spite of its good intentions, the success of the Joint Forest Management Programmes was also dependent on other factors such as productivity of the plantations based on soil fertility and composition of the tree species, demand for the produce, political support and transparency of the project implementing agency. In some states where the government had issued clear directives on the sharing of benefits between the government and local people, the latter had shown greater enthusiasm, resulting in a higher degree of success.

In spite of major setbacks, the Government of India has emphasized that those community forestry programmes which aim at conserving the natural resources should address the problem of poverty (MOEF, 1992). It was realised that the community forestry could not solve all the problems of the rural communities, although it had good potential to support the rural economy. There was a need to involve the local communities for planning the programme till they developed suitable interventions to fulfill the goals (Arnold, 1991).

The key task for successful implementation of the programme in the future was to understand the socio-economic aspects of the local population and design a suitable technical programme to ensure sustainable development. The programme should have a strong component of extension for motivating the participants. The extension programme should highlight the benefits of various schemes through effective media, such as radio, TV, documentary films and newspapers. However, as most of the farmers were

It was the traditional wisdom and joint responsibility of the communities that enforced necessary rules and regulations on the local people for sustainable management of their forests. However, with increasing growth of human and livestock populations and a shift in the ownership of natural forests from the princely states to the Federal Government, the control and moral pressure on the local population was relaxed, leading to indiscriminate abuse of forests since the middle of this century. Unable to meet their basic needs from agriculture, many unemployed and poor families turned to forests not only for fodder and fuel, but also to generate cash income through sale of wood and other forest products. Vested interests also took this opportunity to exploit forests for commercial purposes. (Hegde, op.cit.)

illiterate, involvement of local leaders, members of the village *Panchayats*, progressive farmers, school teachers and voluntary agencies was most effective in ensuring better people's participation and adoption of new technologies (Hegde, 1993).

For a more robust and positive view of social forestry, consider the following report by a team of Karnataka specialists:

A study on the awareness level and perception of the farmers of Dharwad, North Karnataka was conducted by government social forestry programme. Majority of the respondents were, young, studied up to high school had agriculture as their main occupation, had high social contacts, were aware of the extension programmes and were exposed to the mass media. From the data it was revealed that majority of the farmers had a view that social forestry helped to reduce soil erosion (98.4%), check air pollution (96.8%), provide wood for making farm implements (96.0%), fodder for cattle (96.0%) and forest products like fruits, medicinal plants etc (94.4%). As many as 94.4 per cent farmers opined that it was a good programme to convert wasteland for forestry purpose. Contrary to it, some farmers did not favour the programme as it lacked subsidy factor (52.0%), its benefits reached only the big farmers (60.0%) and the programme was not as much paying as agriculture (77.6%).⁹

The case material analysed in this section was meant to show that public service delivery – whether in fulfilling basic needs or creation of public assets – can work if there is a proper conflation of the state as watchdog and state as partner, and, positive attitudes towards risk, innovation and rewards. The section below considers the new initiatives of the Modi regime in the light of these past experiences.

Conclusion

Public Service Delivery and the Deepening Electoral Democracy

The limitations electoral democracy with regard to the provision of public services that I have analysed in this essay could be an opportunity to engage in some serious institutional re-designing that would help protect the gains of democratisation while moving democracy to the next step towards major social and economic reform without in any way reneging on consent as the basis of all authority which is the canon of electoral democracy. India's transition to democracy has been brought about through a political process ensconced in a hybrid political culture that dovetails modernity and

⁹ S Devendrappa, Syed Sadaqath and Sarwamangala Patil, "Awareness and perception of farmers about social forestry programme implemented by the government" Directorate of Extension, University of Agricultural Sciences, Government of Karnataka.

tradition. At the heart of the political process are hinge institutions like the Supreme Court, the Election Commission, the Parliament and a few others that seek to generate a level playing field where power can be shared by a constantly increasing body of stakeholders who constitute India's political community.

The progress of India beyond the low level of public service delivery is contingent on bold experiments in innovative public services, multi-level governance and collaboration of the state with the locality, region, the market and civil society groups. Further questions, relevant to this theme that have not been taken up in this article but deserve our careful attention include the institutional innovations needed to make political parties, civil servants and NGOs¹⁰ more effective as crucial cogs in the wheels of public service delivery.

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2. Good Governance in Bangladesh: A Post-Colonial Encounter

Md. Mizanur Rahman
Md. Alauddin

“Those who know the English colonies abroad know that we carry with us our pride, pills, prejudices, Harvey-sauces, cayenne-peppers, and other Lares, making a little Britain wherever we settle down.”

— W. M. Thackeray, *Vanity Fair*

Introduction

The European colonies are no more. Decolonization process has produced independent nation states worldwide. But the lasting impact of colonialism has not dried out yet. Edward Said rightly pointed out that the past is rarely over and done with but haunts the present (Said, 1994). The colonial past has taken multiple forms in different cultural geographies in post-colonial nation states, particularly in global south.

Taking advantage of globalization and liberal economy, western countries export numerous developmental projects globally through transnational organizations. Scholars often define the process as neo-colonialism. Kothari (2006) asserted that development in the mainstream is a neo colonial project of modernity. Similarly, Lumumba-Kasongo (2011) argues that neo-colonialism as the ideological extension of colonialism in a different historical period and political context implying some sort of physical and institutional control over a region. However, since 1990s good governance started dominating in developmental vocabulary of Post-colonial states, albeit governance indicators in these countries remained unchanged. If so, what went wrong?

The present paper delves to problematize the underlying facets of good governance from a post-colonial world view, illustrating the state of governance in Bangladesh. Through the clarification of good governance as a concept and its present status in Bangladesh, we proceeded on analyzing the colonial impact on the administration and governance in the country. Besides, the roadblocks in the way to good governance have been identified and critically analyzed, crystallizing both global and internal dimensions.

Conceptualizing Good Governance

Traditionally, the term governance was employed interchangeably with government. Today, the concept governance accommodates a network of partners from both inside and outside the government, where private organizations and civil society take a dominant role. Frederickson and Smith

(2003) maintain that governance refers to lateral and inter-institutional relations in administration in the context of the decline of sovereignty, the decreasing importance of jurisdictional borders and a general institutional fragmentation. In similar vein, Rhodes (1997, 15) clarifies that governance “means that there is no one centre but multiple centers, there is no sovereign authority because networks have considerable autonomy”. However, governance means the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented) which can apply to corporate, international, national, local governance (UN ESCAP, 2009).

Good governance which was used for the first time as synonym of normative governance is epitomized by predictable, open and enlightened policy making; a bureaucracy imbued with professional ethos; an executive arm of the government accountable for its action; and a strong civil society participating in the public affairs; and all behaving under rule of law (World Bank Report, 1993). Bilney defines Good governance as means of the effective management of a country’s social and economic resource in a manner that is open, transparent, accountable, equitable” (Bilney, 1994, p-17). Good governance can be summarized in ensuring six indicators: Voice and Accountability, Political Stability and absence of violence, Government Effectiveness, Regulatory Quality, Rule of Law and Control of Corruption. Since the idea is what ought to be done, a fundamental way to implement is to ensure a strong and more effective state.

State of Governance in Bangladesh

The modern system of governance in Bangladesh has evolved under the British colonial rule which was based on systematic classification, defined structure, merit-based recruitment, regular salary system, institutional training, and so on while characterized by elitism, secrecy, centralization, formalism, rigidity, and social isolation (Haque, 1999). The existing administration or governance in Bangladesh is following the global ideological transition to a neoliberal regime which is substantiated by neoclassical theories and neomanagerial practices. Like other developing countries, Bangladesh has been adopting massive policy reforms in its state mechanism under various structural adjustment programs. In Bangladesh, the government has endorsed the globally popular initiative known as “good governance”—especially under the auspices of the WB and the IMF—which recommends a smaller public sector and a stronger government-business relationship (Zafarullah, Khan and Rahman, 1997).

In showing the governance scenario of South Asia, Rehman commented “South Asia is united by a common thread of ‘misgovernance’ (Rehman, 2000). The governance situation of Bangladesh is not so expectant. Bangladesh has been considered as ‘a weak state with strong society’ or ‘a society without citizens’ (Wood, 1997). It was rightly stated by (Lewis, 2011) that the society of Bangladesh is so strong but the services provided

to its citizens are so poor. Same picture is reflected in the work of Khan and Ara (2006) who maintained that both political and public officials in Bangladesh are not accountable and decision-making process is not transparent. The parliamentary government has been far away from satisfactory and corruption is a big obstacle of social mobilization.

Impact of Colonialism in the Governance of Bangladesh

The impact of colonialism is not over with the decampment of colonizers. Instead, it has lasting impression to the collective imagination of the colonized. The situation becomes more complicated in cases where the withdrawal of colonial rule does not lead to independence but to mere replacement of one by another dominant power (Huque 1997, 15). Albeit having positive impacts of colonialism on the post-colonial nation states, the leaders of independent states often follow the paths left by the colonial masters to rule their own people. Governments often become repressive, and strict control is exercised in the name of law and order.

Present Bangladesh has been the part of the British Empire for two centuries and subsequently, ruled by Pakistan repressively for twenty four years. The country came into being through the bloody battle in 1971. But the impact of colonialism has remained on various aspects, mainly in the mechanisms of governance. Bureaucracy, who was sacred, isolated from the people to apply absolute power over the people in colonial period, has remained more or less unchanged. C. H. Kennedy (1987, 29-31) rightly pointed out that the bureaucratic structure which evolved to meet the competing needs of colonial administration and the aspirations of Indians to enter the civil service, had remained essentially unchanged.

Therefore, the bureaucrats of eastern wing of Pakistan perceived exclusion from its rightful share of power was a contentious issue and seen as a manifest injustice (Jahan 1972). Consequently, majority of them actively participated in liberation war of 1971 and ventured to reap the maximum benefits after the war. The factionalism among the public officials emerged, corruption climbed hugely, consequently, many bureaucrats became business personalities overnight. As the government faced numerous problems in the first few years of independence, efforts to streamline the system of administration could not be seriously undertaken. Although attempts were made to establish a responsive and responsible machinery of administration, in the face of strong opposition from the bureaucracy, the Report of the Administrative and Services Reorganization Committee in 1972 could not be implemented (Khan 1987).

Consequently, the training of the bureaucrats and structure of the governance remained in a way that produces sort of their colonial state of mind. They failed to emerge as the friend of the people, instead, emerged as the ruler of them. Majority of them regard themselves superior to the

civilians, sort of self and other relationship sustained over the years between the officials and citizens. The nature of the bureaucracy inherited by Bangladesh has been summed up by Zafarullah (1987, 459): “It was elitist in composition, narrow in outlook, insulated from the people, and non-responsive to the political leadership, as well as corrupt, antiquated, high-handed, and obsessed with the preservation of its status and privileges”. Despite such strong sentiments among the citizens, successive governments have been unable to curb the power exercised by this group. Furthermore, there have been efforts to win over the support of the bureaucracy in order to continue in power. The relationship between the civil servants and politicians continues to be an issue of concern as both parties argue their respective positions of vulnerability (Ali 1993, 113-23).

Good Governance in Bangladesh: a Post-Colonial Approach

Bangladesh government has prioritized good governance extremely in developmental paradigms. In executing the prescriptions of International Organizations, government has undertaken massive reform schemes of established institutions and developing new bodies since 1990s. But the range of success still remains ambiguous. Therefore, it is worthwhile to interrogate, despite two decades of relentless exertion, why the good governance scenario is in quagmire. We have identified both global dimension and domestic facts behind its stagnation.

Good Governance and Global Governance

Good governance in developing countries is not alien to global governance. It is argued that good governance is a tool of the powerful used against the powerless in the name of global development. Therefore, the development projects of the west undertaken in the developing countries under the ambit of area studies are the instruments of neo-colonialism. Hamid Dabashi (2009) argues that today’s area studies projects of the west are typically oriental reapplication of knowledge production. In colonial era, knowledge on the orient was used to produce to sustain colonial power and today, it is employed to fulfill their imperial ambition. Dabashi calls it the ‘empire without hegemony’ (Dabashi 2009, 213). Similarly, Ranger concludes that “colonial Africa was much more like post-colonial Africa than most of us have hitherto imagined. And its dynamics have continued to shape post-colonial society” (Ranger 1996:280, cited in Cheeseman 2006).

In order to understand how colonialism and development relationship is played out, it is suggested here that the shift from colonialism to development represents a process involving a redistribution of ideas, institutions, and people. Put differently, it involves the redistribution of power, control, and knowledge. Within such a ‘redistribution’ local officials and power holders, ‘westernized’ through their education and training, also

act simultaneously as powerful transmitters of colonizing ideologies and as agents of change (Kothari 2006).

The links between colonialism and contemporary international development have recently, albeit belatedly and partially, been identified in the development literature particularly through post-colonial analyses (Sylvester, 1999). These and other post-colonial analyses understand both colonialism and development as projects of modernity and progress, in that both concepts reassert the dichotomies and classifications of 'other' and 'difference' that justify their Interventions (Said, 1994).

The intervention is primarily justified through the politics of foreign aid. Developed countries offer aid to the developing countries to improve the governance indicators, not without structural change of course. They impose conditions, which often end up as counterproductive to the genuine development of the aid receivers. Sometimes they prescribe homogeneous policies of the reforms, structural development for all the countries, regardless of their cultural and historical heterogeneity.

For example, like other developing countries, international development agencies provide wisdom and financial supports to Bangladesh to ensure good governance. They particularly have recommended for passing new laws, amending existing laws and capacity building of the institutions. For instance, major funding agencies have funded in the projects of capacity building of national human right commission, election commission, anti-corruption commission and so forth. These initiatives are obviously much appreciative. Still it is relevant to ask: will the institutions succeed unless both citizens and employees of the institutions realize the need and applicability of institutional reforms as institutions are developed in light of the western concept not taking the indigenous cultural facets on board? Mamdani (1996) rightly shows, 'native' institutions were created by colonial rule and did not signify the end of colonial administration. A personal experience, while accomplishing internship with national human rights commission, June- July' 2013, shows that developmental organizations' effort to train up the officials through sophisticated foreign trainers often become futile as trainees are found nonchalant to the pressing national issues. The scenario emerges due to two fundamental causes: the methodologies and language of the experts seem alien to them and the poor education they received in educational institutions. But we notice, majority of the finances of the projects are spent in experts' salaries and logistics they require. K Krishna Prasad claims that 70 per cent of this money goes to people in the aid giving country either in the best case for so-called experts or in the worst case for buying goods made in the industrialized countries (Prasad 1997, 2594). Besides, the education system in Bangladesh is too weak to produce quality human resources.

In addition, the experts of good governance working in the post-colonial nation states are hired from the west without having any experience of working with the local people. Their placement criteria are no less than that of the colonial period. Groups of British development professionals in the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, the British Council, the DFID, and in international organizations such as the World Bank, the UNDP, and the International Monetary Fund, continue to reside overseas, with often similar criteria for employment and placement as their colonial predecessors Kothari (2006, 129). Uma Kothari further shows how the colonial administrators are hired in international aid agencies for the developmental projects of third world countries and their experiences of colonialism are used in neo-colonialism. She argues that colonial officers and development consultants epitomize that justify the conceptual and empirical separation of the moment of colonialism and that of international development.

Colonial Administrative Culture and State of Mind

As far as the definition and the principles of good governance concern, albeit debated and not universal as shown, mass participation and responsiveness are regarded as the key to success. It assures that corruption is minimized, the views of minorities are taken into account and that the voices of the most vulnerable in society are heard in decision making. It is also responsive to the present and future needs of society (unescap.org). Citizens' access to public authority and the presence of a monitoring regime to check how authority is exercised are important requirements for good governance (Alam and Teicher 2012).

How much citizens' access to public authority is visible in developing countries? In general it is negligible. Governance in Bangladesh has not succeeded in accomplishing public confidence owing to endorsing inequality in service. Evidently, the voice of the subaltern is subdued in decision making. Paradoxically, in one hand, government with the corroboration of transnational organizations uttering the rhetoric of good governance, on the other rarely approaches are made to accommodate the public voice in policy formulations. We observe two major causes:

First, the bureaucratic mindset is not pro-citizen. As soon as they accomplish offices, a different state of mind sets up. They start thinking themselves superior to the other. Consequently, the way office bearers treat to the people is not dissimilar to the colonial administrators' behavior towards the colonized. In post-colonial novels we notice the typical oriental behavior of the colonial masters. We see how Ronny in E M Forster's *A Passage to India* and U Po Kyin in George Orwell's *Burmese Days* treat the native people. The masters are faultless while the servants are always faulty. Orwell (2009, 126) points out: "we always talk of them (natives) as though they had sprung up from ground mushrooms, with all their faults readymade. But when all's said and done, we are responsible for their existence."

This mindset does not develop automatically. The administrative structure, bureaucratic trainings are simply colonial reproduction. Structurally, high officials are kept isolated from popular sight. An invisible wall constructed and they are deliberately encompassed by the elites. Therefore, the governance agenda is not driven by demand from below, but by pressure from development partners from above.

Second, the administrative culture designed for good governance is without the indigenous cultural ingredients. Being unconscious regarding self and culture, elite administrators just execute prescribed tools built in strange culture, in esoteric language by alien people. African author Ngugi Wa Thiong'o in his fiction *Decolonizing the Mind* depicts how neo-colonialism emerged and sustained in African states using the language and culture as a tool of domination. He says: "The bullet was the means of the physical subjugation. Language was the means of the spiritual subjugation" (Thiong'o 1986).

Therefore, for better governance in Bangladesh, mindset of the public offices requires to be decolonized. Authority must accommodate free thinking and spontaneous participation in decisions avoiding superior-inferior dichotomy. Franz Fanon rightly said, "No attempt must be made to encase man, for it is his destiny to be free" (Fanon 2005). He includes that in a post-colonial state governance, a whole set of rights and responsibilities for citizens is to be judged authentic and it must be open, accountable, and participatory. He wished to see democracy and equality practiced in daily life, not just every four years or so: in factories, administrative offices, cooperative farms, schools and universities, as well as within the small army and large militia forces (Adam 1993).

With the change of personal self, both rulers and citizens, the administrative culture has to be transformed. Modern culture and language need to be negotiated with the traditional. The space of using language as the means of the spiritual subjugation by the elites must be removed. The responsibilities of civil societies and intellectuals are prime in ensuring governance within native culture through mass participation. Ngugi claimed that neo-colonialism sustains with the consensus of the academics, judiciaries and intellectuals. Therefore unless they fan the fire of revolt against oppression and raise, general people won't get their voice. Similarly, Fanon expects these revolutionary intellectuals to avoid the capital city and live among the rural masses (Adam 1993). Ethuin (2013) urges for principles of humanity and mutual respect of cultures seem to be basic ingredients to develop ideas of good governance that are free from Eurocentric prejudice and non-Western malapropism. Hence, culture of governance must take under massive transformation through establishing harmony between modern as well as self and cultural. People can enjoy the positive humanistic, democratic, and revolutionary elements in literatures and cultures and without any complexes about their own language, their own self, their environment (Thiong'o 1986).

Conclusion

The paper has traced out the practical problems faced in executing good governance from post- colonial landscape. It observes the lasting colonial impact in the imagination of the governance, counterproductive to the good governance goals. The cardinal features of good governance such as mass participation and responsive decision found missing in the psyche of isolated, pro- elitist bureaucrats. We have shown two fundamental facts responsible for present scenario: first, the good governance project itself is the product of neo- colonialism project and second, the mindset of the administrators reflects the colonial shadow.

We have shown the clandestine objectives of the global North sustaining their dominance over the South through these projects and how foreign aids taken away by hiring their experts and forcing to buy logistics. Structurally, the training methodology and administrative culture of Bangladesh remain in the shadow of colonialism. Consequently, public officials do not treat the citizens as friend, rather ‘the other’. Like the colonial administrators, they regard themselves superior and isolate within the so called elites. Evidently, decision made by them serve the interests of the haves, not the have nots. Against these back drop, we urge to situate good governance in Bangladesh not imposed by the global south, but within native cultural, through home grown experts. We want the bureaucratic mindset decolonized, administrative decisions pro- citizen through mass participation.

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3. Public Participation towards the Democratic Governance in Bangladesh

Bibi Morium

Introduction

In general, 'Public Participation' means to involve the public those who are affected by a decision in the decision-making process (IAP2, n. d.). More specifically, it can be defined as the involvement of individuals and groups that are positively or negatively affected by a proposed intervention (like a project, a program, a plan or a policy) subject to a decision-making process or are interested in it. It is nothing but two-way communication and collaboration with the goal of achieving better and more acceptable decisions (Burgess & Malek, 2005). Public participation is a very essential part of democratic governance, especially for good governance (Hussain, 2007, p. 267). In democracy interested or affected citizens, civil society organizations, and government actors should involve before making any political decision. Effective public participation must be multi-faceted (Burgess, 2013). The involvement of stakeholders should be at national as well as local or grass-root levels.

In some jurisdictions the right to public participation is ensured by law (Hart, 2003). Like the same, Bangladesh constitution also gives the citizen of this country the right to participate through article 11 and 59. After independence, around forty four years has passed, there is need to be an evaluation about the state of public participation in democratic governance here. The present research intends to put some light on that issue.

Review of Literature

Aikins (2013) did a research on democratic governance and public participation in Ghana focusing the role of media in the budget preparation process. The study employed qualitative data through interviews as well as review of relevant journal articles, documents and reports. The findings revealed that the media has a positive role of Ghana's democratization. It is also revealed that though government does not provide budgetary information to the public. Here the media remains a medium through which people are able raise to their voice.

Houston (2001) edited a book presenting case studies of public participation in democratic governance in South Africa. This book, examines the voluntary activities by which the public, directly or indirectly, share in the processes of governance through democratic institutions. Blair (2000) analyzes the two topics of participation and accountability on democratic local governance. He studied on six-countries such as Bolivia,

Honduras, India, Mali, Philippines and Ukraine. This research finds that participation has a significant potential for promoting democratic local governance, though there are some important limitations.

Waheduzzaman (2010) directed a research on public participation for good governance focusing rural development program in Bangladesh. This study investigated into the circumstances at the local level and barriers to the process of people's participation in local government bodies. Using qualitative approach, this research revealed problems related to the ineffectiveness of people's participation. Firstly, none of the actors (such as government officials, elected representatives, and local people) was aware of the values of people's participation. Secondly, the mechanisms of people's participation through different management committees are faulty. Thirdly, there is no legal system to ensure people's participation at the rural level. Finally, lack of social capital is hindering true people's participation. Another research he concluded that the notion of good governance through people's participation has been imported from the developed countries through international aid and donor agencies remain in somewhat fashion is unclear and ambiguous in a country like Bangladesh (Waheduzzaman, 2009).

There are several literatures available on public participation in environmental governance. Beierle & Cayford (2010) analyzed cases in which the public have become involved in environmental policy decisions over three decades in USA. In another research Philips and others (2012) critically interrogate and empirically investigate the public participation in the context of scientific and environmental governance. It provides both theoretical and empirical analyses of how 'citizen voices' are brought into being, articulated, invoked, marginalized or silenced in communication processes in scientific and environmental governance.

From the above literature review it is revealed that there are some positive matters that acted on public participation towards the democratic in some countries. But in Bangladesh there are some problems and barriers for which public participation do not work well in establishing democratic governance. According to the best of my knowledge, from the broad angle, the status and the general situation of the country from public participation perspective in Bangladesh are missing. This study is the first of its kind to provide a general picture of the public participation status in the democratic governance in Bangladesh. The results of the research may offer the areas where donors, international development agencies and also the government of Bangladesh need to target to foster public participation in democratic governance.

Objectives

The general objective of this research is to review the present scenario of public participation in democratic governance in Bangladesh. However, for the sake of present study the specific objectives may be identified as:

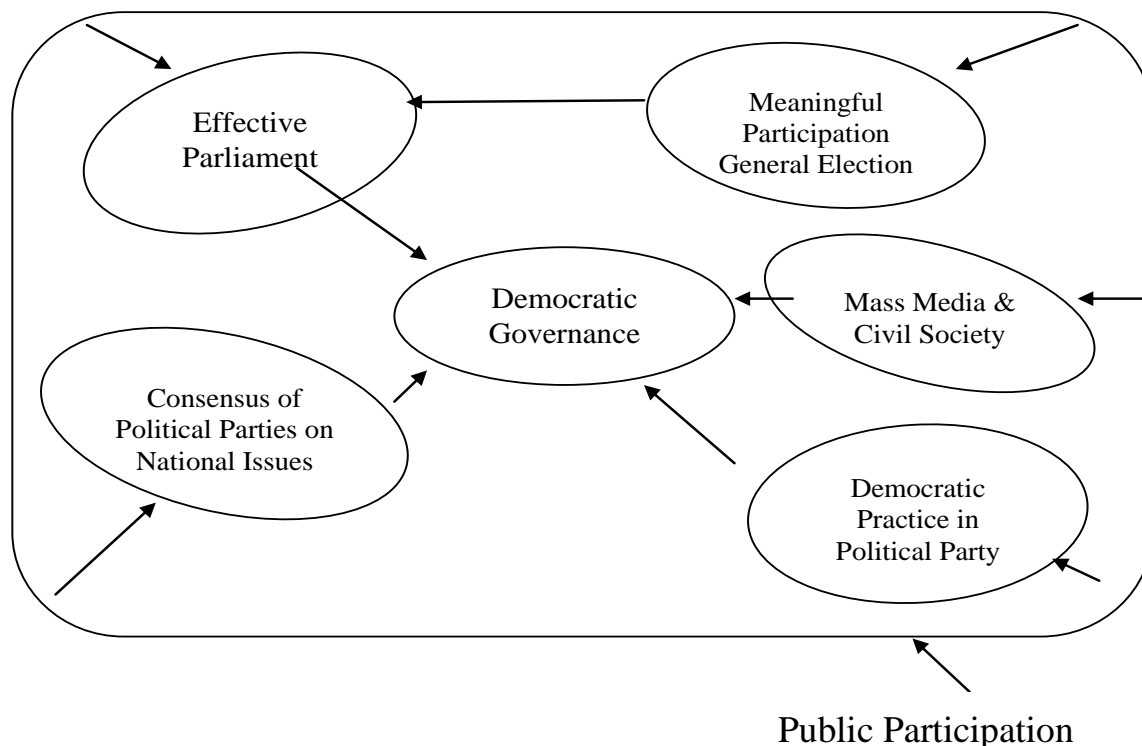
1. To highlight the present status of public participation in democratic governance in Bangladesh.
2. To find out the hindrances related to the public participation towards the democratic governance in Bangladesh.
3. To provide some suggestions to make more effective public participation towards democratic governance in Bangladesh.

Conceptual Framework

There are five broad approaches to study of public participation in political activities (Houston & Liebenberg, 2001: p. 5). The first looks for public participation in electoral process, in political parties and interest groups, in policy making, legislature, budgeting and planning processes, etc. The second approach to public participation examines the benefits and the limitations of public participation. The third examines level/degree of participation in political activities like electoral turnout, campaign activity, etc. The fourth looks at the social variables which influence public participation in political activities and includes studies of socio-economic status, education, environment, race, ethnicity, gender, personality, etc. The final approach examines attitudinal reasons for participation and non-participation and includes studies of apathy and lack of interest, cynicism about political influence, alienation from political system, etc.

This research examines public participation not following any of the above approaches strictly but using mixture of some of them. A conceptual framework for this research is shown in figure 1.

Figure 1: Public Participation in Democratic Governance



Voter's Turnout

General election is one of the important pillars of democracy. The principal officers of government are chosen through competitive election. For a particular country, the public which are registered under country's constitution are known as voters. Voter's participation in the voting process is important ingredient for a sound democratic process. Through their votes the people of that country choose their representatives to form the government and make legislature to rule the country. So, through general election public participation establishes in a democratic society. Therefore, voter turnout could be one of the measures of public participation in democratic governance. It is usually expressed as the percentage of voters who cast a vote (i.e., "turnout") in an election. (Pintor & Gratschew, 2002).

Effective Parliament

In a democracy, parliament is the centre to make policies and laws, and to solve all national problems. It would be effective with the participation of both ruling and opposition parties. Legislation should be passed after a lively and constructive debate between them. Opposition party generally criticizes the act of ruling party, and the ruling party respects opposition's view and corrects themselves accordingly (Mahmud & Morium, 2013). All disputes are settled here on the basis of democratic norms and manners. As the members of parliament are elected through direct public participation (in the general election) so, passing any laws or policies through discussions and debates are nothing but indirect public participation. Moreover, the public can also express their views to their respective representatives directly to inform the parliament. So, lively and working parliament could be another measure of public participation in democratic governance.

Mass Media and Civil Society

The mass-media and the members of the civil society are other important channels those can help to foster public participation in democratic governance (Aikins, 2013). Mass-media can present any national issue through their circulation. The civil society can analyze and express its views from different angles. Both the media and the civil society's analysis create a public opinion regarding that issue. Moreover, they both can express the opinion of public and influence government decision making. If the media and the civil society can influence government decision making then it could be another alternative way of public participation.

Democratic Practice in Political Party

The political party is another important component which is capable of involving large number of people in political action on a sustained and controlled basis (Almond & Powell, 2002, p. 120). Involvement of people may encompass both communication and participation. Party structures, fulfillment of leadership gaps and selection of candidates for the general elections could be recognized as powerful agents for public participation in

this respect. If the leaders and the candidates of the general election are selected democratically then definitely it would be a sort of public participation. Elected members of the parliament would be the true representative of both the party members as well as general public. So, democracy within the political parties would be another important measure for public participation in democratic governance.

Consensus

Tolerance and trust are important guiding principles of democratic governance (Laski, 1937). If there are tolerance and trust then there would be participation. In that respect it involves mutual respect to one another's view and general consensus on national issues. The ruling party and the opposition may have differences on opinions and ideologies but for the good governance there should be some sort of consensus on some important national issues for the welfare of the country. So, the consensus on national issues could be another measure for public participation in democratic governance.

Methodology

This paper uses the literature review method where both qualitative and quantitative data have been used on public participation. The analysis on the condition of public participation in Bangladesh's contemporary democracy had been based on unpublished theses and published books, reports, journal articles, and newspaper analyses, along with personal observations. Those secondary materials are studied in and the findings are discussed in accordance with the sub-headings that are being proposed in the conceptual framework of this research.

Bangladesh is experiencing different types of government since independence. Though initially parliamentary democracy was introduced, she had been under direct or indirect military rule for 15 years (1975-1990). In September 1991 the multi-party parliamentary system was restored. Since then, Bangladesh has officially remained a parliamentary democracy except two years (2007-2008) in the middle again. Considering this, the present research concentrated its activities for the analysis on the period after 1991 to present.

Findings

Public Participation in General Elections

There were six general elections from 1991 to 2014, but two of them (15th February 1996 and 5th January 2014) were controversial where most of the oppositions boycotted the general elections. Excluding those two, the voter's participation rate in 1991 was 55.4 percent, in 1996 was 75.6 percent, in 2001 was 74.9 percent and in 2008 was 80 percent (Table 1). This participation rate in the general elections was more satisfactorily for a nascent democracy like

Table 1: Voter's Turnout in General Elections 1991-2014

Year/Date	1991	15 Feb 1996*	12 June 1996	2001	2008	5 Jan 2014*
Turnout (%)	55.4	21	75.6	74.9	80	22

* *Controversial election where most oppositions boycotted the election.*

Source: Own Creation based on data from Bangladesh Election commission.

Bangladesh. It is also seen that there is an increasing tendency on the participation. In fact people became more aware of their rights and responsibilities in the participation process. This area could be an interesting area of further research for Bangladesh in future. Even comparing with some matured democratic countries of the world the figures for Bangladesh is very much impressive. Countries

Country	Year	Turnout (In percent)
Canada	2000	61.2
France	1997	68.0
India	1999	59.7
UK	2001	59.4
USA	2000	48.5

Source: Pintor & Gratschew, (2002)

like Canada, France, India, UK, and USA have on an average around 60 percent of voter's turnout in their general elections (Table 2) which is less than that of Bangladesh at the same period. So, in this respect to form the parliament, the public participation is very healthy in case of Bangladesh.

Public Participation Through Parliament

There are four parliaments that able to fulfill their usual tenure (five years) from 1991 to 2014 as 5th, 7th, 8th, and 9th parliament. The parliament would be effective with the active participation of both ruling and opposition parties. But, in Bangladesh, this ideal scenario is mostly absent. Opposition usually boycotted the parliament and abstained from the most business session. The boycotted days by the opposition was 34 percent, 43 percent, 60 percent and 78 percent of total working days in the 5th parliament (1991-1996), 7th parliament (1996-2001), 8th parliament (2001-2006) and 9th parliament (2008-2014) respectively. It is interesting that the boycotted days by the oppositions are increasing in the subsequent parliaments. In this respect the picture is very unexpected.

Table 3: Opposition's Parliament Boycott 1991-2014

Tenure of Jatio Sangsad	5 th Parliament (1991-1996)	7 th Parliament (1996-2001)	8 th Parliament (2001-2006)	9 th Parliament (2008-2014)
Total working days	400	383	373	401
Days Boycotted by Opposition (in percent)	34	43	60	78

Source: Researcher's Own Creation

The main opposition does this in protesting that they have no voice in the parliament on a particular issue. Whether their allegations might true or false that could be another interesting area of further research for Bangladesh in future. It is also seen that whether it is a ruling party or opposition, they get near about the same percentage of public support in the general election in which they elected (Table 4). So, from the people's representative perspective both the

Table 4: Vote Cast in favor of Ruling and Opposition in General Election

Party Members	5 th Parliament 1991-1996	7 th Parliament 1996-2001	8 th Parliament 2001-2006	9 th Parliament 2008-2014
Ruling	30.81(BNP*)	37.44 (BAL)	40.97 (BNP)	48 (BAL)
Opposition	30.08 (BAL**)	33.61(BNP)	40.13 (BAL)	38 (BNP)

* *Bangladesh Nationalist Party;*

***Bangladesh Awami League*

Source: Researcher's Own Creation

parties are in almost equal position. Thus, if the opposition's allegation is true, then the ruling party should remember this that the oppositions have almost the same proportion of support of the people as they have. They should not be neglected and the ruling party or the speaker of the parliament has to be more careful on this. On the other hand, the opposition should do their best to make parliament as effective as possible by staying there, not by boycotting it. Another important thing is noticed here that the opposition, who boycotted the parliament, became alternative in each parliament. If one became as the ruling party through a general election another seated in the opposition bench. It has been a continuous process in political arena of Bangladesh. As the tendency to boycott the parliament is increasing in the subsequent parliament so, it seems that they are doing so by taking revenge or making competition on boycott. They are not considering it that they were opposition/ruling party before or they can be opposition/ruling party in future. Overall, it is seen that the parliament becomes ineffective in that sense. Though the members of parliament are the representatives of people but, somehow they are not able to perform effectively in the parliament. So, in that sense the public participation is not happening in parliament so as to democratic governance in Bangladesh.

Public Participation Through Mass-Media and Civil Society

There is huge development in the mass media especially electronic media over the past ten to twelve years in Bangladesh. Forty one TV channels, fourteen community radio and four FM radio stations are running here now. On an average, every hour there is news broadcast in the television channels

along with other general programs. Apart from those, ‘talk show’ comprising experts, political leaders and other members from civil society are also broadcast almost each and every day in each channel on different important issues. Media has been undoubtedly contributing to inform the national issues to people consequently to make public opinion and participation. There are several incidents that prove the media influence in forming the public opinion strongly and the government had to take initiatives. The incident of Rana Plaza tragedy in 2012 and much talked Murder Tragedy of Narayangang in 2014 are two examples where government had to take initiatives to ensure justice.

Though some incident are being noticed by the government but, most of the cases the public participation through media and civil society are being neglected in this respect. Very serious issues are being noticed here these days that both the media and the civil society are biased (Mahmud & Morium, 2013). It is a matter of great regret that journalist community has divided into pro and anti government groups. Members of civil society became biased also because of their links to ruling party or the opposition. News papers are tilted to a particular political party or coalition and the private TV channels are owned by the political business tycoons. As a result, there is an editorial control over all media publications. Moreover, the government is also trying to control it in its favor directly. Two television channels (Diganta & Islamic TV) & one daily news paper (The Dainik Amar Desh) have been stopped in 2013. Even government has taken national broadcasting policy 2014 recently that has some sections to restrict media to operate ostensibly free to criticize government (National Broadcast Policy - 2014, Section 5.1.5). This is also a sign of autocratic suppression and the country is experiencing a bitter idea in press freedom. Recent reports published by different renowned bodies like the New York based *Committee to Protect Journalism (CPJ)* and *BBC Media Action* have also identified Bangladesh as one of the countries facing a strong current of both legal and extra-legal pressure, intimidation and censorship to any media outlet. (Farhana, 2014; BBC, 2014; Taal, 2013).

The Constitution of the Peoples Republic of Bangladesh guarantees freedom of thoughts and expression and the freedom of the media. Even the *Right to Information Act 2009* appears to show freedom of press. But in reality it is something opposite. So, overall it seems that mass media and civil society are not in a congenial atmosphere. They are not playing exact role to increased public participation to make sure good governance in Bangladesh.

Democratic Practice in Political Parties

Political parties establish the links between the public and their representative machineries to the government. For that they select

candidates for the upcoming general election. Theoretically, the candidate should be selected democratically inside the party from the party members, who are popular, experienced, and honest (Mahmud & Morium, 2013). Political parties in countries like UK, USA, France, Switzerland, Sweden and Netherland follow these norms in selecting their candidates. On the contrary, the nomination process is not very transparent here in Bangladesh. Here, the decision comes from the head of the party or from a little bit higher committee that does not follow the rules of democracy. Sometimes nominations are traded in exchange of substantial amount of money to party fund. As a result the dishonest, unpopular, and inexperienced people get entry into political arena. Apart from the candidate selection, most of the important matters inside the party are settled by despotic authoritarian manner (Hussain, 2007, p. 357). It is a great concern over the fate of democracy in Bangladesh and the situation would further worsen in coming days in the absence of democratic practices within the political parties (FE Report, 2014). Thus, it is true to say that public participation in the decision making process inside the political parties is absent in Bangladesh.

Consensus among Political Parties on Issues of National Interest

There are certain issues that are concerned with national interest in Bangladesh. It is a matter of great concern that, there is no consensus and compromise among political parties on those issues. For example, there is no consensus regarding the identity of the people of this country. Bangladesh Awami League (BAL) calls it 'Bangali', while Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP) calls it 'Bangladeshi'. It is unlikely there is no consensus on issues like local government, economic policy of the state, separation of judiciary from executive, foreign policy issues, formation of interim government during general election and so on.

Since 1991, it seems true that when one particular party or alliance gets people's mandate to run the country they take every other thing for granted and in a similar way, the poll losers find themselves completely left out. The party in power tends to ignore the opposition, while the opposition goes on opposing anything and everything the party-in-power proposes (Ahmed, 2004; Mahmud & Morium, 2013). As a result politics become confrontational as the social forces are fragmented and divided. At last, then comes a series of so called anti-government's programs like nationwide strikes. It creates an unfavorable environment for all. Overall, the problems of build a national consensus is creating division within the nation and create a deterrent environment for public participation and is weakening the democratic governance process. Economists, businessman and all sorts of people are urging these days to reach consensus on national issues where government, oppositions, civil society and others will have active participation (Tribune Report, 2013; BGMEA, 2014).

Conclusion

From the current analysis, it can be stated that presently we are still far a way from democratic governance from public participation point of view. Though people are active and they went to take part in the political process, they have no easy way to participate in the political process because the parties are making hindrances always. Public Participation is merely a slogan. It is only a formal term but not practiced in true sense here. Viability of the public participation component of democratic governance in Bangladesh depends mainly on the mentality, culture and practice of both ruling and opposition parties. There are considerable scopes for enhancing participation among them that would lead to public participation in general. For the sake of sustained democracy and for the betterment of the people of our country they need to be more flexible, accommodative and respectful to each other. It is their political will especially on the part of the ruling party that matters to improve the environment of democratic governance.

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4. Governance of Upazila Parishad in the Context of Globalization

Ranjan Kumar Guha

Background

Centralized planning for development allegedly failed to address the diverse need of local areas and decentralization as an alternate planning process attracted the policy planners and practitioners for its successful implementation in several countries. Decentralization helps regional or local level officials to disaggregate and tailor development plans and programmes to the needs of heterogeneous regions or groups (Cheema & et.al, 1983). The need of the citizen is ever changing process especially at the advent of information revolution. Responding to their need efficiently is subject to the capacity and positive attitude of the service delivery institution. Local Government (LG) as a service delivery institution enjoys some advantages along with facing some limitations. The most important advantage is that the elected representatives of the LG institution reside very close to the people, so they are very much acquainted with the need of the local people and local areas. The most important limitation of the LG, especially in Bangladesh is financial stringency. In most cases it was found that the LGs in Bangladesh are mostly dependent on the central government for financial resources to undertake any development initiatives. Globalization, as a process of free flow of information, capital, goods, services and increased number of labour movement across the border has changed the demand of local economy and local people. Role of private initiative for boosting local economy is increasing and people want more quality and hygienic product or services than ever before. Moreover, a lot of service delivery agencies both private and public sectors are the today's reality at the micro level. In this backdrop LG need to be more efficient and innovative to perform its responsibilities. Resources both financial and human are more crucial nevertheless the governance of UZPs deserve special attention for performing the responsibilities in an efficient way. The dictionary meaning of governance is the action or manner of governing a state or organization. (ESCAP), stated that governance is the process of decision-making and (UNDP, 1997) defined governance as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. From the definition it is clear that governance is a process for mobilizing resources by exercising power. Legitimate authority, knowledge, personal charisma, networking capacity of elected person, fund- raising authority and insights on the social dynamics of the elected representatives are the sources of power. The scope of the study was limited to the existing practices of

UZPs for translating the rules into action in managing revenue and development project.

*Upazila Parishad*¹ (UZP), a local government tier at the sub district level was first introduced in Bangladesh in 1982. The system was abandoned after being practiced nine years in the year of 1991. The same was reactivated in the year of 2009 after a long interval. The intension of forming the local government at the sub district level was to ensure desired service to the people with the joint initiative of a democratic institution and nation building departments. The aim of the paper is to describe the governance system of UZP and analyze the role of UZP in the changed economy in context of globalization. Governance in the area of managing revenue and development programme is the special foci of the article. Bangladesh Academy for Rural Development (BARD) undertook several initiatives for facilitating functioning of UZP after its revitalization under the auspices of UNDP, Bangladesh. The initiatives were related to facilitating to prepare five year plans of two Upazilas- Choudagram and Brahmanpara, under Comilla district, documenting the functioning of Homna Upazila, Comilla and organize series of training courses for the elected representatives and some key officials of UZP under Chittagong and Sylhet Division. The published documents of those initiatives and the author's learning obtained from institutional attachment as a faculty member of BARD are incorporated to prepare this paper.

Globalization and Local Economy: Perspective from UZP

Globalization is a broader and macro concept as it goes beyond economic, social and political dimension. The economic dimension of globalization is more pronounced now- a- days due to its visible role on free trade and free movement of capital. How globalization can affect the local economy and what are the transformation channel of globalization from macro to local economy might be more interesting. Five economic dimensions of globalization are identified by (Goldin & Reinert, 2006) as trade, finance, aid, migration and idea. Free flow of information and wider access to information of local people through ICT has empowered citizen with the update information in different area. So, the ICT and several private organizations have replaced the monopoly role of nation building department for disseminating information related to technological innovation. The dominant role of the state in agriculture development

¹ UZP as a self-governing institution is composed of one Chairman and two vice Chairmen- one male and one female, all elected chairman of Union Parishads (UP) and Poursava, if any, under the geographic boundary of UZP are the member of this institution. According to act, one third of women members elected from the reserve seat in UPs and Poursava to be elected as member of UZP. Functions of fifteen nation building departments have been transferred to the UZP for carrying out its activities.

especially input supply is no more visible. Non Government Organizations (NGOs) and private initiative are there for supplying inputs of agriculture. The traditional small and cottage industry in rural areas are not competitive with the commercial production in a large scale. Although government is the main player for providing public goods related to education, health and physical infrastructure, but private imitative for providing education and health services prevails to a some extent in the local areas. Increased role of service and industry sector at the macro economy have encouraged young people to be involved in nonfarm sector and avail the wider opportunity to be employed as foreign remittance earner. The expectation of the people also changed a lot in commensurating with the changed economy. People demand more quality public and private goods and services for enhancing their competitive capacity. On the other hand, people who are not able to take advantage of the globalization due to lack of skill want some support from the government for their survival. The young generation wants more skill training having demand in the market for readjusting their knowledge with the workplace. For boosting industrial base agriculture sector plays important role by supplying rice comparatively cheaper price. But, due to low price elasticity of demand of rice compared to other high valued agricultural product, farmers are less motivated to cultivate rice. On the other hand, due to problem in the high valued agricultural supply chain farmers are not getting their expected share. As a result people expect that the UZPs will perform its responsibility according to their changed desire.

According to act, the UZP is supposed to do 14 functions related to planning, execution, monitoring, supervision, coordination for ensuring effective services to the citizen. The areas of services delivery is focused on delivering public goods related to infrastructure development, small scale irrigation through using surface water, health, nutrition & family planning, sanitation, safe drinking water, and education. Technology transfer and improving productivity in agriculture, small and cottage industry and to the youth labor force is also identified as area of operation for UZP. Facilitating to make formal and informal organization under cooperative department, initiatives of NGOs and supporting vulnerable group of people are other concern of the UZP. UZP is supposed to play vital role in the area of environment protection by considering the impact assessment of environment in every projects (GoB, 2013). Other than the Chairmen of the UZP, the other elected members of UZPs have no power in the routine administrative affair of the UZP. They are empowered to play role in development activities in the form of planning, monitoring, supervising and coordinating. But, it was observed that the other members of UZP especially Vice Chairmen are very much interested to play role in daily administrative affairs rather than their wider scope to be involved in development works.

Fiscal Governance at UZP

The structure of budget of the UZP comprises two overheads i.e. revenue and development fund. As per rule there are various sources for generating own revenue of the UZP but in practice own revenue of UZP mainly limited to the house rent of officials at the Upazila complex, a portion of land transfer fees, land development tax and leasing of *hatbazar* (rural market) & water bodies.. In the year 2010-11, Brhamanpara Upazila Parishad (BUZP) earned Tk. 5 million and Choudagram Upazila Parishad (CUZP) earned Tk 6 million as revenue of its own. More than one half of the revenue comes from land transfer fees. Some UZPs were found to have introduced several areas for revenue collection such as renting out auditorium, leasing of ponds at the UZP complex, and auto rickshaw-stand and providing approval of housing plan within the Upazila Sadar. Due to overlapping of areas of Union Parishads (Ups) between UZP and absence of model tax schedule it is very difficult for the UZP to collect tax from the business initiatives. The major head of expenditure are salary and honorarium, office expenditure, capital expenditures and repairing cost. The UZPs mostly monitor the revenue collection and maintain books of accounts.

The development fund constitutes with the surplus of the revenue fund of previous year and ADP allocation from the central government. CUZP was able to transfer Tk. 0.2 million revenue surpluses to the development fund for undertaking the development projects in 2011-12. Although there is a provision for maintaining a separate account of development fund with the signature of Upazila Cahirman and Upazila Nirbahi Officer (UNO) but the initiative was limited to only own revenue income of the UZP. The revenue budget and development budget of the transferred department comes through respective ministry and Upazila Accounts Office. As a result the UZP has very limited administrative power in those areas. Besides this, there is a another account operated by Upazila Nirbahi Officer (UNO) and Upazila Engineer (UEn) for preserving 1 percent land transferred fees in excess to the UZPs share to provide salary support of the Gram Police of different UPs under the Upazila. The UZPs need to follow guidelines set by the central government for allocating money to different heads and sectors under revenue and development funds respectively. All the expenditure from the own revenue and development fund needs approval from the Chairman of UZP through UNO. The fund of the ADP allocation is placed to the Upazila Accounts Office. The accounts office pays the bill when the same is forwarded through UNO and Upazila Chairman. Lack of full pledged accounts office at the UZP the fund is managed through different office of Upazila.

Governance of Development Programme at UZP

Governance of development programme implies the decision making procedures for managing the development programme at the UZP. Two types of development programmes- one is initiated by the UZP and another

is initiated by national government and implemented by various transferred department are visible in an *Upazila*. The UZP is believed to make a plan to support the programme initiated by own from the development fund of the UZP. The respective UPs and Nation Building Departments are supposed to come with some projects in line with the plan. A project selection committee, headed by Upazila Chairman is involved in screening the projects to be financed in the next year. Then the projects need to be getting approval from the meeting of UZP. A project having less than Tk. 1 lakh is implemented by the Project Implementation Committee (PIC) chaired by an elected person of the respective area. Although more than 16 projects having less than Tk. 1 lakh in a year is not permitted to be implemented by one UZP, but in reality there are some deviations in practice.

Planning at UZP

There is a provision for preparing long and short term plan for every UZP. But, in practice the planning process is ad-hoc in nature and virtually they prepare a list of projects on a quarterly basis after getting the allocation of ADP. Moreover, the UZP is interested to approve several small projects covering all Unions under its jurisdiction. Lack of an adequate database at the local level is also seen, as a major hindrance to proper planning, and efforts require a system of collecting information that would facilitate planning at the local level. The planning process needs to be supplemented with appropriate tools such as PRA in order to identify problems at the grassroots level and to ensure peoples' participation in the planning process (CIRDAP, 1992). (Salehuddin, 1992) put emphasis on training, finance, institutional development and personnel for enhancing planning capacity at the local level. Commitment of the national government to decentralized planning, financial autonomy, framework for integration of multilevel planning, creating a database etc. is also found important.

Lack of initiative, lack of database, lack of capacity and financial limitations are found inhabiting factors to prepare plan. ADP allocation from the central government and surplus amount of revenue budget of previous year of *UZP is the main source of fund for undertaking development projects from its own of UZPs*. UZP is empowered to undertake big projects in one or two sectors by utilizing the ADP allocation for visible development but, it is hardly practiced as UZPs shares the allocation to each Union by supporting their project. The main source for financing development project is the departmental programme or project being implemented by various transferred department. It was found that UZPs has autonomy over 2 and 4 percent of the total development expenditure of the CUZP and BUZP respectively. In most cases it was found that the projects supported by the UZPs are related with the priority areas of national government and developing physical infrastructure and there are lots of duplications with the areas of projects implemented by UPs.

In the year 2010-11 BUZP and CUZP prepared five year plan. The volume of plan is mentioned in Table-01. On that time 13 nation building departments were transferred to the UZPs. The programme of 13 transferred departments is reflected on their plan.

Table 01: Per Year Average volume of Plan of Two Upazila Parishad and Thirteen Transferred Department

	BUZP	CUZP
Area (Sq. Kilometer)	128.90	268.48
Number of Household 2011(in thousands)	38	80
Population 2011 (in Millions)	0.20	0.44
Number of Unions	8	13
Average Revenue Expenditure Per Year (in Million Tk.)	124	256
Average Development Expenditure Per Year (in Million Tk.)	214	582
Average Upazila Parishad Development Fund (in Million Tk.)	8	10
Different Projects of Transferred Department (in Million Tk.)	206	572
	214	582

Source: ²Five Year Plan of Choudagram and Brahmanpara

Table 01 show that the volume of plan has connection with the area of Upazila. The area and the total revenue expenditure of CUZP are more than twice than the BUZP but in term of development expenditure it is 2.78 times higher in CUZP. Considering the population it is found that share of each person in development expenditure is higher in BUZP than the CUZP. Although there are some problems with the data but it may be explained that the transfer of Upazila Development Fund (ADP) is allocated considering the area, population and socio economic status but some of the national programme considers the backwardness of the area. BUZ is more backward in terms of poverty. This may one of the reasons for higher share of each person on development fund. For undertaking big project according to the need of local area the UZP need to depend on political power to influence Member of Parliament (MP) as they have very limited financial resources of its own. It was observed that BUZP strongly believe that the area needs some projects related to water management as the topography of that Upazila is low. But due to lack of fund and manpower discourage them to prepare plan on that area. The plan was drafted by the UZP's committee and it was consolidated by a committee chaired by UNO. Finally, the plan was approved in a special meeting of UZP in presence of the MPs of respective area. It was observed that the some members of Upazila committee and some departmental officials who have good relation with the MP are not interested to prepare plan. They argue that the adhoc system of project selection is efficient as it is flexible and fast. There were also some conflicts

² Five year Plan of Brahmanpara and Choudagram Upazila Parishad 2011-1016, in Bangla, A team of BARD facilitates to prepare the plan under the auspices of UNDP_Bangladesh.

within the members of standing committee during preparing plan in respect of their status. In some cases it was found that some UPs members who hold a portfolio in the committee of a political party at local level are less interested to work in an Upazila committee under the leadership of a Vice Chairman.

Development Programme of Different Transferred Department: Role of UZP

The services of 13 transferred departments were classified into 05 broad categories. The services under primary education, health and public health engineering department was identified as inputs for developing human resources and the support services related to crop, livestock and fishery development were identified as technology transfer for improving agricultural productivity. Department of Family planning, youth and women affairs provide services related to family welfare and empowerment of rural people. The support services provided by the Local Government and Engineering Department is related to development of physical and social infrastructure and the services provided by the department of social welfare and department of Relief and Rehabilitation was considered as public employment creation and social protection.

Table 02: Per Year Average expenditure of Two Upazilas by the Transferred Department

(in million Tk.)

	BUZP			CUZP		
	Revenue	Develop ment	Total	Revenue	Develop ment	Total
Human Resource Development	66	57	123 (38)	1 73	112	285 (34.76)
Technology Transfer for Improving Agricultural Productivity	16	8	24 (7.5)	32	15	47 (5.73)
Family welfare and Empowerment	26	9.6	35.6 (11)	35	8	43 (5.24)
Physical and Social Infrastructure	4	39.8	43.8 (13.64)	4	138	142 (17.32)
Public Employment Creation and Social Protection	2.5	92.1	94.6 (29)	4	299	303 (36.05)
	114.5	206.5	321	248	572	820

Source : Five Year Plan of Choudagram and Brahmanpara

From the above table it is found that priority area of development of the national government is reflected in the expenditure by transferred

department of UZPs. The most priority area of development was creating public employment and social protection under different type of social safety net for alleviating poverty and fostering human resource through imparting knowledge and facilities for maintaining good health. More than two thirds of the total cost of the thirteen transferred department are utilized in the area of poverty alleviation and human resource development. LGED plays vital role for developing physical and social infrastructure which is 17 and 14 percent of total development plan outlay of Choudagram and Brahmanpara Upazila respectively. Family welfare & self employment and technology transfer for improving agricultural productivity got little importance among the departmental programme. The role of UZP in the programme of transferred departments is limited to monitoring, coordinating and dispute resolution. Virtually the UZPs are informed about the progress of the departmental programme at the monthly meeting. It is also evident that revenue expenditure for transferring agricultural technology, human resource development and family welfare and empowerment is higher than the development expenditure. The revenue expenditure generally covers salary and travelling and daily allowances for providing professional services while development expenditure includes the cost of physical goods. Ensuring quality of services is the main challenge for optimum utilization of resources. The quality of professional services delivery related to human resource development is monitored by the local level managing committee. The UZP should have access to the information related to problem of resources utilization. On the other hand, there are lots of qualified human resources for technology transfer in the field of agriculture and developing skill among the youth generation at the Upazila level. But due to lack of development programme their potentiality is not fully harnessed. UZP should have a plan to utilize that resource properly by giving support from its own. In most cases it is observed that UZP spends lot of energy and resources for physical infrastructure development projects. For effective governance interaction among the school managing committee, health centre managing committees, NGO officials, different private organisations, entrepreneurs are essential for boosting the local the economy.

Decision Making at UZP

The meeting of *Upzila parishad* play vital role for taking decision and coordination. Upazila development and coordination meeting was replaced by the monthly Upazila Parishad meeting after the reactivation of UZP. All departmental officials are invited to explain the progress of their activities at this meeting. It was found that the departmental officials of retained department are reluctant to present in the Upazila Parishad meeting. (Rahman & Dasgupta, 2012) recorded 14 meeting of Homna Upazila Parishad during March 2009 to April 2010. On an average 33 persons attended in those meeting. Thirty six percent agendas in the meeting were related to development issues followed by the financial issue with 15

percent. Rest 49 percent issues were related to administrative and miscellaneous. They also found that the Chairperson of the UZP chairs the meeting but there is influence of MP for taking decision. The elected vice chairmen were found silent in most of the meeting. The officials of Nation Building Department (NBDs) are found to be interested in explaining the departmental activities. LGED Engineer and Project Implementation Officers (PIO) were found most active in those meeting. The UPs chairmen were found to be interested in discussing socio political and service related problem. As a whole decision making was observed as participatory in nature. The UNO as a secretary of the UZP is found to be involved in explaining the rules and regulation for taking decision and his role is more or less as diplomatic. It is evident that the department's deals with hardware development got more importance in the meeting and the role of other departments deals with transferring soft skill got little priority in those meeting.

Monitoring and Evaluation by UZP

Upazila Parishad is supposed to play a vital role for monitoring and evaluation of development programme through different type of Upazila committees. There are 14 Upazila committees under the leadership of Upazila Vice Chairman. At the beginning of these committees were not formed but after being made compulsions to get ADP allocation it was formed in most of the UZPs. The Vice Chairmen act as Chairperson of each committee. But there is a conflict between the committees of respective department and Upazila Committee. (Rahman & Dasgupta, 2012) found 33 departmental committees of 10 transferred department. Other than the departmental committee most of the departmental officials are involved as tag officers at the Union level to monitor the supply of goods under social safety net programme. On the otherhand it was observed that the Vice Chairman is not well conversant with the departmental activities of the related department of Upazila committee. As a result they can't play effective role in monitoring the programme of the sector related to their area of operation. For evaluation of development project the UZP has very limited scope due to resource constraint both financial and human.

Governance of UZP in the context of globalization: An Analysis

The role of government and private organizations for the development is seen complementary and equally important in the era of globalization. The government is supposed to play facilitating role by developing infrastructure and perform regulatory functions while private sector will drive the economy by creating employment and producing goods and services. Although services related to human resource development is available in the market through private initiative but many people in Third World County like Bangladesh cannot afford it. As a result the government has to invest a

lot of resources for providing basic foundation of human resource development. UZP as an extended arm of the central government need to be efficient to assess the problem of development in local area and responding to this identified area. The main challenge is to coordinate the development efforts of multiple organisations at the grassroots for ensuring optimum utilization of scarce resources. The UZP is not in a position to coordinate the development programme of NGOs due to lack of database and system to monitor their activities. Connecting the trained persons from the government departments with NGOs or private organisations is the demand of time. Inculcating the skill for using ICT among the young generation by using the available professionals also deserve special attention. Promoting individual initiative in different agro processing supply chain and non agricultural sector through competitive basis may help UZP to play their role according to the desire of economy. It is true that people with less capabilities are not gainer from the wider opportunity created through globalization. The central government is supporting a lot under social safety net programmes. UZP should play effective role for reducing targeting error and misappropriation of resources at local level by going beyond the political interest. Market is taking care for input supply for increasing agricultural productivity. Sometimes farmers are affected with the low quality inputs. Regulatory functions of the respective department should be strengthened through proper monitoring by UZP. The main limitation of UZP is lack of resources. The UZP is empowered to raise its own fund through different mechanism. In reality, there are some limitations due to ambiguity in instructions and duplication of boundary with other local government. By removing this ambiguity each UZP should be encouraged to strengthen its competitive advantage to prepare and implement plan according to their own need. The competitive environment will enhance the capacity of local government to enhance the revenue earning of its own. Moreover, the UZP should be equipped with adequate manpower for performing its responsibilities and developing UZP as a strong institution.

Conclusion

A good image of the UZP depends on its ability to serve the citizen according to their expectation. The capacity of the UZP to prepare plan based on the local needs and capacity to work with multiple agencies to make the UZP a viable institution is essential. The political powers of the elected representatives of UZPs need to be translated to work with different institution by respecting the values and culture of respective organisations. For increasing the capacity of generating own income of UZPs, the central government can encourage UZPs to submit projects related to their own need on a cost sharing basis in addition to the ADP allocation. Side by side, there should have some initiatives to support potential individual imitative on a competitive basis.

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5. Urban Development and Urban Policy in Bangladesh

Md Golam Mehedi Hasan
Jong Youl Lee

Introduction

Urbanization can be defined as a part of development process in the present world. It is also be an effective engine of economic growth and social development. According to the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the developing world is less than 40% urban and this sector contributes to more than 65% of the GDP. Bangladesh is one of the countries that are experiencing very rapid urbanization. Its cities are growing more than twice the rate of rural areas and lead to the economic growth in Bangladesh. Only 28 % to 30 % of the total population living in urban areas is contributing approximately 60 %to the national GDP (BUF, 2011).

However, urban development is arguably the most fundamental factor in economic development in Bangladesh. *It is propelled by the couple of factors in Bangladesh.* A rapidly increasing share of the population of Bangladesh migrates to urban centers in search for employment opportunities. Major industrial activities especially textile industry and the auxiliary business services are concentrated in the largest cities. *Rapid urbanization requires deep thinking about the problems of urban development.* In view of this, some context or information about Bangladeshi urban development policy has taken by the government bodies which is necessary and *can play more important role for sustainable urban development in Bangladesh. So, this study also discusses some important points of the national urban policy in Bangladesh.*

This study uses data from 64 Bangladeshi cities covering the year of 1991, 2001, and 2011 to look at the factors that drive urban development in Bangladesh. To capture the reality of urban development over the past couple of decades in Bangladesh this study considers literacy rate, NGO, transportation and communication, public employee, manufacturing industry, textile industry, and agriculture industry. In addition, to analyze the factors this study uses GLS regression as a research in order to make the study more informative, analytical and useful for the users. In view of this, secondary data were collected from various agencies of government in Bangladesh, including the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), NGOs, and other reliable sources on internet.

Literature Review

In the city social relations are much easier to organize which makes the inhabitants feeling more secure (UN Habitat, 2007). According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (2003), education levels in Dhaka are far better than in the rest of the country. However, NGOs and microfinance institutions have been at present in urban Bangladesh. It is only recently that the major micro-finance providers have begun to target the urban poor, and the coverage is still low (World Bank, 2007).

In 1987, Tolley & Thomas stated that transport also influences the rate and pattern of urban development and presents multidimensional issues. The public transports are a large part of the urban population's dependency particularly to the poor. Bertolini (2005) pointed that the speed of transportation system effects on economic performance of urban area. Today, shifting the jobs from agriculture to industry is one of the chief forces which driving urbanization. Historically, cities have been the driving force in economic and social development. So, urbanization is associated with higher incomes, improved health, higher literacy, improved quality of life and other benefits (South Asia, 2001).

Hasan & Lee (2014) puts forward that urbanization is arguably the most fundamental factors of economic development in Bangladesh and gradually the agriculture is decreased when the urbanization is increased. Cities offer important opportunities for economic and social development. It is always focal points for economic growth, innovation, and employment. Particularly capital cities, are where the vast majority of modern productive activities are concentrated in the developing world and where the vast majority of paid employment opportunities are located. Cities are also centers of modern living, where female labor force participation is greatest and where indicators of general health and wellbeing, literacy, women's status, and social mobility are typically highest (Cohen, 2006). Kawsar (2012) also stated that there is a close relationship between economic development and urbanization. The economic growth and development of any country relates strongly with the pace of urbanization. So, there is a positive correlation between economic development and urbanization in Bangladesh.

In 2002, Salmon pointed the comparison of wages and employment characteristics between the rural and the urban area. In case of Bangladesh, average wages are significantly higher in Dhaka and other cities and net self-employment incomes are approximately 21 % higher than the villages. For example, Dhaka suggests a significant wage gap between the rural and the urban that's offer to migrate. Moreover, high industrial wages in urban areas are one of the biggest attractions for rural people. People migrate continue in the cities because they expect urban wages will exceed the

current rural wages. In addition, employment opportunities, higher incomes, freedom from oppressive lifestyle, access to better health care and education, are the bright lights for rural people. Perhaps, the rural areas are very difficult with the income level and it is not possible to survive (Gugler 1997, Girardet 1996, Sajor 2001).

According to the report of South Asia (2001), higher income, improved health, better life standard and all other better opportunities lead towards rapid urbanization. In Bangladesh, when asking people why they migrated, the main reason was to find a job and perception of better education, health services, and social amenities in the city (Hossain, 2001). The primary reasons behind the fastest growing trend of urbanization of Dhaka are largely attributed to the establishment of capital city, locations of various government and non-government offices, industrial and commercial organizations, educational institutions etc. Chittagong, Khulna and the other highly urbanized regions, have seaports, divisional headquarter, industrial and commercial belts and educational institutions that attract people from different parts of the country for better employment, commerce and educational purposes (Rouf & Jahan, 2001).

One other study found that about 80 % of migrants mentioned prior migrants as the principal source of information on the job prospects in the city (Bhuyan & *al*, 2001). In 2011, Rana also pointed rapid urbanization has one common characteristic, the opportunity of better services and variety of occupation that encourage people to migrate in urban areas. According to the Environment Facts (2012) today the largest and fastest growing cities are in developing countries, because of the new urban-industrial development. Moreover, urbanization is one of the clearest features of the development of manufacturing and service activity in developing countries (Burgess & Anthony, 2004). From the perspective of economics, urbanization is a cyclical process where all kinds of production factors gather in the city (Krugman, Obstfeld, & Melitz, 2011). For better income opportunities than most parts of Bangladesh, rapid migration is causing Dhaka's population to grow much faster than the rest of the country. Industry accounts for some 20 % of employment, of which half are in the garments sector and mostly female workers (Zaman, Alam, & Islam, 2010). The ready-made garments industry, which now comprises a significant income sector for Bangladesh. In addition, each type and size of urban settlements has its own unique function. The distribution of large, medium and small towns is typically dictated by the distribution of economic activities. The number and distribution of small towns is particularly linked with the level and distribution of agriculture activity. Activities in small towns are related more to the demand of the agriculture and rely more on scale economies at the level of the plant (South Asia, 2001).

Urban Policy

In Bangladesh cities are playing a crucial role in the national development and it indicates that the productivity in urban areas is much higher than the rural areas. Such gains in productivity Bangladesh need to take appropriate steps to protect negative consequences of urbanization. Although, urbanization has become synonymous with the development but the unplanned and uncontrolled urban growth is posing enormous challenges to the sustainable development of the country (BUF, 2011).

However, there is a national government policy that attempts to resolve the challenges of rapid urbanization in Bangladesh. The national urban policy envisions strengthening the beneficial aspects of urbanization and at the same time effectively dealing with its negative consequences. The policy also envisions a decentralized and participatory process of urban development in which the central government, the local government, the private sector, the civil society and the people all has their roles to play. The policy, therefore, should cover spatial, economic, social, cultural, and environmental aspects of urban life which directed towards achieving the urban reality to ensure freedom from hunger and poverty; capacity to live a healthy life; access to education, shelter, and basic services, and a secure and livable environment.

The major objectives of national urban policy in Bangladesh to ensure regionally balanced urbanization through decentralized development and facilitate economic development, employment generation, reduction of inequality and poverty reduction through appropriate regulatory frameworks and infrastructure provisions; *ensure social justice, secure tenure and basic affordable services; and assure health, safety and security of all citizens.* The policy recognizes the existing spatial or regional imbalance in the pattern of urbanization in the country and also the rapid pace of urban population growth, particularly of Dhaka and other large cities. The national urban policy makes the following recommendations to enable the proper implementation of the vision and objectives for Bangladesh:

Economic Development

Planned development in urban areas is strongly needed and the government has been brought up the effective institutional development forums for urban planning. However, the economic base of an urban area is an indicator of its economic strength. So, development of the economy has now emerged as an issue of considerable significance in view of growing poverty, increasing unemployment and deterioration in the quality of life in cities. The government will create an environment conducive to supporting economic development include the activities such as, small, medium micro enterprises and will receive maximum support of investment and guidance in this regard.

Health and Education

The growth of urban areas has consistently been faster than the growth of social infrastructure to service the population. As a result, large sections of the urban population have no access to health and education facilities. So, the government bodies will help to develop strategies and financial supports for better health and education facilities.

Urban Governance

International experiences indicate that the key ingredient to reach the goal of sustainable urban development is good governance. The government will try to shape good urban governance that envisages effective leadership of the elected representatives of city corporations with participation of the municipal officials, the central government agencies at the local level, the private sector, NGOs, civil society and the people.

Transportation and Communication

Transport interventions in urban areas should aim at improving transport and traffic infrastructure and its policy priorities. In urban areas roads are the main system of transportation and policies must be made to make better use of existing road infrastructure and giving highest priority to pedestrians and to environmental protection. So, government will take steps and initiatives for mass rapid transit.

Employment and Resource Mobilization

Improved urban management largely depends on strong institutional capacity to increase income source of funds and reduce dependence on traditional system of funding based on plan and budgetary allocation. The urban bodies will help to develop innovative strategies and financial instruments to generate resources.

Infrastructure and Services

Provision of adequate infrastructure and services, such as water supply, sewerage and sanitation, drainage, electricity, energy, waste disposal, telecommunication in urban centers and their proper maintenance have major contributions in advancing the cause of sustainable and sound development. So, government agencies will take proper consideration of urban infrastructure and services which would be included in the urban planning process.

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis uses data from 64 Bangladeshi cities covering the year of 1991, 2001 and 2011 to analyze the factors that are most closely associated with urban development through GLS regression analysis. There are couples of factors that drive urban development; it can generalize into

economic factors and social factors. In view of the relationship with the other factors the analysis makes the Population Density as a dependent variable to analyze the factors that drive urban development of Bangladesh.

With the selection of the dependent variables, the models were selected the following formula: Urban Development = constant + b1per capita literacy rate + b2per capita NGO + b3 per capita transportation and communication + b4 per capita public employee + b5per capita manufacturing industry + b6per capita textile industry + b7per capita agricultural industry.

Figure: GLS Regression

Random-effects GLS regression	Number of obs	=	189		
Group variable: ID	Number of groups	=	63		
R-sq: within	=	0.3490	obs per group: min	=	3
between	=	0.4644	avg	=	3.0
overall	=	0.4491	max	=	3
			wald chi 2 (7)	=	120.55
corr (u_i, x)	=	0 (assumed)	prob > chi 2	=	0.0000

Pop_Den	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Lit_Rate_per	1072.88	517.49	2.07	0.038	58.61644 2087.14	
NGO_per	-443.67	127.96	-3.47	0.001	-694.4689 -192.876	
Trans_Com_per	409.14	145.308	2.82	0.005	124.3414 693.9375	
Pub_Emp_per	275.525	52.1518	5.28	0.000	173.3091 377.7403	
Manu_Ind_per	-161.43	106.25	-1.52	0.129	-369.6728 46.81873	
Tex_Ind_per	636.684	293.595	2.17	0.030	61.24879 1212.12	
Agri_Ind_per	45.5114	22.1186	2.06	0.040	2.159701 88.86311	
_cons	-202.97	301.872	-0.67	0.501	-794.6296 388.6883	
sigma_u	472.842					
sigma_e	302.448					
rho	0.70965	(fraction of variance due to u_i)				

The regression analysis is for change in population density that shows the significant result with the literacy rate. It also positive relationship with population density that means education is one of the hopes for the rural people to change their life, and this supports urban development in Bangladesh. According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (2003), education levels in Dhaka are far better than in the rest of the country in Bangladesh. Moreover, cities are also centers of modern living, where female labor force participation is greatest and where indicators of general

health and wellbeing, literacy, women's status, and social mobility are typically highest (Cohen, 2006). On the other hand, NGO shows negative relation with the population density but statistically significant. As before stated NGOs and microfinance institutions have been at present in urban Bangladesh. It is only recently that the major micro-finance providers have begun to target the urban poor, and the coverage is still low (World Bank, 2007).

Meanwhile, transportation and communication shows the positive relation with population density and it is statistically significant. Tolley & Thomas (1987) found that transport influences the rate and pattern of urban development and presents multidimensional issues. In 2005, Bertolini also pointed that the speed of transportation system effects on economic performance of urban area. However, public employee has also positive relation and statistically significant with the population density. It can be explained that educated people like to work in the city where can offer them more chances and facilities of life. According to the report of South Asia (2001), urbanization is associated with higher incomes, improved health, higher literacy, improved quality of life and other benefits. Particularly capital cities, are where the vast majority of modern productive activities are concentrated in the developing world and where the vast majority of paid employment opportunities are located (Cohen, 2006).

Manufacturing industry shows negative relation with the population density and statistically not significant which may explain that its role is not very important for urban development in Bangladesh. However, textile industry shows the positive relation with population density and it is statistically significant. The textile industry is one the main economic forces of the most Bangladeshi cities and driving urban development. For better income opportunities than most parts of Bangladesh, rapid migration is causing Dhaka's population to grow much faster than the rest of the country. Industry accounts for some 20 % of employment, of which half are in the garments sector and mostly female workers (Zaman, Alam, & Islam, 2010). The ready-made garments industry, which now comprises a significant income sector for Bangladesh.

Agriculture industry also shows the positive relation with population density and it is statistically significant. Most of the Bangladeshi cities are still in industrial period and it is the main source of city's economy but Bangladesh is still agrarian country. Though Hasan & Lee (2014) stated that urbanization is arguably the most fundamental factors of economic development in Bangladesh and gradually the agriculture is decreased when the urbanization is increased. But most of the cities relied on agriculture and the agriculture industry drive urban development in Bangladesh. In addition,

each type and size of urban settlements has its own unique function. The distribution of large, medium and small towns is typically dictated by the distribution of economic activities. The number and distribution of small towns is particularly linked with the level and distribution of agriculture activity. Activities in small towns are related more to the demand of the agriculture and rely more on scale economies at the level of the plant (South Asia, 2001).

Conclusion

Through the above analysis, it can be said that there most of the economic variables has the positive and the significant relation with the population density. So, this factor is more associates for urban development in Bangladesh. Social variable has also the positive and the significant relation with the population density. Bangladesh has embraced the urbanization process that has accompanied its dramatic economic transformation.

However, urbanization contributes to increased economic growth by creating job opportunities, facilitating commercial activities and driving industrial development but the rapid pace of change can place great pressure on a town or city's physical and social infrastructure. Local and national management capacities are often weak and planning processes and resources poorly coordinated in the developing countries. Already city administrations find the difficulties to provide adequate housing, transportation, waste and sanitation, education, health and other essential services to an ever-growing number of residents in Bangladesh. Serious problems of environmental degradation are resulting from unplanned urbanization in Bangladesh. The present pattern of urbanization is leading to various problems like land use alterations, inadequate shelter, water, sanitation, and other facilities in slums and other urban poor areas; degradation of community ambient environment; little control of industrial waste emissions; and environmental pollution due to inadequate management of wastes. So, there is urgent need for guiding the progress of the country through adopting policies on urban development.

However, urbanization is both a driver and consequence of national economic growth and if it managed well it can bring significant benefits to the nation. It is also a globally proven fact that urbanization is an irreversible, dynamic process interlinked with socio-economic change. So, it is very urgent for Bangladesh to make all the urban policy efforts harmonized with the spatial characteristics of sustainable economic growth.

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6. Localizing Public Service Delivery in Bangladesh: The Gap between Policy and Practice

Ferdous Arfina Osman

Introduction

Public service provision has earned a clearer voice and sparked a renewed interest in the recent discourse of public administration. New Public Service Model emerged in 2000 advocates that government should serve rather than steer and people should be considered as citizens with entitlements to get service from the government (Denhardt &Denhardt, 2007)¹. There is a growing recognition that a combination of poor-quality provision and unequal coverage of basic services is hampering poverty-reduction efforts and reinforcing inequality (Leni and Foresti, 2013)². The World Development Report 2004, the earliest report by a multilateral organization to focus on the delivery of basic services concluded that “... social services fail for the poor”. More recently, Asian Development Bank (ADB) in its policy note concluded that even though many countries in developing Asia had made remarkable progress in expanding access to public services in recent decades, there were large disparities in access across the region and the quality of services was generally very poor (Deolalikar and Jha,2013)³. Overall, the ADB report concluded, delivery of public services in developing Asia had lagged significantly behind the region’s impressive economic growth.

Development experts agree that to make public services cost effective, accessible and responsive they have to be delivered in a localized manner. Decentralization of the public sector’s structure and activities is a widely accepted mechanism for localizing service delivery. Amongst various forms of decentralization, deconcentration and devolution are considered as the widely used mechanisms for transforming policy goals into public service at the grassroots. In order to make public services responsive, since 1990s, Government of Bangladesh has also undertaken various policy initiatives to decentralize public services. These include the promulgation of various

¹ Denhardt Janet V. and Denhardt B. Robert, 2007. *The New Public Service: Serving Not Steering*, Expanded Edition, M.E.Sharpe, Ink. Armonk, New York, London, England

² Leni Wild and Marta Foresti, 2013 *Working with the politics How to improve public services for the poor*, ODI Briefing 83, Sepetmber 2013.

³ Deolalikar Anil B. and Jha Shikha. 2013 *Empowerment and Public Service Delivery in Developing Asia and the Pacific*, Asian Development Bank, Manila, May 2013.

local government Acts related to the transfer of a range of public services to the local government institutions at the middle and the lowest tier called the Upazila Parishad (UZP) and the Union Parishad (UP) respectively. Sectoral policies pronounce their commitments for decentralization of service delivery. More importantly, the ongoing Sixth Five Year Plan (2011-15) vows for ‘bringing quality public service to the people’s doorsteps’ (Planning Commission, 2011: 218)⁴. But the practice tells a different story. Public services are still being delivered in a highly centralized manner. This paper seeks to examine the extent to which the policy statements relevant to localization of service delivery have been implemented, how the non-implementation affects the nature of service delivery and the underlying reasons for the prevailing gaps. As a case, the study looks into the delivery of public health services in rural areas. Five key aspects of health service delivery (*facilities /capital infrastructure; functionaries; operation & maintenance and supplies; coordination and monitoring; and community engagement*) have been analyzed to determine the extent of localization of service through examining the role of deconcentrated local administration and the devolved Local Government Institutions (LGIs) in the process.

The study relies on both primary and secondary data. Primary data has been collected from both the central and local levels through stakeholder interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). The local level data were collected from five districts: Sirajgonj, Khulna, Satkhira, Hobigonj and Sunamgonj. The interview respondents numbering 52 included the central and local level bureaucrats of the Ministries of Local Government and Health and the local government functionaries at the upazila and union level. In addition to these key informant interviews, at the community level, 4 FGDs were held with the civil society members and the community people. Secondary data for the study has been collected from relevant research articles, policy documents and government reports.

Decentralization and Localizing Service Delivery: The Conceptual Framework

As the delivery of key public services often requires direct interaction between the providers and the recipients of these services, many of these interactions take place in a localized manner (Boex, 2012)⁵. While most

⁴ Planning Commission. 2011. *Sixth Five Year Plan FY2011-FY2015*. Ministry of Planning, Government of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh.

⁵ Boex Jamie (2012) Local Public Sector Initiative: Measuring the Local Public Sector: A Conceptual and Methodological Framework Local Public Sector Country Profile Handbook, The Urban Institute, December 2012

public service delivery is local in nature, the mechanisms that governments adopt to provide people with public services vary from country to country resulting in variations in service efficiency and quality. Decentralization of the public sector's structure and activities is a widely accepted mechanism for localizing service delivery.

Decentralization has traditionally been defined as the process of transferring decision-making authority, responsibility and financial resources for providing public services to lower levels of government (Litvack and Seddon, 2009)⁶. Decentralization is generally broken down into one of three forms: deconcentration, devolution and delegation (Litvack and Seddon, 2009). *Deconcentration* refers to the distribution of decision making authority and financial and management responsibilities among different territorial-administrative levels or tiers of central government (i.e. a situation in which public services are delivered by line ministries through their local offices). *Devolution* is the transfer of authority for decision making, finance and management to quasi-autonomous local government units with corporate status (i.e. public service delivery through elected local governments). *Delegation* refers to the transfer of responsibility by the central government for decision-making and administration of public functions to semi-autonomous organizations not wholly controlled by the central government but ultimately accountable to it.

Amongst these three approaches, deconcentration and devolution are the most commonly used approaches of localizing public service delivery. In roughly half of the countries around the world, key public services such as basic education and health services are delivered through elected local governments (i.e., devolution) while in roughly half of the countries around the world (including many developing and transition economies) public services are delivered predominantly or exclusively through deconcentrated administrative bodies (Boex, 2014)⁷. Although deconcentration offers the potential for strengthening local service delivery capacity through technical interventions within the sectoral hierarchy, service delivery through devolved local government potentially offers greater discretion, incentives and accountability in the delivery of local services. Neither of these two approaches alone can ensure effective delivery of services at the local level

⁶ Litvack, Jennie and Seddon, Jessica (ed.). 2009. Decentralization Briefing Notes, World Bank Institute Working Paper Series. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

⁷ Boex, Jamie (2014), Decentralization and localization in Bangladesh-the role of local governments and local administration in ensuring efficient and equitable health and education services, UNDP study report, Dhaka.

as public services tend to be delivered in a multi-dimensional, multi-level and multi-agency manner.

Question arises, which mechanism is the most suitable for ensuring efficient service provision? The principle that economists use to guide which level of government should perform a public function is known as the “subsidiarity principle”. *The subsidiarity principle states that public goods and services should be provided by the lowest level of government that can do so efficiently.* The principle suggests that the lowest possible level of government that is able to perform efficiently should be assigned functions. This principle also prevents expenditure responsibilities from being assigned to subnational government jurisdictions that are too small or otherwise not capable to efficiently deliver the public service at hand. Thus ensuring efficiency is the main concern of this principle.

From the managerial perspective, public Service has broadly four major dimensions: policy and regulation, financing, provision and production. As per the subsidiarity principle, central government should be in charge of framing policy and regulation while local government should have some control in financing, production and provision of many publicly provided goods or services can often be done at the local level. Financing of the service may be assigned to the central level, in order to ensure that resources are distributed equitably across the national territory. In addition to determining which government level or administrative tier is responsible for the four different dimensions of a specific function (i.e., policy and regulation, finance, provision and production), it is often useful to consider the “provision” dimension in greater detail. In fact, the “provision” of a function is achieved by combining a series of different inputs in order to deliver a specific output. In practice, different entities are often responsible for providing different inputs into the service delivery process. Boex (2014) has identified five different types of service delivery inputs: i) facilities (capital infrastructure); ii) functionaries (staff and human resources management); iii) operation and maintenance; iv) supplies (medicine, medical equipment); v) coordination, monitoring and community mobilization. Extent of localization or decentralization of service delivery can be understood through examining which entity/entities (the central ministry/deconcentrated local administration/local government) perform which aspects of service.

The Administrative Structure for Public Service Delivery in Bangladesh

Bangladesh relies on both deconcentration and devolution to provide public services at the local level. Every line ministry has a well laid out deconcentrated organizational structure down to the grassroots level to facilitate service delivery at the local level. The public sector of Bangladesh is territorially deconcentrated into a four-tier field administration, with

administrative units at each of the following levels: division, district, upazila and union. The country is divided into seven divisions, which, in turn, are subdivided into 64 districts (Zilas). Below the district level, at the countryside, there are 491 upazilas, which are further subdivided into 4,571 unions.

Administration at the divisional level essentially performs coordinating functions; while district administration historically has played the most vital role in ensuring central government presence in the locality. Almost all government ministries and departments have their units at the district level under a “vertically” (or sectorally) deconcentrated structure, by which district-level officers continue to belong and report vertically to their respective line ministries. Under the coordination and guidance of different district level officers including the Deputy Commissioner (DC), officials at the Upazila level are charged with actually implementing government policies related to different sectors. A good number of government departments, including agriculture, education, health and family planning, social welfare, fisheries and livestock, public health and others have their offices at the Upazila level. In order to deliver services to the people, some important departments of the government (including education, health and family planning, agriculture) have their lowest-level field staff posted below the Upazila headquarters, i.e. at the union level.

A separate devolved local government hierarchy also parallels the administrative hierarchy of the government. There exist local government bodies at each of the administrative levels except the division. At the top of the three-tier rural local government structure is the Zila Parishad (ZP) at the district level and at the bottom, the Union Parishad (UP) at the union level and the Upazila Parishad at the upazila level-the middle tier. Amongst the three tiers, Zila Parishad is a non- elected body while the remaining two are directly elected by the local people.

The functions legally assigned to the middle tier, the Upazila Parishad (UZP) at the upazila level, which contains about 302 square kilometer area and a population of about 245 thousand. The UZP is headed by a popularly elected chairman and composed of two vice chairmen, representative members (UP chairmen) and women members. Officials of different national departments attend the meetings of UZP, but they are neither members of the Parishad, nor can they vote. The Union Parishad (UP) is the lowest unit of local government is also responsible for delivering public services. Generally, a union with about 10-12 square miles area, inhabited by about 15,000 to 20,000 people, is divided into 9 wards, with each ward electing a member on the basis of popular votes. The chairman, who heads the UP, is directly elected by the voters of the whole Union. In addition to a

directly elected chairman and nine members, three women members are also elected, with each one representing three wards.

Policy Initiatives for Localizing Service Delivery

The country has a three tiered local government system through which locally elected bodies have been assigned a wide range of public welfare and development functions alongwith health, education, water and sanitation, agriculture etc. The Constitution of Bangladesh (articles 9, 11, 59 and 60) provides the legal framework for the functioning of local governance and clarifying its role in public service delivery. On the other hand, the ongoing Sixth Five Year Plan (2011-15) also envisions to have local governments delivering greater volume and quality of public services to their respective communities. In recent years, a major effort has been initiated in Bangladesh to strengthen the role and capacity of local government institutions (LGIs) at the union level, called the Union Parishad (UP) and at the upazila level, called the Upazila Parishad (UZP)—to contribute to better service delivery outcomes. Through the promulgation of recent Acts, the responsibility for a good number of public services has recently been transferred formally to the Union Parishad level (7 functions) and the Upazila Parishad level (17 functions). In addition to this, the health policy documents have also been pronouncing the sectoral commitment for decentralization of service delivery. This section provides an overview of the policy initiatives at the local government and the health sector itself for localizing the delivery of health services.

Upazila Parishad (UZP) Acts /Circulars.

Local Government (Thana Parishad and Thana Administration Reorganization) Ordinance 1982, for the first time, introduced a massive program of devolution of powers and decentralization of administration in the country through which UZP was created and was transferred with the services of seventeen central ministries/ departments. However, due to the change of political power, UZP discontinued to function for a while. In 1998, with the objective of reintroducing the UZP, Upazila Parishad Act 1998 was promulgated under the democratically elected government, which was later amended in 2009 and 2011. Schedule 3 of the UZP Act 1998 has transferred the services of ten ministries (12 departments) to the UZP including health and family welfare, youth and sports, fisheries and livestock, department of primary education, ministry of agriculture, social welfare etc. The 1998 UZP Act has backed this transfer by the devolution of financial authority and staff support from the central government and by a considerable increase in the resources made available to Upazila. The Act mentioned that the officials, staff and their functions of the ministries would be transferred to the UZP. All officials of transferred departments will be

placed at the disposal of UZP meaning the officials dealing with transferred subjects have been made accountable to the UZP with their services deputed to it. As per the section 34 of UZP Act 1998, UZP will also be authorized to appoint officers and staffs as it deems fit to assist it in discharge of its functions on such terms and conditions as may be prescribed by the rules, subject to the prior approval of the government. On the other hand, rule 24 of the Act requires that Annual Performance Report (APR) of the officials of the transferred departments will be written by the UZP while Annual Confidential Report (ACR) will be written by their departmental superiors. In addition, Schedule 2 of UZP Act 1998 clarifies the role of UZP in delivering the transferred services by saying that UZP will be responsible for the implementation of the programs of the transferred departments and to supervise and coordinate the activities of those departments. Fourth schedule of the 1998 Act has authorized UZP to mobilize its own resources through taxation.

The UZP Act 1998 has been amended twice. The first amendment took place through the Upazila Parishad (Reintroduction of the Repealed Act and Amendment) Act, 2009, which revised Rule 24 of the UZP Act 1998 bringing slight changes in certain provisions. The major change brought about by this amendment was allowing the Members of Parliament (MPs) to get involved in the decision making process of UZP (Section 19 of the Rule 27). It states that MP of the concerned area will be made the adviser to the UZP and the Parishad will accept the advice of the MP.

Further amendment of the UZP Act took place in 2011 with a view to expanding the scope of functional assignments to the UZP. The UZP Act 2011 (section 22) added 5 more ministries/departments under the fold of transferred subjects.

UP Acts/Circulars.

The UP Act 2009 was a big advancement towards devolution of powers and decentralization of public services to the local level. The UP Act 2009 has conferred the UP with the authorities for local economic and social development. To this effect, the Act confers the UPs with broadly defined powers to handle 'local affairs' and meet basic needs. More importantly, Schedule 3 of the Act states that the functions of seven line ministries will be transferred to UP. The transferred ministries are: Local Government Division, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health and Family Planning, Ministry of Primary and Mass Education, Ministry of Fisheries and Livestock, Ministry of Social Welfare, and Home Ministry. The Act also requires transferring the officials and staff of these departments/ministries providing service to the UP. For example, with regard to health and family planning services, the Health Inspector and Assistant Health Inspector, Family Welfare Inspector and Family Welfare Assistant and manpower of Health and Family Planning Departments and their functions were legally transferred to the UP. Section 63(1) of the Act further states that the transferred officials and staff will accomplish their duties and

responsibilities under the management and control of the UP. On the other hand, the same section (2) also states that if UP deems fit to undertake disciplinary action against any official transferred to the UP, it will conduct enquiry and send report to the concerned agencies. In order to coordinate, plan and implement all development activities, to review the progress of all departments and review the service delivery conditions, Union Development Coordination Committee (UDCC) comprising all the line ministry officials and staff transferred to the UP level has been formed at the Union Parishad in 2013, which is supposed to meet at least once in two months. Conforming to the Constitutional provision UP has been bestowed with some power to generate revenue through taxation.

The Health Policy Commitments for Localization

The health sector has a vision of providing basic services to all. The National Health Policy 2011 aims to ensure the provision of quality and accessible health service for the poor living in both urban and rural areas and for the disadvantaged population. The 2011 policy admits that centralized management system is a prime obstacle for adequate utilization of public health facilities and its efficient management. As a strategy to reach primary health care (PHC) services to all and to improve the quality of health services, the policy pronounces the strategy of health system decentralization and peoples' participation in planning, management and provision of service delivery. The policy stresses on strengthening the Upazila-level health system as a means of reaching health service to the village level. The policy favours the strategy of engaging local government in providing health services at all levels. The Sixth Five Year Plan (2011-15) also pronounces the strategy of strengthening the Upazila health system i.e. the functioning of the Upazila health complexes, union health and family welfare centers/sub-centers through providing adequate human resources, drugs and other medical aids. The plan has also assured strengthening the Government's effort towards decentralization of budget and management. Thus the national health policy and the Sixth Five Year Plan have focused on decentralization in the form of deconcentration rather than devolution.

Health Service Delivery at the Local Level: The Practice

In line with this top-down vision of service delivery, the pattern of Bangladesh's public health service delivery system is hierarchically structured from the national level to the village level.

At the central level, the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MoHFW) is responsible for policy formulation and planning, regulating medical professional and standards, managing and controlling drug supply, providing health services, preparing budget and allocation funds and many more of the health sector, although there are other ministries having health care responsibilities and infrastructures.

At the field level, the health sector has been organized as per the territorial-administrative structure of the country. The healthcare infrastructure comprises six tiers: national, divisional, district, upazila (sub

district), union, and ward. At the national level, there are institutions both for public health functions as well as for postgraduate medical education/training and specialized treatment to patients. District level with district hospitals (50-200 beds) provides tertiary care while upazila level provides secondary care through Upazila Health Complex hospitals (with 31 beds). Union and ward levels provide primary care services. At the union level, three kinds of health facilities exist: Rural Dispensary (RD), Union Sub Centers (USC), and Union Health & Family Welfare Centers (UHFWCs). In addition to these three types of union level health facilities, at the ward level, Community Clinics (CCs) serving 6000 rural residents.

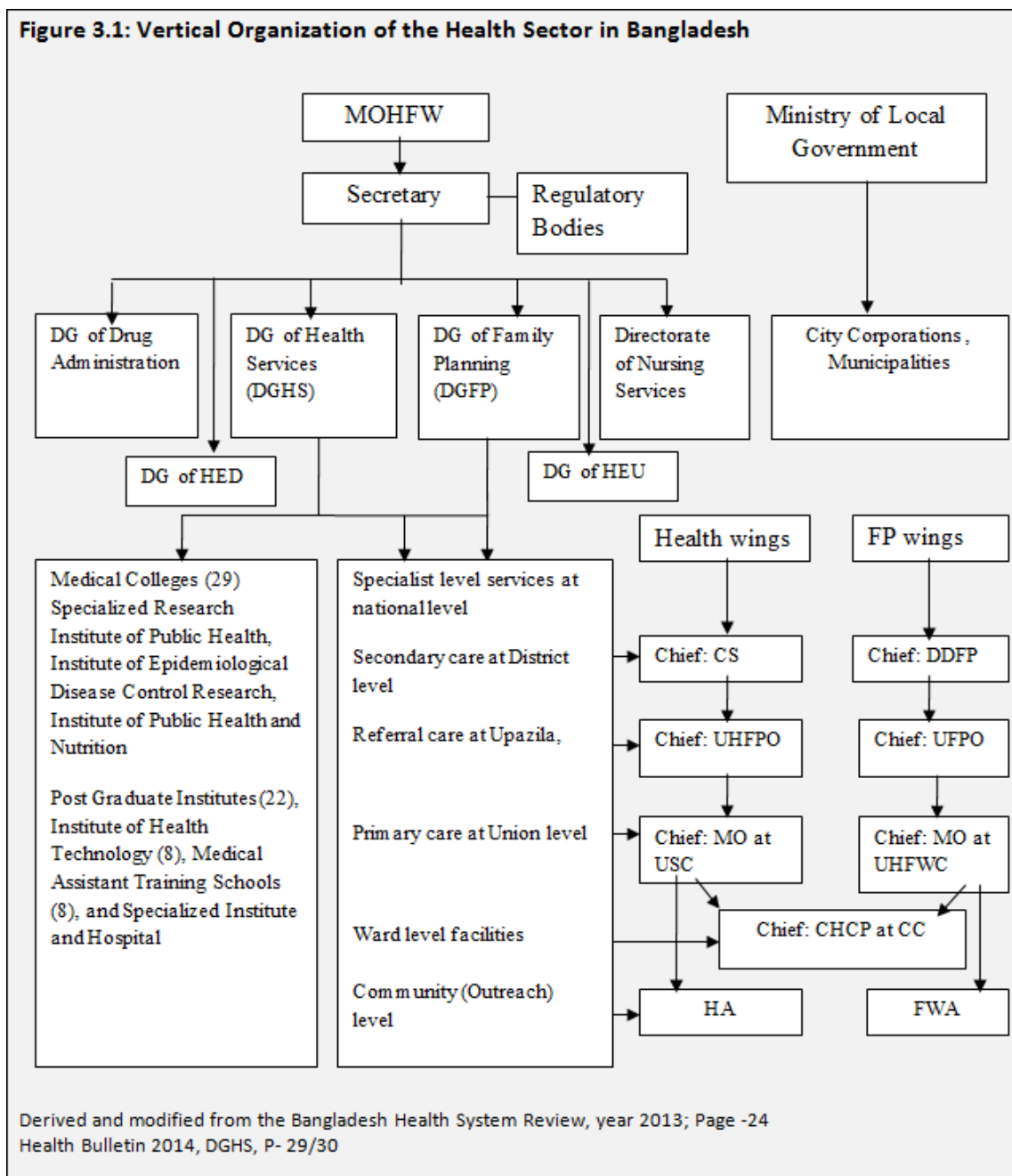


Table 1 presents the vertical structure of the health service delivery across various administrative tiers

Alongside this health service delivery infrastructure, as mentioned before, the local government institutions have also been made responsible for health service delivery.

To determine the degree of localization in practice, this section examines which entity plays what role in five key aspects of health service delivery: facilities, functionaries, operation and maintenance, supplies, monitoring and community engagement.

Responsibility for Facilities/Capital Infrastructures/Funding:

Decision regarding the construction of new facilities i.e. the decision how many new facilities to construct (and where) is a policy-level decision made at the central government level, while local government institutions hardly play any role in the process. Ministry of Health and Family Welfare performs this function through the Directorate of Health Engineering. Procurement and construction of local-level (upazila and below) health infrastructure is done by district-level Health Engineering Departments (HED). HED is also responsible for supply of new furniture for new facilities. Currently, the most significant construction of facilities in the health sector refers to the construction of Community Clinics (CCs) at the village level. Although the CCs are established through community partnership with government (community donates land), but the local bodies especially the Union Parishad does not have any decisive power about its construction.

The MOHFW is responsible for distributing the resource envelope received from the Ministry of Finance between the revenue and development budgets and among the administrative units and health facilities at different administrative levels. Although both top down and bottom up approaches are followed for preparing revenue budgets, ultimate allocation decisions are made centrally. In practice, the allocation decisions are often based on the previous year's actual expenditure levels, availability of resources and the policy focus of the government.

Both UZP and the UP have a small budgetary allocation for health service, mainly for small logistic support. UZP has a poor tax base and relies almost solely on central government fund. The amount of ADP allocation from the central government to the UZP depends on the size of population and area. ADP block grant has a guideline for spending about 10-15 percent of the total fund for health and education but often this expenditure varies from place to place and more importantly, expenditures are mostly made for infrastructure development. Present study found that in 2011-12, Hobigonj UZP did not incur any expenditure for health while in Jagannathpur UZP; around 6% of its development budget was spent for health service in 2012-13.

Responsibility for Service Delivery Staff (functionaries)

As per the UZP Act 1998 and the UP Act 2009, all the issues related to health and education services (along with other transferred services) and also the service providers are supposed to be managed by these LGIs. But there is a wide gap between the policy and practice in this regard. Neither UP nor UZP recruits any health/education staff. All the frontline service providers are recruited centrally by the concerned ministries⁸. UP/UZP does not have any authority to make any readjustment in the staffing pattern of schools or health facilities even in case of emergencies.

The health service providers are the civil servants. The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MOHFW) defines the human resource policy and has the ultimate authority to decide on issues regarding hiring, promotion and dismissal. Employment conditions, salary level, allowances, other employment benefits and staff development practices are centrally determined by the ministry. With respect to payment of salary and allowances, district and upazila health and family planning administration work as Drawing and Disbursement Officers (DDOs) for the staff under his/her jurisdiction. Regarding training, district and upazila health and family planning administrations organize and/or oversee staff training as per instruction of DGHS and DGFP of central ministry.

Within the deconcentrated administrative structures of DGHS and DGFP, staffs are accountable to their respective line department supervisors from local level to central level. While all health workers are accountable to the Ministry of Health and their respective Directorates, there are hierarchies of accountability at different levels of central ministry.

Responsibility for Service Delivery Operation, Maintenance

The ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MOHFW) exercises exclusive control over operation, maintenance and repair. Three different organizations under the MOHFW are responsible for construction, large maintenance and repair works related to public health facilities. First, the Health Engineering Department (HED) is responsible for construction as well as for doing minor repair and maintenance of public health facilities including community clinics, Union Sub-centres, UHCs, UHFWCs, 100-bed district hospitals. Second, the National Electro-Medical Equipment Maintenance Workshop (NEMEW) is responsible for maintaining biomedical equipment in public sector health facilities including medical colleges and third, the Transport and Equipment maintenance Organization (TEMO) is responsible for maintenance of transports and equipment of

⁸ Urban municipalities, on the other hand, have the government sanctioned posts of 1 doctor, 2 Health assistants, 1 FWV, 1 Health Inspector and 4 vaccinators. Amongst all, 1st and 2nd class employees are recruited by the line ministry while the 3rd and 4th class employees are recruited by pourashava. Some pourashavas administer schools with their own funds.

health facilities. This organization does not have any field office and its manpower is also very limited. At facility levels, district and upazila health managers are also responsible for minor repairs but do not have discretion of maintenance-related funds. As a result, facility-level managers mainly depend on HED for minor repairs.

Special funds (UZGP and ADP funds) are given to the UZP for small schemes for infrastructural extension works but for maintenance there is no specific fund. For maintenance cost, Upazilas need to rely on the central government. The UZP is allowed to spend 10-15% of the ADP Fund for health and education expenditures, but in practice, most of these funds are spent for road construction. Although neither UZP nor UP has any budget earmarked for maintenance and repair, in special circumstances both the local bodies appear to be able to finance some small repair and maintenance from its development budget. Besides this, in general, the LGIs provide limited logistic supports to the facilities including furniture, latrine, tubewell and sometimes builds or repairs approach roads to the facilities and communicates local demands to the Upazila coordination meeting for action. Satellite clinics are sometimes also facilitated by the UP (making sitting arrangements for the providers and patients)

Responsibility for Supplies

The central government is responsible for procuring all supplies and pushing to facilities. Central Medical Stores Depot (CMSD) of the government procures medicines and supplies including medical and surgical requisites (MSR) for the public sector hospitals and facilities where the consumers get it free-of-cost (WHO, 1985). CMSD and Essential Drug Company Limited (EDCL) of MOHFW are responsible for providing medical supplies to District Reserve Stores (DRS), which operates under the control of the district health administrator called the Civil Surgeon (CS). Civil Surgeon (CS) at the district level also has some authority to purchase medical and surgical requisites (MSR) that includes standard packages of medicines and other supplies (equipment, X-ray film, ECG paper, gauze, bandage, etc.) for the facilities within the jurisdiction of the district. The drug supply system is ostensibly a 'pull' system, i.e. upazila and union managers submit request and items are supplied via an indent system. Requisition and supply is normally made on a monthly basis for UHCs and a quarterly basis for union facilities (i.e., UHFWC and USC). The Upazila health administration (UHFPO) is responsible for collecting supplies from DRS and distributing to service delivery points at UHC (indoor, outdoor and emergency sections), USC and UHFWC.

Neither UP nor UZP does play any role with regard to the supplies for service delivery. Supplies of materials (medicines and other medical supplies) for primary health centres are decided by the Ministry. For instance, whereas a Community Group (CG) for a Community Clinic may

be in a position to identify certain problems (eg., the absence of medical supplies), neither the clinic staff, nor Upazila level staff are typically in a position to address these concerns without intervention or support from the district level. Similarly, the concerned Upazila Committee may place its request for supplies to the concerned departments, but obtaining the supplies depends on the decision of the centre. Sometimes, in response to some critical needs UZP provides some small logistic support (fans, bench for patients to sit, cycle stand for the staff) considering the lengthy process involved to obtain them from the ministry.

Responsibility for Coordination, Performance Monitoring of Front-line Services and Community Mobilization

Accountability and monitoring follows the hierarchical structure of the sector. Local level health officials are accountable to their immediate higher line management within the (central) government administration. Although at the UZP and at the UP there exists various committees linking the government service providers and the local government representatives but these committees do not have the required authority to monitor the performance of the officials. Even if they do it, it hardly carries any meaning. As a means of ensuring accountability of service providers at the local level, although there is a legal provision (in the UZP Act 1998) for Upazila-level departmental officials to obtain Annual Performance Report (APR) from the UZP Chairman, this is not being practiced or enforced everywhere.

To coordinate the service delivery functions at the local level, at the upazila level, two committees exist: (i) Upazila committee on the services concerned, and (ii) Service related Committee at the UZP. These committees are supposed to have monthly meeting to have discussion about the problems and issues related to service delivery between the local health officials and the local government functionaries. At the UP level, the UDCC performs such coordinating job. On the other hand, the district health administration is supposed to coordinate the health service related activities in the upazilas within the jurisdiction of a district.

UP has some formal involvement with the CCs. Female ward members at the UP are responsible for overseeing the Community Clinics at the village level. Concerned ward member is the president of the CC Management Committee (CCMC), which meets once a month. CCs receive one carton of medicine supplies containing 29 essential medicines in three months interval, which is unpacked by the CC in presence of the UP Chairman/ward member. Although UHFWC and Union Sub-Centres are other types of health facilities at the local level, the UP does not have any formal involvement with their functioning. Formally, the UP does not have any monitoring authority over the UHFWC. UPs were found even unaware of how many staffs were supposed to provide service at the UHFWC. Services are informally monitored through the visit by the local

representatives to the health facilities but it is rare and it gets even rarer in hard-to-reach, geographically disadvantaged areas. Poor communication often discourages the UP functionaries to supervise the facilities as they are not provided with any logistic support. On the other hand, due to poor communication, availability of the line agency staff in these areas also remains quite limited.

With respect to community mobilization and engagement, local government bodies play important role. Upazila and Union Parishads take some initiatives for community mobilization on the eve of special events like National Immunization Day (NID). Not-for-profit or nongovernmental organizations also play key role in service provision as well as advocacy, community mobilization and communication. On the other hand, the front-line health facilities and their staff are also assigned the responsibility for community engagement and mobilization as they work at ward/village level.

Thus the above account informs that as opposed to the recently promulgated local government Acts favouring devolution, health services at the local level are in practice being delivered through a highly centralized management. All the key issues related to service delivery i.e., managing functionaries, finance, facilities, supplies, maintenance and repair- are virtually being controlled by the central ministries and their field offices. The LGIs play a minimal/limited role in the process through small maintenance works, and limited coordination and monitoring the facilities and social mobilization. It is also important to note that the degree of deconcentration within the government administration is also quite limited. The field level presence in both education and health sectors can be described as an extension of their respective central directorate, with the role of mere carrying out instructions from the center rather than taking planning and management decisions of any significance or exercising authority over budgetary resources. Thus there also remains gap between the vision of the health policy documents for having true deconcentration is yet to be achieved. Table 1 presents a summary overview of the *de facto* functional assignments for localized health and education services in Bangladesh.

Table 1: Responsibilities of local health administration and LGIs

Issues of health service	Levels of administration				
	Central Min.	Zila Admin	Upazila Admin	UZP	UP
Facilities (Capital exp.)	Main	Min.	None	None	None
Functionaries (local HRM)	Main	Limited	Min.	None	None
Operation & maintenance	Main	Limited	Min.	None	None
Sectoral supplies (meds)	Main	Limited	Min.	None	None
Coord. & comm. Engagement	None	None	Limited	Limited	Limited

Thus the study reveals a big gap between the policy and practice. Despite the policy of devolution of power to the local level, neither the administrative nor financial authority enjoyed by LGIs is adequate for them to deliver services in a devolved manner. LGIs do not have any managerial control over staff, supplies, maintenance, and infrastructure development. LGIs do not have any effective authority or incentives to monitor performance of the front line service providers and to make the providers accountable to them. The role that LGIs play with regard to the delivery of services is mere facilitative.

Impacts and Consequences

The current centralized management is one of the root causes for poor health service delivery in Bangladesh. The centralized hierarchical system by its very nature lacks flexibility and responsiveness in service delivery.

Due to the centralized management of functionaries, the study finds a crisis in the human resources of the health sector at different levels of front-line health facilities (UHC, UHFWC and USC), both in quantity and in quality, which should be considered as an important barrier to providing quality health and family planning services. Almost all the health facilities visited, particularly the UHCs, were found to have a large number of vacant posts of doctors and more importantly, a significant number of positioned doctors were found to be out of the work place. One Upazila Health Complex in a study area was found running only with one doctor in place of sanctioned nine doctors. This happens because the path of accountability of the doctors is upward and it is too long. Indeed, when asked about vacancies, an Upazila-level stakeholder informed that the decision to fill or not to fill vacancies is made by authorities above the Upazila level.

The centralized health financing mechanism results in less efficient distribution of the scarce resources. Central funding based on “one-size-fits-all” norms, hurts remote and disadvantaged areas. The number of health facilities, the number of hospital beds and the number of health staff are typically considered for budget allocations for local health facilities and public hospitals. While allocating resources to the UHCs, important factors such as demographics, geographic location (remoteness), needs (e.g., higher poverty), or disease profiles of the area were not considered. This results in an inefficient and inequitable distribution of health finances. In particular, places that are more remote and hard to reach will have fewer health facilities and staff, and thus, get stuck in a vicious cycle of under-staffing, under-funding and weak services. Moreover, the rigid nature of fund flow

from the centre makes the local health officials unable to address the local problems in a timely manner. On the other hand, Upazila Parishads have limited resources (especially compared to the legal responsibilities assigned to them); that they have weak capacity to plan, prioritize and spend resources in accordance with local service delivery priorities. Thus local needs are left unaddressed for long. There are virtually no accountability mechanisms in place to make sure that Upazila Parishads spend their resources in line with either sectoral priorities and/or with the priorities of their constituents.

As a part of the centralized system relied upon, the MOHFW is responsible for covering the cost or providing operational items for local health facilities, like fuel for generator and other such items and local responsibility for maintenance and repair is quite limited. Upazila Health Complex does not get sufficient operational cost for maintaining a generator during frequent power cuts from the center, which means that nonoperational generators cannot be repaired and even functioning generators cannot be run when the fuel runs out. Doctors from the Kazipur UHC of Sirajgonj district informed the study team that the absence of a working generator is a major obstacle to provide expected health services, as this means that medical equipment cannot be used.

The current centralized structure does not perform maintaining and repairing health facilities in a responsive manner. Although Upazila-level health managers and DDFP do not have any funds to manage maintenance cost, District health administrations are given a small budget for funding minor repairs for UHCs and local-level health infrastructure up to a ceiling of Taka 2000 (US\$30). A health official informed, “It takes a long time for maintenance of health facility from departmental funds. Sometimes we manage minor repairing from our own pocket”. Expressing dissatisfaction expressed dissatisfaction with this top-down arrangement, an upazila manager said, “I informed HED about the need for plastering of some parts of the upazila health complex and some parts of doctors’ residential buildings over six months month ago but no action on the part of HED is yet visible. Such unresponsive top-down system disrupts service delivery at the front-line”.

The top down system also affects timely supply of medicines. Community Clinics are supposed to be provided with 30 drugs but in most cases supplies are limited, which seriously affects service to the rural community. *“I have only two types of medicines. People come to community*

clinic and I have to tell them that there are no medicines. It is risky... some time they abuse us and express concern why are we being paid by the government for doing nothing” – stated by a CHCP. The arrangements for supply of drugs to CCs have failed to achieve even a reasonable level of availability. Indeed, every health facility visited as part of this study informed us that the supply of medicines is inadequate.

Thus the study observes overall poor quality health service at the local level, which can largely be attributed to the centralized management of services or in other words to the negligible role of local government in service delivery.

What Led to this Gap?

The above account clearly depicts a wide gap between the legal provisions and the service delivery on the ground. The paper has identified some underlying reasons for the gaps between the policy of localizing health service and the practice, which are as follows:

Legal weaknesses cause a lack of enforcement of the functional assignments to the LGIs

The current study finds some legal weaknesses causing the lack of enforcement of the local government Acts transferring health services to the UZP and UP, which include: contradictions in legal provisions and lack of clarity/gaps in legislations. These include:

Contradictions in the UZP Acts and Circulars.

Although UZP Act 1998 introduced the transfer of authority and responsibility for services to the UZP but its amendment in 2009 imposed central control over the UZP through allowing the Members of Parliament (MPs) get involved in the decision making process of the UZP (Section 19 of the Rule 27). The 2009 Act has seriously undermined the spirit and essence of devolution expounded by the 1998 Act and its mother law-- the 1982 UZP Ordinance. Afterwards, various Circulars issued by the MOLGRD generated more contradictions with the existing law mainly with regard to the issues of *managing human resources* and exerting *central control* over UZP activities. Although the UZP Act 1998 advocated for transferring services to the UZP by placing the officials and staff of the concerned departments at the disposal of the parishad, but in practice, with regard to the management of the deputed officials UZP does not enjoy any authority. In addition to this, although the UZP Act 1998 requires

devolution of authority and responsibility to the UZP, but contrarily, certain circulars have imposed central control over the UZP. Table 2 presents the main contradictions in the local government Policy, Acts, and Circulars with regard to the transfer of service delivery responsibilities to the UZP.

Table 2: Contradictions in the local Government Policy, Acts, and Circulars

Issues	Act	Circular
1. Management of the officials and staff by the LGIs	UZP Act 1998 states that the officials, staff and their functions of the ministries will be transferred to the UZP. All officials of transferred departments will be placed at the disposal of UZP.	Dated 4 th May 2009: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Upazila Chairman can propose measures for control, supervision, withdrawal, transfer, disciplinary action against an official to the concerned authority. Chair will have the authority to take disciplinary action against any official or staff of the UZP other than the officials deputed by the government.
	UZP Act 2011 stressed using the term 'transferred' in place of 'transferable' and added 5 more departments as transferred to the UZP	Dated 6 January, 2013: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Matters related to human resource management and control will be retained by departmental heads at the central level.
2. Central control	Policy (Sixth Five year Plan) commitment of having strong autonomous local government with discretionary power to carry out their responsibilities.	Dated 20 June 2010 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> UZP has to send a copy of its approved budget to the government along with the local MP and the Deputy Commissioner (DC).
		Dated 19 September, 2010: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Officials of transferred departments will submit all the official files for approval to the UZ Chairman through UNO.

Contradictions between the policy positions of local government and the sectoral policies. The study also finds contradictions between the policy of local government (manifested in various legal documents eg., Acts) and the sectoral policies. The Sixth Five Year Plan (2011-15) rightly stresses that the

implementation of devolution is to take place in coordination with sector development strategies, particularly for social services. In reality, the study finds a sheer gap between the policy focus of local government and that of the health sector. *While local government policy emphasizes on devolution, the health sector policy systematically advocates for promoting deconcentration.* Agenda wise, involvement of local government in service delivery is a remote issue in health sector policy. Such contradiction in policy focus affects the effective transfer of services to the LGIs.

Lack of Clarity/Gaps in legal Provisions

Legally, all tiers of field administration and all LGIs are responsible for delivering services but the legal provisions lack clarity about the division of functional responsibilities between the two entities. The UP Act 2009 has not mentioned specifically what role would UP play in delivering the services transferred to it which creates confusion among the functionaries about their role with regard to the delivery of services. On the other hand, the sectoral policy also does have certain gaps. The health policy 2011 remains vague about the nature of involvement of local government in service delivery. Table 3 presents the responsibilities of local administration and LGIs for health services, which is indicative of local administration being the key player in service delivery while on the other hand, responsibilities for the LGIs have been mentioned in such a broad manner that LGIs might also be considered as the key service provider at the local level. In the recent Acts relevant to the local government tier, responsibilities of LGIs have been mentioned while the Circulars of the concerned Directorates are the sources of the responsibilities assigned to the district and upazila administration. Table 3 shows that responsibilities of zila parishad and district health administration overlap in supervision issues (shown in bold form). On the other hand, at the upazila level, the role of upazila parishad with respect to health service is unclear and in fact overlaps with upazila health administration. By saying that upazila parishad will be responsible for “ensuring the provision of health and family planning services” it actually covers all aspects of service provision that have been pronounced in detail in case of the functions of the head of upazila health administration called the UHFPO. Such lack of clarity in legal provision causes confusion and finally results in non-functionality of upazila parishad in health service delivery. Similarly, at the union level also, responsibilities for both health services have been kept broad while the functionaries of local administration actually manage the delivery of services.

Table 3: Lack of clarity/overlapping of responsibilities between LGIs and Local Administration

Tiers	Responsibilities of LGIs	Responsibilities of Local Administration
District	<p><u>Health</u> Zila Parishad (Zila Parishad Act 2000) (Optional functions)</p> <p>Improvement of health education, -providing grants to the institutions facilitating medical care -Formation of satellite medical team -Formulation and implementation of programs for prevention of infectious diseases <i>-Supervising the health workers</i> <i>-Establishment, maintenance and supervision of the health centres, maternal and child health centres, imparting training to the traditional birth attendants</i></p>	<p>Responsibilities of District Civil Surgeon (Head of District Health Administration)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Coordinating all health and family planning activities in the district -Ensuring proper functioning of all health institutions in the district and carrying out inspections periodically or as may be specified. <i>-Supervising all health activities and programs in the district</i> -Accounting officer in respect of health services officers in the district -To ensure procurement of supplies, maintenance of district reserve store and distribution of supplies to all peripheral health units. -Dealing with medico-legal cases in the district and to be responsible for the overall administration and enforcement of health legislation in the district. -To initiate disciplinary cases against all officers and staff working in the district.
Upazila	<p>Upazila Parishad (UZP) Upazila Parishad Act 1998 <u>Responsible for ensuring the provision of public health, nutrition and family planning services</u></p>	<p>Upazila Health and Family Planning Officer (UHFPO)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -To work under the guidance of upazila parishad as coordinated by the UNO. -Supervising health and family planning activities at the upazila level and below. -Sanctioning authority for expenditure of funds for both health and family planning divisions and ensuring proper utilization of these funds. -Responsible for the management,

Tiers	Responsibilities of LGIs	Responsibilities of Local Administration
		<p>administration and maintenance of Upazila health complex</p> <p><i>-Responsible for the implementation of family planning programs in the upazila</i></p> <p>-Allocation of duties among the health and family planning staff in the area</p> <p>-Managing training for the health and family planning staff in the upazila</p> <p>-Maintenance of necessary information and statistics in the Upazila health complex</p> <p>-Visiting the unions and villages regularly to get acquainted with the problems and achievement of the ongoing health programs</p> <p>-Regular inspection of the unions under the upazila</p> <p>-Responsible for procurement, distribution and proper utilization of stores.</p> <p>-To initiate ACRs of the officers and staff working in the upazila</p> <p>-Responsible for the supervision of enforcement of health legislation</p>
Union	<p>Union Parishad (UP Act 2009: 2nd Schedule)</p> <p>Implementation of programs related to health and family planning</p> <p>Arranging health centres for primary health care services.</p>	<p>Field level health workers provide both domiciliary and static health and family planning service.</p>

Local Government Acts are also unclear about the distribution of vertical responsibilities among LGIs- almost all levels have similar types of responsibilities. Table 4 informs the health service related responsibilities assigned to the LGIs and identifies the overlapping and vagueness in the assigned functions.

Table 4: Overlapping of responsibilities between the tiers of LGIs

Tiers	Responsibilities of LGIs	Overlapping
Zila Parishad (ZP) (Zila Parishad Act 2000)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Improvement of health education, -Providing grants to the institutions facilitating medical care -Formation of mobile medical team -Formulation and implementation of programs for prevention of infectious diseases -Supervising the health workers -Establishment, maintenance and supervision of the health centres, maternal and child health centres -Training to Traditional Birth Attendants (TBAs) 	Supervision of health workers and health centres by the ZP overlaps with the similar responsibility of UZP.
Upazila Parishad (UZP) (Upazila Parishad Act 1998)	Ensuring the provision of public health, nutrition and family planning services	It appears that UZP will be responsible for managing everything in order to “ensure health and family planning service provision” including the responsibilities assigned to the zila parishad.
Union Parishad (UP Act 2009: 2nd Schedule)	Implementation of programs related to health and family planning ; Arranging health centres for primary health care services.	Implementation of programs related to health and family planning overlaps with UZP which is assigned to ensure the provision of public health, nutrition and family planning services

The health service related functions assigned to the Zila Parishad mentioned in Table 4 are optional functions. However, its supervisory functions overlap with the upazila parishad. On the other hand, responsibilities for health services of UZP overlap with those of UP as the functions are mostly broad, open and vague in functional terms. For example, mandates like “ensuring the service provision”, and “functions related to primary and mass education services” cause overlapping and confusion. Particularly at the

union level, responsibilities for health services have been kept largely broad and unspecified, which do not reflect the actual role of UP (service provider and supervisor of local administration). Such lack of clarity in functional assignments significantly contributes to the nonfunctionality of LGIs in service delivery.

Legal provisions are also unclear about the distribution of vertical responsibilities among local administration. Table 5 has cited some examples of such lack of clarity. Table 5 shows that in the health sector, there are some overlapping of functions between the district and upazila administration particularly with regard to inspection, supervision of health and family planning activities and procurement and distribution functions.

Table 5: Lack of clarity in the distribution of responsibilities among the levels of local administration

Services	District Administration	Upazila Administration
Health	-Ensuring proper functioning of all health institutions in the district and carrying out inspections periodically or as may be specified.	-Regular inspection of the unions under the upazila
	-Supervising all health activities and programs in the district	-Supervising health and family planning activities at the upazila level and below
	-To ensure procurement of supplies, maintenance of district reserve store and distribution of supplies to all peripheral health units.	- Responsible for procurement, distribution and proper utilization of stores.
	- Responsible for the overall administration and enforcement of health legislation in the district.	-Responsible for the supervision of enforcement of health legislation

The above mentioned contradictions and lack of clarity in legal provisions cause confusions, unresponsiveness and nonfunctionality of both the local administration and the local government entities, the ultimate result of which is poor quality service for the rural people.

Control of Central Politics Over the Functioning of Local Government and Local Administration

Although the UZP Act 1998 has transferred health services to the UZP but the parishad has not been devolved with adequate authority to provide services instead, central control has been imposed on the parishad by making the Member of Parliament (MP) of the concerned area as the adviser

to the parishad. Involvement of MPs as the adviser to the UZP coordination committee is one of the major obstacles for the UZP to play a stronger role in delivering services. Particularly with regard to the economic projects like infrastructure development, MP's voice becomes stronger than the UZP or the local administration. This practice generates conflict between UZP Chairman and the local MP, which ultimately makes the UZP Chairman reluctant about service delivery. Besides, each and every committee at the local level has MP or a "representative" of MP as its adviser or member with heavy influence. For instance, Upazila Hospital Management Committee, which is the lone functional upazila level committee on health service, is headed by the local MP and all the UZP committees having relevance with finance have MP as the adviser. This practice seriously disempowers and demotivates the local bodies to get involved in service delivery.

Lack of Political will for Localizing Service Delivery

The study reveals a sheer political unwillingness for devolution or transferring authority to local bodies regarding social services. Two examples can justify this claim. First, the 1982 UZP Ordinance was explicit about transferring the responsibility for the management of government deputed officials at the upazila level to the UZP and had no mention about the MP's "advisory" role to the UZP. But the UZP Act 2009 (amendment) has introduced the provision of making MPs to the advisers to the parishad and a Circular issued by the MOLGRDC in 2013 asserted that the issues related to the management of deputed officials would be under the control of central government. Second, the health sector policy does not have any clear policy position about the involvement of local government in service delivery. These raise doubts about the willingness of the successive governments to localize services through devolution in true sense. As a natural consequence, the initiatives for localization of services through devolution continue to remain half-hearted and fail to produce the desired results.

Highly Centralized Administrative System

Inherited from the colonial rule, the vertically organized administrative system leads to a highly centralized management of sectoral services. Both health and education services at the local level are solely controlled by the central ministries or the directorates concerned. Central control over financial resources along with other aspects of service delivery like maintenance, repair and procurement of supplies demonstrates a strong presence of colonial legacy of administration through control. Centralization has taken such an extreme form within the vertical structure that the central ministries retain all the budgetary and staff management authorities leaving the subnational entities as mere the implementing agencies with minimal authority. All the sectoral staffs are recruited centrally even the field level

health and family planning staffs are also recruited by the Directorates. Thus the current administration is still solely engulfed with the centralistic attitude of colonial administration.

Concluding Remarks

Policy wise, Bangladesh is in favour of decentralizing health service delivery. Both the local government and the health sector have pronounced the promise of localizing health service delivery through decentralization—in the form of devolution (envisioned by the local government sector) and deconcentration (promised by the health sector). In practice, as the above account shows, neither devolution nor deconcentration has been implemented successfully.

The finding of the present study refers to the near-absence of local government institutions (UPs and UZPs) in local health service delivery indicating a wide gap between the legal provisions (UZP Act 1998 and UP Act 2009) and the practice. LGIs do not have any direct involvement in delivering health services other than providing small logistic supports and paying visits to the facilities.. Beyond their minimal involvement in community engagement and (in some places) the allocation of a tiny portion of local block grants to health-related activities, UPs and UZPs do not play any meaningful role in health service delivery. Given that the provision of health service is under the firm control of the field administration of the MOHFW while the interest in local health service delivery issues among local government functionaries is limited. This situation does not bode well for the devolution of responsibilities for local health services that is envisioned under the recently revised local government Acts. On the other hand, the degree of deconcentration within the government administration is also limited. All the decisions regarding service delivery mechanisms (functionaries), capital (facilities) as well as funds are exclusively controlled from the central ministry. Excessive centralization of functional responsibilities for health infrastructure, financing staffing at the upazila level and below level is contributing to persistent gaps in the availability of health facilities at the local level in the form of absenteeism of the health staff, lack of medicine and supplies, absence of proper maintenance of the facilities.

As the underlying reasons for the gap between policy and practice the study has identified some legal weaknesses causing overlappings and confusion about the responsibility of local administration and local governments for service delivery, excessive interference of central politics, lack of political will for devolving power to the local level and the centralized administration of the country. Overall, the study observes that country's political culture and history, economy and administrative system are central to all these maladies, which should be examined in future studies.

7. Japan-USA Relations in the Postwar Period: Learning for Bangladesh

Proshanta Kumer Sarker

Introduction

The relationship between Japan and USA takes a dramatic turn after the World War II. With the dropping of the atom bombs in Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan had no other alternative to surrender. By this time the land of gods, as the Japanese consider it, turns in an ash-pit. The army of the Allied Forces landed on Japan soon and captivated them according to the after consequences of the war defeat. About 3.5 hundred thousand US soldiers landed on Japan. For quite a few months brutality went on as the victorious armies usually do on the vanquished. MacArthur, the supreme commander of the Allied forces reached Japan soon and as an efficient General and Politician declared that no member of the Allied Force torture on any Japanese citizen and they must not take the scarce food of the Japanese ^[2]. It was really a gracious statement of the victorious General. Japan prepared herself to pay heavy reparation for the war damage.

MacArthur started reformation work in Japan. He arranged the trial of the war criminals and executed the convicts among whom Japanese Prime Minister was also included. However, MacArthur showed great honour to the Emperor of Japan. Along with the Emperor, he visited the whole land of gods and campaigned for turning Japan into a democratic country. Finally, a constitution was drafted renouncing war forever. With the outbreak of Korean War and, because of the initiation of Cold War, world political situations changed by this time. USA changed her policy and instead of suppressing Japan, USA attempted to turn Japan into a bastion for US army ^[3]. Japan USA relation took a new turn and with the Peace Treaty of San Francisco in 1951, Japan got back its full sovereignty. At present USA maintains as much as 40 centers for her military bases in The Kanto Plain Base Complex and The Okinawa Base Complex in Japan for providing security in Japan as well as in the Pacific.

Background/Origin and Growth of Relations

US–Japan relations dated back in 1853 when US Naval Commodore William Perry came to Edo Bay with “the four black ships of evil men” and declared his presence with cannon fire urging to open the door of Japan for the foreigners for doing trade and commerce. Perry demanded permission to present a letter from President Millard Fillmore, threatening force if he was

denied. Japan had shunned modern technology for centuries, and the Japanese military wouldn't be able to resist Perry's ships; these "Black Ships" would later become a symbol of threatening Western technology in Japan. Perry returned in March 1854 with twice as many ships, finding that the delegates had prepared a treaty embodying virtually all the demands in Fillmore's letter; Perry signed the Convention of Kanagawa on March 31, 1854, and departed ^[4]. In this way relation with Japan and USA developed. Japanese took this Peace Treaty as an expedient and took the policy of "Rich Country, Strong Army." Japan took assistance from USA regarding technology and education. They followed USA to make their education system modern. The relationship between Japan and USA developed gradually and this continued up to WWI. The relationship took a negative turn during 1930s with the incidents of Oil-Embargo, Second Sino-Japanese War, and initiation of East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere and so on. The relationship turned the worst with Japan's attack on Pearl Harbour in 1941. Ultimately, Japan involved in the WWII and the relationship was shattered with the dropping of two atom bombs in Hiroshima and Nagashaki in August 1945.

Goals and Compulsions of US Japan Relations

After the end of the war, the victorious allies put Japan under international control. U.S. General Douglas MacArthur was supreme commander for the reconstruction of Japan. Goals for reconstruction were democratic self-government, economic stability, and peaceful Japanese co-existence with the community of nations. The United States allowed Japan to keep its emperor... Hirohito... after the war. However, Hirohito had to renounce his divinity and publicly support Japan's new constitution.

Japan's U.S.-approved constitution granted full freedoms to its citizen, created a congress -- or "Diet," and renounced Japan's ability to make war. That provision, Article 9 of the constitution, was obviously an American mandate and reaction to the war. It read, "Aspiring sincerely to an international peace based on justice and order, the Japanese people forever renounce war as a sovereign right of the nation and the threat or use of force as a mean of settling international disputes."In order to accomplish the aim of the preceding paragraph, land, sea, and air forces, as well as other war potential, will never be maintained. The right of belligerency of the state will not be recognized ^[5]. Japan's post-war constitution became official on May 3, 1947, and Japanese citizens elected a new legislature. The U.S. and other allies signed a peace treaty in San Francisco formally ending the war in 1951.

Postwar Treaty

By 1950s world's political situation changed a lot. The outbreak of Korean War and the Cold War situation made USA to revise her policy regarding Japan. USA needed the assistance of Japan to provide shelter to their

military. Simultaneous with the San Francisco treaty, Japan and the United States signed their first security treaty ^[6]. The post-war treaty reflects the goals of US policy in Japan. The following are the articles in the treaty.

Article-1

Japan grants, and the United States of America accepts, the right, upon the coming into force of the Treaty of Peace and of this Treaty, to dispose United States land, air and sea forces in and about Japan.

Article-2

During the exercise of the right referred to in Article I, Japan will not grant, without the prior consent of the United States of America, any bases or any rights, powers or authority whatsoever, in or relating to bases or the right of garrison or of maneuver, or transit of ground, air or naval forces to any third power.

Article-3

The conditions which shall govern the disposition of armed forces of the United States of America in and about Japan shall be determined by administrative agreements between the two Governments.

Article-4

This Treaty shall expire whenever in the opinion of the Governments of the United States of America and Japan there shall have come into force such United Nations arrangements or such alternative individual or collective security dispositions as will satisfactorily provide for the maintenance by the United Nations or otherwise of international peace and security in the Japan Area.

Article-5

This Treaty shall be ratified by the United States of America and Japan and will come into force when instruments of ratification thereof have been exchanged by them at Washington.

Areas of Relations

Today the United States and Japan have firm and very active social, political, economic and military relationships. The United States considers Japan to be one of its closest allies and partners. Japan is one of the most pro-American nations in the world, with 85% of Japanese people viewing the U.S. and 87% viewing Americans favorably in 2011 ^[7].

Economic Relations

The United States has been Japan's largest economic partner, taking 31.5 percent of its exports, supplying 22.3 percent of its imports, and accounting for 45.9 percent of its direct investment abroad in 1990. As of 2013, the United States takes up 18% of Japanese exports, and supplies 8.5% of its imports (the slack having been picked up by China, which now provides 22%). Japan's imports from the United States included both raw materials

and manufactured goods. United States agricultural products were a leading import in 1990 (US\$8.5 billion as measured by United States export statistics), made up of meat (US\$1.5 billion), fish (US\$1.8 billion), grains (US\$2.4 billion), and soybeans (US\$8.8 billion). In 1990 Japan imported US\$11.1 billion of machinery from the United States, of which computers and computer parts (US\$3.9 billion) formed the largest single component. In the category of transportation equipment, Japan imported US\$3.3 billion of aircraft and parts (automobiles and parts accounted for only US\$1.8 billion).

Japan's exports to the United States were almost entirely manufactured goods. Automobiles were by far the largest single category, amounting to US\$21.5 billion in 1990, or 24 percent of total Japanese exports to the United States. Automotive parts accounted for another US\$10.7 billion. Other major items were office machinery (including computers), which totaled US\$8.6 billion in 1990, telecommunications equipment (US\$4.1 billion) and power-generating machinery (US\$451 million).^[8]

Political Relations

On September 8, 1951, Japan and the allied countries, including the United States, signed the San Francisco Peace Treaty, formally ending World War II and starting a new era of Japan-U.S. relations. Since then, Japan and the United States have overcome many challenges together and developed their relationship into “the most important bilateral relationship in the world, bar none”. At the summit meeting between Prime Minister Fukuda and President Bush in November 2007, both leaders shared the view that the Japan-U.S. alliance was the cornerstone of the promotion of Japanese and U.S. foreign policy in Asia and played an indispensable role in enabling both countries to address global issues. In the history of the world, it would be difficult to find two other nations who once engaged in war and have so rapidly established such a strong partnership as Japan and the United States. Both the United States and Japan belong to a variety of global organizations, including: the United Nations, World Trade Organization, G20, World Bank, International Monetary Fund, and the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperative (APEC). Both have worked together on such issues as HIV/AIDS and global warming^[9].

Social Relations

Japan and the United States share interests and fundamental values, including freedom, democracy, human rights and the rule of law. The two countries are building significantly interdependent and cooperative relationships across a broad range of areas in the political, security and economic cooperation. The majority of both Japanese and U.S. nationals have positive views on Japan-U.S. relations. A poll released by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Japan in June 2007 showed that 74% of the U.S. “general public” and 91% of U.S. “opinion leaders” regarded Japan as “a dependable ally or friend.”^[10]

Cultural Relations

The Japan-US Friendship Commission is an independent federal agency established by Congress in 1975 to strengthen the US-Japan relationship through educational, cultural, and intellectual exchange. Its mission is to support reciprocal people-to-people understanding, and promote partnerships that advance common interests between Japan and the United States. JUSFC accepts grant applications in the following areas:

1. Exchanges and Scholarship
2. Global Challenges
3. Arts and Culture
4. Education and Public Affairs

The US-Japan Conference on Cultural and Educational Interchange (CULCON) has its origins in meetings held in Washington in 1961 between President John F. Kennedy and Prime Minister Hayato Ikeda. In their joint communiqué of June 22, 1961, they agreed to the establishment of a United States-Japan Committee to study expanded cultural and educational cooperation between the two countries. The US CULCON secretariat is supported by funds from the US Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs. ^[11]

Problems

One of the most contentious issues in the alliance has been the stationing of U.S. Marines on Japan's Okinawa prefecture, which hosts around 65 percent of total U.S. forces in Japan and is also the poorest of Japan's forty-seven prefectures. Locals deeply resent the outsize burden of hosting U.S. troops at the Futenma base and have voiced serious concerns about the accidents and incidents of crime (including recurring cases of sexual assault) that have persisted on the base. The gang rape of a twelve-year-old girl in 1995 by three U.S. servicemen galvanized eighty-five thousand locals to protest. A year after the mass demonstration, then Prime Minister Ryutaro Hashimoto directly asked then U.S. president Bill Clinton to return Futenma to Japanese control. Other allegations of sexual violence by U.S. military personnel in Okinawa surfaced in 2008 and 2012, and various plans for relocating Futenma were put forward, but they were met with local opposition.

In a more recent bid to reconcile tensions, the United States and Japan agreed in May 2006 to a U.S.-Japan Roadmap for Realignment Implementation that would relocate the Futenma Air Station out of the crowded city of Ginowan, build a new runway in the waters off of Camp Schwab, and transfer eight thousand Marines to Guam. But this proposal devolved into a political maelstrom when the Democratic Party of Japan's Yukio Hatoyama, who opposed the relocation during his campaign, became prime minister in 2009.

Since then, Washington and Tokyo have made other overtures to resolve the long-standing issue. The two parties altered the pact in April 2012, disconnecting the transfer of Marines from the construction of the new base, and in April 2013 they reached a deal to return Futenma—and five other U.S. bases—by the late 2020s.^[12]

Ways of Strengthening Relations

Japan-U.S. relationship now faces a critical test. In order to ensure sustainable and stable development of this bilateral partnership, following steps can be taken. First, the new government of Japan will have to clarify its fundamental policy in relation to joint actions with the United States in security matters. More concretely, it should aim to achieve a common understanding with the United States that, while Japan intends to strengthen its alliance with the United States in the Asian-Pacific region in light of changing international security environments, it will basically deploy its Self-Defense Forces to deal with global issues beyond the region, such as in the Middle-East and Africa, only under the U.N. framework.

Second, the new government of Japan will try to make Japan-U.S. alliance more even-balanced, respecting the ability of both governments to make independent decisions. Moreover, as its good friend, the Japanese government should continue to persuade the U.S. government that action sanctioned by international and multilateral institutions including the United Nations is the only path toward world peace. To construct Japan-U.S. alliance between two fully independent partners, Japan must try hard to fulfill its duty to defend itself more vigorously. At the same time, both the United States and Japan should review various systems, regulations, and institutions associated with Japan-U.S. Security Treaty.

Learning for Bangladesh

US-Japan relations can be an ideal example to be followed for Bangladesh including other Asian nations. For example, Bangladesh can develop similar relations with India excepting the military one since Article 9 of Japanese constitution is not common in the constitution of Bangladesh. However, Bangladesh can reduce its military budgets and pay more attention to its education system as Japan did during 1870s, a revolution in their education system. Strategically, Bangladesh-India relations can be a more successful one compared to that of US- Japan. This is because both the countries have cultural, geographical and other similarities. Bangladesh can create a huge market of their products in India. At the same time India can also create ample opportunities for their products in Bangladesh. Both the country can sign treaties which include visa free travelling for the people of both the countries. India can have transit for her transporting goods from one state to another crossing the border of Bangladesh. At the same time India can offer many other opportunities to Bangladesh such as, giving chance to Bangladeshi students to study in Indian universities with scholarship and low costs, making a peaceful solution regarding agitation in the border areas called “Chitmahal).

Conclusion

In the foregoing discussion, I have focused on various aspects on Japan – USA relation. The diplomatic relations between these two countries have been critically viewed by the political thinkers of the world from different point of views. Many comment that Japan is a country which is independent but militarily dependent on USA. Other bitter critics comment that the present Japan is a doll in the hand of USA because they are to abide by whatever USA commands.^[13] They point out the issue of Iraq in this regard. Even many say that Japan is a country that follows the constitution made by USA. However, the Japanese believe that it is their own constitution and they have full respect on its supremacy. Many critics point out the US base in Okinawa Island where Japanese women are seduced by US armies but Japan says nothing about it. Whatever the critics say, I believe that the relation between Japan and USA is an ideal example of peaceful co-existence. This type of co-existence not only builds up cooperation but also promote universal brotherhood and peace and harmony among the nations of the world. In spite of having a gulf of cultural difference between them, a peaceful relation and co-existence of these two powerful economies have a great influence in the world politics.

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8. Rural Development in the Contemporary Globalized World: Boon or Bane

Md. Mizanur Rahman

Introduction

Globalization has emerged as an irresistible force to sway every aspects of human life in today's world. Unobstructed trade of goods, services, cataclysmic development of ITCs and socio-cultural integration across the globe appears to be the overwhelming aftermath of globalization. *Ipsa facto* there is hardly any scope that can escape from such reality. Globalization has both positive and negative consequences and ramifications. Likewise it brings opportunities and poses threats to both rural and urban life. Free trade, privatization and market forces are increasingly putting the rural economy at stake. In order to combat with the situation, the threats have to be coped with and opportunities have to be grasped. The aggressive advancement of globalization coupled with market economy has been persistently changing the old concepts, practices and systems of rural development, especially in the developing countries. Against such a backdrop, an effort is employed to delve into the impact of globalization on poverty and rural life and society in Bangladesh.

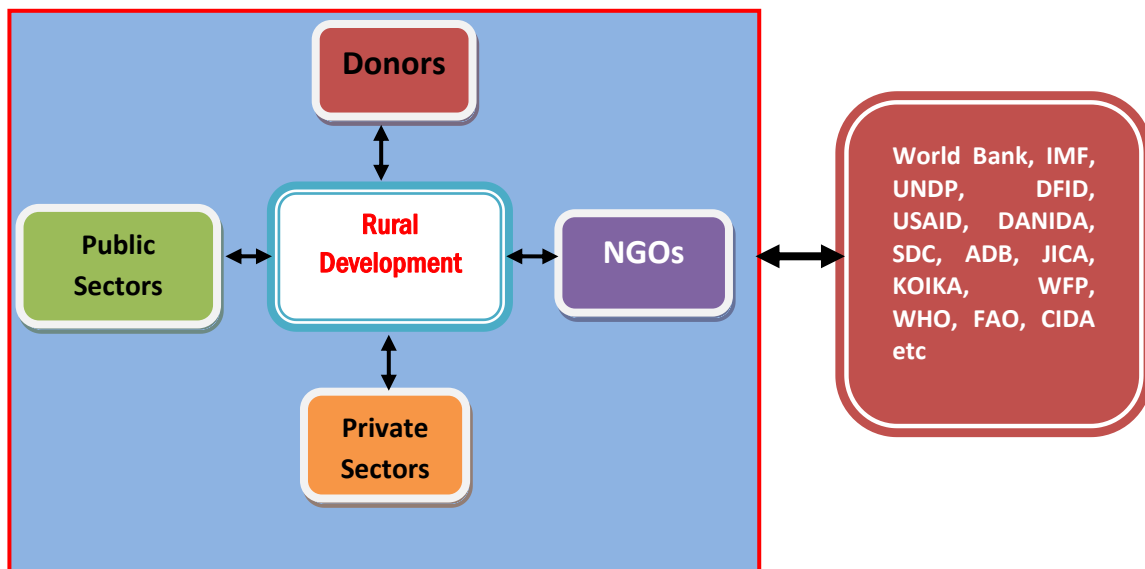
Methodology of the Paper

Through this article the author endeavored to seek out the research questions: what impact globalization has made on poverty and rural life and society in the contemporary changed contexts of rural development in Bangladesh? In unraveling the above research question the paper is prepared following a mixed method research approach because of the fact that as globalization is a vast issue, so drawing inference from both quantitative and qualitative data would help get deeper and holistic insights about the research issue. Data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. Quantitative data were collected from secondary sources adopting a heuristic literature review obtained through books, journal articles, research reports, workshops and seminar papers and online internet search following the content analysis method. Qualitative data were collected from primary sources. To supplement quantitative data, two in-depth evidence based case studies were added to illustrate impact of globalization on poverty and rural life and society. Through the qualitative cases impact, ramifications, magnitude and processes of globalization on broader areas of rural development namely rural poverty and life and society have been analyzed systematically.

Rural Development (RD) in Bangladesh: The Contemporary Scenario

The history of RD is rich in Bangladesh. The journey of conventional RD started in this subcontinent with the Village Agricultural and Industrial Development (V-AID) program, which was basically a community development program (CDP). It was started simultaneously in Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and many other developing countries of the world, with different names and programs but the main essence was same and these CDPs were sponsored by USA under food assisted development program (PL-480) with a view to encounter revolutionary tendencies in the third world countries. Since early eighties with the advent of globalization, privatization, market economy and revolution of NGOs, the phase of state-fostered RD underwent massive changes by multiple players and actors (Figure-1). In this changed context, government line agencies are deemed as inefficient, technically incompetent, understaffed and philosophically conservative for ushering RD. Now, it has been recognized that NGOs and community based organizations have a significant role to play in improving service delivery and providing improved mechanisms for targeting disadvantaged groups in the field of RD. The following figure can present today's RD actors in Bangladesh.

Figure -1: Major Players in Rural Development



Impact of Globalization on Rural Development in Bangladesh

Bangladesh's integration with the global economy has spawned positive and negative ramifications on RD. Global pressures are increasingly changing the character of states and nature of RD, local governance and institutions so this paper purports to delve into the impact of globalization on rural poverty and social life in the changed context in today's Bangladesh. Discussions of the impact of globalization are supplemented with brief summaries and analyses in each aspect.

Impact of Globalization on Poverty

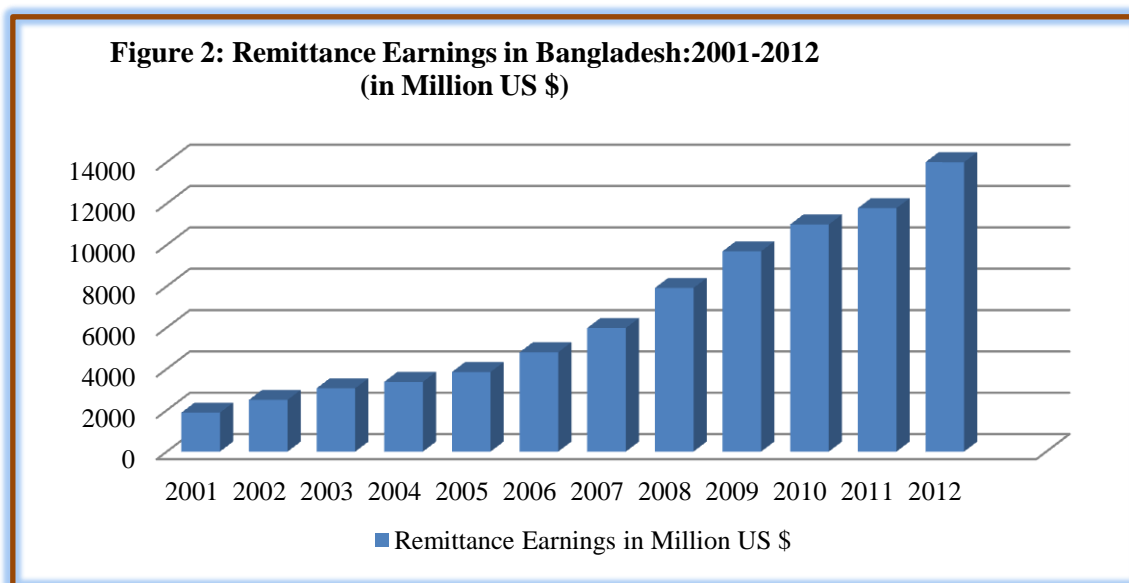
Based on the meticulous analysis, it was observed that due to globalization poverty in rural areas has reduced but at the same time globalization has intensified inequalities, which adversely affected the rural life and well-being of the poor people. Osmani (2005) found that compared to the 1980s, the 1990s decade witnessed accelerated growth and faster reduction of poverty in Bangladesh but it also widened income inequality. Poverty situation was somehow static, which was 52% in 1983-84 but poverty fell to 50% in 1991-92. Again another study found that poverty situation has got improved trends which was 58.8% in 1991/1992 and reduced by 49.8% in 2000 with an annual reduction rate of 1.8% (BBS, 2001; World Bank, 2002). The trends of poverty continued and further reduced again by 31.51% in 2010 (World Bank, 2012). In Bangladesh, both urban and rural areas enjoyed reduced poverty in the 1990s, but more poverty reduction was observed mainly in rural areas. Urban poverty maintained a steady decline in the last two decades-falling from 41% in 1983-84 to 34% in 1991-92 and then further to 26% by 2000. By contrast, rural poverty changed very little in the 1980s-the proportion of people in poverty was 54% in 1983-84 and 53% in 1991-92. But by 2000, it had fallen to 44%. Moreover, poverty in both urban and rural areas declined by an impressive 19 percentage points in the last decade and a half (World Bank, 2012). Thus, accelerated rate of poverty reduction was observed in the 1990s was essentially a rural phenomenon.

On the other hand, evidence shows that the negative consequence of globalization on poverty has enhanced income inequality. Nath and Al Mamun (2004) found that as an aftermath of globalization, trade openness promoted investment but it did not enhance distribution of income rather it had augmented income inequality, especially for the rural poor. Dev *et al.* (2008) also found that income inequality measured through Gini Coefficient had increased from 0.432 in 1995/96 to 0.451 in 2000 and then increased further to 0.467 in 2005. In case of income of rural household, income inequality has increased from 0.385 in 1995/96 to 0.393 in 2000 and 0.428 in 2005.

Summary and Analysis

Myriad factors facilitated poverty reduction in Bangladesh. Firstly, globalized labour market has helped Bangladeshi workers to enter into global job market easily, which in turn helped massive increase of remittance from emigrant Bangladeshi workers. This remittance earning helped rapid economic growth in Bangladesh. Evidence shows that in the last two decades since 1980, the volume of remittance sent by Bangladeshi workers has grown at the rate of 8.5% annually in real terms. By the end of the 1990s, the annual receipts had amounted to roughly 30% of export earnings and over 4% of GDP. Even recent remittance earning also shows

the same trends (Figure-2). Same case happened to RMG sector as it also increased remittances earning by an average of takas 17 billion in 1980s decade and in the next decade it rose by nearly takas 50 billion. As a result of this accelerated growth, the size of remittance as a proportion of GDP went up from 2.5% in 1990-91 to 4.1% in 1999-2000.



Source: Prepared by the author using World Bank data, 2013.

The second factor behind accelerated growth was enhanced agricultural production, which registered the biggest jumps in rice production in the late 1980s. After hovering around a total of around 15 million metric tons throughout the 1980s, the production of rice jumped to 18 million in 1989-90 and stayed unchanged for most of the 1990s until it jumped again towards the end of the decade. This 20% jump in production of the biggest crop of Bangladesh agriculture-was a major source of enhanced demand stimulus for the rural non-farm sector. The reason behind increased agricultural production was liberalization of agricultural inputs, especially elimination of non-tariff barriers for importation of cheap irrigation equipment, *i.e.* shallow tube-well. Before liberalization, shallow tube-wells used to be distributed by government at a subsidized price in order to promote irrigation but it failed to satisfy demand properly. Liberalization helped reducing market price of shallow tube-wells almost 40% which was even below the subsidized price. This price fall, combined with relaxation in existing restrictions, resulted in an enormous expansion of irrigated area. Evidence shows that from 1986-1996, total irrigated area jumped to an average of 3.5 million acres-the increase was nearly 50%. The expansion of irrigated area brought about a correspondingly sharp increase in use of fertilizer. The combined effect of expanded irrigation and enhanced use of fertilizer was reflected in discrete jump in rice production during the late 1980s. Econometric evidence has confirmed the predominant role played by trade liberalization of irrigation equipment in boosting rice production in the

late 1980s (Ahmed, 2001; Hossain, 1996). Ahmed (2001) has estimated that the net effect of liberalization amounted to some 38% of the incremental rice production between 1988-89 and 1996-97.

Thirdly, increase of labour wage in agricultural sector has helped reduce poverty in rural areas more than urban areas. Household Expenditure Survey (BBS, 2001) showed that salaried employment in the rural non-farm sector was much more rewarding for the poor than any other mode of employments (Osmani *et al.*, 2003). Thus the relative expansion of larger non-farm enterprises, allowing for greater absorption of labour into salaried employment, has played a key role in bringing poverty down in the 1990s. The extent of underemployment has declined from 43% in 1990-91 to 35.3% in 1999-2000 (Salmon, 2002). At the same time it was found that the rate of unemployment increased among educated people (Bachelors and above) but those with no education at all had an unemployment rate of only 1.4% (BBS, 2000). However, employment status has also improved, in the sense that the proportions of both self-employed and wage-workers have gone up relative to unpaid family workers (Salmon, 2002). Therefore, rural populations were not affected much by globalization current.

The adverse effect of globalization is that it has widened income gap hugely in Bangladesh. The growth gained from remittance has caused a negative impact for the poor people although they have got a small chunk of the resources through the trickle down effects. But this extra flow of money in rural areas has marginalized the poor people. Due to adoption of market economy, these poor people could not invest in agricultural sector rather these hard core poor have become the worst victim of eternal drudgery and slavery as globalization forced these class to be labour class. Some of these poor have forced to migrate to cities and some of them have adopted low paid domestic labour. In fine it can be summarized that rapid expansion of the ready-made garments, increased flow of remittances, a quantum jump in rice production in the late 1980s, and an increase of labour wage in the agricultural sector-have contributed national economic growth. Globalization has eased helping hand to each of these proximate sources. But the negative feature of globalization lies with the income equality and increased remittance has also contributed negatively in widening income inequality.

Impact of Globalization on Rural Society: Empirical Evidences

How globalization and free market economy has changed the dynamics and intricacies of rural development in today's Bangladesh has been illustrated beneath through two evidence based case studies.

Sad Demise of Deedar Cooperative Society in Free Market Economy

In the realm of cooperative movement and community leadership "Deedar Comprehensive Society" of Comilla was a successful cooperative in

Bangladesh. In the year 1960, a suspended police constable named Md. Easin started forming a cooperative society organizing 9 rickshaw pullers of *Kashinathpur* and *Balarampur* villages. Villagers, composed of poor farmers, landless, unemployed youths and few money lenders etc., were hard pressed by their eternal enemy *i.e.* poverty and other concomitant sufferings like illiteracy, malnutrition, lack of necessary civic amenities. In such a context, Easin thought day after day how to save the poor villagers from their sufferings. One day he gathered few poor rickshaw pullers and villagers in a meeting where Dr. Khan delivered speech on the importance of cooperative. Being encouraged by the utterance of the then founder Director of BARD, Dr. Akhter Hameed Kahn, Easin made up his mind to form a cooperative society composed of nine rickshaw pullers who were employed in his own rickshaw garage. On request from Easin these nine poor men started to save one *ana*¹, the cost of one cup of tea, from their daily budget spent in Easin's grocery shop where he sold tea, *pan*², and cigarettes along with other commodities. This was just the beginning of a successful community organization. In every week they sit together to count their total savings gathered from daily theft saving and started thinking of few investment plans. Slowly more villagers started to join the society. After some years their savings turned into huge amount to be invested in any profitable investment. After that they invested money in purchasing rickshaw and gave those to some benevolent members following "higher purchase"³ method. Within a short span of time the society members started to harvest benefits of a cooperative society. Immediately after that the society never turned back. It started to grow in a geometric way and due to its huge demand their membership was expanded to children, youth and women. With increased membership and saving, society's investment plan was diversified. To make society self-reliant managing committee of the society developed some innovative, participatory and democratic *modus operandi*, which they promised to follow unequivocally. Thus villagers from different occupational groups such as farmers, day laborers, factory

¹ One ana = 6 paisa. One paisa= 1/100 of a taka, that represents Bangladeshi currency. Ana was in practice as a unit of exchange in the early 1950s but it is non-existent now a days. For clear understanding of the readers please note that 1 US\$=77.63 Bangladeshi Taka (as on 23 April, 2014). The fraction has been transformed in full.

² A kind of leaf which is taken with betel-nut, sprinkle of lime and zarda (a kind of chewing tobacco flavoured with spices). It is a popular habit to rural people in Bangladesh and few other South Asian countries.

³ Hire purchase is the legal term for a contract, in which persons usually agree to pay for goods in parts or installments. For example, if the price of a rickshaw is 3000 taka but in higher purchase system the total price may be fixed at 5000 taka. Member can rent a rickshaw giving 1000 taka at a time and the rest of the amount he can pay at installments from his own earning. As soon as a member repays the whole amount the contact ends and that member can own the rickshaw for good.

workers, rickshaw pullers, track and tractor driver, manson, carpenter, government employees, businessmen, school teachers etc. started joining the society.

To improve financial condition of the members, society undertook various productive projects such as embroidery, sewing, poultry and livestock rearing, cow fattening, fisheries, vanki business⁴, fruits and vegetable cultivation in homestead, stock and preservation of seeds, weaving fishing nets, petty business, various cottage industries, savings and capital formation etc. Started with only 9 *anas* capital in 20 years Dideer Society became owner of huge assets amounting to 10 crores⁵ taka. At the same time the society also owned huge moveable and immovable resources including 4 acres of arable land, a model high school, a primary school and a *madrassa*⁶. Immediately after its phenomenal growth, as a successful cooperative society, Deedar society started receiving many awards namely Presidents Award in 1976; Best Cooperator Award in 1982; which ended in Magsaysay Award in community leadership in 1988. After getting that international award there started a skirmish between Easin and the members. Some members claimed that Easin should share his prize money with the members because it was the devoted members for whom he got the Magsaysay Award. Keeping this issue in mind members were bifurcated into two streams and after long hither and dither members became successful to bag chunk of the share of that prize money but this issue led to the disintegration of this very successful cooperative society. Easin was severely demoralized and gradually Deedar Samity turned into a fiasco. Deeder's huge accumulated properties unleashed chaotic/bizarre socio-political impulses. Inability to cope with such external threats/dynamics and manage organizational resources prudently resulted in moribund situation of this successful cooperative.

Now in a globalized world many of its income earning projects have already lost its potentiality in the community due to open market and availability of better products. Villagers do not purchase fertilizers from the cooperative shop rather they purchase agricultural inputs from competitive market prices. Instead of solidarity and unity, individualism has become the common pattern of the villagers and nobody wants to remain in the

⁴ *Vanki* is a local term used by the Bangladeshi villagers to denote a special type of business, in which villagers used to buy raw and unprocessed paddy from the farmers and they process the paddy in to rice by boiling, drying and finally preparing rice using mechanized rice mill. After having the final product, the villagers then sell the rice in the market with a high margin of profit. This whole process of this business is popularly known as *Vanki*.

⁵ Crore is a unit of money which is popularly used in Bangladesh where one crore = 10 million.

⁶ Madrasa is a religious school for the Muslim community.

cooperative organizations anymore. It is now all history like other successful cases in Bangladesh.

Analysis on the sad demise of Deeder Samity⁷ represents the grim picture of globalization and free market. Primarily visionary leadership, democratic practices, shared values, trust and belongingness of the members played a crucial role behind the success of Deedar Samity. But due to sudden onslaught of privatization, market forces and technological revolution arising out from the irresistible and draconian reality of globalization such community organization collapsed without notice. In an age of commercialization and globalization, nobody wishes to take the helm of social development unless some personal interests are involved. Thus owing to dearth of benevolence and altruistic thinking Dideer's efforts ultimately collapsed. Factionalism and personal interest hinders collective action. Any organization collapses when its members or stakeholders hanker after monetary gain and want to exploit petty group interest and start skirmish for trifling matter that in turn help spoil team spirits, social solidarity, cohesiveness and thus factionalism turns into fiasco. Now-a-days cooperative and community organizations are infested with the problems of regionalism, grouping, sub-grouping and factional feelings, which are playing negative role in promotion of any collective action in national and local level. All these bad elements of cultures for maximization of individual interest and consumerism are basically the end product of globalization, capitalism, free trade and openness.

The Scenarios of the Simpur-Rantnaboti Villages in a Globalized World

Simpur and Ratnaboti villages are two adjacent villages in the Southern part of Comilla district. In these villages, the normal pattern of life of the villagers is quite different than those of other villagers in Bangladesh. Here most of the villagers have TV sets with satellite dish line where they can watch at least 40 channels. The major occupations of the villagers are farming; petty traders; small service holders in government, private and NGOs; some villagers have transport business and stock business; few villagers are involved in smuggling with fruits, sugar, illegal alcoholic drinks from neighbouring Indian states of Tripura. In these villages huge numbers of NGOs⁸ are working for bringing development and change in the

⁷ Samity is a Bengali word which stands for cooperative society.

⁸ The major NGOs working in these villages include the Grameen Bank, ASA (Association of Social Advancement), CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency), USAID (United States Agricultural and Industrial Development); Comprehensive Village Development Programme (CVDP), BARD; Anser Ali Foundation for Development (AFID); BRAC (Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee); Swiss Development Corporation (SDC); Bangladesh

villages. Here before 20 years the villagers' main occupation was agriculture and now after interventions of a commendable number of GOs and NGOs, the whole scenario has been changed. Most of villagers or households are found having multiple involvements in various societies or NGOs at a time. Now at least one family member of many households is a wage earner which helped their economic condition. Involvement of the poor village women in NGOs activities such as dealing with microcredit and attending various training programs have brought about revolutionary changes in the art and thinking process of these hard working women. Thus women's consciousness level, their mobility, their socialization, modernization, social-economic and cultural empowerment, social knowledge about contraception and reproductive rights and care, availabilities of different channels in the TV and interactions with many women and NGO extension agent- have changed the mind-set of these rural women and nobody can exploit these women in any activities. But at the same time such interventions are not of unmixed blessings rather those have spawned some problems for the village society as a whole. One very very poor woman, Romena whose husband recently died by an accident, expressed her satisfaction with NGO intervention in the following way, "*sir if I were forced opt maid servant work for the sake of my livelihood, I might have to consume many bizarre things including being beaten and having experienced sexual harassment from the rich villagers but now I am free from all those nuisances or stupidities because of my involvement with the NGOs and she further elaborated that that they would rather die if NGOs did not come to work to their villages*"(translated by the author). Just to confirm it the author shared the same views with an old male school teacher, Ruhul Amin who refuted Romen's views rather he elaborated that NGOs are making them slaves of loans. To repay one loan they again take another loan from another source thus they are entrapped with the vicious circles of debt by the NGOs. According to Ruhul Amin, now "*NGOs are vehemently engaged in doing poverty business instead of removing poverty*". Nazma, a woman whose husband, Tota Mea lived in Italy came back recently after he stayed 16 years there. Recently Tota Mea on his returned from abroad started a rent-a-car business. Before he came back her wife began construction of a 2 unit 5-storied building in the village, the second floor is underway now. Tota's family lives in the first floor of the building which is fully equipped with modern amenities. Through changing his economic status he has emerged as rural elite, who has stakes in almost all the major incidents in the villages. In another case, Shefali begum whose husband

went to Saudi Arabia 3 years ago immediately after her marriage is now involved in extra-marital relationship with a young man, that is creating nuisances in the overall village cultures and such phenomena are not uncommon in these villages. Thus opportunities created by globalization have contributed to ruin of the indigenous culture and social values.

Analysis of the above case reveals that NGO-nization of the rural society have devastated and challenged old practices and cultures and unleashed immense potential for women's empowerment and mobility in rural Bangladesh. As an aftermath of the dynamics of globalization rural power politics has underwent different stimuli, which has resulted in economic inequality in rural livelihood. Last but not the least globalization broke the myth of indigenous cultures.

Synthesized Summary of the Case Studies

Findings of the empirical cases reveal that rural development in a globalized world has become more complex and dynamic phenomena. The rich and middle class rural people have emerged an entrepreneurial class using the advantage of privatization and market mechanism. Some villagers have involved themselves in self-employment in non-formal and off-farm rural business which has further augmented growth and employment in the rural society. Traditional cooperative organizations have faced serious challenges to encounter the irresistible forces of globalization and private capitalism. Globalization has challenged traditional value system and social-economic lifestyle in the rural Bangladesh.

Conclusion

Based on content analysis and empirical evidence it can be substantiated that globalization has changed the reality of rural development in today's Bangladesh. In the changed context, the public sector should play an enabling role for rural development taking cognizance of other actors such as donors, NGOs and private sectors. To save conventional cooperative organizations from the shocks of privatization and globalization, loan for modernization, innovation, and business diversification should be properly guided under public-private partnership. The cooperative organizations especially those are engaged in productive, financial and commercial activities should be equipped with modern technologies, updated knowledge and know how so that they can diversify their business in more demanding areas to stop further marginalization or pauperization and to survive and sustain their economic performance. To reduce rural poverty and address income inequality scope of employment opportunities and the safety net benefits should be augmented through expanding pro-poor public

expenditure in education and health services. Although Bangladesh economy is interconnected with the global economy but its economy has obtained a vibrant growth with the huge remittance by the expatriate Bangladeshi workers. The country has more or less ensured food security through adopting HYVs and modern technology. Therefore, Bangladesh has nothing to be afraid of the shocks arising out from globalization. It was quite evident from the global recession of 1995-2000 when most of the South-East Asian countries were highly affected by that global economic down turn but Bangladesh economy was not affected much. Judging from different angularities and present geo-politico-economic perspective, it would be impossible for Bangladesh to avoid globalization by shutting down the borders. Economic growth is essential for development, which can be attained through trade liberalization, but the growth must satisfy the equity standards. Specific protection and special boost-up mechanisms are also necessary for Bangladesh to become mature to compete globally. Regional economic cooperation and local politico-economic treaties/conventions must be developed to reap maximum benefits of globalization.

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9. Higher Education in Selected Public and Private Universities in Chittagong: A Study on the Problem and Challenges in Ensuring Quality Education

Badsha Mia

Introduction

Education is a fundamental right of human. Education helps to create awareness, welfare attitudes, skills, and behavior as well as sense of ethical responsibilities among the people. In our country Bangladesh has different levels of education like primary, secondary, higher secondary, and university. Education is one of the basic needs of a human being and essential for any kind of development. The poor socio-economic condition of Bangladesh can be largely attributed to most peoples' inaccessibility to education. Many illiterate people do not have any knowledge of health, sanitation, and population control. If they educated, they could live a healthy and planned life. Education teaches us how to earn well and how to spend well. It enables us to make the right choices in life and to perform our duties properly. It enhances our ability to raise crop, store food, protect the environment and carry out our social responsibility. It is only education which can help us to adopt a rational attitude. It provides us with an enlightened awareness about things and this awareness is the pre-requisite for social development.

Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of this study report to explore the present scenario of quality education of some selected public and private universities of Chittagong area. The other related objectives of the study are;

- a. To test the present scenario of quality education of selected public and private universities of Chittagong area through a questionnaire survey;
- b. To know the teachers and students opinion regarding quality education;
- c. To identify the common problem of quality education in selected universities;
- d. To discover the common challenges of quality education in selected universities;

Methodologies

The study report followed both the analytical and empirical approach in collecting and reviewing all the data related to educational purpose. The following methodologies were used particularly to conduct this research-

Questionnaire Survey

We conduct in total 236 persons through questionnaire survey which included 29 teachers (27 teachers from different department of Chittagong University and two teachers from law department of BGC Trust University) and 207 students from various departments of Chittagong University, premier university, Independent university of Bangladesh, USTC University etc. The Questionnaire was partly closed, and partly open ended types.

Literature Review

The literature review was based on both secondary and primary sources. While data collected through questionnaire survey have been used as primary sources; books, journals and other published works have been adopted as secondary sources. An extensive literature review carried out on previous studies and research on quality education in Bangladesh. Research reports and publications of various organizations working in this area, journals, reports, newsletter, booklets and newspaper clippings have been reviewed. The study also examined international instruments relating to education to determine their application to domestic laws and policies in Bangladesh.

The study has also applied descriptive and exploratory methods. Both questionnaire survey and observation methods have been used for collecting primary data of the study.

Limitation of Study

1. We faced the problem to conducting teacher's questionnaire survey, because of their tight schedule/ busyness.
2. Teachers also showed unwillingness to take part in survey due to a fear of suffering in future for their opinion.
3. Many Respondents failed to understand the question that's why delivered irrelevant answer.

Quality of Higher Education

Quality higher education is very essential for modern globalization. Quality is something which is to be appreciated. Education is a life time process. It is continuous and with the advancement in science and technology the nature of demand in the employment market is undergoing structural change. An institution that imparts higher education and training using these two methods of education known as "dual mode institution" it means an institution for "en-campus", and "off-campus" teaching¹.

¹ see research monograph submitted by roll no 10, session 2004-05 exam 05 p-50, law dpt. CU

Barriers of Ensuring Quality Higher Education in Selected Universities in Chittagong

There are a lot of barriers and challenges faced by Chittagongian public and private universities. Like favoritism, lack of skilled, trained and experienced teachers, Nepotism, teachers politics, violent student politics, session jam, financial crisis, lack of residential hall, lack of modern educative facilities, teachers involvement with other professions, less scope of research, field work, lack of incentives for research, inequitable development system of education.

Findings: Questionnaire Survey

Survey Time Line and Area

A group of four students from LLM of department of law, university of Chittagong conducted this questionnaire survey on 20.03.2013 to 15.05.2013. The questionnaire survey area the Various Class rooms of Faculty and department of the Chittagong University (Train station, train, jupdi.Halls), Premier university campus, BGC Trust University city campus, Independent university of Bangladesh, USTC University etc.

Respondents

Including 29 teachers from selected public and private universities in Chittagong area and 207 students total 236 respondents took part in our questionnaire survey. Table of respondents details:-

Questionnaire Data Analysis

There were 11 Questions in our questionnaire on basis of Higher Education in Selected Public and Private Universities in Chittagong: A study on the problem and Challenges in Ensuring Quality Education. Our first asking was "YES" or "NO" finding. Second query was what's the reason behind that "YES" or "NO". After collection, all data were converted into percentage. Following information's are got from investigations:

Does the admission-test mechanism of your department/ university facilitate to select meritorious student?

139 (58.90%) replied Yes; 94 (39.83%) replied No and 3 (1.27%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

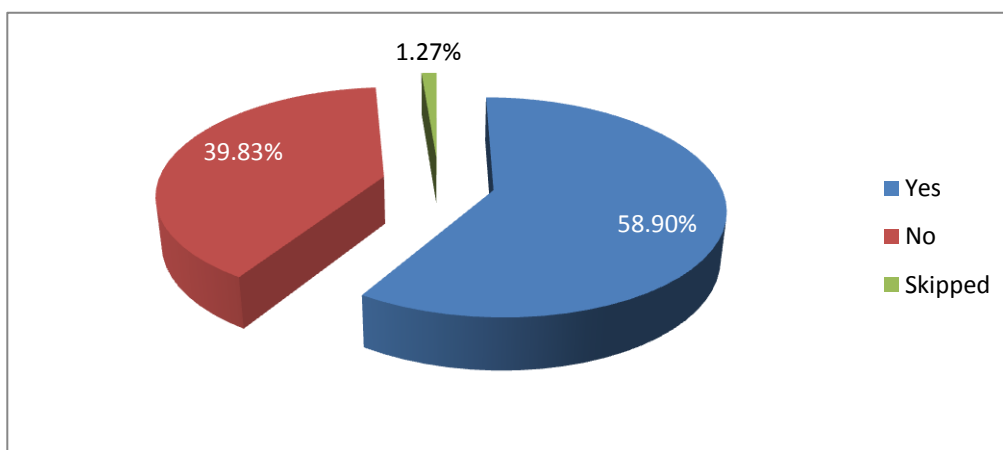


Figure No: 01

Proper admission-test mechanism is one of the important components of ensuring quality education in any educational institution, especially at university level. But in this externship report shows, 39.83 percent respondents have claimed about admission-test mechanism in their departments/universities are not facilitated to select meritorious students. Simultaneously, 58.90 percent respondents have given their positives answers on admission-test mechanism in their departments/universities are facilitate to select meritorious students. And 1.27 percent respondents silent in this regard. The respondents (39.83%) mentioning the causes behind admission-test mechanism in their departments/universities are not facilitated to select meritorious students like; The students are admitted only through MCQ test, No Written and Viva-Voce Examination to test the merit, Admission is based on SSC and HSC examination results, on the basis of testing memorizing capability, there is no scope to subjectives test, there is no proper seat plan in admission test exam, considering illogical quota system, there is no scope to test reasoning and argumentatives skill, to introduce same admission test question in all faculty. The respondents (58.90%) who answer positive regarding admission-test mechanism in their department/university is facilitate to select meritorious students. They commented that like; The merit is tested only through MCQ & Viva-Voce Examination, The merit is tested in combining MCQ, Written test and Viva Voce, Analytical ability and Aptitude are tested, considering previous examination results, One hour examination is not facilitated to select meritorious students, that's why previous GPA must be considered.

Are you Satisfied with the Teaching-method of your Department?

84 (35.60%) replied Yes; 148 (62.71%) replied No and 4(1.70%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

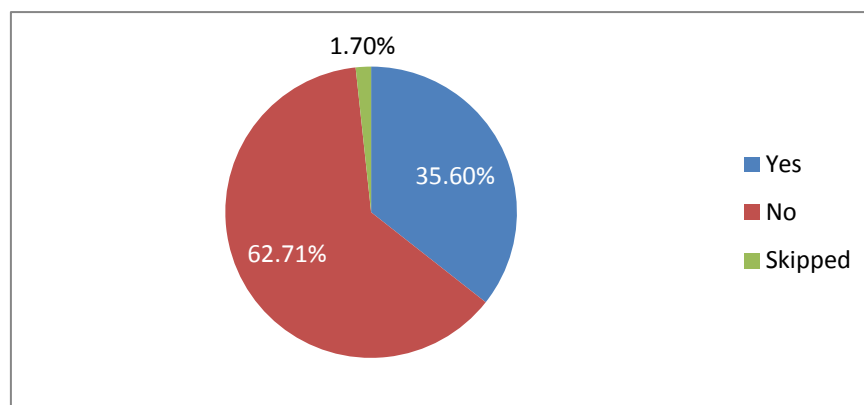


Figure:02

Teaching method is very important element of quality education in any educational institution, specially higher level of education. Proper teaching

method discovers students inner capability. But present time at university level teaching method is confined very limited. In our present study shows, most of the respondents about 62.71 percent are not satisfied with the teaching-method of their departments/universities. The respondent (62.71%) who have shown dissatisfaction, they raised different causes behind it. Most of them have pointed out like; Participatory method is not followed, No Audio-Visual Technology is used in the classes, Inadequate scope of creativity, brain storming and experiments, lack of qualified and trained teachers, no specific class routine, traditional syllabus. In answering this question 35.60 percent respondents showed their positive attitude or only 35.60 percent respondents are satisfied with the teaching method of their departments/universities. The respondents who have showed satisfaction in this regard, they raised different causes behind it like; Participatory method is followed, Audio-Visual Technology is used to conduct classes, There are scopes of creativity, brain storming and experiments, case study, assignment, field work etc. Moreover, 1.70 percent respondents remain silent in this regard.

Whether Classes are Regularly held in your Department?

145 (61.44%) replied Yes; 83 (35.17%) replied No and 8 (3.39%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

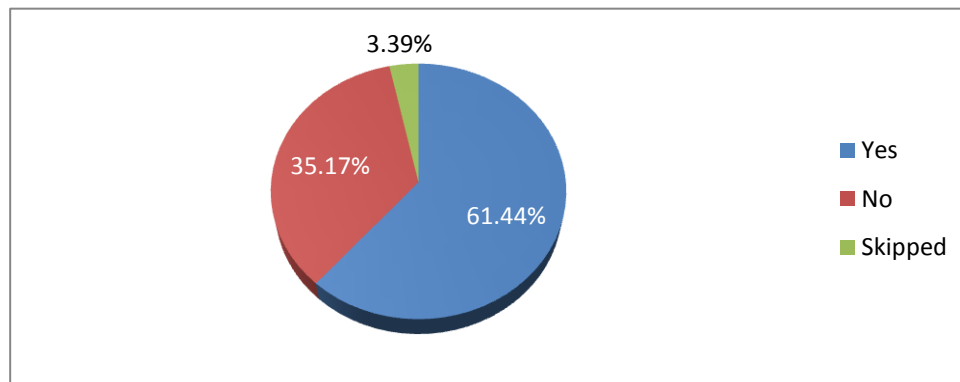


Figure No:03

Conducting the class in regular basis is one of the most important components of quality education in any educational institution, especially a university level. But the our externship report shows, 35.17 percent respondents have claimed about holding irregular classes in their departments/universities. On other hand, 61.44 percent respondents have given their opinion holding their class in regular basis. That means the major classes have not been held. Mentioning the causes behind irregular classes they raised some important issues relating to present situation that are prevailing at university level. 35.17 percent respondents pointed out the Classes are not held at the due date and due time according to the class routine, For a 4 Credit Course, only 10-20 classes are taken, Even after

informing the concerning authority regarding the irregularity of classes, classes are not held in due date, involvement in other profession like project, job in private universities, political program (hartal, students strike), no class routine. 61.44 percent respondents answered that class held regular. They answered like; Classes are held at the due date and due time according to the class routine, For a 4 Credit Course minimum 60 classes are taken, Teachers take classes in another convenient date by providing notice if any class is missing on the due date, necessary class are taken.

Does your Department have Adequate Co-curricular Infrastructural and other Facilities?

88 (37.29%) replied Yes; 145 (61.44%) replied No and 3 (1.27%) skipped the question among 236 respondents;

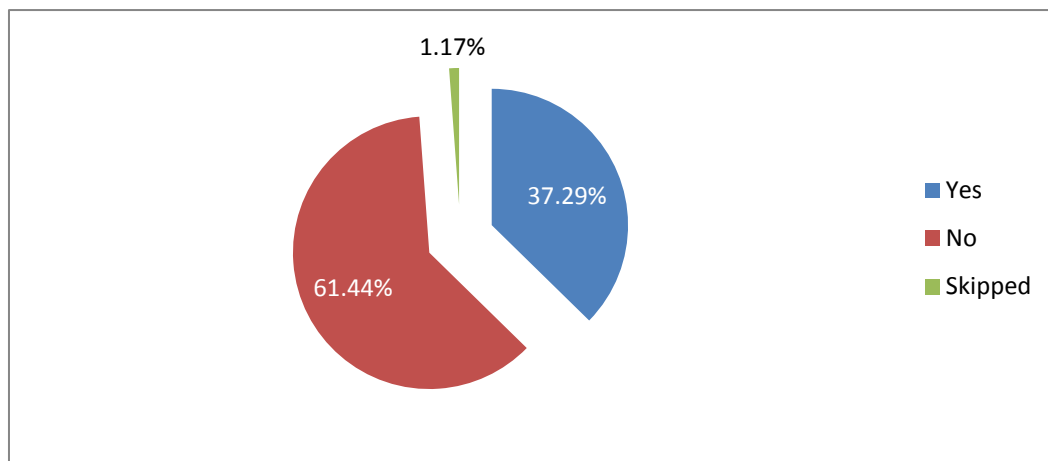


Figure No:04

Adequate co-curricular infrastructural and other facilities are very essential for ensuring quality education. But present report shows, only 37.29 percent respondents answered positive regarding the adequate co-curricular infrastructural and other facilities in their departments/universities. They pointed out that adequate co-curricular infrastructural and other facilities like; Library facility with adequate books and Virtual Library in internet, Seminar, Symposium and Conference are arranged regularly, Regular arrangement of Debate, Sports etc. On the other hand, 61.44 percent of respondents answered negative regarding the adequate co-curricular infrastructural and other facilities in their departments/universities. They pointed out causes behind that like; Inadequate Library and Internet facilities, Seminar, Symposium and Conference are hardly arranged, No regular arrangement of Debate and Sports, toilet facility not enough, infrastructural facilities not sufficient etc. And 1.27 percent respondents remain silent in this regard.

Whether the Teaching Method of your Department is Enthusiastic?

107 (45.34%) replied Yes; 126 (53.39%) replied No and 3 (1.27%) skipped the question among 236 respondent

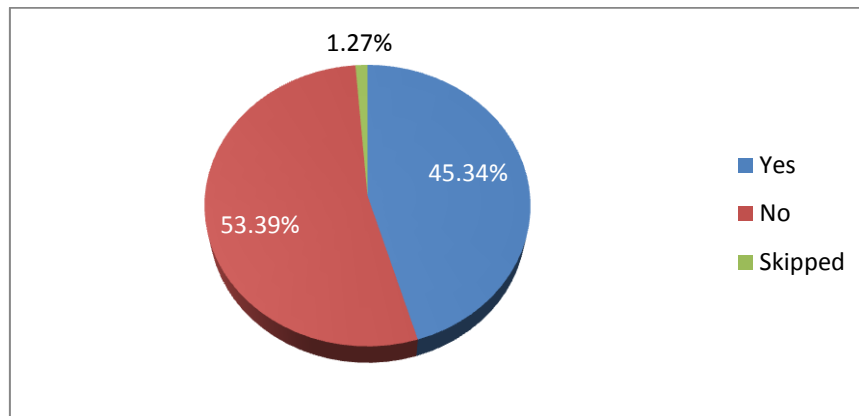


Figure No:05

Enthusiastic teaching method is pre-requisites for ensuring quality education in university level. But present teaching methods in our country are not enthusiastic. Present Study shows, only 45.34 percent respondents have given positive attitude about the teaching method of your department is enthusiastic or not?. They pointed out causes of their positiveness like; Teachers are up to date with the recent knowledge and discuss the latest issues with the students, Students can fully understand topics discussed in classes, Students attend and response in classes with great excitement and joy, group discussion, teachers-students relation should more free etc. Simultaneously, 53.39 percent respondents have given negative attitude regarding the teaching method of your department is enthusiastic or not?. They raised the causes behind their attitude like; Teachers for not being acquainted with modern knowledge, deliver lecture on old ideas based on book, Teaching method is teacher centric, Students having no opinion in lecture based teaching method, become passive and unresponsive during classes, Involving only earning, teaching method most interesting towards students, students views must be considered etc. 1.27 percent respondents remain silent in this regard.

Do you think the exam method of your department is able to determine the creative intellect?

87 (36.86%) replied Yes; 148 (62.71%) replied No and 1 (0.42%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

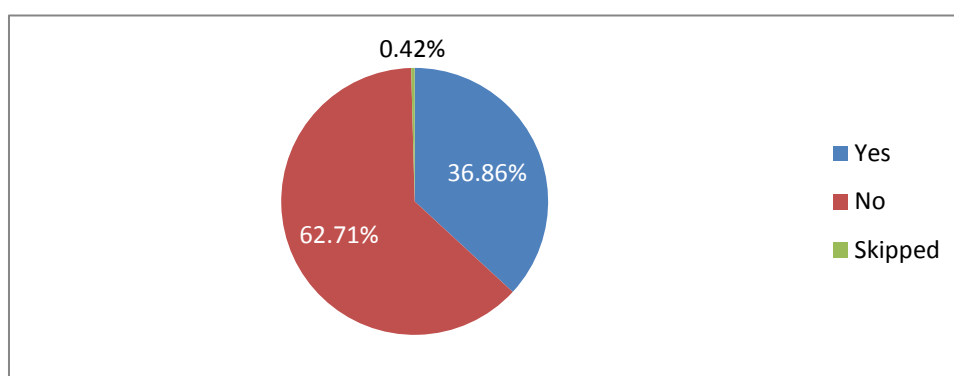


Figure No:06

Standard of creativity is the key point of ensuring quality education. Creativity makes a student perfect. But standard of creativity only confined in books work in our country, but reality is totally different. This report shows, only 36.86 percent respondents given positive attitude regarding the question like Do you think the exam method of their departments/ universities is able to determine the creative intellect?. They pointed out causes of their positiveness that; There is regular merit testing system along with 1/2 exams in a year. There is evaluation of students through field work and papers presented in seminar, symposium, There is scope of evaluation through creative questions, case study and analytical questions alongside regular descriptive questions, question patterns change in every year etc.

Simultaneously, 62.71 percent respondent have given negative attitude regarding this question. They pointed out the causes behind their negativeness like; Only memorizing power is tested in examination, Repeated same type of descriptive questions creates scope of study on the basis of suggestions and thus hindering creativity test, Inadequate scope to evaluate the skill of students through field work and papers presented in seminar, symposium, use traditional notes, only one exam within a year etc.

Are you satisfied with the existing teacher recruitment procedure in your University?

42 (17.80%) replied Yes; 192 (81.36%) replied No and 2 (0.85%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

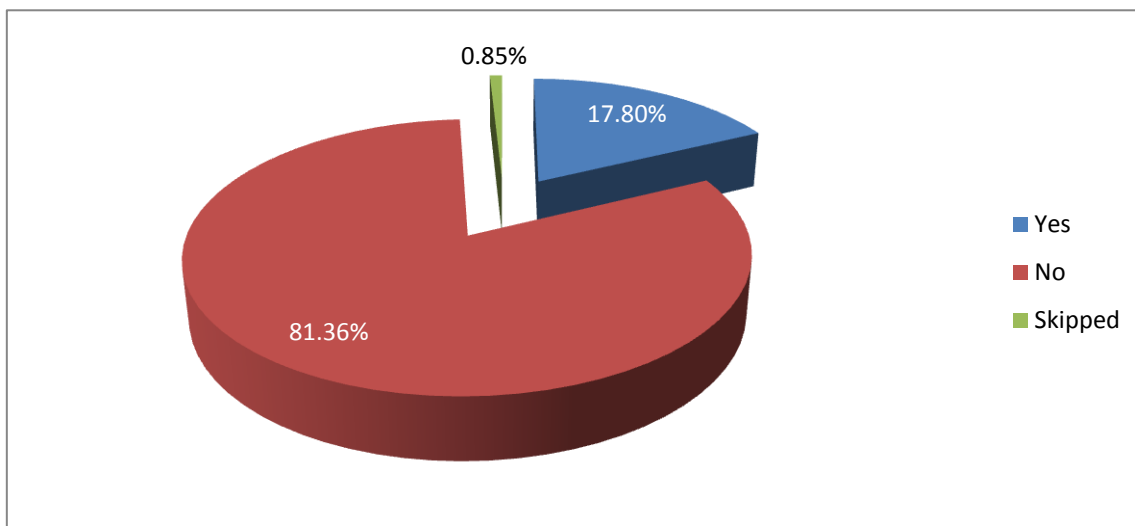


Figure No:07

Skilled and trained teachers are the pre-determination for quality education. But skilled and trained teachers are not available in this area. That why public and specially private universities appoint very young teachers who complete post graduation even complete graduation. And appoint through the political considerations. This report shows, 81.36 percent

respondents are not satisfied with the existing teacher recruitment procedure in their Universities. They given negative attitude in this regard. They also pointed out causes behind their negative attitude like; Only viva voce examination is conducted by Vice-Chancellor in the presence of some experts, Scope of political and regional biasness and nepotism exists, It is easy to influence the Faculty recruitment procedure, less consideration of merits, no demonstration teaching etc. On the other hand, only 17.80 percent respondents have given positive attitude in this regard.

Do you think the existent student-politics trend should continue in your campus?

36 (15.25%) replied Yes; 193 (81.78%) replied No and 7 (2.97%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

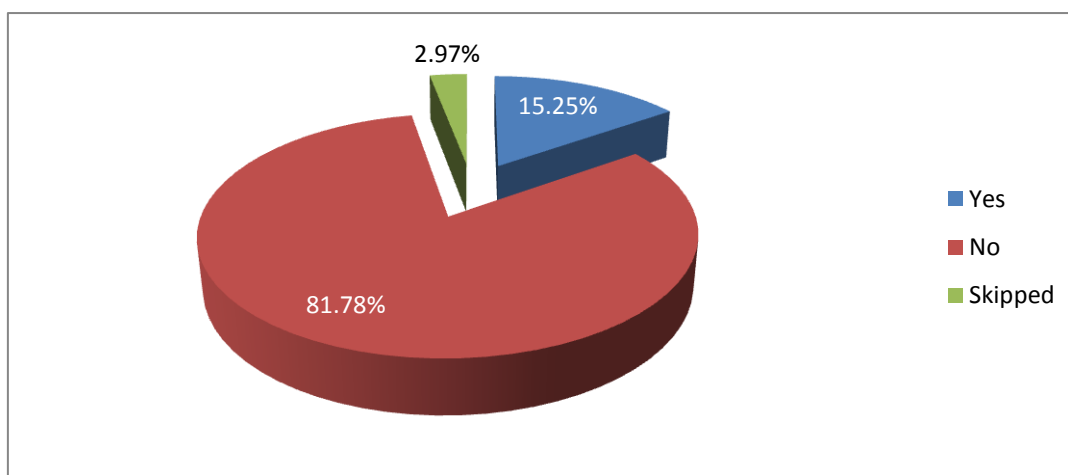


Figure No:08

Fair Students politics good for development of education. But the existent student-politics trend is not good for students. In this report shows, 81.78 percent respondents given negative attitude regarding existent student-politics trend. They pointed out the causes behind their negative attitude like; Present student politics is subversive, Hampering academic activity by creating violence in campus, Creating impediment in the entitlement of right to education at large, destroy the life of students. On the other hand, only 15.25 percent of respondents given positive attitude regarding this question. They pointed out causes their view like; It is a Constitutional Right, It is helpful to secure the interest of general students, Student politics is the main factor in shaping future leadership, politics must be right based, politice for welfare of nation, politice must be welfare of students etc. 2.97 percent respondents remain silent in this regard.

Does your university/department have any educational exchange program with other educational institution from home or abroad?

92 (38.08%) replied Yes; 136 (57.63%) replied No and 8 (3.39%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

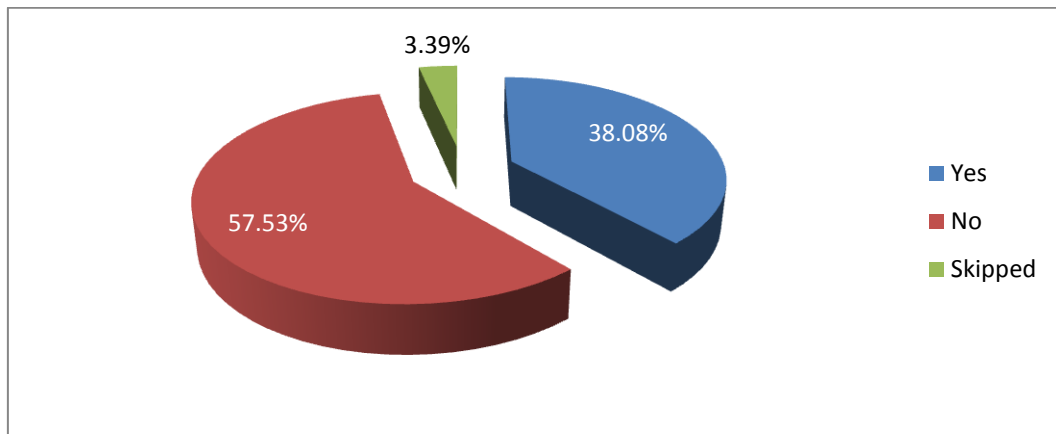


Figure No: 09

Exchanging educational program is an part and parcel of education. But most of the public and private universities in chittagong area there is very few scope exchanging program with abroad universities or other universities of country. In this report shows, 57.63 percent respondents have given negative attitude regarding educational exchange program with abroad and home educational institution. They pointed out the reason their attitude like; No facility of these kinds of program, The exchange programs were held in past, but it is stopped now, Different agreements are made, but none has been implemented.

Simultaneously, only 38.08 percent respondents have given positive attitude in this regard. About 3.39 percent respondents no responded in this regard.

Does your department have student-participation and preference while preparing class-routine, academic calendar, leave etc.?

39 (16.53%) replied Yes; 191 (80.93%) replied No and 6 (2.54%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

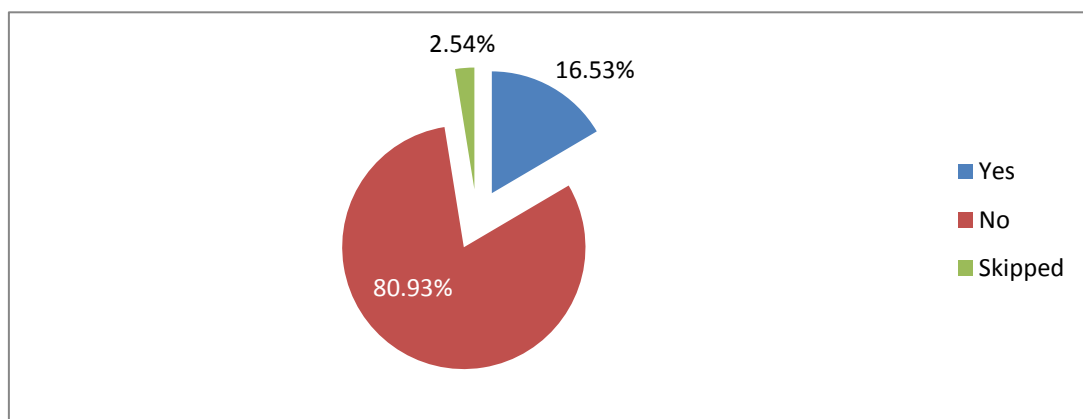


Figure No: 10

Right to know, right to participation in decision matters of students in the institutional affairs is a right. But university level of Bangladesh is very less scope. In this report shows, 80.93 percent respondents have given their

negative attitude regarding student-participation and preference while preparing class-routine, academic calendar, leave etc. They pointed out the causes the negative attitude like; No reflection of opinion of students, Only academic council of the department takes the decision, The decisions are imposed by the University Authority. On the other hand, only 16.53 percent respondents have given their positive attitude regarding this. About 2.56 percent respondents remain silent in this regard.

Do you think the present teacher-politics situation is hindering academic activities?

192 (81.36%) replied Yes; 39 (16.53%) replied No and 5 (2.12%) skipped the question among 236 respondents.

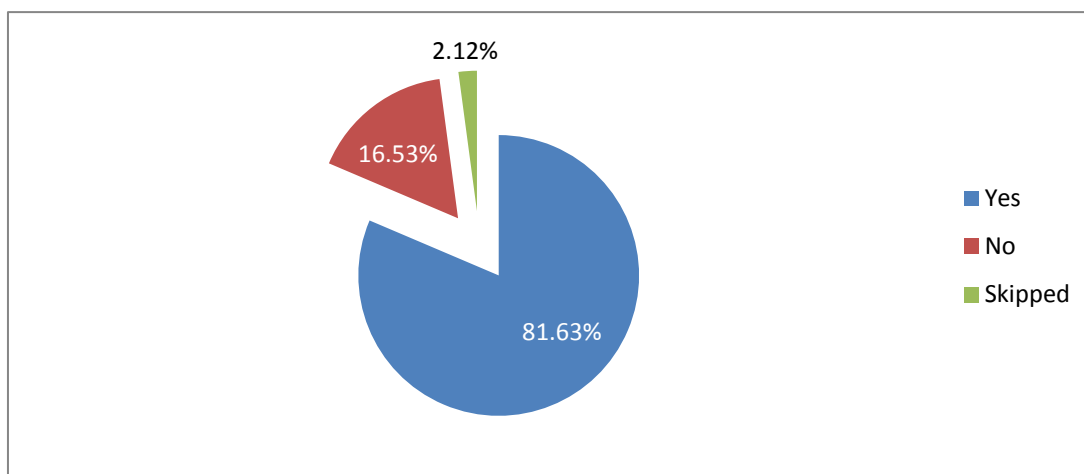


Figure No:11

Teachers politics obstruct academic progress department in university. In this report shows, 81.36 percent respondents thought that the present teacher-politics situation is hindering academic activities. That means teachers politics hinder academic activities. They thought the reason behind like, Political consideration is creating an impediment on implementing academic decisions of department, Because of the division among the teachers, the political influence is visible over the recruitment and the performance of the faculties, Difference of political opinion impeding the way of co-operation among teachers to improve the quality of education in department. On the other hand, 16.53 percent respondents thought that the present teacher-politics situation is not hindering academic activities. About 2.12 percent respondents remain silent in this regard.

Challenges Higher Education in Chittagong Area

Chittagong is a commercial capital of Bangladesh. But the people of Chittagong are less highly educated than the people of Dhaka city. In the present situation of the Chittagong area universities have been facing some challenges like;

Poor quality of teaching staff's

Public and private universities of chittagong area fail to manages qualified and experianced teaching stuff's that why poor ar unskilled teachers fail to satiefy students needs. Moreover, due to the recriutment of political consideration a good number of teachers have no scientific and update knowledge that assist them to change their teaching methods.

Lack of infrustratural facilities

Public and private universities of chittagong area faced the lack of infrustratural facilities likes, laboratories, equipment, libraries, journals, internet facilities, etc.

Traditional teaching methods

Traditional teaching method is the common senioro in the university of chittagong area. Especially public university teachers teaches the students through traditional method of teaching. Here, the sharing knowledge is vary minimal. But Participation of discussion with teachers and brain storming, presentation, assignment preparation are the key og higher education. Modern teaching methods and facilities like internet, multimedia, sound system are also asent at the universities of chittagong area.

Nasty Student politics

Party polities of students have created a great problem in higher education in Chittagong area. Nasty students politice hamper the regular academic activities of universities at Chittagong area. Nasty student politice is a unexpected challenges of higher education.

Weak Financial based

The public university higher education institutions in bangladesh are funded by government through university grants commission. Mosty spent for the salary and allowance of faculty and sfaaf members. So, by the weak financial base the universities of bangladesh do not play their assigned role. the institutiona can only allocate a small amount for research and development.

Session jam

Session jam is currently one of the most major challenges in universities of chittahong area. It hampers progress of highrer education. A university student now has to wait almost six or more years to get four years honors certificate.

Corruption and Nepotism

Universities of chittagong area faced another great challenges corruption and nepotism. Corruption is one of major barriers of higher education at bangladesh. Nepotism other evails of higher education of the university of chittagong area because of requitment less meritoruous teachfers by political identities.

Teachers politics

Teachers politics one of the topmost challenges in higher education in the universities of chittagong area. Teachers do not complete his/her respective course due to biasness of political view.

Lack of industry and corporate support in research

In the universities of chittagong area less based on research opportunities based on industry and corporate world.

Conclusion

Higher education situation in Chittagong area is not satisfactory. Chittagongian public and private universities cannot fulfill the student demand because of a number of problem. Quality higher education is the core of universities. Due to the low quality of higher education, lack of combination of knowledge and reality or practice, poor infrastructural facilities, the existing education system of public and private universities in Chittagong are in vulnerable. Quality higher education can meet the needs of the country. It promotes an overall development of society, which are highly correlated. The development of higher education plays an important role in facilitating these changes and producing adequately trained manpower. The effectiveness of higher education institutions contributes to development both internally and externally. So, higher education needs sustenance and quality with time and space. For sustaining and improving quality in higher in the higher education it need to reorient of curriculum and introduce job oriented courses.

There is need to introduce proper policy in order to minimize the problems that are prevailing in the higher education system. For this, it is required to joint efforts of the government, civil society, and university authority in collaboratively.

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10. Civil Society and Good Governance in Bangladesh: The Strategies of the Civil Society to Influence the Electoral Process

Shamima Tasnim

Background of the Study

Existence of civil society is important as it is a vital political agenda. Good governance is incomplete without a “robust” civil society. The role of the civil society at the local as well as national level has been a key feature on the debate of effective participatory governance. In this regard, emphasis has been placed on the significant roles the civil societies play trying to influence on the political scene. Special emphasise is given to make the election free, fair and neutral which is one of the significant components of good governance. People can cast their vote for which they want to vote. It is important to ensure spontaneous participation of the people in the electoral process. To create a level playing ground for all the party concerned which has been the main thrust of the electoral process of Bangladesh from the 80s. It is also to make sure that nothing but the people’s choices can be the dominant factor to influence the election. On the eve of 9th Parliament Election in Bangladesh the issue of free, fair and credible election has been viewed as the main concerned of some political parties, civil society members. Turmoil displayed in the society pivoting the issue of national election. In this context the civil societies’ have played significant role to overcome this political turmoil by actively advocating the strategies to be used for a free, fair and credible election. They have been viewed to play pioneer role to make the election out of the influence of any other actor as well as factor over the adult franchises choice. Among other civil society organizations SHUJON’s (Shu Shashoner Jonnyo Nagorik – People for Good Governance) role is notable. In this study efforts are given to investigate the role of SHUJON (Shu Shashoner Jonnyo Nagorik – People for Good Governance) in 9th Parliament Election of Bangladesh to ensure free fair and credible election hence practice good governance in Bangladesh.

Good Governance

According to the World Bank (1992) governance is “the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country’s economic and social resources for development.”

Rhodes (1997:46) further attests that governance is a new method or process by which society is governed. Governance (hence good governance) is mainly participatory governance democracy, upholding of human rights, accountability, responsiveness, efficiency and effectiveness of government action. Good governance is the latest fashion of governance. “Good governance encompasses a broad reform strategy is to strengthen civil society institutions where government is more open, more accountable, more democratic” (cited in Mostafavi, 2012 from Zabihi). Stowe (1992) while ascribes good governance as public administration reform agenda mentioned a number of issues corresponding good governance. These includes; political freedom, freedom of speech and a freely elected legislative council, authority of constitution and judiciary to protect individuals rights, stable financial system and needful initiatives to economic and social progress, collective social development through education and health services, accountability of the executive authority to a freely elected parliament. There are some basic institutions of state which are responsible to ensure good governance. These are political party, constitution of the state, legislatures/legislative branch of the government, executive authority/ executive branch, judicial authority/ judicial branch. That’s why good governance is considered as a political process where state affairs are conducted by the elected representatives that must be based on rules and regulations. The rules and regulations of state affairs must be accepted by all walks of the people of the state. It needs to ensure direct or/and indirect political and administrative accountability to the people. Administering state affairs within the purview of efficiency and democratic norms. All these characterise good governance as participatory, consensus oriented, accountability, transparency, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive government actions following rule of law.

Civil Society

The concept of *societas civilis* have been first applied by Cecero in Rome which means ‘good society’. Its aim was to ensure peace and order among the people. At that time no distinction was made between state and society. It was believed that state represented the civil society. Civility was the requirement of good citizenship (Wikipedia). Stoker (1996) in Wit (2000: 4) attribute civil society as having the capacity and skills to press government to be accountable, transparent and responsive. attributes civil society as having the capacity and skills to press government to be accountable, transparent and responsive.

There are several different concepts of the civil society in Bangladesh. According to B. K. Jahangir, “Civil society is to be understood in opposition to the military society, which they create after having seized the state power and established themselves in it (Khan and Kabir: 2003).” The values of the military, he writes, are anti-democratic, their logic and legitimacy is force and not mediation and peoples consent, and their motive is to suppress popular politics and political supremacy in the conventional sense (Khan and Kabir:2003). Rehman Sobhan comes up with a view on civil society that is diametrically opposite to Jahangir’s concept. Both parties and civil society organizations mediate between the individual and the state, but they do so in different ways and have different functions. Former President of Bangladesh Justice Sahabuddin Ahmed indicates both the unorganized masses as well as the professional groups as members of civil society. Thus, he has broadened the concept of the civil society (Ahmed: 1997). However, ideally civil society is a group that may establish ties among political parties and the state, but they must retain their independence, and should not seek political power for themselves.

Diamond (1991) stated the area or scope of civil society. a) Civil society is a reservoir of political, economic, cultural and moral resources to check the process of the state. b) The diversity of civil society will ensure that the state is not held captive by a few groups. c) The growth of associational life will supplement the work of political parties in simulating political participation, sick as Toqueville argues “large free schools”. d) Civil society will eventually stabilize the state because citizens will have a deepen stake in social order. Further, which civil society may multiply the demands of the state, it may also multiply the capacity of groups to improve their own welfare. e) Civil society is a locus for recruiting new political leadership. f) Civil society resists authoritarianism.

Civil society or organized citizen groups can play important roles in this regard by providing a supply of ideas for electoral and institutional reforms and, at the same time, by advocating or acting as a pressure group for the adoption of such reforms. Such groups can also create a demand for reform by mobilizing public opinion. In addition, they can collect information about candidates’ backgrounds and supply the relevant information so that the voters are able to make informed choices in the voting booths, thus leading to meaningful elections. These groups can also play a watch dog role to ensure that everyone concerned adheres to the prevailing laws and thus performs their appropriate responsibilities (Coorod and Majumder: 2009). Civil societies’ role in good governance is given in the logic as

development requires sound policies and impartial implementation. These can be delivered by government which is accountable. For such accountability semi autonomous units should be developed those act as watchdogs in the form of civil society.

Electoral Process

An electoral body is the principal institution responsible for the conduct of free and fair elections. However, holding of elections is a very huge responsibility and a challenging task. It cannot be done by an electoral body alone that needs active support and cooperation of other vital institutions of the state. Such as the government, the political parties, the courts, the civil service, the law enforcement agencies, the civil society and the print and electronic media. (Huda 2008).

Actually in an electoral process there are many actors and factors are involved. It includes voters, candidatures, an error free voter lists, behaviour of political parties, electoral rules and regulations, government involvement and some other influential factors. Free and fair elections require, among other things: an appropriate legal framework; a strong and independent EC; neutrality of the government, and an informed citizenry.

Role of Civil society in Electoral process

Civil society or organized citizen groups can play important roles by providing a *supply* of ideas for electoral and institutional reforms and, at the same time, by advocating or acting as a pressure group for the adoption of any reforms. Such groups can also create a *demand* for reform by mobilizing public opinion. In addition, they can collect information about candidates' backgrounds and *supply* the relevant information so that the voters are able to make informed choices in the voting booths, thus leading to meaningful elections. These groups can also play a *watchdog* role to ensure that everyone concerned adheres to the prevailing laws and thus performs their appropriate responsibilities.

The Supreme Court ruling requires that the information thus provided by each candidate be summarized individually, multiplied and then circulated in the constituencies from where such candidates are contesting. The idea is to provide necessary information about a candidate so that voters may make an informed judgment about the suitability of candidates. It was also the contribution of civil society in Bangladesh (Huda: 2008)

While acting upon the implementation of this ruling, the Bangladesh Election Commission found that it did not have the manpower to do this job.

But more fundamentally, questions were raised if this sort of dissemination of information by the Commission would be consistent with its neutral stance. In this instance also, the civil society came to the rescue of the Commission. The civil society undertook the task of summarization, multiplication and distribution of the leaflets.

Another way civil society helps consolidate the process of democracy is its role as a watchdog of compliance of various provisions of the electoral laws by the Commission, candidates and political parties. It checks and monitors incessantly and immediately draws attention of concerned authorities of pitfalls and shortcomings. SHUJON is such a civil society organization put effort to ensure good governance in Bangladesh through electoral process

SHUJON (Shu Shashoner Jonno Nagorik – Citizens for good Governance)

SHUJON (Shu Shashoner Jonno Nagorik – Citizen for good governance) has been working since 2003 in Bangladesh. The areas of its activities cover are review of constitution and parliament, advocacy to reform the political parties, electoral process for credible and free and fair elections, different areas of state policy, ensure people's participation in government activities aiming to ensure democracy and good governance.

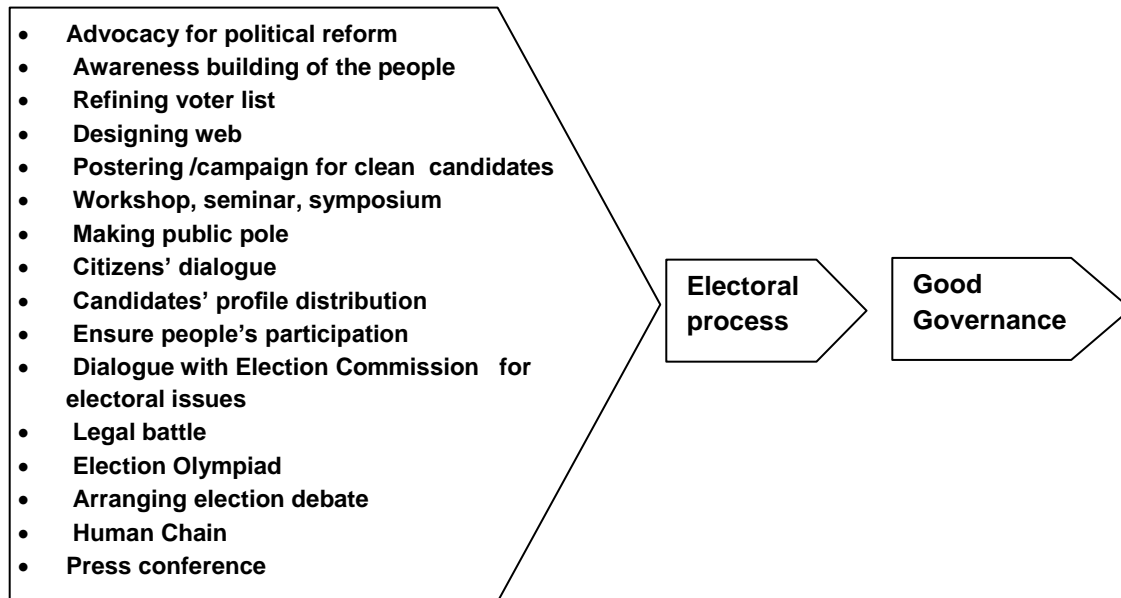
Amongst from these activities of SHUJON this paper has examined the strategies it uses to strengthen the electoral process of Bangladesh.

SHUJON is a voluntary organization. Its activities are widened up to the grass root level of Bangladesh. They have been carrying out their activities by being divided into different tiers. At national level SHUJON has Central Executive Committee. This committee decides policy issues of SHUJON and monitor its execution. The policy decisions are executed at field level. For this purpose SHUJON has District Committee District level, Upazila Committee Upazila level, Union Committee at Union level, City Committee in City Corporation, Paura Committee at Paurashava level and Ward Committee at ward level. SHUJON has almost 80 thousand volunteers all over the country (www.shujan.org).

Conceptual Framework

To ensure democracy and good governance is the ultimate objective of SHUJON. Among other processes electoral processes is one of them. A number of strategies have been followed by SHUJON aiming to achieve good governance through electoral process. This study has looked into the result through the following conceptual framework:

Strategies followed by SHUJON



These are the strategies initiated to exercise by SHUJON to democratise electoral process of Bangladesh and thus to establish good governance

Study Design

A qualitative research design has been employed in this study to enable the researcher to explore in depth the phenomenon under study. According to Creswell (2003; 18), a qualitative approach makes knowledge claims based on constructivist perspectives, i.e. the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings, socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern. Civil societies are such organizations through which citizens participate and exert influence on public life and influence the policy process and ensure their voices. A single case study method focusing on SHUJON has been used to undertake the study. In essence, the researcher has no control over the actual behavioral events, a key attribute that makes for the use of a case study strategy as illustrated by Yin (2003:5). There exist a myriad of other civil society organizations in the policy process within the electoral process. SHUJON's reputations to give rigorous efforts in reforming electoral process and its wide range of working activities and non partisan character obliged the researchers to choose SHUJON as a 'case' amongst from a number of civil society organizations in Bangladesh.

This encompasses the two main types of data as well as information have been collected that is primary and secondary as well as the key informants from which most of the primary data have been obtained. The key informants are the central committee members of SHUJON and the

volunteers and also the members of main political parties and academics who are randomly selected. The publications of SHUJON as well as Election Commission, relevant journals, news papers, broacher etc.

Research Questions

The main research questions of this study are:

- What are the strategies used by SHUJON to influence the electoral process in Bangladesh?
- How does the strategies' of SHUJON influence contribute to ensure good governance?

Theoretical Premises

The neo-institutional theory has been used in this study to analyze the strategies followed by SHUJON to foster good governance in Bangladesh. Institutional structures are viewed as the building blocks of social and political life which condition the behaviours of individuals. The theory acknowledges that “policy preferences and capacities are usually understood in the context of the society in which the state is embedded” (Scott, 2001). The roles of individuals and groups in the policy process are acknowledged. The state is seen as having the capacity to “devise and implement objectives, not necessarily just to respond to pressure from dominant social groups or classes.” (Hewlett and Ramesh: 2003). Since this study revolves around state-society relations specifically how SHUJON as a civil society organisation tries to exert influence on the policy process. The institutional approach has helped to elaborate on how society's values, rules and regulations can be penetrating into the institutions relating to the electoral process as well as governance. An important aspect has been explored how state autonomy (as shaped by the country's political culture, legal framework, giving rules and regulations) from civil society affects their strategies in trying to bring their demands to the powers that be.

Findings of the Study

SHUJON's strategies could bring qualitative changes in the electoral process to a great extent. Their efforts have created changes not only in the processes of Election Commission, the rules and regulations but also could bring changes in the minds of the voters and their thinking about a reliable electoral system. The major findings of this study are as follows:

Reliable voter list

A reliable and acceptable voter list is the precondition for any fair election. The voter list prepared just for the National Election supposed to be held in

2007 was faulty. SHUJON identified a huge number of false voters in that list and they themselves collect information and correct it and circulate the corrected voter list in their web site. Simultaneously, they ensure this list available to the people of each constituency through their volunteers.

Awareness building

A large number of people Election Commission become aware through the activities of SHUJON. It could penetrate the thought among the voters mind that they (voters) have right to get information about the candidates whom they are going to choose. The civil society also played a significant role in voter education and mobilization of citizens for delivery of services. In the new method of voter registration, prospective voters are required to visit the registration centres to give their fingerprints and photos for data entry. There was apprehension that some people may consider it bothersome to visit the centres and purdah-observing ladies may not agree to pose for photographs. The Election Commission planned a countrywide voter awareness campaign but it did not have the needed manpower nor the resources to do this single-handedly. SHUJON came forward to assist the Commission in this task. They also took part in programs for voter turnout on election day. SHUJON conducted a survey just before 9th Parliament Election. This survey revealed that more than 50% people have been aware about the candidates than that of before. All these efforts of SHUJON contributed a good number of voters turn out. One survey of SHUJON shows the increasing rate of voters' turn out i.e. 76%, in 1996 and 2001 and 87% in 2008 (www.votebd.org).

Ensures candidates accountability

One of the strategies to make the candidates accountable to the voters was to arrange 'face to face debate'. In this process for the first time in Bangladesh all the candidates of one constituency faced their voters in the same stage at the same time. Here the candidates responded the questions of the voters. At the same time the candidates placed their political manifesto before the public. SHUJON arranged such 'face to face' debate in 87 constituencies out of 300. In this congregation the voters agreed upon that they will vote for honest and capable candidates. The candidates also come to a consensus that they will accept whatever is the election result and after being elected they will fulfil the pledges they made.

Involvement of media

At one stage media was involved and gave coverage SHUJON's activities. Some print and electronic media highlighted SHUJON's activities regard to

election. The electronic media initiate programme “KEMON PRARTHI CHAI” – What type of candidates are demanded. Later on many TV channels broadcast such kind of programme. This initiative could very easily reach to every corner of the country. It helped the voters to think about the right candidates as their representatives.

Social movement

As a part of social movement, SHUJON made a theme for campaign titled ‘whom for vote’. In this campaign programme they deliberate the ideas ‘*not to vote for*’- the corrupt people, hooligans, toll collector, fraud, war criminal, women abuser, drug trader/dealer, smuggler, convicted criminals, loan and bill defaulter, land encroacher, religious fanatic, black money owners and ‘*vote for*’ honest, educated, responsible and responsive persons. They also made a documentary. The theme of this documentary is the impact of voting for good and bad people.

Reform in Political Parties

Reform in political parties were earnestly needed for making the election meaningful. It was one of the significant strategies of SHUJON to bring reform in the political parties. The reform agenda suggested by SHUJON are:

- Mandatory registration of the political parties to the Election Commission
- To submit the statement of income and expenditure of political parties to the Election Commission
- Introducing ‘No’ vote system.

During 9th Parliament election the first two proposals have been granted by the Election Commission as well as the political parties and inserted as act in the Representation of People’s Order (RPO). The last one was not implemented at that time but the Election Commission has recently agreed to add in the RPO.

Impact on political parties’ agenda

SHUJON placed many demands to ensure transparency of the political parties. Among the demands some agenda were incorporated in some front line political parties. Before 9th Parliament Election on behalf of 11 party alliances Bangladesh Awami League placed some agenda before nation to reform the electoral process. Such as:

- To stop abuse of money in the the election
- To disclose the candidates’ profile and assets before candidatures

- To make the election muscle and terrorists free
- To exercise democracy within the political parties
- Increase the number of reserved seats for women and direct election for them

Increase new faces in Parliament

A good number of new faces have been elected as MPs. Election Commission, the voters' have had information about the candidates' profiles. That's why the people have good images and reputations have come forward to be the candidates. In the 9th Parliament election held in 2008 163 Member of Parliament (MPs) (63%) were elected for the first time (www.ec.org.bd).

Ensure 'Right to Information'

The people are supposed to get the information of the candidates' profile. But it was not so easy and even the mass people didn't know how to get this information. SHUJON for the first time took initiatives to get information furnished by the candidates in their declaration and they are to fight legal battle for this and SHUJON won. The 9th Parliament election was held in 299 constituencies (in one constituency's election was postponed Election Commission because of death of one candidate). SHUJON made a comparative statement of all the candidates' profile of 299 constituencies. This helped the adult franchise to choose better candidates they think.

Influence Election Commission

Civil society or organized citizen groups can play important roles in this regard by providing a *supply* of ideas for electoral and institutional reforms and at the same time, by advocating or acting as a pressure group for the adoption of such reforms.(coornrd and majumder).

The role of civil society during the 2006-2008 period from the start of the first election campaign for the abandoned 2007 ninth parliamentary election to its successful conduct in 2008 was the most constructive for the revival of electoral democracy in Bangladesh. The context for an evaluation of the role of civil society is provided by the political situation obtaining in Bangladesh during 2006-2008 and the various efforts it made for its amelioration. (Huda: 2008). ATM Shamsul Huda former chief election commissioner stated that the collapse of the projected election in 2007 was the result of many factors "spawned by an array of systemic problems with roots extending back many years. The Election Commission had lost its credibility by preparing a highly flawed electoral role. The methodology for

its preparation was highly suspicious while the inappropriate use of many precepts and practices of the electoral laws had further deepened it. The influence of black money and muscle power had taken a firm hold in the politics of the country and the existing electoral laws did not have adequate coverage to contain them. In a few cases where legal provisions existed, these were not even properly enforced. The mode of operations of the political parties was also not very helpful for the Election Commission to address the maladies that bedeviled the entire electoral system. The parties were not registered with any authority that allowed them a free rein in any way they wanted to conduct themselves and their operations. Party's internal democracy and democratic nomination process were the victims of this kind of lack of transparency and accountability. Lack of internal party democracy had contributed to the development of a confrontational political culture with no room for moderation and accommodation.

The civil society very deftly and skillfully undertook a program in 2006-7 to create those conditions. They consolidated the findings of various studies carried out by them relating to various maladies in the electoral system and the legal and institutional reforms required to be implemented to remedy those. Their recommendations covered among other things, independence of the Election Commission, methodology for preparation of electoral roles, qualification requirements of candidates, disclosure requirements of candidates, registration of political parties and party financing and with a view to minimize the influence of money and in election and selection of honest and dedicated candidates, With this agenda, the civil society held a series of view exchange meetings with different stakeholders and the public in general. This dissemination of information had gone a long way in raising awareness among the people about the imperatives of the reforms. The political parties also watched the situation carefully and mentally prepared themselves for accepting some fundamental reforms coming in their way. One civil society organization was so meticulous in its efforts that it had prepared necessary drafts for initiating the proposed reforms. The civil society thus had created a momentum in 2006-7 for reform and the Election Commission reconstituted in 2008 lost no time in seizing the enabling environment for initiating the necessary legal and institutional reforms and succeeding in getting them finally enacted by the new Parliament in 2009. The passage of the landmark Bangladesh Election Commission Act, 2010 ensuring the independence of the Commission from governmental regulations and the various amendments to the Representation of the People Order, the mother law for the conduct of

elections account for the large measure of success for the conduct of free and fair election by the Election Commission since 2008. SHUJON shared their ideas with the Election Commission for reforming electoral process. The ideas are:

- Introduction of voter ID and voter list with photograph. SHUJON also gave a dummy voter ID to the election commission
- Disclosure of candidates' information furnished in the candidatures declaration.
- Introduction of NO vote
- Reform in political parties and RPO

Challenges of Shujon's Strategies' Implementations

Having great deal of success events of SHUJON bringing changes in electoral process; it also has faced challenges in their activities. The challenges came from many quarters. Their initiatives are opposed primarily by the political parties, government and even from Election Commission. The major challenges are:

- There are tendency among the political parties to resist the changes
- They hardly willing to disclose their candidates profile
- As a voluntary organization; they have limited resources to run all the activities
- All level of the office bearers of SHUJON and their volunteers are threatened
- It is not easy for the common people to get information about the candidates from the Election Commission/Information Commission
- It is a common tendency of the ruling parties to consider the civil society bodies as their opponent groups
- Complex and lengthy judicial process sometimes create hurdle for reform

It is regretful that in 10th Parliament Election held in 5 January 2013; the main opposition party (in 9th parliament) did not take part. As a result more than half of the candidates have been elected uncontested which is the reflection of shrinking of people's participation. On the basis of candidates' declaration submitted in 2008 and 2013; SHUJON made a comparative statement of 390 candidates' assets, income, income tax and loan and found big gaps.

There is always resistant to change in every democracy. SHUJON as well as Civil societies have also been facing the challenges. But their efforts are still restless considering all the shortfalls.

Conclusion

The strategies used by the SHUJON have greatly contributed to create awareness among the people. The people have been motivated to vote for qualified candidates. Some of their recommendations are also recognised by Election Commission and political parties. Some electoral rules (RPO) have been considered followed by the suggestion of SHUJON. Thus SHUJON contribute a lot to enhance to ensure a fair and transparent election procedure which is one of pillar of good governance. Though some of the SHUJON's recommendations are yet to be materialized. SHUJON's initiatives have got recognition from the society that causes the Election Commission's recent move to insert NO vote system. The matter is still within the purview of the highest court of the country. SHUJON's secretary has been chosen as one of the amicus curry of the court in the matter of the decision of inserting NO vote in the RPO. Insertion of NO vote will create a milestone in the history of electoral process in Bangladesh. It will ensure more accountability of the parliament members (MPs) to their voters and thus enhance one more step towards good governance.

Here, SHUJON as civil society body tries to influence the electoral process so that both the candidates and voters can behave according to the rules and regulation conditioned by social need. This will ensure good governance in Bangladesh.

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11. Knowledge Management for Public Governance: A Review of Kautilya's Perspective

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Introduction

Knowledge always remains as the most important resource both at individual and collective levels, but recently organizational practitioners, private and public, reinvent the role of knowledge in management and governance, emphasize on it and involve in knowledge management. Consequently knowledge management now constitutes a vital part of governance. Competitive work environment, urge for performance maximization, information revolution; rapid changes in technology and attitude of the citizen and customers have created a compulsive situation for attaching serious attention to knowledge and knowledge management. Human society as identified by Robinns, after surpassing two prior waves, agricultural and industrial, is now in the third wave, the information wave which is, being accelerated by cyber revolution, bringing changes rapidly in the inner and outer states of individual and collective worlds. Business sectors for obvious reasons first feel necessity to harmonize with the changes and include cyber sector within its scope and begin to conduct knowledge management in the organization. Knowledge management essentially aims at improving knowledge base in the organization and includes a number of activities such as identifying, creating, storing, sharing and applying knowledge in the functioning of organization. Different strategies have also been developed and are being used to conduct knowledge management process. All these have effective role in ensuring better performance in terms of increased volume and quality production and outcome.

Despite of its basic differences in objectives and obligations with private sector, public sector in most of the cases, so far management and performance issues are concerned are historically found to borrow private sector concepts and practices. Best examples are organization and management theories that are developed in the private sector first and public sector, later on, adopts the same either without or with some modifications. Paradigms of public administration reflect the realities regarding importation of concepts and practices in public sector from business world. Like TQM, Performance management, strategic management, change management etc. Knowledge management is one of the new phenomena now in practice in public governance. The powerful role of market in the

economy transcending the boundary of states and emergence of strong private sectors by this time has brought about remarkable changes in role of government and governance paradigm. The New Public Management (NPM) paradigm has integrated government closely with the market. Government's way to steer the market ensuring public interest and safeguarding sovereignty of the country has emerged as the most basic indicator of a capable government in the globalized world. Before 1980s government did not encounter such type of complex and intricate task. For accomplishing this task it urgently needs rigorous reform in its structure, functions, values and culture blended by new knowledge and commitment. Besides, competitive democracy or politics and political commitment for public interest created a compulsive situation for public sector to emphasize on knowledge management.

Organizations have to adjust their strategies with the rapid changes in technology, cultural values, social life, competition and citizen/customers' demands. In such circumstances, organizations, regardless of public or private, need to learn the know-how of solving problems and generate knowledge to establish new methods of solving problems. Thus, organizations have to be transformed into learning organizations (Michalopoulos and Psychogios N.D.). Public policy and administration scholars (e.g., Bailey 1964; Bardach 1998; Behn 1996; Parsons 1995) have also emphasized on the importance of knowledge and intellectual labor in producing policy (Rooney and McKenna 2008).

In 2000, European Union tried to establish competitive and knowledge based economy through the Lisbon strategy in order to ensure sustainable economic development with better jobs and greater social solidity. Public sectors are also part of this strategy to learn constantly for providing better service delivery to citizens (Vargas-Sánchez and Moreno-Domínguez N.D.). Despite of realizing the need for new knowledge and thereby knowledge management, public sector could still not identify its own approach to knowledge management rather it is following the private sectors' models and strategies in rapid pace to cope with the changed realities.

Public governance is fundamentally characterized by its holistic involvement complying with sovereignty and commitment to public interest. It has also its own normative and functional dimensions enmeshed with political will and public value which are quite different from private sector governance. Knowledge management in public governance necessarily encompasses all these issues of public governance and eventually it demands its perspectives and approaches. Private sector KM framework for its inherent characteristics cannot satisfy this demand. It does not comply with public governance obligation of upholding the several indicators of good governance such as participation, rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity and inclusiveness,

effectiveness and efficiency, and accountability. All these require different normative and value based knowledge. Good governance in private sector is measured mainly by two indicators; efficiency and effectiveness related to profit maximization while the other indicators get here less emphasized. In this situation, a public framework of knowledge management needs to be developed. Kautilya's Arthashastra deals with public governance and contains many important inputs, normative and functional, that can contribute a lot to the construction of a public sector knowledge management framework. The present paper tries to highlight Kautilya's discourses on knowledge and knowledge management that may be used to develop public knowledge management approach suitable for modern governments.

Why Kautilya and the Arthashastra for Constructing KM Paradigm in Public Governance

Kautilya was an eminent Asian scholar and Professor at Taxila University of Pakistan. He is popularly known as Vishnugupta Chanakya Kautilya and has been addressed as an Acharya or guru (i.e. professor or teacher) and a statesman. He had a strong moral and philosophical footing. Boesche (2003) said Kautilya composed his Arthashastra, or "science of politics," to instruct a wise king the way to defeat his enemies and rule on behalf of the general good. Why an ancient scholar, like Kautilya and his Arthashastra have been taken in the discourse of Public Knowledge Management (PKM) finds on the following grounds:

1. Kautilya played the important role in the formation of a new state under Mauryan dynasty and enthroning Chandragupta in the state power. Chandragupta could not defeat the Nanda King with his small army that lacked sufficient military strength without the intelligent and courageous diplomatic role of Kautilya. Unlike any scholar or thinker, he had rare and practical experience in initiating new state governance.
2. He was appointed as chief advisor and Prime Minister of the Indian Emperor Chandragupta, the first ruler of the Mauryan. This assignment instigated him to the exercise of public governance that compelled him to seriously think on governance and bring his thought into practice. Arthashastra is the product of the subjective wisdom and objective conditions surrounding the Prime Minister Kautilya and consequently appeared a real book of public governance at that time.
3. Arthashastra portrays state governance from holistic perspective and covers all philosophical, normative and functional issues of governance from personal to state level. It provides a total guideline for king's governance. The Arthashastra was written during the latter half of the 4th century B.C.E. It contains 150 chapters, which are classified by topic in

- 15 books. Including the first chapters it has some other chapters specifically on knowledge management.
4. It was mainly because of Kautilya and guidance of Arthashastra that the Mauryan Empire under Chandragupta continued by his son Bindusara (c. 293–268 B.C.E.) and later under his grandson Ashoka (c. 268–232 B.C.E.) and still is, astonishing (ibid) and became a model of efficient government (Encyclopedia Britannica).
 5. Most importantly, Arthashastra is the compilation of all old classics in governance and contains the governance knowledge of different generations those contributed to the emergence of ancient civilization in this region. It is the first book dealing with knowledge management in public sector based on practical experience of saint scholar and statesman.

Including different types of knowledge i.e. knowledge contents, the process of acquiring and sustaining knowledge and application of knowledge, Arthashastra provides a framework of knowledge management from holistic perspective. Kautilya is the right person to follow in constructing the framework for KM in public governance for his strong intellectual, moral and philosophical background as well as practical experience in conducting governance activities.

Conceptual Framework of Knowledge and Knowledge Management

Knowledge

Knowledge is the basic input to human behavior and the behavior, in turn, acts as power that enables human being in involving labor and productive process as well as establishing relationship with the internal selfhood and external world. Knowledge is, thus, widely considered as power. Due to its holistic and indivisible nature it is very difficult to have any universal definition of knowledge. Despite of this fact different scholars try to describe knowledge in different ways, in different perspectives. Merriam Webster very simplistic way defined knowledge as ‘information, understanding or skill’ got from experience or education as well as ‘awareness of something: the state of being aware of something’. According to Sveiby (2007) “Knowledge can mean information, awareness, knowing, cognition, sapience, cognizance, science, experience, skill, insight, competence, know-how, practical, ability, capability, learning, wisdom, certainty, and so on”. Einstein quoted “Information is not knowledge”. Knowledge is more than information, it includes anything more. Ancient Greek Philosopher Plato said “Knowledge is the food of the soul.” He finds or explores a linkage of knowledge with soul. Knowledge can be seen in different perspectives.

Based on the importance of knowledge the discipline 'Epistemology' a branch of philosophy has been developed which is concerned with the value of human knowledge. It describes, analyses, examines genetically the facts of knowledge as such (psychology of knowledge), and then tests chiefly the value of knowledge and of its various kinds, its conditions of validity, range and limits (critique of knowledge). Plato, Aristotle, Kant, Aquinas, Moore, Gettier etc. contributed much to this discipline and unveiled different issues related to knowledge from different perspectives that develop different theories of knowledge within the broader spectrum of empiricism and rationalism. All of them uphold a fact that there is a close relationship between knowledge and human behavior. Related to two broader types of human behavior, normative and technical, knowledge may be divided into two types as normative knowledge and technical knowledge that act on all functional behavior of human being. Human being by nature upholds some norms and values that are shaped by his/her inner sense and environmental dynamics. This is the unique characteristic drawing distinct difference between mankind and other beings. Normative knowledge related to norms and values accompanies differs with the difference of perspective and commitment level of individual or groups to the perspective concerned.

Normative/judgmental knowledge helps to take judgmental decisions, draw divides between what ought to be done and what ought to be not while the technical knowledge enhances technical proficiency. Due to his/her freedom of will to an extent, creative capability, normative value and continuous influence of contradictory forces from within and without s/he is to take always normative decisions. Technical knowledge provides technical proficiency and helps in technological development in all sectors related to human being. These two types of knowledge are inseparable and constitute the two sides of a single coin. One determines the end and the other makes drive to attain the end.

Normative knowledge may be any of two extreme types or may be any type in between the two. One that does not support any form of exploitation and complies with characteristics of nature may be called positive norm and the other that generates exploitation and contradicts with the universal law of nature can be termed as negative norm. These two extreme forms constitute the two extreme of a continuum. Normative knowledge as well as normative behavior of individual move along the continuum. Nature of norms, positive or negative or the mixture of the two moulds the nature of human behavior. Normative dimension of knowledge is the most important for it steers the technical knowledge in operation. History reveals the fact human being naturally acquired technical knowledge to encounter problems in their real life. They are acquired technical knowledge in a compulsive situation. Negative normative knowledge also develops easily following human greed and lust amidst contradictions, internal and external. But

knowledge with positive norm is to acquire through systematic education as well as dedicated learning and education or knowledge management process. Confucius after his long involvement with state governance in China realized that nature of governance is closely related to nature of normative education and then he started his school about one hundred years before the schools of ancient Europe and started disseminating normative knowledge to his students through teaching and writings.

The problems of governance and management have two aspects: human and technical dimension. Human dimension includes the leaders who govern and also the people to be governed in any social set up, whereas technical dimension covers the knowhow, instruction and functional technicalities of governance.

Knowledge Management

Knowledge is one of the most important assets in any organization. This is strongly felt by the modern business enterprises. They realize that knowledge has to be shared among the management and subordinate staff and thus the organization will grow stronger and become more competitive in the open market economy (Uriarte 2008). The goals of KM are the leveraging and improvement of the organization's knowledge assets to effectuate better knowledge practices, improved organizational behaviors, better decisions and improved organizational performance (King N.D.) Knowledge management is capturing, creating, distilling, sharing and using know-how of both explicit and tacit knowledge (Collison and Parcell cited in IFAD 2007).

The knowledge management processes describe the relationships of the key steps involved in creation of knowledge to its application in an organization. Davenport and Prusak's (2000) developed 3-stage model of KM process, Ward and Aurum's (2004) and King (N.D.) suggested 7-stage of the process while Asian Productivity Organization (APO) developed five-step KM process (Young 2010). In summary, the different steps of KM process are shown in following figure:

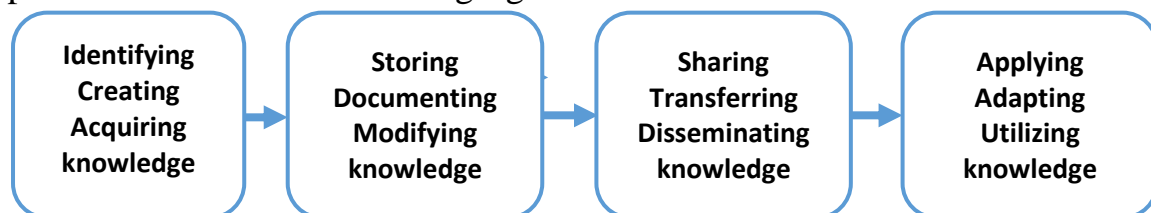


Figure: Flow Chart of KM Process

Some scholars argued for tacit and explicit knowledge management (Hess 2006; Uriarte 2008; IFAD 2007) where tacit or implicit knowledge is in the mind or heads of knowers acquired through enculturation and experiences.

On the other hand, explicit type of knowledge is represented in contents, documents or in any other tangible and concrete media.

In other ways, aspects of knowledge management can be explained as information management and people management (Uriarte 2008). Information management is related to the management of required information applying proper tools or methods in order to turn it into useful knowledge for organization. People management, on the contrary, includes motivating, and controlling of people in the organization to ensure that its knowledge-related assets are improved and effectively employed (King 2008, cited in King N.D.). People management is closely related to normative knowledge which is necessary to motivate people in many cases, develop their dedication and make them committed to task accomplishment.

The ongoing practices in the business sectors mainly emphasizes on the processes of knowledge management consisting of a number of activities from capturing information to the use of information captured and aim at only technical knowledge that can maximize output and profit for the organization. These practices ignore any holistic approach and fail to include normative dimension of knowledge with due consideration. Knowledge is indivisible and holistic phenomenon. Knowledge management too is a holistic system in respects of goal, content and process. Knowledge management is, thus, a system of managing knowledge with a view to enhancing effective and efficient behavior in the organization for maximizing output and outcome. It consists of contents/inputs, conversion process, outputs, impacts and feedback.

Nature of knowledge management is shaped predominantly by the nature of goal of the organization concerned. Public sector KM is quite different from the private sector KM due to the difference of the goal and authority structure. Private sector encourages technical knowledge and expertise those are necessary to increase production and the level of efficiency. While on the other hand, public sector needs a comprehensive knowledge since its role and responsibilities are vast and complex compare to the private sector. Technical knowledge can only contribute towards enhancement of technical know-how concerning production and efficiency that are the major concern of private sector organizations.

The objective of public sector is ultimately the wellbeing of public exposed through stability, development and peace in the society. It requires a governance system characterized by the practice of rule of law; participation; transparency; consensus orientation; responsiveness; equity and inclusiveness; and effectiveness and efficiency. Among all these characteristics of good governance except effectiveness and efficiency all other demand normative soundness and strength that are, in essence based on normative dedication. Modern governance systems are facing problems mostly of lack of morality, ethics, and positive thinking and attitudes among

the rulers and ruled. Normative soundness is necessary to overcome this situation and it can be enhanced through a comprehensive knowledge management process

Knowledge Management in Kautilya's Discourses

The Arthashastra of Kautilya is the compendium of all ancient Arthashastra composed by the ancient teachers compiled by Kautilya. It can be divided into three major parts where in the first part he discussed about the importance of education and knowledge of the king and four sciences of knowledge. The second part talked about the problems of state administration whereas in the third part strategies for interstate relationships are spelt out. Kautilya emphasized on knowledge as the most vital component of governance. He identifies first the content of knowledge and prescribes the way of acquiring knowledge and sustaining and utilizing them in governance. He

Categories of Knowledge

Following a holistic approach to knowledge Kautilya divides 'Vidyas' or sciences or knowledge into four categories (i) 'Anvikshiki' or philosophy, (ii) 'Trayi' or three Vedas, (iii) 'Vartta' or economics and (iv) 'Dandaniti' or politics. The three goals of life could only be achieved by understanding importance of these four sciences in human life (Chousalker 2004). In the four sciences Kautilya both normative and technical type of knowledge are covered.

(i) Anvikshiki

The most important science, Kautilya put much emphasize, is Anvikshiki. According to Kautilya Anvikshiki includes the philosophy of Sankhya, Yoga, and Lokayata. There were two branches of Anvikshiki: Philosophy and logic. Sanikhya and Lokayata were ancient schools of philosophy and the 'Lokayata' philosophers were also well known for their proficiency in logic and reasoning. Therefore, Anvikshiki was also called Hetushastra or Hetuvidya and Tarkavidya or the science of debate (Chousalker 2004). It is most useful way to keep the mind steady and firm in any kind of situation, and provide excellence of foresight, speech and action. It is the highest level of knowledge and container of all kinds of virtues (Kautilya's Arthasashtra 1915: 9). The Anviksiki helps know oneself and self-governance which is necessary for and directly related to normative aspects of good governance and has potentials to construct a KM paradigm suitable for public administration.

Kautilya also put emphasis on the discipline (vinaya) on which the well-being of all four sciences depends. He suggested being self-disciplined and to be aware of Six Enemies which he defined as the six organs of sense like lust, anger, greed, vanity (mána), haughtiness (mada), and overjoy (harsha). Kautilya also said that the sole aim of all the four sciences is to protect

people from all these six enemies. He provided the examples of several kings such as Bhoja, Karala, Aila, Ravana, Vatapi and many others who failed to restrain themselves from the organ of sense and became the prey to the aggregate of six enemies, and as ultimate consequence they perished along with their kingdom and relations. On the other hand Nabhaga, the king who was successful to control his six organs of sense and thereby enjoyed long life on the earth as the triumphant king (Kautilya's Arthashastra 1915: 13-16).

While emphasizing the importance of 'anvikshiki', Kautilya wrote "investigating by means of reasoning what is 'dharma' and 'adharma' in Vedas, 'artha' and 'anartha' in economics and good policy and bad policy in science of politics, as well as relative strength and weakness of these three sciences, philosophy confers benefit on the people, keeps mind steady in adversity and prosperity and brings about proficiency in speech, thought and action" (Chousalker 2004).

(ii) Trayi or Triple Vedas

Kautilya said that triple Vedas are the best way to get proper knowledge about the right and wrong. The three 'Vedas' are 'Rigveda' 'Yajurveda' and 'Samaveda'. Kautilya also included 'Atharvaveda', Itihasa- Purana' and 'Vedangas' as the part of the Vedas. Triple Vedas are very useful to allocate the responsibilities of the four class of people (Brahman, Kshatriya Vaisya and Sudra) and four orders of religious life (householder, student, forest-recluse and ascetic). Kautilya in his Arthashastra described the duties four classes of people in the following way:

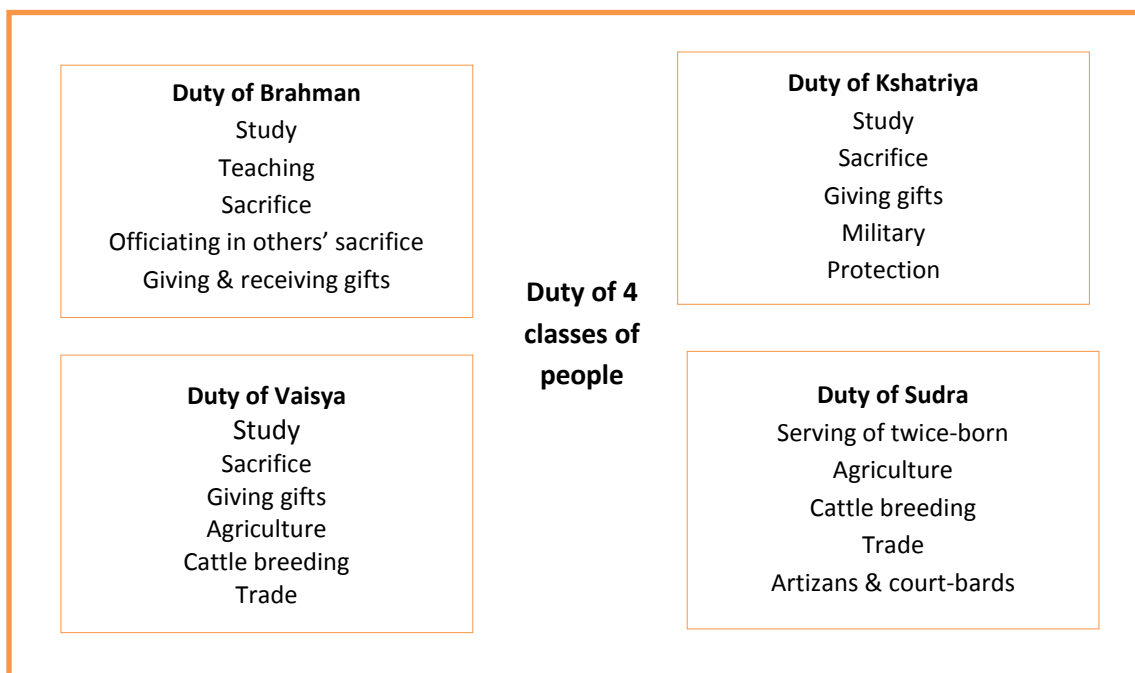


Figure: Duty of 4 classes of people

In describing the duties of four religious life Kautilya said that the duty of a householder is earning livelihood by his own profession, marriage among his equals of different ancestral Rishis, intercourse with his wedded wife after her monthly ablution, gifts to gods, ancestors, guests, and servants, and the eating of the remainder. The duty of a student is learning the Vedas, fire-worship, ablution, living by begging, and devotion to his teacher even at the cost of his own life, or in the absence of his teacher, to the teacher's son, or to an elder classmate. The duty of forest-recluse includes observance of chastity, sleeping on the bare ground, keeping twisted locks, wearing deer-skin, fire-worship, ablution, worship of gods, ancestors, and guests, and living upon food stuffs procurable in forests. Finally the duty of ascetic covers complete control of the organs of sense, abstaining from all kinds of work, disowning money, keeping from society, begging in many places, dwelling in forests, and purity both internal and external. Kautilya also mentioned that the students should study the triple Vedas, the science of Anvikshaki under teachers of acknowledged authority (sishta), the science of Vatra under government superintendents, and the science of Dandaniti under theoretical and practical politicians.

Kautilya also talked about the common duties for all such as: harmlessness, truthfulness, purity, freedom from spite, abstinence from cruelty, and forgiveness. He warned that if this division of works and duties is violated people will be destroyed and if they follow it properly they will surely be happy and progress (Kautilya's Arthashastra 1915: 10-11). The triple Vedas include both normative and functional aspects of human life. It also focus on the division of work which in now one of the most integral parts of management and administration in modern concept.

(iii) Varta

Varta is all about the functional aspect of life as the sources of livelihood. Kautilya emphasized on Varta that includes agriculture, cattle-breeding and trade. The Varta is necessary to produce grains, cattle, gold, forest, etc. and generate income required for the king or government to run the state and also to protect it from the enemy (Kautilya's Arthasastra 1915: 12). The modern management practitioners mainly emphasize on the high level of performance and efficiency at functional level.

(iv) Dandniti

The use of danda or the authority of the king is 'Dandaniti' or science of politics (Chousalker 2004). Kautilya provided much emphasize on Danda or punishment. According him the well-being and progress of the other three sciences e.g. Anvikshaki, the triple Vedas, and Varta depend on the Dandaniti, the law of punishment or science of government. Danda can also act as a means of making achievements, security, improvement and to equal distribution of profit of improvement. Even, the progress of the entire world

depends on the proper and efficient management of Dandaniti. Kautilya also suggested to impose punishment with right manner and due consideration of justice. He warned about severe punishment that makes the people repulsive and at the same time very soft punishment is contemptible; on the other hand the right kind of punishment makes the people devoted to righteousness and to work with productivity and enjoyment. But if the punishment is given with ill-motive being influenced by personal greed and anger or due to ignorance, it will provoke agitation and excite fury not only among the civilized people, even among hermit and ascetic living in forests (Kautilya's Arthashastra 1915: 12-13).

Kautilya's four types of knowledge 'Anvikshiki', 'Trayi' or three Vedas, 'Vartta' and 'Dandaniti' corresponds to normative knowledge which is positive in nature, legal knowledge or code of conduct, occupational or technical or expert knowledge in modern time. The bad qualities of human being identified by Kautilya as six enemies generate corruption, exploitation and other vices in the governance system and in the society. Anvikshiki is the science or special knowledge to defeat these enemies and ensure sound governance both in individual and collective levels.

Constitution in any organization provides the basic guidelines behavior as well as human and material relationship. The constitution of state describes the right of governed, right of government and the relationship between governed and government. Everybody should be aware of the fundamental provisions and obligations of the constitution. In Kautilya's time, the divine book 'Vedas' were the constitution that encompassed the total governance system - personal, social and state and set the standard of measurement for human behavior. In the modern nation state they have been replaced by the constitution of the country. The legal system of the country including its all rules and regulations stem from the constitution and embedded by constitutional guidelines. Functional principles of any organization, public or private must comply with constitution and legal framework.

Knowledge Management Process

The knowledge process of Kautilya is also holistic in nature. He suggested a comprehensive framework of knowledge management with special reference to prince and king, the future chief and the present chief of governance in the state respectively.

Knowledge Management Process for Prince

Kautilya delineated the life style of a prince that the prince shall observe celibacy till he becomes sixteen years old. Then he shall observe the ceremony of tonsure (godana) and marry. He shall constantly keep company with aged professors of sciences to maintain efficient discipline. He shall spend the forenoon in receiving lessons in military arts concerning

elephants, horses, chariots, and weapons, and the afternoon in hearing the Itihasa. During the rest of the day and night, he shall not only receive new lessons and revise old lessons, but also hear over and again what has not been clearly understood. Kautilya argued that the king who is well educated and disciplined in sciences, devoted to good government of his subjects, and bent on doing good to all people will enjoy the sole dominance in the earth (Kautilya Arthashastra 1915).

Knowledge Management Process for King

Kautilya also provided a detail instruction for the working process of a king. He divided the daily works of the king into 16 different parts where 8 parts for day time and 8 parts for night. This daily routine for the king can be considered a great example of knowledge management process for any head of state or prime minister at present time. Kautilya described that during the first part of a day the king will get the information about the security of last night and accounts of last day while in the second part he will monitor the works of leaders and general people. In the third part he take bath, have food and read religious book; the works for fourth part are cash maintenance and job distribution to the relevant persons; in the fifth part ministers are to be instructed through letters, journey or consultation in the sixth part, monitoring elephant, horse, vehicle etc. in the seventh part and lastly in the eighth part of the day the king will discuss regularly about war with commanders.

On the other hand, the king will start works at night through meeting with spies and will have food and worship in the second part of night. Then he will listen to song or instruments in the third part. Fourth and fifth parts of night are kept for sleeping and in the sixth part the king will read religious books and plan for the next day. In the seventh part eligible spies are to be sent and finally in the eighth part he will receive blessings with religious priests and meet with doctors, cook and others. The above mentioned daily routine was a systematic way of life for a king (Ahmad et al. 2015).

Relevance of Kautilya's Framework in Public Governance

Nowadays, the main crisis of governance is related to unethical behavior in decision making as well as in implementation process. The four sciences of Kautilya can contribute to a great extent to overcome the present catastrophe in public governance system. The ideologies of Kautilya regarding state, statecraft and ethics are still very realistic and effectively applicable in current context of governance (Chandrasekaran 2006). The governments of developing countries including Bangladesh are trying to achieve mostly the efficiency and effectiveness in running administration with a perceived

vision to attain economic development. Normative aspects of governance are narrowly focused and ignored in contemporary public affairs. Kautilya in his Arthashastra emphasized more on Anvikshiki, the highest level of integrity, and triple Vedas, the religiosity, for a king to govern his state. He also provided a detail description of the roles and responsibilities for different segments of people in the society which are very much pertinent in ensuring proper balance and division of work. He focused mainly on the king who can only ensure welfare for the people through maintaining good administration. Sharma and Sharma (cited in Haque 2013) have identified ten indicators of good governance from Kautilya's Arthashastra which are mostly focus on King and related to ethics, morality and other normative aspects of human life. In the modern age we are now providing much emphasizes on visible output and material gains and thereby we are far behind the values, norms, and many other ethical and moral grounds of our life. Therefore, we fail to ensure good governance although we are crying for it. Kautilya's approach of knowledge management can play a great role in constructing and promoting ethical and moral foundation and in maintaining a proper balance between normative and material aspects of life.

Conclusion

Kautilya, an eminent Asian scholar was simultaneously an academicians and very much involved in public governance as the Prime Minister of King Chandra Gupta Maurjya. He compiled all old classics in governance into his famous book Arthashastra. It is perhaps the first book on public governance where King represents sovereignty and whole supreme authority. It is not only the first book of public governance in general, but also the first book dealing with knowledge management in public sector. Knowledge is a holistic phenomenon and according to Kautilya it consists of Ānviksiki, Trayi, Vārtā and Dandniti meaning knowledge of self control, Vedas, functional expertise and governance respectively. Anviksiki and dandniti are all inclusive in nature and directly related to normative aspects of good governance and have potentials to construct a knowledge management paradigm suitable for public administration.

The philosophy of Kautilya can be taken into consideration in public sector to overcome many problems related bad governance and administration. But how the Kautilya's approaches of knowledge management can apply in public sector governance is a big issue to identify. A more intensive research work will be required for further exploration of Kautilya's on administration of a state.

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12. Defending Finer's Accountability Argument: Experience of Social Accountability in the Context of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme in India

Pratik Phadukle

Introduction

The classic debate between Carl Friedrich and Herman Finer that happened in the 1930-1940s still holds importance in the field of public administration. Since the 1940s, this debate has guided the theory and practice of governance and public policy in the western world. This famous Friedrich Finer debate is also called the responsibility versus accountability debate, because Friedrich in his article¹ argues the necessity of moral responsibility as an inner motivation for civil servants in their work whereas Finer² in response to Friedrich's article argues for the necessity of accountability exerted by an external accounting to another is required for their work as civil servants. Thus it is clear that the disagreement between Friedrich and Finer is on the concept of responsibility versus direct accountability.

What motivates civil servants in their work? Is it an inner sense of responsibility or accountability exerted by external controls? Do civil servants really possess a sense of responsibility? To whom are civil servants accountable? Are civil servants accountable to ministers only? Aren't civil servants accountable to the public? These are some of the important questions in the field of public administration having no perfect answers applicable in all situations and in all settings.

It is observed that there is a strong inclination of the public administrators towards Friedrich's position of the conception that public administrators have an inner sense of responsibility; therefore they should be granted broad range of discretions³. It is also observed that in recent

¹ Friedrich Carl Joachim, "Public Policy and the Nature of Administrative Responsibility" (The Harvard University Press Cambridge, Massachusetts, U.S.A., 1940).

² Finer Herman, "Administrative Responsibility in Democratic Government," *Public Administration Review* 1(4) (1941): 335-50.

³ "Administrative Discretion and Guerrilla Government - Tags: ETHICS of Dissent: Managing Guerrilla Government, The (Book) BOOKS -- Reviews," accessed April 7, 2014, <http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/book-reviews/20265242/administrative-discretion-guerrilla-government>.

times, the concept of accountability is debated in terms of not just accountability towards the minister but towards the constitution and the laws, one's public service profession and most importantly to the public.

The Friedrich vs. Finer debate has more influence in the American and European region where it was generated. There are no many attempts to relate this debate in the non-western contexts. In this scenario, this paper attempts to relate the Friedrich Finer debate in the context of Indian public administration and it presents an argument supporting Finer's stance that external checks are necessary for the public servants, for the reason that we cannot ensure the moral responsibility and sense of professionalism in them. To support the argument, the paper takes the case study of the social accountability mechanism implemented in the health and education sectors to ensure accountability on the part of civil servants.

This paper starts with a brief discussion on Max Weber's definition of bureaucracy which stands to be the origin of Friedrich vs. Finer Debate. Later the paper discusses the main points of contestation in the responsibility vs. accountability debate. In the next section, the paper discusses how this debate is still relevant and applicable to the situations that today's administration presents to us. This paper discusses an example from India. India is the largest and one of the most stable democracies in the world has a complex structure of public administration at the state level and the central level. This paper defends Finer's stance of accountability of public administrators. It argues that Finer's stance of accountability to legislators will not be effective in Indian context but direct accountability to the people through social accountability mechanism will be more suitable and efficient.

Responsibility versus Accountability Debate

The debate on responsibility and accountability is still ongoing in the field of public administration. The deliberations on responsibility and accountability are important in a democratic society because they form the core of the mechanisms to assure responsiveness by government to citizens' preferences and needs. These mechanisms ensure that policies and subsequent actions by the administration are responding to the preferences and wants of the population which they are serving. The point of debate is which mechanism – responsibility or accountability, does really exist or is necessary to ensure such policy and action by the administrators. Here Friedrich and Finer both possess different opinions.

As said earlier, Friedrich argues for the administrative responsibility. In his article⁴, he strongly favors the notion of administrative discretion. He talks about technical knowledge and popular sentiment as the factors that

⁴ Friedrich Carl Joachim, "Public Policy and the Nature of Administrative Responsibility."

guide the actions of public administrators. He further clarifies his position by stating that the increasing complexity of public sector problems required technical competence, and that the fellow professionals could effectively judge the activities and policies of the public administrator due to the technical nature of their work. He consolidates his position by stating that the actions of a public administrator are irresponsible if they had been adopted without proper regard to the existing sum of human knowledge concerning the technical issues involved. Friedrich also discusses the popular sentiment as being the guiding force for the actions of the public administrator. He puts that as " ...we also have a right to call [a policy or action] irresponsible if it can be shown that it was adopted without proper regard for existing preferences in the community, and more particularly its prevailing majority"⁵

It is clear that Friedrich supports internal controls, the internalized values and knowledge of the profession as a source of guidance for action for public administrators. He claims that with the technical knowledge of the field, it is the internalized value of professionalism that causes responsible action on the part of public administrators. He can also be viewed as one who emphasizes the empowerment of public administrators through the assignment and definition of their responsibilities and rendering for more autonomy for the administrators.

On the other hand, Finer in all his arguments, emphasize the concept of accountability exerted by someone or something external. More precisely, he emphasizes the subordination of public administrators to elected officials who are legislators. He argues that the elected bodies should provide directions to unelected officials i.e. administrators and thus should play a major part in defining their responsibilities. According to him, public administrators should give an account of their activities to elected legislators. As in democratic governments, it is given that elected legislators act on what they believe to be the preferences of the people in defining their responsibilities and are answerable directly to the people. So being accountable and answerable to elected legislators is being accountable to the public.⁶

Here what Finer⁷ talks about is accountability mechanism for the public administrators in which they are directly accountable to elected officials and in turn, indirectly accountable to the people. He is clear in his conception of accountability as a direct external accounting to another for one's actions like in the relationship of employee to employer. For him, enforcement

⁵ Dunn Delmer, Legg Jr Jerome, "U.S. Local Government Managers and the Complexity of Responsibility and Accountability in Democratic Governance," 2001, <http://jpart.oxfordjournals.org/content/11/1/73.abstract>.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Finer Herman, "Administrative Responsibility in Democratic Government."

takes the forms of explicit instructions and schedules of punishment for failure to obey⁸. He further warns that the absence of external checks and controls will lead to corruption in public administration⁹. In his argument, what is less clear is the extent to which and if nonelected officials should also take direction from and are answerable directly to the people.

Application of Responsibility vs. Accountability Debate

Based on a theoretical understanding of the responsibility vs. accountability debate, if we look at the practical application of the administrative responsibility and accountability, we would not get a definite answer to which approach is the most practical and efficient.

The concepts such as a 'sense of moral responsibility and professionalism' put forward by Friedrich seemed to be abstract and ethereal¹⁰, therefore it is difficult to ensure that public administrators do possess them in their work. These concepts are also culture and context specific. In the context of India, it is difficult to say that the public administrators possess a strong sense of duty but they still possess a sense of elitism which comes from the colonial era. The administrators are often blamed that they do not consider themselves public servants but rulers ruling their own territories.¹¹

It was evident from the "State of the Nation" survey 2009 (SONS) report by Centre for the Study of Developing Societies (CSDS) in India in which it was found that on average, citizens felt bureaucrats (public administrators) at all levels were more inattentive and rude in comparison to elected representatives. It further comments that due to lack of accountability on bureaucrat's side, the poor have no control over the performance of school teachers, are openly intimidated in police stations, face rampant neglect at health centres, and are turned away from ration shops.¹²

In 2012, the report by Political and Economic Risk Consultancy based in Hong Kong commented about the Indian bureaucracy that they are rarely held accountable for their decisions, which gives them [bureaucrats] terrific powers and could be one of the main reasons why average Indians as well as existing and would-be foreign investors perceive India's bureaucrats as negatively as they do.¹³

⁸ Jackson, "Responsibility versus Accountability in the Friedrich-Finer Debate."

⁹ Al-Habil Wasim, "The Administrative Ethics Between Professionalism And Individual Conscience," *Business and Management Review* 1(10) (December 2011): 43–45.

¹⁰ Jackson, "Responsibility versus Accountability in the Friedrich-Finer Debate."

¹¹ Indian Express, Wed Oct 16 2013, 01:22 hrs <http://archive.indianexpress.com/news/a-bureaucracy-that-governs-not-reigns/1183104/0>

¹² Indian Express, Wed Oct 16 2013, 01:22 hrs <http://archive.indianexpress.com/news/a-bureaucracy-that-governs-not-reigns/1183104/0> and http://www.lokniti.org/state_of_the_nations_survey_january_2009.php

¹³ BBC News India 12 January 2012, 06:32 hrs <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-asia-india-16523672>

On this backdrop, Friedrich's argument of having an inner sense of moral responsibility doesn't seem to be applicable. The argument¹⁴ that Finer puts about having external control in the form of public administrators being accountable to legislators elected by people seems more reasonable. He advocates for indirect accountability of public administrators to the public, but he never discusses direct accountability of public administrators where they are directly answerable to people and are also taking directions from the people. Also Finer never discusses the possibility of and capacity of people holding public administrators accountable directly for their actions and inactions. Here the paper tries to discuss this possibility of people directly holding public administrators accountable rather than seeing if they are accountable to the legislators elected by them.

Social Accountability Mechanism - Direct Accountability to People

A fundamental principle of democracy is that citizens have the right to demand accountability and public actors (elected and non-elected) have an obligation to be accountable. Elected officials and civil servants can and should be held accountable to not abuse their powers and serve the public interest in an efficient, effective and fair manner.¹⁵

Finer defends this principle but advocates that civil servants (non elected public administrators) should be held accountable by the government actors elected by people (legislators) so that civil servants (the elected actors) are accountable to people. As mentioned earlier in this paper, this is an indirect 'long route' approach to accountability. Here the paper discusses how a direct 'short route' approach to accountability can be implemented to enhance the accountability of the civil servants in the system, by using social accountability mechanisms. The indirect -long route and direct-short route approach is depicted in the following figure:



*Diagram 1: Short Route of Accountability*¹⁶

¹⁴ Finer Herman, "Administrative Responsibility in Democratic Government."

¹⁵ http://www.worldbank.org/socialaccountability_sourcebook/PrintVersions/Conceptual%2006.22.07.pdf

¹⁶ DARPG, Government of India, *Social Accountability Mechanisms: A Generic Framework*, n.d., http://darpg.gov.in/darpgwebsite_cms/Document/file/Social_Accountability.pdf.

Ensuring accountability in the public sector involves a two-step process or the 'long route' of accountability if we go by Finer's idea of accountability. In this indirect accountability, people (clients) hold the elected actors (legislators) of the state accountable by political process (including elections). In diagram 1, this relationship is referred to as 'voice'. The state (elected members), in turn, acting as the representative of the people, (also accountable to the people) transmits these demands to the actual provider of services and they are supposed to ensure that providers (public servants) perform their functions effectively. In turn, the providers (public servants) are supposed to be accountable to the policy makers (elected legislators). This relationship is the 'compact'. In the short route of accountability, clients (people) use their legitimate power on providers (public servants) to hold them accountable for their service delivery by using of social accountability mechanisms.

Social accountability is about affirming and operationalizing direct accountability relationship between citizens and the state. This mechanism refers to the broad range of actions and mechanisms beyond voting that citizens can use to hold the state to account¹⁷.

Different social accountability tools are used in different settings. The prominent social accountability tools are

- Participatory Planning and Policy Formulation
- Participatory Budget Analysis
- Community Scorecards
- Social Audits/Independent Evaluations/Public Interest Litigation¹⁸

A Social Audit is a process that collects information on the resources of an organization. The information is analyzed and shared publicly in a participatory fashion. The central concern of a social audit is how resources are used for social objectives¹⁹. Social audit is an important tool of social accountability. This tool has been widely used in India and other countries in order to ensure accountability of the civil servants at different levels in delivering schemes of social welfare. One of the schemes in which this tool is being used is India's Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS).²⁰

¹⁷ [http://www.worldbank.org/socialaccountability_sourcebook/PrintVersions/Conceptual % 2006.22.07.pdf](http://www.worldbank.org/socialaccountability_sourcebook/PrintVersions/Conceptual%2006.22.07.pdf)

¹⁸ DARPG, Government of India, *Social Accountability Mechanisms: A Generic Framework*.

¹⁹ "Social Accountability: What Does It Mean For The World Bank?," in *Social Accountability Sourcebook* (Social Development Department, World Bank, n.d.), [http://www.worldbank.org/socialaccountability_sourcebook/PrintVersions/Conceptual %2006.22.07.pdf](http://www.worldbank.org/socialaccountability_sourcebook/PrintVersions/Conceptual%2006.22.07.pdf).

²⁰ The National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS) is scheme implemented under the same act passed by Indian Parliament that aims to guarantee

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS)

India's NREGS is among the largest social welfare schemes implemented anywhere in the world. The Ministry of Rural Development runs this scheme throughout the country since 2006. The Ministry of Rural Development spends vast amounts on the implementation of the NREGS across the country. This ambitious scheme suffers from lack of accountability on the part of government officials (public administrators) at different levels who are responsible for implementation of the scheme. The lack of accountability is evident from the widespread corruption in implementation of the scheme.

The following diagram shows the lack of accountability in between the bureaucrats and the politicians who are policymakers. The services do not reach to the people who are beneficiaries.

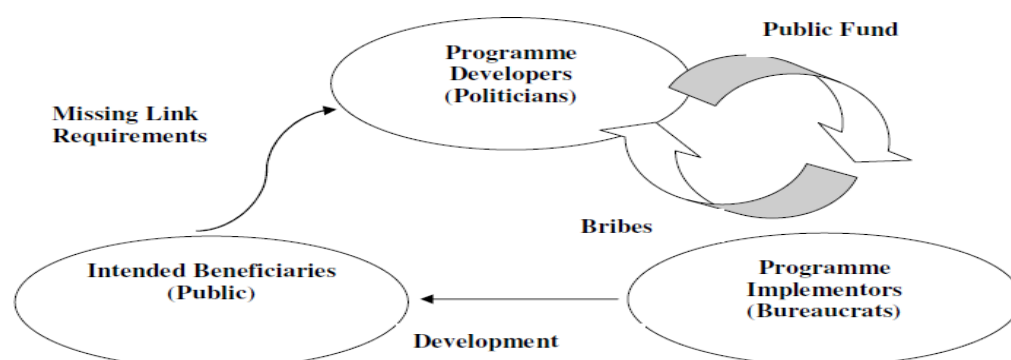


Diagram 2 showing Disconnect between what people want and what people get, due to lack of accountability and widespread corruption²¹

In the report (2012) the Comptroller and Auditor General (CAG)²² of India has reported irregularities worth of 130 Billion in the implementation of NREGS. There are many such instances where villagers complain of delayed or no payments, no maintenance of records, no job cards and corrupt officials who demands bribes on every step. The CAG has reported instances such as incorrect maintenance of records and officers at the block levels issuing cheques on their own names showing complete lack of accountability towards the people and towards the legislators²³.

the 'right to work' and ensure livelihood security in rural areas by providing at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment in a financial year to every household whose adult members volunteer to do unskilled manual work.

²¹ GahlotSushmita, "Social Audits in India," *International Research Journal of Social Sciences* 2(11) (November 2013): 41–45.

²² The Comptroller and Auditor General (CAG) of India is an authority, established by the Constitution of India under Chapter V, who audits all receipts and expenditure of the Government of India and the state governments, including those of bodies and authorities substantially financed by the government.

²³ First Post, Politics, Apr 23, 2013 <http://www.firstpost.com/politics/cag-finds-rs-13000-cr-hole-in-upas-mnrega-scheme-720833.html>

To counter this situation, one of the initiatives taken in Andhra Pradesh state of India in the form of the Society for Social Audit, Accountability and Transparency (SSAAT)²⁴. This is an autonomous body established in 2009 for conducting social audits, reducing corruption and ensuring social accountability in the public servants at the different levels.

Social Audits in National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme in India

The main motive in conducting social audits is the huge disconnect between what people want and what people get. It aims at empowerment of the rural poor population to demand accountability and thereby minimization of leakage and wastage of public funds.²⁵

The important steps in a social audit are verification of figures on the paper and on the ground, checking musters and records, actual measurements, quantity and quality of the works undertaken, Recording of all evidences, and sharing of findings in the public hearing. These activities are undertaken by the literate members from the local community guided by the field persons from the SSAAT. At the social audit public hearing forums, information is read out publically and people are given an opportunity to question officials, seek and obtain information, verify financial expenditure, examine the provision of entitlements, discuss the priorities reflected in choices made and critically evaluate the quality of work as well as the functioning of the program staff. Based on the findings from the initial two rounds of social audits, suspensions and dismissals of staffs were conducted and disciplinary actions were taken on the servants those who were involved in irregularities.

After the initial two social audits, when the third social audit was conducted it was observed that the discrepancies in procedures had reduced. Interaction with the laborers revealed that after the first social audit, wages were being paid on time. Looking at results of the social audits, it was decided that social audits will be carried out every six months. Thus it is visible here that with the implementation of social audits with participation from the local communities, accountability on the side of public servants has been enhanced, service delivery has improved and corruption has decreased²⁶.

²⁴ Society for Social Audits, Accountability and Transparency http://socialaudit.ap.gov.in/SocialAudit/wages/AboutUs_New.jsp

²⁵ GahlotSushmita, "Social Audits in India."

²⁶ Ibid.

Conclusion

The Friedrich vs. Finer debate still holds extreme importance as almost all countries in the world face problems related to corruption and effective social service delivery. This paper argues that though it is essential for a public administrator to have a sense of moral responsibility and professionalism, it is indeed difficult to ensure and it differs from context to context. It discusses the problems of corruption and service delivery in the implementation of social welfare scheme in India, the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (NREGS). By taking this example, the paper supports the argument of Finer that the public administrators should be held accountable to the external control. But unlike Finer's argument, this paper argues that public administrators should be held accountable directly to the people and not to the legislators elected by them by using social accountability tool of social audit. The tool should be applied wherever such disconnect between people and administrator exists.

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Part Two
Political Culture, Media
and Governance

13. Rethinking Political Culture: Bangladesh Perspective

Md. Aklasur Rahaman
Ismat Ara Khushi

Introduction

The political culture of a nation consists of the characteristic attitudes of its population towards basic features of the political system- the nature of the regime, toward specific political institutions toward particular incumbent of such institutions or offices, toward the policy outputs of the system of government (Bhuyan, 1991). Actually the relation between political culture and political system is reciprocal. So nature of political culture depends on beliefs, values and attitudes of political personnel towards the politics and political institutions. In a stable political system homogeneous and integrated types of political culture are found. Because, a general agreement among entire population is exist there. On the contrary, where the people are not homogeneous, generally they do not share common attitudes, belief and orientations toward political system. The population of Bangladesh is overwhelmingly homogeneous in compare with other developing and underdeveloped countries. There is no major ethnic linguistic cleavage in Bangladesh society. Over 98 percent of population is ethnically Bengali. The miniscule non-Bengali population is limited to the tribal area and in the few urban centers. Ethnicity, language, caste and tribe which are the major sources of cleavage in other states of South Asia, are not significant factors in Bangladesh society and politics (Jahan, 2005). In such a socio-cultural background and with thousand of dreams Bangladesh started its journey since 1971 under the leadership of Awami League. After liberated from Pakistan, the Bengali nation expected that Awami League government would establish a fair environment of political culture for the nation. But within some years of starting, the parliamentary democratic ideals degenerated into an authoritarian governmental system which was abrupt and unexpected. Since then Bangladesh has completed more than three decades of its independence and near about two decades of re-journey of parliamentary democracy. But it has failed to establish a meaningful political culture among the political parties and citizens.

Objectives of study

The present study is conducted to trace the natures of Bangladeshi political culture that we are practicing. To asses the roles and modes of political parties during the national elections are under both presidential and parliamentary system of governments. More specifically the study has given

the importance to find out the shortcomings of our political culture. And finally it has put forward some recommendations and suggestions.

Methodology

The study follows the analytical and descriptive methods of social science research. To conduct this study, we have fully relied on secondary sources. The information has been collected from political literature published in various books, journals, daily news papers and other authentic sources.

Meaning of Political Culture

At present among the most discussible issues and concepts in political science, the term political culture is one of them. Political culture consists of attitudes, beliefs, emotions and values of society that relate to the political system and to political issue (MacIver, 1926). It has, since been employed in the comparative analysis, not simply of the developing countries, but of the developed nations as well (Almond and Verba, 1963). According to Almond "Every political system is embedded in a particular pattern of orientations to political actions" (Almond, 1956). L.W. Pye is of the view that political culture is a "set of attitudes, beliefs and sentiments which give order and meaning to a political process and which provide the underlying assumptions and rules that govern behavior in the political system, or the manifestation in aggregate form of the psychological and subjective dimensions of politics" (Sills, ed. 1968). The political culture consists of empirical beliefs, expressive symbols and values which define the situation in which political action takes place. It provides the subjective orientation to politics (Pye and Verba, 1995). In fact, the concept of political culture emphasizes that each individual has some sort of orientation to the political arena. The orientation of individual to politics may be varied into three types; cognitive orientation, affective orientation and evaluational orientation (Pye and Verba, 1965). Later on Almond & Verba also expressed those as; parochial, subjective and participant political culture (Bhuyan, 1991).

On the basis of theoretical aspect of political culture it is clearly understood that the nature of political culture depends on the nature of individual's orientation towards politics. Similarly, the pattern of individual's participation in politics also affects the political culture of state. In the context of developing and developed countries, the participation and responsive pattern of individuals towards politics are not same. In developing and transitional societies like Bangladesh political culture tends to be fragmented rather than homogeneous. The integrated political culture is generally found in developed societies because the individuals share common orientations towards politics there. For identifying the nature of Bangladeshi political culture it is necessary to analyze the overall political situation during the various regimes of governments.

Politics of Bangladesh before 1990

The emergence of Bangladesh in 1971 was a unique turning point of its political history. Immediately after liberation the regime of Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, at first introduced a west minister type of parliamentary government system under the first constitution of Bangladesh in 1972 containing the high ideals of nationalism, socialism, democracy and secularism. Because of introducing such type of constitution, the dream of people of Bangladesh was come into reality. But after some days of newly introduced constitution, many controversies arose by the opposition political parties that created disintegrated situations among the general people and political parties. At that time some political parties started violent actions at various places and launched their struggle to unseat the government. The law and order situations were broken. In order to meet with the worsening condition in the country, resulting from the armed threat of the radical opposition, deteriorating law and order situation, factionalism in politics and other crisis of the country, the government was compelled to declare an emergency on December 28, 1974. After few weeks of that the constitution was amended to replace a presidential system of government (BAKSAL) instead of parliamentary system. The regime came to an end with the overthrow of Awami League through a violent bloody coup by some alienated junior officer of Bangladesh Army on August 15, 1975 (Hasanuzzaman, 1998). Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman was killed by them.

The Killing of Bangabandhu Sheikh Mujibur Rahman had resulted in a great political vacuum and followed by a series of military coups and counter-coups staged mainly by a group of young army officer. Since then Bangladesh was kept virtually under Martial Law until General Ziaur Rahman could legalize his rule by undertaking a series of steps to democratize his regime (Parveen, 2001). After killing of Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, the army –led civilian rule was started by Khandker Mustaque Ahmed who ultimately failed to control the administration. At that stage, a soldiers' uprising was organized under the leadership of a retired colonel of armed forces Abu Taher to bring a fundamental change in administrative system. But it created the further instability in political environment of Bangladesh. Then Ziaur Rahman got the advantages of soldiers' uprising which brought him to power on 7 November, 1975. After taking the power, at first he tried to democratize all the political institutions of the country. He commenced a new dimension in Bangladesh politics. His political party BNP along with other political parties got the opportunities to practice political activities in full swing. The 2nd parliament election was held on 27 January, 1979. But the sudden assassination of President Zia in Chittagong by a group of army officers on 30 May 1981, the country had to face again the leadership crisis. Then Abdus Sattar who was the Vice President of Zia's civilian government took the power of government. But, because of existing

factional relation between Abdus Sattar and BNP, within a very short time Lt. General Ershad took over the state power by a bloodless coup on 24 March 1982 and governed the country for about nine years in illegal and autocratic way. Like Ziaur Rahman, Ershad also organized political party twice, first as Janadal in 1983 and later then as Jatiya Party in 1986, which was composed of retired army and civil service officers, under the autocratic rule of Ershad many national and local elections were held since 1983 to 1988 but none of them could get the mental recognition from the mass people of Bangladesh. Political and administrative corruption was vigorously increased at this regime. At this inconsistent political environment the law and order situation was broken down. Ershad had to face a strong opposition simultaneously from the combined movements led by the two major political parties, Awami League and BNP since the starting of his regime. Third and fourth parliament elections held respectively in 1986 and 1988 under the Ershad government. BNP boycotted all elections held under Ershad. The Awami League participated in the 1986 parliament election but boycotted the other polls (Ahmed, 1995). At the beginning of 1990 all major opposition parties including Awami League and BNP jointly started a drastic movement against Ershad government. Ershad tried to stay in power, but being faced with such mass movement; at last he decided to resign. On December 6, 1990 after dissolving the parliament, Ershad handed over power to chief justice Sahabuddin Ahmed the nominee of the combined opposition parties.

Trends of Parliamentary Politics after 1990

After near about one and half decade, the re-journey of parliamentary democracy was started since 1991 under the twelfth amendment of Bangladesh constitution. It was a milestone of Bangladesh's democratic history. The 5th parliamentary election was held on 27 February, 1991 under the caretaker government of Justice Shahabuddin Ahmed. The fifth election was greatly significant because of the spontaneous and unanimous participation of genuine voters as well as the political parties. In the 5th parliament the winning party BNP took Jamat-E-Islami as the partner of coalition and formed government. Before holding the 7th parliamentary election in 1996 Bangladesh observed many drastic political conflicts of political parties mainly between the two major parties Awami League and BNP.

The years 1991-1996 witnessed a new phase of agonizing political movement by the opposition parties. At that period it was a great challenge to Begum Khaleda's government to run the state democratically. The major challenging and contested issue was free and fair elections. At the end of 1993 the opposition parties raised the demand for establishment of non-party caretaker government and continued boycott of the parliamentary sessions for the next two years. Then opposition parties combined involved in

various types of street movements and demonstrations outside the parliament. The chain of command of the government was broken down, law and order situations deteriorated quickly. The country was repeatedly shutdown by strikes called Awami League. Finally the opposition Parties led by Awami League resigned from the parliament in December 1994 (Jahan, 2005).

International organizations suggested both Awami league and BNP to settle the existing conflict through democratic way. But the two major political parties could not reach to a peaceful decision. Facing continuous agitation by the combined opposition the BNP chairperson, prime minister, Begum Khaleda Zia, on 24 November 1995, declared over radio and television that her government had advised the president to dissolve the sangsad, cancel the by election and arrange the next general election (Dhaka Courier, 1 December, 1995). And later then the parliament was dissolved in December 1995. In that situation the opposition parties continued their agitation movement demanding 6th parliament election under a neutral caretaker government. But the BNP government, on the plea of constitutional continuity, decided to go ahead with its election plan, and ultimately the polling date for the 6th parliamentary elections was fixed on February 15, 1996 (Hassanuzzaman, 1998). The voter less election of sixth parliament held on the fixed date. The new parliament met only once to pass a constitutional amendment providing for future parliament elections under a neutral caretaker government. Kaleda Zia reigned and handed over power to caretaker government headed by former chief justice Habibur Rahman. Under this caretaker government the 7th parliament election was held on 12 June 1996. Awami League won the election and formed the government of 7th parliament.

Under Awami league regimes of the Parliamentary government in 1996, thirty years Ganges water treaty was signed with India and in 1997 a peace accord was signed with the rebels in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. The opposition party BNP and other smaller parties immediate criticized these accords and tired to protest. The opposition parties also organized violent agitation against Awami League government. Hartal, oborodh, walkout from parliament and parliament boycott continued as well.

However on 1st October, 2001, the 8th parliamentary election was held under the caretaker Government of former chief Justice Latifur Rahaman. In this election the BNP led four party coalition won 215 seats and Awami League won only 62 seats. In this parliament BNP led 4 party alliance formed the government. At the regime of 4 party alliance governments in between (2001-2006), the opposition party Awami league continued the destructive agitation movements, as; walkout form parliament, parliament boycott etc. demanding various political issues. After completing 5 years term Awami League on 27 October, 2006 requiring the election to a new

parliament within the next 90 days under a caretaker government headed by the past chief justice of the Supreme Court. In question of appointing the chief advisor of caretaker government, Awami league started agitation. On 28 October 2006 by a bloody class between 4 party and 14 party alliances, many people died and injured. Then Justice Hassan expressed his inability to be the chief advisor of the care taker government. In that context president Iajuddin Ahmed himself took over the charge of caretaker government. But this composition of caretaker government refused by Awami League led 14 party alliances. As their demand, later on a new caretaker government was installed with Dr. Fakruddin Ahmed a former governor of the state Bank, as the chief advisor (Fazal, 2009). Under chief advisor Dr. Fakruddin Ahmed the 9th parliament election was held on 29 December 2008. The 14 party alliances Mohajote won a landslide victory with 262 and formed government. On 5 January the 10th parliamentary election was held. In 10th parliamentary election BNP did not take part in contest. Awami league led Mohajote won and formed government in 10th parliament.

The sixth and 10th parliamentary elections in Bangladesh have not obtained the faith of the mass people. The New York Times considers the 10th parliamentary election “a bizarre election” due to lack of competitions and that less than 25 percent people voted this time against 87 percent in the previous elections held in 2009. In these regards, since 2013 to January 2014 more than 500 peoples killed at hand of law enforce and political rivals, twenty two people got killed on the poll day alone (Daily Star 06, 2014).

Natures of Bangladesh's Political Culture

Confrontation among the political parties has been continued in Bangladesh politics since after its liberation. Patronizing corruption and abusing power by the political leader has created bad situation among the political parties and the general people. Practicing dictatorship under the parliamentary democratic system has become a regular culture of contemporary Bangladesh politics. Though, after independence the first regime of Bangladesh government started with a parliamentary democracy it failed to achieve the ideals, values and all other needs of democracy. Later on no government could establish real democratic atmosphere for the country.

Walk out form the parliament session creates great hamper in democracy. Since independence of Bangladesh ten parliament elections were held. Among these, only three parliaments worked under the presidential system of government and the rest seven parliaments including 10th are functioned under the parliamentary system of government. The incident of walkout occurred 224 times by the combined opposition parties in the first, fifth, seventh and eight parliaments (Hussain, 2007). Similarly parliament boycott has been turned into habitual practice of opposition parties in Bangladesh which makes the parliament ineffective.

Political intolerance among the political parties in Bangladesh has created the unstable political situation over the past twenty three years of parliamentary democratic rule. The intolerant attitude of political parties towards their opponent has also been continued. Lack of practicing tolerance and lack of respect to others' is now vigorously observed in Bangladesh politics. Though trust is another important factor of political culture political leaders most often do not trust anybody. That's why, at the time of holding election opposition parties are involved in agitation.

Since the independence of Bangladesh all regimes of government has been nurtured corruption which expedites confrontation of politics. The arrangement of one party election is a great cause of confrontation and factional politics in Bangladesh. It has accelerated mistrust among the political parties and general people. The most significant factor of our current political crisis is the absence of democracy within the political parties. Ruling and opposition parties both do not practice intra and inter-party democracy even in parliamentary function.

Recommendations of this study

- For establishing a peaceful and integrated political culture at first the ruling and opposition parties have to change their present out look towards politics.
- Practicing political socialization may be the meaningful process by which every political individual and group can change their outlook, values and attitudes towards politics.
- The ruling and opposition parties both have great roles and responsibilities for the establishment of democracy, making the parliament effective as well as to avoid the confrontational natures of politics. So instead of continuing boycott from the parliament opposition parties should practice the normal processes of parliamentary system. Similarly the government has to have the ability and proper efficiency to make the parliament more attractive and effective.
- Political parties need to reform their policies.
- Political leadership must have to acquire the quality of patriotism.
- Political parties should have to practice intra-party democracy.
- The opposition should co-operate the ruling party to rush the state policy in a peaceful way.
- Political parties should be responsible, committed and dedicated to the state and citizens affairs.
- Arranging free, fair and impartial election is very urgent and necessary matter for a fair political environment.
- Both ruling and opposition party should ensure their accountability and responsibility to the state.

- Government will have to take initiatives to build the moral values of the citizens and political parties.
- Every political party must show their respect to all national leaders.
- Both ruling and opposition parties will have to take steps for institutionalizing of democracy.
- Political leaders should be courageous in question of morality and ethical practice.

Conclusion

At the end of discussion it can be said that ‘The time is Now’ for Bangladesh to mitigate the present uncomfortable situation urgently. Though the establishing parliamentary democratic culture was a great vision of Bangladesh’s people, ultimately that has yet not been achieved. All the time political leaders of Bangladesh give their commitment to establish democracy. But, in practice they do not follow democratic ideals and values. Besides these, it has been alleged that the politicians are the mostly liable for chronic corruption in Bangladesh. According to TI’s report, Bangladesh stood first in terms of corruption worldwide for four consecutive terms 2002-2005 during BNP regime. Bangladesh secured first position worldwide in terms of corruption in 2001 in the history of Bangladesh during AL regime, ranked by the TI (Hussain, 2014). Corruption was also prevailed in every sector of Ershad regime (Khan, 2003). Massive corruption is also a great cause of disintegration among the political parties and citizens in Bangladesh. So, in this context, not only political parties but also all types of the citizens have to rethink and do all the necessaries for reforming our political culture.

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14. Political Culture and Governance in Bangladesh

M. Nurul Islam

Governance denotes a process including actors like the government, NGOs and civil society organization and therefore it is more inclusive and connotative than the traditional concept of government.]

Governance has become a household word nowadays. Mostly a post-cold war development, the governance discourse is more connotative and inclusive than the traditional concept of government. Like other countries Bangladesh is also trying to adopt good governance practices for various reasons. The main reasons being pressure from external sources which come within the fold of aid conditionality and the next is internal urge to improve upon existing conditions of affairs. In this paper an attempt has been made to explore the concept of governance and how the characteristics of governance fare within the existing political culture of Bangladesh. In order to do that we would first explicate the concept of governance as professed by various authorities including the World Bank and other international organizations and then an attempt will be made to see how far the traits of good governance are working in Bangladesh and finally the inevitable nexus of governance and political culture will be shown, which will be followed by some suggestions. The paper is based mostly on the documentary research drawing upon texts and articles.

Definitions of Governance

World Bank

The World Bank defines governance as "the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources." The Bank refers to three aspects of governance: (i) the form of political regime; (ii) the process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social development; and (iii) the capacity of government to design, formulate, and implement policies and discharge functions (Weiss, 2000). The World Bank is in favour of noninterference in the affairs of the aid-recipient countries. The position of the World Bank has been expressed in the Articles of Agreement. However, Curie (1996) expresses doubt as to how far this position is tenable because the Bank justifies its exercise of the right to advise borrower countries on policy in terms of 'good economics' rather than political principles. (Jayal, 2003).

UNDP

The UNDP's view on development emphasizes on two main features: (i) Enhancement of human capabilities, and (ii) Opportunities for receiving and

acquiring a fair share in society. However, the UNDP identifies the characteristics of good governance as follows:

- Participatory
- Responsive to people
- Able to develop the resources
- Operates by rule of law
- Engenders and commands respect and trust
- Enabling and Facilitative
- Regulatory rather than controlling
- Service oriented
- Sustainable
- Promotes equity and equality
- Promotes gender balance
- Tolerates and accepts diverse perspectives
- Strengthens indigenous coping mechanisms
- Accountable
- Minimizes non-participatory areas of decision making.

The UNDP is, however, aware of cultural differences among nations. (Guhathakurta and Karim, 1998).

UNESCO

The UNESCO is also in favour of an inclusive governance. In a Report in 1997 the UNESCO recognizes governance as a process whereby citizen's needs and interests can be articulated for the positive social and economic development (Ahamed, 2004).

USAID

The USAID views governance as an element of the democratic process. It is in favour of a strong state which will be able to provide essential services and support the private sector while remaining free from corruption and arbitrariness (Guhathakurta and Karim, 1998).

ODA

In its Departmental Report of 1993, ODA describes the aim of overseas aid as promotion of sustainable economic and social development and good government. It encompasses areas like legitimacy, accountability, competence, and human rights. "By legitimacy is meant participatory process and consent of the governed. Accountability refers to answerability of both political and administrative elements of the state. The third aspect is the competence of governments. It refers to the government's ability to formulate and implement policies on time and also the delivery of services. The fourth concern is on the human rights and rule of law (Guhathakurta and Karim, 1998).

Institute of Governance, Ottawa

The Institute considers governance as constituting of the institutions, processes and conventions in a society. It is interested in looking at how power is exercised, and how important decisions affecting society are made. Another important concern is to see how various interests are represented in the decisions (Weiss, 2000).

International Institute of Administrative Sciences

The International Institute of Administrative Sciences also provides a comprehensive definition of governance. According to the Institute governance is a "process whereby elements in society wield power and authority, and influence and enact policies and decisions concerning public life, and economic and social development" (Weiss, 2000). The Institute is of the opinion that interaction between the formal institutions and civil society also come under the purview of governance.

Tokyo Institute of Technology

Tokyo Institute's definition goes even further. By governance it "refers to the complex set of values, norms, processes, and institutions by which society manages its development and resolve conflict, formally and informally. It involves the state, but also the civil society (economic and social actors, community-based institutions and unstructured groups, the media, etc.) at the local, national, regional and global levels (Weiss, 2000).

It is seen from the definitions above that there are tendencies to define the concept from the vantage point of authorities. However, despite definitional variations and differences of emphasis it is possible to identify some common elements of the concept. From various definitions some main characteristics of governance have been identified. They are: transparency, efficiency, empowerment, participation, rule of law, and accountability. I will now turn to see how these characteristics of governance fare in the case of Bangladesh:

Transparency

Governance requires a transparent political system. Citizens should get a fair idea as to what is happening in the governmental sector, what agendas the government has for its citizens and what the government expects from the citizens. Transparency can breed trust in the system and it is beneficial for both the government and governed because it clearly indicates the intentions of the parties and their activities. Transparency can reduce the grey areas which can give rise to misunderstandings between concerned parties. Therefore, transparency is vital for smooth working of a political system. Unfortunately, however, there is secrecy tradition in this part of the world where the government cares very little about the importance of keeping citizens informed as to what the government intends to do; whatever is articulated is not adequate. Until recently the colonial legacy of

maintaining secrecy was the norm. As a result official documents are not widely publicized for the consumption of the public; secrecy is seriously guarded. However, the recent adoption of freedom of information Act signals a positive change towards breaking the secrecy tradition though the colonial legacy still seems to loom large.

Efficiency

Efficiency criterion of good governance also does not fare well in Bangladesh. Though some improvements have taken place in the input structure, especially the introduction of ICT, efficiency has not increased significantly. Much is left to be desired from the performance of the civil servants. Civil servants need to be extensively trained to enhance their efficiency to perform their role effectively. Efficiency factor has been seriously affected by the country's prevalent recruitment system. As of now more people are recruited on various quotas than on the merit system. There are serious resentment about the prevailing quota system among the young job-seekers in the country. It needs to be mentioned here that mere adoption of latest technologies alone cannot guarantee satisfactory performance of the system unless technologies are handled by efficient personnel. It has been reported that Bangladesh does not sufficient expertise to make use of foreign assistance given by donors. The fact remains that efficiency is needed for the best use of the scarce resources. It also includes sustainable use of resources and protection of environment.

Empowerment

Governance also seeks to empower the marginal communities and intends to make a gender balance in society. In a male-dominated society such as Bangladesh it is difficult to break the traditional male dominance.

Participation

Participation means taking part in decision making by both men and women. Participation can be either direct or through representatives. It also includes freedom of association and expression and an organized civil society. Participation, a vital component of a democratic political structure is in a miserable shape in Bangladesh. Though the Constitution of Bangladesh says that the people are the owners of the Republic, in practice their opinions are hardly listened to and respected. For effective participation the right of access to information is considered as sine-qua-non because without information participation does not carry much meaning (Faruque, 2012).

Rule of Law

Rule of law calls for equality before law. Other prominent features of rule of law include absence of arbitrariness and predominance of legal spirit. A stable, predictable and known legal framework is needed so that government can't take arbitrary actions. "According to World Bank, the legal framework

should fulfil five requirements to achieve good governance: (a) there is set of rules known in advance; (b) the rules are actually in force; (c) there are mechanisms ensuring application of rules; (d) conflicts are decided through binding decisions of an independent body; and (e) there are procedures for amending the rules when they no longer serve the purpose.” (Faruque, 2012). In Bangladesh there is no dearth of rules, but there is dearth in their observations. Moreover, the party in power remains busy filing cases against political opponents to suppress and harass them.

Accountability

Accountability is the answerability of the office holders to the respective authorities and ultimately to the public. Though there are formal and informal means of ensuring accountability, they are not very functional in Bangladesh. Lack of decentralization aggravates the situation further. Decentralisation can increase accountability “because local representatives are accessible to the populace and can thus be held more closely accountable for their policies and in this way, it improves responsiveness of government because local representatives are best placed to know the exact nature of local needs and how they can be met in a cost-effective way.” (Faruque, 2012).

Governance and Political Culture: The Inevitable Nexus

Realisation of good governance objectives is dependent upon multiple variables with internal and external linkages. Of these variables the one which plays a prominent role in the process is political culture of a country. Political culture "denotes broad array of norms, values, beliefs, attitudes and traditions that shapes systems, institutions and processes of government (Matlosa, 2003). Political culture is comprised of attitudes and orientations which people develop toward objectives in a political system. Orientation has three dimensions namely, cognitive, affective and evaluative. The cognitive dimension refers to the knowledge that people have about objectives in a political system. The affective orientation refers to the feeling of the people about political objects. The feeling can be either attachment and involvement or rejection. The evaluative orientation denotes judgment of the people on political objects which includes values, information, and feelings. These three orientations are applied to the following four political objects: (1) the whole political system; (2) input process of the political system which flow to the conversion stage to become policies through the activities of political parties, pressure groups and the media, (3) output process which involves the work of bureaucracy, courts and other political institutions, and (4) orientation towards own self. Orientation to political objects is the key through which political culture of a country can be understood. Keeping in view this nature of orientation to political objects, Almond and Verba classify political culture into three types: parochial, subject and participant. The following diagrammatic representation gives a clear picture of the scenario (Wiseman, 1966):

	System	Inputs	Outputs	Self
Parochial	0	0	0	0
Subject	1	0	1	0
Participant	1	1	1	1

What we can see from the Table is that in the parochial political culture individuals have no cognition of the political system as such. They show unawareness about the input and output structures and even about the abilities of the self. "Here the individual is parochial in as far as he is only involved in his family or, at least, in his community and least concerned with the central institutions of the political system (Mukhopadhyay, 1977). Such a type of political culture is rare in the present-day world. In the subject political culture there is fair orientation to the political system as a whole and the output structure, but cognitive orientation, or at least, affective and evaluative orientations to the input structure and to the self is extremely low. Individual's position is passive here. "He sees no possibility of influencing the system as it stands, and acquiesces by accepting as authoritative and unchallengeable the decisions of office-holders. He interprets his role as one in which he must accept the system as it is, not try to change it." (Mukhopadhyay, 1977). In the participant political culture an individual's orientations - cognitive, affective and evaluative - are all very high in respect of the political system as a whole, input and output structures and also to the self.

The above three cultures are ideal types; they are not found in their pure forms. As all individuals in a political system do not possess the same orientation, the political systems are found to be of mixed types. Almond and Verba identifies the following mixed types: (a) the parochial-subject, (b) the subject - participant, (c) the parochial - participant, and (d) the civic culture. In a culture of parochial - subject type, an individual has knowledge of a variety of governmental roles but he is unaware of the ways of influencing the political system. Moreover, in this type, the sense of self is not very developed and the input structure is defined poorly. In the subject participant type, some citizens are politically very much aware and active and the rest are passive. Though average citizens are aware that they must be active and participant they are provided with little opportunities to share the decisions. In the parochial - participant type, the input institutions are relatively local and the output institutions are quite developed. However, the input and output structures remain under the pressure of parochial interests. In the civic culture, both the subject and participant orientations are strong and "the former allows the elites to function with sufficient initiative and freedom while the latter force those elites to remain subject to popular preferences" (Mukhopadhyay, 1977). The essence of studying political culture is to see whether the system can come to consensus that can ensure

the stability of the system. Where this consensus is weak the political system is under the threat of constant disorders.

Bangladesh, a post-colonial state is very lucky in the sense of being able to adopt a constitution immediately after its birth and it has adopted most of the institutions needed in a modern state. Unfortunately, however, the institutions have not been working properly meaning that great incongruity persists between political structures and political culture. Political culture does not seem to be complementary with adopted structures. Lack of consensus on fundamental national questions is a major stumbling block in the way of the nation's unity. Political actors fail miserably in solving contending issues amicably with least confrontation.

In addition to incongruence and lack of consensus, the other factor of crucial importance is lack of interpersonal trust and mutual respect. Because of the absence of trust and respect, the ruling party tries not to hand over powers to their opponents and try to cling to power by whatever means it is possible.

The scenario of governance that we have seen in the case of Bangladesh has, as already mentioned, internal and external linkages. Globalization and its concomitant needs for marketization and free trade have obvious implications for governance and political culture of countries. Aid from the World Bank and other international donors come with conditionality, with emphasis on good governance. Aid-giving agencies keep constant pressure on the government on the issue of governance. Despite constant pressure from the external sources, Bangladesh's track record on the governance issue is not satisfactory.

In order to make the political structures congruent with political culture, skill in consensus building and trustworthiness are needed. Dr. Kamal Hossain, an eminent jurist of the country rightly says: "The challenge of change, therefore calls for a truly unified, well-coordinated national effort rising above partisan interest" (Hossain, 2014).

Conclusion

By way of conclusion it can be suggested that in order to move to a participant political culture we need to bring about reforms in the family, school and work spot acculturation; otherwise attempted reform efforts will not bring fruitful results. Family is the palace where we must pay attention to; it is the place where we learn the basic things. In Bangladesh our family structure is very authoritarian in the sense that the head of the family wields most of the power which is exercised more or less unilaterally. The environment of the family is paternalistic. At the family level children should be taught to accept mild dose of criticisms from others in order to increase their tolerance level so that they get along with others peacefully without taking resort to confrontational or violent means. This will pave the way to accept others with differences and promote mutual respect. The

tendency of dissenting on others' views indiscriminately gives rise to intense factionalism, which presently characterizes Bangladesh society should be discouraged. Attention should be paid to find out ways to get rid of this problem, which is eating into the vitality of the nation.

More or less the similar environment prevails in the school also. Opinion of students are hardly entertained and a consultative process of problem solving hardly emerges. How can individuals coming through authoritarian family and school environment be expected to be democratic in their work environment all of a sudden? Work environments in order to be democratic and participant needs support of the values, attitudes and orientations developed in the earlier two stages i.e., family and school. If it is possible to cultivate symmetrical values at all three levels clashes are bound to decline. If good governance is to operate effectively in the social environment of Bangladesh improvements in the political culture is a must.

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15. Influence of Political Parties in the Judicial Process in Bangladesh

Md. Nurul Momen

Research Methodology

The article is written based on the secondary data. The secondary sources of data were largely from documents on access to justice in Bangladesh, in particular. Available reports on the internet and textbooks and journals were also consulted to generate basis for theoretical understanding. However, a good number of publicly available sources were used in the preparation of this article. These sources included publications issued by the political party papers, civil society reports, public opinion surveys, observer reports, newspapers and commentaries in Bangladesh.

I used discourse analysis to analyze secondary data. This method of analysis draws to identify some factors affect access to justice. I examined the situation about how particular ideas on the judiciary are produced, circulated and maintained as “*normal*”, “*common sense*”, or “*truth*” through the operation of discursive structures.¹ As we know that texts have the potential to affect political, material, economic and social outcomes.² Therefore, I examined the language and concepts used in the read documents.

Conceptual Analysis on Access to Justice

Access to justice is the term which claims universal importance to all social and political theories. According to many theorists, access to justice is the prime and central concept of public life.³ Although there is no exact definition of what is meant by access to justice, there is a general understanding of access to justice. The term is used to describe a variety of provisions which protect and promote equality in justice and the right to a fair trial. On the other hand, Dias et al. (2011) point out that access to justice refers not only to the establishment of institutions and procedural rules, but also to the substantive laws themselves, and the empowerment of individuals to obtain justice.⁴ According to United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), access to justice requires a fair legal framework that is enforced impartially, and requires full

¹ Waitt, Gordon (2005). “*Doing Discourse Analysis*” in *Qualitative Research Methods in Human Geography*, Second Edition, edited by Iain Hay, Oxford University Press: South Melbourne, pp. 163-189.

² Cloke, P., I. Cook, P. Crang, M. Goodwin, J. Painter, and C. Philo (2004). “*Practicing Human Geography*” SAGE Publications: London.

³ Campbell, Tom (2010). “*Justice*” Palgrave Macmillan, Third Edition, Revised, Updated and Extended.

⁴ Dias, Ayesha Kadwani and Welch, Gita Honwana eds. (2011). “*Justice for the Poor, Perspectives on Accelerating Access*” Published in India, Oxford University Press, UNDP.

protection of human rights, particularly those of minorities. On the other hand, UNDP (2005: 5) defined access to justice as the ability of people to seek and obtain a remedy through formal or informal institutions of justice, which must be in conformity with human rights standards.⁵ Therefore, it can be said that access to justice seeks to address the gap that exists between citizens and the law in terms of equality of opportunity, and providing an appropriate remedy in the judiciary.

Perspectives about who are the Most Vulnerable to Access to Justice

Access to justice must deal with issues of the judicial process, since the power holders often misuse to both the legal and the judicial processes. Providing the poor people and to the opposition supporters with legal aid, and access to the courts will remain inadequate, unless issues of the abuse of the power in the judiciary are not addressed properly. Therefore, Ramirez, et al. (2010) argued that the judicial reforms must address not only the symptoms, but also the causes of denial of justice.⁶ Therefore, UNDP (2005: 3) rightly points out that “*Access to justice is a fundamental human right, as well as a key means to defend other rights*”. On the other hand, the World Bank (Voices of the Poor, 2000) and Anderson (2003: 1-3) emphasized that especially the poor have limited access to legal institutions, and that a state of “*lawlessness*” adversely affects the poor people.⁷

Good governance requires access to justice that should be enforced impartially. This situation will protect human rights, particularly those of poor people and vulnerable groups in society. Certain groups or individuals are vulnerable and are being treated differently by the formal and informal justice systems. This different treatment is often in violation of international human rights standards. Commonly, the judicial process does not provide adequate access for the poor people and the vulnerable sections of society. Generally, the criterion for determining what groups within a society is vulnerable to which there is evidence of discrimination. Vulnerable groups in society generally include the following: Women, opposition political party leaders and supporters and poor people. Therefore, this research defines access to justice as access by poor people and disadvantaged groups to fair, effective and accountable mechanisms for the protection of rights and free from abuse of power.

Relationship between Political Parties and Access to Justice

In the transitional democratic countries, it is also said that political parties (specially ruling parties) influence the judiciary through their mobilization and protests. Courts in the transitional democratic countries are pawns of

⁵ United States Institute of Peace (no date). “*Necessary Condition: Access to Justice*” Available at- <http://www.usip.org/guiding-principles-stabilization-and-reconstruction-the-web-version/rule-law/access-justice> (Last accessed on 10th October, 2013).

⁶ Ramirez, Silvina, et al. (2011). “*Access to Justice in Latin America, Approach and Experience*” Published in India, Oxford University Press, UNDP.

⁷ Ineke, Van de Meene and Benjamin, Van Rooij (2008). “*Access to Justice and Legal Empowerment: Making the Poor Central in Legal Development Co-operation*” Law, Governance, and Development Research & Policy Notes, Leiden University Press.

their ruling political party's regimes, upholding the interests of the government, and frustrating the efforts of their opposition political parties. Many experts have researched on comparative judicial politics that have focused on democratic countries. For example, as observed by Ginsburg and Moustafa (2008), there are some primary functions of the courts in the transitional democratic countries; (1) establish social control and sideline political opponents, and (2) supports a regime claim to legal legitimacy.

Therefore, there must be confidence both in fairness and justice of the system and in the belief that the opposition can be both constructive and influential. Given the context, Maliyamkono and Kanyongolo (2003) rightly say that this is necessary for the governments to provide the opposition parties with the opportunity to express their views.⁸ So, the government must guarantee that challenges of the opposition party will not lead to the decision of the government to destroy them politically with the help of a partisan judiciary.

Based on the above discussions, it can be said that the extent of access to justice is dependent on the degree of commitment and the competence of political parties.

Influence of Political Parties in the Judicial Process in Bangladesh

It is important to analyze about whether politicians and/or political parties exert influence on the judicial process in Bangladesh. After 15 (Fifteen) years of military rule with the *coup d'état* in 1975, Bangladesh has transformed to a democratic political system through the parliamentary election in 1991. Nonetheless, there are many problems of politics and governance such as worsening access to justice, have become a serious problem under a bipolar confrontation of politics between the Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP) and the Awami League (AL).⁹

Below is discussed in more details about how ruling political parties/ politicians negatively influence the judicial process in Bangladesh?

Politics of Judicial Impunity

Many cases are dismissed based on the political party affiliation in the judiciary in Bangladesh. Usually, it is asked from the side of the ruling political party to withdraw cases to those who are affiliated with ruling political party. It is argued from the ruling political party that the motive behind filing these cases was to harass the political leaders, when they were in opposition. The fact is that some of the persons of them were even charged with murder also got such political clemency. It is also often observed that the government of Bangladesh is ignoring the decisions of the court or trying to influence the judiciary which seriously undermines access to justice.

⁸ Maliyamkono, T. L. and Kanyongolo (2003). "When Political Parties Clash" TEMA Publisher Company Ltd.

⁹ Ahmad, Sayed Javed (December, 2009). "Good Governance in Bangladesh: A Quest for a Non-Political Party Approach" Journal of Politics and Law, Vol. 2, No. 4.

According to the constitution of Bangladesh, there is a right of the President to pardon convicted criminals. There is a huge debate in the judiciary of Bangladesh in 2012 about what criteria the president used in granting clemency to the convicted killers. For example, the president of Bangladesh has granted mercy to a convicted killer, A. H. M. Biplob, for the second time in seven months. A. H. M. Biplob's life sentence in the two murder cases has been lowered to a 10 (ten) year in prison.¹⁰ Interestingly, Biplob is the active member of the current ruling party (Awami League).

The question comes up after this, how the common people can expect access to justice in Bangladesh, when the head of the state pardons in such a manner. This politically motivated clemency has definitely given a green signal to the criminals and murderers, and thus it contributed to the violation of equality in justice in the country. The President has pardoned as many as 21 death penalties in four years since the current government (The Awami League led government) came into power in 2009. Among those 21 deaths pardoned, one received presidential clemency in 2009, 18 in 2010, and two others in 2011.¹¹ This clearly illustrates that judicial impunity has been increased tremendously in the recent years.

On the other hand, responding to a parliamentary question, the minister of the Home Ministry informed that the number of death rows was only 4 (four) during the entire period between independence in 1971 and 2009. Among the pardon of 4 (four) death penalty, one was pardoned during the tenure of the caretaker government in 2008, two during the tenure of the BNP led government in 2005 and one in 1987 by the military government.¹²

Withdrawal of Cases against the Ruling Political Parties Members

Direct influence over the judicial process is not unusual in Bangladesh. Since 2001 withdrawal of criminal cases has become a matter of public debate in Bangladesh. After the BNP-led alliance was voted to the power in 2001, reportedly they withdrew around 5,888 cases to release around 73,541 persons who were politically affiliated with the BNP and its allies.¹³ At the same time names of party supporters, who were accused in around 945 criminal cases, were also withdrawn by the government.¹⁴

¹⁰ Liton, Shakhawat (28 February, 2012). “*President Pardons a Criminal Twice*” The Daily Star, Available at- <http://www.thedailystar.net/newDesign/news-details.php?nid=224232>(Last accessed on 24 October, 2013).

¹¹ “*21 Death Row Convicts Pardoned in 4 Years*” Available at- <http://www.bdnews24.com/details.php?cid=3&id=236293&hb=top>(Last accessed on 14 November, 2013).

¹² Ibid

¹³ Akkas, Sarkar Ali (23 February, 2010). “*Withdrawal of Cases: Where is the End?*” The Daily Star, Available at- <http://www.thedailystar.net/suppliments/2010/02/ds19/segment1/withdrawal%20.htm> (Last accessed on 11 November, 2013).

¹⁴ Ibid

Similarly, the present government has taken some steps to release large numbers of accused persons through an executive action arguing that these cases are false due to political reasons. This practice of the withdrawal of cases is not consistent with the concept of rule of law and the independence of the judiciary. In 2009, the government started to consider drop of the politically-motivated cases filed against the ruling politicians. In this process, a high power committee was formed under the guidance of the Minister for Law, Justice, and Parliamentary Affairs to examine the withdrawal of case applications. However, the committee had withdrawn 4,687 cases by March, 2011, most of which involved members or affiliated with the ruling party.¹⁵ Furthermore, the committee also dropped twelve corruption cases against the current Prime Minister and other cases filed against senior ruling political party leaders.¹⁶ Interestingly, it is important to mention that the committee has been unwilling to withdraw cases filed against opposition political party leaders and supporters.

On the other hand, it is to be noted that section 494 of the Code of Criminal Procedure 1898 (CrPC) empowers the public prosecutor to withdraw the name of any accused from prosecution. Under this section, any public prosecutor may, with the consent of the court, withdraw cases from the prosecution. Thus, the public prosecutor has an executive power to withdraw cases from prosecution subject to the court's consent. In this way, the law gives the prosecutor a real discretion in the matter. There is no indication in section 494 of the CrPC on what grounds public prosecutors may make the application for withdrawal of cases, or the consideration on which the court is to give the consent to withdraw a case. However, given the provisions of section 494, it has been noted that the power of withdrawal of cases must be exercised in the interest of the administration of justice. But the reasons for withdrawal of cases in Bangladesh are in political in nature. Furthermore, in most cases, there is no valid ground of the withdrawal of cases by the court in Bangladesh that harms access to justice.

Influences of Ruling Political Leaders on the Informal Judicial System

Shalish (mediation) as an informal judicial system has been changed in Bangladesh. There is no transparency in the selection of shalishkers (adjudicators). In the past, shalishkers (adjudicators) were selected according to their reputation, age, personality and status. Shalish (mediation) is also not beyond to the reach of the ruling party members. Now it is a very common practice that political leaders from the ruling party conduct shalish (mediation). Therefore, their age, personality or character is less important than their political influence.

Shalish (mediation) is now conducted especially by political leaders in rural areas for whom earning money and vote banks are more important

¹⁵ Freedom House (2011). “*Countries at the Crossroads 2011: Bangladesh*” Available at- http://www.freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/inline_images/BANGLADESHFINA L.pdf (Last accessed on 29 November, 2013).

¹⁶ Ibid

than delivering justice. When political leaders are taking control of the shalish (mediation), before giving their verdict they tend to consider the effect of this particular decision on his vote banks. Haque et al. (2002: 22) argue that in a number of cases, these political leaders took decisions only to make sure that they will get a vote of a particular group of people.¹⁷

Ruling Party turning into a Police State

The lawful exercise of the power of arrest is an important aspect of respecting the right to liberty. The pertinent question is about what circumstances can an individual be arrested? It is a customary practice that police personnel are often used, and guided by the ruling political party in Bangladesh. Therefore, the police normally cannot work independently in the country. Police have also been accused of routinely making arbitrary arrests of the members of the opposition political parties, attacking opposition rallies and torturing arrested opposition political leaders and supporters to obtain confessions. In many cases, it is also found that arrested people are detained for weeks without access to a lawyer. These words have also been echoed by human rights bodies. In the findings, according to Freedom House (2011), it is observed that due to political influence the police are often forced to carry out illegal harassment to opposition political leaders and their supporters. It has been noted that opposition party leaders, journalists, and union leaders are often subjected to warrantless arrest and physical torture.¹⁸ Therefore, it can be said that the police have the unlawful power to arbitrarily arrest opposition supporters in society. As a consequence, this situation harms access to justice in Bangladesh.

From the above discussions, it seems clear that ruling political parties/politicians have started breaking down of access to justice, as successive governments (as ruling political party) misused it for their political gain. Increasingly, the judiciary has begun to lose their professionalism to promote access to justice, since they are brought under political pressure by successive governments.

¹⁷ Jahan, Ferdous (no date). “*From Rule of Law to Legal Empowerment of the Poor in Bangladesh: Towards and Agenda for Change*” Available at- http://www.undp.org/legalempowerment/reports/National%20Consultation%20Reports/Country%20Files/4_Bangladesh/4_3_Access_to_Justice.pdf (Last accessed on 23 May, 2013).

¹⁸ Freedom House (2011). “*Countries at the Crossroads 2011: Bangladesh*” Available at- http://www.freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/inline_images/BANGLADESHFINA L.pdf (Last accessed on 29th November, 2012).

16. Role of Media and Governance for Bridging Socio-Political Barriers: Japan-Bangladesh Perspective

Md. Jahangir Alam

Introduction

Governance is a dynamic social procedure, which is never been ended and persistently threatened by anti and counter democratic ideologies and powers. Good Governance cannot be built without free media it must be constructed in the minds of people¹. Only strong, pluralistic and independent media can defend society from the gangrene of corruption by creating and maintaining an atmosphere of transparency and accountability. An independent media is being considered as one of the vital components of ensuring governance and strengthening democracy. An open, responsible and vibrant mass media disseminates information, informs the public and policy maker, creates space for diverse views regarding socio-economic and political processes, and increases people's participation for democratization. In Bangladesh, the mass media plays a role in informing the public of governance related concerns such as the government and opposition's political performance and internal governance, electoral process issues and public corruption. Sustainable and successful democracies for governance require more than elections, the existence of an independent judiciary and other democratic institutions and even a free press. For governments to be accountable, responsive and effective, citizens need opportunities to communicate their perspectives and needs not only through the ballot box but also between elections². The modern communications revolution including the Internet and mobile phones offers immense opportunities for people to access more information and knowledge and engage with those who govern them. But to make best use of these opportunities requires that different kinds of information, communication systems and technologies become more accessible, transparent and inclusive for governance like Japan.

¹ Aminuzzaman, Salauddin M. (2006) *Governance and Development-Bangladesh and regional experiences*. Dhaka: Shrabon Prokashani. p.7.

² Cater, Douglas (1959) *The Forth Branch of Government*. Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press. p.69

Conceptual Framework of the Study

Media, the process of creating shared meaning through information, is vital for exchanging knowledge to people³. Media enables people to understand and facilitate relationships between and among individuals and societies. The word “Media” comes from the plural of the Latin word Medium, and used as to refer newspapers, magazines, radio, television and internet⁴. Further, Medium is described as burning, meaning a high definition channel of communication, such as print or radio, which focuses on a single sensory receptor. The media have been variously described as the fourth estate, agenda setter, force multiplier, watchdog, and gate-keeper, all in an effort to demonstrate influence on society⁵. Conversely, the media have been viewed as avenue for impression, propaganda, and preconception, factors inimical to national development. The media can be a major force for improving the quality of government in developing and transitional countries. The media is a complex non-state actor whose activities have been made even more complex by massive advancement in technology⁶. The media can make a real difference to the lives of poor and disadvantaged people, Shown in the diagram.



vernance has been the focal point for approval and conviction from the day state was formed⁷. Presently, Governance has become a matter of concern but the long recorded history of organized socio-political life of human being witness that it is not a new concept at all. Human concern with governance is as old as civilization⁸. In ancient

time the oldest theories of governance date from the 5th century B.C. with the writings of Confucius, an experienced bureaucrat forced into exile by Chinese political intrigue. Confucius argued that a well-ordered society

³ Stanley J. Baran (2002) *Introduction to Mass Communication*. McGraw Hill Online Learning Center. p.13.

⁴ Busakorn Suriyasarn (1998) *Internet and National Development*. Bangkok: Thai Media and Telecommunications. p.76.

⁵ Curtis, Gerald L. (1988) *The Japanese Way of Politics*. New York: Columbia University Press.p.24

⁶ James, Barry (2005) *Media and Good Governance*. Paris: Place de Fontenoy.p.42.

⁷ Tiwary, R. S. (2002) Good Governance: Populist Democracy to Quality Democracy. *The Indian Journal of Public Administration*. Vol.XLVIII, No.4 (Oct-Dec) p-582.

⁸ John Creighton Campbell (1992) *How Policies Change: The Japanese Government and the Aging Society*. Princeton, N.: Princeton University Press. p.3.

required government based on superior morality and on the fulfillment of duties and responsibilities. The heaviest responsibility fell on the leader: if he fulfilled his duty, then the chain of rectification and social order would be in place. If not, social chaos would result⁹. In Modern times analyses of governance date from the 17th century Germanic tradition of Political Science and the 18th century innovations of the European age of Enlightenment¹⁰. Shifts from religious to secular issues, transitions from feudalism, a rising concern for individual rights, and the expansion of the self-regulating market as an increasingly important medium of exchange raised questions about the relationship of political authority to individual and group welfare. World Bank, the pioneer of the concept, Governance is the manner in which power is exercised in management of countries economic and social resources for development¹¹. To accommodate the broadly defined governance proposed here one has to go beyond the conventional definition and composition of state and look at both its formal and informal constituents and organs shown below through comparison in diagram:

Figure -1: Conventional state

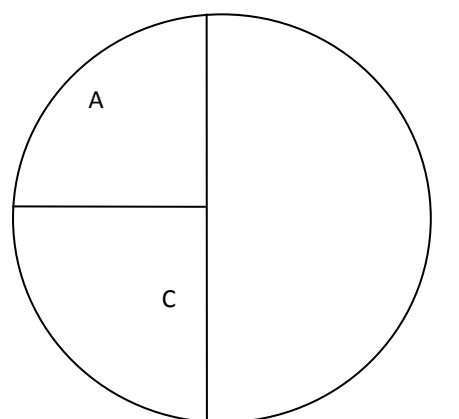
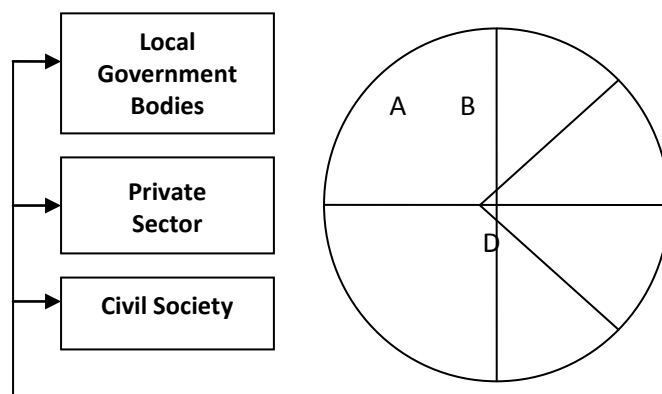


Figure 2: Governance as a whole



A=Parliament, B-Government, C-Judiciary, D-Private Sector, E-Local government, F-Civil Society

Governance, of course is not only about the organs or actors, it is about the quality of governance which expresses itself through such attributes as accountability, transference, empowerment, participation, sustainability, equity and justice.

Objectives of the Study

Prime concern of the study to portray the real picture of the current status of media and governance in Bangladesh in the context of Japan. This study

⁹ Brautigam, Deborah (1992) Governance, Economy and Foreign Aid. *Studies in Comparative International Development*. Fall, Vol.27, No.3.p.5.

¹⁰ Feldman, Ofer (1993) *Politics and the news Media in Japan*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. p.108.

¹¹ Khan, M. M. (1996) Urban local Governance in Bangladesh: An overview. *Journal of Administration and Diplomacy*. Vol.4, No.1 (Jan-Jun) P-2.

further aims to identify the fundamental political causes, economic conditions, the basic social loopholes as well as the unexpected external threats that create unfavorable conditions and hampers the smooth functioning of good governance. The specific objectives are to:

- a. Examine the role of media in society.
- b. Determine the extent of media role in national development.
- c. Evaluate how the media influence events in society for good governance.

Methodology of the Study

This study follows an intermediary approach, which merges two conventional techniques of media and good governance study namely, social and political accounting matrix and the right-based analysis. These techniques are much more materialistic as they require close observation, careful explanation and critical appraisal. The great advantage of using these approaches lies in the fact that they offer a rigorous, valuable, accurate and simple way of presenting the real picture of media and Governance in Bangladesh compare with Japan.

Literature Review

For this study I have reviewed national and international literatures on media and governance. I have also conscious about literature selection and review. Among the reviewed literature, some major findings can be illustrated which are more relevant with media and governance in Japan and Bangladesh. This study may validate the existing literature on modern Japan for policy implementation and generate new sights in the field of media and governance that may help to supplement the knowledge of stakeholders in general and policy researchers in particular.

Dash (2012) in his book explained about the impact of media on corporate governance and to develop a research agenda. The impact of media on governance is basically done in the context of Western media although the largest democracy of the world has experienced the biggest scandals of unethical governance in the last two decades.

Barry (2005) in his editorial explained that the Millennium Declaration, United Nations member states expressed strong, unanimous and explicit support of democratic and participatory governance and recognized free and open media as one of the tools necessary to achieve goal in the quest for development.

Rao (2004) explained the exploration of the roles; operating conditions and challenges of Asian journalists are significant not just for their impact upon governance and democracy within Asia. Furthermore, an understanding of such issues is critical to ensuring that initiatives by aid agencies to develop the mass media are tailored to work effectively in all conditions.

McCargo (1989) in his article, newspaper reporters have long enjoyed privileged access to politicians through a system of Kisha clubs, a system which allows for a cozy rapport between reporters and sources. Japanese media is now acting as an effective political watchdog and continues to enjoy an ambiguous relationship with holders of political power.

Center for Democracy and Governance (1999) in their publication series promotes that the sustainability of non-state controlled media is critically important through training in commercial management and basic journalism, as well as development of an independent media infrastructure for further enhancing economic and political reform.

Pippa (2010) in the editorial describes, today the world faces challenges for democratic governance and human development. Democracy has been extraordinary since the early 1970s, more states worldwide has held multiparty elections than ever before for maximizing fundamental freedoms, human choice and development.

Mander & Asif (2004) documented major issues, factors and perspectives contributing to good governance. Based on a number of socio-political dimensions to identify the concept and different approaches of good governance on a broader platform.

Aminuzzaman (2006) in his book explained to look into the depth of our current status of governance and a profile of the concept of Governance and Good Governance. Identify the major causes of misgovernance and how it can be made a well-balanced in Bangladesh.

Hye (2000) attempted to draw the real picture of good governance in South Asian countries with a special focus on Bangladesh. There are a number of social-economic and political causes that create unfavorable conditions for misgovernance and hamper the smooth functioning of good governance.

Barthwal (2003) has critically explained the conceptual issues and challenges of good governance in South Asian countries. His study further suggests the ways of remedies from bad or poor governance.

Pierre & Peters (2003) in their study highlighted the potentials, constraints and strategies to be considered to realize current status of good governance, politics and the state.

Relation with Media and Governance

UNESCO has decided to pay tribute to the critical role played by the media in promoting democracy and governance by choosing 'Media and Good Governance' as the key theme for celebration of World Press Freedom Day¹². Monopolies of any kind and existence of the greatest possible number of newspapers, periodicals and broadcasting stations reflecting the

¹² *World Development Report* (2002) New York: Oxford University Press, P.181.

widest possible range of opinions within a community. Governance may be impeded by the affliction of corruption, which disrupts the free flow of information, undermines accountability for decisions and discourages greater participation in the decision-making process¹³. Some of the areas in which political solutions are sought through the role of the media are discussed below:

Media and Political Development

The media can affect politics and culture, supporting institutional change and development. Communication is not only a tool for the expression of ideas and opinions, but very often acts as catalyst for development of the society. The exercise of free expression allows all sectors to debate and construct solutions.

Democracy and Good Governance

The media form an important and influential bridge, a crucial channel, between government and people. The fundamental human right is to be exercised by people through free and fair elections¹⁴. Accountability of political leaders creates the opportunity for transparency to recognize of the views and opinions of the public in the formulation of policies, providing citizens the opportunities to discuss, without fear of intimidation, policies and constitute the measure of good governance.

Political Transparency

Transparency refers to the political values of openness and democratic accountability¹⁵. It encompasses three political virtues: informational, participatory and accountability. The media can make the political system more transparent by helping people understand the operations of government participate in political decisions and hold government officials accountable.

Human Rights

Human rights which every human being is entitled to enjoy and to have protected. The media can defend these rights as enshrined in national constitutions and recognized by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights¹⁶. By giving voice and information to the people, the media automatically protects the freedom of speech.

¹³ Vogel, F. Ezra (1979) *Japan as number one*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. p.21.

¹⁴ Staphenurst, Rick (2000) *The Media's Role in Curbing Corruption*. New York: World Bank Institute.p.98.

¹⁵ Balkin, J. M. (1998) *How Mass Media Simulate Political Transparency*. Yale: Yale University Press.p.14

¹⁶ Sobhan, Rehman (1998) *Towards a Theory of Governance and Development - Learning from East Asia*. Dhaka: UPL.

Media and Economic Development

Media can boost economic development by promoting good governance and empowering citizens. Economic development as a sustainable process of creating economic opportunity for all citizens, stimulating business investment, diversifying the public revenue base and enhancing quality of life.

Economic Empowerment

The poor and women are usually economically disadvantaged groups in most societies. The media can also help in sensitizing government programmes on poverty alleviation and economic empowerment. On women, empirical studies show that women's access to the media is associated with better income and education¹⁷.

Media and Social Development

Social developments promote various institutions at all levels that are responsive, accountable and inclusive¹⁸. It empowers the poor and vulnerable people to participate effectively in development processes. To play a role in social development, the media assist the society in tackling problems of corruption, criminal violence, communal conflicts, public health and related issues.

Corruption

The abuse of public power for personal gain to which one owes allegiance¹⁹. Corruption is to distort economic and social development. By engendering wrong choices and by encouraging competition in bribery rather than in the quality and price of goods and services²⁰. The media can expose corruption in both the public and private sectors.

Disasters

The electronic and print media provide extensive coverage of disasters, particularly those with strong visual impact. Radio and television could broadcast early warnings, evacuation information and increase public awareness about risks and responses²¹. Likewise, exposure to risk due to floods also reduced through early warning and information on evacuation plan

¹⁷ McCargo, Duncan (1996) The Political role of Japanese Media. *The Pacific Review*, Vol.9, No 2, pp. 251-264.

¹⁸ Rahman, H. Ziliur (2002) *Rethinking Local Governance towards a Livelihoods Focus*. Dhaka: Power and Participation Research Centre. p. 85.

¹⁹ Reed, Steven R. (1987) *Japanese Prefectures and Policy Making*. Pittsburgh: Pittsburgh University Press.p.20

²⁰ Langseth, Petter J. P. & Stapenhurst, Rick (1997) *The Role of National Integrity System in Fighting Corruption*. Washington, D.C.: UGCCCL. p.103

²¹ Rattien, Stephen (2004) *The Role of the Media In Hazard Mitigation and Disaster Management*. New York: Columbia University Press. p.15.

Media and Governance in Japan

The model of the newspaper in Japan was kawabaran²² meaning tile block print, which first appeared in 1615. They appeared irregularly and contained scandalous information on lovers' suicides, disasters and other sensational events. The first modern newspaper in Japan appeared fairly late in international comparison. The first paper was published in English, in 1861. It was The Nagasaki Shipping List and Advertiser and appeared twice a week. The first Japanese language newspaper appeared in 1862²³.

Japan's Media at present

The media of Japan include numerous television and radio networks as well as newspapers and magazines. Since around 70% of the country's territory is mountainous, transmitting TV and radio signals proves to be a large challenge. Government regulations for broadcasting are also extremely complicated and strict²⁴. Perhaps, it stems from that Japanese people respects the government especially, legislative and executive branches passively and lack the concept to check the government by journalists and that the values of Japanese people are not so much liberal or progressive at national level taking into the country sides of Japan. According to the latest survey on the time-usage of the Japanese done in October 1995 by NHK, the average Japanese watches television for 3 hours and 28 minutes a day²⁵. The same survey reports that the average Japanese reads a newspaper for 21 minutes a day, which is so short compared to the time spent watching TV.

The media with their characteristics is utilized by the power elite to manipulate the information given to the audience or the reader. The media are the frame of reference of our views on society and they play so big a role in our way of living and thinking. The commercials in Japan are of huge enterprises based on the almighty business ground and naturally they tend to neglect the voice of the citizens²⁶. Every ministry of the central government and the major local governments of Japan have a press club which was originally organized as a friendly gathering of reporters from newspaper and TV companies who wished to join, but now it is actually functioning as the only window for the media side to get information, and sets up even the press meetings for briefings which are closed to non members.

²² Kawabaran were one-page flyers printed using roof tiles of houses as negative prints.

²³ Otake, Hideo (1979) *Political Power and Economic Power in Contemporary Japan*. Tokyo: Sanichi Shobe. pp.26.

²⁴ Norris, Pippa (2010) *News media and Governance Reform*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.p.65

²⁵ Pharr, Susan J. & Krauss, Ellis S. (1996) *Media and politics in Japan*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press. p.11.

²⁶ Campbell, John Creighton (1976) *Contemporary Japanese Budget Politics*. Berkeley: University of California Press. p.36.

Japan broadcasting is under the direct control of the central government of Japan. The media under such strong governmental controls do not usually cover the news items which are not favorable to the government or big businesses and therefore the first principle of media management becomes to maximize profits. Japanese society puts very high value on the spirit of togetherness or conformity (WA) as a social management principle and so as to keep this spirit in every corner of society the media, too, do not want to cover controversial social issues.

Japan's Contribution to Global Governance

In spite of all of its domestic challenges, from energy security to shrinking population size, Japan's involvement and influence in global governance continues to be important, and it has moved from contributor to leader. Fukushima was a triple disaster natural, nuclear and economic that shocked and challenged global governance as a whole²⁷. Japan has seen revolving door prime ministers, with average tenures of about one year very different from in the past. The hit that Japan's export-dependent economy has taken as a result of a combination of factors. A trade deficit has reappeared after a year absence, due to a new dependence on imported fossil fuels as well as a shrinking population size that will no longer be able to finance government deficits. The Japanese population's savings rate of 16% that was reached about 20 years ago has dropped to 2%, forcing the country to depend on international markets to cover the deficits²⁸. However, the whole story of Japan's position, power and place in the world, based on the record of facts and amidst these unprecedented challenges. Japan's involvement and influence in global governance has moved into the realm of leadership in what are generally considered the two centers of global governance the G8 and the G20²⁹. It has been a mediating bridge-builder between Asia and the Atlantic and has been a strong advocate for emerging states in Asia. Japan has also provided global public goods money to help the world get through the great economic recession. It has been shaping global governance, able to secure exemptions and veto bad ideas, as well as reform old multilateral institutions such as the IMF to give emerging powers the voice and vote they deserve.

Role of Japanese Media for Good Governance

The role of media is very important for the proper functioning of democracy. It is often referred to as the fourth pillar of democracy. The freedom of expression is exercised by the media, by promoting and

²⁷ Rattien, Stephen (2004) *The Role of the Media In Hazard Mitigation and Disaster Management*.p.15.

²⁸ Baran, Stanley J. (2002) *Introduction to Mass Communication*. McGraw Hill: McGraw Hill Online Learning Center. p.39.

²⁹ Sharma, T. (2002) *E-Governance: Process Reengineering Approach*. *The Indian Journal of Public Administration*. Vol. XLVIII, No.4 (Oct-Dec) P.615.

criticizing democratic values in society³⁰. It helps to form a public opinion around the important topics. Each of these might be very different but they all are very essential for the better governance. Historically, the media was born as organs of the people against the feudal oppression. The journey of Japan from a developing nation to a developed one will depend a lot on the role played by the media. Japan focus on the real issues, which are mostly social and economic in nature, instead of trying to divert the attention to the non-issues³¹.

Overview of Media and Governance in Bangladesh

Bangladesh became an independent state, following a bitter war of independence 1971, during which hundreds of thousands innocent people died and adopted a democratic government. Complete nationalization of the media was introduced in January 1975 and in 1991, when democracy was restored the media were at last given freedom to operate and journey toward development began³². Bangladesh's formation and subsequent development highlights some important issues are as bellows:

First, democracy and free media are symbiotic. Democracy promotes freedom of expression, but free media further develop nascent democracies. Thus while some democratization was necessary to liberate the media, over time the media have become stronger and vibrant.

Second, Bangladesh is a poor country, while the print media currently focus mostly on urban areas and the media play an important role in rural areas.

Third, the prevalence of state involvement in business activities has, until recently, affected the role of the media even in urban markets and;

Fourth, the media can have a stronger impact on economic and political outcomes when they form alliances with other institutions, such as nongovernmental groups or academics.

The restoration of democracy in Bangladesh saw the immediate growth of the media, both in quantitative and qualitative terms. Officially more than 200 daily newspapers and nearly 500 weeklies are published in Bangladesh. Nevertheless, we can say that following the restoration of democracy newspapers generally grew in number and in quality, significantly improving the standards of print media in Bangladesh. The most heartening development that Bangladesh has enjoyed since the restoration of democracy is the growth of independence and freedom of the print media³³.

³⁰ OECD (1992), Development Assistance Committee Work on Participatory Development and Good Governance, Paris: OECD.

³¹ Cohen, Bernard (1963) *The Press and Foreign Policy*. Princeton: University Press.

³² Department of Public Administration, *Citizens Perception of Public Policy*, Opinion Survey, PA 408 Seminar Project, University of Dhaka, 2003. p.251.

³³ Hasanuzzaman, AM. (1998) *Role of Opposition in Bangladesh Politics*, Dhaka: UPL. p.24.

The boldness, the depth, and the frequency with which some of the leading newspapers write about corruption in government and in the private sector, abuse of political power, nepotism and irregularities in general is something previously unknown in Bangladesh. Even though it has far to go to reach its potential, the break away of advertising from the government's stranglehold has been perhaps the most significant contributory factor to media independence. Another recent positive development is the opening of a private satellite television channels. This is the first time that the private sector has been allowed to own electronic media.

Role of Media and Governance in Bangladesh

Bangladesh used to be one of the world's most corrupt countries, always ranking near the bottom in the Transparency International annual report. The government declared a war on corruption but did nothing about it. Everyone in Bangladesh knew that the monthly salary of an average official ranged between 200 and 300 US dollars³⁴. They were never embarrassed by the dramatic gap between the modest incomes they declared. Hardly anyone believed that the situation could be changed; that a good order could be installed would roll up their sleeves and work for the good of the people. All the major TV channels were controlled by the government, there was censorship. Freedom of speech was constrained and there was no live discussion of topics. The government issued instructions about which stories were to be covered on any given day, and how leading to a striking similarity in what was presented by different media. That's how bad governance works. The real change came for internet but to express the disagreement with the biased media. Bangladesh in future will not be only a case study in revolution, but also a beacon of good governance.

Constraints and Challenges for Media and Governance

Media have played an important role in promoting governance and in changing the way people in Bangladesh interact with each other, the media's role would be greatly enhanced like Japan. The high illiteracy rate and the limited purchasing ability of a large population, the circulation bases are still smaller than might be expected for such a large population. The reality is that journalism has not yet become relevant to the real needs of ordinary people like Japan. A single noncompetitive source of financing and that source being the state have two potentially adverse consequences: little diversity in the news and a risk of capture by government propaganda. Inadequate training for journalists is a reality of Bangladeshi journalism. A widespread political divide within the journalist community is another severe constraint. Too often journalists are divided along political lines,

³⁴ Haq, Mahbubul (1999) *Human Development in South Asia*, Dhaka: UPL. p. 139.

which inadvertently affect their professional output³⁵. I believe that but for this political divide Bangladesh would have had a far more vigorous and effective print media than is the case today. For the first time these powerful media are no longer functioning as extensions of the government's propaganda mechanism and are showing signs of independence³⁶. For all the media the most important challenge in the years ahead is to consolidate democracy and institute an accountable government like Japan. The media's biggest challenge is to help establish a functioning democracy, which is central attributes for governance in the literature. Some popular and widely accepted elements are discussed below relating to Japan and Bangladesh context:

Political and Executive Accountability

Accountability has been largely shaped by the influence of a number of factors like dominant executive, weak legislature, distorted growth and low levels of development of political parties, lack of independence of judiciary and lack of credibility of the electoral system.

People's Participation

Government must take initiatives to ensure peoples participation through decentralization. Involvement of people at the grassroots level have been considered as the most effective means through which can meet the aspirations of the people and to ensure good governance.

Participation of Civil Society Organizations

Governance requires vibrant, strong and active civil society organizations. Civil society organizations in Bangladesh have increasingly taken forms of NGOs. They have been active in Bangladesh since independence and grown in number in response to new needs.

Predictability

Predictability status in Bangladesh is highly unsatisfactory; one of its manifestations might be cited to the frequent Amendment Bills passed by the Parliament. Lack of predictability makes it difficult for the public officials to plan for the provision of services.

Transparency

Access to information about the government policies can be vital for decision-making and as well as other issues, which is deplorably missing in

³⁵ Campbell, John Creighton (1976) *Contemporary Japanese Budget Politics*. Berkeley: University of California Press. p.36.

³⁶ Aminuzzaman, Salahuddin, (1993) Institutional Process and Practices of Administrative Accountability: Role of Jatiya Sangshad (Parliament) in Bangladesh, *South Asian Studies*, Vol. 10, No.1. 1993.p.124.

Bangladesh. Bureaucrats in Bangladesh are seen to be obsessed with secrets and are unwilling to divulge any information to the public³⁷.

Promotion of Democracy and Political Pluralism

Democratization emphasizes that the people shall elect the governing body and there should not be any restriction in the movement of diversified political parties. Periodic fair election, which is an essential ingredient of democracy, always remains a matter of dispute in Bangladesh.

Rule of Law and Human Rights

Rule of law implies the absence of arbitrariness in the governance of a country. Law is considered as supreme and none can claim exemption or immunity from it. Article 32 of the Constitution of Bangladesh guarantees fundamental rights, a person's rights to life and liberty.

Decentralization

For governance to be effective decision making process must be straightforward. Dependency of local government on central government for various administrative and financial decisions is hindering. This is possible when administrative system is decentralized to the peripheral areas and participation of the people in the decision making process.

Women's participation in development process

The issue of women in sustainable development is still a larger one because of their role in resource management in the country and also because of their role in grooming new generation of people. The present situation with regards to sustainable development is clear indicator of depriving women from equal opportunities in all aspects.

Evaluation of this study

Information is very important to be disseminated all over the country. This will drastically reduce the opportunity of corruption and ensure transparency in every sector. For example, only a signboard citing the information related with the construction can make the local people acknowledged about the construction of the road and its deadline. The importances of right to information for all people are thought to be ever exacting in the age of ICT. At the same time, to make digital Bangladesh concept a reality eGovernance is a must. Only getting everything digital does not that we are becoming transparent and accountable in every respects. Because the more we are getting digitalized and getting access to the information, the more is the state getting vulnerable in terms of its security and governance. Individual is getting access to the information and nothing is seems to be secured here as

³⁷ The Official Secret Act of 1923 and the Government Servant Conducts Rules (GSCR) of 1979 bind civil servants to an oath of secrecy.

the hacker and anti-social element are always on the vigil to cause harm to the state and the non-state actors. We know the people's right to freedom of speech and expression as our constitution's article 39 says. Again, universal declaration of human rights in its article 19 says about the right to information. The variety of forms of governance that apply to the media reflects of purposes. These included:

- The protection of essential interests of the state and of public order, including the prevention of public harm.
- The safeguarding of individual rights and interests.
- Meeting the need of media industry for a stable and supportive operating environment.
- Promotion of freedom, other communication and cultural values.
- Encouragement of technological innovation and economic enterprise.
- Setting technical and infrastructural standards to ensure good governance.
- Meeting international obligations, including observance of human rights, encouraging media accountability.

For a nascent democratic country like Bangladesh, no one talks against the freedom of information. Freedom should be conditionally practiced like Japan. Media practiced in individual and organizational level should be socially responsible and politically correct. There should be certain check and balance in media assertion to ensure good governance in Bangladesh.

Concluding Remarks

There is a general consensus that the governance is in crisis, the realities within the constitutional arms and the management of economic, administrative and the political affairs further strengthens the statement on crisis in governance. Governance is not easy to achieve in Bangladesh, because of social, cultural, economic, administrative and legal variables affect the nature. Many issues and problems are the barriers to ensure governance, equity and social justice. Media sector support is a critical prong of strategies to support democracy and governance. Some criticism is leveled at the media's role in citizen diplomacy and governance; there is no dearth of forums encouraging people-to-people contact, even though such existing mechanisms have not been able to function effectively. The concern is the rationale behind introducing the media in this process when there is a lack of political will to make such working forum. Those arguing from the standpoint of national security contend that people-to-people contact will not help in resolving problems which are essentially the domain of the government. However, in this paper it is evidently clear that the media can present a shared vision for peace in Bangladesh.

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17. Emerging Digital Culture of Bangladesh and in Higher Education

Muhammed Shahriar Haque

Introduction

According to the pledge for a Digital Bangladesh by 2021, the present government envisions to introduce information and communication technology (ICT) to “eradicate poverty, establish good governance, ensure social equity through quality education, healthcare and law enforcement for all, and prepare the people for climate change” (Digital Bangladesh, 2010: 2). In terms of education, knowledge retention will be increased by creating congenial “e-learning environments in schools, and distance learning through TV, radio, mobile phones and internet” (Digital Bangladesh, 2010: 4). By 2013 the government was supposed to make ICT education compulsory at secondary level and by 2021 at primary level (*ibid.*). However, there is no mention of either introducing ICT education in institutions of higher learning or digitizing university education in the Digital Bangladesh (2010) document, even though it is the universities which are creating and generating knowledge through research and publication. It is only in the *Strategic Priorities of Digital Bangladesh* (2011) that there is mention of introducing ICT education and digitizing private and public higher education.

Critical Implication

According to *Digital Planet: Ready for the Rise of the e-Consumer* (Chakravorti *et al.*, Sept. 2014), Singapore is the most digitized country in the world, and Bangladesh has not even been considered/included in that survey. The above quotation from the concluding paragraph of *Digital Bangladesh for Good Governance*, presented by Mr. Abdul Karim, Principal Secretary, Prime Minister’s Office, in Bangladesh Development Forum in February 2010, outlines the infrastructure of Digital Bangladesh. In November 2014, almost five years down the road a pertinent question is whether the notion of Digital Bangladesh has had any impact in creating an emerging digital culture in this nation of 170 million? The intension of this paper is twofold: the first objective is to illustrate that digital culture is an emerging phenomenon in Bangladesh, while the second is to explore the influence of digital culture in education, particularly private and public higher education in this country. In doing so, it will explore the potentials of digital culture and the challenges it can pose in the future. It is hoped that a study of this

nature will help us to understand the components and complexities of this global phenomenon. An in depth understanding of the nature of digital culture will enable us to embrace it in a cautiously optimistic manner and avoid the pitfalls of rushing in headfirst.

Methodology

This qualitative exploratory study attempts to understand the emergence of digital culture in Bangladesh across the board, and particularly in higher education. The first objective, that is the emergence of digital culture in Bangladesh, is addressed by surveying the existing literature and documentations. The second objective, which is the influence of digital culture in higher education, will be explored from the findings of a case study. Instructors as well as learners from different departments were surveyed by means of questionnaires to find out the digital culture they are immersed in. Students of *ENG 102: Composition and Communication Skills* were surveyed. In the Fall-2014 Semester there are 24 sections of ENG 102, each section comprising approximately 30 students. Students from 20 sections (i.e. 600) were surveyed for this study. In total 557 students, out of 600, were administered an open-ended questionnaire. Some students were absent during the survey week. The reason for surveying learners of ENG 102 is that this course is compulsory for every undergraduate student from all the departments. This population represents a representative sample of the student population of the investigating university. Students usually take this course in their second or third semester, and sometimes in later semesters. Along with the learners, two to three academics from each department were interviewed (orally). Due to the scarcity of time, instructors were randomly chosen, based on their availability. In total, 30 academics of 11 departments from three facultiesⁱ were interviewed.

Findings

The findings of this study in terms of emerging digital culture in Bangladesh, and in higher education, with particular reference from a case study are discussed below.

Overview of Digital Culture in Bangladesh

Due to the global spread of digital innovation and the transition from Web 1.0 to Web 2.0, that is, social media revolution, the seeds of digitization were already culturally initiated in Bangladesh in the mid-2000s; this was becoming apparent even before one of the mainstream political parties announced its concept of Digital Bangladesh (DB). This cultural trend was

ⁱ Faculty of Liberal Arts and Social Sciences, Faculty of Business and Economics, Faculty of Sciences and Engineering.

noticed by Van Schendel (2009: 3), who while documenting the history of Bangladesh says that the middle class of this country have “become enthusiastic participants in global cyberspace: numerous Bengali fonts are now available online, and Bangladeshi websites and discussion groups are multiplying rapidly”. His book was published in 2009, which means the information in it came from 2008 and beyond, considering the time-consuming factors involved in crosschecking facts and figures, referencing, proofreading, editing, and printing a book. In other words, notion of Digital Bangladesh may have been officially kicked-off by a major political party, but the emerging digital culture of this country was spearheaded by the onslaught of global digital revolution. To substantiate this viewpoint, Shoesmith and Genilo (2013: 3) say:

In 2008, the AL went into the election promising to create Digital Bangladesh (DB) by 2021, which seemingly caught the imagination of the electorate and contributed to their election to power. AL presented DB as a novel, even revolutionary event with the nation being digitalized in education, government, and commerce. However, DB is an attempt by a political party to capture for their own ends what was already happening in a culture.

Shoesmith and Mahmud (2013) give an overview of Bangladesh’s media. They do not talk much about the digitization of the press or television, but mentioned that ‘*The Daily Star* (a national English daily) and *Jai Jai Din* (a weekly political Bengali newspaper)’ were the first two newspapers to go online in 1996. They also talk briefly about digital radio, and subsequently discuss how new technologies are enticing young film makers to come forward (*ibid.*). They agree with Haq (2011), who suggests that the young generation is employing digital technologies not only in film production, but also in distribution. Tareque Masud was gradually adopting digital production before his sudden death (Shoesmith & Mahmud, 2013: 27). It should be mentioned that Bangladesh government in 2003 introduced the digital technology project into the film industry (Ahsan, 2012: 187). Morshedul Islam’s *Priyotomeshu* (Darling), which came out in 2009, was the first digital film to receive a Bangladesh Censor Board Clearance (*ibid.*). Ahsan, (2012) investigates why the project was not such a success. Though only few films have been digitally made, distributed and screened, the future trend seems to be flowing in the direction digital-technology assisted film production.

Though many feel that Bangladesh will not become a digitized nation by 2021, there has been drastic change in digital communication, particularly due to new media, social media and mobile phone operators providing

various internet facilities, including 3G network (Shoesmith and Mahmud, 2013). In fact, even before the Digital Bangladesh proposal, the infrastructure in the rural scenario was initiated through the multipurpose community information and knowledge centres (MCTs) through various telecentres. Numerous telecentres like ‘Community Multimedia Centres’, ‘Community Information Centres’, ‘Rural Knowledge Centres’, ‘Rural Information Centres’ and so on provide knowledge-based information services to rural Bangladeshi communities in the form of health, education, agriculture, livelihood, ancillary, etc. (Islam and Hasan, 2009). The telecentre trend was first initiated in 1999 by Grameen Communications (*ibid.*).

Bangladesh has started practicing e-governance. Bhuian (2010) points out that ‘corruption’ and ‘poverty’ are two significant factors that affect the lives of millions of people, which can be reduced through e-governance. But he (2010: 63) also raises the question whether “Bangladesh government have the economic capacity or the political will to do so?” Mohammad (2012), by citing examples of Malaysia and Singapore, talks about the promotion of human rights in Bangladesh through e-government laws and policies. Zainudeen *et al* (2011) argue that CellBazaar has created platform for e-commerce to flourish by means of various e-marketplaces. Bangladesh Virtual Classroom (BVC) is another piece of evidence to support the emergence of digital culture in this country. The BVC project was initiated through various studies piloted between 2005-2007 by Bangladesh Open University (BOU) “to deliver interactive distance courses to learners via mobile phones and TV” (Andersson and Hatakka, 2010: 22). The interactive learning environment was created by employing the existing technology (Groönlund & Islam, 2008). Such an environment enabled administrators to monitor the student and allowed students to interact with their teachers as well.

Social media has impacted on how we communicate at personal and professional levels, as well as developing/establishing and sustaining relationships. Recently (i.e. October 2014), I travelled to the United States of America to present a paper at a conference. Out of the seven-day trip, I was on the road for four days. Needless to say, I got to see a lot of people on public transports—planes, busses, trains and ferries—as well as airports, train stations/subways, bus ferry terminals. In majority of cases, the people I saw were communicating with others in this highly networked society; however, they were doing it through some kind of digital device—mobile phone, laptop, tab, netbook, blackberry—and hardly through face-to-face interaction. To some extent I can see the emergence of this kind of digital

trend in Bangladesh, particularly in Dhaka. The fact that we live in a networked but physically disengaging society, where social interaction on a daily basis is decreasing, is scary a feeling; a society where we choose to express our emotions through emoticons or smileys rather than real laughter, facial countenance, and verbal and nonverbal paralanguage (gestures/postures, fluctuation of voice). This is one of the myriad pitfalls of a digital culture. Sarker (2013) emphasizes some more problems of an emerging digital culture, with particular reference to social networking sites, if we are not careful. Among them the significant ones are:

- SNS usage ‘localizing’ bonding of social capital
- Internet addiction disorder and the emergence of ‘social network addiction’
- Internet victimization
- Identity theft
- Cheating
- ‘Buy-me-that’ syndrome
- SNSs taking lives/cyber-bullying
- Misrepresenting people
- Demoralizing users
- Diminishing quality of communication
- Reducing face-to-face interaction
- Increasing social isolation
- Lying in communication process
- Hiding possible dangers
- On-sale ‘privacy’
- Encouraging crimes
- Exposure to violence and violent contents
- Emphasizing the Thanatos (instinct of death, aggression)
- Disruption/interruption of workflow/pattern & productivity at the workplace
- Monetary loss
- Risk factors for minors

(Sarker, 2013: 94-101)

Furthermore, a digital culture through social media, could either give birth to a revolution or teardown nations—Arab Spring—(see, Aitamurto, 2011; Griffin, 2011; Rosiny, 2012; Storck, 2011; Vargas, 2011; Wolfsfeld *et al.* 2013), or so-called revolution—Shahabag Movement—(see, Ahmed, 2013; Anam, 2013; Murshid, 2013; Quayum, 2013; Save Bangladesh, 2013;

Zeitlyn, 2014), depending on how history or revisionist history is interpreted.

From the above literature, it is quite apparent that there is an emerging digital culture in Bangladesh which seems to be progressing at a slow but steady pace. However, there is hardly any literature documenting the emergence of digital culture in higher education. The findings of a case study from a private university are discussed below.

Digital Culture in Higher Education

As mentioned earlier, there is no statement regarding ICT education or digitizing university education in the *Digital Bangladesh* (2010) document; however, there is mention of these things in the *Strategic Priorities of Digital Bangladesh* (2011) document. It should be that unlike schools and colleges under the national curriculum, which are strictly controlled by the different government educational boards, universities are autonomous bodies. Hence, the government cannot impose the courses and programmes run by the institutions of higher learning. The University Grants Commission (UGC) of Bangladesh has the power to monitor universities in Bangladesh and submit reports to the Ministry of education (see <http://www.ugc.gov.bd/>). Decisions regarding the mode of studying, teaching, digitization of education on and off campus are made by students, teachers and university authority, either individually or in collaboration with each other. The government does not interfere regarding these things in higher education.

To find out about emerging digital culture in higher education a study was conducted in a private university. The findings have been tabulated in Table 1. The tabulated findings can be analyzed in two ways:

- Horizontally—by looking at different digital technologies (DTs) that are used to carry out various activities;
- Vertically—numerous activities that dependent on and require a combination of DTs, without which they (i.e. activities) cannot be carried out.

Based on the findings of the empirical study it seems that the most common DTs are computers and internet (Table 1); these are needed by academics and students for every single activity in an institution of higher learning. All faculties are provided with a desktop computer with internet connection by the university; they also have one or more at home. Almost all students have personal computers, laptops, tabs, netbooks or notebooks of their own with internet connection. The few, who do not initially have them, use computers and internet facilities in the computer labs of the university. Gradually even these students buy computers and get internet connection, because these two DTs are so essential and indispensable in higher education. The next group

of DTs that are commonly used in a higher educational context are various types of software and mobile devices, computer labs, digital library, dropbox, social media, e-books, e-journal, PDFs, MP3s, digital archives. The use of these technologies may vary from students and teachers from different departments, learning and teaching styles, as well as the assignments, homework and class-work that are given to students. Other DTs that are less frequently employed in a university are multimedia, laser pointer, CDs, pen-drive, Bluetooth, plagiarism software, digital equipment (science, pharmacy, etc), digital printer/printing, photocopying, scanning. However, it may be pointed out that some of these technologies may be used for fewer activities, but more number of students and teachers utilize them. For instance, in a teaching-learning photocopying and printing is indispensable. For transferring and copying files and documents pen-drives are essential.

If we look at the findings in Table 1 from activity-perspective, majority of the DTs are required by teachers and students for teaching, learning, group discussion, assignments, research, publication, presenting, and checking assignments. These activities are very common in an institution of higher learning. Even for less frequent activities like booking a classroom online, registering students for different courses as well as submitting grades, multiple DTs are required. All these activities are done by faculty members and not by any office staff or other personnel at the university from where data was collected. Towards the end of every semester, students are required to evaluate the teaching performances of all their teachers. Even this type of evaluation, which was previously done manually on paper, is now done online, for which a number of DTs are required (see Table 1).

Overall, the finds from the tabulated data suggest that teachers and students require DTs in order to function in a teaching-learning environment. DTs seem to be indispensable in higher education, without which academia may not be able to function on a day-to-day basis.

Delimitation of the study

The orientation of this explorative case study is qualitative in nature, and follows a descriptive paradigm. Hence, findings of students and teachers from 11 different departments belonging to three faculties were not compared in terms of numeric outcome. Rather the phenomenon of digital culture is explained in a descriptive manner. Since no other study has been conducted of this nature, one university was studied to find out the general use of digital technology in a tertiary institution. Later studies can consider more universities. As this research delimited its investigation to one institution of higher learning, it is assumed that the findings may not be generalizable to represent all universities of Bangladesh.

Table 1: Digital technologies being used in a private university by teachers and students

Sl.	Digital Technologies	Teaching (T) ^{cxii}	Learning /studying (S) ^{cxiii}	Group Discussion (S)	Presenting (T & S)	Doing Assignments (S)	Checking Assignment (T)	Research (T & S)	Publication (T & S)	Advising/ registration (T & S)	Online evaluation (S)	Grades (T)	Booking rooms (T)
1	Multimedia	√	√		√								
2	Internet	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
3	Computer lab	√	√	√		√		√	√	√	√	√	√
4	Social media ^{cxiv}	√	√	√	√	√		√	√				
5	Mobile devices	√	√	√	√	√		√	√				√
6	Computer, tab, laptop, netbook, notebook	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
7	Laser pointer	√			√								
8	PDF	√	√	√	√	√		√	√				
9	MP3	√	√	√		√		√	√				
10	Online journals	√	√	√		√		√	√				
11	E-books	√	√	√		√		√	√				
12	CDs, pen-drive	√	√	√	√	√		√	√				
13	Digital archive/database	√	√	√		√	√	√	√				
14	Dropbox	√	√	√		√	√	√	√				
15	Bluetooth	√	√	√		√		√	√				
16	Plagiarism software	√	√			√	√	√	√				
17	Digital equipment (science, pharmacy, etc)	√	√	√		√	√	√					
18	Digital printer/printing	√	√		√	√		√	√				
19	Photocopying/scanning	√	√		√	√		√	√				
20	Digital library	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√				
21	Software	√	√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√

^{cxii} Teacher

^{cxiii} Student

^{cxiv} Facebook, twitter, blog, skype, podcast etc.

Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the findings of literature review looking at use of digital technology in Bangladesh and in an institution of higher learning, it seems that digital culture has not only become part of daily existence, but is something that we cannot do without in order to function in a, though debatable, networked society, information society, virtual society, or a combination of all those societies. Whether we live in an information society (see Webster, 2014), networked society (see Castells, 2010), or digital society (see Miller, 2011), it is difficult to deny and/or ignore the pervasiveness of digital technologies that have infiltrated almost every stratum of the communal borderless society. In other words, we have become or in the process of becoming so-called ‘prosumers’ of digital technology, producing and consuming digital data, binary codes, technological innovations that has pervaded ever stratum of in order to become global citizens with the desire to coexist in the universal digital ecosystem.

Despite myriad problems, Bangladesh is gradually changing particularly with respect to new communication technologies (Shoesmith and Genilo, 2013: 3). From the above findings it seems that digital culture, even though in its infancy, is emerging in Bangladesh. In the September 2014 report on the state and trajectory of global digital evolution titled *Digital Planet: Ready for the Rise of the e-Consumer*, 50 countries were surveyed through a Digital Evaluation Index (DEI) was created which categorized those nations into four categories: stand out, stall out, break out and watch out countries¹ (Chakravorti *et al.*, 2014). As was mentioned in the earlier part of this article, Bangladesh was not included in the list of 50 countries considered in the above report. However, that does not mean that this developing country has not been influenced by digital culture in anyway.

The findings of this paper suggest that digital culture in Bangladesh started emerging almost a decade ago. Along the way we have faced some obstacles. Even though we have a long way to go before becoming a fully

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- ¹ *Stand Out* countries have shown high levels of digital development in the past and continue to remain on an upward trajectory.
 - *Stall Out* countries have achieved a high level of evolution in the past but are losing momentum and risk falling behind.
 - *Break Out* countries have the potential to develop strong digital economies. Though their overall score is still low, they are moving upward and are poised to become Stand Out countries in the future.
 - *Watch Out* countries face significant opportunities and challenges, with low scores on both current level and upward motion of their DEI. Some may be able to overcome limitations with clever innovations and stopgap measures, while others seem to be stuck.

digitized nation, it seems quite apparent that digital culture in this country is slowly but surely emerging. If we can overcome some of the strategic and infrastructural challenges, the processes of becoming a digitized nation will continue as a steady pace. With respect to the above categorizations, it seems that Bangladesh could fall under the ‘watch out’ category, and gradually when this country is able address its challenges of digital culture, it has the potential of entering the ‘break out’ category.

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18. Promoting Good Governance

Role of Media

Md. Mostafizur Rahaman

Introduction

The idea of good governance is given different meanings by different organizations, but is generally characterized as referring to openness, participation, accountability, predictability, and transparency. The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) refers to good governance as not only ridding societies of corruption but also giving people the rights, the means, and the capacity to participate in the decisions that affect their lives and to hold their governments accountable for what they do.¹ It means fair and just democratic governance.

Good governance is more than a legal idea and more than a development strategy. It has also been identified as a set of social norms comprising the rule of law, honesty, and accountability.² These norms of good governance guide and constrain the exercise of power by limiting the government's power and limiting the market's power and control. Norms of good governance also promote norms of law-abidingness which are activated when people become aware of the consequences of their actions and feel a sense of obligation to prevent those consequences.

Good governance consists of two major dimensions: political and economic. The political dimension can be broken down into four key components: government legitimacy; government accountability; government competence; and rule of law. The economic dimension also has four components: public sector management; organizational accountability; rule of law and transparency (includes freedom of information). Good governance has eight major elements and those are:

1. Participation;
2. Rule of Law;
3. Consensus Oriented;
4. Equity & Inclusiveness;
5. Transparency;
6. Accountability;
7. Responsiveness;
8. Effective and Efficiency.³

¹ WB, *Government That Works Reforming Public Sector*, 1996, P - 13.

² Licht, A. N., Goldschmidt, C. and Schwartz, *Culture Rules: The Foundations of the Rule of Law and Other Norms of Governance*, working paper 2006, p – 146.

³ Rahaman, Mostafizur, *Good Governance: Theory and Practice*, Shrabon Prokashoni, Dhaka, 2014, p – 68.

Media are (mostly) non state actors who define themselves apart from the state and from all other societal actors (what Edmund Burke described as a “fourth estate”, distinct from government, church and electorate).⁴ While this notion of free and independent media acting on behalf of the citizen against both state and other interests is a widespread ideal, the reality of most media worldwide is complex, rapidly changing and extraordinarily diverse. Media can consist of everything from national newspapers to student magazines, global broadcasters to community radio, websites and blogs to social networks and virtual communities, citizen journalists to government mouthpieces. This briefing focuses principally on media and to a lesser extent on linked information and technologies at a national level within developing countries.

All citizens need information that allows them to exercise democratic choices. Healthy political processes therefore need open communication environments. The modern communications revolution including the Internet and mobile phones offers immense opportunities for people to access more information and knowledge and engage with those who govern them. But to make best use of these opportunities requires that different kinds of information, communication systems and technologies become more accessible, transparent and inclusive. Most people in most societies receive most of their information through the media. The media shapes in large part what people think of the issues and institutions that affect them. It is critical to the formation of public opinion. The character of the media tends to determine the character of public debate in democracy. A free media is fundamental to any definition of democratic good governance.

Whether, how and to what extent media contributes to better governance and improves the lives of poor people varies immensely from society to society. The extent to which media in any given society is free,⁵ plural, professional and able to, or interested in facilitating public discussion is dependent on many economic, political and other contextual factors. Many drivers of change studies have highlighted the importance of the media, but noted that their role is often poorly researched and understood.⁶

Relevance to all Aspects of the Governance Framework

State Capability

States require certain levels of public acceptance of their legitimacy and their actions to get things done. Lack of public understanding of public

⁴ DFID practice paper on *Media and Good Governance*, May, 2008.

⁵ Free media refers to a press not restricted or controlled by government censorship regarding politics or ideology.

⁶ The UNESCO Declaration of Windhoek 1991 defines a pluralistic press as ‘the end of monopolies of any kind and the existence of the greatest possible number of newspapers, magazines and periodicals reflecting the widest possible range of opinion within the community.’

policy can be an obstacle to public acceptance. States that actively enable media freedom and pluralism can command greater legitimacy both with their citizens and internationally. Poverty reduction and other development strategies have been undermined through lack of wider societal ownership.⁷ Weak ownership is often rooted in lack of public understanding and public debate of the issues and policies. Media can provide access to information that enhances public understanding, as well as space for public debate.⁸

State Accountability

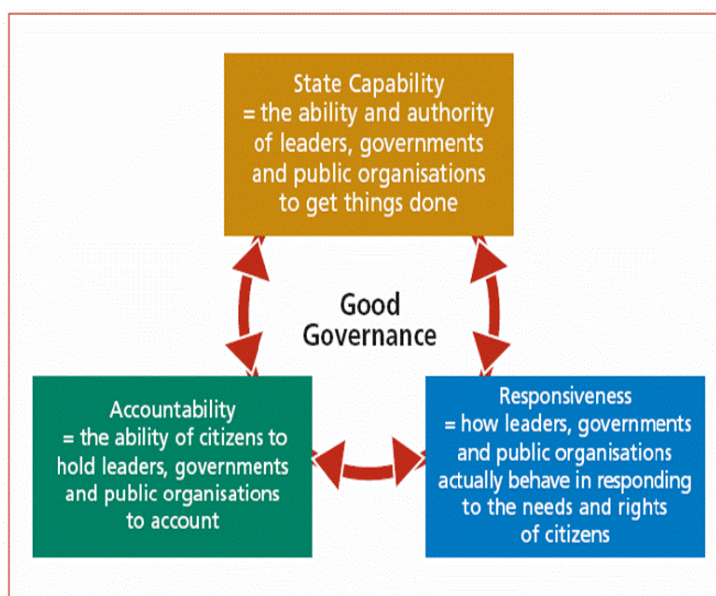
The public watchdog role of the media can provide a critical check on government misuse of power or incompetence, and enable citizens to demand good governance. In many societies, state accountability relies upon the independence and capacity of the media to investigate and interrogate government policy in the public interest. Development policy places a central emphasis on citizens holding states accountable. An increased focus on budget support in development assistance strategies has added to the priority of supporting media in their watchdog roles.

State Responsiveness

A free and plural media underpins the responsiveness of democratic states. Media reporting of public interest issues exposes problems in society, brings them to public and political attention and creates pressure for the state to

respond rapidly (as an example, please see the case one). States without a free media have struggled to respond effectively to emerging crises, while those with a free media have rarely suffered national disaster and others catastrophic famines and other predictable disasters.⁹

Media within developing countries have undergone many profound changes in the last decade or so, which have important implications for citizen/state relationships. Although conflict, transitional and stable states



⁷ DFID white paper on *Making Governance Work for the Poor*, 2006.

⁸ Rahaman, Mostafizur, *Good Governance: Theory and Practice*, Dhaka, 2014, ShrabonProkashoni, p - 188.

⁹ DFID practice paper on *Media and Good Governance*, May, 2008.

have experienced rather different transitions in the media environment, some broadly generic trends can be identified that are shaping new media environments.

Case One: *Investigative Education News*

Campaign for Popular Education (CAMPE) is a national coalition of NGOs working towards the implementation of program interventions in the education sector. CAMPE is working for popularizing the trend-setting activities on quality education and intends to integrate literacy and education programs with other development interventions. The current focused of CAMPE is to contribute in achieving Education for All (EFA) by the year 2015.

In order to make education affordable, accessible and meaningful for all children including the most disadvantaged with disabilities and ethnic and other groups through EFA, CAMPE has developed and aired Education News (Shikkha Sangbad) - an investigative report on education scenario of Bangladesh in collaboration with private TV channel 'Channel I' from 2011. It's a joint initiative of CAMPE and Channel i. The news focused on literacy situation, good practices, enrolment, allocation and proper use of education budget, coaching business, teachers' absenteeism etc. through investigative lenses and picked up the grassroots voices and collect the response from authorities both government and community.

This news program is playing important & effective role for proper implementation of policies and to draw attention of the policy makers to take immediate measures and address the demand of the community people. As a result of these investigative reporting the concerned authority took many measures, immediate and long term to address the facts, mitigate the problems and make the respective person or department responsible to address the issues.¹⁰ For example here is presenting as case.

In 2012, an investigative report was telecast on Doulatdiabothell children's school. The news showed that the students of this school choose the subject Computer Science and passed this subject in SSC examination. But there is no computer in the school either for the students or for the teachers. And even the students never used/saw computer in their life. After telecasting the report 'School without computer taking classes on computer' took an immediate action by the higher authority of Govt. Ministry of Education provided 10 computers to the school for teaching computer lessons properly.

¹⁰ Interview with ShykhSeraj, Head of News Channel I, dated July 15, 2013.

Media Liberalization is Bringing New Opportunities

Widespread liberalization of media has led to an explosive growth of media in most developing countries. In Bangladesh, close to 30 private TV channels, 6 FM commercial Radio Stations and 18 Community Radio Stations are now registered whilst little more than a decade back there were only 4 private TV channel and two FM Radio.¹¹ This multiplicity of new commercial as well as some community actors has transformed the media landscape, with some of the greatest change occurring in the radio broadcast sector, which has the greatest potential to reach the poor.

The result is a fundamental shift in communication patterns with both positive and negative implications for democratic governance. Governments are increasingly held to account by a vigorous and vociferous media, and societies are characterized by far greater public dialogue and debate as citizens converse with each other through talk shows, phone ins, and through new technologies. Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; the right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media regardless of frontiers.

State broadcasters, often former monopolies have to compete often unsuccessfully with new commercial entrants leaving them in crisis. As well as being government mouthpieces, these broadcasters are often the only media actors capable of reaching rural audiences across the whole of their countries. They have struggled to transform themselves into independent public service broadcasters and many have reduced services - such as cutting back on minority language, transmitter capacity and educational and agricultural extension services. The capacity of many people to access reliable information on issues that affect their lives particularly in rural areas may be extremely limited as a result of these and other changes.

New technologies, and particularly the mobile phone, have become increasingly ubiquitous in developing countries. The political, social and economic impacts of these changes require more research, but increased access to information, capacity to communicate, network and organize within society would appear to be having profound economic, political and social consequences.

The interaction between traditional technologies (such as radio) with new technologies (such as the phone) has created new space for public debate. New technologies have led to the emergence of 'citizen journalists' capable of shining a light on some of the most closed societies. Diaspora communities have exerted increasingly profound influence enabled by the

¹¹ The Prothom-alo, September 19, 2013.

internet. Resistance to state oppression has been greatly enabled by new technologies, including mobile telephony.

Importance of the Media

Development and democratization strategies increasingly assume that media will play certain positive roles in society. Investments in building the media's capacity and freedom for action have direct benefits for promoting good governance and accountability, but it also can make a profound difference in terms of its effect in supporting and promoting other development goals, including poverty alleviation.

Investigative journalism can lead to increased circulation or audience, and can also lead to public recognition and status (including in the form of awards). Many media organizations continue to play a watchdog and public interest role because they believe that this is the historical role of media acting as a "fourth estate". Some media explicitly profit from reputations built on strong, independent and reliable reporting and discussion. In Bangladesh, talk shows expanding public debate have proved highly popular and lucrative. Ultimately, assumptions made by development actors that media – even a free media - will play specific roles in society, such as holding governments to account, need to be founded in clear analysis.

However, there is wide variation in the degree to which media are either interested in playing, or are equipped to play, these positive roles. On the one hand, media can generate debate and dialogue, be a voice for the voiceless, reveal wrong-doing and contribute to deepening democracy. On the other hand, media is also capable of fostering ethnic hatred and division, acting in the interest of powerful political and economic elites, and covering up and distorting the truth.

Political disincentives include intimidation, censorship and attacks on media. Record numbers of journalists face death or injury in pursuit of their profession, and the number of media houses facing government sanction is growing. Journalists and editors often make easy targets, and the rewards for journalists for undertaking investigative or other public interest journalism are often scant. In particular, a focus on development issues is rarely regarded as a high status 'beat', or rewarded with promotion.

Good Governance and Freedom of Media

Good Governance has a strong relation with media and democracy as well. Without press democracy as well as good governance is not possible. Democracy is a concept 'of the people, by the people, for the people', as it depends on an active role of the people. Winston Churchill famously referred to democracy in 1947 as 'the worst form of government except for all those other forms that have been tried from time to time', and well before him Abraham Lincoln considered democracy as the 'last, best hope on

earth'.¹² Within this paradigm of democracy, freedom is considered as a very important factor. Various limits to freedom are imposed. Various freedoms indicate less governmental interference, since democracy as a concept promotes accountability and transparency. Here, the matter of freedom of media comes into play. Realizing the significance of free media's role in promoting accountability and transparency, the previous US Secretary of State Condoleezza Rice once said, 'there is no more important pillar than a free and active press, what American "founding father" Thomas Jefferson called "the fourth estate."¹³

According to a USAID report¹⁴ there are two major reasons behind the significance of free media in a democratic society:

- A free media ensures that citizens make responsible, informed choices rather than acting out of ignorance or misinformation.
- Second, information serves a "checking function" by ensuring that elected representatives uphold their oaths of office and carry out the wishes of those who elected them.¹⁵

Indeed, in theory, freedom of media is instrumental in ensuring democratic practices and good governance. However, globally, freedom of media to operate by its own will was obstructed time to time or media was influenced heavily through its productions i.e. news, programs, debates, etc. Thus role of media was questioned. Especially during the Iraq war, the role of CNN and BBC was heavily questioned which signified the tension between the occident and orient and fostered the rise of Al-Jazeera.

Bangladesh and the Press Freedom Index 2010

Press freedom index (PFI) is a unique index compiled by international pressure group Reporters without borders for press freedom. Every year since 2002 this pressure group has been launching its PFI to project country position in relation to press freedom. To compile this index, Reporters without Borders, according to its website, prepares a questionnaire with a number of criteria that assess the state of press freedom in each country. It includes every kind of violation directly affecting journalists (such as murders, imprisonment, physical attacks and threats) and news media (censorship, confiscation of newspaper issues, searches and harassment). It includes the degree of impunity enjoyed by those responsible for these press

¹² http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/globalpad/openhouse/interculturalskills/incidents_pdf.

¹³ <http://www.nber.org/chapters/c9984.pdf>, access on 25 November, 2014.

¹⁴ <http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/globalpad/openhouse/interculturalskills/pdf>.

¹⁵ Matthew Gentzkow, Edward L. Glaeser, and Claudia Goldin; *The Rise of the Fourth Estate How Newspapers Became Informative and Why It Mattered*, University of Chicago Press, March 2006.

freedom violations. It also measures the level of self-censorship in each country and the ability of the media to investigate and criticize. Financial pressure, which is increasingly common, is also assessed and incorporated into the final score.

Bangladesh's position in the PFI has been featured since the inception of the concept of PFI in 2002 and it projects an interesting scenario of the country's stance in relation to media freedom globally. For example, in 2002 Bangladesh's position was 118 among 139 countries featured in the PFI whereas in 2003 it came out 143 out of 166 countries. Bangladesh's was downgraded to 151 out of 167 countries in 2004 and 2005 whereas in 2006 the situation improved slightly as it came out 137th out of 168 countries. In 2007 it was 134, in 2008 it was 136, in 2009 it was 121 and in 2010, Bangladesh's global position in terms of media freedom stood at 126 out of 178¹⁶ countries featured in the PFI which shows that the situation is improving somewhat. However, based on the PFI it can be argued that internationally, situation in relation to media freedom in Bangladesh is not at all encouraging, which indicates that good governance in Bangladesh is still facing many challenges. The next section looks at the key reasons behind the constraints of media freedom in Bangladesh.

Legal Bindings

Following an investigation of various laws of the country, it has been found that there is a restriction on the free expression of journalists. Abul Mansur Ahmed in his research titled, *Freedom of the Press and its Constraints: A Study of Press Regulations in Bangladesh*, published from the University of York, Canada finds that:

Some of the provisions of various Acts related to media freedom violates the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and arguably also violates the Constitution of Bangladesh. It goes far beyond what is expected of a democracy in protecting its vital interests. Some provisions of these Acts are incompatible with democratic values and those provisions in various degrees impinge upon press freedom.¹⁷

International Press Institute (IPI), a global organization of editors, media executives and leading journalists which is dedicated to the 'furtherance and safeguarding of press freedom, the protection of freedom of opinion and expression, the promotion of the free flow of news and information, and the improvement of the practices of journalism' finds the following laws in Bangladesh as obstacles to media freedom:

- a. Criminal defamation.
- b. The Special Powers Act of 1974.

¹⁶ <http://cjms.fims.uwo.ca/issues/05-01/ahmed.pdf>, access on October 15, 2014.

¹⁷ <http://cjms.fims.uwo.ca/issues/01-01/ahmed.pdf>, access on 22 November, 2014

IPI's observance of legal bindings related to media freedom in Bangladesh was based on an investigation made by an IPI high mission from November 27 to December 2, 2008 which was in Bangladesh to assess the country's media environment. Mahfuz Anam, the editor of The Daily Star said to that mission that "Criminal defamation is a black law that must be done away with." Indeed, judicial harassment of journalists by way of defamation charges, under sections 500, 501 and 502 of Bangladesh's Penal Code of 1860 and under the Code of Criminal Procedure of 1898,¹⁸ has been common. Similarly, the Special Powers Act of 1974 allows detention of up to 120 days without charge and in the past this law was used to arrest journalists.

Harassment of Journalists

It is a common issue in Bangladesh that hinders growth of media freedom. According to the IPI report:

Sixteen journalists have been killed in Bangladesh since 1998, making the country one of the most dangerous for journalists . . . Some were killed for investigating or exposing illegal activities, while others died at the hands of the security apparatus, in particular the infamous Rapid Action Battalion (RAB).

According to another report, a total of 33 journalists were assaulted in a total of 18 incidents across the country from January to March 2008 which signifies the problems for journalists working in the country.¹⁹

Furthermore, the IPI stresses that impunity with respect to murder of journalists is one of the greatest problems in Bangladesh. According to the report, 'journalists remain under the impression that the government has not taken these murders seriously and has not done enough to discourage or stop attacks against journalists'.

"Politicians don't want to solve the problem. They want to escape the problem," a journalist who has faced persecution by the RAB, most likely in connection with his investigative reports, told IPI. He added that the RAB uses the expression "caught in the crossfire" to refer to the deaths of some journalists at the hands of RAB representatives.

Partisan Journalists

Another problem for news media industry in Bangladesh is journalists' political affiliation. The IPI mission found that there is a deep political polarization that prevails among journalists working in various private news media. The report says, 'Journalists and editors who met with the IPI Mission complained that the media tend to favor either one of the two main political parties -- the Awami League and the BNP -- with great disregard of

¹⁸ The daily New Age, Date September 15, 2014, p – 13.

¹⁹ Ain O Salish Kendra, Human Rights in Bangladesh 2008, Dhaka, 2009, p – 113.

their professional duty of fairness' overlooking the fact that 'good journalism is good business'.

Tension Between Media and Government

There has always been tension between the media and government of Bangladesh. Whenever a news report criticizes government we see government bashing the media, advising it to be more 'objective' and report on 'factual basis'. On the other hand, according to IPI, 'Journalists, in the meantime, felt that politicians fail to understand that holding government to account is one of the fundamental roles of journalism. This means that many politicians fail to appreciate the importance of investigative and independent journalism.' The IPI report stresses that: 'the government is perceived as abusing its power to allocate advertisements by refusing to advertise in newspapers perceived as critical of its policies. This deprives newspapers of an important source of revenue, exercising undue pressure on editorial independence.'

Corporate Ownership and Interest

At present one of the emerging trends in media ownership is that big conglomerates own newspaper and private satellite channels. Theoretically and in practice therefore news media are influenced. As a result in the recent past we saw 'media war' among major national dailies and television channels. Furthermore, since unfortunately advertisements are still a major source of revenue generation, as per a telephone survey conducted by this writer among various business reporters, it has emerged that some news against big multinational companies which provide handsome amount of advertisements to print and electronic media died before publication.

Lack of Professionalism and Incentives

Apart from a few national privately run satellite televisions and newspapers, 'good-wages' for journalists is still a big problem for the news-media industry. Therefore many journalists are reportedly involved in unethical activities.

Apart from the aforementioned constraints, other severe problems such as manipulation in providing news, hurdles in gathering news in rural areas and confiscating licenses of private satellite television channels and radio, limited activity of the Press Council (which is a state assigned institution to look after media accountability in the country, at least in theory), also characterize the news media in Bangladesh.

For a democratic government it is essential to maintain a media, which is free from censorship since media freedom signifies the right of free speech and is crucial for promoting respect for differences of opinions, a key aspect of a democratic society. However, in Bangladesh, despite the media playing a positive role in upholding the democratic values in many aspects, freedom of media is still heavily constrained.

For example, even after the landslide win of Bangladesh Awami League which has formed the government in 2009 with overwhelming support given by the people of Bangladesh after the election held in 2008, we have seen unfortunate clamp down on web-based media promoting citizen journalism and voices of ordinary people. Therefore temporary closure of YouTube and Facebook in addition to closing down of private satellite channel Channel 1 and temporary shutdown of Daily Amar Desh reinforces the fact that media in Bangladesh is still far from being free which brings us near to the point that the democracy and good governance in Bangladesh still has many challenges to overcome where the challenge of media freedom is not a stand-alone factor. It should be kept in mind that crackdown on media has been a normative practice by governments since its inception as a country. The degree and dimension of crackdown, however, varies from regime to regime.

Media can to Help Build Democratic, Capable, Responsive and Accountable States

Different types of states may require different approaches to media support: A helpful way of categorizing the types of media interventions that may be appropriate in different types of states'²⁰ This typology encourages development actors to consider different media interventions according to whether states are closed, in conflict, transitional or stable. It views audience participation as critical to all governance work. Although interventions will differ markedly according to whether states are closed, in conflict, transitional or stable, media has important effects in almost all states.

- In closed states, such as Burma, Zimbabwe or Iran, engaging in overt governance programming may be too sensitive. Instead, governance messaging can be integrated into programming by focusing on 'softer' issues like health and education, for example by exploring service delivery. At the same time, these activities can also lead to skills transfer (e.g. computer assisted journalism, importance of balanced presentation of facts drawn from multiple sources). Drama can be a useful format for exploring issues too sensitive for discussion in factual formats. And in some cases external programming (a radio and web initiative aimed at engaging youth) can create a platform accessible to those inside a closed country. Opportunities also exist for supporting external exiled media who can help mediate the public space when closed states open up.
- In conflict and emergency states, media work may focus primarily on providing lifeline programming (such as Darfur Lifeline in Sudan) designed to help audiences survive; however where possible conflict

²⁰ BBC World Service Trust (www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/trust/index.shtml), access on February 27, 2013.

resolution and peace-building messaging can be integrated into this programming. Authority may also consider working with or creating local media platforms – radio in particular that give voice to affected populations and in turn give credibility among affected populations to the messaging that may come from productions from the international community. Life critical information programming can be made to evolve over time into programming that has governance dimensions for actors in conflict and disaster zones.

- In states in transition, it may be appropriate to support long-term, large scale initiatives focusing on media reconstruction and capacity building, media regulation, increasing dialogue and debate, and building legal structures to protect independent journalism. Media support in the context of elections (e.g. media support for public debate and election monitoring, independent media monitoring by civil society and others) can be particularly important. There may be continuing government control leading to opposition voices being excluded from media. To address the latter requires high standards of professionalism (such as objectivity and fairness) known and implemented by all media, and supported by transparent institutions and regulatory processes. In such instances, an appropriate focus may be on national policy, legislation and regulatory institutions for media that can foster democratic development and meet the needs of poor and marginalized people. Media can emerge and change rapidly in states in transition, normally in response to market demand. Understanding these changes and supporting appropriate regulatory responses can help strengthen citizen-state relationships.
- As states become more stable, the focus shifts to facilitating governance through public service broadcasting support, media policy advice, budget monitoring programming, and support to dialogue and debate.

A diverse, dynamic and free media is vital for good governance and development. Free and independent media (radio, TV, newspapers, internet etc.) provide a critical check on state abuse of power or corruption. Media can facilitate informative and inclusive public debate on issues of concern to people living in poverty and give greater public recognition to the perspectives of marginalized citizens. Finally Media can strengthen internal mechanism of government and accountable the state to the citizen and support the improvement of state services as well as its proper distribution.

Policy Recommendations for Media Freedom in Bangladesh

In order to provide a free-media environment in the country, I would recommend the following:

Firstly, the authorities are required to react positively to the journalists' criticism, bearing in mind that they are not rivals but co-workers in ensuring

a democratic government in the country where criticism is good for a healthy democracy. The legal authorities should ensure that all Bangladeshi laws meet international standards on press freedom and are in line with the spirit and intent of Article 39 of the Bangladeshi Constitution.

Secondly, laws and practices of law-enforcers which go against the well-being of journalists must stop. Harassment of journalists will not bring any good results.

Thirdly, owners of media must emphasize on building an institution rather than using it as a tool for serving their business interests. At the same time, corporate influence on the media must be reduced as it is against the spirit of free media in the country.

Fourthly, an independent watchdog should be formed overlooking media freedom and its activities.

Finally, journalists should be offered common ground to develop independent and voluntary codes of conduct affirming fair, balanced and accurate journalism. Here financial reward in a competitive market for journalists and elimination of partisan journalism are critical factors.

Conclusion

Despite so many constraints, Bangladeshi media played a brave and praiseworthy role in upholding democratic and good governance values in the country whether it was during the time of illegal army regimes or autocratic democratic regime. Whether or not the media can promote good governance also depends on the media themselves. A UNESCO publication on Media and Good Governance (2005) clearly reveals what the media should be. The main responsibility of the media is to provide comprehensive, analytical and factual news and opinion to the people on every day issues and event of popular concern. To fulfill its duty and responsibility, media must work according to the fundamental principles of professional ethics as well as norms and values of journalism. The areas that media should cover are Press freedom, Right to Information and freedom of expression, Accuracy and Objectivity, Impartiality and Diversity of Opinion, Fairness, Violence, Crime and Anti-social Behavior, Protection of the Underprivileged, Political Impartiality, and Election. Therefore, a patriotic government and media owners must realize the potential of media freedom for a democratic society and take necessary measures to lessen legal, political and business controls over media.

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19. Freedom of Mass Media in Bangladesh: A Quest for Legal Barriers

Sharmin Akter

Introduction

It was not long ago when great philosophers used to choose their unique set of disciples to transmit their own unique thoughts and views. At their time they could not disseminate their magically astonishing philosophy to the whole world, just because Mass Media was not as prevalent as today. The role of Mass Media is such enforcing that it can transit and carry any idea to a huge number of people within a blink of an eye. Oppressors and tyrants have always been intimidated by the fact that media can create revolutions because it provides the mass a strong voice.¹ Therefore, it is quite habitual and inbred for the despotic rulers' to enforce the media to be confined within a prescribed zone in order to avoid any sort of hindrance to their autocracy. Bangladesh is also not an exception. Starting from the British colonial regime till now it is witnessing unfair constraint upon the container of information that is Mass Media and those restrictions have always been legalized by different legislations. The Legal enactments are made in such a way that those can be used to put the entire media inside the government's cage.

In this article, a statistical analysis has been carried out to assess the degree of freedom of Mass Media and Freedom of Expression in Bangladesh compared to other neighboring countries. Instead of using perception based approach, points are dependent upon numeric analysis method based on global survey report from relevant expert organizations to determine relative position of freedom of expression in Bangladesh compared to other countries. Later, a historical background of concerned laws and amendments in three distinct tenures; British period, Pakistan regime and post-independence democratic tenure has also been discussed to find out the hidden shackles and latent legal barriers. At last, some recommendations have been annexed which may ensure the desired Freedom of Mass Media for the greater interest of the people and the country as well.

Definition: Freedom of Mass Media

Mass Media means, ways of communication, through which people send and receive information that reaches and influences a large number of

¹ Dahlgren, Peter. *Media and Political Engagement*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009.

people,² and Freedom of Mass Media means when such flow of information is uninterrupted and without intimidation . Freedom of Mass Media, Freedom of Expression, Freedom of Speech, Right to Communication, Right to Information and Access to Information are intertwined and synonymous.³ Before any human rights declarations or treaties had been adopted, the United Nations General Assembly adopted resolution 59(I) stating-

"Freedom of information is a fundamental human right and ... the touchstone of all the freedoms to which the United Nations is consecrated."

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, (UDHR) proudly states -

“Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people”⁴

Again article 18 and Article 19 of the UDHR preserves the global right to freedom of expression, which says- Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.⁵

It is also the constitutional right of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh to enjoy the solemn right to freedom of expression.⁶

Methods to Assess Freedom of Mass Media

There are several frameworks for statistical indexing degree of freedom of media and expression. Most popular indexing organizations are:

1. Freedom of the Press and freedom of the net conducted by Freedom House.
2. Reporters sans Frontiers (RSF) or Reporters without Borders (RWB).⁷

² Defining the Mass Media, www.sociology.org.uk/media_defined.pdf

³ State and Media in Thailand During Political Transition, http://www.academia.edu/415707/State_and_Media_in_Thailand_During_Political_Transition, last visited on 12.11.2014.

⁴ Mendel, Toby. "Freedom of information as an internationally protected human right." London: Article 19 (2000).

⁵ Glendon, Mary Ann. "Knowing the Universal Declaration of Human Rights." Notre Dame L. Rev. 73 (1997): 1153.

⁶ Islam, Mohammad Tarikul. "Freedom of Press in Democracy: Bangladesh perspective." Asian affairs 29.3 (2007): 44-60.

⁷ Becker, Lee B., and Tudor Vlad. "Linking elite measures of media freedom and public opinion data: A validation exercise.", World Journalism Education Conference, Grahamstown, South Africa. 2010.

Freedom House

Freedom House is a U.S.-based non-governmental organization (NGO) that conducts research on Freedom of the Press and Freedom of the Net, which monitor censorship, intimidation and violence against Journalists and public access to information inter alia among 190 countries throughout the world⁸. It provides numerical rankings and rates each country's media as "Free"(0-30), "Partly Free"(31-60), or "Not Free"(61-100).⁹ It conducts survey on the basis of legal environment, political environment, and the economic environment of a country.¹⁰ Freedom on the Net measures the level of internet and digital media freedom. Each country receives a status of Free (0-30 points), partly Free (31-60 points), or Not Free (61-100 points) based on numerical scores.¹¹

Reporters Sans Frontiers (RSF) or Reporters Without Borders (RWB):

Reporters Without Borders (RWB), or Reporters Sans Frontières (RSF), are France-based international organization that promotes and defends freedom of information and freedom of the press.¹² The organization has consultant status at the United Nations.¹³ RWB compiles and publishes report on annual ranking of countries based upon a survey that asks questions about direct attacks on journalists and the media as well as other indirect sources of pressure against the free press. Bloggers, and citizen journalists killed or imprisoned during a year is also a concern of survey.¹⁴

An Assessment of Freedom of Media: Context Bangladesh

Bangladesh has been witnessing a rapid growth of Mass Media from the beginning of 21st century. According to the Ministry of Information of the Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh there are 41 private television channels, 4 FM Radio channels and 14 permitted Community Radio Channels¹⁵ and more than 100 news papers in Bangladesh. The number of online news outlets, including news websites and internet-based

⁸ " House, Freedom." Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. Wikimedia Foundation, Inc. 27 May 2014. Web. 20 Jun. 2014.

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Freedom_House).

⁹ House, Freedom. "Freedom in the World 2013." Democratic breakthroughs in the balance (2013).

¹⁰ House, Freedom. "Freedom of the Press." (2014).

(<http://www.freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-press/freedom-press-2014>).

¹¹ House, Freedom. "Freedom on the Net 2012." (2012).

¹² Pearson, Mark. "Category Archives: Media freedom".

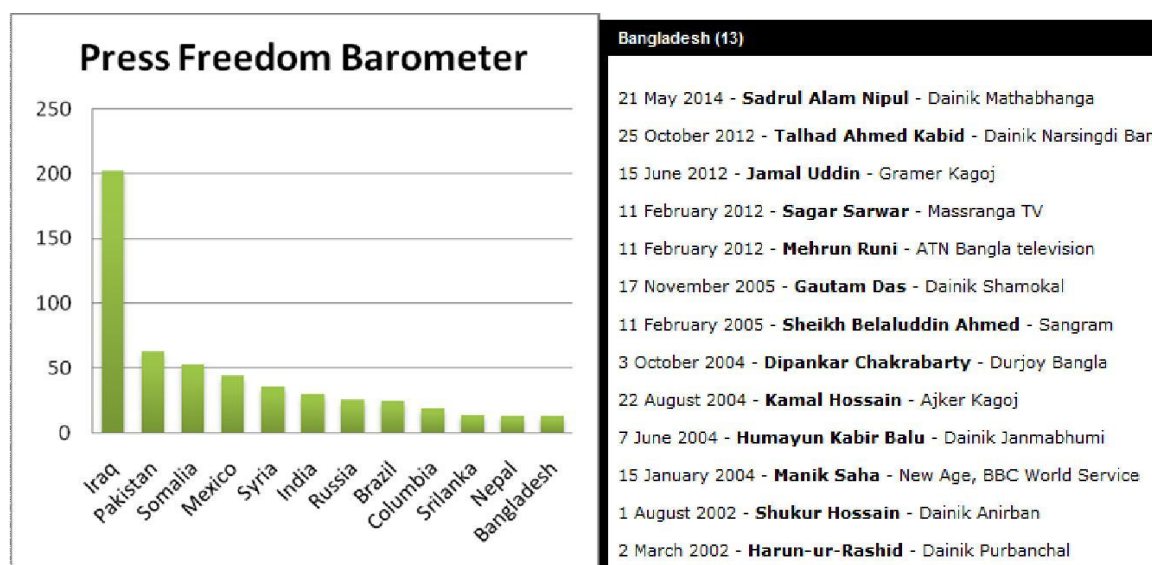
¹³ Reporters Without Borders ."Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. Wikimedia Foundation, Inc. 12 May 2014 . Web. 20 Jun. 2014.

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reporters_Without_Borders).

¹⁸ Seeman, Neil. "Measuring a free press." Fraser Forum. Retrieved December. Vol. 7. 2003.

¹⁵ Ministry of Information of The Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, <http://www.moi.gov.bd/#>.

radio stations, has increased dramatically, as has use of major social-networking sites such as Face book. Though observing the rapid growth apparently it may deem that Mass Media is having the golden time but the reality is, the growth is quantitative only not qualitative. Access to the internet is generally unrestricted but the government can monitor internet activity. Some journalists' E-mail accounts are reportedly watched by police.¹⁶ According to the Freedom of press report 2014, conducted by Freedom House Bangladesh index is 54 which symbolizes partly free while index of china, India, Pakistan, Srilanka, Maldives, Nepal, Afghanistan, Malaysia , Indonesia and USA are 84, 39,64, 76, 55, 55 ,66 ,64,49 and 21 respectively while greater index symbolizes lesser freedom. Reports of RWB show that Bangladesh is the 11th worst country in terms of harassment, murder or extra judicial killing of journalists out of 67 countries where Iraq is the worst one and Nepal is nearest to Bangladesh. Figures provided below, illustrate relative position of Bangladesh and shows that around the country 13 journalists have been killed from the year 2002-2014¹⁷



The Press Freedom Index, an annual ranking of countries, compiled and published by RWB reflects the degree of freedom that journalists, news organizations, and netizens enjoy in each country, The following table contains a comparative statistic of Press Freedom from the year 2002-2014 which indicates that the position of Bangladesh is close to least free.¹⁸

¹⁶ House, Freedom. "Freedom of the Press." (2014).

(<http://www.freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-press/freedom-press-2014>).

¹⁷ RWB. "Press Freedom Barometer 2014", (2014). (<http://en.rsf.org/press-freedom-barometer-journalists-killed.html>).

¹⁸ "Press Freedom Index", Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. Wikimedia Foundation, Inc. 12 May 2014. Web. 22 Jun. 2014, (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Press_Freedom_Index).

Historical Background: Legal Perspective

Laws, amendments and ordinance related to freedom of expression in Bangladesh are greatly influenced, derived or inherited from British colonial period (1799-1947) and Pakistan regime (1947-1971). Therefore in order to fully realize the wider aspect of the basic spirit of the constitutional rights and regulations relevant to freedom of expression, it is imperative to have a meticulous view at the historical background.

The British colonial rule: Press Laws and Regulations (1799 -1947)


Censorship Law (1799)











The Censorship of Press Act, 1799, imposed almost wartime press restrictions including pre-censorship with the sole intention to minimize the French propaganda and articulation of news against the British Company in sub-continent. This Act enforced government scrutiny and control over any piece of information before publication. This Act was later generalized in 1807 for all kinds of press such as newspapers, magazine, books etc.¹⁹

Censorship Law Modifications (1813)

Lord Hastings slightly modified the Censorship Law (1799) in 1813 and, thus, began an era of free press. As a consequence, new journals sprouted out immediately.²⁰

Regulations for Registration (1823)

Most free →  → Least free

Country	2014	2013	2012	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002
 United States ^[c]	(046) 23.49	(032) 18.22	(047) 14.00	(020) 6.75	(020) 4.00	(036) 8.00	(048) 14.50	(053) 13.00	(044) 9.50	(022) 4.00	(031) 6.00	(017) 4.75
 South Korea	(057) 25.66	(050) 24.48	(044) 12.67	(042) 13.33	(069) 15.67	(047) 9.00	(039) 12.13	(031) 7.75	(034) 7.50	(048) 11.13	(049) 9.17	(039) 10.50
 Nepal	(120) 36.16	(118) 34.61	(106) 38.75	(119) 36.38	(118) 35.63	(138) 43.25	(137) 53.75	(159) 73.50	(160) 86.75	(160) 84.00	(150) 51.50	(127) 63.00
 Afghanistan	(128) 37.07	(128) 37.36	(150) 74.00	(147) 51.67	(149) 54.25	(156) 59.25	(142) 56.50	(130) 44.25	(125) 39.17	(097) 28.25	(134) 40.17	(104) 35.50
 Indonesia	(132) 38.15	(139) 41.05	(146) 68.00	(117) 35.83	(100) 28.50	(111) 27.00	(100) 30.50	(103) 26.00	(102) 26.00	(117) 37.75	(110) 34.25	(057) 20.00
 Bangladesh	(146) 42.58	(144) 42.01	(129) 57.00	(126) 42.50	(121) 37.33	(136) 42.70	(134) 53.17	(137) 48.00	(151) 61.25	(151) 62.50	(143) 46.50	(118) 43.75
 Pakistan	(158) 51.46	(159) 51.31	(151) 75.00	(151) 56.17	(159) 65.67	(152) 54.88	(152) 64.83	(157) 70.33	(150) 60.75	(150) 61.75	(128) 39.00	(119) 44.67
 Sri Lanka	(165) 59.13	(162) 56.59	(163) 87.50	(158) 62.50	(162) 75.00	(165) 78.00	(156) 67.50	(141) 50.75	(115) 33.25	(109) 36.50	(089) 24.83	(051) 15.75
 China	(175) 72.91	(173) 73.07	(174) 136.00	(171) 84.67	(168) 84.50	(167) 85.50	(163) 89.00	(163) 94.00	(159) 83.00	(162) 92.33	(161) 91.25	(138) 97.00
 India	(140) 40.34	(140) 41.22	(131) 58.00	(122) 38.75	(105) 29.33	(118) 30.00	(120) 39.33	(105) 26.50	(106) 27.00	(120) 38.50	(128) 39.00	(080) 26.50

The then Government reincarnated new regulations in March 1823 that implied that no press was to be established nor any paper or book printed without prior license from the Government. In respect of the strong protest of Indians like Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Dwarka Nath Tagore finally, Sir

¹⁹ Basu, Aparimita. "Media Laws-An Overview." ims. 2009.

²⁰ Palmer, Geoff. Heroes Or Villains: The British in India. Australian eBook Publisher, 2013.

Charles Metcalfe cancelled these regulations in 1835. As a result, the Indian press became as free as its counterpart in England was.²¹

Press Act of 1835 or Metcalfe Act

After repealing the obnoxious ordinance of 1823, the new Press Act (1835) was enacted. This Act required a printer or publisher to give a precise account of premises of a publication and cease functioning, if required by a similar declaration.²²

Licensing Act, 1857

Due to the emergency caused by the 1857 revolt, this Act imposed licensing restrictions in addition to the already existing registration procedure laid down by Metcalfe Act and the Government reserved the right to stop publication and circulation of any book, newspaper or printed matter.²³

Registration Act, 1867

This replaced Metcalfe's Act of 1835 was of a regulatory, not restrictive, nature. As per the Act, (i) every book/newspaper was required to print the name of the printer and the publisher and the place of the publication; and (ii) a copy was to be submitted to the local government within one month of publication.²⁴

Vernacular Press Act (1878)

The 'Vernacular Press Act' 1878 allowed the government to clamp down on the publication of vernacular language writings deemed seditious and to impose punitive sanctions on printers and publishers who failed to fall in line. This Act was enacted with an aim to prevent the vernacular press from expressing criticism of British policies. It elicited strong protests from a wide spectrum of the Indian populace.

Newspapers (Incitement to Offences) Act (1908)

The 'Newspapers (Incitement to Offences) Act, 1908 authorized local authorities to take action against the editor of any newspaper that published matter deemed to constitute an incitement to rebellion.²⁵

Indian Press Act (1910)

The Indian Press Act 1910 revived almost all the features of the Vernacular Press Act. Certain images and elements were considered inflammatory for steady British governance were proscribed, and it provided them with a power of representation on a hitherto impossible scale.

²¹ Berriedale Keith, Arthur. "Constitutional history of India 1600-1935." (1936).

²² Mondal, Puja. 'History And Development Of Indian Press And Press Acts'. Yourarticlelibrary.com. N. p., 2014. Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

(<http://www.yourarticlelibrary.com/history/history-and-development-of-indian-press-and-press-acts/23717>)

²³ *ibid.*

²⁴ *ibid.*

²⁵ *Ibid.*

Official Secrets Act (1923)

In 1923 the most stringent law came in the form of the Official Secrets Act (OSA). This prohibited the publication of classified official information, the disclosure of which is likely to affect the sovereignty and security of the State, or friendly relations with foreign States.²⁶

Indian Press (Emergency Power) (1931)

Indian Press Act was passed in 1931, which gave wide ranging powers to the provisional governments to suppress any publication that undermined the government's authority during the civil disobedience movement. Any word, signs or visible representation, which incite or encourage the commission of any offence was made punishable under this Act.²⁷

Pakistan Regime: Press Laws and Regulations (1947-1971)

Security of Pakistan Act 1952

The Security of Pakistan Act gave the Government the power to require an editor, publisher, or printer to disclose the source and to prohibit the publication, sale or distribution of a document and to forfeit the same if it is of the opinion that the document contains matter likely to endanger the defense, external affairs or security of Pakistan. Under it any police officer may be authorized to carry out a search and seizure operation. The law also empowers the government to impose pre-censorship.²⁸

Martial Law 1958

In the constitution of 1956, article 19 was specifically devoted to freedom of speech, expression and freedom of press.²⁹ This Constitution lasted less than three years and was abrogated by the imposition of Martial Law in October 1958.³⁰

Presses and Publications Ordinance in 1960

According to the ordinance, the government had been empowered to ask for security deposits from printing presses for publishing newspapers or books as well as for issuing objectionable material as defined by the ordinance.

²⁶ Jha, Tilak. 'Mass Comm. & Journalism: The Major Press Laws Enacted During The British Period, Write In Detail About The 1867 Press And Registration Of Books Act And The Vernacular Press Act.'

(<http://netjrfmasscomm.blogspot.com/2010/04/major-press-laws-enacted-during-british.html>)

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ Rehman, I.A. 'Freedom Of Expression In Conflict Situations: Pakistan, A Tradition Of Information Control'. Pppusa.org. N. p., 2014. Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

²⁹ The Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan,
<http://www.parliament.am/library/sahmanadrutyunner/pakistan.pdf>

³⁰ Iqbal, Zafar. "Pakistan's Press and Politics in the First Decade (1947-58): An Analysis in Structural-Functionalist Perspective".

Any writing which opposed recruitment to the armed forces or the police forces or which might undermine their discipline and administration would be liable to action under this ordinance. The ordinance conferred powers on the government to seize or destroy unauthorized published news-sheets and to detain their packages and prohibit the transmission.³¹

Presses and Publications (Amendment) Ordinance 1963

This law empowered the government to confiscate newspapers, close down news providers, and arrest journalists, and thus made the government sovereign upon the Mass Media.³²

National Press Trust 1964

From 1964, the National Press Trust acted as the government's front to control the press. In certain cases, when news media did not comply with the directives imparted by the military administration, they were simply taken over.³³

Critical Analysis of Major Relevant Laws in Bangladesh

Bangladesh is a democratic country where Freedom of thought, conscience, speech and Freedom of Press is declared as fundamental rights by the Constitution of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, but at the same time, these fundamental rights are restrained by the Constitution itself. According to the Article 39 of the Constitution these rights are subjected to 'reasonable restrictions'.³⁴ Now the problem is there is no specific definition of the term 'reasonable restrictions' so government can enact any law to suppress the Mass Media by abusing this expansive term. In addition to Article 39, this Constitution also contains article 7A, incorporated by the 15th amendment of the Constitution which says that- 'If any person subverts or attempts or conspires to subvert the confidence, belief or reliance of the citizens to this Constitution or any of its article or abets or instigates any such act or supports or ratifies such act shall be guilty of sedition and be sentenced with highest punishment'.³⁵ So it is treated as a big threat for the Freedom of Expression and if any journalist publishes any news regarding criticism of

³¹ InpaperMagazine, From. 'Excerpt: Freedom Of Expression'. Dawn.com. N. p., 2010. Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

³² M. Mezzera and S. Sial. Media and governance in Pakistan: A controversial yet essential relationship. Technical report, IFP Democratization and Transitional Justice Cluster(Country Case Study: Pakistan), 2010.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ The Constitution of the People's Republic Of Bangladesh, http://bdlaws.minlaw.gov.bd/sections_detail.php?id=367§ions_id=41503.

³⁵ Ibid.

the Constitution, he or she may be subjected to highest punishment that is death penalty under article 7A. So it is shocking that Freedom of Mass Media is not well protected by the supreme law of the land. Not only the constitution, but also there are a good number of legislations presently existing that contain some provisions which may curtail the freedom of Mass Media. The Legislations are discussed below;

Penal Code 1860

The Penal Code of 1860 (Act No. XLV of 1860) prescribes punishment for offences committed within and beyond Bangladesh which endanger the national security, the public peace and the public morale and in the name of doing so it contains some provisions which may be used to harm the Freedom of Mass Media if intended. Sections 153A and 153B of the Penal Code (PC) provide that expressions promoting enmity between classes or inciting students to take part in violent political activity call for penal action. Section 295A of the Code provides punishment for expressions which hurt religious feelings of the citizens of Bangladesh. Section 171G provides punishment for furnishing false statements in connection with an election. Sections 292 and 293 prescribe punishment for obscene publications. Similarly Sections 499 and 501 deal with the offences of defamation and libel. Furthermore, the punishment for this type of offence has been made more severe by requiring a sentence of two years to seven years.³⁶ So, these may create impediment for Freedom of Expression and free flow of information.

By amendment of the Penal Code, some more provisions against freedom of thought, opinion, expression and press are incorporated. Section 505(b) of the same law forbids any report or statement against the state which is an undemocratic obstacle to people's freedom of expression.³⁷ Section 80, also Sections 499, 500 and 501 of the Code of 1860 are deterrents to press freedom as well. According to Section 124A of the Code, a person can be punished with imprisonment for three years or fine if he expresses dissatisfaction against the Government.³⁸ So lots of provisions are here which can be easily abused to curtail; the desired freedom of Mass Media.

Code of Criminal Procedure 1898

The Code of Criminal Procedure, (CrPC) 1898 (Act No V of 1898) was introduced to define acceptable procedures relating to the investigation and trial for criminal offences, which also contains provisions to restrict the

³⁶ Media, Democracy and Human Rights in Bangladesh,
<http://www.biliabd.org/article%20intl/Vol-08/Jesmul%20Hasan.pdf>.

³⁷ Ibid.

³⁸ The Penal Code, 1860(ACT NO. XLV OF 1860),
http://bdlaws.minlaw.gov.bd/print_sections_all.php?id=11.

Mass Media.³⁹ The Code of Criminal Procedure (Third amendment) Ordinance, 1991, incorporated Section 99A which empowers the government to forfeit newspapers containing seditious matter or matters that promote feelings of hatred between classes or outrage the religious feelings of the citizens or matters, which are defamatory of the President or the Prime Minister or the Speaker of Parliament or the Chief Justice and to issue search warrants for seizing them. The penalty for breaking this law is imprisonment which may extend to 2 years.⁴⁰ So these provisions create scope to control the Mass Media.

Official Secrets Act 1923

In Bangladesh there are laws which actually permit public officials to decline to disclose information to the Mass Media. The most notorious of these is the Official Secrets Act (OSA) [Chapter XIII & Act No XIX] of 1923. The Act has a British colonial inheritance which is the exact replica of the (English) Official Secrets Act 1911. Sections 3, 3(1), 5, 5(2), set out the prohibitions and offences which pertain to journalistic performance. The primary purpose of the legislation is to protect the secrets of the state which include matters related primarily to defense and economic interests. Though the intention of the legislation is seemingly justifiable but the composition of the OSA in Bangladesh supersedes any democratic principles.⁴¹

It is tempting for government departments to use the Official Secrets Act to prevent publication of information merely because any kind of disclosure could be potentially embarrassing. It has too often been used by various administrations to suppress the freedom of the press. It is regrettable that the press behavior has not been empowered in law or given special privileges in regard to accessing official information or public documents. As the OSA stands, government officials cannot pass information to the media without authorization. When the media need information from specific departments, they have to put their questions in writing and these questions have to be sent to the Ministry of Information which in turn forwards them to concerned departments. The process as one might gather is quite restricting.⁴²

To promote free flow of information, the amendments to the Official Secrets Act on access to information should be drafted in such a way that it

³⁹ Ahmed, Abul Mansur, Freedom of the Press and its Constraints: A Study of Press Regulations in Bangladesh, <http://cjms.fims.uwo.ca/issues/01-01/ahmed>.

⁴⁰ The Code Of Criminal Procedure, 1898 (ACT NO. V OF 1898).
http://bdlaws.minlaw.gov.bd/print_sections_all.php?id=75.

⁴¹ Ahmed, Abul Mansur, Freedom of the Press and its Constraints: A Study of Press Regulations in Bangladesh, <http://cjms.fims.uwo.ca/issues/01-01/ahmed>.

⁴² Ibid.

does not create offences or potential offences which have nothing to do with the interests of security, defense, international relations and crime prevention. It should be drafted genuinely.⁴³

Printing Presses and Publications Act 1973

The introduction of licensing system for the newspapers in the subcontinent dates back to British colonial rule. Moving into more modern times, we see that the Printing Presses and Publications (Declaration and Registration) Act, 1973 (Act No. XXIII of 1973) passed to provide for the legality of keeping of printing presses, and the printing and publication of newspaper and for registration of books. The 1973 law has vested the authority of issuing and canceling the license. The legislation empowers the District Magistrates in Section 20 of the Act to cancel the authentication of the declaration and under Section 20A the Government may declare certain publications forfeited and to issue search warrants to enforce such activity⁴⁴

There have been some deviations in the application of the Printing presses and Publications (Declaration and Registration) Act, 1973. These deviations are customarily made, generally to serve the purpose of the executive branch of government and others who may be exercising administrative powers. It should be noted here that under Section 12 of the Act, the District Magistrate holds power to authenticate any declaration and he is the sole and final authority in this respect, but now in Bangladesh in practice, any application is sent to the Ministry of Home Affairs which decides after police enquiry whether a declaration shall be authenticated and the newspaper be permitted to be published. Undoubtedly, this is a gross deviation from the provisions of existing laws. It can be argued that, decisions are made on political as opposed to professional considerations. The Government of (1996-2001), inserted the provision of oath or affirmation in the law, forcing publisher/printer to an undertaking that he/she will not publish/print anything against the interest of the Government. This was undemocratic behavior of a democratically elected Government.⁴⁵ In the final analysis, this kind of activity clearly supports the trend of limiting the publication of newspapers and periodicals by the government. The consequence of this law is that the journalists will not be able to express the independent opinion. There will be only a blue print

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ Media, Democracy and Human Rights in Bangladesh,
<http://www.biliabd.org/article%20intl/Vol-08/Jesmul%20Hasan.pdf>.

⁴⁵ Ibid.

filled in with the praises for the government. So to ensure free flow of information the provisions of law should be media friendly and in practice government should have a positive look towards Freedom of Expression.

Special Powers Act 1974

The use and abuse of the Special Powers Act 1974 (SPA) in the name of protecting security interests has resulted in a steady pattern of violation of Freedom of Media. Section 2(f) of this Act contains the expansive definitions of "prejudicial acts" which means any act which is intended or likely to prejudice- the sovereignty or defense of Bangladesh or friendly relations of Bangladesh with foreign states or the security of Bangladesh or public safety and order or economic or financial interests of the State, and it also includes anything which may- create or excite feelings of enmity or hatred between different communities or classes of people or interfere with the maintenance of law and order. So any publication or broadcast which is against the interest of government can be interpreted as "prejudicial acts" because of the vagueness of the term and thereby the publisher or journalist can be subjected to detention under this Act.⁴⁶ Many scholars have also echoed the view that this Special Powers Act legislation contains some undemocratic clauses which hinder freedom of expression and the press and are thus an impediment to democracy itself.⁴⁷

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Act 2006

Today's world is more interconnected than ever before and due to increased connectivity risk of high-tech crimes, including cyber-based terrorism have also been increased. Witnessing high trade of cyber crime, almost every country has some sort of laws against cybercrime or to regulate Information and Communication Technology (ICT). And there is nothing wrong in it, but the question is what should be in the laws, how the law should be imposed, or who should be identified as law breakers?⁴⁸ Cybercrimes and other related activities have to be closely identified.⁴⁹ The ICT (2006) of Bangladesh contains some provisions which themselves are vague and can be misused to curtail Right to Information, Freedom of Expression and Freedom of Mass Media as well.

⁴⁶ Special Powers Act 1974,

http://bdlaws.minlaw.gov.bd/print_sections_all.php?id=462

⁴⁷ Khan, Adilur Rahman. 'New Age | Newspaper'. Newagebd.com. N. p., 2011. Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

(http://newagebd.com/newspaper1/archive_details.php?date=2011-12-29&nid=45087).

⁴⁸ Biswas, Ripan Kumar. 'Proposed ICT Law And Freedom Of Expression'. Newagebd.com. N. p., 2014. Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

⁴⁹ The Daily Star, Liberty at risk: Amending ICT law, Published: Monday, September 23, 2013. <http://archive.thedailystar.net/beta2/news/liberty-at-risk-amending-ict-law/>

The first problem lies on the definition of offence under this Act. Section 57 of the law defines crime as willful publication on websites or any other electronic platform any material which is false, vulgar or which can motivate someone or defame someone, cause deterioration of law and order or the image of the state or individuals can be tarnished or hurt religious sentiments.⁵⁰ So now the question is how the government would determine who would be prosecuted under this section? Abusing this definition any innocent opinion can be targeted. In addition to the incompatibility with the freedom of expression, according to the technical expert, government would not be able to tackle cybercrimes with this kind of inefficient Act.⁵¹ Moreover the Information and Communication Technology (amendment) Act, 2013 has serious deviations from international law, including: the amendments make many offences under the Act non-bail able; they allow the police to make arrests without a warrant; they impose a severe minimum prison sentence of seven years for offences under the Act which may extend to 14 years' or fine which may vary from five lac (0.5 million) to 1 crore (10 million BDT) or both.⁵²

Provisions of the original ICT Act, particularly section 57, are also incompatible with Bangladesh's obligations under Article 19 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR). The offences prescribed here are vague and overbroad; the restrictions imposed on freedom of opinion and expression go beyond what is permissible under Article 19(3) of the ICCPR; and the restrictions are not necessary and proportional to achieve a legitimate purpose.⁵³ Because of these defective provisions already a number of people have become victim for expressing their opinion. The Act of 2006 and the ICT Amendment Act 2013 reflect attack on the rule of law and respect for human rights in Bangladesh⁵⁴

⁵⁰ "The Information and Communication Technology Act, 2006." . Ministry of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs. Web. 08 October 2006, (http://boi.gov.bd/components/com_businesslaws/attach/66.%20The%20Information%20and%20Communication%20Technology%20Act%202006.pdf).

⁵¹ Biswas, Ripan Kumar. 'Proposed ICT Law And Freedom Of Expression'. Newagebd.com. N. p., 2014. Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

⁵² Rahman, M. Mahbubur. 'ICT (Amendment) Act, 2013: Right To Information And Freedom Of Expression Under Threat - Ain O SalishKendra (ASK) | A Legal Aid & Human Rights Organisation'. Ain o Salish Kendra(ASK) | A Legal Aid & Human Rights Organisation. N. p.,2013. Web. 23Jun. 2014.

⁵³ 'Bangladesh: Information And Communication Technology Act, Draconian Assault On Free Expression | ICJ'. N. p., 2013. Web. 23 Jun. 2014 <http://www.icj.org/bangladesh-information-and-communication-technology-act-draconian-assault-on-free-expression/>.

⁵⁴ Ibid.

Apart from these legal limitations there are some technical limitations too. Cyber Tribunals established under Section 68(1) of the Act shall be constituted by a Session Judge or an Additional Session Judge and the investigation of such a crime shall be done by a police officer not below the rank of a Sub-Inspector.⁵⁵ Here the problem is that judges, lawyers and investigating officers are not experts of technology. So journalist may have fear to be prosecuted for the limitations of the system.

Under this Act the definition of crime should be clarified at first and the provisions regarding punishment and procedure deserve another consideration for the well protection of Freedom of Expression in addition to this the Judges, Lawyers and the police officer related to the Tribunal should be trained in technological knowledge to ensure justice.

Right to Information Act 2009

Right to Information Act followed by Right to Information Ordinance 2008 has been enacted to ensure one of the fundamental rights that is Right to Information. But The Act has a lot of areas kept unclear which can easily lead to confusion and misunderstanding.

Under section 8, any person seeking public information may apply in writing in prescribed forms or by e-mail to the designated officers. Section 5 and 6 provides Preservation and Publication of Information respectively in an appropriate manner as may easily accessible to the citizens,⁵⁶ but here the main problem lies in the manpower and the logistics required implementing it. In this era of digitalization, the manpower needs to be tech savvy as well. Therefore, by what amount of time the information commission along with the authorities concerned would be able to formulate the basic requirements is yet to be understood. The section 7 under chapter 2 of the Act says, no authority shall be obliged to provide information which may hinder national interest if shared in public⁵⁷. An authority unwilling to provide official information might abuse this provision and refrain from giving the required documents to the citizen. Exploitation also has another room through Sub section 9 of section 9 under which an authority may deny giving the full information rather may provide the required information partly to the applicant⁵⁸. Sub-section 5 of section 9 can also cause certain exploitation and manipulation of an information sought through lingering and finally

⁵⁵ “The Information and Communication Technology Act, 2006.” . Ministry of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs. Web. 08 October 2006.
(http://boi.gov.bd/components/com_businesslaws/attach/66.%20The%20Information%20and%20Communication%20Technology%20Act%202006.pdf)

⁵⁶ Right to Information Act 2009,
http://bdlaws.minlaw.gov.bd/bangla_all_sections.php?id=1011. visited on 02.12.14.

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Ibid.

rejecting it. Sub section 10 of section 9 provides where information is required to be provided to a perceptual handicapped, the officer-in-charge shall provide assistance to him⁵⁹ and by the name of providing assistance, the officer-in-charge might become subjective and mislead the recipient. Section 29 accentuates on the determining power of the appellate authority and the information commission.⁶⁰ However, it handicaps the option of placing any case or complaint by the complainant in front of the court. It can be considered as a weakness of the Act since judiciary deems to be the last resort of a citizen. Besides, the eight institutions in charge of state defense, security and secrecy are excluded from the RTI Act⁶¹. This exclusion limits the power of free and independent media so these areas should be made accessible to the media under special arrangements. More importantly, a watchdog needs to be formed in order to check and control the transparency of the information commission. Chapter 2 section 7 (Publication of or providing with certain types of information not mandatory) deserves a special mention as a specific 20 areas under it are not being made accessible for the mass people.⁶²

National Broadcast Policy 2014

Keeping much scope for the government to misuse the policy in the name of maintaining standard of news, programmes and advertisements in the electronic media the Cabinet approved the policy on 4th august 2014⁶³. Chapter 3 and chapter 5 of this policy contain lots of vague provisions which stores much scope for any government to curbe the Freedom of Press⁶⁴. It says-Military, Civil, and Public information which may compromise state security or any information which may affect public interest or anything which may create public unrest cannot be broadcast.⁶⁵ It also says that anything demeaning armed force or law enforcement agencies and government officials or anything which may defame any individual

⁵⁹ Ibid.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ Khan, Tusher. 'A Critic On Right To Information Act Of Bangladesh' https://www.academia.edu/4219398/A_Critic_on_Right_to_Information_Act_of_Bangladesh Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

⁶² Ibid.

⁶³ The Daily Star, Strict monitoring, plenty of scope for misuse, published on 12:03 am Tuesday, August 05, 2014, <http://www.thedailystar.net/strict-monitoring-plenty-of-scope-for-misuse-35813>.

⁶⁴ National Broadcasting Policy 2014 - Bangladesh Gazette, <http://www.scribd.com/doc/236134360/Bangladesh-National-Broadcasting-Policy-2014-Bangladesh-GazetteBangladesh>.

⁶⁵ Strict monitoring, plenty of scope for misuse, published on 12:03 am Tuesday, August 05, 2014 <http://www.thedailystar.net/strict-monitoring-plenty-of-scope-for-misuse-35813>.

personally cannot be broadcast.⁶⁶ As none of the provision is specific, broadcasting of anything and everything can be prohibited if intended. So the provisions should be amended with necessary clarification and a practically free information commission should be formed to observe the implementation of this policy. Due to these loopholes, a scope has already been created for the government to establish its supremacy on the Mass Media.

Recommendations

Observing the legal barriers mentioned above it can be argued that the Freedom of Mass Media of Bangladesh is in a vulnerable position. Here some general recommendations have been suggested which may forward the position of Mass Media towards the desired freedom.

- The government should obey their international commitments to the protection of human rights, notably the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.
- Government should amend all legislations that provide for imposing prison sentences on journalists for their publication of news within their professional responsibility.⁶⁷
- A special section should be created within the Ministry of Home Affairs to monitor the processing of complaints filed by assaulted journalists.
- Journalists should be specially empowered to get easy and prompt access to information.
- Unrestricted Internet access and other digital freedoms should be treated as fundamental rights.
- Laws guaranteeing digital freedoms, including the protection of privacy and personal data against intrusions by law enforcement and intelligence agencies should be adopted and appropriate mechanisms of legal recourse should be established.
- It should be ensured that communications surveillance measures strictly respect the principles of legality, need and proportionality.
- The government should highly emphasize on the effective investigation of all acts of violence against journalists and identify the masterminds of murders of journalists committed.

⁶⁶ CPJ committee to project journalist, Restrictive broadcast policy in Bangladesh raises concerns, <https://cpj.org/blog/2014/08/concerns-following-approval-of-restrictive-broadca.php>.

⁶⁷ En.rsrf.org., 'Rapports De Mission - Escalating Violence Threatens Press Freedom - Reporters Without Borders'. Web. 23 Jun. 2014.

- The journalists should be given protection when they are performing their duty on difficult assignments, including when they cover demonstrations.
- Political pluralism and balanced coverage of news in the national TV channels should be ensured.⁶⁸

Above all, the tendency of the government to control Mass Media should be changed and to assure it, related laws should be more specific and Media friendly and should have practical implication.

Conclusion

The objective of Law is to ensure enjoyment of assured rights and prevent its violation, but where Right to Information, Expression and Freedom of Press are in question somehow such objective moves reverse. Historically it is evident that, British colonial period or Pakistani military controlled regime never actually made any valiant effort in achieving a free Media and Press. After the independence, democratic government also retained governmental supremacy over Mass Media in order to serve its partisan objectives and oppress opposite voices. The relevant laws and amendments illustrated above prove that either Government has nourished all the laws which impede the Freedom of Expression or have misused existing laws to use against Media. On the other perspective, private media sector in Bangladesh are largely dictated by gigantic companies which are also involved in manufacturing, trading, garments and financial services. Some of these companies are attached merely in private media sector as they want to relish the leverage of having a media wing in favor of their interest. Some of the private printing media and broadcast media are influenced, owned or run by active members of political parties. The ownership of the media and its profit motive can also jeopardize Press Freedom as the journalists are compelled to suppress many news stories and to adopt self-censorship to protect the interests of ownership and advertisers. Moreover, apart from few private press and electronic media, journalists are paid with a poor wages which compel them to embrace unethical activities. In a nutshell, factors and shackles impeding free flow of information in Bangladesh is a heterogynous mixture where government, journalists and owners form a vicious circle of interdependent despotism which are being supported or unheard by law because of several loopholes which eventually snatching away the very right to the Freedom of Mass Media.

⁶⁸ Recommendation of RSF, <http://12mars.rsfs.org/2014-en/recommendations/>.

Part Three
Entrepreneurship, E-Governance
and Digital Culture

20. The State of E-Services Delivery in Bangladesh: Assessing Status through Content Analysis of Selected Government Websites

Fouzia Nasreen Sultana
Irin Parvin

Introduction

The use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in the public sector, or e-government as it is known, is playing a critical role in governments' efforts to revitalize public sectors in many countries. Modern ICT is a significant strategic tool for lifting public sector performance, offering benefits of greater efficiencies and effectiveness in government operations and service delivery, improved communication and coordination across organisational boundaries and levels of government, and greater transparency and accountability in government functions. Consequently, over the past 10 to 15 years, governments around the world have utilised information and communication technologies, particularly digital technology (OECD 2009) which has significantly changed the ways in which governments do business with citizens. The potential for further change continues with recent advancements in ICT and with changing societal expectations.

The concept of e-government focuses on the provision of services at the front-end, supported by integration, consolidation and innovation in back-end processes and systems to achieve integrated, client focused service delivery and greater efficiencies (United Nations 2008). Governments are attempting to bundle, integrate and deliver services through more efficient and citizen-centric models encompassing multiple delivery channels. E-government as a whole is delivered via one-stop shops or single government web portals, rather than department specific portals. Modern ICT enables streamlining and integrating services across organizational boundaries and organising e-government services holistically in a straightforward and transparent way with, for example, 'one door entry' to the public sector.

E-government is no longer viewed only as the provision of information or services via the internet but as a way of transforming how citizens interact with government and how government interacts with itself (Rose and Grant 2010). The new social media tools have the potential to transform

public policy processes by making government far more responsive and participatory. Web 2.0 offers unprecedented opportunities to open government decision making to the community allowing citizens to engage more directly and collaboratively with public servants (Government 2.0 Taskforce 2009, Bourgon 2007).

Even though most developed countries have had established electronic services for several years, the vast majority of developing countries have started only recently. In recent times Bangladesh has also started to prioritise eService development in the national agenda. Particularly the current government is implementing the “Digital Government” initiative. The main focus of this initiative is to deliver public service more effectively in an integrated way. To fulfill this goal government introduced the National Web Portal, District Portals and departmental web portals. Among these three, the National and District portal is acting as gateway for web based provision for public service in Bangladesh. This article is an assessment of these two portal based on a maturity model to examine the success level in providing service to the people.

What are e-services?

E-service can be broadly mean providing or consuming services using internet-based or electronic systems and where the service organisation and customer(s) use the information gathered about each other to co-create a better service experience. E-services can be more specifically defined by Rowley (2006, p.339-359) as “...deeds, efforts or performances whose delivery is mediated by information technology (including the web, information kiosks and mobile devices)”. According to Goldkuhl & Persson (2006), eService means that an external user (a citizen) interacts through a user interface of a public IT system based on web technology. Crucially, eService delivery has enabled customers and individuals to interact with organisations, public bodies, third sector organisations and other customers and citizens 24/7 at times and places that are convenient to the individual as opposed to being dictated by the organisation.

Both of the above definitions reflect three main components- the *service provider*, the *channels of service delivery* (i.e., technology) and the *service receiver*. Rowley’s definition seems more explicit as it includes mobile devices. As regards public eService, public agencies are the service providers and *citizens* as well as *businesses* are the service receivers. The *channel of service delivery* is the third requirement of eService. The Internet is the main channel of eService delivery while other classic channels (e.g. telephone, call center, public kiosk, mobile phone, television) are also considered. This paper is only concerned with the state of web-based e-government services delivery for citizens as it is a web based analysis.

From the organisation’s perspective, e-service can be viewed as “the integration of business processes, policies, procedures, tools, technologies

and human effort to facilitate both assisted and unassisted customer services using the Internet and other networks” (Zhang, 2006).

Web 2.0 and other technological developments have facilitated improvements in e-service provision by enabling a more seamless connection between customers and indeed the organization. Some researchers group e-services into categories including foundations of e-service (e.g. site responsiveness and effectiveness, order fulfilment etc.), customer-centred e-services (e.g. customisation, order tracking etc.) and value added e-services (e.g. where organizations proactively try and optimise customer value through its e-service delivery). Regardless of how e-services are defined and categorised, the key characteristics of e-services for customers and organisations are that they are accessible and consumed by a person or customer via the Internet or other electronic network and there may or may not be a payment involved (Kelleher, 2009).

Purpose/Objective

This article reviews content of national and district web portals to determine the maturity of government websites with regards to eService delivery in Bangladesh. The national and district portals are considered as national gateway for service delivery in Bangladesh. Therefore this paper is an assessment of these two level web portals to assess the maturity level of eService delivery process in Bangladesh.

Scope of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the status of eService development in Bangladesh. The study mainly focused on availability of major eService initiatives, maturity level of eServices and major challenges encountered in deployment of eServices.

Methodology of this Study

The study is fully based on the website analysis – website content analysis. The authors used a four stage e-Government maturity model that includes: (1) ‘publishing’ (web presence): the earliest stage, in which basic information is made available to citizens online; (2) ‘interacting’: the second stage that allows a platform for citizen to interact with government online; (3) ‘transacting’, the third stage allows users to conduct a complete transaction online, and (4) ‘transforming’ is the final stage in which all government operational functions are fully integrated, organized and personalized.

Measuring e-Services Maturity

An e-government e-portal’s maturity model is a set of stages (from basic to advanced ones) that determines the maturity of the e-government e-portal. The main benefit of those maturity models is to offer a way to rank e-

government portals. Maturity models can also serve as a guide to help agencies enhance their e-government portal's quality. Many maturity models have been used to assess or rank e-government portals. In order to assess electronic services provided to the citizens, an appropriate e-government maturity model should be selected. From literature review it was found that there are more than 25 maturity models. Although the maturity models present large similarities between them, but it was also found that the features included in those models differ from a maturity model to another. Furthermore, while some maturity models are covering some features and introducing new ones, it seems that others are just ignoring them (Fath-Allah, 2014).

Most prominent maturity models are: Layne and Lee, Andersen and Henriksen, United Nations, Hiller and Belanger, Cisco, Gartner group, West, Moon, World Bank, Wescott, Chandler and Emanuel, Kim and Grant, Reddick, Accenture, and Netchaeva Maturity Model. These maturity models' stage numbers varies from 2 to 6 stages. In fact, although the maturity models' stage names are different from one maturity model to another; their content may have some similarities and differences. Moreover, almost all of them contain:

- A stage related to the availability of the portal in the Web (presence).
- A stage where the citizens can interact with governments (interaction).
- A stage where the citizens can transact with governments (transaction).
- An advanced stage that covers advanced features such as information sharing between agencies (integration). Etc.

Considering above features we selected the Gartner Group Open Government Maturity Model which covers the most important stages of maturity. It developed a four stage maturity model of e-government defined as follows:

- The 1st stage is **“Web presence”**: At this stage, the Web site is static and used to provide basic information to the citizen.
- The 2nd stage is **“Interaction”**: This stage features tools for interaction with stakeholders like search engines, documents downloading and emails.
- The 3rd stage is **“Transaction”**: At this stage the user can perform complete transactions online. This includes payments like buying and selling
- The 4th stage is **“Transformation”**: At this stage, the processes are integrated and personalized.

Here we tried to define list of service categories expected in each of the four stages:

Stages	Service Provided
Web presence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Search facilities • Contact details, opening hours, departments, links to other ministries/agencies • Publications and other information (public policy, governance laws, types of services provided) • Databases/statistics • Downloading/printing of forms • Advice/announcements
Interaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emailing, complaint/feedback box, information request on government policies/programmes, reporting incidents • Completion and submission of online applications without fee payments (permits, licences, certificates, benefits, passports) • Online job applications • Helpline
Transaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paying taxes • Paying service charges/fees • Paying fines • Paying bills (water/electricity) • Benefits processing and receipt (child benefit, housing benefits, etc.) • Completion and submission of online applications with fee payments (permits, licences, passports, etc.)
Transformation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal online e-consultation facilities (e.g. government consultation on draft policy proposals, draft regulations, etc.) • Online polls/surveys • Open-ended discussion forum (e.g. blogs) • e-Petitions

Source: Kraetzschmar and Lahlali (2011)

E-Service in Bangladesh: Brief Discussion on the eGovernmentContext

There is no denying that eGovernment presents significant potential for addressing many of the existing weaknesses in governance in Bangladesh (Sobhan et al 2004). The government of Bangladesh already realized the priority of this sector and had declared ICT a ‘thrust sector’ in 1997 and had promised to invest enough in this sector. By 2008, the Government announced a vision for “Digital Bangladesh” and committed for a matured eService structure for 24X7. Therefore government introduced two level, National and District eService portal that includes information about different services and access to essential services. This two level eService structure however maintains the nature of centralized government system in Bangladesh. The National Portal is maintained by the Prime Minister office

and District Portal is run by the Deputy Commissioner's office which is known as the office of the chief representative of the Central government at the periphery. All service departments have their website but this departmental portal are mainly single level which does not have any district level website or service provision that match with 24x7 concept.

According to UN e-government Survey 2014 Bangladesh ranks 148 whereas it ranked 150 in 2012. In eservice delivery index it ranks 98. UN survey shows that a large number of countries at lower levels of online servicedevelopment, highlighting the relative difficulty in supplying transactional andconnected services—as described by the Survey 's four-stage model. The world mean Online Service Index value is 0.3919, where Bangladesh index value is 0.3465. That's leads to the more research and rigorous discussion on eService process in Bangladesh.

Maturity of National and District Web Portal: Content Analysis

The analysis of the overall feature of the portals revealed that both National and District websites are at the publishing stage of the website development andcorresponding e-Government services (see the maturity level of these two portal in appendix-1).

National Web Portal

Under the auspices of the Cabinet Division, the Access to Information (a2i) Program supported designing, developing and implementing this whole-of-government Portal. This Portal was launched in 2003 in order to establish transparency and accountability, alongside citizen-centric governance. According to the home page of this web portal, it is a gateway to 25,000 portals/websites of all government offices - Union, Upazila, District, Division, Directorate and Ministry. The objective is to promote citizenry rights with regard to public information and services by providing a single window access. An attempt has been made through this Portal to provide comprehensive, accurate, reliable and one-stop source of information about Bangladesh and its various facets of political, historical and cultural legacy.

This Portal embeds key information pertaining to government services such as: agriculture, education, health, law and human rights, human resource development, social security, environment and disaster management, tourism and history, natural and archeological sites, educational institutions, business organizations, public representatives and eminent persons, freedom fighters list, government circular/gazette, procedures for applying and receiving public services, government forms, citizen charter, list of officers and personnel, digital guard files, e-directory,

district-level and other e-services, development projects' activities and other information of public interest.

It was evident from the above that main objective of this portal is to provide information. However in eService category of the portal we found only eight (08) eServices in English version whereas it is 14 in Bangla version. These are:

- Passport Application Form
- TIN Registration
- Railway Ticketing System
- Union Digital Centre
- Multimedia Classrooms
- Government Forms
- Infokosh - National Repository
- E-Healthcare
- Online Birth/ Death Registration
- Gas Bill Payment
- Visa Checking
- E-Book
- Company Registration
- Application for Innovation Fund

It was found that most eServices are in first stage as they provide only information about where and how to get the service and the service process with link (check the maturity level of these services in National Portal in appendix 2). It was also found that each eservices are not linked properly. As for example, Electricity bill of Dhaka city can be paid online through DESCO, but it was not mentioned in the eservice category.

District Portal

It is important to know that in Bangladesh the office of the Deputy Commissioner (DC) is the focal point for service delivery process at the periphery. It was found that a wide range of services are provided from the DC offices including land administration and land revenue, maintenance of public order and security, license and certificates, land acquisitions, census, relief and rehabilitation, social welfare, pension matters, education and public examinations, public complaints and enquiries. By providing these services, the DC office represents the Central Government at the grassroots (district, upazila and union). On 14 November, 2011 the Hon'ble Prime

Minister of Bangladesh and respected Secretary General of the United Nations jointly inaugurated all the 64 District e-Service Centres (DESC). DESC is an ICT facilitated one-stop service centre providing an electronic version of the century-old manual and heavily bureaucratic service delivery system at district level. The 64 District Portals are being incorporated with a comprehensive portal framework called National Portal Framework (NPF) that accommodates all government and local government offices – a total of over 20,000 offices – throughout the country (NESS, Access to Information Project).

District portal provide central eServices which are provided through national portal. In addition to that district level eServices are provided through this portal. Citizens are now able to submit their applications online from service centers located at the DC office, UNO office, Union Parishad or even from their own home without having to travel to the district headquarters. Upon submitting their applications, citizens receive an SMS notification with a receipt number and date of service delivery. In addition, citizens are also able to submit their applications through the District Portal from anywhere in the world including all the Union Information and Service Centers. Citizens are notified through either SMS or email once the service is ready to be delivered. They can choose to receive the service in-person from the concerned DC office or by postal mail if the application is regarding request for any documents. During the waiting period, citizens are able to check the status of their lodged applications though SMS or District Portals. This has allowed citizens to avoid in-person visits to DC offices which were the practice previously (NESS, Access to Information Project). This Portal provide information and link pertaining to different sectors of the district such as agriculture, education, health, law and human rights, human resource development, social security, environment and disaster management, tourism and history, natural and archeological sites, educational institutions, business organizations, public representatives and eminent persons, freedom fighters list, government circular/gazette, procedures for applying and receiving public services, government forms, citizen charter, list of officers and personnel, digital guard files, e-directory and other information of public interest.

All these eservices are belongs to web presence and interaction stage. Transaction process is still manual. There is a provision to transact money and to receive document by post. There we found an option for login into NESS. The National e-Service System (NESS) is an initiative to consolidate all government e-Services within one framework. The NESS framework

will accommodate all services offered by the government of Bangladesh to its citizens. But it was not working. The NESS pilot, termed Digital District, was launched by the Hon'ble Prime Minister on December 20, 2012 and includes 240 district and upazila offices of Jessore district. At the time of launching, 182 citizen services were being offered with a target to offer additional 44 e-Form based e-Services by June, 2013. It was planned that after the target completion of the pilot in Jessore in March, 2013, NESS implementation is being gradually be expanded to all 64 districts with their upazilas. But it still not comes out in reality.

Some Observations

It was found that a good range of eService information is now available online. The presence of public organizations' websites as linked to the national web portal supports this result. But most of the eServices are in the stage of publication i.e. electronic forms are available for such services, mostly in Portable Document Format (PDF). This is also evident from the link www.forms.gov.bd which lists several forms of different public organizations. Few eServices are in the advance stage of interaction such as electronic forms can be filled-up and submitted online. For example, submission of passport forms, online birth/death registration, online application of admission in school, college, university etc.

There are services like agriculture extension which is using online platform to provide necessary advice to the farmers. Therefore agriculture service qualifies for interaction stage. However, the study found that the scenario is different for the most important 14 services listed in the national web portal. They are listed as eServices but they are not necessarily "e-services" because there is no scope to complete the full process online and get the service from anywhere. In most cases citizen have to fill up necessary format and make payment then need to go to the designated offices or station to get the final product, for example railway tickets.

It was also found that government yet to improve the legal framework to make eServices user friendly and upgrade the website to the transaction and transformation level. The overall progress of the e-service provision is therefore recognized as slow considering the government vision for digital Bangladesh.

The study found a gap in the conceptualization of "e-service". The national portal categorically stated that the portals are for "information" about government service which leads to common understanding that the portals are not for service provision. In terms of availability of basic

usability features like Find website using search tools, Site updated within past three months, Access in more than one language, Availability of map/index and Help/FAQ feature, these portal has all these features except Help/FAQ. Regarding enhanced features Advanced search option, Privacy statement, Tag cloud or 'hot topics and Secure website, can hardly meet one criteria.

The Web features that are critical in fostering government openness, government-government communication, and citizen participation and satisfaction are still infrequent or completely absent in government Websites. Lack of these features is likely to dissuade citizens from participating in the e-Government processes.

The study also found that instead of focusing on 24x7 at individual level, there is a focus on providing eServices through tele-center¹ set up at the periphery. These tele-centers are recognized as Union Information and Service Center (UISC) which maintains a business model which provides services including form download, exam result, searching information on various aspects like agricultural information, health service related information, information about education institutions etc. These centers can only provide the services if they are available in the relevant websites.

Implementation Challenges

From secondary sources it was found that Bangladesh is facing various obstacles to the promotion and implementation of ICT in the Government. This study focuses some major problems which include: Poor ICT Infrastructure, IT Policy, Lack of Awareness of government officials, Low Level of IT literacy, High-cost, Lower Liability of Internet Access, sustainability of eServices, legal issues like lack of regulations for electronic payment or data transfer etc.

Policy Suggestion

Clear policy direction for the role of the website in service delivery is needed. Most of the public service agency suffering with the

¹ Telecenters or kiosks have generally been defined as places or centers that provide shared public access to information and communications technologies for meeting the educational, social, personal, economic, and entertainment needs of the community. Telecenters have gained prominence as the primary instruments for bringing the benefits of ICTs to poor communities where the technological infrastructure is inadequate and the costs of individual access to these technologies are relatively high. They provide opportunities for access to information by overcoming the barriers of distance and location, and by facilitating access to information and communication, they have the potential to foster social cohesion and interaction (Kumar and Best 2006). <http://ci-journal.net/index.php/ciej/article/viewArticle/328/268>

conceptualizing functional difference between information as a “service” and the actual service they are providing. There is a need for clear understanding on “eService for individual (24x7)” rather providing services which is absent in the current model. The most essentially government needs to published the eService Act as early as possible that can clarify the eService responsibility of the departments. Finally the government must focus on educating the public agencies on the government vision for “Digital Bangladesh”.

Conclusion

This study has sought to examine the status of e-Government services in Bangladesh through content analysis of government websites. The study also contributes by bringing to light the eService maturity level of Bangladesh, indicating that only few of the eServices have attained the third stage (transaction) of the EU eService maturity model. However, the eServices in Bangladesh are becoming steadily more mature. The assessed level of maturity may possibly be used as a benchmark to measure periodically the comparative progress of Bangladesh in eService development. The analysis of mentioned websites therefore holds promise for future researchers and the findings suggest that Bangladesh government may need to revise its e-government policy to provide services through internet.

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Appendix-1

Maturity Level of National and District Portal

Stages	Service Provided	National Portal	District Portal
Web presence	Search facilities	-	-
	Contact details, opening hours, departments, links to other ministries/agencies	✓	✓
	Publications and other information (public policy, governance laws, types of services provided)	✓	✓
	Databases	-	-
	statistics	✓	✓
	Downloading/printing of forms	✓	✓
	Advice/announcements	✓	✓
Interaction	Emailing, complaint/feedback box, information request on government policies/programmes	-	-
	reporting incidents	-	-
	Completion and submission of online applications without fee payments (permits, licences, certificates, benefits, passports)	-	-
	Online job applications	-	-
	Helpline	-	-
Transaction	Paying taxes	-	-
	Paying service charges/fees	-	-
	Paying fines	-	-
	Paying bills water/electricity)	-	-
	Benefits processing and receipt (child benefit, housing benefits, etc.)	-	-
	Completion and submission of online applications with fee payments (permits, licences, passports, etc.)	-	-
Transformation	Formal online e-consultation facilities (e.g. government consultation on draft policy proposals, draft regulations, etc.)	-	-
	Online polls/surveys	-	-
	Open-ended discussion forum (e.g. blogs)	-	-
	e-Petitions	-	-

Appendix-2

Maturity Level of eService available in National Web Portal

Services	Web Presence	Interaction	Transaction	Transformation
<u>Passport Application Form</u>	✓	✓	-	-
<u>TIN Registration</u>	✓	✓	-	-
<u>Railway Ticketing System</u>	✓	✓	✓	-
<u>Union Digital Centre</u>	-	-	-	-
<u>Multimedia Classrooms</u>	✓	✓	-	-
<u>Government Forms</u>	✓	✓	-	-
<u>Infokosh - National Repository</u>	✓	-	-	-
<u>E-Healthcare</u>	✓	-	-	-
<u>Online Birth/ Death Registration</u>	✓	-	-	-
<u>Gas Bill Payment</u>	✓ (for Dhaka city only)	-	-	-
<u>Visa Checking</u>	-	-	-	-
<u>E-Book</u>	✓	-	-	-
<u>Company Registration</u>	✓	✓	-	-
<u>Application for Innovation Fund</u>	✓	✓	-	-

21. Information Technology and Changing Practices of Management: A Study on Small and Medium Scale Industries of Bangladesh

Md. Saiful Islam

Introduction

According to the global position, country climate and development structure Bangladesh can easily be termed as an agrarian nation, and which is fighting for a long to establish its fate as an industrialized nation. It is widely known that the agriculture alone cannot bring the economic solvencies. It is industrialization which can help a country to fulfill its desire. Chenery (1960) in his “Patterns of Industrial Growth” had shown the model in which it was evident that the agriculture alone cannot bring the development at a faster rate, it is industry which can do it in favor of a poor agrarian nation. Weiss (1988) also reported that manufacturing “retains the characteristics of an engine of growth-rapid productivity growth, dynamic increasing returns to scale, rapid technological change, and various dynamic externalities”. Chenery (1988) again argued in favor of industrialization that associated with the rise of industry are changes in the composition of demand, international trade, and the occupation of the labor force. For industrialization Bangladesh is lacking in natural resources which is essential for a sustainable economic infrastructure. The mentionable resources for Bangladesh in this endeavor are her huge unskilled human resource and a limited stock of natural gas. By using this resources Bangladesh is producing some readymade garments to meet the demand of the western world. At first it was a grace by the international Multi Fiber Agreement (MFA) quota facility which started in 1974 and now it has been established as a brand after the closure of WTO quota support in 2005. This sector cannot be judged as a sustainable economic structure as because its fate is dependent only on the supply of unskilled manpower and the limited stock of natural gas. So, the necessity of quick, mentionable and dependable industrial infrastructure is in raise.

The history of industrialization in Bangladesh is still not revealed properly. Historians are reluctant in finding the root and causes of industrialization in this part of Indian sub-continent. Only a few literatures had shown that Bengal had faced two famines, one in 1770 and another in 1943 during the Second World War in which an estimated 3 million people died. Bengal absorbed the huge blow and with the time it became a leading rice producer, fine cotton (*muslin*) producer and the world’s main source of

jute fiber. Bengal, around 1850 became one of the India's principle center of industry, concentrated in Calcutta and its emerging suburbs (Chakrobarty, n.d.). The territory of Bangladesh had first experienced the establishment of large scale industrial unit as Mohini Mill in Kushtia in 1908. After that a cotton and textile revolution had taken place at the bank of *Shtalakkhya*. It was evident that a handloom industry was also in existence in the areas like Faridpur, Kushtia, Narayanganj, Munshiganj, Tangail and some other places in Bangladesh before the establishment of Mohini Mill. All the industrial efforts were then and now are mainly due to the heritage of establishment of small and cottage industries in Bangladesh for a long time. It is said that Bangalees are not capable enough of bearing the entrepreneurial zeal as they lack in creativity. Despite all the odds industries were set up and also vanished away in a gradual manner in this land. It is a long cherished expectation to have a sustainable industrial environment all over the country.

Though the shortages of different infrastructural supports it can materialize its dream by utilizing its huge manpower by making them efficient and effective. Definitely an entrepreneurial zeal among the persons is a necessity to create such an environment. So, to flourish the entrepreneur's and to provide them with a comfortable industrial environment, the encouragement for the small scale entrepreneurs were started after the partition from British regime. Those initiatives were taken place as because it is evident from the world history that the small scale industries are the 'seedbed' for large scale operations. To patronize the small scale entrepreneurs EPSIC (East Pakistan Small Scale Industries Corporation) Act was passed in 1957. To accelerate the EPSIC's activity EPSIC Industrial Estate Program were started in 1960 (Rahman, A. H. M. Habibur and Associates, 1979). The establishment of EPSCIC was in recognition of the need for a specialized agency to promote the development of Small, Medium & Cottage Industries (SMCIs) in the manufacturing sector through the provision of advisory services, fiscal and financial assistance, infrastructural facilities, market access and other support program (BSCIC, 2014).

Definition of Small and Medium Scale Industry

It's really hard to define the small-scale industry. As because this definition always made upon the basis of different policies provided by the national government for various purposes. On the other hand, different socio-cultural conditions and the state of the economy may also be taken into consideration in preparation of this definition. Mainly small enterprises are recognized as the "seed bed" for Entrepreneurship growth. However, most definitions of SSI are based on two criteria: (a) Quantitative (number of workers, size of sales volume, amount of investment or the value of assets, consumption of energy etc.) and (b) Qualitative: (organization and

management of the enterprise, market influence, model of production etc.) (Majid, Workshop readings, Vol.1, 1992).

The significant research organization **CED** (Committee for Economic Development, U.S.A.) developed the following definition of a small business some years ago. It is based upon a cross section of characteristics of the individual firm. The definition says:

“A small business is one which possesses at least two of the following four characteristics:

1. Management of the firm is independent. Usually the managers are also the owners.
2. Capital is supplied and an individual or a small group holds the ownership.
3. The area of operation is mainly local, with the workers and owners living in one home community. However the markets need not to be local.
4. The relative size of the firm within its industry must be small when compared with the biggest units in its field. This measure can be in terms of sales volume, number of employees, or other significant comparisons.

Another excellent definition of a small business is contained in the **Small Business Act of 1934** passed by the United States Congress. It says “a small business is one which is independently owned and operated and not dominate in its field” (Steinhoff, 1982). Professor Everett Hagen defined small-scale industry as a processing or fabricating industry composed of small firms, or collectively all of the small-scale industries in an economy (Hagen).

The first systematic definition of Small-Scale Industry in Bangladesh was given by the East Pakistan Small Scale Corporation Act XVII of 1957. As adopted in Bangladesh, a “Small Industry means an industrial establishment or unit which is run mainly by hired labor not using mechanical motive power but does not normally employ more than 50 workmen and whose land, building and machinery do not exceed Tk. 2,50,000 in value in either case (Small Industrial Act, 1957).

The definition was necessary at least for two purposes: **One** for the creation of the Corporation (e.g. EPSIC) and, **two** to undertake the survey of small industries.

According to the **Industrial Policy of 1999** “Small Industry” will mean enterprises employing fewer than 50 workers excluding the cottage units and/or with a fixed capital investment of less than Taka 100 million (Industrial Policy, 1999).

According to **Industrial Policy of 2005** “Small Industry” means an industry in which the value/replacement cost of durable resources other than land and factory buildings is under 15 million taka.

The definition of Medium sized industry was first introduced in the policy. The definition was “Medium Industry” means an industry in which the value/replacement cost of durable resources other than land and factory buildings is between 15 million and 100 million taka.”

Finally the **Industrial Policy of 2010** described “Small Industry” would be deemed to comprise enterprises with either the value (replacement cost) of fixed assets excluding land and building between Tk. 5 million and Tk. 100 million, or with between 25 and 99 workers.

In manufacturing, **medium industry** will be deemed to comprise enterprises with either the value (replacement cost) of fixed assets excluding land and building between Tk.100 million and Tk. 300 million, or with between 100 and 250 workers.

Management in Small and Medium sized Enterprises in Bangladesh

It is generally understood that owner of small scale industries are reluctant to follow a system of formal management as may be for some limited scope in terms of operation, personnel, labor etc. Perhaps they the owner are forced by the nature of business just to maintain an ad hoc basis of management. Generally management may be defined as “getting things done through other people”. Thus a simple definition might be ‘management is a distinct social process consisting of planning, organizing, directing, motivating and controlling in an attempt to co-ordinate human and non-human institutional resources for the purpose of efficiently and systematically achieving the stated objectives of any organization’. The traditional functions of managers are planning, organizing, leading and controlling. Under these general functions are specific activities and techniques which in a small scale industry are performed essentially by one or two persons: **Planning** - analysis of the business environment, appraisal of the performance of the business, defining the goals and objectives of the business, deciding on the best route and ways of achieving them, allocating and budgeting the resources required in the performance of the work and tasks involved, and preparing contingency plans for various possibilities.

Organizing

structuring how and where the various functions, work and tasks are to be done and how they will interact and relate with each other, coordinating the activities of the various units of the organization, and assigning responsibilities and authorities to people and groups for carrying out specific duties and tasks.

Leading

motivating, enabling and drawing-out the talent of the people to achieve the goals of the small enterprise through good communication, building of trust and confidence, creation of the organizational climate for good performance and development of their capabilities, skills and competencies.

Controlling

making sure that the performance is according to plans and expectations through establishment of standards of organizational and individual performance in key result areas, monitoring and measurement of actual performance and results, comparing actual performance versus expectations and taking corrective actions whether to adjust performance level or modify standards where necessary.

The manager of the small-scale industries performs these managerial functions in all the key functional areas of the business i.e. marketing, finance, production, personnel, etc. Depending on the scale and complexity of the business, the entrepreneur-manager must have the required degree of competence in managing particular functional areas. The size and complexity of the business operation will of course determine the level of complexity of the functions. Micro enterprises in traditional sectors will involve much simplified and integrated functions whereas relatively larger modern small enterprises will have more complex and differentiated managerial functions and tasks (Tolentino, 1998).

Importance of small scale industries in the national economy

In the absence of availability of any current national level estimates about the nature and magnitude of contributions of the Small scale industries, it is difficult to provide any firm basis about their importance in the economy of the country. For a developing country, the growth of small scale industries is very important. Apart from increased production, the growth of small scale industries helps to small scale industries helps to serve as a very important milestone in the country's march towards industrial development (Ministry of Industries, 1999). However, variously estimated by different sources, there are at present about 42,000 small-scale industries in Bangladesh. Excluding handloom, the number of cottage industries is put roughly at 400,000. If handlooms are added, the number of cottage industries shoots up to over 600,000, indicating a super abundance of Small scale industries in Bangladesh on numerical basis. Indeed, there has been a significant vertical growth in the number of Small-scale industries in Bangladesh (i.e. 9.6 percent reported for 1989-90 by Majid, 1997). While the qualitative aspects of such numerical growth remains to be examined, this notable numerical growth makes significant contribution to new business creation in the economy. Available evidence (Ahmed, M.U. et.al., 1992) suggest that Small scale industries were responsible for giving birth to 59% of the new industrial enterprises in Bangladesh during 1980s. However, the important issue is how the Small-scale industries perform in terms of their contributions towards generating productive employment opportunities and augmenting national output. Currently, the Small-scale industries contribute to around 5 percent of the total industries sector contribution of 11 percent of value added to GDP. The sector now provides

employment to roughly 5 million work force which accounts for 82 percent of the total industrial labor force and generate between 45 to 50 percent of the total manufacturing value added (Sarder, 1995). On both counts, therefore, the Small-scale industries contribution to industrial employment and value added is quite substantial.

Findings from the Reviewed Literature

Small Scale Industry is not a familiar term of research in Bangladesh. Researches had been conducted in various fields of developing economics. But the major issue of economic development the 'business' is neglected. And with that small scale industries did not find any place in the researcher's mind. For those reason literatures in the field of Small Scale Industrial research is scares in Bangladesh. So, for the purpose of this present study the researcher had consulted with all available articles, readings, a few books etc. to find out the actual situation of research and the actual position of management practices in small-scale industry in the economic scenario of Bangladesh.

Bangladesh has a mixed economy; productivity in both the public and private sector is very low. An article published in a journal of "Management", the former East Pakistan Management Association, reported that in some of the Japanese Industries output of one female worker is about the aggregate output of five Bangladeshi male workers. This is attributed not to the physical strength of the workers but to the managerial capacity of Planning, Organizing, Directing, Controlling and Coordinating the work of the workforce (Habibullah, 1988).

Md. Habibullah in his article on Entrepreneurship Training and Development emphasizes the needs for managerial skill among the entrepreneur's. He described that like other training aspects the entrepreneurs must have the managerial abilities including human relation skills, communication skills and conceptual skills. He mentioned that conceptual skills make it possible for the entrepreneurs to visualize new businesses, new products and new ideas. He also argued that managerial skill and ability make entrepreneur's successful in their endeavor (Habibullah, 1987).

An entrepreneur needs an idea or dream to enter into a business where he must live with insecurity and change, often for years. Managing an enterprise also needs skills in accomplishing tasks through other people (Abdullah, 1983).

Jahangir Hossain Sarder in his article wrote about the overall potentiality of Small-Scale Industry in Bangladesh. He showed the actual number of the Small-Scale Industries, background of the entrepreneurs, development prospect in Bangladesh. He also showed mortality rate as well as the industrial sickness in the small-scale industry sector. But no effort was made to find out the actual causes behind this situation (Sarder, 1990).

In an article “The Emergence and Growth of Entrepreneurs in Some Developing Countries” by Abdul Mannan Chowdhury (1988), it was sighted that the major determinants of failures everywhere have been found to be imbalances in stimulating, support and sustaining activities of the government. Another serious impediment is the bureaucratic legalism and complexities that are experienced in obtaining necessary license, permit, raw materials and finance. The other barriers are corruption, favoritism of the ruling powers as well as inefficiency of the government, lack of definite policy to protect domestic industries and a host of organizational and managerial deficiencies. Here it is showed that managerial inefficiency is one of the major determinants in the failure of Small-Scale Industry Sector.

Shahid Uddin Ahmed conducted an overseas study in England upon the Bangladeshi immigrants, those who were engaged in different like small business or something else. Keeping in mind the following variables the managerial efficiency was judged,

1. Small firms are not really interested in formal patterns of management;
2. They do not spend much time planning how to cope with future problems or probable situations; this is compounded by a lack of delegation of duties from management to employees;
3. The recruitment and selection methods are totally different from those of public companies, being very much personal and informal;
4. There is little control of staff activities and assessment of stock-in-trade is not based on defined criteria;
5. ‘Ad hoc’ management procedure is employed resulting in snap decisions to solve the problems of moment.

He had found the variables are highly significant with the decision like inefficient management. He moreover found that the Bangladeshi small businessmen’s are reluctant in following a systematic process of management. It had been found in a thesis (Ahmed, 1981) that the Bangladeshi Entrepreneurs are highly motivated for power and independence, and they remain ‘little businessmen’. It was therefore evident from that study that the Bangladeshi immigrant small business entrepreneurs fall very much within the general pattern of business management practices (Ahmed, 1985).

Another study by Abdur Rab (1991) shows ‘poor management and a few other problems are affecting the performance of the small industries in Bangladesh. No attempt has several been made to look at the management aspects of Small Industries’. So, he conducted the study on 24 enterprises in Dhaka where the literacy rate is high. He wanted to include the variables like Management Pattern (which also includes objectives and strategies, organization), Marketing Management, Production Management, Personnel Management, Accounting and Finance. And he showed that Small

Enterprises suffered from a variety of problems affecting their management and profitability. The problems affecting management and profitability of the enterprises in that study include low capacity utilization, high cost of production, keen competition, prohibitive cost of advertisement, shortage of working capital and shortage of skilled workers. He also suggested in that occasion, that, to solve the problem the owners need to follow the strategic approach to find the market opportunities where the capabilities of their enterprises can match and then improve their managerial efficiency in functional areas to enhance capacity utilization, reduce cost and improve quality to meet competition.

In a study of A.H.M. Habibur Rahman (1985) "Towards the Modernization of Small Scale Industries in Bangladesh" the need to modernize this sector was highlighted. Based on the secondary data the researcher showed that modernization is essential to improve the efficiency in this sector, and this efficiency is for rationalization in the process of production, technology and management, which are all relevant elements in the efficient conduct of manufacturing enterprises. But in his another study named, "Entrepreneurship and Small enterprise Development in Bangladesh", he showed that the problem perceived by the entrepreneurs was 'bad management', and the entrepreneurs lack of facilities for taking advantages of necessary training in the management of small enterprise. It is important to note that this study was based upon the primary sources of data and at least 381 enterprises were taken into consideration. Perhaps that was one of the major works in this sector in the history of Bangladesh. So, in the previously mentioned work by Rahman it was suggested that, steps shall have to be taken to motivate them (entrepreneurs) to adopt modern techniques of production and management and improving their efficiency and competitive strength.

In a study by Moyeen and Afreen (1994) named "A Preliminary Investigation of Urban Female Entrepreneurs of Dhaka Metropolitan Area", it was found that the female entrepreneurs have the potentiality to generate ideas, but the weakness they (female entrepreneurs) encountered were the lack of financial planning. Here the researchers sighted the cause behind that situation is the lack of education in management. The sample used in this study was fifty in number and among them two were related with manufacturing.

In another study in England by Abdul Hakim (1995) about the Bangladeshi immigrants there, it was stated that the management of small enterprises is direct and flexible, their working rules sometimes vary to suit the individual employee needs. The number of firms included in this study was 30.

In a major study by M.R. Kamal (1985) on "Problems of Small-Scale and Cottage Industry in Bangladesh", the researcher gave his consent the

works of Rahman and et al. that inadequate measures for the development of entrepreneurs are mainly responsible for the poor development of Small-Scale Industries. Bangladesh is lacking the management talents in the industrial sector due to some unavoidable circumstances, according to the researcher that these circumstances was mainly the partition of the country in 1947 and another is the Nationalization of Industries in 1972. These situations have had tremendous effect on the management personnel and industrial entrepreneurs in Bangladesh. For that reason management and efficiency are widespread. The Small-Scale and Cottage Industries, in spite of their significant contribution to the economy through the production of consumer goods and creation of employment, have failed to increase their quality, productivity and profitability. Lacking management expertise skills, they are unable to expand their special and general fields of operation to sustain further growth. He also mentioned that in Bangladesh the major problems are concerned with promotion and development. In this case he cited the example of developed countries, where the establishment of new business in Small and Medium Sector is no problem if the management is capable and efficient enough to fulfill the promotional formalities and if there is a market for the products. The market can also be created by these industries. Whereas, in the case of Bangladesh, the basic conditions for the promotion of any industrial activity are lacking. This may be summed up as:

Lack of proper industrial facilities like transport and communication, water, power and gas connection, organized markets for raw materials, labor, finance and distribution channels. Besides the huge supply of cheap labor they have almost no training those makes any sense at all to call them workers. Most entrepreneurs and managers lack modern dynamic management skills (Kamal, 1985).

In a workshop reading by A.K.M. Saiful Majid (1994), it was revealed that a large number of entrepreneurial ventures fail every year, particularly in developing economies, which could significantly be attributed to poor managing and decision making, financial and marketing weakness.

Md. Serajul Islam (1981) made another study about the management of Small-scale Industry in Dhaka City, where he found that only 40% of our small business units know and follow the management functions; 35% know but do not follow and 20% do not even know about the functions of management. It would be revealed that about 60% of small-scale industry in our country do not follow the functional pattern of management. For the development of management practices in the Small-scale Industry sector management are required to consider the following issues:

- a. Employee relations;
- b. The individuals in the organization and their needs;
- c. Employee morale;

- d. Leadership style
- e. Employee discipline, etc.

Mohammed Masud Rahman (1993) in his article on "Entrepreneurship in a Small-Scale Industry: A Case Study" mentioned that a balanced development of the economy is largely contingent upon small-scale enterprises for good many reasons, viz., huge unemployment, technological backwardness, poor infrastructural framework, scarcity of capital etc.

Abdul Hye Mondal (1976) in his unpublished Ph.D. thesis entitled "The Development of the small scale Industry in the process of Industrialization in Bangladesh" observed that in Bangladesh, small scale industries were mainly based on individual proprietorship. It attempted to ascertain the causes of limited growth of small scale industries in Bangladesh during pre-liberation periods. The major problems confronting the development of the small scale industry in Bangladesh were the lack of finance and credit facilities, technical manpower, problems of procuring raw materials. Marketing and sales difficulties also hampered the growth of small scale sector. The author felt the need for formulating an integrated program for the development of Small Scale Industry and co-ordination among all the institutions responsible for planning, policy making and the execution of policies for total manufacturing sector.

Zaid Bakht (1984) in his article on "Entrepreneurship in Bangladesh Rural Industries", attempted to examine the role of entrepreneurship in the development of rural industries in Bangladesh. The author observed that lack of training facilities, inadequate finance, illiteracy and low geographical mobility were the main causes of short supply of entrepreneurs and lack of entrepreneurship.

Abdul Momin Chowdhury (1989) in his study on "Performance Evaluation of Small Business in Bangladesh" referred to the significant role of small enterprises on employment and income generation. The author identified liquidity crisis, lack of trained personnel and strong competition from foreign goods as some of the hindrances affecting the growth of small enterprises.

It is seen from the reviews and discussions that most of the studies were general in nature and limited in scope. The importance of doing research in the subject like management practices of small scale industries has been felt by almost all the scholars but none of them did discuss the problem clearly.

Use of Information Technology by the SME's in Bangladesh

It was found from various literatures that Bangladesh had started its digital journey at end of 80's of the last century. Still the literacy rate in digital technology is significantly low. The digital divide shows that the practice of

digital technology is very much limited or nil in the SME's in Bangladesh. But it is important to increase the efficiency in the management of the SME's in Bangladesh.

Importance of the Present Study

From the review of literature it is understood that a very few of research work have so far been made on the development of SME's in Bangladesh. Especially in the practices of technology in the management of SME's is the most neglected field of among the studies. But it is widely believed that the progress and growth of an organization are much more indebted to the development of sound management practices within the organization with the aid of information technology. It is found that the entrepreneurs are somehow promote SME's but fail to manage them properly for which they face industrial sickness. Thus efficient management is required for successful establishment as well as profitable growth of SME's. So, there is a need for the present study to analyze the present condition and practices of management which bring changes with the aid of information technology in the SME's in Bangladesh.

To judge the situation the following variables were set;

1. Governance and Leadership

- 1.1 Strategic Management
- 1.2 Business Objectives
- 1.3 Management Supports and Control
- 1.4 Resourcing
- 1.5 Risk management

2. Records Management

- 2.1 Creation
- 2.2 Storage
- 2.3 Sustainability of Digital Records
- 2.4 Retention
- 2.5 Disposal
- 2.6 Transfer
- 2.7 Records Management

3. Access to Information

- 3.1 FOI/Data Protection
- 3.2 Re-use
- 3.3 Security

4. Compliance

- 4.1 Staff Responsibilities
- 4.2 Change Management
- 4.3 Training
- 4.4 Policies and Guidance**

5. Culture

5.1 Commitment

5.2 Staff Understanding

5.3 Knowledge Management

Objectives of the Study

Following objectives were set to complete the study;

1. To know present conditions of management practices in the SME's in Bangladesh;
2. To find out how much the SME's are concerned with the use of information technology;
3. To formulate suggestions for the development in the use of information technology for better practices of management.

Methodology of the Study

Keeping the objectives in mind following methodology was used to reveal the situation. For this purpose data was collected from both primary and secondary sources. From the collected data literature an attempt was taken to a critical analysis of the findings.

Preparation of Questionnaire

To measure the above motioned variables an unstructured questionnaire was used to collect information from the respondents. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were judged.

Sampling Procedure

The study was conducted in the Industrial Estates of Khulna Division. Industrialization in this division is not remarkable. Due to shortage of respondents a random sampling procedure was followed to collect the information.

Measuring Instruments

To analyze the data computer aided software was used. Different statistical methods were used to justify the findings.

Findings and Analysis

The data, obtained, were analyzed through computer by using IMA questionnaire .xls macros. Before feeding the data into computer, all data were converted into codes and the detail of these coding were recorded in a code sheets. Questions were ranged from 1 to 5. Score 1 denote satisfactory level and 5 denote dissatisfaction.

Results and Discussion

It was evident from the following analysis that the practice of management is neglected in SME's of Bangladesh. In every region of the study it failed

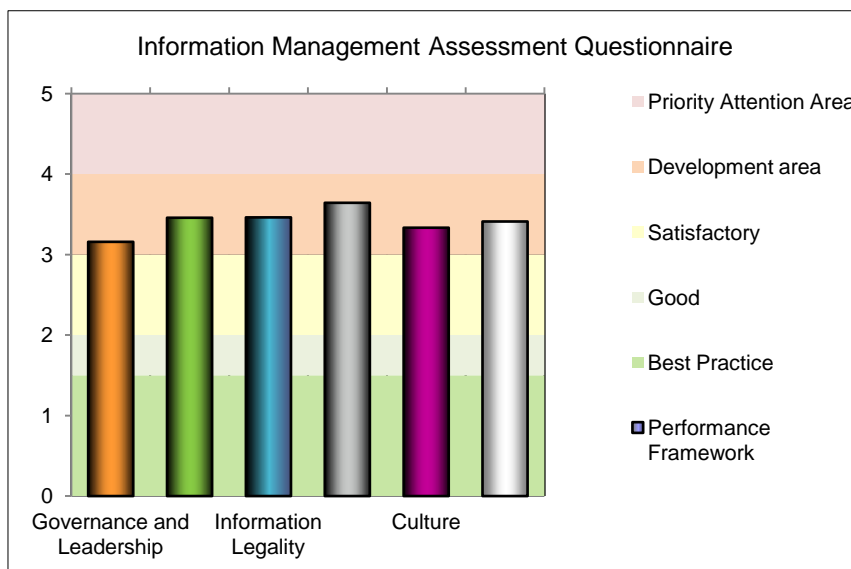
to prove the presence of management. In use of technology same result was evident. For management practices information were collected under the heads of;

1. Governance and leadership;
2. Compliance; and
3. Culture.

For the use of information technology used heads were;

1. Records management; and
2. Information legality or Access to information.

Results of the study have been summarized in the following tables:



Mean score

	Framework category	Mean score per Section
1	Governance and Leadership	3.16
2	Records Management	3.46
3	Information Legality	3.46
4	Compliance	3.64
5	Culture	3.33
	Overall mean	3.41

1. Governance and Leadership

For Governance and leadership following variables were taken;

- 1.1 Strategic Management
- 1.2 Business Objectives
- 1.3 Management Supports and Control
- 1.4 Resourcing
- 1.5 Risk management

The mean score of all the variables were 3.16. Which are nearer to top score 5, which denote a negative result. That means the practices of leadership and governance is nearer to absent.

2. Compliance

For compliance the following variables were taken;

- 1.1 Staff Responsibilities
- 1.2 Change Management
- 1.3 Training
- 1.4 Policies and Guidance**

The mean score for the compliances were 3.64. Which are nearer to top score 5 and is meant to be developed more.

3. Culture

In the culture issue the following variables were taken;

- 1.1 Commitment
- 1.2 Staff Understanding
- 1.3 Knowledge Management

The means score of the variables were 3.41. Those were also nearer to 5 which meant the areas also to be developed.

So, it was found that practices of management in the SME's of Bangladesh were almost neglected and are needed to be improved.

Use of Information Technology in SME's in Bangladesh

For the ongoing study some variables were chosen to found the use of information technology in the management practices of management there. They were;

1. Records management

To know the situation in record management the following variables were chosen;

- 1.1 Creation
- 1.2 Storage
- 1.3 Sustainability of Digital Records
- 1.4 Retention
- 1.5 Disposal
- 1.6 Transfer
- 1.7 Records Management

Findings from the variables showed that the mean score for the records management were 3.46 and which was nearer to top score 5. That means a

lot more emphasis should be given in this area as the practices of information technology was almost absent there.

2. Information legality or Access to information

As it was found from the records management some different variables were taken to check the access to information in SME's. They were;

1.1 FOI/Data Protection

1.2 Re-use

1.3 Security

The findings showed that the mean score of the variables were 3.46. Which meant the area is also neglected as because it was nearer to top score 5 and were needed to be improved.

So, from the above mentioned study it was revealed that the practice of management and the use of information technology to brought a change in the practices of management in the SME's of Bangladesh was a far cry. It would go a long way to have the chance. But by this time the competitive world would go further more distance and which would be unrecoverable for this poor nation.

Suggestions

To overcome the above mentioned situation the following necessary steps can be taken at the shortest possible of time;

1. Provide management knowledge to the SME entrepreneur's at an emergency basis;
2. educated them with IT knowledge; and
3. accelerate and ensure the internet connectivity for the SME owner and stakeholders.

Conclusion

It was evident that Bangladesh is travelling over the information super highway in this information technology era. But the use is confined with only some communication purposes and which has no relation with the spreading of business by the SME's in Bangladesh. But to cope with the competitive business environment it should be done at a faster rate otherwise the opportunities would be vanished away.

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22. Understanding Citizen's Intention to Use Mobile Government Services in Bangladesh: Role of Perceived Good Governance and Less Corruption

Mst Rebeka Sultana
Abdul Rahman Ahlan

Background

The use of technologies such as mobile phone, laptop, and internet allows government organization to provide services to their citizens more effectively and efficiently (Gupta and Dasgupta, 2008). Mobile technology is experiencing rapid growth in term of capabilities of mobile devices, services, applications, standards and network implementation (Sugianto et al, 2007). Thus, governments around the world are investing on m-government project. M-government stands for the use of Mobile and wireless communication technologies within the government administration and in its delivery of services and information to citizens and firms (Ostberg, 2003).

M-government allows government administration's to communicate with citizen in anytime and anywhere. However, although adoption of m-government has the potential to provide better and faster services to citizens at lower costs but it has acceptance problem. For example, China has more than 465 million mobile phone users, yet their m-government practices are very low (Sheng and Trimi, 2008) and this is the reality for others developing countries as well.

M-government is still in its infancy stage. Much of the m-government research has focused on technical barriers such as security and privacy issues and inadequate infrastructure (for example Aldosari and King 2004; Germanakos et al. 2005). While these are important issues for implementing m-government, there are risks in investing significant resources in providing technologies and services whose acceptance is uncertain. We need to look beyond the groups that are driving m-government to those individuals who will use mobile technologies in providing or consuming m-government offerings. Success and acceptance of m-government depends on citizen's willingness to adopt the innovation. Yet, many governments are facing low level of m-government service adoption (Lallana, 2004; Alampay, 2003). The study also observed that there is a lack of a complete understanding of m-government adoption in the IS literature. Although user's acceptance of technology has been studied extensively in e-commerce, m-commerce and e-government, however,

relatively few studies have focused in m-government adoption. Thus empirical research is needed in the area of m-government adoption.

In addition, developing country like Bangladesh is still not able to provide e-government for all citizens because of its infrastructures and low penetration of fixed-line in the country. Government must ensure that all citizens have same accessibility in decision making process, regardless of their ability to use the technology. Bangladesh is mainly agricultural-based country and major population who are mostly farmer lived in rural area. In Bangladesh fixed-line internet penetration is very low compare to mobile. As part of its agenda to build a Digital Bangladesh, the government of Bangladesh has identified mobile phone as one of the key medium of electronic service delivery to citizens (Saleh, 2010). Therefore, the government of Bangladesh is now significantly investing in m-government services. Although m-government program in Bangladesh is still at the initial stages, the United Nations's e-government readiness reports ranked Bangladesh as one of the top 6 among least developed countries (United Nations, 2010).

However, it seems that the level of m-government adoption among citizens in Bangladesh is still low. Therefore, this study will examine the factors that influence citizens' adoption of m-government services in Bangladesh. This study extends the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) model (Venkatesh, 2003) by adding perceived good governance and less corruption as social construct. The quantitative survey data were used to measure the relationship among the variables.

Objectives

- 1 To investigate the factors that affecting the adoption of m-government services by citizen of Bangladesh.
- 2 To develop the adoption model for m-government based on traditional technology adoption model and e-government adoption model.
- 3 To empirically validate the constructs and to test the proposed M-government adoption model.

Literature Review

Determinants of m-government Adoption

There is limited numbers of studies have been conducted in particularly m-government adoption. Adoption of m-government has two perspectives. One is the supply side and other is the demand side. Success of m-government is depending on citizen acceptance. Therefore, the focus of this research will be the citizen (demand-side) adoption of m-government. Studies on m-government adoption are shown in the following sections.

El-Kiki and Lawrence (2007) developed a conceptual survey model for user satisfaction and usage of m-government services. Authors have

identified some factors those are influencing the satisfaction such as pricing, content, quality of services, awareness, accessibility, availability, reliability, accuracy, responsiveness, courtesy, helpfulness, effective transaction usability, timeliness, trust, privacy, security, accountability and transparency.

Susanto and Goodwin (2010) have identified the factors that determine citizens' acceptance of SMS-based e-Government services among 25 countries. The authors have collected the data through web-based survey, phone-call interviews and paper-based questionnaires from 159 respondents by asking open-ended questions. This study investigated the level of awareness and adoption of SMS-based e-government services among respondents. The results indicate that 70% of the respondents were aware of this service.

This study found that there are 15 beliefs which may influence citizens to use or to reject the service. Those factors are Perceived ease of use, Perceived efficiency in time and distance, Perceived value for money, Perceived responsiveness, Perceived convenience, Trust in the SMS technology, Perceived usefulness, quality and reliability of the information, Perceived risk to user privacy, Perceived reliability of mobile network and system performance, Perceived relevance, Trust of the government and perceived quality of public services, Perceived risk to money, Perceived availability of device and infrastructure, Perceived compatibility, Self-efficacy in using SMS. However, the relationship among the variables was not investigated in this study. Besides, the results may not be the same for the developing countries because of the respondents in this study mainly the citizens who have internet access.

Afterward Susanto and Goodwin (2010a) conducted another experimental study in Australia where they implemented two m-government systems are called SMS-MIIAS and SMS-OBM. The authors have experimented SMS-MIIAS among the Muslim community in which they can get information about the time for praying and breaking fast during month of Ramadhan and SMS-OBM for business people to know information about business event. The results show that interpersonal influence significantly affects the adoption-decision. In addition to that perceived usefulness, perceived value, perceived convenience, perceived relevance, quality and reliability of information influence the adoption behaviour.

Al-Hadidi and Rezgui (2010) investigated adoption and diffusion factors of m-Government in developed and developing countries. The authors have found the technical and non-technical and as well as economic factors are influencing the adoption of m-Government. First of all, the lack of infrastructure is the main barrier particularly in developing countries. Another technical barrier is security which is equally important for both

developed and developing countries. Next the authors have identified culture as non-technical barrier such as: trust, language, resistance to change, management support and user expectation. Demographic factors such as income, education level, gender, age also affect the adoption behaviour and most importantly lack of legal status also a big challenge for some countries. Finally, they focus on the economic impacts such as reducing cost and time, decrease corruption and increase transparency and accountability. However, these factors are found from the literature review not empirically proved.

As previous studies Susanto and Goodwin (2010) identified 15 beliefs in adoption of sms-based e-government services, they have validated sms-based e-government model which derived from those beliefs and some others technology adoption model (Susanto and Goodwin, 2011). The authors have collected data from the 589 citizens those who never use sms-based e-government services in three cities in Indonesia. The results show that attitude towards use significantly influence the usages intention (UI). Perceived cost (PCt), perceived compatibility (PCy) and perceived convenience (PC) influence the attitude towards use(A). Self-efficacy(SE) significantly influence perceived ease of use(PEU) and perceived behavioural control(PBC) but perceived ease of use(PEU) not influence attitude towards use (A). Although facilitating condition (FC) significantly influence perceived behaviour control (PBC) still perceived behavioural control (PBC) and normative social influence (NSI) do not directly influence Usages intention (UI). Even though, perceived personal relationship (PPR), perceived risk (PRk) and perceived reliability and quality information (PRQI) also not influence attitude towards use (A). Authors have argued that due to the availability, low cost, simplicity of SMS-based e-government services, social pressure and perceived behaviour control may not influence the citizens. This study only considered sms-based e-government adoption rather than all types of mobile services. Besides the result has not reflected the citizens who are using the services.

Recently, Abdelghaffar, H and Magdy, Y (2012) conducted an empirical study on adoption of m-government services in Egypt. They used TAM, societal, individual, trust and cultural factors - to identify the essential factors of youth's m-government adoption. The result of this study indicated that the perceived usefulness, compatibility, social influence, youth's awareness and face to face interaction are significant determinants of youth adoption of m-government services. The authors found that higher level of perceived compatibility would increase youth intention to use m-government services. The study indicated that social influence had a significant contribution to the youth intention to adopt m-government services. The authors argued that the Egyptians are widely affected by their family and friends. Those who have better awareness about the usefulness of using m-government services are more likely to adopt m-government

services. Consistent with few studies, the result indicated that perceived ease of use is not significant. Likewise, internet experience, trust and personal connections were not supported.

Reviewing the literature shows that there is a limited study on adoption of m-government services in the literature. In the past, some studies have recognized the significance of government's principles of less corruption, accountability, transparency, direct communication and so on. And yet, none of the above studies have empirically validated those factors in m-government adoption.

Theoretical Framework and the Development of Hypothesis

This study have adopted UTAUT model as a foundation and extended further by adding a social construct such as good governance and less corruption. The following section describes the research model and the hypothesis.

Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT)

UTAUT has been developed by Venkatesh et al. (2003) by synthesizing constructs from eight technology acceptance models: the technology acceptance models; the theory of planned behaviour; the theory of reasoned action; the motivational model; a model of combining the theory of planned behaviour and the technology acceptance model; the model of PC utilization; the innovation diffusion theory; and the social cognitive theory. UTAUT consists of three determinants, those are, performance expectancy, effort expectancy and social influence, which influence directly to behaviour intention to use which has direct effect on the use of technology.

Another determinant is 'facilitating condition' which has direct effect on use of technology. Furthermore, age, experience, Gender and voluntariness of use are considered as the moderating factors in UTAUT model. Venkatesh et al. (2003) have claimed that UTAUT was able to explain 70% of technology acceptance behaviour, a considerable improvement on previous models which routinely explain over 40 % of acceptance.

Performance Expectancy is defined as 'the degree to which an individual believes that using the system will help him or her to attain gain in job performance'. Effort expectancy is defined as 'the degree of ease associated with the use of the system' (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Rashotte has defined social influence as 'change in an individual's thoughts, feelings, attitudes, or behaviors that results from interaction with another individual or a group' (Rashotte, 2011). Likewise, Venkatesh et al. (2003) have defined social influence as 'the degree to which an individual perceives that important others believe he or she should use the new system'. Facilitating condition is defined as 'the degree to which an individual believes that an

organizational and technical infrastructure exists to support use of the system' (Venkatesh et al., 2003). However, facilitating condition has been omitted from this study because it directly influences the usage behavior. Thus the following hypotheses have been developed.

H1: There is a direct and positive relationship between Performance expectancy and Intention to use m-government services.

H2: There is a direct and positive relationship between effort expectancy and Intention to use m-government services.

H3: There is a direct and positive relationship between social influence and Intention to Use m-government services.

Perceived Good Governance and Less Corruption

The terms 'good governance' is being increasingly used for last two decades. According to World Bank 'good governance' refers to "epitomized by predictable, open and enlightened policy making; a bureaucracy imbued with a professional ethos; an executive arm of government accountable for its actions; and a strong civil society participating in public affairs; and all behaving under the rule of law" (World Bank, 1994). The UNDP further elaborated this definition as "among other things, participatory, transparent and accountable. It is also effective and equitable. And it promotes the rule of law fairly. Good governance ensures that the voices of the poorest and the most vulnerable are heard in decision-making over the allocation of development resources, and that political, social and economic priorities are based on broad consensus among the three stakeholders – the state, private sector and civil society" (The Urban Governance Initiative, 2003).

In addition, UNDP described nine attributes of good governance such as participation, rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity, effectiveness and efficiency, accountability and strategic vision. Recently Kaufmann et al (2009, p.6) identified six dimensions of good governance those are defined as: voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law, control of corruption.

According to Thomas (2010) the above indicators are the most constructive and achieve maximum precision that many researchers have used those in their studies. Last few years, researchers have paid attention on 'good governance' in IT literatures. The use of ICT in government organization promoted good governance and that reduced corruption. The terms less corruption and good government are often used synonymously. It is generally accepted that corruption is an obstacle to good governance. As Klitgaard (cited in Zhang and Zhang, 2009) conceptualized corruption as: $\text{Corruption} = \text{Monopoly} + \text{Discretion} - \text{Accountability}$. Likewise,

Darwish (2008) presented good governance formula as: Good governance = efficiency Effective Transparent Administrative Body +Alert Active Civil Society. Alhujran (2009) found that citizen value transparency, accountability and less corruption when they use the e-government services. Similarly, Susanto and Goodwin (2010) explored that citizen's intention to use m-government services depends on 'perceived good government' and 'less corruption'. Thus the following hypothesis was considered in this study.

H4: There is a direct and positive relationship between Perceived Good Governance and Less Corruption and Intention to Use m-government services.

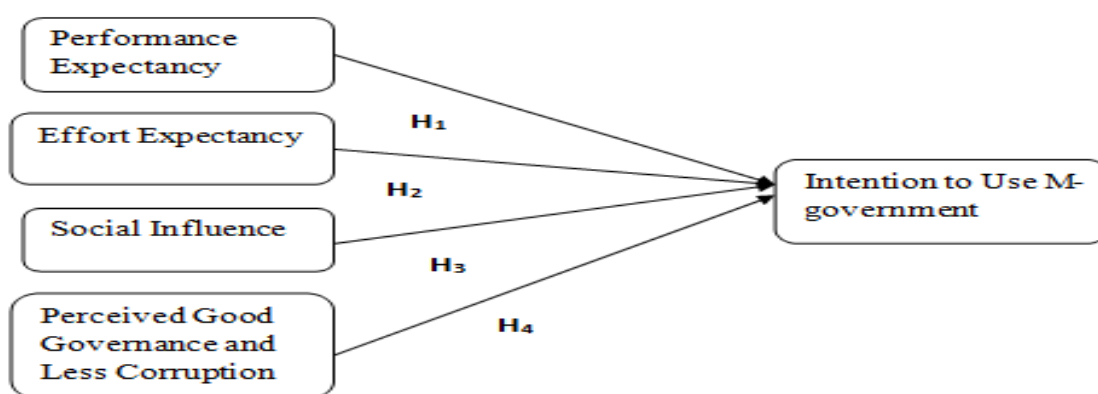


Figure 1: Proposed M-government Adoption Model

Research Methodology

The population for this study were Bangladeshi citizens. The data were collected randomly from the 524 participants from different background. Participants for this study were students, teachers, farmers, professionals and household members those who are using mobile phone. A total of 800 questionnaires were distributed and there were 560 returned questionnaires. The response rate was 70%, however 524 questionnaires were usable while 36 questionnaires contained missing data and excluded from the analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the demographic data. The reliability and the validity of the instrument were assessed with Reliability and Factor analysis using SPSS 20. And then the Structural equation modelling (SEM) have been used to test the overall model using AMOS 20.

Data Analysis

Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive analysis shows that the 263 (52.2%) of respondents were male and 261 (49.8%) of respondents were female. The highest percentages of age range of respondents are in 20 years and below (75.6 %). And remain 24.4% of respondents are in (21 years and above). Which indicates that m-

government adopters more from the young generations. The result also indicates that 405 of respondents (77.3%) are students while remain 22.7% are other professions such as Farmer (6.5%), businessman (7.6%), employees, small shopkeeper, rickshaw driver, housewives and others. Highest percentage (89.1%) of respondents are earning less than 5,000 Taka while only 5.2% are earning 5000-10000 taka and remain few percentage are earning more than 10000 taka. Among respondents almost 92% of respondents have experienced with m-government while only 8% have never used but they have intention to use in near future.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA):

The table 1 shows the Cronbach's Alpha for every constructs are above .7 which indicates that the internal consistency was acceptable. Factor loading for each items were also above .4 (cut-off point). So, all items were kept for the further analysis.

Table 1: Reliability and Items Loadings

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Good Governance and Less Corruption (PGGLC)	PGGLC1	.533	.818
	PGGLC2	.731	
	PGGLC3	.694	
	PGGLC4	.734	
	PGGLC5	.809	
	PGGLC6	.542	
	PGGLC7	.570	
Performance Expectancy (PE)	PE1	.702	.763
	PE2	.727	
	PE3	.707	
	PE4	.617	
Effort Expectancy (EE)	EE1	.797	.793
	EE2	.630	
	EE3	.823	
	EE4	.801	
Social Influence (SI)	SI1	.649	.754
	SI2	.589	
	SI3	.612	
	SI4	.658	
	SI5	.558	

Measurement Model

Convergent validity and discriminant validity were evaluated in CFA analysis. The measurement model shows that there are no offending estimates and it indicates that the model fits well. The results of all fit indexes support the model. Chi-square value was 373.934 and P-value was .000 which indicating the statistical significant that is good. Normed Chi-square (CMIN) is 1.71 which is acceptable because it is below the maximum point of 5.0. Moreover, CFI = .948, IFI = .949 and GFI = .942 those indicate the good fit of measurement model. Furthermore, RMSEA

value .037 is considered very good model fit. The table 2 shows the fit summery which compare with the cut-off values according to Hair et al.

(2010).

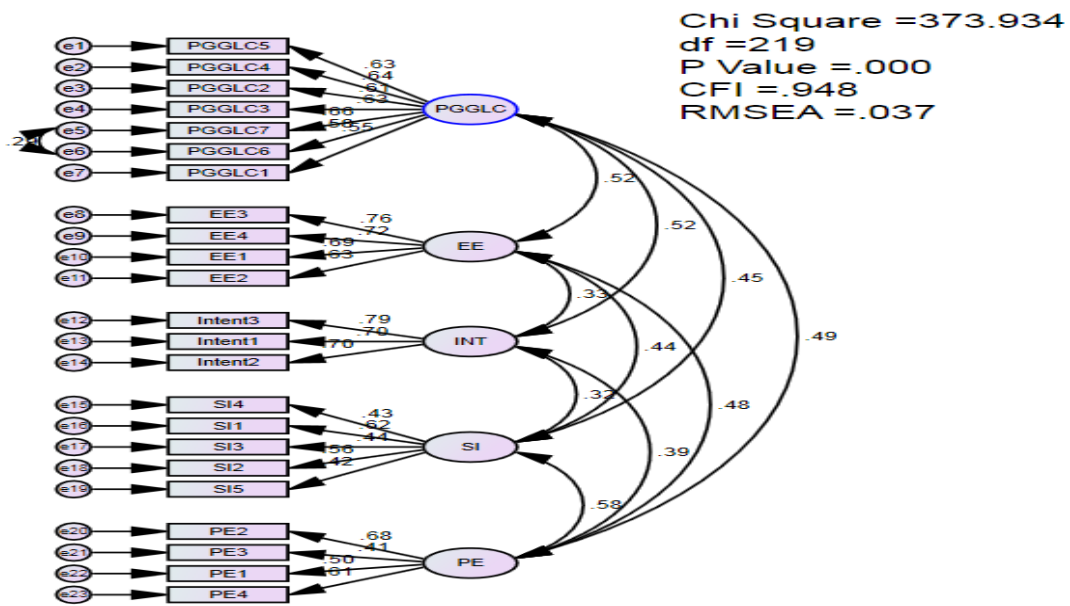


Figure 2: Measurement Model

Table 2: Fit Indexes

Fit Indexes	Recommended Threshold	Model Output
Chi-Square/df	<.3 good; <.5 sometimes permissible	1.707
P-value for the model	>.05	.000
CFI	>.95 Great; .90 Traditional >.80 sometimes permissible	.948
GFI	>.95	.942
AGFI	>.80	.927
RMSEA	<.05 good; .05 - .10 moderate; >.10 bad	.037
PCLOSE	>.05	1.000
IFI	NFI >=0.90	.949
TLI	TLI >=0.90	.940

Structural Model

After successfully fitting of the measurement model, now structural model is need to asses. A structural equation model was estimated using AMOS 20. As indicated in figure 2, the chi-square for this model was significant, $\chi^2 = 373.934$, $p = 0.000$. This shows that the model fits the data well. The overall goodness of fit statistics was also acceptable. The normed chi-square (CMIN) value of 1.707 which is below 5 that is very good. The CFI = 948 which is more than .90 and RMSEA = .037 which is below the cut-off point

of 0.08. Other fit Indices also were acceptable range from the figure. These indicate a good fit of the model.

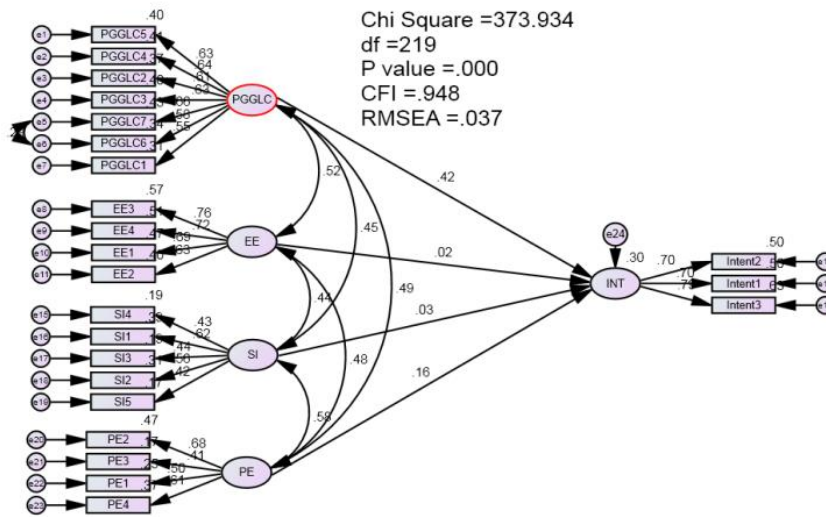


Figure 3: Structural Model

Hypothesis Testing

The finding indicates that the two out of the main four hypotheses are supported. The study found that performance expectancy has significant and positive influence on adoption of M-government ($\beta = .16$) so hypothesis is supported. The path was significant at the $p < 0.05$ significant level. Ease of use has positively influence on adoption of M-government ($\beta = .02$) but was not significant, $p = .754$. Thus, the hypothesis is not supported. Social influence negative value of $\beta = .03$ and $p = .740$ which is not significant. So, the hypothesis is not supported. Structural path between perceived good governance and less corruption and intention to use M-government services was highly significant at $p < .001$ level and $\beta = .42$, thus, the hypothesis is supported.

Table 3: Summery of the Results

Hypothesis	Exogenous	Path	Endogenous	Std. Estimates	CR	P Value	Result
H1	PE	→	Intention	.16	2.001	.045	Supported
H2	EE	→	Intention	.02	.249	.803	Not Supported
H3	SI	→	Intention	-.05	-.551	.581	Not Supported
H4	PGGLC	→	Intention	.30	3.996	.000	Supported

Discussion and Conclusion

This study has empirically investigated the factors that affect intention to use mobile government services among citizen of Bangladesh. These factors are performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence and perceived good governance and less corruption. The findings showed that performance expectancy and perceived good governance and less corruption

have significantly influence the intention to use mobile government services. The effort expectancy is not influencing the intention which is consistent with prior studies in (Adams, Nelson, & Todd, 1992; Gefen & Straub, 2000). The reason they provided that the user of technology in this modern era are very confident. Hence the effort expectancy is not a critical factor in technology adoption. However, the surprisingly social influence did not influence the citizen intention to use. This result is inconsistent with many previous studies. This is because of the more option they (citizens) have when they use M-government services. Since they are using the services voluntarily, social influence does not affect their intention behavior. Despite the useful results found, this study has few limitations that also need to be acknowledged. This study has explained only 30% of variance and proportion of student sample was more compare to other profession. Future studies might consider those limitations and the study can be tested in developed countries.

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23. Bureaucracy and E-government: A study of e-procurement initiatives in Bangladesh

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Sharif As-Saber
Simon Fry
RFI Smith

Introduction

The use of information and communication technology (ICT) in public sector organizations has transformed the governance landscape in many developed and developing countries. As a developing country aspiring to improve its service delivery through improved governance process, Bangladesh has also started using ICT in its public sector organizations. Known as e-procurement, the ICT-based public procurement has both opportunities and challenges. Researchers identify leadership role and pro-activeness of bureaucracy as one of the critical success factors in adopting e-procurement.

Based on a study of e-procurement across four government ministries of the Government of Bangladesh, this paper aims to look at the current situation of the public e-procurement implementation process in Bangladesh and critically analyse the role of bureaucratic leadership in making e-procurement adoption a reality.

Structure of the Paper

First, the paper looks at the public procurement and e-government status of Bangladesh and how bureaucracy is linked with the entire process to set up the background of the research. The following section reviews literature on e-government as well as e-procurement to provide wisdom on the topic. The subsequent section briefly analyses the features in the light of information gathered from both primary data and secondary data sources. Finally it would conclude the discussion in view of overall argument. The final section of the paper provides a model for the problem of e-procurement adoption for developing countries. This model focuses on several core areas like capacity building, institutionalization and as the underlying foundation of the problems including the infrastructure/e-readiness and political consideration. Furthermore, the model provides a framework that can lead to successful e-procurement in the comparatively traditional as well as rigid public sector.

Public Procurement : Bangladesh Context

Public procurement is more than just purchasing, rather it is a function through which governments acquire goods, works and services from market with a view to provide facilities and services to its citizens. Bangladesh, as a developing country, spent over US\$3 billion in the fiscal year 2011-2012 on procurement with a steady increase over last five years (FDB, 2012). The estimated economic loss due to inefficiency and wastage in procurement costs over 1.5% of GDP per annum (The ADB, 2011;WB, 2013).The magnitude of such expenses indicates the importance of procurement as a key activity of the government. The basic principle of public procurement is to obtain the right item with the right price within a time frame through the use of an open and transparent process (Neupane, Soar, Vaidya and Yong, 2012). However, it is not an easy task to maintain this principle, especially in a developing country context where the levels of efficiency and transparency are not adequate and may affect the entire process (Schooner, 2011; Wittig, 2003, OECD, 2011).

To understand public procurement in Bangladesh, it is important to understand its background .Bangladesh is a democratic republic with a unitary, parliamentary styled government which emerged as an independent country in 1971. Previously colonised by the British and subjugated by the Pakistani regime, the country has been bearing the legacy of unconstitutional and colonial rules and exploitative and corrupt practices in state activities (Jahan, 2006, Haque, 1995). Since independence all three organs of the state, executive, legislature and judiciary, have increasingly been attracting criticisms of high incidence of corruption, but there is little evidence of any significant actions taken by the government in addressing these issues (Mahmood, 2010). Consequently, addressing issues associated with ethics, integrity, accountability or conflict of interest has not been considered as a priority for any legislative, judicial and administrative reforms in the country (Bangladesh Observer, 2006; Jahan, 2006 and Haque, 1995). Following the trend and given the involvement of significant amounts of expenditure, public procurement becomes a fertile area for corrupt and inefficient practices (TIB, 2009).

Country Assessment Report on public procurement effectiveness jointly under taken by the World Bank and the Government of Bangladesh in 2007 identified the following problems that affect procurement performance :

- a. Inefficiency in administering the process in terms of delay in its different stages together with the lack of professionalism in understanding market and goods, preparing tender documents, overlapping and hierarchal approval procedure etc.;
- b. Noncompliance with Procurement Act and there under rules, lack of review and proper monitoring which is leading to lack of accountability

- c. The lack of openness, accessibility and equal treatment to all suppliers/contractors resulting in the lack of transparency; and
- d. Absence of proper mechanisms to ensure stakeholder participation, recording feedback, complaints, fraud and corruption as well as taking actions addressing these issues leading to non-responsiveness of the system.

In addition, violence and mafia dominance in relation to tender processes are other experiences (TIB2009). It is evident that, mafias have strong links with political parties and they try to influence the tendering process in their favor. Political parties often support or provide shelter to them as parties rely on them at the time of election and other political activities. They consider the public procurement budget as an avenue for rewarding their activists. Besides, bribing officials and politicians to win government procurement bids is a common practice for individuals or firms (TIB, 2011). There is a lack of independent and proactive judiciary to review or check the corrupt procurement practices (TIB, 2009). Although an independent ‘Anti-corruption Commission’ was founded in 2004 to fight against corruption in the country, there is doubt whether the Commission is functioning effectively or not (Mahmood, 2010).

In the given context, there have been pressures on the government from development partners and civil society groups in Bangladesh to combat corruption and to create a transparent, efficient and accountable public procurement system (WB, 2009; TIB 2009). Moreover, existing public procurement practices in Bangladesh are identified as inefficient affecting economic growth, poverty alleviation programs, overall development and governance (ADB, 2011; World Bank, 2009). It is argued that the introduction of e-procurement could improve the situation.

E-Government, E-Procurement and Bangladesh

The digital era of Bangladesh started in the late 1990s although the government formally affirmed ICT as the thrust sector in 2001 by declaring government’s vision to establish a “Digital Bangladesh” by the year 2021. In recent times, Bangladesh has made significant progress in introducing ICT in the public sector with a revolution in the telecommunication sector (BTRC, 2013) even though, the latest UN -Government Readiness Survey 2010 has ranked Bangladesh 161st position among 190 countries. According to Bangladesh Telecommunication Regulatory Commission (BTRC), more than 75% of the total population have access to mobile phones. Bangladesh belongs to the top ten economies with the least costly mobile phone service prices (ITU, 2009) and Bangladesh was connected to submarine cable in 2006 while second connection is underway as a redundant and alternate path to the information super highway. Among noteworthy initiatives are the adoption of ICT Policy, Support to ICT Taskforce (SICT) and UNDP supported Access to Information (A2I) are important. The government

exempted all computers and peripherals from taxation to promote ICT (Bhuiyan, 2010). All of the government offices have their own websites and provide important information and e-services to citizens and businesses. A separate ministry titled 'Ministry of ICT' is established to lead the sector and to serve as policy nucleus for e-Government. The Ministry has been involved in providing physical and ICT infrastructure facilities for the software industry, delivering ICT training to government officials and citizens, facilitating overall ICT development both in public and private sector and assisting in the disbursement of equity funds to the ICT sector (BEI, 2004; JOBS/IRIS, 2005).

The government has established the national web-portal (www.bangladesh.gov.bd). The passing of ICT Act, 2009, Right to Information Act, 2009 and National Identification Registration Law, 2010 are further steps by the government to advance ICT. These acts include regulation of electronic payment and digital signature as well as establishing Controller of Certifying Authorities (CCA) which paved the way for introducing online payment services, a pre-condition for transactional e-service implementation. In the financial sector, both public and private commercial banks are providing online services such as account operations and inquiries, fund transfers and payments, utility bill payments, deposits and loans including the issuance of plastic cards to their clients (Al-Amin, 2009). All these efforts and developments point out that Bangladesh is moving forward to e-government. In continuation of the above progress, a distinct pilot project titled 'Public Procurement Reform Project II' supported by the World Bank is under implantation since July 2007 to adopt full-fledged e-procurement system across sixteen Procuring Entities (PEs) under four sectoral agencies. The system will gradually and ultimately be expanded across all government agencies of the government (CPTU, 2013; WB, 2013). Four government ministries i.e. Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, Ministry of Communication, Ministry of Power and Mineral Resources, Ministry of Water Resources and their attached departments i.e. Department of Local Government and Engineering, Department of Roads and High Ways, Water Development Board, Rural Electrification Board were implemented the pilot e-procurement project. These four ministries and agencies were chosen for piloting e-procurement because they are responsible for infrastructure development and maintenance of infrastructure, usually spend a big amount of the national procurement budget and are accused of not performing well in many cases. The pilot project was commenced as a part of comprehensive public procurement reform initiative. Originally the Project was supposed to be completed by June 2012, but it is continuing with an extension till December 2016 with additional fund from the World Bank to run the project. The total cost of the pilot project is US\$ 59.4 million (WB, 2013). The case study has scrutinized this pilot case.

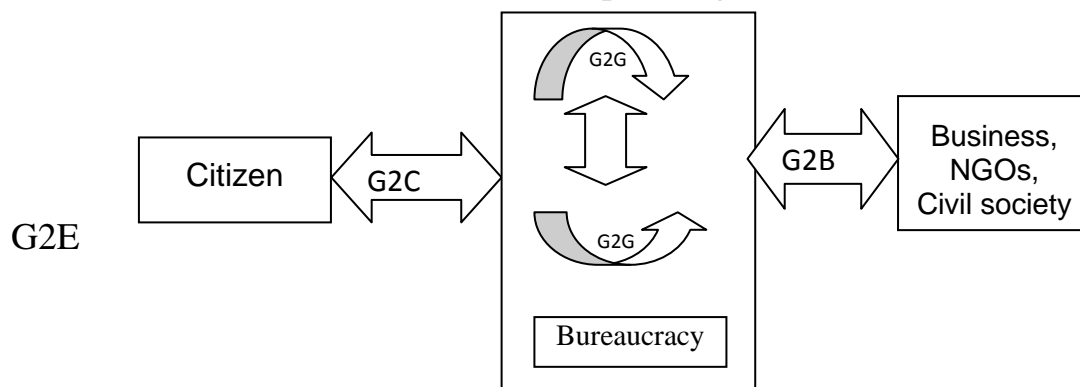
Meanwhile, GoB had enacted the ground breaking Public Procurement Act in 2006 followed by Public Procurement Regulation 2008, which provides a framework for the government public procurement process (WB, 2009). Considering the opportunities of e-procurement and to address the above-mentioned weaknesses, the Government of Bangladesh (four ministries) started implementing full-fledged e-procurement process on a pilot basis since 2007 (CPTU, 2013). Despite taking these important steps, a shift from a paper-based, traditional, manual and centralised system to an electronic system with compliance of the public procurement act is not without challenges (Haque, 2010; WB, 2009) although the program receives strong political commitment from the highest level of present government. An OECD (2002) research project has shown that ICT investments caused a rise in GDP. In many developing countries e-government initiatives have flourished such as Brazil, India, Chile, Argentina, the Philippines, etc. (WB, 2012; UNDP, 2006). However, there are evidences of failure in many other initiatives. It also revealed that nearly 32 countries were the world's least developed countries featured by stagnant and insufficient information with few interactive features and non-available online services. Heeks (2003) has found that more than one-third of the e-government initiatives are total failures while roughly one seventh are successful.

The constraints identified for other countries e-government and e-procurement might be in common with Bangladesh.

Bureaucracy, e-government and e-procurement

Bureaucracy is the key mechanism that mediates the relationship between citizen and government through a complex set of institutional and cultural settings, generally named as public administration (Basu 2004). As state machinery, bureaucracy has a vital role in under taking any reform across public sector organizations. Figure 1 illustrates the central and multi-dimensional role of the bureaucracy in the e-government system.

Figure 1: Multi-dimensional relationships in e-government



Source: Adapted from Jeong & Nawi (2007)

For that reason, evaluating the role of bureaucracy in implementing e-procurement in Bangladesh is a complex task. Therefore, it is important to

understand bureaucratic characteristics of Bangladesh and how the bureaucracy responds to any change or reform. The bureaucratic structure of Government of Bangladesh (GoB) is centralised, formalised, large in size and poorly paid (PARC, 2000). Some argue that it is ill-disciplined, inadequately trained and reform-resistant (Khan, 1998). It is also argued that 'bureaucratic traditions in Bangladesh can be characterised as 'postcolonial', combining multiple features directly traceable to colonial institutions and ancient rural community with post-independence adaptations and innovations based on the donor-driven administrative reforms, appearing as new 'layers' on the original bedrock' (Masud, 2014 p.1). These reforms have been introduced to enhance the accountability of the bureaucracy. In addition, military intervention and politicisation of the bureaucracy has resulted in a dominating bureaucratic structure with corruption (Mollah, 2011). The politicisation of the bureaucracy and its consequence on administrative performance is identified as one of the persistent challenge in governance (Zafarullah and Khan, 2001). There is a growing tendency to develop a mutual relationship between the politicians and bureaucrats by shifting bureaucrats' position from dominating to alliance (Huque and Rahman, 2003). Promotion, transfer and other opportunities for civil servants are determined by political considerations not from a professional perspective that is affecting the career prospects of civil servants or the services to citizens. (Khan, 2003). Given the context, adoption of innovation like e-procurement and its internalisation is a challenging task. As the key institution for policy implementation, the role of the bureaucracy in coping with the changing economic and political order both at global and local level, it is required to redefine its role and put correct efforts in place.

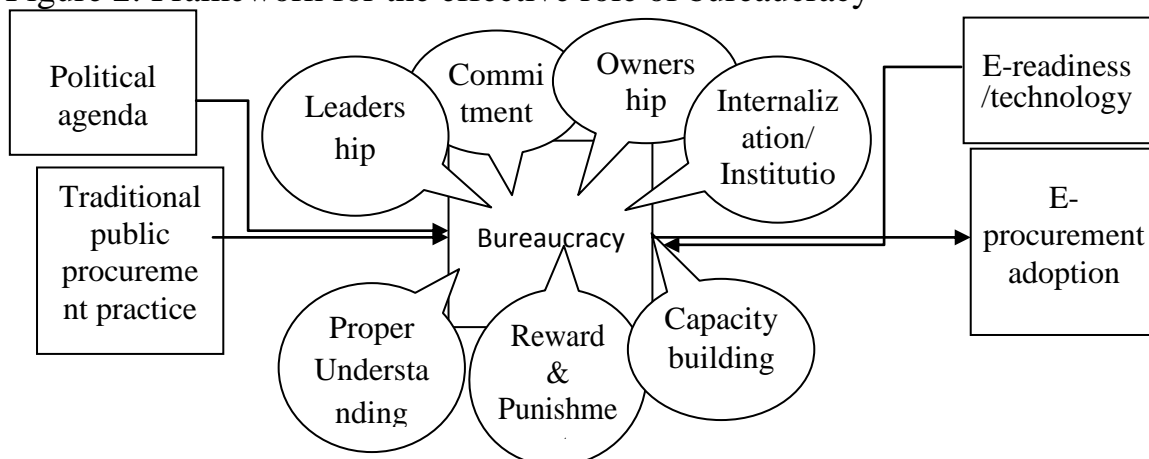
Key theories linked to this e-procurement/e-government research

The review of the procurement literature identifies several models/ theories developed over the last two decades which capture the debates and dynamics of e-government with some focus on e-procurement. Most of the studies contributing to theoretical models have been done on e-government and e-procurement involving developed country perspectives with only a few focusing on the developing country context. Some of the theories have pointed out the level of governments' political and bureaucratic leadership and managerial commitment as key success factors critical in achieving e-procurement objectives. This particular research is looking at the role of bureaucracy in e-procurement adoption. As-Saber, Hossain & Srivastava (2007), As-Saber and Rahim, (2011), Imran (2010) and Bhatnagar (2002) refer to training for the government employees as crucial for successful assimilation of e-government in other words e-procurement. The Bhatnagar model explains that the benefits of e-government and the key steps of reengineering processes need to be demonstrated to civil servants through

short pilot projects/trials. Such pilots would help to understand the innovation and its associated emerging issues and would develop a sense of ownership to take it forward. The model also identifies bureaucratic ownership and strong project management skills as key elements for successful and sustainable e-government or e-procurement implementation. The theory of As-Saber and Rahim (2011) argues that a thorough homework needs to be done with a view to create a uniform understanding on the benefits of e-procurement across the organizations to minimise challenges such as lack of organisational commitment and resistance to change. In addition, an appropriate budget structure, a customised technical solution, incentives, proper training and genuine bureaucratic commitments to implement e-procurement are essential. Change management approach (Phillips 1983, Kotter 2011) identifies factors such as recognizing the changes in the broader business environment, developing the necessary adjustments for organisation's needs, training their employees on the appropriate changes and winning the support of the employees with the persuasiveness of the appropriate adjustments for the successful diffusion of innovation. Similarly, Jane Fountain offers a framework or 'technology enactment' in her book titled *Building the Virtual State* that integrates an understanding of bureaucratic politics, network formation, and organisational structure. She points at the complexity of the intellectual, cultural, and institutional settings and their relationship with the design, perceptions and uses of information technology. Fountain argues that institutional and/or operational changes within bureaucracy are important for the integration of the innovation (Fountain, 2001, pp. 99-100).

Theories discussed above are used as guiding principles of this research. Based on the above discussion including the theoretical underpinnings, a conceptual framework is outlined (Figure 2). The framework captures the critical areas which are crucial in making the role of bureaucracy effective towards successful e-procurement adoption in Bangladesh.

Figure 2: Framework for the effective role of bureaucracy



Method

The Authors are involved in a PhD research project at RMIT University titled 'E-procurement as an Instrument in improving Public Procurement Process: A Bangladesh Perspective' which is scrutinizing the extent of benefits/improvement likely to derive from e-procurement in the governance of the public procurement process in Bangladesh; the challenges of implementing public e-procurement in Bangladesh; and the possible ways to overcome these challenges. Data source and analysis of this paper relies on that project. The proposed research is an empirical and exploratory research using a qualitative research method involving a case study research design by using qualitative data collection techniques such as interview, observation, content analysis etc. Four government ministries and their attached departments were chosen as the unit of analysis for the study since these ministries are a part of a pilot project supported by the World Bank to introduce e-procurement in Bangladesh. Key officials of these agencies were interviewed. In addition, the Comptroller and Auditor General and Central Procurement Technical Unit (CPTU) are included in the study. Members of Parliament, representatives of key stakeholder groups are also incorporated in the study that includes the World Bank, business community (contractors & suppliers), Transparency International, procurement experts and Anti-Corruption Commission.

Findings and Analysis

Table 1 shows different phases of five e-government models that present a possible evolutionary pattern of e-government. The models are fairly similar. According to the models, the level of cost, complexity, efficiency and maturity are incremental. At the same time risks and complexity are higher at upper stages which are expensive to implement (As-Saber, Srivastava and Hossain, 2006). E-procurement, an important component of e-government involves transaction and situates at the higher level of e-government thus associate with higher challenges during the implementation process.

Table 1: Categorisation of e-government stages

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6
Layne and Lee(2001)		Catalogue	Transaction	Vertical integration	Horizontal integration	
Baum and Di Maio(2000)		Presence	Interaction	Transaction	Transformation	
Ronagham (2001) (UNPA&ASPA, 2001)	Emerging presence	Enhanced presence	Interactive	Transactional	Seamless	
Hiller and Belanger (2001)		Information Dissemination	Two-way communication	Integration	Transaction	Participation
Wescott (2001)	E-mail And internal work	Enable Inter-organisational and public access to information	Two-way communication	Exchange of value	Digital democracy	Joined-up government

Source: Coursey and Norris (2008), p: 524

An e-government case study of Bangladesh done in 2010 (Bhuiyan, 2010) shows that full electronic transaction is not available in Bangladesh. Therefore a strong thrust is required to shift the current position forward. As a major state organ, bureaucracy has a vital and thoughtful role to play as identified in the literature review as well as the conceptual framework.

Leadership role

From findings both interview and documents, it is perceived that there is an enormous potential and scope of e-procurement in streamlining the procurement process in Bangladesh. It appears that while e-government adoption is high on the agenda of the Government of Bangladesh, the e-procurement pilot project and its implementation did not get the same priority in line with that to achieve its optimum outcome. The role of the World Bank as major financier of the project is found significant and stronger compared to the Government of Bangladesh in terms of day to day progress monitoring and keeping track with the project activities regularly. Ministry of ICT, as the lead ministry is not formally linked and informed about the e-procurement project updates. Although the other four line ministries have direct links and obligations to steer and monitor e-procurement, those ministries are also not well informed or updated about the project status. CPTU is the key agency which is responsible for the whole procurement reform agenda is playing key role on behalf of the GoB. Since CPTU is not the parent organisation of the procuring agencies that weakens the whole approach. It can be argued that lack of monitoring and involvement of the top level management has weakened the implementation dynamism. This point indicates that an energetic leadership to steer the e-procurement adoption process seems to be missing to some extent.

Commitment and Ownership

Literature shows that bureaucratic commitment is crucial in the adoption of e-procurement. It is seen that only concerned officials or those employees who are directly involved with e-procurement pilot project, at best 2 or 3 persons in the entire office, know about e-procurement and are able to operate the process. There was a target of accomplishing 100 e-tenders for each of the agencies under the pilot project. They did the task for the sake of full filling that target. The level of commitment of top level management and the employees are not high as demonstrated in papers and policies. Although almost all government agencies have technical staffs with ICT knowledge, their work is not visible or noteworthy in making the office technology friendly. There is no mechanism to supervise or assess websites or online services yet or attempt to update existing websites with up-to-date information regularly. Communications with and within different public offices still depend on telephone; fax and traditional paper based writing communication. Lack of strong demonstration of bureaucratic willingness to

adopt e-procurement is evident. The overall attitude of the officials is not very congenial to make e-procurement a reality.

Understanding and Capacity

Bangladesh, like many other developing countries, has been struggling to sort out an effective strategy to embrace full-fledged and successful e-government across public sector organisations. Imran (2010) claims that lack of knowledge and deep-rooted attitudes and mindsets are the key underlying contributors to the lack of progress. After doing the relevant document analysis, it can be argued that there is no such comprehensive e-government capacity building strategy which can provide proper understanding. Some emphasis is given on very short term ICT training which can be considered as a technical tool in implementing the e-procurement techniques and processes, or to run e-systems. However, the philosophical stance of e-government ore-procurement as well as their relevance to the national development, people's needs and societal aspirations has not been systematically addressed. Also how it re-engineers the process and its critical transformation to good governance is not covered in the training modules. Most of the respondents from both e-procurement implementing agencies and contractors mentioned that they have been facing difficulty to handle e-procurement system daily basis that indicates the need of appropriate training. According to the majority of the respondents, the possible measures to mitigate these challenges could be like comprehensive training for both government officials at different levels and for other stakeholders /contractors to roll it out and to make the effort effective as well as sustainable.

Incentives for e-procurement

As Saber and Rahim (2011) argue that the use of appropriate performance management tools such as incentive or pressure might have positive impact in implementing e-procurement. There was no such attempt in case of Bangladesh e-procurement pilot project initially. But at the final stage of the e-procurement pilot project the World Bank offered incentives for the officials involved in the process. If any agency can fulfil their target of 100 e-tenders and do more than that they will receive extra funds to buy computers and other logistics also might get a chance to avail higher level abroad training. This offer had a positive impact on some of the young officers' performances.

Institutionalisation

According to Fountain (2001) the real challenges of the diffusion of ICT based system lie not in attaining the technical ability, rather in triumph over the deep-rooted organizational and political divisions within the state. She termed this challenge as 'political and structural battles' which influence how the system will be remade in the digital era, also who will be the winners and losers in an ICT based society. Fountain also argues that

institutional actors often endeavour to use the new technology to strengthen existing institutional realities. ICT is not always, in fact, revolutionary in most large institutions like governments since those are strongly directed by cognitive and formal arrangements. So, it is important to implant the e-system in the institutional structure. In case of e-procurement in Bangladesh, the endeavour is an additional or ad-hoc arrangement.

Discussion

This study indicates where effort should be placed to redress the underlying problems that situates at the core of adopting ICT.

The Bangladesh bureaucracy has largely been criticized for not being proactive rather being non-responsive to any reform in the public sector (Zafrullah, 2006). Adding to this common problem, several factors those contribute in making a poor show of bureaucracy should be recognised. Firstly e-procurement is an emerging phenomenon; it is not well understood by the bureaucracy and other stakeholders. The project failed to make public organization officials understand opportunities of e-procurement and its strategic link with country's development rather the project objectives are narrowly focused. The current capacity building initiatives linked to e-government and e-procurement are inadequate that is not helping the situation to improve. That might have a chain effect on the commitment level of the bureaucrats.

Secondly, since e-procurement is situated at a higher stage of e-government, which is by and large pointing to the e-readiness issue, not an issue that links to bureaucracy only rather links to the whole system. Thirdly, e-procurement is such an innovation which does not have direct or visible benefit of mass people. Besides, it is not considered to be a service to citizens also not much popular as an election agenda in a democratic system. Therefore, the e-procurement agenda could not attract proper attention from political and bureaucratic end it has a great implication in implementing annual development plan of the government as well as national development as a whole. It can be argued that e-procurement agenda is undermined to some extent. This might have a role in not developing a commitment or sense of ownership among bureaucrats to take it forward.

Lastly, this research has found that e-procurement implementation was not linked with organisations' mainstream function or employees' charter of duties or with their career. So, employees do not feel pressure or obligated to learn and practice e-procurement. This has slowed the e-procurement adoption. The phenomenon can be termed as issue of internalization or institutionalization. On the basis of the discussion, this paper supports suggests a model (figure 2) that would help to make the role of bureaucracy more effective in adopting e-procurement. Although the model is developed on the basis of Bangladesh experience but applicable to developing countries like Bangladesh.

Conclusion

To summarise, the paper suggests a conceptual model for addressing the problem of bureaucracy in e-procurement adoption for developing countries. This model focuses on several core areas like capacity building, institutionalization and as the underlying foundation of the problems including the infrastructure/ e-readiness and political consideration. Furthermore, the model is a comprehensive approach may lead e-procurement towards a successful adoption in the comparatively traditional as well as rigid public sector.

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24. The Role of Union Information and Service Centres (UISC) in Developing Entrepreneurship

Md Gofran Faruqi

Introduction

Entrepreneurship brings economic dynamism, growth and development which alter the status-quo. Whereas Bangladesh is striving to ensure atmosphere for entrepreneurship since decades in various fields of development for desired economic growth and address unemployment it has boosted the effort recently adopting the ICT as the main enabler of change. Emboldened by the techno-centric mission the 'Digital Bangladesh', since 2009, it aspires to promote development entrepreneurs who will facilitate its upliftment from the Low Income Country (LIC) to the Medium Income Country (MIC) by the year 2021, popularly levelled as 'Vision 2021'. But generating entrepreneurs using ICT, though small in magnitude, has largely remained limited in urban locations depriving millions of rural people due to asymmetry in access to the ICT, infrastructure, education and governance. Hence, the advisory and technical unit of the government on e-services, the Access to Information (A2I), has innovated a strategy designated as 'Union Information and Service Centres (UISC)', which is in operation since 2010, to bridge the digital divide and provide benefits of ICT to wider rural masses and create entrepreneurship ventures. The UISC is an ICT equipped shared access point located at the Union Parishad (UP), the lowest decentralised local government unit, which provides various public and private information and services leveraging opportunities to rural people to educational, personal, social and economic development (Schumpeter, 1949; Siddiquee and Faruqi, 2013; A2I, 2011; 2012).

Across the country 4547 UISCs have employed approximately 9094 *Uddaktas* (entrepreneurs, one male and a female in each of them) under public-private partnership (PPP). But contrary to engaging full grown private entrepreneurs for efficiency gains under PPP, these entrepreneurs are very small scale investors, home grown and amateur. Lack of skills for entrepreneurship, lack of external support from government and local government makes the task of entrepreneurship development even challenging (IGS, 2009; Siddiquee and Faruqi 2013). Yet, the appropriate support from government and local government synergized with entrepreneur's own initiative can truly generate entrepreneurship winning the initial turmoil (Shadrach and Sharma, 2011). This paper addresses the

potentials and challenges of creating entrepreneurship by the UISC and also draws some lessons to overcome challenges.

Literature Review

Telecentre is seen as the platform for entrepreneurship especially catalysed by public-private partnership (PPP). The emphasis for entrepreneurship comes from necessity for survival, growth and expansions of the model when the external support will cease to continue. While the government provides the infrastructure or the initial hardware of the telecentre it expects the much needed software, the efficiency, would come from the private sector with subsequent entrepreneurship developed for growing the business (Shadrach and Sharma, 2011; ITU 2013; World Bank, 2007). This is also consistent with the Schumpeterian definition of entrepreneurship as “the assumption of risk and responsibility in designing and implementing a business strategy” (Schumpeter, 1949). Ronstadt (1984) operationalises the assumptions and defines entrepreneurs as individuals who take risks in investing time, career choice and equity for creating value in products or in service. Kilby (1971, cited in Balachandran & Sakthivelan, 2013) lists a host of functions of entrepreneurs such as exploring market opportunities, resource command, and competitiveness, rapport with the bureaucracy, customer and human resource management, control over production, oversight, quality control and innovation. More recently, the term is extended to refer reforms in mindset to pursue business not just for profit but also for social and environmental ends such as the mission of a social enterprise (Cukier et al, 2011).

Public-Private Partnership (PPP) is viewed as an avenue for collective entrepreneurship development where multiple parties are engaged for value creation under a contractual relationship with distinct roles and responsibilities (Silva and Rodrigues 2005; Hodge 2004). Like other policy innovations on the same premise such as privatization and outsourcing, PPP attracts governments because it may provide ‘value for money’ by transferring risks to the competent risk manager. For private entrepreneurs it holds incentives to be time and cost efficient, innovative and entrepreneurial and to operate the asset with care to optimise benefits from it (Flynn, 2007; Webb & Pulle, 2002).

However, PPP does not always allow engaging leaders in business, especially, if there is none. Partners can also be local residents with limited skills or resources where the government’s goal is to promote local entrepreneurship by offering scope for small scale investment (Wambalaba et al 2006) It gives the government opportunity to use the private sector as agents of change as well as for the latter to earn a living and profit and spin-off the development (Datta and Saxena 2013). This is especially true for

entrepreneurs of telecentres in many developing countries (Sharma, 2011). Contrary to the approach of building telecentres with the finance from the private sector, as the conventional PPP defines, many telecentres, built on PPP concept, in developing countries are initially financed by the government that expects that it would ultimately be owned by the private sector by attaining the operational efficiency. The development of entrepreneurship is, thus, central for attaining operational efficacy and becoming sustainable in future out of fragile private sector¹ (Kuriyan & Ray 2009; Sharma, 2011).

Though the efficiency gains are desired from the private sector achieving such goals in a developing country context from home grown and local entrepreneurs is easier said than done. Since entrepreneurs come from the rural community which suffers from poverty, lack of education and digital have nots the challenge for PPP for creating entrepreneurship is more hard-won. Key determinants are entrepreneur's engagement with the community, needful services, appropriate technology, increased income to reach break-even point and profit, investment, market skill and external support (Kuriyan & Ray 2009; Shadrach and Sharma, 2011). In this context it is worthwhile to examine how far the UISC, which traverses the similar paths of telecentres in other developing countries under PPP, can go to promote entrepreneurships of rural youths which, in turn, would ensure its own sustainability.

The research question for the study is: Can the UISC stimulate entrepreneurship among rural youths?

Methodology

The answer for the research question is founded on the qualitative method of interview supported by the analysis of secondary literature. Since the research question is about the entrepreneurship generation from the UISC hence respondents for interview are implementers of the UISC such as entrepreneurs, management officials and UP representatives. Across 16 UISCs of 4 districts² 19 Entrepreneurs, including 03 women were

¹ In a developing country it is difficult to find willing to private sector invest where the returns are not certain, given the poverty base of users. Moreover, the government have a mission of providing public goods to those who are disadvantaged and who are inaccessible due to digital divide. Hence, telecentre in developing countries must be designed as a social enterprise that has both goals: profit and public welfare. The entrepreneur of such model can more suitably be considered as a 'lifestyle entrepreneur' who thrives on both causes. The leadership in government has, therefore, roles in engaging the private partner by establishing careful balance between revenue and subsidy (Sharma, 2011; Silva and Rodrigues, 2005).

² 16 UISCs are chosen from 4 districts namely, *Comilla, Jessore, Bogra and Rajbari* of 4 old administrative divisions of the country (*Chittagong, Khula, Rajshai and Dhaka*)

interviewed using an in-depth instrument to collect information on their engagement, income and investment, relations with public and other management stakeholders, problems and potentials of their career as an entrepreneur, etc. Management officials such as 4 Upazila Nirbahi officers and 2 Deputy Commissioners and 2 A2I officials were interviewed to understand the goals, management strategies, achievements of the UISC and entrepreneur's performance up to now. The local government representatives such as 6 UP chairmen and 2 members are also interviewed to know about entrepreneur's engagement and the support it provides to the UISC. Based on these primary sources two UISC cases are presented in detail to compare between the key determinants of success and the causes of poor performance prevailing in them (Berg 2009).

Summary of Findings

Availability of Entrepreneurs and their demographics

Whereas 15 male entrepreneurs were available to be interviewed in 16 UISCs, only 8 women were present when visiting the UISC by the researcher. The remaining 5 UISCs are absolutely without any women entrepreneurs from their departing of the job for reasons of marriage, pregnancy or health issue or better job opportunity, among others and 3 of them are part timers, thus, the gender parity in employment is partially achieved. Also, nearly half of UISCs have replaced their entrepreneurs for second or third time indicating a large dropout rate.

All entrepreneurs belong to the age range of 21 to 40 whereas 10 of them has an age range of 21-25 which means that the UISC has created a job opportunity for potentially young people. Among 19 entrepreneurs interviewed 4 has an education level of Secondary School Certificate (SSC) and 11 earned Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) and 4 were awarded with graduate degrees. Regarding their past occupations 2 were part time teachers, 1 small businessman, 5 computer operator/ entrepreneur, 1 NGO worker, 1 voluntary social worker and the remaining 9 started a fresh career. Among the fresh starters 8 are current students who are continuing their study along with the UISC business. It appears that the UISC has employed people who were previously mostly unemployed or partially employed. What attracted them to the UISC is mostly, according to them, the earning opportunity from it.

that cover the entire country. From each district 4 UISCs are chosen from two Upazilas (two from each of them) based on their performance (one good and one worse) determined by examining their monthly income collected from the Deputy Commissioner's office and consultation with management officials at the district to make a balance in data. The interview was conducted by the author during April to July 2013.

Monthly Income

The reported monthly income of 23 entrepreneurs³ (13 male and 10 female) before joining the UISC and after it is analysed. For 13 male entrepreneurs before joining the UISC the range of income was 0-20000 taka and the *Mode* = 0 since 6 of them did not have any income beforehand and the median = 2000 taka. But after joining the UISC their income rose to the median of 10000 taka in a range of 3000 to 60000 taka. Two of them earn as much as 30000 taka while one of them is earning 60,000 taka every month. The median difference, between before joining the UISC and after it, is 8000 taka. For 10 female entrepreneurs before joining the UISC the modal income was 0 as only two of them used to earn 1500 and 5000 taka respectively. But after joining the UISC their median income is 3000 taka. One woman has a significant income of 30000 taka a month. Compared to their male counterpart this income is lower. The reasons are, as the interview with other stakeholders suggests, women's lower computer competency, as well as amount of time spending in the job as many women are either mostly part timers or irregular.

Usually, entrepreneurs having high income offer multiplicity of services. Whereas some of these services are externally supplied such as land copy, electricity bill pay, mobile banking, passport application, telemedicine by the government along with the UP certificates (birth/death/inheritance/character) and its office works others are mostly introduced by the entrepreneur such as computer training, data entry, photo-shoot, online registration of students and teachers, compose, printing, photocopying, email and internet browse. Those who provide either or both of government and commercial services are successful in earning a greater income. On the other hand, low income entrepreneurs mostly rely on UP services such as certificates and its office works i.e. compose and printing. Greater income leads them to invest for expansion and growth of the business.

Investment in the UISC

Out of 19 entrepreneurs 10 did not make any investment in the UISC. Only 3 made the prescribed limit of investment, i.e. 100000 taka or more who are all from top earners from the UISC. The remaining 6 have an average investment of 21,000 Taka. Those who have bigger investments tend to earn more from veracity of services they are able to offer by using greater number of equipment. The investment has also connotations for ownership and continuity of the service of the entrepreneur, business growth and

³ Additional 4 Entrepreneurs' income was reported by his/her colleague and validated by the UP chairman and the secretary who were not present during the interview.

ultimately the sustainability of the model. A number of factors discouragethem from the investment such as lack of income and access to loan, their vulnerable position and conflict with the UP, lack of security, lack of clarity on the mode of partnership, as some aspire to be permanent like a government employee. Also, the modality of investment between two of them and the return sharing are not clear as most women entrepreneurs did not make any investment in the UISC. Among 3 Uaddaktas who made the bigger investment female counterparts are their wives in two cases, as if they are running a family business.

Basedon these key determinants of entrepreneurship along with others two UISC cases are presented next.

Arabpur UISC, Jessore

Arabpur union has an area of 25.963 sq. km. spread across 16 villages inhabited by 41361 people with a literacy rate of 84% located at the outskirts of *Jessore* district town. The UISC hosts itself outside of the UP office in a nearby rented shop. The internet users in *Jessore* district consist only 1% of the total population, the women's share among them being distressingly low to only 13.7%. (BBS, 2011). In such a low level of access of people in online information and services, the UISCstarted its journey in September, 2010. The first entrepreneurs were replaced with currententrepreneurs soon after 6 months of inception who are husband and wife and both with Masters level education. The male has a 6 months diploma in computer office application. He is pretty clear about objectives and the potentials of the UISC as he says:

Flexibility and easy access to information and services

“The UISC gave me a platform to serve rural people which I had long cherished. We havethe objective of easily available, least costly and hassle free service and informationdelivery to the rural people. Common people suffer heavily from lack of these when they visit government or private offices. Lack of information on where the service is found and what its cost compelthem to take recourse to intermediaries or undergo immense miseries and harassment. But recipients from the UISC now consider us as their own people and can approach us easily. People can leave their requests with confidence and we deliver that preferring their flexibility even at their homes. The UISC has created more convenience for them in terms of time and cost savings” (Uddakta Arabpur, 2013).

Entrepreneur's involvement under PPP

The entrepreneur added 05 more computers 02 internet modems 03 printers and 07 mobile phones along with the UP ones. He rents two offices in two

separate locations adjacent to the UP, one for service delivery and the other for computer training. He has invested 600,000 taka (200,000 taka from loan and 400,000 taka from UISC income) for buying additional equipment and office set-ups which boosted his income. He also pays the electricity and internet bills and recurring costs of the centre. He employed two alternative entrepreneurs and one additional person to help with volumes of activities in both offices. Additionally, he has to pay the security people to prevent theft which was attempted a few times. For additional workforce he has to pay some 15000 taka a month. After incurring all costs the UISC's net income is 90,000 taka which is his family income since his counterpart, the female entrepreneur, is his wife.

Support from the Government and Union Parishad

Like that of other UISCs the government, from its fund to UP Local Government Support Project (LGSP), provided the basic service equipment such as one laptop, desktop computer, camera, multimedia projector, photocopier and printer. However, compared to UISCs in other districts the Arabpur UISC along with others in Jessore district⁴ are well ahead of getting external support in terms of backend services, training, supervision and promotional campaigns. The district administration has introduced a number of opportunity cost services from the UISC such as land copy, electricity bill pay, mobile banking, and passport application with the help of A2I. It has also developed a local software to facilitate e-payment of some services from the UISC while others can be paid through the mobile provider, the *Teletalk*. Though some of these services are available in Comilla, they are not available in other districts, let alone the e-payment system. The A2I and the district administration have engaged Bangladesh Technical Education Board to give all kind of technical service support and troubleshooting assistance from its local Poly technique institutions and to award certificate to computer trainees from UISCs.

The local administration also made advertisements in newspapers and in local TV networks on services of the UISC which is a profound endorsement and marketing of the UISC. It carries training and oversight of entrepreneurs as supported by the A2I and Bangladesh Computer Council (BCC). Both A2I and district administration monitor the progress of daily income and number of people visiting these centres through an online monitoring tool called UISC Activities Management System (UAMS) and facilitate peer learning and communication through the UISC blog. Best

⁴ In fact, *Jessore* was the first to pilot District e-service centre (DESC) and subsequently the National E-service system (NESS) to replace the former in a more robust manner to incorporate other offices in the district and Upazila (A2I 2014).

performers are awarded by the district administration and the A2I annually (A2I, 2014).

Problems and Strategies to overcome them

Reducing dependency on providing UP certificates

“At the beginning we used to provide certificates from the UISC, but it created problems with the UP. It is a problem all over the country especially for those entrepreneurs who are dependent on the income from certificates only. The income from certificates was previously enjoyed by the secretary and the chairman. But now it goes to entrepreneurs who, in many areas, deny to share with them that spawns conflict. But I do UP office work without bargaining on payment since I use some of their equipment (Uddakta Arabpur 2013).

This UISC can easily forsake reliance on certificates since it has a host of other services. Not giving UP services has downside too from missing out customers of other services. However, the UP plays a very important role in fostering mass mobilisation and awareness building.

Internet slow speed and Power Breakdown

Because of frequent internet breakdown or slow speed entrepreneurs find it difficult to serving people quickly. Arabpur UISC uses mobile broadband which is dearer, still slow (average 50/60 kbps). This connection fragility hampers providing e-services such as forms download, telemedicine and skype conversation which are frequently demanded. The power breakdown still remains unaddressed since it is relatively less frequent in this UISC. Though there are some other technical problems in the centre such as hardware and software problems they are manageable by the entrepreneur.

Promotional Campaign

The entrepreneur does all his promotional ceremonies gorgeously by inviting elites such as the local Member of Parliament (MP), who for instance, inaugurated the mobile banking system, UP Chairman or the local administrators to demonstrate a showdown and to build a trust and confidence in the system. Since Arabpur is one of the successful UISCs it is also showcased to high officials and dignitaries from home and abroad by the government.

Future Business plans

The entrepreneur is planning to add more services in his cart such as e-commerce by arranging online sale of famous local product the *Nakshikhatha* (the embroidered wrap), telemedicine and skype conversation. He dreams of a UISC complex with multiple facilities such as cyber café,

computer training section, service centre for which he is planning to buy a land with the help of district administration. He also contemplates to purchase better internet connectivity from a local Internet Service Provider (ISP) that will give him a speed of 512 kbps at a cost of 5000 taka a month. Eventually, both entrepreneurs come up with a number of suggestion to make the UISC services more useful and beneficial to the rural people that include intranet connection with government offices to provide seamless services, robust e-payment system and their entrepreneurial training. Overall, both of them are highly satisfied.

“It has not only increased our income but also honour and social esteem for attachment with the administration and people” (Women Uddakta, Arabpur 2013).

Naruamala UISC, Bogra

Naruamala Union has an area of 30.5 sq. km. inhabited by 30288 people across 19 villages with a literacy rate 49% located around 5 kilometre away from the Upazila headquarter of *Gabtolli Sadar* of *Bogra* district. The Union Parishad Complex building hosts the UISC in a room allocated for it. Only 0.5% of the district population use the internet (women consists of 26% of total users) to access online information and services (BBS, 2011). The UISC set off in November, 2010 with a view to improve people's access through a shared point.

“Initially, it was running good benefitting people from providing certificates, computer compose, printing, photocopy, computer training, etc. But suddenly, an accident has halted its progress” (UP Chairman, Naruamala, 2013)

After 9 months of its inauguration with required equipment purchase the centre had undergone a theft incident on the 6th September, 2011. Equipment such as projector, laptop, desktop computer, digital camera, web cam, laminating machine and so forth with an estimated value of 243000 Taka were stolen in the night⁵. Fortunately, the photocopier and the printer and two other computers remained untouched as they were in a separate room under the custody of women entrepreneur. A criminal case was then filed against the male entrepreneur and he was arrested immediately and replaced by the current male entrepreneur.

“Naruamala UISC was the first in terms of activities such as computer training, and services and it had the highest number of equipment and facilities. But after theft it became one of the poorer performing UISCs in the Upazila” (UNO, Gabtoli, Bogra 2013).

⁵ The village police who were in charge of night security was also alleged to be involved in the matter and then a charge was also brought against him.

Later, one laptop was purchased but it was kept under the custody of UP Chairman under the pretext of security. Both entrepreneurs are part timers as both are students. The male entrepreneur has a diploma certificate in computer education but cannot offer computer training due to unavailability of computers. The centre mostly relies on providing certificates and some compose, data entry and photocopying that generate an income of around 3000 Taka for each entrepreneur. The UP works have to be done free but it assists in utility bill pay. Unlike Arabpur, it is not equipped with external services such as land copy, electricity bill pay, mobile banking since these are not available anywhere in the district. The problems of power breakdown and slow internet connectivity are similar to other UISCs across the country. Having disincentives from low income and lack of access to loan entrepreneurs do not invest much in the UISC which is only around 5000 taka. They are not clear about the mode of partnership and desire to be permanent like a government employee in future.

Concluding Remarks

We have seen that the UISC has the ability to develop entrepreneurship among entrepreneurs who, in turn, can infuse it to people they serve through empowering them access to digital technology, information and services as well as training them on ICT, given the presence of effective interplay of partners engaged under PPP. Entrepreneurs who are better equipped with capacities such as computer skill, greater investment, maintaining good relations with UP and administration, awareness generation and marketing tend to earn more from the UISC. On gender dimension, women entrepreneurs are at disadvantage in this regard. Government and UP's involvement such as the supply of external services by the government, adequate equipment assistance and cooperation by the UP and promotional campaign by them have effects on boosting the income of the entrepreneur and giving him opportunity to expand his ventures by furthering investment risks and responsibility. Entrepreneurs who are financially successful also engage others as alternative entrepreneurs, computer trainees, and recipients of digital contents in a way that can catalyse entrepreneurship in the rural area as we have seen more profoundly in the case of Arabpur. External support and Uddkta's entrepreneurial involvement are key arsenals for the UISC to fight against digital divide and work as a social enterprise. Weaknesses in any of them can affect the other and, thus, potentially the mission of the UISC as is the case of Naruamala. Under the partnership the government benefits of serving those who would otherwise remain underserved with limited investment engaging the skills of private entrepreneurs and the latter is also getting employment and entrepreneurship opportunity. The Union Parishad

finds the occasion to redefine its role and become a truly people's institution. Hence, though relevant partners should play their roles effectively, the government must take the lead to develop entrepreneurship and ultimately the sustainability of the UISC.

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