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মোঃ সানোয়ার জাহান ভূঁইয়া

সহযোগী সম্পাদক

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Reward Management: Bangladesh Police through Human Resource (HR) Lens

Taptun Nasreen*

Abstract: *This paper examines the reward Management practice of Bangladesh Police. The objective is to highlight the salient features of the reward system in the light of legal framework of the organization that makes it different from other organizations (both public sector and private sector organization in Bangladesh as the system runs from the colonial era). A qualitative case study research approach with secondary sources has been followed in conducting the study. The study finds that Bangladesh Police follows good reward management practices such as the equal opportunity, performance-based reward system although there is criticism on this issue.*

Introduction:

Playing more strategic role in the organization is frequently encourages by scholars and practitioners nowadays in the field of human resource function. This new role focuses not only on traditional personnel administration but also on outcomes of the organization. Why human resource matters now more than ever is an emerging issue for any organization like Police nowadays. It is argued that outcomes of policing is not only depends on public demand but also on success of the employee of the police organization.

Though policing job is stressful and busy by nature, it is argued that reward for a successful police officer should be given the top most priorities in the organization. Considering the issue the study identifies different kind of reward system and analyses the present reward system in Bangladesh Police. Drawing from documentary data analysis the study reviews some current issues in the light of Human Resource Management.

Reward Management: organizational view

The traditional view of organization emphasis on personnel management and the modern management of human resource considers the organization as a whole. Scholars in this field define human resource as the policies, practices and systems that influence employees' behavior,

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attitudes and performance (Di Cieri & Kramar 2008; p.4). It focuses on careful development of the quality of the organization. It is a proactive approach to the management to ensure competent people management. It works for employee well being, client satisfaction, leadership practice and organizational effectiveness. One of the essential components of human resource is the reward and development system, which makes the staff skilled and operational for a modern organization.

Reward is one kind of acknowledgement of the recognition of excellent and demanding work. Punishment is, on the other hand, the opposite process to make all staff accountable so that they do not make the same fault or they are careful for their action. Reward motivates officers and staff to perform to the highest standards in their roles. Reward system is essential to achieve organisational objectives. Job evaluation is an important activity in developing effective reward management programs. As a result, performance of the organization improves and the outcomes encourages the whole employee including rank and file officers. Like other organization, the police needs to enhance the motivational effects of reward strategies and identify components of effective reward systems.

Reward is treated as one kind of motivational action which energises, directs and sustains human behavior towards an organization's strategic objectives (O'Neill 2003). Reward systems are concerned with rewarding people for directing their behavior towards achieving organizational strategies. O'Neill (2003) argues that managers should understand what motivates employees to better reward them. To consider a better reward system, the police in developing countries need to follow the equity theory as the police of these countries have criticism on nepotism, corruption and regular complaint against police force.

To get the staff proper recognition, consideration for an equal judgement is essential. Besides this, the right men need to be rewarded as the expectancy theory suggests connection between performance and reward. It also expected to develop a flexible reward system that provide attractive outcomes and determine what rewards are valued. Another theory of human resource on reward is reinforcement theory, which suggests repeat action and discourages action and emphasis on behaviour and outcome so that individual repeats the desired behaviour in the future.

Component of a good reward system includes compensation, incentives like direct and indirect financial rewards, individual development like career growth and training, work flexibility, work life balance program

(O'Neill 2003). Leaders need to have a role to ensure a well-designed program to overcome some of the criticism. They need a good understanding of environmental factors that influence reward management. It considers fairness and clarity to find out talent employee.

Like other entities Bangladesh Police has a reward management system which based on the colonial legal framework. Before that discussion, readers need to know the background of the organization and the context it works.

Context of Bangladesh Police:

The foundation of today's Bangladeshi police administration can be traced back during the British colonial period. The British tried to establish the police in the sub-continent to prolong their subjugation and economic extortion. Eventually the police was separated from ordinary people and was engineered solely for the service of the colonial masters (Mishra 1989). Although the primal concern of the police to help collecting revenue and to maintain law & order through implementation of the law, it gradually expanded its grip on the other sectors. However the British were highly successful in using the police into a very effective tool of colonial administration (Chanda 1958). From the British era to independent Bangladesh, police has acted the same way, implementing their coercive power. Founding for a service oriented and people friendly police force is now an extensive demand for the modern society.

Policing job is a round the clock job with lot of work stress. Besides, there are some other ingredients especially in the developing country like Bangladesh which has a colonial history. By profession police is the high-risk occupation in involving corruption for power or money or both (Prenzler 2000). Many times police engaged in corruption because of their poorly paid status (Karzon 2006). They also work 13-18 hours a day, which is almost double than the working hours of the government employees. Besides, many of the times, they do not get leave, even facilities for their extra work. In most of the case people have to bribe the police for the favour. So the poor status and the greed for money make them corrupt in Bangladesh (Shahjahan 2008; Huda 2008).

From various media reports it was revealed that police corruption typically involves using its status as a police officer to obtain wrongful gains or benefits. Sometimes lower level police use power to grant immunity from police action to certain citizens or peers and demand cash

payment in return for protection against police action. Often they keep weapons or drugs that are confiscated from suspects. It was very common in Bangladesh that the police use abusive or deceptive means in interrogation of subjects (Transparency International Bangladesh 2008). Demand for a modern management in police organization that emphasized the constabulary functions in a professional aspect of employee management, is time worthy.

Police needs to create a culture which promotes empowerment and continuous personal development for a high quality and effective police force to the community they serve. Organization needs to positively recognize that the success of the police department mostly depends on the performance of the officers and its staff and their acceptability to the community. By encouraging recognition of good work and supporting the development of reward framework, police can motivates officers and staff to consistently achieve high standards thereby positively contributing to operational performance.

Reward Management process in Bangladesh:

The police is rewarded by the existing law and regulations of the country. The Police Regulations of Bengal 1943 is the main guide for police reward system. In the PRB from section 1036 to section 1064, reward system and procedure is described. Honours and decorations are recommended by the Superintendent of Police or Unit in Charge to the Inspector General. By compiling the list, the Inspector General submits it to the Secretary of the Ministry of Home Affairs for government approval.

These gallantry awards are known as Bangladesh Police Medal, Bangladesh Police Medal (Service), President Police Medal and President Police Medal (Service). These awards are given to those members of Bangladesh Police who have set exemplary standard of bravery, commitment and have provided outstanding service or have endangered their lives while on duty. Where the decoration is awarded for an act of gallantry is entitled to monetary allowances. Besides this, Inspector General's Good Services Badge also given to the officers for their outstanding performance. Also there is provision for monetary award system. Additional Superintendent of Police to upward rank can provide monetary reward to the subordinate officers.

Good Service Marks are given by the Superintendent of Police or Unit in Charge to all officers of and below the rank of Inspector. They are awarded for specific acts of good service, for good work in specific cases and not for general good service. The grant of a reward is subject to the condition that funds are available in the budget of the officer granting the reward.

The amount of the monetary reward is also the standard of the colonial government which is very low in the present context. The police's culture is to compel reward-authority to reward the officer on the basis of the particular police job not on the overall performance. Sometimes there are critics that right person are not considered for the reward. It is also disclosed by the media that sometimes the reward is given to the officers on political consideration. But it is time for police is to review the current system of reward.

Through HR lens:

The police like other entities is growing up by the demand of the society. It is seeking to acquire modern strategies and techniques and shares values among the client, the community. Inclusion of new units and expansion of the police means more in touch with the fast changing needs of the people. Furthermore, the challenge for leaders is to good use of what technology offers. Considering this issue some specialized units started using modern technology to track and put the perpetrators under the law. Keeping information and knowledge of the dimension of crime and crime doer require research and investigation for the particular issue. Successful cases are those that have more information to prove it in front of the court.

In this respect, actors are also important besides organizational changes. In Bangladesh Police there are more than 150 thousand force working taking the risk of their life. Every year a countable number of police officers died and receive injures during their day to day duties. Also there salary is not enough to live respectfully in the society. Moreover they are blamed for the corruption and misconduct issue although they are ready to work for the round of the clock and do not get any extra allowances. Considering all these the organization need to embrace modern management system.

In HR practice, police manager knows what motivates the rank and file to better reward them. Reward can be connected with the performance of individual or organizational. As a stressed worker, sometimes a timeout for few days could be a good reward which leader needs to know. Also participating in peacekeeping operation is treating in Bangladesh police as reward for the police officers. They can earn legal money from this job which is more than their earning in home country. Direct or indirect financial rewards and non financial rewards need to include in all level. Also, punishment system has to be effective to show the accountability of the organization. To achieve organization objectives reward system need to be transparent and praiseworthy for all. A reward framework can be as follows:

A Total Reward Framework:

Direct remuneration

- e.g. salaries and bonuses
 - Financial security and benefits
- e.g. superannuation
 - Individual development
- e.g. career growth, training
 - Work environment
- e.g. work culture, management style work design and flexibility
 - Corporate image
- e.g. employee branding such as Employer of Choice

Issues important to people about their work:

- Interesting and challenging work
- Opportunities for training and development
- Reputation of the employer
- Workplace culture
- Work Life balance

Conclusion:

The police need to adopt business strategy of innovation to recognize the performance of the staff. To reinforce desired values and achieve organization objectives, the organization needs to adopt change management. Successful organizations are those that are able to turn strategy into action and manage the process in an efficient and effective way.

By this way, the police organization is in need to see through the lens of human resource by incorporating a balanced and fair reward system which is free from all sorts of influence. Thus, recognition of performance and appropriate reward system can motivate the officer to curb corruption and improve the service delivery for the greater need of the society.

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Overseas Employment Scenario of Bangladesh and the Rights of Migrants Workers Under ILO Instruments

Md. Ashraf Hossain¹

Abstract: Bangladesh is the seventh remittance earning country in the world. About 7.7 million people including 182,558 women are employed abroad since 1976 to 2011. Bangladesh earned more than 90b. USD in that period. In 2011 Bangladesh received 12b. USD as remittance which is 11% of her GDP. Most of the migrant workers of Bangladesh are concentrated in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Malaysia, Oman, Kuwait and Singapore. But very often migrant workers suffer from various problems like retention of passport, overcharging by the employment agencies, restriction on communication and movements, overloaded with works beyond the employment contract, under-payment or delay in payment, lack of rest days or holidays, accommodation, insufficient food, and even physical, verbal and sexual abuse. Although International Labour Organisation has necessary legal standards, host countries are quite reluctant to ratify those conventions and recommendations for their own sake. Some countries like Italy, Hong Kong SAR and South Africa have incorporated migrant domestic workers in their main labour laws and prescribed standard employment contracts having legal coverage. But most of the Middle East countries have not recognised migrant workers in their national instruments. That's why it is easy to exploit migrant workers by the employers or the employment agencies. In these circumstances, ILO state parties and policy makers especially of the Middle East should concentrate to the rights of migrant workers because they are contributing both the economy of the host country and the country of origin.

1.0 Overseas Employment Scenario of Bangladesh

1.1 Country-wise Overseas Employment

Overseas employment formally started in Bangladesh in 1976 with 217 in KSA, 1,989 in UEA, 643 in Kuwait, 113 in Oman, 1,221 in Qatar, 335 in Bahrain and 173 in Libya amounting 6,087 including 1,396 others. According to Bangladesh Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training (BMET) from 1976 to December 2011 about 7,699,996 people are employed abroad of which Kingdom of Saudi Arabia holds 33.7%, United Arab Emirates 26.93%, Malaysia 9.1%, Oman 6.99%, Kuwait 6.23%, Singapore 4.77%, Bahrain 2.95%, Qatar 2.35%, Libya 1.24, Lebanon 0.87% and others 4.87% (Figure 1).

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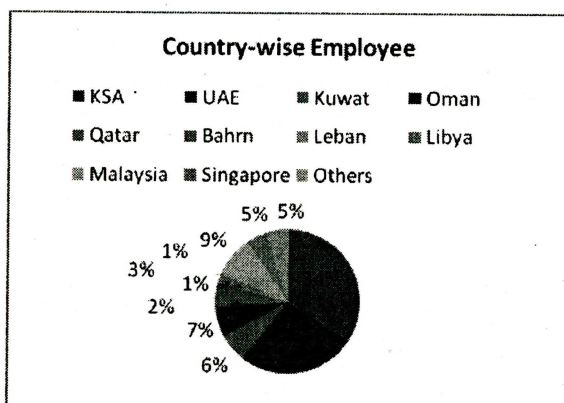


Figure 1: Country-wise Overseas Employment 1976-2011

Source: Bangladesh Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training (BMET)

Beyond this, 40,542 in Italy (2002)²; 31,391 in Jordan (2002); 26,366 in Brunei (1992); 26,134 in South Korea (1994); 22,598 in Mauritius (1992); 12,953 in Egypt (2000); 10,019 in UK (2003); 7,842 in Sudan (1998); 2,934 in Iraq (2009) and 770 in Japan (1999) migrated from Bangladesh which holds 4.85% of the total migrant workers. It is noted that Bangladeshi manpower started working in Lebanon, Malaysia and Singapore respectively 1992, 1978 and 1979.

1.2 Skill-based Migrant Workers Scenario

Overseas employment started in 1976 with 568 professionals, 1,775 skilled, 543 semi-skilled and 3,201 less skilled personnel amounting 6,087 and Bangladesh earned remittance 23.71 million USD in 1976. If 5-year cohort from 1977 to 2011 is made, it would be seen that professional holds 2.37%, skilled manpower 31.3%, semi-skilled 14.82% and less-skilled personnel 51.51% among the total of 7,693,909 people (Figure 2).

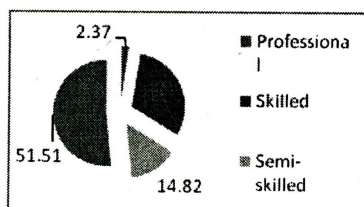


Figure 2: Percentage of Professional, Skilled, Semi-skilled and Less-skilled Manpower
Source: Bangladesh Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training (BMET)

² Years in bracket of this paragraph refers the beginning year of Bangladeshi migrant workers in that country.

Since 1977-2011 in the professional category manpower 182,347; skilled 2,408,137; semi-skilled 1,139,968 and less skilled person 3,963,457 were migrated from Bangladesh. From the cohort analysis as depicted below, total number of migrants has been increased since 1977 although little up and down in specific category of workers is in different times. It is noticeable that Bangladesh professional was highly demand in the years 2002-2006 amounting 45,384 but it was drastically fell to 5,545 in 2007-2011. In other cases it was chronologically increased with a little decrease in 1982-86 and 1997-2001. Skilled labour is always upward tendency. Although the professionals fell drastically in the cohort 2002-2006 years, skilled, semi-skilled and less-skilled labour migrated from Bangladesh 133% more in 2007-2011 years than the immediate previous years.

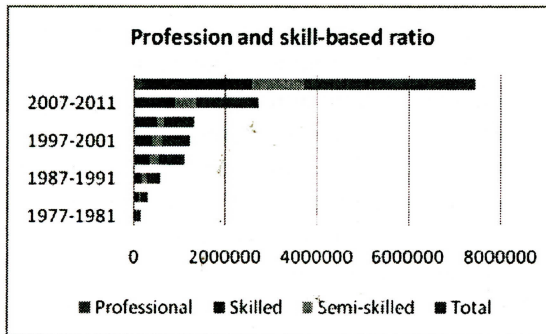


Figure 3: Five-year Cohort Analysis of Manpower 1977-2011

1.3 Cohort Analysis of Remittance 1977-2011

In the cohort 1977-81 years Bangladesh earned remittance only 968 million USD which increased 178.31% in 1982-86 years. Next three cohort (1987-2001) it increased respectively 41.80%, 47.15% and 59.35%. In the years 2002-2006 it increased 115% to 19,325m USD from 8,957m USD of 1997-2001, and in 2007-2011 remittance again radically increased 155.78% than the previous cohort. Although over all employment decreased from 475,278 in 2009 to 390,702 in 2010, remittance increased from 10,717.73m USD to 11,004.73m USD in the same period. In 2007, 2008 and 2011 both employment and remittance flow was upward slopping. Even the drastic fall in professional category of manpower didn't affect the remittance. The remittance was increased from 19,325m USD of 2002-2006 to 49,429m USD in 2007-2011 years.

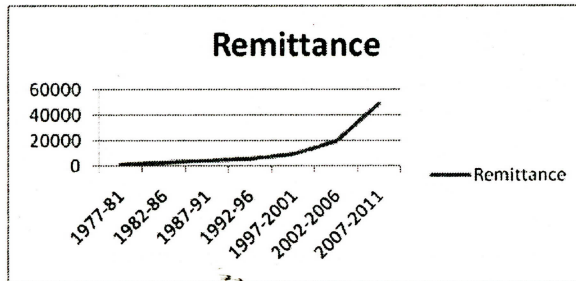


Figure 4: Remittance in flow from 1977-2011

Source: Bangladesh Bank

1.4 Women Employment Scenario

Bangladesh started overseas women employment in the year 1991 with 12 countries: KSA, UAE, Oman, Bahrain, Lebanon, Malaysia, Singapore, UK, Pakistan, Brunei and Mauritius. The number of migrant women workers was 2,189 including others in 1991. Women migrant workers moved to countries like Italy, Hong Kong SAR, Cyprus, Qatar, Jordan and Libya respectively in 1992, 1993, 1994, 1997, 2001 and 2007. Till December 2011, 182,558 women migrant workers are working in abroad of which Lebanon holds 30.73%, UAE 27.46%, KSA 17.24%, Jordan 6.86%, Mauritius 4.72%, Kuwait 4.19%, Oman 2.07%, Bahrain 1.91%, Malaysia 3.54%, Singapore 0.31% and others 1%. Women migrant workers hold 7.09% and 5.38% in the year 2010 and 2011 respectively.

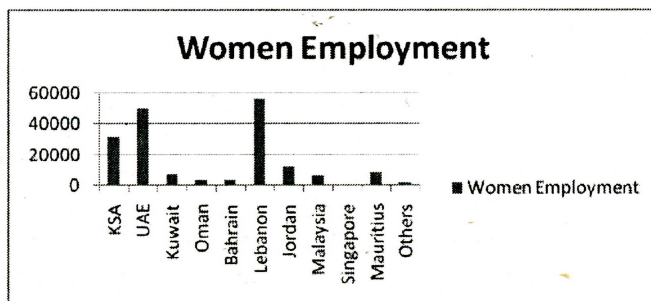


Figure 5: Countrywise Women Employment Scenario 1991-2011

1.5 Trend Analyses of Total Employment, Remittance and Women Employment

The table above shows that overseas employment of Bangladesh decreased at the rate of 15.14% from 222,686 in 2000 to 188,965 in 2001.

Then it was increased in subsequent 3 years again fell in 2005 at the rate of 7.42%. In the year 2006 and 2007 it was remarkably increased respectively 50.97% and 118.24% but it was drastically fall again after 3 years in 2009 and 2010 at the rate of 45.69% and 17.80% respectively. Although both positive and negative relationship in over all employment flow is observed, remittance flow was never seen decreased than any previous years in the whole range of 12 years. Women migrant workers radically increased 378.50% from 2,353 in 2003 to 11,259 in 2004 but the same year total employment increased only 7.38% as women workers held only 4.12% of the total employment. In 2005 total workers negatively fell by 7.42% but women workers' demand increased by 20.53. In Bangladesh percentage increase in women workers has little impact in over all overseas employment supply because the highest percentage of women migrant workers only 7.09% in 2010 which again decreased to 5.38% in 2011.

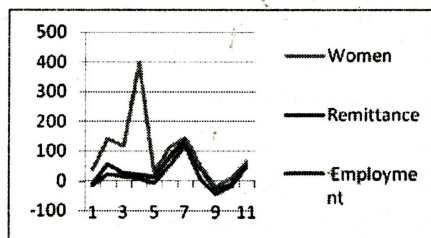


Figure 6: Total Employment, Remittance and Women Employment Trend (%), 2000-2011

1.6 Comparative Study of Employment and Remittance

The figure 7 shows that from January to June 2011 period 251,497 working people migrated from Bangladesh which has increased to 347,837 in the same period in 2012. The figure 8 exposes from January to June in 2011 Bangladesh earned 60,099.79 m USD which increased to 6,777.75 m USD in the same period of time. Total remittance increased 11.11% but the employment increased 49.04% in the aforesaid period.

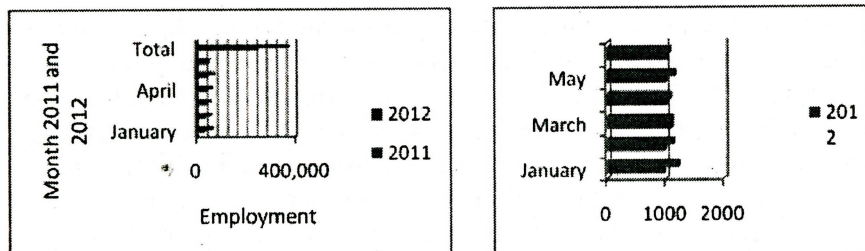


Figure 7: Employment Comparison 2011-2012

Figure 8: Remittance Comparison 2011-2012

2.0 Rights of Migrant Workers Under Ilo Instruments

ILO Declaration on the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work identifies four main areas which are applicable to all workers irrespective of nationality and migrant status: freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to bargain collectively, the eradication of forced labour, the effective abolition of child labour, and the elimination of discrimination in employment. Eight fundamental Conventions are formulated in recognition and protection of these rights:

- the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98);
- the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), and the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105);
- the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111);
- the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)

Beyond this, the rights are discussed for each stage of migration: pre-departure and during the journey, on arrival, during employment, social and civil rights in host country, and return and repatriation. ILO Conventions also include standards relevant to the regulation of domestic work. These include:

- the Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention, 1928 (No. 26), and the Minimum Wage Fixing Convention, 1970 (No. 131);

- the Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95);
- the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183);
- the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156);
- the Termination of Employment Convention, 1982 (No. 158);
- the Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181);
- the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97) and Recommendation (Revised), 1949 (No. 86);
- the Protection of Migrant Workers (Underdeveloped Countries) Recommendation, 1955 (No. 100)
- the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) and the Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975 (No. 151)

2.1 Freedom of Association and Collective Bargaining

"Ensuring the freedom of association and collective bargaining can go a long way toward promoting labour market efficiency and better economic performance. And there are obvious economic and social for banning slavery and all forms of forced labour"- World Bank 2004.

The principle of freedom of association is at the core of the ILO's values: it is enshrined in the ILO Constitution (1919), the ILO Declaration of Philadelphia (1944). It is also a right proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). Nevertheless, the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) estimates that in 2003 some 300,000 in Asia and 6,566 in Africa were dismissed from because of their trade union activities. The majority of the 50 million workers in export processing zones do not enjoy the right to join unions. The ICFTU also reported that 129 trade unionists were murdered in 2003 and more than 200 were killed in 2002 for trade union activities (ICFTU 2003).

According to Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87) and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98) the principal trade union rights include the right to:

- form and join unions or associations of the migrant worker's choice

- engage in collective bargaining on matters affecting conditions of work and terms of employment
- elect their representatives
- use machinery for arbitration and conciliation for the settlement of disputes
- strike

Migrant workers should also enjoy civil liberties essential for the normal exercise of trade union rights:

- the right to freedom and security of person, and freedom from arbitrary arrest and detention
- freedom of opinion and expression and in particular freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media regardless of frontiers
- freedom of assembly
- the right to fair trial by an independent body and impartial tribunal
- the right to protection of the property of trade union organisations (Bangkok 2008)

The Workers' Representatives Convention, 1971 (No. 135) ensures effective protection against any act prejudicial to them including dismissal. According to Rural Workers' Organizations Convention, 1975 (No. 141) freedom of association shall be fully respected; rural workers' organisations shall be independent and voluntary in character and shall remain free from all interference, coercion or repression. In some countries the public servants are denied the right of association. The Labour Relations (Public Service) Convention, 1978 (No. 151) ensures adequate protection against acts of anti-union discrimination in respect of their employment, and their organisation shall enjoy complete independence from public authorities in their establishment, functioning or administration (Rules of the Game, 2005). It also provides that disputes shall be settled through negotiations between the parties or through independent and impartial machinery, such as mediation, conciliation and arbitration. Beyond this the Collective Bargaining

Convention, 1981 (No. 154) defines collective bargaining and calls for its promotion in all branches of economic activity including public service.

2.2 Eradication of Forced Labour

Although forced labour is universally condemned, millions of people around the world are still subjected to it. Traditional slavery is found in some parts of Africa, while forced labour in the form of coercive recruitment is present in many countries of Latin America, in some parts of the Caribbean and elsewhere. Bonded labour persists in South Asia where millions of men, women and children are tied to their work through a vicious cycle of work. In the early 1990s approximately 1.2 million Nepalese were subjected to slave-like practices under a debt bondage system known as 'kamaiya'. In Europe and North America a number of women and children are victims of traffickers who sell them into forced prostitution or sweatshops (Rules of the Game 2005).

Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29) prohibits all forms of forced or compulsory labour, which is defined as "all work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the person has not offered himself voluntarily." Work must be based on choice and incentive, not on coercion or threat. This implies that:

- migrant workers must not be forced to work under threat of sanction
- migrant workers must not be physically confined
- migrant workers must be able to terminate their employment, serving notice to the employer as required by national law
- disciplinary action against migrant workers must not take the form of a compulsory work performance
- migrant workers who participate in a lawful strike must not be forcibly returned to work (Bangkok 2008)

Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105) prohibits forced or compulsory labour as a means of political coercion or education or as a punishment for holding or expressing political views or views ideologically opposed to the established political, social and economic system. Additionally, forced labour is considered as one of the worst forms of child labour in the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182).

2.3 Abolition of Child Labour

Child labour is a violation of fundamental human rights and has been shown to hinder children's development, potentially leading to lifelong physical and psychological damage. A recent ILO study has shown that eliminating child labour in transition and developing economies could generate economic benefits nearly seven times greater than the costs, mostly associated with investment in better schooling and social services (Geneva, IPEC 2004). The ILO estimates that more than 186 million children between the ages of 5 and 14, and 59 million children aged 15 to 17, are engaged in child labour. An estimated 8.4 million children are trapped in one or more of the worst forms of child labour: 5.7 million are in forced or bonded labour; 1.8 million are used for prostitution and pornography; 1.2 million are trafficked and 300,000 are forcibly recruited for armed conflict (Geneva, IPEC, 2002).

Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138) sets the general minimum age for admission to employment or work at 15 years (13 for light work) and the minimum age for hazardous work at 18 (16 under certain strict conditions). It provides for the possibility of initially setting the general minimum age at 14 (12 for light work) where the economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed.

Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182) defines child as a person under 18 years of age. This fundamental convention prohibits sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; child prostitution and pornography; using children for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs; and work which is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children. So, children accompanying migrant workers and migrant children should not be admitted to employment or work before they have reached the minimum age for the specific type of work. Public authorities should maintain an effective system of birth registration and issuing birth certificate (Minimum Age Recommendation, 1973).

2.4 Elimination of Discrimination in Employment

Millions of women and men around the world are denied access to jobs and training, receive low wages, or restricted to certain occupations simply on the basis of their sex, skin colour, ethnicity or beliefs, social origin, religion or political opinion without regard to their capabilities and

skills. In a number of developed countries, for example, women workers earn up to 25% less than male colleagues performing equal job (Women in Management, 2004). Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) ensures the application of the principle of equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value. According to Migration for Employment Convention, 1949 (No. 97) Article 6; Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111) Article 1 (a) and Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) Article 10 and 12(g), the following practices should be outlawed:

- differentiating between group of migrant workers and nationals with different complexion or racial or ethnic features or social origin;
- discrimination on the basis of sex and stereotypes, such as pregnancy, family status, and 'protective' measures which limit women's access to safe and productive migrant work.

The Civil Rights Act, 1964 of the US prohibits to favour migrant workers from one country over others. It also declares unlawful for an employer to require an employee to take pregnancy test or to discriminate against worker because she is pregnant (ILO, Multilateral Framework 2005). Besides, Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156) requires governments to take account of the needs workers with family responsibilities in community planning and to develop or promote community services, public or private, such as childcare and family services and facilities.

2.5 Pre-departure and during the Journey

Migrant workers often lack in accurate information about the jobs and the working and living conditions, charge for paperwork, genuine recruitment agencies, fraudulent agents or organized crime, human trafficking, confinement in so called recruitment centres, forced labour, etc which lead them undergo a life which is human rights concern. That's why before departing their home countries and while traveling to the destination country, migrant workers are entitled to the following rights:

2.5.1 Information about Working and Living Conditions

If we analyse the information of different countries, we will meet the following vulnerabilities for migrant workers at recruitment, pre-departure and during the Journey:

- Inadequate access to accurate and reliable information about the labour market abroad and legal channels of migration
- Illegal recruitment and trafficking
- Overcharging of fees for placement and documents
- Deception with regard to the nature of employment
- Falsification of documents
- Cheating and extortion by employment agencies and brokers
- Debt bondage
- Inefficiency and abuse of authorities
- Inappropriate and expensive training programmes
- Exploitation and abuse while waiting for the job (e.g., being detained in 'collection centers')
- Lack of knowledge about transit procedures and requirements
- Hazardous journey, including smuggling
- Victimization in transit (ILO Recommendation, 86).

The information should be provided in their language or dialect, or at least in a language they can understand with free of charge. Measures must be taken against misleading advertisement relating to migration and immigration. Public authorities should pay attention in this arena (ILO Convention, 97).

2.5.2 Recruitment

The recruitment of migrant workers should be carried out only by public authorities, prospective employers and authorized private agencies. Recruitment services rendered by a public employment service should be free of charge according to Article 7 of Migration for Employment Convention, 1949. Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 authorises private employment agencies to employ workers in certain specific types of services and they must be supervised by public authorities to protect the possible forms of exploitation such as: excessive fees, fraudulent contracts, attempts to evade immigration controls, etc.

Private employment agencies may only charge fees in relation to recruitment from workers under strict conditions. They should not charge directly or indirectly, in full or in part, any fees or costs to workers. Any deduction from wages as a direct or indirect payment for the purpose of securing employment is prohibited by Article 9 of the Protection of Wages Convention, 1949.

In 1997 after a meeting of international experts the ILO Governing Body recommended the following codes of practice for overseas recruitment agencies:

- Minimum standards for the professionalization of the services of private agencies, including specifications regarding minimum qualifications of their personnel and managers;
- Provision of full and unambiguous information of all charges and terms of business to clients;
- The principle that private agents must obtain from the employer before advertising positions in as much detail as possible, all information pertaining to the job, including specific functions and responsibilities, wages salaries, and other benefits working conditions, travel and accommodation arrangements;
- The principle that private agents should not knowingly recruit workers for jobs involving undue hazards or risks or where they may be subjected to abuse or discriminatory treatment of any kind;
- The principle that migrant workers are informed, as far as possible, in their mother tongue or in a language with which they are familiar, of the terms and conditions of employment;
- Refraining from bidding down wages of migrant workers;
- Maintaining a register of all migrants recruited or placed through them to be available for inspection by the competent authority, provided that this information is limited to matters directly related to recruitment and with respect for the privacy of workers and their families. (ILO, Guide to Private Employment Agencies, 2007)

2.5.3 Contracts

Where governments maintain a system of supervising contracts of employment, migrant workers have the right to receive, before departure, a written contract of employment, covering conditions of work and terms of employment, particularly the rate of remuneration and the contract duration according to Article 5 and 6 of the Migration for Employment Convention, 1949.

The Government of the migrant worker's home and host country can also agree that a copy of the contract be given to the worker on arrival in the host country. In that case, the migrant worker should receive a document before departure that indicates at the minimum the occupational category in which the migrant worker is to be engaged and the other conditions of work, in particular the guaranteed minimum wage (Recommendation No. 86, Article 22).

It is noted that employment contracts or work permits should not violate the established migrant workers' rights which are recognized in law. For example, the contracts should not stipulate commitment of migrant workers not to join a trade union, not to marry or become pregnant or undergo periodic pregnancy tests, etc.

An individual contract of employment should contain the following information:

- Full name of the worker, date and place of birth, family status, place or residence, place of recruitment.
- Nature of work, type of work (occupational category) and place of work
- Remuneration for ordinary hours of work, overtime, night work and holidays, and the medium for wage payment
- Bonuses, indemnities and allowances, if any
- Conditions under which and to what extent the employer may be authorized to make any deductions from remuneration
- Conditions regarding food accommodation if food and accommodation are to be provided by the employer
- Duration of contract and conditions of renewal and denunciation of contract

- Conditions under which entry and residence in the territory of immigration are permitted
- Method of meeting the expenses of the journey of the migrant and the members of his or her family
- In case of temporary migration, method of meeting the expenses of return to the home country or the territory of migration
- Grounds on which the contract may be prematurely terminated (ILO Guide for Policymakers, Bangkok 2008).

2.5.4 Facilitated Departure

When migrant workers leave their own country, especially for the first time, they usually need help to cope with the practical and administrative steps involved. They should receive assistance from the public authorities to deal with documentation and other formalities relating to the immigration process. These services should be provided free of charge (Convention No. 97, Article 2)

2.5.5 Medical Care

Migrant workers and members of their families authorized to accompany them have the right to medical examination and attention before departure, during the journey and on arrival. Migrant workers must not be forced to undergo compulsory or non-confidential medical examinations, such as testing for pregnancy and HIV/AIDS. Migrant workers must not be disqualified or dismissed from the job on the basis that they tested positive to these tests (C. 97, Art. 5; R.86, para 12 &14; R. 100, para 8).

2.5.6 Free Travel

The recruiter or the employer should pay traveling expenses according to Protection of Migrant Workers (Underdeveloped Countries) Recommendation, 1955, para 7. Bilateral agreements between home and host country should establish methods for meeting the cost of travel for the migrants and the members of their families as per Recommendation No. 86, Art. 12.

2.6 On Arrival

Traveling to a foreign country can be daunting for migrant workers, especially for first-timers. It is doubly intimidating if they do not speak the language of the new country. Orientation services and briefings are

often necessary and should be provided before travel. On arrival, migrant workers also usually need language orientation as well as other practical assistance (ILO, Guide for Policymakers, Bangkok 2008).

2.6.1 Customs Exemption

According to convention No. 97, Appendix III, Article 1, migrant workers have the right to take their personal effects-including those of members of their families authorized to accompany or join them as well as the tools of their trades into their country of work free of customs duty.

2.6.2 Assistance in Finding Suitable Employment

As per Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975 para 2(a); Convention No. 97, Article 2 and Appendix II, Article 10 and 11, migrant workers are entitled to have the services from the appropriate public authority in finding suitable employment, without payment of fees or administrative costs.

2.6.3 Settlement

The Migration for employment Convention, 1949 Article 6 and the Recommendation No. 100 para 21 and 22 entitle migrant workers to any necessary assistance in settling into their new environment. Possible types of service include interpretation, help with documentation and other formalities, and the supply of information and guidance on immediate personal and family concerns such as housing. Discrimination in access to accommodation should be prohibited.

2.7 During Employment

Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 guarantees equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment for migrant workers and their family members who are residing lawfully within its territory. Migrants who are regularly admitted to the country are entitled to equality of treatment to nationals with regard to conditions of work, including remuneration, membership of trade unions, accommodation, social security (with certain limitations), employment taxes and legal proceedings (Convention No. 97, Article 6)

ILO Gender Promotion Programme, Geneva 2003 identifies that xenophobia and discrimination may lead to:

- Jobs not covered by labour or social protection

- Violation of employment contracts
- Confiscation of papers and documents
- Poor working and living conditions
- Forced labour and debt bondage
- Non-payment or delayed payment of wages and unauthorized deductions from wages
- Health and safety risk
- Physical, psychological and sexual abuse
- Limited freedom of movement
- Restrictions on free choice of employment
- Difficulties in sending remittances home
- Unlawful, arbitrary or unjust termination of employment
- Lack of information and access to services and redress mechanisms
- No embassy or inadequate services provided by embassy

2.7.1 Remuneration

Although the remuneration subject has widely dealt with in the Protection of Migrant Workers (Underdeveloped Countries) Recommendation, 1955 (R.100), Convention No. 97, 111, 122 also give emphasis on the issue. According to Article 6 (1) (a) of Convention No. 97 remuneration must be objective characteristics such a skills, knowledge, working conditions and responsibilities, not the nationality of the majority of workers of a job, nor the basis of sex. Migrant worker should receive equal remuneration for work of equal value. The remuneration must be compared with the remuneration received by citizens in the same job category, as well as by citizens in comparable job categories.

Several ILO Conventions ensure migrant workers further rights as regards remuneration:

- Minimum wage rates (fixed either by collective agreement, arbitration award or by the competent authority, under the same conditions as for nationals of the host country);

- Participation, through their representatives, in the operation of statutory machinery for fixing wages;
- Direct, regular payment in the form of cash;
- Freedom to dispose of their wage as they wish;
- Regular provision of food, housing, clothing and other essential supplies and services, if these form part of remuneration. Such 'payments in kind' must be fairly valued and adequate for needs of the workers and their family, as assessed by the competent authority (Wages Convention, 1949);
- Migrant workers who are not regularized should be remunerated for past employment to the same extent that citizens should be paid their arrears (C. 143. Article 9(1)).

2.7.2 Working Conditions

Convention No. 143, Article 12(g) ascertains migrant workers of their equal treatment with regard to working conditions as the nationals of the country in which they work. Usually remuneration and conditions of work commonly include:

- Hours of work (with some restrictions for young workers)
- Rest periods (including breastfeeding breaks)
- Overtime arrangements
- Holidays with pay
- Apprenticeship and training
- Protection against toxic substances or dangerous machinery, noise and vibration
- Protection against violence and sexual harassment at work
- Welfare facilities and other benefits.

Special attention should be given to women and young workers, who are entitled to special protection, including:

- Minimum age for employment
- Restrictions to protect young persons (e.g. prohibition of overtime)

- Restriction on night work
- Restrictions on women's work to protect their reproductive health (e.g. prohibition of exposure to hazardous substances during pregnancy)
- Maternity protection (including maternity leave, maternity benefits and protection against dismissal)

2.7.3 Maternity Protection

International women migrants often undergo obligatory pregnancy tests before they travel or are dismissed and deported when they become pregnant during employment. The first international labour instrument on maternity protection was adopted at the first International Labour Conference in 1919. Adequate maternity protection is vital for the future generation of societies, enabling women workers to successfully combine their reproductive and productive roles and prevent unequal treatment in employment due to their child bearing role. Key provisions in the first and later maternity protection conventions include protection against dismissal during and after delivery, and maternity benefits in the form of leave and income continuity.

The fundamental right to maternity protection continued to be breached even if almost all national legislations provide for it. For this reason, ILO member States adopted new Maternity Protection Convention in 2000 (No. 183):

- Broadening the coverage to all employed women, including those in atypical forms of dependent work.
- Explicitly prohibiting dismissal of women on the grounds of pregnancy, child birth and its consequences or nursing with the burden of proof resting on employers
- Encouraging countries to adopt measures to ensure that maternity does not constitute a source of discrimination at work including access to employment and prohibiting pregnancy tests at recruitment except in very specific circumstances.

2.7.4 Violence against Migrant Workers

According to ILO workplace violence includes any faction, incident or behavior that departs from reasonable conduct in which a person is

assaulted, threatened, harmed in the course of or as a result of his or her work (Violence at Work, Geneva 2006). It can take the form of murders, assaults, rape, sexual harassment, threats, bullying, mobbing and verbal abuse:

- 'Sexual harassment' means unwanted conduct of a sexual nature, or other conduct based on sex, affecting the dignity of women and men. This can include unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct.
- 'Bullying and mobbing' consist of repeated, regular and persistent negative attacks on the personal and professional performance of an individual or group of employees (Sexual Harassment at Work, Bangkok, 2001)

2.7.5 Health and Safety

Recommendation No. 100 para 45 and 46 entitle migrant workers the same protection with regard to occupational health and safety as nationals of the country. Foreign migrant workers are commonly permitted into countries for jobs that are usually 'dirty', 'dangerous', and 'demeaning' which national workers no longer want to perform. The Migrant Workers Recommendations, 1975, (No. 151) asks member States "to take all appropriate measures to prevent any special health risks to which migrant workers may be exposed.

According to Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155), the employer of all workers has the following duty to prevent accidents, injuries and diseases at the workplace:

- Identify health hazards at work and develop adequate OSH procedures
- Provide health and safety information and appropriately label harmful products and warning symbols in a language that migrant workers can understand
- Train workers and make it compulsory for workers to comply with OSH procedures
- Keep the working environment safe and healthy by promoting a preventative culture and establish OSH as a routine management function

Workers have a duty to:

- Cooperate with the employer in determining safety and health hazards and develop proper procedures
- Observe established OSH procedures
- Report health and safety hazards forthwith to the employer

Workers have the right to:

- Investigate OSH-related incidents
- Withdraw from situations that present and imminent threat to their life and safety
- Call on labour inspection services without threat of victimization

2.7.6 Employment Opportunities and Freedom to Change Jobs

According to Convention No. 143, Article 14(a) after a maximum of two years of lawful residence in the host countries for the purpose of employment, migrant workers should be granted free choice of employment. If the host country permits fixed-term contracts of less than two years, free choice of employment should be granted after the migrant worker has completed his or her first contract.

2.7.7 Job Security

Recommendation No. 151, para 2(d) says all migrant workers have the right to 'equal treatment' in respect of job security. While no international labour standard establishes an absolute right to a job, migrant workers should not be discriminated against if the workforce has to be reduced, for example, for reasons of redundancy. Convention No. 143, Article 8 expresses migrant workers who have been dismissed should not automatically lose their residence or work permit as a result. They should be allowed sufficient time to find an alternative job.

2.7.8 Job Promotion

Recruited for a particular job does not mean that the worker must remain in the same position regardless of experience, ability or conduct. Migrant workers should be given the same opportunities for promotion and advancement as nationals of the country. Given equal qualifications, women should also be given equal opportunities to men in this regard (R.100, para 38-40; R. 151, para 2(c))

2.7.9 Access to Other Jobs and Vocational Training

Migrant workers have equal access to nationals to vocational guidance, job placement services, access to vocational training, etc. The employment opportunities of migrant workers are often reduced because the skills they have acquired at home are not recognized abroad [R. 151, para 2 (a) and (b)]. Mechanisms to assess, certify and recognize skills and qualifications enhance the job prospects of all workers, and migrant workers may claim special measures in this regard (R. 195, para 12).

2.7.10 Social Security

Migrant workers should not be treated less favourably than nationals with respect to social security benefits like unemployment, sickness, old age, family responsibilities such as maternity and childcare, invalidity, need for medical care, loss of the family breadwinner, and employment injury (C.118, R.100, C.143, R.151, and C.157). Conditions such as residency requirements may be imposed to the same extent as they apply to nationals. Exceptions are permissible only with respect to benefits which are payable solely from public funds, and benefits paid to persons who do not satisfy the conditions required for a normal pension (C.97, Art. 6).

If migrant workers or their family members leave their country of employment, they should not automatically lose their right to benefits when they claim them in another country or upon their home. Irregular migrant workers who cannot be regularized should, on the basis of their past employment, be able to claim social security benefits under the same conditions as nationals (C.143, Art.9). In the Philippines, a memorandum of agreement requires recruitment agencies which recruit workers for foreign ships to make quarterly payments to the Philippines social security system. Workers are covered by social security upon signing the standard seafarer employment contract with the recruiting agency and foreign ship owner as employers (ILO, Multilateral Framework, 2005)

2.7.11 Housing

Adequate and decent housing accommodation should not cost more than a reasonable proportion of the workers' income. In cases when housing is provided by the employer, profits should not be made on the rent or the rent should not be part of payment for work (R.115, para 4 and 12). In granting work permits, ministries of labour must take into account the capacity of employers to provide adequate housing

- How much space is allocated for each worker?
- Are rooms adequately ventilated?
- Do families proposing to employ a live-in-foreign domestic helper have an adequate room and toilet facility? (Guide for Policymakers, Bangkok 2008)

2.7.12 Access to Remedies in Law

Migrant workers should have the same right of legal recourse, including the right to legal assistance, as nationals when disputes arise with respect to working conditions, the exercise of trade union rights or social security entitlements (C.97, Art.6, C.143, Art.9, R. 151, para 33 and 34) In February 2004, the President of the Philippines issued Executive Order No. 287 to direct the deployment of social workers as Social Welfare Attaches beyond Labour Attaches in selected diplomatic posts with large concentration of Overseas Filipino Workers.

2.7.13 Freedom of Movement

Convention No. 143, Article 14 ensures freedom for migrant workers to move at any time from one place to another in the country of work, providing that they are lawfully within the territory. They should be allowed to, for example, go out for socialization or leisure outside of their workplace during their non-working hours including at night, and travel to visit family or friends in the host country or their home country during holidays or leave. Restriction to geographical mobility in 'zone', 'certain city' and 'province' is not in line with these provisions.

2.7.14 HIV/AIDS

According to ILO Code of Practice on HIV/AIDS and the World of Work, para 8.1, any routine medical testing, such as testing in either sending or receiving country for fitness carried out prior to employment, or on a regular basis for migrant workers, should not include mandatory HIV testing. Employers, migrant workers and their representatives should encourage confidential voluntary counseling and testing that is provided by qualified health services. To mitigate the impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the workplace and on society, workplaces should provide counseling and other forms of social support to migrant workers infected and affected by HIV/AIDS. Even it is illegal terminate from service if someone is identified HIV positive.

2.8 Social and Civil Rights in Host Country

Social policies should enable migrant workers and their families to share in advantages enjoyed by the country's nationals. They should be accorded social and civil rights while working in the host country as follows:

2.8.1 Citizenship and Property Rights

International labour standards do not require sovereign States to grant citizenship to migrant workers. However, migrant workers should be allowed to apply for citizenship after a period of residence in the host country of at least five years, if not contrary to the policy of the host country (R.100, para 51).

Bilateral agreements between labour-sending and labour-receiving countries should make provision for the acquisition, possession and transmission of rural and urban property by migrant workers. At any rate, regular migrant workers should be given a reasonable period of time to dispose of their property before they have to go back to their home country (R.86, para 18).

2.8.2 Education and Culture

Migrant workers and their family members are entitled to equal treatment in respect of education, learning language of the country, children's access to schools, facilities to acquire some knowledge of their own mother tongue, participation in cultural life, practice of religion and adherence to their national customs and ceremonies (R.100, para 49; C.143, Art. 12; R.151, para 7)

2.8.3 Transfer of Funds to Home Country

Migrant workers have the right to transfer part of their earnings and savings as they wish within the limits allowed by national currency laws and regulations. This enables them to contribute substantially to the welfare of their family members who stay in the home country. Thus financial institutions should be reformed to transfer remittances safely, reasonably and efficiently (C.97, Art.9).

2.8.4 Family Reunification and Visits

Migrant workers have the rights to meet their family and migrant workers who have been employed for at least one year should be allowed to visit

their families during the paid annual holiday to which they are entitled. Alternatively, the family should be allowed to visit the workers for a period corresponding at least to the paid annual holiday to which they are entitled (C.143, Art. 13; R.151, para13-19).

2.8.5 Social Services

To adapt unfamiliar situation migrant workers are entitled to receive assistance and advice including information, services, and facilities in education, vocational training, language training, health services, legal aid, social security, transport, and recreation. Services should be offered, if possible, in the native tongue of the workers concerned, otherwise with interpretation and translation facilities. These services should be provided free of charge (C.97, Art.2; R.151, para 7 & 24)

2.9 Return and Repatriation

In some instances like loss of occupation through illness or injury, or sudden termination may motivate to migrant workers to over stay and even lead to them to go into irregular migrant status. But there are usually few provisions in either sending or receiving countries to protect migrant workers with regard to return and repatriation. Repatriation on the grounds that the worker concerned is suffering from infection or illness of any kind which has no effect on the task for which the worker has been recruited is an unacceptable form of discrimination (Guide for Policymakers, Bangkok 2008).

2.9.1 Appeal against Arbitrary Decisions

Migrant workers have the right to appeal against a decision to terminate their employment or to deprive them of their resident status. The workers affected are entitled to challenge the decision, and if successful, to reinstatement, or time to find alternative employment, and to compensation for loss of wages. Migrant workers have the same right to legal aid as national workers, and additionally the assistance of an interpreter (R.151, para 32-34).

2.9.2 Travel Costs

Existing ILO standards do not provide an absolute right to free travel back to the home country if migrant workers fail, for a reason they are not responsible for, to secure the employment for which they have been recruited, or other suitable employment. If migrant workers and their

family members are expelled from a country, they may have to pay their own travel costs but they do not have to bear the costs of the administrative or judicial procedures leading to the expulsion (C.97, Art.9; R.100, para 10; C.143, Art. 9).

2.9.3 Rights of Returning Migrants in Host Country

Whether regular or irregular, returning migrant workers have a right to outstanding remuneration, severance pay, compensation for holidays not taken, as well as, in certain cases, they reimbursement of social security contributions. If any difficulty arises in obtaining these entitlements, they should enjoy equal treatment with national workers regarding access to courts and legal assistance. Migrant workers should be given a reasonable period of time to remain in the host country to seek and obtain a remedy for outstanding remuneration and benefits (C.143, Art. 9; R.151, para 33 & 34).

2.9.4 Rights of Returning Migrants in Country of Origin

If migrant workers have retained the nationality of their country of origin, they have the right to unemployment benefit, if necessary, and if it exists, assistance in obtaining work, as well as social security and social reintegration. Migrant workers and their families should be exempt from customs duty on their personal possessions which include hand tools and portable equipment they have owned for an appreciable time and intend to use in the course of their occupation (C.97, Art. 2; R.86, para 20).

3.0 Rights for Migrant Domestic Workers: Country Experience

3.1 International and Regional Perspective

According to ILO, Global and Regional Estimates on Domestic Workers 2011, at least 52.6 million women and men above the age of 15 are domestic workers in their main job, which represents 3.6 % of global wage employment. Women comprise the overwhelming majority of domestic workers: 43.6 million that means some 83% but there is no specific instrument to women migrant domestic workers.

UN and ILO have developed binding instruments which address discrimination, gender-based violence, nationality, ethnicity and employment terms and conditions. For example, ASEAN's Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers emphasizes the obligation of countries of employment and the origin in

terms of access to justice and social welfare services, decent working and living conditions, access to legal and judicial system, regulation of recruitment agencies, repatriation and reintegration, and adoption of employment contracts. Council of Europe focuses on the link between domestic work and slavery and provision for a domestic worker to file a complaint before the European Court of Human Rights if a state has not effectively protected her rights under the European Convention on Human Rights. European Commission for Human Rights conducts dialogues with governments regarding human rights issues. Inter American Commission on Human Rights has established the Special Rapporteurship on Migrant Workers and their families. Inter-American Court of Human Rights has emphasised that States must not allow private employers to violate the rights of workers or the contractual relationship. The Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa requires State Parties to protect women from exploitation by their employers and to establish a system of protection and social insurance for women working in the informal sector. Article 34(2) of the Revised Arab Charter on Human Rights adopted 22 May 2004 recognises the right of every worker including migrants to enjoy just and favourable conditions of work "which ensure appropriate remuneration to meet his essential needs and those of his family and regulate working hours, rest and holidays with pay, as well as the rules for the preservation of occupational health and safety and the protection of women, children and disabled persons in the place of work." Unfortunately the Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution adopted by SAARC does not cover migrant domestic workers. However, countries like Italy, South Africa, Hong Kong SAR (Special Administrative Region), The Philippines, Jordan, etc have formulated favourable legal framework for migrant domestic workers.

3.2 Legal Protection for Migrant Domestic Workers

Table 1: Matrix of Legal Protection to Migrant Domestic Workers:

Particulars	Bahrain	HK SAR	Italy	Jordan	Kuwait	Lebanon	Malaysia	Singp	SA
1. Domestic workers covered by main labour law?	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes, but limited	No	Yes
2. Migrant domestic workers restricted to women?	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
3. Minimum age for migrant domestic workers	18 yrs; 30 for Filipino	Depends on the origin	15 yrs.	18 years	20-50 years	23 Years	25-45 years; 21 for Indonesia	23-50 Years	15 Years
4. Minimum wage for Migrant domestic workers	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
5. Contracts required for employment of MDW?	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
6. Employment Contract prescribed by government?	No, (till 2008)	Yes	No ³	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No ⁴
7. Duration of the Contract	N/A	2 Years	2 Yrs	2 years	2 Years	N/A	1 Year	N/A	Depends on the parties
8. Domestic workers covered by social security	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
9. Employment agencies regulated?	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
10. Right to change employers?	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes, but limited	Yes	No	Yes, consent by employer	Yes
11. Freedom of Movement?	No	No	Yes	No	--	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
12. Right to work while Case is pending?	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes, but only 2 months	Yes, by Special Pass	Yes, Compulsory	Yes

N.B: SA= South Africa, Origin=country of origin of the employee, MD= Migrant Domestic Workers.

Source: Legal Protection for Migrant Domestic Workers in Asia and Arab States, UNIFEM, Bangkok 2008.

From the above table it is quite clear that in terms of instruments for migrant domestic workers, Italy and South Africa cover most of the rights

³ In Italy employment agreed by both parties should comply with the minimum terms and conditions of law.

⁴ South Africa has provided a model contract complied with the minimum terms and conditions under the law.

of migrant domestic workers. Malaysia and Singapore have restricted the domestic works only for women. Migrant domestic workers of Bahrain, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon and Singapore do not have the access to main labour law of the nation. Even the law for migrant domestic workers in Malaysia is very confined. Minimum age for migrant domestic workers is in line with international standard although it sometimes contravenes to law. Countries like Bahrain, Jordan, Lebanon, Malaysia and Singapore do not have any minimum wage rate whereas Hong Kong SAR, Italy, Kuwait and South Africa ascertain minimum wage for migrant domestic worker.

It is noteworthy that all the countries mentioned in the table have developed contract for employment excepting Bahrain. Standard employment contracts are prescribed by government of Jordan, Kuwait, Malaysia and Hong Kong SAR. In case of Italy and South Africa employment contracts must comply the laws of the state but till 2008 Bahrain had no prescribed contract provision. Duration of the contract in most of the countries is 2 years, Malaysia 1 year, in South Africa it depends on the employer and employee, Bahrain and Singapore have no specific duration system.

In social security point of view, migrant domestic workers are more vulnerable excepting in Italy and South Africa. In case of Italy and Malaysia employer has to apply to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Department of Immigration respectively for approval. The rest of the countries have regulated employment agencies.

Right to change employer is not applicable to Bahrain, Hong Kong SAR and Malaysia; with the prior approval or consent of the original employer employment is changeable in Kuwait and Singapore; Italy, Jordan, Lebanon and South Africa are liberal in this regard. Freedom of movement for migrant domestic workers is restricted to Bahrain, Hong Kong SAR, Jordan and Malaysia. Kuwait has no available data and Italy, Lebanon, Singapore and South Africa has provision for movement.

Right to work while case is pending is violated in countries like Bahrain, Hong Kong SAR and Kuwait. Italy, Jordan and South Africa have the provision to work and stay, in Lebanon only 2 months, in Malaysia the provision is applicable if special pass is issued by the Immigration Department and in Singapore it is compulsory to stay until the case is completed.

3.3 International Treaties and Conventions Ratified by Countries

Table 2: International treaties and conventions ratified by some countries

Treaties	Year	Bahrain	HK SAR	Italy	Jordan	Kuwait	Lebanon	Malaysia	Singapore	SA ⁵
ICERD	1965	1990	1981	1976	1974	1968	1971	--	--	1998
ICESCR	1966	--	1976	1978	1975	1996	1972	--	--	1994
ICCPR	1966	2006	1976	1978	1975	1996	--	--	--	1998
CEDAW	1979	2002	1996	1985	1992	1994	1997	1995	1995	1995
MWC	1990	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
ILO C029	1930	1981	1997	1934	1966	1968	1977	1957	1965	1997
ILO C097	1949	--	1997	1952	--	--	--	--	--	--
ILO C105	1957	1998	1997	1968	1958	1961	1977	--?	--?	1997
ILO C111	1958	2000	--	1963	1963	1966	1977	--	--	1997
ILO C138	1073	--	1999	1981	1998	1999	2003	1997	2005	2000
ILO C143	1975	--	--	1981	--	--	--	--	--	--
ILO C181	1997	--	--	2000	--	--	--	--	--	--
ILOC182	1999	2001	2002	2000	2000	2000	2001	2000	2001	2000

Source: UNIFEM, legal Protection for Migrant Domestic Workers in Asia and the Arab States

Bangladesh is the member of ILO since 1972 just immediate after Independence in 1971. Till December 2011 Bangladesh has ratified 33 Conventions which are in force: Fundamental Convention No. 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 111 and 182; 2 Priority Conventions: Convention No. 81, 144 and other conventions are: 1, 4, 6, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 21, 22, 27, 32, 45, 59, 80, 89, 90, 96, 106, 107, 116, 118, 149 whereas India is the member of ILO since 1932. Till December 2011 it has ratified 66 Conventions of which 59 are in force. India has ratified Fundamental Convention No. 29, 98, 100, 105, 111, 138, 182; Priority Conventions 81, 122, 144; other Conventions- 1, 8, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 22, 23, 26, 27, 30, 42, 77, 78, 80, 88, 89, 92, 94, 95, 106, 107, 108, 115, 116, 118, 119, 120, 131, 132, 135, 136, 137, 139, 140, 142, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 152, 153, 167, 172. But Italy is the member of ILO since its establishment in 1919. It has ratified 111 Conventions of which 91 are in force: Fundamental Conventions 29, 87, 98, 100, 105, 111, 138, 182; Priority Conventions 81, 122, 129, 144 and other Conventions 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 18, 19, 22, 23, 26, 27, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 42, 44, 48, 53, 55, 68, 69, 71, 73, 74, 77, 78, 79, 80, 90, 92, 94, 95, 97, 99, 102, 106, 108, 114, 115, 117, 118, 119, 120, 124, 127, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 139, 141, 142, 143, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 159, 160, 164, 167, 170, 175, 181, 183 (ILO Conference 101st Session 2012).

⁵ 'SA' here means South Africa

4.0 Conclusion and Recommendation

4.1 Conclusion

Among the overseas employees, domestic or less skilled migrant workers are more vulnerable than those of skilled and semi-skilled manpower. The study of different countries' law report identifies the factors contribute to the vulnerability of migrant domestic workers: recruitment policies and practices on payment of fees and the link between the legality of the worker's stay with the employment relationship with a specific employer; illegal recruitment, trafficking, servitude and forced labour, and absence of a written contract of employment and lack of legal recognition of domestic work.

From the socio-economic point of view migrant workers are the part and parcel of both country of origin and the host country. That's why legal recognition to the work done by migrant workers or migrant domestic workers is a must, and both the countries should develop access to information, reporting and protection mechanisms for migrant workers.

In these circumstances the protection of the rights of migrant workers requires a sound legal foundation based on international law and standards, as well as active cooperation among governments, employers' organisations, workers' organisations and civil society including the media. Governments may ratify and fully implement concerned international legal instruments that promote human, labour and gender equality rights of migrant workers, in particular ILO Conventions No. 97 and No. 143; the eight fundamental Conventions, and the 1990 UN Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. The study also shows that countries like Italy, South Africa, Hong Kong SAR, etc of which domestic instrument are in line with the ILO Conventions and have the mechanism of employment contracts and legal access to justice. That's why migrant workers of those countries are less vulnerable than those have absence of legal instruments covering domestic migrant workers.

4.2 Recommendations

4.2.1 Campaigns against illegal migration

Countries of origin should launch campaigns against illegal migration which might include awareness building regarding the risks of illegal migration and providing information about legal migration channels.

Involvement of embassies and consulates from countries of employment in such campaigns is considered effective.

4.2.2 Initiatives to prevent indebtedness of migrant domestic workers

States should take initiatives to avoid indebtedness of migrant domestic workers, including the adoption of agreements which provide that their recruitment costs be covered by the employer and/or recruitment agencies and State credit programs for migrant women.

4.2.3 Pre-departure training programmes

The organization of training programs for migrant domestic workers prior to their departure is considered as a good practice. Such programs, depending on the circumstances, should include basic lessons in the language of the country of employment and practical tips on communication technologies and how to transfer remittances.

4.2.4 Change of employers

Countries of employment should review their legislation and ensure that workers' migrant status does not depend directly on the employment relationship with an employer and that, under certain circumstances and conditions, workers may change employers.

4.2.5 Hindrances to domestic workers' access to justice

Migrant domestic workers who report their employers for violating their labour and other rights should be allowed to remain in the host country and provided them with necessary assistance to take part in the trials of their employers and to obtain justice.

4.2.6 Regulation of recruitment agencies

Legislation and policies of countries of origin and of employment should provide for mechanisms to monitor the work of recruitment agencies; specific rules governing fees should be established and its enforcement should be monitored; recruiting agencies should have to renew their licenses periodically and watchdog arrangements should be established to ensure that only those agencies which observe specific criteria relating to migrant domestic workers' rights can continue to operate.

4.2.7 Monitoring of employers by the recruitment agencies

Recruitment agencies should have the duty to take monthly feedback from the domestic workers and legally required to monitor conduct of employers accordingly.

4.2.8 Equal protection in case of disputes

In the event of disputes, States should ensure that migrant domestic workers and employers are afforded equal protection based on the terms of the contract of employment, including working hours, wages, boarding and lodging.

4.2.9 Written contract of employment

Legislation on the recruitment of migrant domestic workers should require a written contract, giving particulars of the employer and employee and details of the employee's monthly wages, duties and working hours, free time and vacations, board, lodging, medical insurance, transport to the country employment, conditions for terminating the contract, complaint procedures and provision for the eventuality of the employee's death or illness; when the contract is signed in the language of the country of employment, a translation should be required for the benefit of the migrant domestic worker.

4.2.10 Model contracts for domestic workers

The drawing up by States of employment model contracts for domestic workers which also apply to illegal migrants, stipulating working hours and minimum wages, might be helpful for migrant domestic workers to claim the right in court.

4.2.11 Withholding in identity documents

States should ensure legislation that prohibits the withholding of passports or relevant identity cards, and complaints regarding confiscation of such documents should be investigated properly.

4.2.12 Dismissal in case of illness

Legislation in the countries of employment should not allow migrant domestic workers to be dismissed in case of illness without fair compensation.

4.2.13 Medical examination

Legislation should prohibit certain medical examinations of workers like HIV/AIDS without their expressed consent. Maternity protection should be ensured as right and benefits should be paid accordingly.

4.2.14 Role of embassies and consulates

Consulates and embassies should play an active role in protecting the rights of migrant domestic workers, by means including regular checks on their circumstances; it is good for consulates to provide shelter to women fleeing from abusive employers and to provide them with assistance in filing complaints against the employers; when migrant domestic workers cannot claim their rights in court, it is might be a good practice for consulates to assist in mediating between the parties through contracts with the ministries and departments concerned.

4.2.15 Access to complaint mechanisms

Countries of employment and Consulates or High Commissions of countries of origin should set up toll free telephone lines as well as online internet management where migrant workers can seek advice, guidance or submit complaints.

Annexure-I

International Labour Standards Relevant To Migran Workers

Fundamental ILO Conventions

Freedom of Association

C.87 Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948.

C.98 Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949.

Equality at Work

C.100 Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951.

R.90 Equal Remuneration Recommendation, 1951.

C.111 Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958.

R.111 Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Recommendation, 1958.

Forced Labour

C.29 Forced Labour Convention, 1930.

R.35 Forced Labour (Indirect Compulsion), 1930.

C.105 Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957.

Child Labour

C.138 Minimum Age Convention, 1973.

R.146 Minimum Age Recommendation, 1973.

C.182 Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999.

R.190 Worst Forms of Child Labour Recommendation, 1999.

Migrant-specific ILO Conventions and Recommendations

C.97 Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949.

R.86 Migration for Employment Recommendation (Revised), 1949.

C.143 Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975.

R.100 Protection of Migrant Workers (Underdeveloped Countries) Recommendation, 1955.

R.151 Migrant Workers Recommendation, 1975

Some ILO Conventions and Recommendations with Specific Concerns of Migrant Workers

- C.19 Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation) Convention, 1925.
- C.26 Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention, 1928.
- C.81 Labour Inspection Convention, 1947.
- C.88 Employment Service Convention, 1948.
- C.94 Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention, 1949.
- C.95 Protection of Wages Convention, 1949.
- C.102 Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952
- C.110 Plantations Convention, 1958.
- R.115 Workers Housing Recommendation, 1961.
- C.117 Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards) Convention, 1962.
- C.118 Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962.
- C.121 Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964.
- C.122 Employment Policy Convention, 1964.
- R.122 Employment Policy Recommendation, 1964.
- R.169 Employment Policy (Supplementary Provisions) Recommendation, 1964.
- C.129 Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention, 1969.
- C.131 Minimum Wage-Fixing Convention, 1970.
- C.135 Workers Representatives Convention, 1971.
- R.143 Workers Representatives Recommendation, 1971.
- C.141 Rural Workers' Organization Convention, 1975.
- R.149 Rural Workers' Organization Recommendation, 1975.
- C.142 Human Resources Development Convention, 1975.
- R.195 Human Resources Development Recommendation, 2004.
- C.149 Nursing Personnel Convention, 1977.
- C.155 Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981.

- R.164 Occupational Safety and Health Recommendation, 1981.
- C.157 Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention, 1982.
- R.167 Maintenance of Social Security Rights Recommendation, 1983.
- C.158 Termination of Employment Convention, 1982.
- C.167 Safety and Health in Construction Convention, 1988.
- C.168 Employment Promotion and Protection Against Unemployment Convention, 1988.
- C.169 Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention, 1989.
- C.172 Working Conditions (Hotels and Restaurants) Convention, 1991.
- C.176 Safety and Health in Mines Convention, 1995.
- C.181 Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997.
- R.188 Private Employment Agencies Recommendation, 1997.
- C.183 Maternity Protection Convention, 2000.
- C.184 Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention, 2001.

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Good Governance and Administrative Culture Bangladesh Perspective

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Abstract: *The paper attempts to examine the existing administrative culture and its influence in good governance. At the same time it attempts to focus on level of good governance which is being prevailed in public management arena of Bangladesh. The prime objective of the paper is to analyze the role and influence of administrative culture in the process of achieving good governance of the country. The paper tries to illustrate the underlying cultural barriers to good governance in public administration of Bangladesh. The paper also analyzes elaborately the prevailing cultural and administrative practices and tries to make relationship between bad-culture and counter-productive administrative system in Bangladesh. Finally attempts have been made to suggest some recommendations to overcome the barriers that are the negative outputs of administrative culture, and which impede the process of achieving good governance in Bangladesh.*

1.0 Introduction

Ensuring good governance has become the most important challenge for public administration in the new millennium all over the world especially for the developing countries. A sound public administrative system acts as one of the essential propelling forces for achieving good governance. Both the actors of public administration-political decision makers and civil servants are directly involved in the process of achieving as well as ensuring good governance. At the same time, the existing administrative culture has immense influence on the actors that play a significant role in the process. Bangladesh is not an exception. The administrative cultures have become important factors that have influenced the actors a lot and thus play a vital role in the process of good governance.

1.1 Objectives of the Paper

The present paper attempts to highlight the existing administrative culture of Bangladesh. At the same time it attempts to focus on level of good governance which is being prevailed in public management arena of Bangladesh. The prime objective of the paper is to analyze the role and influence of administrative culture in the process of achieving good

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governance of the country. Finally attempts have been made to suggest some recommendations to overcome the barriers that are the negative outputs of administrative culture, and which impede the process of achieving good governance in Bangladesh.

2.0 Good Governance and Administrative Culture as concepts

2.1 Good Governance

"Good Governance" has almost become an obsession in current debates about development (Williams and Young, 1994: p.84). The World Bank treats good governance as "synonymous with sound development management" (cited in Archer, 1994: p.9; Leftwich, 1994: 372). According to the opinion of the UNDP, governance can be seen as the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels. In its opinion, the main challenge for all societies is to create a system of governance that promotes supports and sustains human development (UNDP, 1997: 1). Good Governance is participatory, transparent and accountable. It promotes rule of law. It is also effective and equitable. Good Governance ensures that political, social and economic priorities are based on broad consensus in society and it tries to ensure the participation of the poorest and the mass people in decision making over the allocation of development resources.

There are three elements of governance: economic, political and administrative. Economic governance includes the decision making processes that affects the economic activities of a country and it has implications for poverty, equity and quality of life. Political governance includes the decision making process to formulate public policy and implement of those decisions. Administrative governance relates institutional mechanism and decentralized system which actually ensures effective, efficient and responsive public service delivery to the citizen. Encompassing all these three elements of governance, good governance defines the process and structures that guide political and socio-economic relationships (ibid pp. 2-3).

In addition to the above definitions, the UNDP has also identified fifteen elements as core characteristics of good governance. These are:

- Participation: All men and women have a voice in decision making either directly or through legitimate institutions that represent their interest. Such broad participation is built on

freedom of associations and capacities to participate constructively.

- Rule of Law: Legal frameworks are fair and enforced impartiality; particularly ensuring that the human rights respected and safety and security are maintained at the highest level.
- Transparency: Transparency is built on the free flow of information. Processes, institutions and information are made accessible to those who are concerned and enough information is provided to understand and monitor the whole process.
- Responsiveness: Institutions and processes serve all stakeholders. The civil servants are supposed to serve the clients with proactive mentality.
- Consensus Orientation: Differing interests are mediated to reach broad consensus on what is the common best interests of the organizations, community or country and where possible, on policies and procedures.
- Equity: All men and women have opportunities to improve or maintain their well being and the vulnerable are targeted to provide security of well-being to all.
- Effectiveness and efficiency: Processes and institutions produce results that meet the actual needs of the citizen while making the use of resources. Value for money must be ensured at all levels of public finance management.
- Accountability: Decision-makers in government, the private sector and civil society organizations must be accountable to taxpayers and specific constituencies, as well as to institutional stakeholders.
- Strategic Vision: Leaders and the public share a broad and long term perspective on the prosperous society and accepted level of human development, along with a sense of what is needed for such development.
- Legitimacy: Authority is legitimate in terms of the established legal and institutional framework and especially in terms of the accepted institutional criteria, processes and procedures.

- **Resource Prudence:** Resources are managed and used with a view to optimizing the well being of people and ensuring public values.
- **Ecological Soundness:** The environment is protected and regenerated to ensure sustainable self-reliance.
- **Empowering and Enabling:** All actors in society are empowered to pursue legitimate goals and enabling them to optimize their success and the realization of the well being of all.
- **Partnership:** Governance is seen as a whole system responsibility that cannot be discharged effectively alone, but involve institutionalized mechanisms and processes for working in partnerships of public and private actors in conducting the business of governance at all levels.
- **Spatially grounded in communities:** The multi-level nature of human system with the principles of self and self-organizing embodied at each level is recognized as the basis of governance that put people at the top and empowers them to be self-reliant, self-organizing and self-managing (ibid p.4).

2.2 Administrative Culture

Culture can be considered as a "complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of the society" (International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, 1972: 527). It can also be defined as "the body of customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits constituting a distinct complex of tradition of a racial, religious or social group" (Webster's Third New International Dictionary). In other words, cultures is a complex typical of behavior, or standardize social characteristics peculiar to a specific group, occupation, profession, sex, age, grade or social class. Thus beliefs, behavior, norms, values that shared by the members of a society which are distinctive to that particular group can be considered as culture.

Within such a culture, there are various sub- cultures and administrative culture is a part of them. In other word, administrative culture is a part of the total culture of a country. Administrators or bureaucrats is a professional group consist of persons involved in the managing the administrative affairs of the country. They have their own beliefs,

thinking patterns, behavioral patterns, work attitudes and value system which are called as the administrative culture. Administrative culture refers to norms and values that shape and influence bureaucratic attitudes, interpersonal relationships, and performance. Such norms influence among others bureaucracy's relationship to politics and to society in general (Jamil, 2007: p.2). In other word, by administrative culture one should understand "those characteristics or conventional ways by which administrators, politicians and citizens in a given country think, act and interact as they relate themselves to various facets of their administrative system" (Lee H.B. and Abelardo G. S. 1970: p.23). It has also been defined "as the totality or not only the consciousness structure, the way of thinking, the value system and attitude of the administrative bureaucrats, but also the attitude of the people towards the administration" (ibid p.86). F.W. Riggs identified administrative culture as an "umbrella term" which includes shared beliefs and practice, shared attitudes, knowledge and improvements of the administrative body (Riggs, F.W., 2002: p.3). Thus it can be said that the administrative culture of a country consist of the thinking pattern, attitude and belief system of the three actors-administrators, politicians and people at large towards the administration. So each country has its own administrative culture based on its own social, economical, political and historical background.

2.3 Existing Administrative Culture in Bangladesh

Loyalty of bureaucrats: In Bangladesh, the loyalty of civil servants is mostly cadre based rather than organization based. In Bangladesh, once recruited to a particular service, a civil servant's career is organized within the service. His attachment is career-long. As a result of such attachment and loyalty toward his own cadre coordination among the members of different services is jeopardized. At the same time a feeling of superiority of one cadre/service over the other and a lack of commitment to organizational policies are found. Besides, there is also a strong loyalty among bureaucrats to family and kin (Jamil, 2007: p.195).

Patron-client relationship: Bangladesh is characterized as a hierarchical society in which interpersonal relationships are based on positions, status, seniority, and gender (Jansen, 1990: p.26). This social system is also reflected on the administrative system of the country. As a consequence, it has been the custom to use "yes sir" while addressing senior officers. As a result, most employees are submissive to their bosses and the subordinates are always anxious about how to please the boss. So they

always tell him what he wants to hear, and not necessarily what the reality is. On the other hand, most superiors want to dictate decisions to their subordinates, contributing slackness and inertia among them. On the other hand, it is easy to follow the orders given by superiors. So in Bangladesh, the relationship between senior and junior is often referred to as "patron-client" relationship (Jahangir, 1981: p.26). "Winning the heart" of the superior is a common strategy employed by junior officers to gain access to favor and nepotism. Official duties and responsibilities are often ignored and also are less valued in the process of obtaining close relationship to the superior (Jamil, 2007: p.222).

Bureaucracy-Citizen interface: In Bangladesh, bureaucrats have a "patron-client" attitude towards citizens. Citizens are always considered as object of administration and they are expected by government agencies to follow what is told. Mass people are always expected to accept the decision made in their name by the government. At the same time, bureaucrats are also often criticized for their elitist attitude and partiality in dealing with citizens. In other word, the bureaucracy-citizen interface in Bangladesh is also characterized by elitism. As hierarchy dominates interpersonal relationships in our country and governance is not based on responding to citizen's demands but deciding for citizens, bureaucratic actions often favor the elites with whom bureaucrats share economic, social and academic backgrounds (Zafarullah, 1995: p.1). Unless one has personal relations, it is very difficult for general people to get the service from the administration. Neither a sense of responsiveness or accountability is observed in the behavior of the civil servants; nor is any professional norm and standard developed for the delivery of public service. Such type of patron-client relationship and their elitist attitude is, more or less, accepted by political decision-makers and also by the citizens.

Tadbir and bribing: Two common characteristics of administrative culture in Bangladesh are tadbir and bribing. Literally, tadbir, an Arabic word, refers to "an act of looking after or taking care of a particular or business interest". In this sense, tadbir refers to persuasion or lobbying. But the practice of tadbir is so widespread in the civil service in Bangladesh that the term has attained a negative parlance (Jamil, 2007: p. 217). In a seminar organized by the Bangladesh Economic Association, speakers identified tadbir and bribing as the two most common bureaucratic pathologies of the country (The Daily Jugantor and The Daily Star. 21th September 2002). They viewed tadbir as "a process that leads to

corruption because it breaks away the standard bureaucratic norms, values, and impersonal rules". According to the analysis of Jamil, tadbir is an act of lobbying that influence decision making in the civil service in an unlawful manner and it has both positive and negative sides. The positive side of tadbir has a humanitarian motive and is employed by an individual either for himself or to help or assist someone... The negative side of tadbir is associated when it is used to break, bypass or manipulate rules in order to acquire unlawful gains for one-self or others. In this regard, corruption is usually associated with tadbir (Jamil, 2007: p. 218).

Corruption: One of the known administrative bad practices of our country is using official position for personal gain and thus nurtures corruption. It is a known fact that certain positions did provide the civil servants to make the money and officials also did make use of their position. Corruption becomes an inescapable fact of life in Bangladesh because the society is a highly complex network involving reciprocal favors and obligations; as a result, payoff is the lifeblood of the country (Maloney, 1986: p.173). In the past, corrupted government officials did not command respect from the people. Over the time, there has been a change in social attitude and now people have started imitating those officials, who have successfully made the gains out of the government positions. As a result, corruption has been nurtured and official positions are now being used more for profit-making purposes rather than for the purpose of service to the society. The main reason for such widespread corruption is lack of accountability in government services and the other important factor for corruption is the tolerance of the society; that means to some extent corruption practices has been accepted by the society. Now-a-days, the earning culture is being respected regardless of whatever means is employed. So, personal gains at the cost of violating societal interest are not being discouraged in Bangladesh. Corrupted officials very often get support and patronization from political actors specially who are in power.

There are various mechanisms of accountability but no mechanism is exercised in this field. In Bangladesh, bureaucrats are now more corrupted and politicized than before and bureaucratic corruption remains undiscovered and unpunished (Kabir, 2010: p.134). Administrative corruption has become, by and large, the administrative culture in Bangladesh (Khan, Rahman and Siddique, 1995: p.334).

Politicization of bureaucracy: Politicization of bureaucracy has become one of the significant administrative cultures of Bangladesh. The politicization of bureaucracy is not a new phenomenon in the history of the public administration in Bangladesh, which is inherited from the British period. In Bangladesh, the present bureaucracy is extremely politicized. In the policy paper, "The Political Economy of the State and Market in Bangladesh," Sobhan (2002) highly criticized the bureaucracy in the country for its political involvement. As a result, now bureaucrats can hold prestigious posts as long as their political masters are happy with their (bureaucrats) pro-party performance (Kabir, 2010: p.134). In the recent years, contractual appointment has been popular among the retired bureaucrats. With a view to serving the ruling party interest and also to carry out the orders of politicians, pro-ruling party retired bureaucrats are appointed on "contractual basis". In recent years, the bureaucrats are promoted on the basis of political consideration, not on the basis of merit and seniority. As a result, many meritorious and experienced officers become frustrated in bureaucracy. In Bangladesh, "prized posting" is another style of politicization of the bureaucracy. The pro-ruling party-minded bureaucrats are capturing those opportunities. Because of political consideration, less qualified and less experienced civil servants hold very important administrative positions. Another recent administrative punishment phenomenon is deputing disliking officers as the "officer on special duty" (OSD) which is used punishing bureaucrats whom seem to have relations with the opposition party. Over the years, in Bangladesh fresh recruitments in civil service have been characterized by irregularities, inconsistencies and political interventions. These have had grave consequences for bureaucratic autonomy, performance, inter-service coordination, loyalty, commitment and integrity (Jamil, 2007: p.199). All these consequences ultimately become strong obstacles for achieving good governance in our country.

Another negative impact of politicization of bureaucracy is the wide spread corruption in every level of administration. In other word, the political- bureaucratic nexus in the corruption has also been observed in Bangladesh. Zafarullah and Siddiquee (2001) state:

...the nexus between corrupt officials and politicians is still pervasive in the administrative hierarchy. Politicians in Bangladesh are believed to have a direct hand in sustaining corruption in administration. They have lucrative shares in all state deals, they receive commissions from terrorists and smugglers and they patronize corrupt officials for personal

gains. Sometimes, it is extremely difficult for someone to honestly discharge his or her responsibilities because of the pressure from above. Most often pressures from political elites to carry out their illegal orders force bureaucrats to ignore professional ethics and public interests.

Lack of accountability and transparency: In Bangladesh, the bureaucracy is also suffering from lack of accountability and transparency. The chain of accountability stretching from the parliament to class iv employees is weak and fuzzy; many in the links have been ruptured, resulting in an inability to enforce financial contracts, stop theft in public enterprises or hold officials accountable for improper or delayed judgment (World Bank, 1996: P.8). Traditional internal mechanisms like hierarchy and supervision have mostly failed (Khan, 1998: p.166). In a parliamentary democracy the legislature plays an important oversight role to keep the executive in check. But this has not happened in Bangladesh (Khan, 2009: p.180). Thus public sector lacks accountability in Bangladesh. At the same time, it is mostly non-transparent. As for example, decision making in this sector as a whole is non-transparent (Khan, 1998: p. 167). Decisions taken by the cabinet, the deliberations involved in reaching them, are not open to public viewing. Both in the political and administrative spheres secrecy is jealously guarded (Khan, 2009: p. 181). Certain acts such as the Official Secret Act, 1923 and Government Service Conduct Rules, 1979 have restricted general people to access in relevant file and documents. There is a general tendency among civil servants to keep everything, including those, which need to be communicated to and stakeholders, secret. This over-emphasis on secrecy in the civil service has been a major factor for corruption. At the same time, it discourages transparency in administration, which is one of the core characteristics of good governance.

2.4 Administrative Cultures and Good Governance in Bangladesh

In the above section, the prime administrative cultures of Bangladesh are discussed. These existing cultures are creating obstacles for achieving good governance in this country. With a view to achieving good governance the civil servants should be loyal towards the organization, not to the cadre. They should be service oriented. They should follow the rule of law and should remember that they are public servants. But they have a "patron-client" attitude towards citizens. Bangladeshi bureaucrats are also often criticized for their elitist attitude. They have partiality in dealing with citizens. All these cultures are making obstacles to achieve

rule of law and equity-two core characteristics of good governance. Tadbir and bribing increase nepotism and corruption in administration. Besides politicization of bureaucracy is creating the wide spread corruption in every level of administration of this country. Thus Tadbir and bribing, politicization of bureaucracy and corruption are also observed as significant obstacles for achieving good governance in this country. Lack of accountability and non-transparency became so dominant administrative culture of this country that state apparatuses have been used for individual, family, group and party benefits at the cost of citizens and the state (Khan, 2009: p.185). Thus Bangladesh has become an extremely corrupt country. All the organs of government have been tainted by corruption. All kinds of corruption, from petty to grand theft, can be observed in Bangladesh. All these administrative cultures are the major bars for achieving good governance in this country. At the same time, lack of accountability and transparency in administration is considered to be a major impediment to achieve good governance. The governance system in Bangladesh is premised on a lack of accountability and secrecy. These two factors combined together have made governance in this country inefficient, ineffective and expensive (Khan, 2009: p.180). In a parliamentary democratic country, the legislature plays an important role to keep the executive in check. But this has not happened in Bangladesh (Khan, 2009: p.180). In this regard, Ahmed rightly identified the negative attitude of the bureaucracy as an important impediment to making the parliamentary control effective on the civil servants. According to him, although the bureaucracy does not always openly defy the authority of parliament and its committees neither can it be seen as much hospitable to the suggestions or demands for more transparency and accountability. One of the important reasons is the over-dependence of the successive ruling parties over the bureaucracy for regime maintenance (Ahmed, 2006: p. 140). Thus in Bangladesh lack of accountability is strongly found in public sector. The failure of administrative accountability mechanisms has contributed to the indifferent and arrogant attitudes that most bureaucrats hold towards citizens in general (Khan, 1983: p.688). Thus most of the existing administrative cultures of this country have created significant obstacles for achieving good governance.

3.0 Recommendations to overcome the barriers

Like many other developing countries, achieving good governance is an important challenge for Bangladesh. But there are so many existing

administrative cultures which are found as serious constraints to achieve it. Therefore, there is a strong need to bring about the change in the administrative cultures by taking various measures. There are some general recommendations that would be helpful to overcome the barriers.

- *Participation and interface among different actors:* With a view to achieving good governance, participation of all men and women in the decision making process either directly or through their representatives should be ensured. Those who working at the different levels within the organization or at the field level, should give opportunity to participate in the decision making process. Decentralization in the form of devolution, delegation or de-concentration provides the opportunity to the people working within the organization or at the field level and at the same time it also provide opportunity towards concerned actors to participate in the decision making process.
- *Rule of law and justice:* The administrative system should be based on the principle of rule of law. The notion of rule of law needs to go beyond formalism. So rule of law and justice should be the basic principle of governance so that all citizens can enjoy their basic human rights and get justice.
- *Change the notion of official secrecy:* The notion of official secrecy should be redefined. The government should open all information for citizens except those that have to do with national security. Free flows of information can make the public official responsible and transparent. Bangladesh government already passed "Right to Information Act, 2009" which encourages free flows of information for the citizens. Government should take proper steps to implement it and it would be helpful to ensure transparency, responsiveness and accountability of public services.
- *Rearrange Civil Service Act/ Rules of business:* With a view to making the civil servants responsible and accountable a clear-cut delineation of their roles, responsibilities and authorities is required. The scope of civil service act/rules of business should be expanded where their responsibilities towards the political decision-makers, the parliament, especially parliamentary committees, constitutional bodies, political parties- both the party in position and the opposition, civil society organizations and

finally towards the people should clearly stated. The people should let it know and make the civil servants follow this act during their service period.

- *Simplification of work procedures:* So long as work procedures remain cumbersome and non-transparent, the administration would not be accountable and responsive towards the public. Fulfillment of self-interest or safeguarding the interest of a few people-decision makers and others- become dominating factors in our administration. Due to lack of transparency in work procedures, the administration is considered not only as unaccountable but also as non-responsive to the public. This is also contributing to the increasing corruption and inefficiency in the administration. So there is a strong need for an integrity management system with simplification of work procedures within the government for ensuring transparency in all activities and decisions of public offices. In this regard the application of information technology (IT) in all levels of administration is the best example of simplification of work procedures. E-governance should be encouraged in public sector which will make the civil servants accountable, responsive, and transparent and at the same time efficient.
- *Performance Indicators:* With a view to increasing efficiency and effectiveness of public officials, performance indicators need to be developed for measuring the achievement of a particular official objectively. At the same time an element of competition should be introduced in the civil service. That means, inter-cadre and inter-organizational competition will be opened for external agencies, including the private sector and NGOs. A competitive bureaucracy would mean that rewards and punishments for its members are associated with the degree of success or failure to compete with others. In this regard personal accountability for decisions should be established in place of organizational accountability.
- *Training on behavioral aspects:* With a view to changing the attitudes of civil servants towards general people, training would be fruitful device. Civil service training should focus on behavioral aspects rather than on knowledge aspects. They should give the training of appropriate ethics and values.

Through proper training they can have the right attitude towards mass people. Civil servants should remember that they are the public servants and from this point of view they should be impartial in dealing with citizens.

- *Non-partisan bureaucracy:* One of the most harmful administrative cultures of our country is politicization of bureaucracy which is one of the significant impediments for achieving good governance. The impact of politicization of bureaucracy is very critical and it has become a threat to effective, efficient and neutral public administration of our country. So political decision makers of both party in position and the opposition should realized the fact and they should be careful not to use the bureaucracy for their party interest. The bureaucracy should remain neutral and non-partisan. The fresh recruitments in civil service and promotion should be on the basis of merit. OSD system should be abolished. Meritorious and experienced officers should give opportunity to hold important administrative positions and thus serve the country. With a view to achieve good governance, bureaucracy should be free from political influence and intervention.
- *Role of Civil Society organizations:* With a view to ensuring good governance in our country, civil society organizations can play a significant role. They may raise their voices and concerns on behalf of the people over a number of public issues. They can check whether the issues are the outcomes of government decisions or otherwise motivated. It has been the case even in relation to administration. Regarding public administration, civil society organizations can appreciate the works done, assess their performance, put pressure to adopt the transparency in the performance of departmental functions and make advocacy for changing in the belief systems or attitudes or behavioral patterns in a positive way. Indeed they have been working as pressure groups and the success of these efforts ultimately depends on the political will to change their beliefs, attitudes and behavioral pattern.

4.0 Conclusion

The socio-political and economic perspectives of a country and its history play the most important role in creating the administrative culture of a country. Bangladesh is not an exception. There are some administrative cultures which become major constraints towards achieving good governance. It is the proper time to change the work style and behavior of bureaucrats in relation to the mass people. They should be effective, efficient, responsive, accountable, neutral and transparent in running the public administration of this country. In this regard, international development partners also can play an important role by providing with consultations and technical supports to the government for ensuring good governance in Bangladesh. The adoption of sustainable development and good governance as the guiding principles for extending support by the UNDP and advocacy for transparency and accountability by the World Bank may be cited as examples in this regard. There are a number of options available for the administration, which can be adopted in the light of good governance. With a view to bringing about changes in the administrative culture of the country, further measures need to be taken for the sake of achieving good governance in public administration. Some of them are indicated above. At the same time, the institutional mechanisms to monitor the process of change are also required. It should be mention worthy that the success of any reform initiatives depends on the seriousness and sincerity of two principal actors of administration - political decision makers and civil servants. At the same time, it is equally important that how far these two principal actors are able to win the trust and confidence of people - the significant third actor. So the suggestions provided above are simultaneously true for all the actors - political decision makers, civil servants and the citizens -how far they are committed towards achieving good governance in Bangladesh.

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Reducing Unemployment through the Informal Sector The Case of Bangladesh

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Abstract: This paper shows the unemployment scenario of Bangladesh and discusses how widespread unemployment can be reduced through the informal sector. Unemployment in Bangladesh has taken dreadful form. Presently, more than two million people, who constitute 4.3 percent of the labor force, are unemployed. Creation of jobs for all these unemployed people in the formal sector is not possible. Out of 47.4 million employed people, only 12.29 percent are employed in the formal sector and 87.71 percent are engaged in the informal sector. The informal sector is easily manageable, unsophisticated, less capital demanding and uses indigenous technology. Therefore, the government should undertake necessary measures to develop the informal sector with a view to reducing growing unemployment in Bangladesh.

1.0 Introduction

Bangladesh is a small country of 147570 square kilometer with a large population of 144.5 million. The present population growth rate is about 1.4 percent (GOB 2009). Poverty is the number one problem of Bangladesh. Although Bangladesh has made commendable success in poverty reduction during the last two decades, still now 40.0 percent people live below the upper poverty line (per capita daily calorie intake is less than 2122 kilocalorie) and 25.5 percent people live below the lower poverty line (per capita daily calorie intake is less than 1805 kilocalorie)(GOB 2009). Unemployment is the main cause of this widespread poverty. The active civilian labor force has been estimated at 49.5 million of which about 47.4 million are employed and 2.1 million are unemployed. The present rate of unemployment (excluding underemployment) is 4.2 percent. The growth rate of employment has shrunk by 50 percent while unemployment rose by 50 percent since 2003. Total paid employment has declined from 16 million in 1999-2000 to 15 million in 2002-03 and 15.2 million in 2005-06 (BBS 2008). The country experienced a steady rise in GDP growth during the last five years (2003-

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2007) when it grew at an average annual rate of more than 6 percent compared with 5 percent over the previous five years. Despite higher economic growth, employment grew at a relatively slow rate of 1.6 percent per annum since the 1990s (Rahman et al 2008). Agriculture is still the largest sector of employment which provides jobs to 22.8 million people (BBS 2008). Since the industrial sector has not flourished, unemployment problem has taken acute form. Unemployment is a curse because this problem gives rise to many social, economic and political problems. Unemployment problem also deteriorates law and order situation which affects the normal business environment of a country. Employment is the most reliable weapon to combat poverty. This is why the United Nations (UN) included another target in the Millennium Development Goals just seven years before the target year- achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people (ADB 2009).

Like other developing countries, Informal sector plays an important role in the economy of Bangladesh. Out of 47.4 million employed labor force, 41.54 million (87.71 percent) are employed in the informal sector and only 5.82 million (12.29 percent) are employed in the formal sector (ADB 2009). Employment generation in the formal sector is meager due to a number of factors. Investment generates employment opportunities. But industrial investment, both domestic and foreign, in Bangladesh is wretchedly stagnant. Another instrument to generate employment is foreign direct investment (FDI). But the FDI situation in Bangladesh has also continued to be discouraging. On the annual basis the highest level of actual FDI achieved is US \$ 845 million in 2005 after which it shows declining trend in 2006 (US\$ 793 million) and 2007 (US\$ 666 million)(GOB 2009). Besides, major portion of FDI has been invested in oil and gas explorations and power sector and little has gone into industrial production. The various reasons behind the declining FDI include: deteriorating law and order situations, political unrest, bureaucratic hassles and hindrances, underdeveloped infrastructure, underdeveloped capital market and widespread corruption (Barkat 2004).

There has been significant trade liberalization in Bangladesh during the 1990s and its impact on employment was not always positive. A joint study carried by CPD and the ILO found that employment in general suffered during the second phase of trade liberalization (ILO and CPD 2007). The housing and poultry sectors that emerged as major sources of employment in the urban areas are now facing serious setbacks. The

housing sector is facing a deep crisis due to high prices of construction materials. The poultry sector is facing ruin because of bird flu.

Since 87.71 percent of the employed labor force is engaged in informal sector and only 12.29 percent are engaged in formal sector the government should emphasize on the development of the informal sector to combat the unemployment problem. The informal sector is easily manageable, unsophisticated, less capital demanding and uses indigenous technology. Therefore, it is easier for the government to create employment opportunities in the informal sector spending less money and time.

2.0 Objectives of the Study

The study mainly focuses on how widespread unemployment in Bangladesh can be reduced by developing the informal sector. The specific objectives are:

- i) to review the unemployment scenario of Bangladesh
- ii) to examine the informal sector and its contribution in the economy of Bangladesh
- iii) to analyze the problems and constraints faced by informal sector
- iv) to suggest recommendations to develop informal sector with a view to generating more employment opportunities for the unemployed people.

3.0 Methodology

The paper is based on secondary data. The relevant data are derived from publications of Bangladesh government, ADB, ESCAP, and World Bank, seminar papers, reports, journal articles, books, and websites.

4.0 Structure of the paper

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section-5 describes nature and extent of unemployment in Bangladesh. Section-6 explains the concept and characteristics of informal sector. Section-7 describes informal activities in Bangladesh and its contribution in the economy. Section-8 identifies and analyses the problems facing the informal sector, section-9 suggests several steps that should be undertaken to develop the informal sector to generate more employment opportunities and Section-10 concludes the paper.

5.0 Nature and Extent of Unemployment in Bangladesh

A person is said to be "unemployed" if he or she is looking for work, is willing to work at the prevailing wage, but is unable to find a job. Bangladesh has been facing growing unemployment since its independence in 1971. Presently, the problem has taken dreadful form. According to the labor force survey (LFS) 2005-06, more than two million people, who constitute 4.3 percent of the labor force, were unemployed. The survey also reveals that 11.6 million people, or 24.5 percent of the employed labor force, were underemployed with limited working opportunities. The growth rate of employment has shrunk by 50 percent while unemployment rose by 50 percent since 2003. Total paid employment declined from 16 million in 1999-2000 to 15 million in 2002-03 and 15.2 million in 2005-06. The survey reveals that annual employment growth was 2.2 percent during 2003-2006, compared to 4.4 percent in 2000-2003 (BBS 2008). Absolute unemployment increased in all these years because of the government's inability to generate new jobs.

A good number of factors, including unbridled growth in population, sluggish industrial growth, defective land ownership and defective education system have contributed much to the ever rising unemployment crisis. The cumulative effects of all such factors have created a dreadful scenario of unemployment, as the formal employment sectors can employ only insignificant part of the new job-seekers every year. Creation of jobs in the formal economy, which is a key objective of development policy, is not encouraging. Employment in the manufacturing sector remains stagnant, while the agriculture sector that contributes nearly half of the total employment in the country shows a declining trend. Restoring confidence of the investors carries enormous significance in addressing the woes of unemployment.

Table-1: Unemployed population aged 15 years and over By sex and residence, 1999/2000-2005/2006 (in thousand)

Residence	Total	Male	Female
	No. of Unemployed Population	No. of Unemployed Population	No. of Unemployed Population
1999-2000			
Bangladesh	1749 (4.3)	1083 (3.4)	666 (7.8)
Urban	533 (5.8)	356 (5.0)	176 (8.3)
Rural	1216	726	489

	(3.9)	(2.9)	(7.6)
2002-2003			
Bangladesh	2002	1500	502
	(4.3)	(4.2)	(4.9)
Urban	562	396	166
	(5.0)	(4.6)	(6.2)
Rural	1440	1104	336
	(4.1)	(4.0)	(4.4)
2005-2006			
Bangladesh	2104	1250	854
	(4.2)	(3.4)	(7.0)
Urban	505	315	190
	(4.3)	(3.6)	(6.7)
Rural	1599	935	664
	(4.2)	(3.3)	(7.2)

Source: BBS, 2008.

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate the percentage to the total

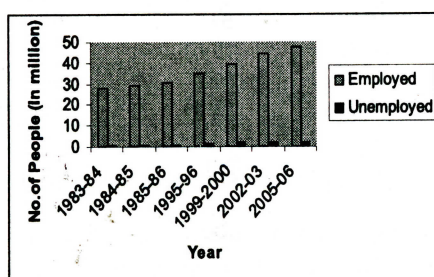
Table-1 shows the unemployed population of 15 years and over during 1999-2000 to 2005-06. The rate of unemployment stands at 4.3 percent which was also the same in 2002-2003 and 1999-2000. In the urban area, the unemployment rate was 4.3 percent in 2005-2006, whereas it was 5.0 percent in 2002-2003 and 5.8 percent in 1999-2000. On the other hand, the unemployment rate was 4.2 percent in the rural area in 2005-2006 which was 4.1 percent in 2002-2003 and 3.9 percent in 1999-2000. There exists sex differentials in the unemployment rate where the unemployment rate for male was 3.4 percent in 2005-2006 and it was 4.2 percent in 2002-2003 and 3.4 percent in 1999-2000. In the urban area, the unemployment rate for male was 5.0 percent in 1999-2000 and 4.6 percent in 2002-2003 which reduced to 3.6 percent in 2005-2006. In the rural area, the unemployment rate for male was 2.9 percent which increased to 4.0 percent in 2002-2003 and again reduced to 3.33 percent in 2005-2006. For the females, the unemployment rate for Bangladesh, urban and rural area was 7.8 percent, 8.3 percent and 7.6 percent in 1999-2000 which decreased to 4.9 percent, 6.2 percent, and 4.4 percent respectively in 2002-2003 but again increased to 7.0 percent, 6.7 percent and 7.2 percent respectively in 2005-2006.

Table-2: Employed and unemployed population (15+ years and above of Bangladesh over time, 1983-84 to 2005-06 (in million)

Employment status	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1995-96	1999-2000	2002-03	2005-06
Employed	27.9	29.0	30.5	34.8	39.0	44.3	47.4
Unemployed	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.3	1.7	2.0	2.1

Source: BBS, 2008.

Figure-1: Employed and unemployed population (15+ years and above) of Bangladesh over time, 1983-84 to 2005-06.



The rising trend of unemployment is also shown in Table-2 and figure-1 for the period 1983-84 to 2005-2006. We see that the employed population increased from 27.9 million in 1983-84 to 47.4 million in 2005-06. In the 1980s, the number of unemployed population was around 0.5 million which increased sharply to 1.3 million in 1995-96 and 2.1 million in 2005-06. This means that employment opportunities are not enough to absorb the continuously increasing population. The contribution of formal sector or organized sector in the total employment is very meager in comparison with that of informal sector. In 2005-06, the total employed labor force was 47.4 million out of which only 5.82 million (12.29 percent) were employed in the formal sector and 41.54 million (87.71 percent) were employed in the informal sector (ADB 2009).

5.1 Educated and Uneducated Unemployment

Unemployment rate by level of education has been presented in table-3. It is observed that unemployment rate increases with the increase of education level up to HSC or equivalent level and then it reduces for degree or equivalent and for master degree and equivalent levels. The unemployment rate for engineering and medical degree holders and those with technical/vocational degree were higher than for general degree /equivalent holders.

At the national level, for the total unemployment, the highest unemployment rate (9.98 percent) was observed for those with educational level HSC/equivalent* (Higher Secondary Certificate) followed by SSC/equivalent (Secondary School Certificate) (7.78 percent) and engineering/medical degree holder (7.17 percent).

There exists urban-rural variation in unemployment rate by level of education. In the urban area, the highest unemployment rate was found in case of those having HSC/equivalent educational level (8.39 percent) followed by engineering/medical degree holders (7.53 percent) and persons with educational level class IX-X (7.23 percent). In case of rural area, the highest unemployment rate was observed for those having technical/vocational education (12.27 percent) followed by those with HSC/equivalent educational level (11.33 percent) and those having masters/equivalent educational level (8.7 percent).

Table 3: Distribution of unemployed population aged 15 years and above by level of education and residence (in thousands).

Level of Education	Bangladesh	Rural	Urban
No education	559 (2.79)	482 (2.89)	77 (2.31)
Class I-V	375 (3.19)	303 (3.28)	72 (2.86)
Class VI-VIII	316 (5.04)	243 (5.04)	73 (5.05)
Class IX-X	251 (6.74)	188 (6.59)	62 (7.23)
SSC/equivalent	262 (7.78)	192 (8.56)	70 (6.21)
HSC/equivalent	186 (9.98)	114 (11.33)	72 (8.39)
Degree/equivalent	100 (6.83)	78 (7.4)	47 (5.57)
Masters/equivalent	41 (5.4)	17 (8.7)	24 (4.25)
Engineering/Medical	8 (7.17)	1 (5.1)	7 (7.53)
Technical/Vocational	4 (6.99)	3 (12.27)	1 (2.88)
Total	2104 (4.25)	1599 (4.24)	505 (4.31)

Source: BBS, 2008.

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate the percentage to the total.

5.2 Duration of Unemployment

Duration of unemployment has been presented in table-4. We see from the table that the highest 65.67 percent were unemployed for less than 3 months followed by 7-12 months (12.44 percent) and 13-24 months (10.6 percent) and 3-6 months (6.07 percent). There exist sex differentials in duration of unemployment. The duration of unemployment for < 3 months is lower for male (58.73 percent) than for female (75.81 percent). Among males, the duration of unemployment for 3-6 months, 13-24 months and 25 months and over were 7.23 percent, 15.78 percent, 13.36 percent and 4.9 percent respectively. For females such percentages for 3-6 months, 7-12 months, 13-24 months and 25 months and over were 4.38 percent, 7.56 percent, 6.57 percent and 5.67 percent respectively.

There exists rural-urban variation regarding the duration of unemployment. In the urban area, the percentages of duration of unemployment for < 3 months, 3-6 months, 7-12 months, 13-24 months and 25 months and over were respectively 54.53 percent, 8.79 cent, 16.64 percent, 15.43 percent and 4.62 percent. The corresponding percentages for the rural area were respectively 69.19 percent, 5.22 percent, 11.12 percent, 9.08 percent and 5.40 percent.

Table-4: Unemployment rates of population aged 15 years and over by duration of unemployment, sex and residence:

Duration of unemployment	Bangladesh			Urban			Rural		
	Both sex	Male	Female	Both sex	Male	Female	Both sex	Male	Female
Total Month	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
< 3 months	65.67	58.73	75.81	54.53	46.96	67.04	69.19	62.7	78.33
3-6 months	6.07	7.23	4.38	8.79	10.13	6.58	5.22	6.25	3.75
7-12 months	12.44	15.78	7.56	16.64	21.33	8.87	11.12	13.91	7.19
13-24 months	10.6	13.36	6.57	15.43	17.04	12.75	9.08	12.12	4.8
24 months and over	5.21	4.9	5.67	4.62	4.54	4.77	5.4	5.02	5.93

Source: BBS, 2008.

5.3 Youth Unemployment

In Bangladesh persons of age 15-29 years are called youth. The total number of youth labor force is 17.75 million i.e 35.85 percent of total labor force. The youths are the main driving force of an economy. The progress of a country depends, to a great extent, on the participation of

the youths in economic activities. Let us now see the pattern of youth unemployment in Bangladesh which has been presented in Table-5.

Table-5: Employed and unemployed youths aged 15-29 years by sex and residence (in thousand)

Economic Category	Bangladesh			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total youth Labor force	17750	13167	4583	4163	2965	1198	13587	10202	3385
Employed	16311 (91.9)	12219 (92.8)	4092 (89.28)	3798 (91.23)	2718 (91.68)	1080 (90.11)	12514 (92.10)	9501 (93.13)	3012 (88.99)
Unemployed	1439 (8.1)	947 (7.2)	491 (10.72)	365 (8.77)	247 (8.32)	118 (9.89)	1074 (7.9)	701 (6.87)	373 (11.01)

Source: BBS, 2008.

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate the percentage to the total.

It is observed from table-6 that out of total youth labor force 91.9 percent were employed and 8.1 percent were unemployed. The percentage of unemployed youths was higher in the urban area (8.77 percent) than in the rural area (7.9 percent). There exists sex variation in youth unemployment. Unemployment, in general, was more pronounced among the females (10.72 percent) than males (7.2 percent). In the urban area, youth unemployment rate among the females was higher (9.89 percent) than among the males (8.32 percent). This is also true for the rural area. Unemployment rate among the females (11.01 percent) was almost double the rate among the males (6.87 percent)

6.0. Informal Sector

The term 'informal sector' was first used by Keith.Hart in 1971 while studying economic activities in urban Ghana (Hart, 1973). ILO (1972) defines the informal sector as the non-structured sector that has emerged in the urban centres as a result of the incapacity of the modern sector to absorb new entrants. The informal sector can be seen on streets, sidewalks and back alleys of cities and includes petty traders, street vendors, coolies and porters, small-scale artisans, barbers and shoeshine boys. The main characteristics of the informal sector are as follows (ADB 2009, Becker 2004):

- These enterprises are unregistered.
- Small scale operation, low level of productivity.
- Generation of income is low (mainly mixed income, income as wages and salary is very insignificant)
- Little or no access to institutional credit and organized market.
- Little or no division between capital and labor as factors of production
- Production process generally does not use modern technology.
- Workers are generally unskilled.
- A major share of the informal sector is composed of self-employed individuals
- Labor relation mainly based on causal employment, kinship, personal/ social relation but generally not on contract basis.
- Generally not recognized or regulated by the government rules.
- Activities are undertaken generally for self-employment or to earn additional income.

Informal employment can be classified into two: informal self employment and informal wage employment. Under informal self employment are employers in informal enterprises; own-account workers in informal enterprises; unpaid family workers, and members of informal producers' cooperatives (Chen 2006). Informal wage employment includes persons employed either in formal or informal enterprises without formal contracts, worker benefits or social protection. The dichotomy discussed above suggests that informal employment cuts across all employment status categories: employers, employees, own-account workers, unpaid family workers, and members of producers' cooperatives (Husmanns 2004).

7.0 Contribution of Informal Sector in the Economy of Bangladesh

7.1 Informal Sector activities in Bangladesh: Bangladesh is a developing country. Like all other developing countries informal sector plays an important role in the economy of Bangladesh. Informal sector covers a wide range of economic activities producing goods and services which put significant contribution to GDP and employment generation. Yet substantial attempt has not been taken to quantify the magnitude and incidence of informal activities. Even informal sector activities in

Bangladesh are not adequately defined but these activities are taking place using mostly indigenous raw materials, small capital with small setup. Labor relations are based mostly on causal employment or kinship rather than contractual arrangement with formal guarantees. Sometimes it is difficult to identify the informal sector activities from the formal ones particularly when these enterprises are operated in the location other than household premises. However, following major categories of informal activities are taking place in Bangladesh (ADB 2008):

- Production of crops and horticulture.
- Own -account construction,
- Significant part of animal farming
- Significant part of the forestry
- Significant part of the fishing.
- Retail trade
- Unorganized transport (rickshaw, bull cart, country boat)
- Rental services
- Some part of education and health services (Homeopathic, ayurvedic treatment, coaching of student by individual person)
- Very small hotel and restaurant services (snakes and tea-stall).

7.2 Contribution to Employment: Out of 47.36 million employed people in Bangladesh, 41.54 million are informal workers (87.71 percent), while only 5.82 million (12.29 percent) are engaged in formal employment (ADB 2009). Table-6 shows that workers with informal employment are mostly in the agriculture, hunting and forestry (52%); wholesale and retail trade (15%); manufacturing (9%); and transport, storage, and communications (9%) sectors. On the other hand, workers with formal employment are mostly in the manufacturing (27%), education (18%), wholesale and retail trade (13%), and public administration and defense (13%) sectors. The Government of Bangladesh employs the largest number of formal workers, a combined 30%, in the education, public administration and defense sectors. Meanwhile, workers with formal employment are least found in the sectors on mining and quarrying; private households; fishing; and electricity, gas, and water (EGW).

Table- 6: Distribution of Informal and Formal Workers by Industry

Industry	Type of Workers	
	Formal (%)	Informal (%)
Agriculture, Hunting, and Forestry	1.48	51.97
Fishing	0.71	2.54
Mining and Quarrying	0.09	0.11
Manufacturing	26.72	8.83
Electricity, Gas, and Water Supply	0.78	0.07
Construction	1.39	3.48
Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repairs, etc	13.24	15.26
Hotels and Restaurants	1.72	1.47
Transport, Storage, and Communications	7.44	8.53
Financial Intermediation	7.08	0.23
Real Estate, Renting, and Business Activities	1.15	0.41
Public Administration	12.29	0.40
Defense & Social Security		
Education	17.68	0.67
Health and Social Work	3.76	0.34
Other Community, Social and Personal Services	4.27	3.85
Private Households with Employed Persons	0.12	1.83
Others	0.08	0.00
Total	100.00	100.00

Source: ADB, 2009

7.3 Contribution to GDP: It has already been mentioned that adequate statistical data is not available in Bangladesh to appropriately measure the economic size of the informal sector in terms of value added as well as in terms of employment. Bangladesh Country Paper on Informal Sector and its Measurement presented during the inception workshop of RETA 6430: Measuring the Informal Sector hosted by ADB estimated that the wholesale and retail trade, which is largely an informal sector, contributes 12.4% to GDP. This is followed closely by the agriculture, hunting, and forestry sector, which contributes 11.8% to GDP. Together, these two sectors account for 67% of informal sector workers. On the formal sector side, they estimated the manufacturing sector with the biggest share to GDP at 12.5%, followed by education and public administration and

defense sectors with a combined share in GDP of 4.8%. These three sectors account for 58% of the workers in the formal sector. In total the contribution of the informal sector to GDB is roughly 64 percent which outweighs the contribution of the formal sector (roughly 36 percent). Estimates by industry are presented in Table -7.

Table- 7: A rough estimate of the size of informal sector as a percent of GDP

ISIC Sectors	Total share to GDP (%)	Share to GDP (%)	
		Formal	Informal
1 Agriculture			
a. Crop and horticulture	12%	0.18	11.82
b. Animal farming	2.88	0.58	2.30
c. Forest and related services	1.76	0.20	1.60
2. Fishing	4.73	0.70	4.03
Mining and quarrying	1.18	0.75	0.43
4. Manufacturing			
a. Large scale	12.47	12.47	0
b. Small scale	5.08	0.10	4.98
5. Electricity, gas and water supply			
a. Electricity	1.30	1.30	0
b. Gas	0.19	0.19	0
c. Water supply	0.09	0.09	0
6. Construction	9.15	2.75	6.41
7. Wholesale and retail trade.	14.24	1.42	12.42
8. Hotel and restaurants	0.69	0.48	0.21
9. Transport , storage and communication			
a. Land transport	6.50	4.25	2.25
b. Water transport	0.85	0.65	0.20
c. Air transport	0.11	0.11	0
d. Post and telecommunication	2.40	2.40	0
Financial intermediation			
a. Financial intermediation	1.31	1.31	0
b. Insurance	0.37	0.37	0
Real estate, renting and business Activities	7.64	0.46	7.18
Public Administration and defense	2.75	2.75	0
Education	2.54	2.06	0.48
Health and social works	2.29	1.95	0.34
Y Community, social and personal services	7.09	0.71	6.38
Total	100	36.91	63.59

Source: ADB, 2009.

We see that the contribution of the informal sector in the economy in terms of both output and employment is extremely large. Therefore, neglecting this sector is tantamount to neglecting the national economy. Given proper support and regulatory framework, the informal sectors could play more significant role in combating vast unemployment in Bangladesh. However, the informal sectors work under many constraints which limit its growth and productivity.

8.0 Problems facing the Informal Sector

The problems facing the informal sector in Bangladesh are numerous and diverse. Following is an attempt to explore some of the crucial ones.

Lack of Capital

Lack of capital is one of the major constraints faced by participants in the informal sector which gives rise to many other problems. Due to lack of working capital informal sector workers are forced to use hand-driven tools and outdated machinery, which keeps their productivity low. They cannot purchase raw materials in bulk at lower prices and take their goods to market, where they can sell their product at better prices. Since the productivity of informal workers is low, they can not save much of their income to reinvest in their business.

The informal sector workers suffer from lack of working capital because they have no access (or limited access) to institutional credit. A number of factors bar them from access to institutional credit including lack of awareness about formal credit, inability to fulfill the stringent collateral requirements and cumbersome and lengthy procedures that banks insist upon before granting credit. Moreover, commercial banks discourage small loans due to their high transaction costs (ESCAP 2006). Therefore, entrepreneurs in the informal sector are forced to borrow from informal money lenders at exorbitant rate of interest which lowers their income.

Lack of Education and skills

Education and skills training are important prerequisites for enhancing the productivity of workers of an enterprise. But the informal workers generally lack education and skills. Most of them grow in abject poverty and find it difficult to receive a formal education. They migrate from rural to urban area for livelihood and ultimately settle in informal sector.

They usually acquire skills through on-the-job training or a traditional apprenticeship system. The problem with these methods is that trainers

pass on obsolete skills from generation to generation (ESCAP 2006). Since informal workers are illiterate, they are not aware of the laws and regulations in the informal sector which makes them susceptible to harassment.

Lack of infrastructural facilities

Participants of informal workers suffer from lack of infrastructural facilities such as roads, electricity, storage facilities, water supply and public transport which dampen the productivity of this sector. They often use their houses as their work premises. Otherwise, their businesses may be located in public places, such as on streets or sidewalks, or in unregistered shops/workshops (ESCAP 2006).

Poor access to land and infrastructure limits the growth and productivity of informal sector. As the informal enterprises often lack legal property rights, they suffer from fear of eviction and feel discouraged to expand their business through investment in machinery and equipment. Lack of or poor access to electricity and market also bars the expansion of informal sector. As a result, informal enterprises are deprived of higher productivity and income.

Excessive Government Regulations

Every enterprise either formal or informal is to operate under certain regulations. Regulations essentially define the framework within which the enterprises conduct their business. There are land related regulations (land transactions, rental, tenure, etc), labor related regulations (labour mobility, working condition and environment, trade unions, closure of business and dismissal of workers, legal minimum wage and contributions to social security etc), and regulations regarding establishment and operation of business such as location, registration, licensing, bookkeeping, hours of operation, holidays, and tax obligation. In addition to these there may be regulations which intervene in the purchase of inputs, use of power, transport and marketing of outputs. Branch-specific regulations may exist too; in transport, operation of rickshaws and traffic regulations; in construction, building codes for example; in trade and restaurants, health and environmental regulations, etc. According to one study in India the micro enterprises even in small towns may be subjected to control by up to 35 different authorities /agencies from various parts of the government (IAMR 1992).

A vast majority of the units in this sector operates under semi-legal or illegal conditions in the sense that they do not comply with one or more existing regulations. Non compliance with the regulations may result in payment of a penalty in the form of a lump sum fee to the authorities or closure of business or confiscation of business assets in extreme cases. In many cases, government officials utilize these regulations to harass business owners (ESCAP 2006). The enterprises of formal sector can overcome this harassment using money and power. Since most of the informal workers are poor and illiterate and are not aware of the laws and regulations, they are susceptible to harassment.

Lack of Social Protection: The informal sector workers enjoy little social protection against illness, disability, unemployment, old age or the death of a main income earner. In fact, even the formal sector in most developing countries is unable to provide comprehensive social protection for its workers, as usually enjoyed in developed countries (ESCAP 2006). Social insurance schemes, such as health insurance, disability allowances or retirement benefits, are financed through a mix of taxation and contributions from employers and the formal workers themselves (Martha 2002). The implementation of social insurance schemes for the informal sector is very difficult because a large number of workers are self employed and their income is very low. Lack of social security leaves the informal workers susceptible to the unexpected incidents which hampers the growth of their business.

Lack of Organization: Participants of informal sector are not organized because this sector is a very varied and heterogeneous sector. Lack of organization leaves them vulnerable to excessive government regulation and harassment. They can not protest the harassment inflicted upon them by government officials or other quarters and put collective pressure on the government to realize their logical interests. They are also deprived of the benefits regarding credit facilities, training and marketing facilities that they could arrange under an organized body.

9.0 Reducing Unemployment through the Informal Sector

In Bangladesh, the contribution of informal sector to employment and output is very large. The informal sector is estimated to contribute about 87.71 % of total jobs and about 64% of total gross domestic products (GDP) (ADB 2009). However, income levels in the informal sector are generally low and the incidence of poverty high, but without this sector the poor would be driven into destitution. Poor people have to be engaged

in some work, either decent or indecent, to earn their living. Since employment opportunities in the formal sector are meager in Bangladesh, a large number of workers are forced to join the informal sector. The role of the informal sector in providing employment and income opportunities is very important in reducing the extent of poverty. Apart from full-time jobs, the informal sector provides part-time job opportunities for many, especially women, who can work from home and augment their family income. Under these circumstances, extent of unemployment in Bangladesh can be reduced by developing the informal sector. In this context, the following steps should be undertaken:

Ensuring access to institutional credit: The government should undertake steps to ensure the access of informal enterprises to institutional credit. Following the steps taken by Grameen Bank, the government can make arrangements for providing collateral free loan to the owners of informal enterprises through the nationalized commercial banks. It is not possible to cover all the informal enterprises under this facility since there are a large number of informal enterprises. The government can establish a selection criterion on the basis of amount of fixed investment, number of workers, location, prospect of products etc for administering such loan. In Bangladesh, corruption and bureaucratic hassles are the main hindrances to the success of all the government activities. In this case, any kind of corruption that may arise from any quarter must be prevented strictly. In addition, the processing of loan applications must be completed promptly without any bureaucratic hassles. Otherwise, this noble initiative of the government will end in smoke.

Providing education and skill: Education and training enhances the productivity of the workers of both formal and informal sector. Since workers of informal sector lack education and skill, providing only credit will not bring significant result for the development of informal enterprises. Training is necessary to ensure the productive use of resources. The government should arrange training program for the informal sector workers through the existing vocational institutions or establishing new ones. The content of such training should be consistent with the needs of the informal workers. In addition, the government should undertake special literacy program for the informal sector workers in order to make training more effective. Since it is a big arrangement, the government can involve BRAC (Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee) and Grameen Bank in this noble initiative. BRAC and

Grameen Bank have network throughout the country and they will be able to discharge such responsibility very effectively.

Providing infrastructural facilities: To develop the informal sector, they must be provided land, electricity, water supply and communication. The government can arrange and develop, to the extent possible, several places where the informal enterprises will produce and sell their products. Government will provide electricity, water supply and communication facilities to these places. Such initiative is not impossible and the government can involve the non-governmental and voluntary organizations in this venture. In this case, the government can follow the strategy of "Clustering" which refers to bringing together small firms in the same or related industries in a specific physical location and providing them with the necessary infrastructure and services (ILO 2005). Thailand's famous slogan 'One Tambon One Product' (OTOP) initiated in 2001 is an example of successful clustering. The OTOP encourages village communities to produce and market unique products and handicrafts from locally available materials, utilizing local wisdom and skills handed down from generation to generation. The project provides rural communities with the opportunity to develop distinctive products for both domestic and international markets with technical and managerial assistance from the Government (ESCAP 2006).

Since informal sector is characterized with heterogeneity, all the informal enterprises can not be brought under this arrangement. Therefore, the government should provide, in suitable cases, the property rights to the informal enterprises. Such arrangement will encourage the informal entrepreneurs to improve their business without fear of eviction.

Organizing informal sector producers and workers: The informal business owners should be organized under cooperatives in order to protect them from harassment and improve their productivity. The main obstacle to the formation of association is the heterogeneity of the informal sector. However, the informal enterprises producing similar goods and facing similar problems can form associations or self-help group to protect and promote their interest.

Such organizations can facilitate credit for informal enterprises, arrange training for informal sector workers, and assist in introducing modern technologies and in dealing with harassment from regulatory authorities. They can also exert collective pressure on the Government to remove unnecessary regulations and to design favorable policies for the benefit of

this sector. Governments should encourage and facilitate the formation of such groups and associations by directing assistance, such as credit and training, through them. NGOs also can contribute to the formation and efficient running of such groups.

Enhancing awareness of the informal sector participants: Workers of informal sector are generally illiterate or little educated. They are not aware of the laws and regulations which leave them susceptible to the harassment. Therefore, government should publicize the information about regulations and laws through electronic media and local government authorities. At the same time, government officials should be directed to co-operate the participants of informal sector in all possible ways.

Extending social protection: Extending social protection to the participants of informal workers is difficult because most of them are self-employed and their income is very low. However, some developing countries have set up examples to provide social protection to designated categories of informal workers. The Philippines has a law concerning domestic help which specifies the minimum wage level and requires employers to provide employees with proper working conditions (Alonzo 2006). In India, the State of Kerala introduced an agricultural workers' pension scheme in 1980. By the early 1990s, this scheme was providing a modest pension for a large number of agricultural workers who were above 60 years of age and had incomes below the stipulated poverty line (Ishengoma and Kappel 2006).

The integrated social security scheme of the Self-Employed Women's Association, which started in 1991, is the largest comprehensive contributory scheme for informal workers in India. The scheme includes health insurance, life insurance and asset insurance (ESCAP 2006). Following these steps, Bangladesh can provide some social protection to the informal workers considering the contribution of this sector in the national economy.

10.0 Conclusion

The widespread unemployment in Bangladesh can not be reduced by creation of jobs in the formal sector only. The share of formal sector employment to total employment is only 12.29 percent. The creation of jobs in the formal sector is difficult for Bangladesh because the process of industrialization is very slow. Investment is the key to

industrialization. But in Bangladesh, both domestic and foreign Investment is very low. The foreign direct investment is also showing decreasing trend. Another thing to be considered is that creation of jobs in the formal sector will not absorb all the unemployed people because formal sector jobs are white-collar jobs and those are mainly selected for educated people. The illiterate, poor, unskilled, disabled and old-aged people have no option but to find a work for their livelihood in the informal sector. The importance of the informal economy is evident from the fact that its contribution to total employment is nearly 88 percent and to GDP is 64 percent. This means, the informal sector is providing livelihood to the majority of the people. However, the informal sector is a neglected sector of the country. Therefore, time has come to realize the importance of the informal or unorganized sector and take necessary steps to develop this sector. The sector has been facing diverse and numerous problems for long. The major problems include lack of access to institutional credit, lack of infrastructural facilities, lack of education and skill, excessive government regulation, lack of awareness about government regulation, lack of organization and lack of social protection. The government should remove these obstacles in line with the steps suggested above to create work opportunities for millions of poor, illiterate and unskilled people in this sector. Otherwise, it would be difficult for the government to rein in the growing unemployment in the country.

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An Examination of Innovations in Union Parishads: A Study of Local Government Support Project

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Abstract: *The local government in Bangladesh as an institution though old is not strong enough specially in the rural areas. Administrative controls, lack of participation of the people in the decision making process, lack of human resources, training and experience, absence of transparency & accountability mechanisms, undue interference of local elites, mastans and politicians are few of the problems which are responsible for weak and ineffective local government institutions. From the year 2006, the Ministry of Local Government of Bangladesh took an initiative for strengthening local government at the union level i.e. Union Parishads (UPs) by introducing Local Government Support Project (LGSP). The broad objective of the LGSP¹ is strengthening Union Parishad through different mechanism like transferring block grants directly to the UPs to overcome process barriers, facilitating peoples' involvement in the development planning process as well as project implementation process through mechanisms like open budget meeting, revealing of progress reports to the people about ongoing projects, auditing of UPs activities, frequent inspection of project area by district facilitator, DDLG and UNO etc. As achieving objective of LGSP program is very important for strengthening Union Parishads, this study has tried to evaluate how far the LGSP program has achieved its immediate objectives and how far it has succeeded in adding values to its beneficiaries.*

From the study it appears that LGSP has succeeded moderately in achieving its objectives. However, the fact remains that about 50 percent of the respondents have no knowledge about LGSP and raises a validity question about its operational process and achievement even after three years of operations. From the overall data analysis and observations it can be concluded that the LGSP has initiated a positive start towards strengthening Union Parishad in terms of accountability, transparency and popular participation and need further consolidation and improvement.

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¹ LGSP was initiated by the Government of Bangladesh in the year 2006 for strengthening UPs, drawing on the lessons learned from the Sirajgonj local governance development fund project. Local government division of MLGRD&C is the executing agency of this project is being supported by the World Bank (through an IDA credit) and UNDP/UNCDF, DANIDA and EC (through grant). The proposed duration of this project was July 2006 to 30 June 2011.

Introduction:

The local government is an organized social entity with a sense of oneness. By definition, local government means an intra-sovereign governmental unit within the sovereign state dealing mainly with local affairs, administered by local authorities and subordinate to the state government (Jahan, 1997). Strong local government institutions are important for enhancing good governance. Governance has been defined as the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development (World Bank 1994). Local government is acknowledged as a highly viable mechanism through which democratic processes and practices can be established and participatory development ensured (Khan, 2000).

About 75% of the country's population lives in the rural areas and the service delivery to the rural community is quite inadequate & inefficient. After being elected, the representatives of UPs felt (mostly) accountable to the Upazila or district bureaucratic bosses rather to the community while they never practice any transparent system like open budget meetings, information sharing with community, and public hearing for UPs income expenditure or even rarely consult with community regarding planning, or implementation of development projects. Under such a circumstances ministry of local government took initiative for strengthening UPs by introducing Local Government Support Project (LGSP). The main purpose of this program was to ascertain more participation of local people in the development activities, increasing efficiency of union parishad, addressing poverty by institutionalizing and capacity building for fiscal transfers, enhancing local revenue mobilization and improving accountability and monitoring.

Problem Statement:

An overview of the growth and evolution of local government units in Bangladesh establishes the fact that these have all along been under the strict administrative control of the public bureaucracy and the close political control of the national government/ party in power. They never enjoyed the freedom to choose development projects and work without the direction and control of the bureaucracy. As a result, the local bodies could neither become politically/financially viable nor could they gain any credibility in the eyes of the electorate. Consequently, local government units have always been institutionally and financially weak,

poorly managed and lacked social and political credibility (Aminuzzaman 2001).

Under such a condition Ministry of local government with the help of World Bank and UNDP/UNCDF/DANIDA/EC took the LGSP program to overcome the existing problems and barrier of UPs. The most important constraints of UPs are lack of transparency, accountability, low capacity, bureaucratic control, political interference, limited authority, weak financial resources etc (Aminuzzaman 2005). The proposed project implementation period is July 2006 to 30 June 2011. The broad objective of the project is to strengthen Union Parishad through different mechanism. The most important mechanism of this project is transferring grants directly to the UPs to overcome process barrier. The other mechanisms are peoples' involvement in the development planning process as well as project implementation process, open budget meeting, revealing of progress report to the people about the ongoing projects, auditing of UPs activities, frequent inspection of project areas by district facilitator, DDLG and UNO, training of elected representatives of UPs, production of planning and budgeting report to the people through notice board of UPs.

In the meantime, LGSP program has elapsed three financial years. Achieving objective of LGSP program is very important for strengthening Union Parishads. The present study has tried to evaluate how far the program has achieved its objectives and how far the program has succeeded in adding values to its beneficiaries.

Research Question:

- To what extent has LGSP been effective in fulfilling the objectives manifested in its components?
- Has LGSP succeeded in adding values/benefits being perceived by the intended beneficiaries?

Rationale and scope of the study:

Drawing lessons from the pilot projects², the Government of Bangladesh plans to move forward in replicating and institutionalizing these lessons

² Such as the Sirajgonj Local Government Support Project (UNCDF/UNDP), the Tangail Participatory Rural Development Project (JICA) and the Social Investment Project and Municipal Services Project (WB) for testing some of the initiatives on fiscal devolution and local government reforms.

throughout the country with the help of development partners to support a strategy for strengthening the local governance through increasing the size of block grant to UPs, this initiative is known as LGSP. The government of Bangladesh is implementing this project through local government division and its duration is July 2006 to 30 June 2011. By this time, the project has passed three years of its five year plan. So now it is very relevant and also important to examine the project performance/activities for evaluating how far it has achieved its objective i.e. to make a qualitative/quantitative analysis whether the project is running on the right track or not. Through the field level survey, the present study has tried also to find out how far LGSP has succeeded in adding values to the beneficiaries for establishing a sound monitoring, involvement of community in ensuring participation and accountability to strengthen local governance and fiscal devolution as well as creating capacity both at the management and community level to implement and sustain the system.

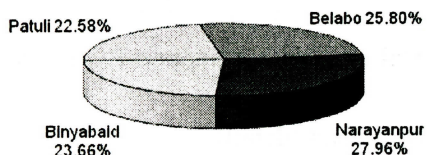
Methodology:

The present study has tried to achieve its objective reviewing different existing literature and information related to LGSP and through field level survey. Both primary and secondary data have been collected, processed, categorized and analyzed keeping in mind the objectives of the study. In order to collect the primary data five sets of structured questionnaires have been used for the present study. The collected data has been processed and analyzed with the use of MS Excel and other available methods of data analysis. In some cases, flow charts and tabular presentation have also been used to present the findings of the data in a graphic manner.

Population and sampling:

In the present study, survey was concentrated at Belabo, Narayanpur, Binyabaid, and Patuli union of Belabo upazila, Narsingdi district. The main respondents of the survey were the community people. Among the collected sample in the study area, 25.80% was collected from Belabo union, 27.96% from Narayanpur union, 23.66% from Binyabaid union and 22.58% from Patuli union (Figure 1).

Fig-2: General respondents from different unions
(n=93)



Source: Survey data

Study design

Research method is the functional action strategy carried out by the researcher in the light of the theoretical framework and guiding research questions and or the proposed hypothesis (Aminuzzaman 1991:32). In the present study to get the answer of the research questions both open-ended and closed questionnaire have been used for qualitative and quantitative data. Within the closed questionnaire contingency questions were also included. Besides this, observation and interviews method and case study method were also used to collect the primary data.

Primary data source

In this study both primary and secondary sources were utilized. The primary data was collected with the help of five sets of questionnaire for different groups of respondent who are either directly or indirectly related with the LGSP program. Though there were set questionnaire for collecting data from the respondents, there were also informal interviews with the district facilitator, trainers related with the LGSP program (e.g Cooperative officer), secretary of the union parishads, school teachers etc.

Secondary data source

Theoretical framework of the present study has made by consulting the published and unpublished documents that are related to the LGSP program. Union parishad operational manual 2007 and 2009 (revised), LGSP development project proposal (DPP)-2006 and 2009 (Revised but yet to approved), different register maintaining LGSP activities in the union parishad were consulted to understand the flow of block grant and its implementation process. A number of articles published in the international journal were also studied and analyzed to understand the concept of peoples' participation, ensuring accountability, capacity building of Union Parishad etc.

Overview of Local Governance Support Project:

The Local Governance Support Project is implemented with a view to strengthen the role of UPs throughout the country by the government of Bangladesh with the help of development partners.

The revised cost of the Local Governance Support Project is shown in the table-1 below:

Table1: Revised cost of the project (detail)

(In Lakh Taka)

Financial Year	Project Version	Estimated cost				Total
		GOB (FE)	Project Aid (PA)		DPA	
			RPA			
			Through GOB	Special Account		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Year-1 (2006-07)	1st Revised	-	-	14.61		14.61
	Original	200.00	-	2717.60	1346.61	4264.21
Year-2 (2007-08)	1st Revised	4708.49		4892.34	636.46	10237.29
	Original	3595.00	-	6282.21	2463.30	12340.51
Year-3 (2008-09)	1st Revised	10700.00		13500.00	2600.00	26800.00
	Original	8142.00	-	11817.10	2307.42	22266.52
Year-4 (2009-10)	1st Revised	16000.00		22300.00	3700.00	42000.00
	Original	16767.00	-	21776.89	2337.46	40881.35
Year-5 (2010-11)	1st Revised	22687.5	-	36228.05	5594.90	64510.45
	Original	25392.00	-	34341.18	2661.14	62394.32
Total	1st Revised	54096.00		76935.00	12531.36	143562.36
	Original	54096.00	-	769335.00	11115.94	142146.91

Source: Development Project Plan 2009 Prepared by Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Co-operatives.

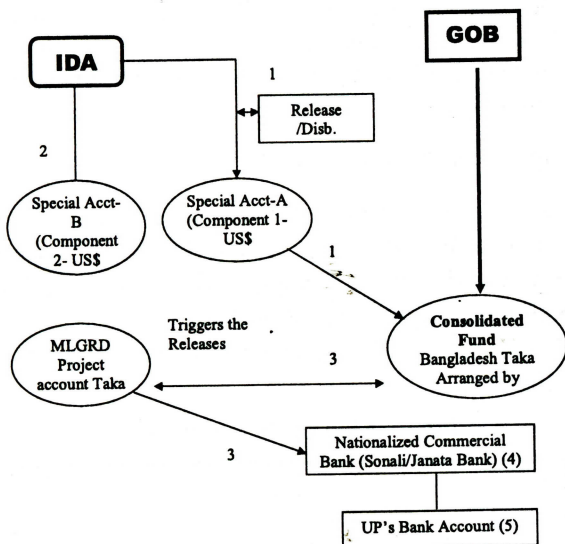
The Local Governance Support Project (LGSP) has five major components to deliver the outputs set out in the log frame of development project proposal (DPP). These components are being supported through the World Bank, IDA loan and UNDP grant. These are described below:

Component-1: Fiscal Transfer

This component lies at the centre of the project. The objective of this component is to support two forms of fiscal transfers: a largely unconditional block grant and a performance grant. These grants are the foundations upon which other components of the program are built.

Fund flow mechanism

The fund flow mechanism of LGSP program from government to the UPs is shown in the flow chart given below:



Component-2: Institutionalizing Accountability

The program seeks to institutionalize accountability into existing system based on a set of incentives associated with the expanded block grant and complemented by mandatory disclosure by UPs to both communities and to higher tiers of Government. Regular open meetings, public disclosure and regular reporting are the methods by which the participatory process will be ensured for releasing the expanded block grant.

Component-3: LGSP -Supporting Core Local Government Capacity Development

This component will provide information and support to the various actors involved in block grant implementation in particular, and local public Expenditure Management (PEM) in general and will assist GoB in developing a capacity building framework.

Component-4: Performance Review and Policy Development

The goal of this component is to improve GOB's ability to make use of data in its policy analysis and formulation.

Component-5: Learning And Innovation Component (LIC)

This learning and Innovation Component (LIC) of LGSP will be supported with grant funding by UNDP/UNCDF/DANIDA/EC. LIC will operate at two levels:

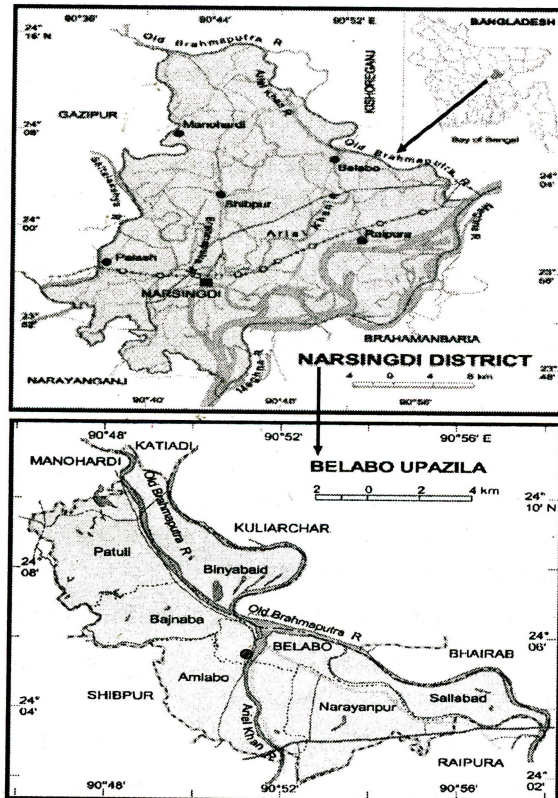
- (i) Within 6 LIC districts it will supplement support to UPs from other LGSP components by building upon the lessons learned from the earlier Pilot projects.

- (ii) At the national level it will support LGD's capacity to detail policy lessons from LIC districts to promote overall policy development on local government to feed this learning into other LGSP components and to ensure overall coordination.

General description of the study area

Narsingdi is a district in central Bangladesh. It is part of the Dhaka division with an area of 1140.76 sq km. The district consists of 6 Upozilas and 69 Union parishad (Source: Bangla Pedia). The upozilas are Belabo, Monohordi, Shibpur, Raipura, palash and Narsingdi sadar. Four union of Belabo upazila was selected for this research work. Map of the study area has shown in figure 2.

Fig-1: Map of the study area



Belabo Upazila: Belabo Upazila with an area of 117.60 sq km consists of seven union parishads, 52 mouzas and 97 villages. Population 145708; male 51%, female 49%, average literacy 25.9%; male 25.9% and female 20.6%.

Initiation of LGSP at Narsingdi District:

LGSP program has covered 52 unions of all 6 upazila of Narsingdi district. Six unions of Belabo upazila has been covered by LGSP program. Among them, Belabo and Narayanpur union have passed three financial year of LGSP, the other two unions Binyabaid and Patuli have passed two financial years of LGSP program (table-2). So it was considered by the researcher that studied area has matured enough for evaluating the LGSP.

Table 2: Year wise coverage of LGSP program in the study area.

Union coverage of Belabo Upazila			
Union name of <i>Belabo Upazila</i>	Year of inclusion		
Belabo	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010
Naraynpur	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010
Binyabaid		2008-2009	2009-2010
Patuli		2008-2009	2009-2010
Beznabo			2009-2010
Sallabad			2009-2010
Amlabo	No coverage till now		

Implemented project in the study area under LGSP:

The development projects implemented in this locality under LGSP includes—construction of box-culvert, class room construction, irrigation drainage, road protection wall, road reconstruction, sanitary latrine distribution, tube well installation, tree plant distribution, elevating of low lying area in the school yard, and book distribution among the poor meritorious students in the high school.

Assessment and LGSP Interventions:

LGSP has covered all six Upazilas of Narsingdi District and it has been implemented at six unions of Belabo Upazila in Narsingdi District. Belabo and Narayanpur Union was included under LGSP from 2007-2008, Binyabaid and Patuli Union was included from 2008-2009. Other two union i.e Beznabo and Belabo Unions had been selected for inclusion in the LGSP from 2009-2010. The first four unions of Belabo upazila were made an in-depth study by the researcher.

Block Grant

Block Grant transfer or fiscal transfer is the main driving force to achieve objectives of LGSP. From analysis it is seen that in Belabo Union 58.33%, in Narayanpur Union 50%, Binyabaid Union 45.45% and in Patuli Union 42.85% respondents are informed about LGSP and the rest of the percentage of the respective union do not know about LGSP (table 4).

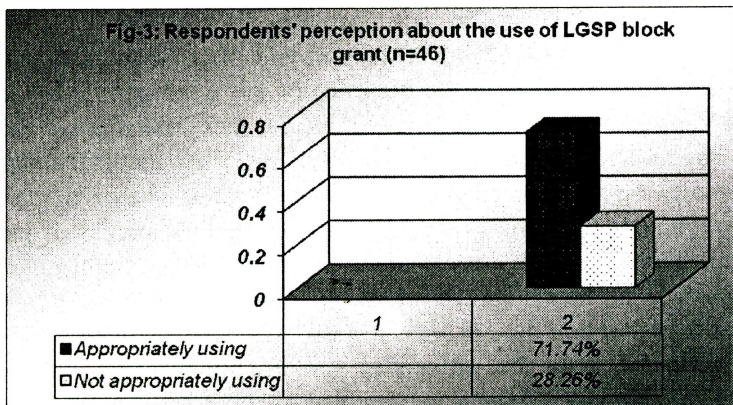
In all four unions, i.e. out of 93 respondents (general people) about 49.46% know about LGSP and 50.54% respondents do not know about LGSP. Among the male respondents 68.75 % knows about LGSP and among the female respondents only 6.89% know about LGSP (table 4).

Among the general respondents (46) who were informed about LGSP, of them 58.70% knew how much money came under LGSP in the UP in the last year and the rest of the percentage did not know about the block grant amount (table 4).

Table 4: Awareness analysis of the respondents (general people) about LGSP in the study area.

Awareness about LGSP analysis	Result							
	Belabo Union		Narayanpur Union		Binyabaid Union		Patuli Union	
	Know	Don't know	Know	Don't know	Know	Don't know	Know	Don't know
Union wise response of the respondents (general people) about LGSP, n=93	58.3%	41.7%	50%	50%	45.5%	54.5%	42.9%	57.1%
Union wise response of the respondents (general people) about LGSP in all four unions, n=93	Know				Don't know			
	49.46%				50.54%			
LGSP awareness among male and female respondents in all four unions, Male (n)=64 and Female (n) = 29	Male				Female			
	Know		Don't know		Know		Don't know	
	68.75%		31.25%		6.89%		93.11%	
Respondents (who knows about LGSP) response about block grant amount, n=46	Know				Don't know			
	58.70%				41.30%			

Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data

Out of the 46 respondents who knows about LGSP, 71.74% thinks that the budget allocated under LGSP is appropriately using for the local development and the rest of the respondents 28.26% do not think so (figure 3); they argued that the fund is using according to the desire of chairman, member and scheme implementation committee and they do not show any report to the people about the use of fund.

Participation Level in the Development Process:

Out of the 46 general respondents (who knew about LGSP), 39% had been participated at least one time in the development planning process under LGSP and rest 60.86% never took participation in the development-planning program, though they were aware about the program (figure 4). The number of respondents who were participated in the development planning process was 18 out of the total respondents (93). So here the people's participation rate is 19.35% (among the general respondent).

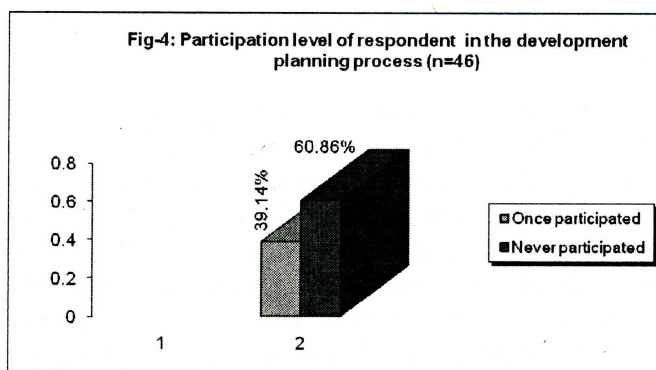
From figure 5 it is observed that among the participated respondents about 89% think that opinions given by the people in the development planning program had considered with proper importance and rest of the respondents (11%) differ from the others; they told that only the opinion of the influential persons are considered. From figure 6 it was also observed that about 72% respondents (who participated in the development planning process) think that people participate in the development planning program willingly and spontaneously but rest of the respondents 28% did not think so; they argued that people come to the meeting with a hope of getting something.

About 83% respondents (who participated in the development planning process) think that problem identification and priority decision making has done in their ward with the presence of the ward people but about 17% respondents differ this opinion (table 5); they told that we did not attend any such program where priority problem identification and decision making took place. About 89% respondents (who participated in the development planning process) think that in the process of project planning, people can give their opinion independently regarding their local common problems and solutions but about 11% respondent do not think so; they told that though we can speak independently but we are not valued properly, only the influential persons are evaluated (table 5). About 72% respondents (who participated in the development planning and implementation process) opined that after the intervention of LGSP, peoples' participation rate in the functions of Union Parishad has increased but the rate is not satisfactory (table 5).

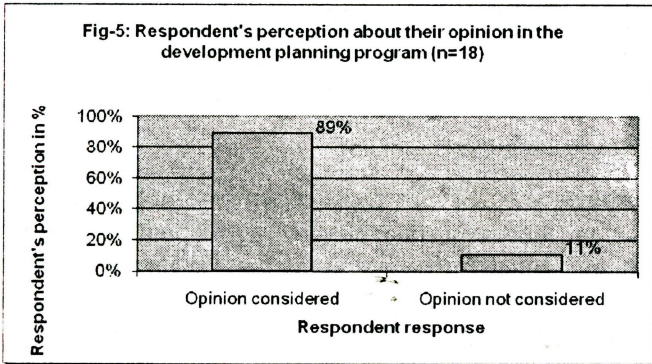
Table 5: Participation analysis by the respondents (who were participated in the development planning program) in the study area.

Respondents' perception/response	Result (n=18)	
	Positive response	Negative response
About problem identification and priority decision making.	83%	17%
About their freedom to give opinion in the development planning program.	89%	11%
About peoples' participation rate in the function of Union Parishad after the intervention of LGSP.	72%	28%

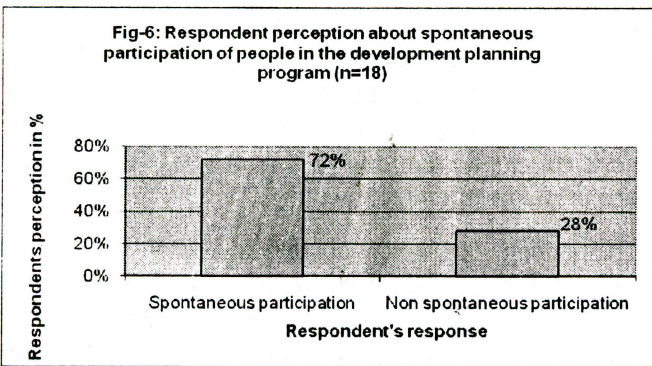
Source: Survey data



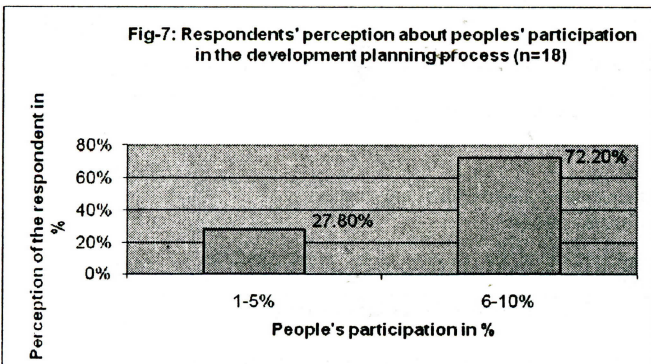
Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data

About 72% respondents' perception (who participated in the development planning process) was that the people who participate in the development planning process is about 6-10% of the total ward people and 28% respondents' perception is that about 1-5% of the total ward people

participate in the development planning program. From the perception of the respondents it can be said that around 10% of the ward people participate in the development planning process (figure 7).

Ensuring Accountability:

The intervention of LGSP has made significant impact on the peoples' involvement in the open budget meeting, which is making Union Parishad accountable to the people in the sense that people come to know how and where the budget is going to be utilized for local development and if, Union Parishad do not work as per open budget decision, people may have the option to give their opinion in the next election.

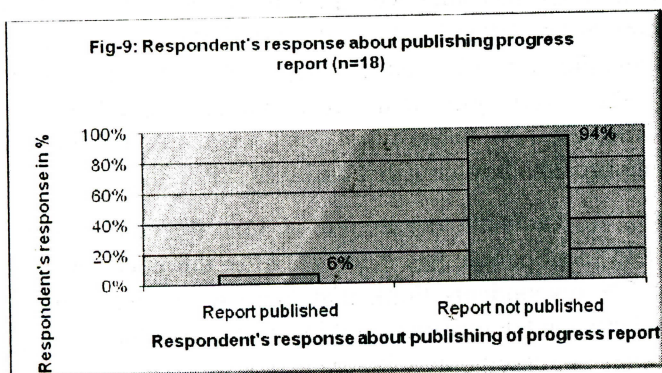
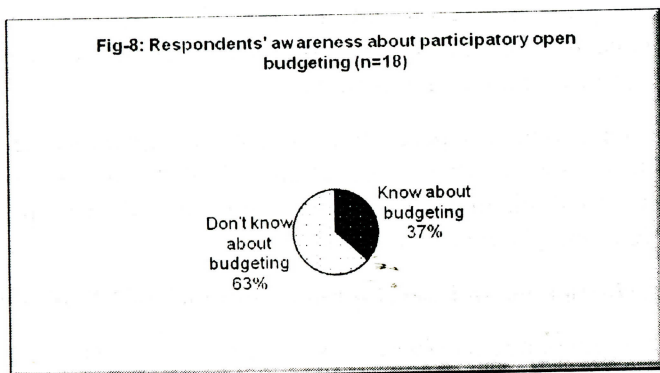
Among the 93 respondents (general people) 38% told that annual planning and budgeting has been finalized through open budget meeting at their union but a significant number of respondents (62%) told that they do not know anything about open budget meeting (figure 7). From field observations it was found that due to lack of sufficient publicity people are not aware of the open budget meeting.

Out of 18 respondents 61% opined that in the development planning process people of different classes participate and they give their opinion but 39% respondents think that only the selected people attend the open budget meeting and people are not much aware of the open budget meeting (table 6).

Table 6: Respondents' (who were participated in the development planning process) perception analysis in different aspects.

Respondent's perception	Result (n=18)	
	Positive response	Negative response
About the participation of people of different class in the development planning process.	61%	39%
About the participation of the people in the implementation process of LGSP.	44%	56%
About the priority of their demand in the implemented projects under LGSP.	94%	6%
On changes nature of accountability of UP after intervention of LGSP.	89%	11%

Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data

About 44% respondents think that peoples' participation in the project implementation process is satisfactory but 56% respondent think that peoples' participation in the implementation process is not satisfactory (table 6); They argued that member in the scheme implementation committee from the ward people are the political and influential persons, who makes unholy alliance with other members of the committee and general people do not know how they are spending the fund.

About 95% respondents told that Union Parishad do not produce any progress report about any ongoing project under LGSP in front the people and only about 5% respondents told that UP produce progress report before stakeholder. As per operational manual, SIC supposed to prepare a monthly progress report with the presence of stakeholders and to produce it before the ward people after every three months in an open meeting. This is a very important tool for ensuring accountability of SIC, but its level of practice is almost zero (figure 8). About 95% respondent thinks that demand of the local people has been given priority for the

implemented projects under LGSP and only 6% respondent differ this opinion (table 6); they think that projects are prioritized favoring the supporters of the chairman and members.

About 89% respondent's perception is that accountability of UP has increased to the people after introduction of LGSP and only about 11% respondent still think that UP functions are not fully transparent and accountable to the people (table 6).

Overall performance and development activities of UP after LGSP:

About 87% respondents (who knows about LGSP) believe that performance of UP has improved after the intervention of LGSP; they told that now-a-day, UP at least call them and ask them about the annual plan and people are involved in the implementation process when previously they were quite unaware about the annual plan of Union Parishad. The rest 13% believe that performance of UP did not change except some projects implemented under LGSP (table 7).

About 93% respondents' perception is that interaction between UP members and local people has increased after the intervention of LGSP and about 7% respondents think that there is no improvement in the interaction between UP members and local people (table 7); they told that interaction has increased only with the persons who are involved with the projects under LGSP.

All respondents (100%) (only general respondents who knows about LGSP) believe that development activities of UP have increased after the intervention of LGSP. About 65% respondents (only general respondents who knows about LGSP) believe that after the intervention of LGSP, it has created temporary employment opportunities for the poor women and unemployed people but rest 35% respondent think that the projects taken under LGSP only for the time being and only a very few number of people can get opportunity to work under LGSP (table 7).

Table 7: Respondents' (who were participated in the development planning process) perception analysis in different aspects.

Perception/Response of the respondents	Result (n=18)	
	Positive response/Perception	Negative response/Perception
About the performance of Union Parishad after the intervention of LGSP.	87%	13%
About the interaction between local people and UP after the intervention of LGSP.	93%	7%
About the development activities of UP after the intervention of LGSP.	100%	0%
About the creation of employment opportunity due to the intervention of LGSP.	65%	35%
About the impact of the projects implemented under LGSP.	100%	0%

Almost all respondent said that the projects, which had been implemented under LGSP is creating positive impacts on their lives or on the society because people are benefitting continually from the implemented projects.

Assessment of LGSP by the member of SIC and SSC:

Total nineteen members (twelve from scheme implementation committee and seven from scheme supervision committee) were interviewed to assess the role of LGSP from their perspectives.

Almost 100% (19) respondent said that peoples' participation has increased in the function of Union Parishad after the intervention of LGSP but this number is not so significant. They also said that accountability of UP has increased to the people because now people know about the budget and UP is bound to implement it as the general people are involved in the scheme implementation committee (table 8).

Table 8: Perception analysis of the member of SIC & SSC in different aspects of LGSP.

Respondents' Perception (member of SIC & SSC)	Result (n=19)	
	Positive response/perception	Negative response/perception
About peoples' participation & increasing accountability of UP after intervention of LGSP.	100%	0%
About the use of budget allocated under LGSP.	89% (using properly)	11% (not using properly)
About the creation of employment opportunity under LGSP.	79% (created opportunity)	21% (not created opportunity)

Source: Survey data

Out of 19 respondents, 89% believe that the budget allocated under LGSP is appropriately being used for local development but 11% respondent think that a portion of the budget is used incongruously. They argued that a portion of the budget is used for giving bribe to the Upazila engineer to make the project design and estimation and to the audit team for performing audit even though the accounts have no problems (table 8).

About 79% respondents think that LGSP has created temporary employment opportunity for the poor people and 21% respondents think that LGSP has created work opportunity for unemployed people only for few days (table 8).

Assessment of LGSP by Upazila Nirbahi Officers (UNO):

Total of five (5) UNOs were interviewed to evaluate the performance of LGSP who were related officially in the implementation process of LGSP. Among them, four (4) UNOs think that LGSP is partially successful in involving the peoples' participation in the local development activities spontaneously and one (1) UNO thinks that LGSP is moderately successful in this regard. All five UNOs think that LGSP is partially successful to ensure the accountability and transparency in the activities of Union Parishad and they also think that LGSP is partially successful for increasing the capacity of Union Parishad.

Only 1 UNO thinks that LGSP had created employment opportunity for the women & poor people and 4 UNO think that LGSP could not create employment opportunity for the women and poor people. All five UNO said that the fund allocated under LGSP is not received timely which create problem for proper implementation of the project. Among the five UNOs, four UNO think that LGSP is not playing the role to eradicate poverty directly but it is creating positive impact on the life style in the society.

Assessment of LGSP by Deputy Director Local Government (DDLG):

Out of the 11 DDLG, 10 think that LGSP is partially successful in involving the people's participation in the local development activities spontaneously and same percentage of DDLG think that LGSP is partially successful in ensuring the accountability and transparency in the activities of Union Parishad and increasing the capacity of Union Parishad.

Only 1 DDLG thinks that LGSP has created employment opportunity for the women and poor people and 10 DDLG think that LGSP could not create employment opportunity for the women and poor people. All DDLG (11) said that the fund allocated under LGSP is not received in the field level timely. Ten (10) DDLG think that LGSP is not playing its role to eradicate poverty directly but it is creating temporary work opportunity for the poor people.

Assessment of LGSP by the member of Union Parishad:

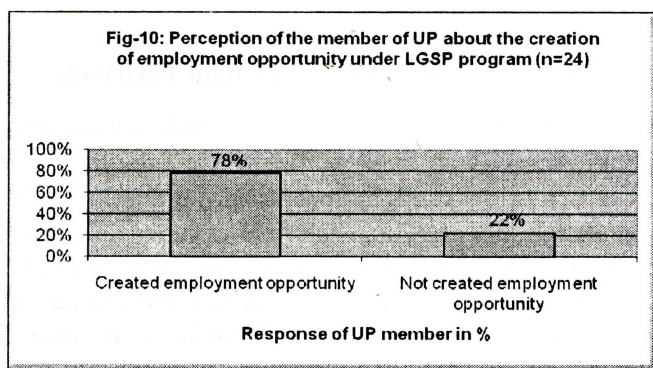
Total eighteen members of Union Parishad (including both chairman and member) were interviewed. Among them, 83% thinks that LGSP is moderately successful in involving people in the development planning and implementation process. From the field experience and the positive attitude of these members it can be interpreted that though LGSP is not fully successful in involving the people' participation in the function of Union Parishad activities but the present scenario is far better than what went before. 17% respondents think that LGSP is partially successful in involving people in its activities because people are too careless to participate and do not feel ownership and they think it is wastage of time. About 78% respondents think that LGSP is moderately successful in increasing the capacity and ensuring accountability of Union Parishad; they told that after the intervention of LGSP, now they are closer to the

people for decision making and implementation process and also in implementing many small projects which are fulfilling the local demands. They also told that we have been given training and our activities are supervised continuously by the Upazila and district facilitator; all these activities have helped the Union Parishad to increase their capacity and to be accountable to the people. 22% respondents assume that LGSP is partially successful in ensuring accountability and increasing efficiency of UPs; they told that the grant under LGSP is too small to take big projects to involve people to a great extent, and give training to the UP members (table-9).

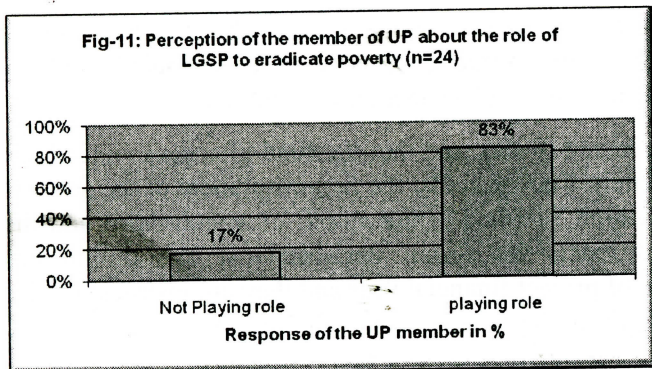
Table 9: Perception analysis of the member of Union Parishad regarding peoples' participation and accountability of Union Parishad.

Perception of the member of UP	Result (n=24)		
	Partially success	Moderately success	Completely success
About the success of LGSP to involve the peoples' participation in the local development activities.	17%	83%	0%
About the success of LGSP in ensuring accountability and increasing capacity of Union Parishad.	22%	78%	0%

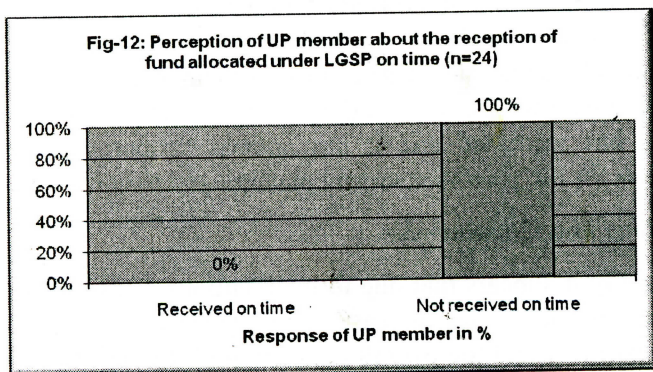
Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data



Source: Survey data

78% respondents believe that LGSP has created employment opportunity for the women and poor people; they told that implementation of the projects taken by UPs under LGSP has created job opportunity for the unemployed people but 22% respondents believe that projects under LGSP are not able to create permanent job opportunity; they argued that such projects are only for the time being and a very few people get opportunity to work for a small period of time (figure 10).

According to the sec 2.3.1 (e) of the Union Parishad Operational Manual 2009, projects under LGSP have to consider, after analysis, the fact whether it will play supplementary role to eradicate poverty in the rural area. Surveyed data showed, 83 % respondents perceive that LGSP is playing a role to eradicate poverty; they said that unemployed poor people can earn from their involvement with the projects under LGSP which help them to eradicate poverty but rest of respondents (17%) think that LGSP are not capable to eradicate poverty; they argued that with such

small projects, poverty eradication is impossible and they also argued that to eradicate poverty in true sense, large projects should be initiated so that it creates long term employment opportunity (figure 11).

All respondents (100%) said that the fund allocated under LGSP is not received timely. They told that the first installment of the projects usually reach the Union Parishad in the month of March-April and the second installment reach the Union Parishad just one month before the completion of project financial year and they are instructed to implement the budget within the financial year (figure 12).

So from the above analysis and observations it can be summarized that fifty percent respondents of the study area have no idea about LGSP and specially the women are quite unaware about it. The rest fifty percent respondents, who aware about it, expressed their opinion positively and they believe that after the intervention of LGSP, accountability of UP to the people has increased and it has created temporary employment opportunities for the poor women and unemployed people.

Observations and Conclusions:

From the study it appears that due to interventions of LGSP, the overall performance of the UP has increased and objectives of the LGSP have succeeded partially and the overall perception of the beneficiaries about the performance of LGSP is positive in the study area.

Block grant

Most important part of LGSP is fiscal transfer or block grant transfer from ministry to the UPs. From data analysis it is evident that people specially the women are not much aware of LGSP and its fund. Awareness should be increased among the people. From analysis it is seen that fund of LGSP is being appropriately used for the development activities but corruption exists, which should be checked. Allocated block grant of LGSP should reach timely and the amount of block grant should also be increased.

Most of the respondents (89%) of SIC and SSC think that the fund allocated under LGSP is appropriately used for local development activities. Rest of the member of SIC and SSC makes allegations against Upazila Engineer and audit team for taking bribes for project design and for performing audit.

All UNO, DDLG and member of SIC, SSC and UP said that the fund allocated under LGSP is not received timely which creates problem for implementation of the projects. They also said that the amount of block grant is not sufficient for the Union Parishad to take a big project that can create permanent employment opportunities for the poor people.

Peoples' participation

Peoples' participation rate in the development activities is not satisfactory. From data analysis it is seen that people do not feel interested in participating because they do not feel ownership and they calculate the opportunity cost for the time they will spend in such meeting. Specially the poor people and women think that they will not be evaluated in such program. Sometimes people are not being properly informed by the UP; consequently they cannot participate in the meeting.

Among the interviewed UNO and DDLG, 80% UNO and 91% DDLG think that LGSP is partially successful in involving the people in the local development activities. Among the interviewed UP member and chairman, 83% of them believe that LGSP is successful in participating the people in the UP activities.

From the above analysis it can be concluded that peoples' participation rate in the functions of Union Parishad has increased in comparison to the past but the participation rate is still far from the desirable standard.

Ensuring accountability

One of the main objectives of LGSP is ensuring peoples' participation of all cases in the open budget meeting and in the development planning and implementation process to institutionalize accountability.

Though more than fifty percent general people are not aware of open budget but a good number of respondents believe that that transparency and accountability of UPs is increased to a significant level. In terms of project selection, implementation and public money spending, the people at large perceive more accountability and transparency. All respondents of SIC and SSC told that accountability of UP has increased to the people and the general perception of the UNO and DDLG (who are respondent of this study), LGSP is partially successful in ensuring the accountability and transparency in the activities of UP.

From observations it can be concluded that peoples' participation of different classes in the budget and development-planning process has increased but still there are some loopholes in the open budget preparation and implementation process. Regulatory forum and policy formulation is essential to minimize these loopholes for institutionalizing accountability in the UP.

Overall Performance and Development Activities of UP:

About 87% respondents (who were participated in the development planning process) believe that performance of UP has increased after the intervention of LGSP and most of the respondents' (93%) perception is that local peoples' interaction with UP has increased. Almost all respondents believe that development activities in the UP have increased after LGSP. All UNO (who are respondents) thinks that LGSP is partially successful for increasing the capacity of UP. All members of UP (who are respondents) told that overall performance of UP has increased after LGSP but the training given to the elected representatives is not sufficient to implement the objectives of LGSP.

From the above observations it can be summarized that overall performance and development activities of UP has increased but still UPs are in lack of manpower and logistic support. Need based extensive training is necessary for the elected representatives of UP.

Employment opportunity

According to the sec 2.3.1(e) of the Union Parishad Operational Manual 2009, projects under LGSP have to select emphasizing the fact that it creates employment opportunity especially for the women and helpless people.

From the analysis it can be said that the projects implemented under LGSP are creating positive impacts on the society and are not capable of creating permanent employment opportunity for the poor people. If the block grant amount is increased then it is possible to take big projects that may create employment opportunity for the unemployed people and play its role to eradicate poverty.

From the above data analysis and observations, it can be concluded that the LGSP is an excellent start for the journey towards strengthening Union Parishad but at present, this project is too short to achieve its objectives. So the duration of this project should be increased. The

perception of the general respondents who had participated in the development planning process is very positive and they said that after the introduction of LGSP, people are very enthusiastic about the functions of Union Parishad.

Recommendations and Policy Options:

To achieve the objectives of LGSP, the following recommendations and policy options may be considered:

Block Grant

To achieve objectives of the LGSP, specific recommendations about block grants are as follows

- Block grants of LGSP should be transferred from ministry to the UPs within at least 2-3 months ahead of the project year.
- The amount of block grants should be increased so that UPs can undertake income-generating projects for the creation of long-term employment opportunity for the unemployed people.
- For administrative and miscellaneous expenditure of UNO, DDLG and UPs, extra allocation should be earmarked in the block grants scheme.
- Field observations suggest that the LGED Engineer seem to be a reluctant partner in the design and technical support function of LGSP. Appropriate measures should be taken to make the Upazila Engineer an active catalyst agent of the LGSP.

Peoples' Participation

From the present study it has been observed that peoples' participation rate in the functions of UPs is not satisfactory. Without active participation of community people of all strata in every aspect of the functions of Union Parishad, ensuring accountability is almost impossible. The followings are the specific recommendations to increase the peoples' participation in the UPs.

- Mass awareness of the rural people as designed on the LGSP must be implemented positively to enhance social awareness and participation.
- To attract people in the budget preparation and development-

planning program, some strategies may be followed as for example after such program, musical amusement and provisions of light refreshment may inspire people to participate in the functions of UPs.

- Non-government organizations (NGO) should be encouraged and used in inspiring people for participating in the functions of Union Parishad with particular focus on LGSP.
- Other mechanisms like poster, leaflet, announcement and motivations are indispensable for creating awareness among the people before development planning and budgeting.

Ensuring Accountability

Although most of the respondents who were participated in the development planning process thinks that accountability to the people of Union Parishad has increased however it did not institutionalize until now. To institutionalize accountability, the present study suggests the following recommendations:

- Adequate supervision and monitoring should be increased by the Local Government Department of the Ministry of Local Government Rural Development and Cooperatives (LGRD&C).
- For intensifying the supervisions and monitoring, transportation cost/vehicle facilities and other miscellaneous expenditure should be provided to the UNOs and DDLGs.
- Independent audit cell should be set up in the Upazila level.
- Peoples' participation in every aspect of Union Parishad is the most important mechanism for ensuring accountability. Government should provide all sorts of financial and logistic support to the UNOs, District Facilitator (DF), relevant NGOs and Union Parishad (UPs) for the maximum level of peoples participation.
- According to the LGSP operational Manual, UPs those who will not publish progress report on the ongoing projects under LGSP, should be dropped from further block grants.

Overall Performance and Development activities of Union Parishad

To increase overall performance and development activities of UPs, the following are the specific recommendations of the present study:

- Need based extensive trainings for the elected representatives and members of the SIC and SSC is essential so that they can efficiently utilize the fund allocated under LGSP.
- All sorts of logistic support should be provided to the UPs immediately.
- Necessary manpower, at least one sub assistant engineer, one computer operator, one accountant and one MLSS should be appointed immediately for smooth running of UPs.

Employment Opportunity

To create employment opportunity for the women and needy people, the following are the specific recommendations for the present study:

- Block grant amount should be increased to at least ten lacs in each financial year.
- Union Parishad should take extended income generating projects with the collaboration of private organizations, which will create employment opportunity.
- Authority should be provided to the Union Parishad for mobilizing the common property resources (CPR) e.g natural forest, use of khas land, and cultivation of fish in the jalmahal using block grant under LGSP etc.

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Gender as an issue towards Women's Political Participation *A study on Urban Local Government in Bangladesh**

Dr. Shamima Tasnim¹

Abstract: There is continued inequality and vulnerability of women in all sectors i.e. economic, social, political, education, health care and legal. The path of political participation for women is very rugged. The social structure does not allow women for their space, or gives them the rights to express their views or ideas of the society they envisages. This study aims to identify the barriers to women's empowerment process and to assess whether 'gender' has any impact on women's political participation. This study reveals that the women councilors are facing series of barriers to perform their jobs. Barriers are different in nature they are psychological, social, financial, political and cultural barrier. All these barriers stood on the way to women's political participation. This study finds among all the barriers cultural barrier affects most women's political empowerment. This study suggests that the importance of women Councilors in the City Corporations as well as in political process should be recognized by the Government and political parties. Women Councilors have to achieve both quantitative and qualitative development. Women's perception of their political role could be enhanced through education, training, awareness, advocacy, employment, and legal measures. In fine software of mind of the social actors need to change and thus will greatly contribute to enhance political empowerment of women councilors of city corporations of Bangladesh.

1.0 Introduction

Women are inseparable part of the development. Women's participation in politics at national and local level is strongly needed to strengthen democracy. Scholars have termed local Government as 'School of Democracy'. Democracy believes in equality. City Corporation is a body of urban local governance. Does this body run democratically? Is the political participation of men and women equal? Does gender affect on the process of women's political participation?

From this context the objectives of the study seeks to assess whether gender has any impacts on the process of women's political empowerment.

1.1 Methodology

This is a multiple case study followed by mixed method approach. Data have been collected from 50 men and women councilors of six City

* Data used in this article has been taken from author's PhD dissertation.

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Corporations. Simple random sampling has been used to select respondent. Data has been analyzed from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives.

All the six mayors are also interviewed to know their opinion in this context Bangladesh has six City Corporations

Table :1: Sample of the Study

Names of City Corporations	Total number of women Councilor	Number of selected woman ward Councilor	Number of elected woman ward Councilor	Total number of men ward Councilor	Number of selected men Councilor	Total number of ward Councilor
Dhaka (DCC)	30	10+2	2	90	15	120
Chittagong (CCC)	14	7	-	42	7	56
Khulna (KCC)	10	8	-	30	7	40
Rajshahi (RCC)	10	8	-	30	7	40
Barisal (BCC)	10	8	0	30	7	40
Sylhet (SCC)	09	7	0	27	7	36
Total sample		(48+2)=50			50	

1.2 Theoretical perspective

Gender refers to the socio- cultural definition of man and women, the way societies distinguish men and women and assign them social roles. It is used as an analytical tool to understand social realities with regard to men and women. According to Kamala Bhasin (2008) -Gender is socio-cultural and man made,-Gender is socio-cultural and it refers to masculine and feminine qualities, behavior patterns roles and responsibilities, etc. Gender is variable; it changes from time to time, culture to culture, even family to family. This study has used the theory of culture given by Hofstede. According to Hofstede A society is called masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are suppose to be assertive, tough and focused on material success, where as women are suppose to be more modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life. Men should be assertive ambitious and tough, women are suppose to be tender and take care of relationship. In the family father deals with the facts and mother with feelings. Bangladesh belongs to masculine culture. The other name of masculine culture is patriarchy. It is

a social and ideological system which considers men to be superior to women, one in which men have more control over resources and decision-making.

Kamla Bhasin (2008) has mentioned some social characteristics of men and women. This chart is made from Bhasin and Islam's book

Chart 1.:Social Characters of Men and Women

Masculine character	Feminine character	Masculine character	Feminine character	Masculine character	Feminine character
Rational	Emotional,	Smart	Beautiful	Outgoing	Caring
Strong	Weak	Self-centered	Sacrificing	Aggressive	Nurturing
Competitive	Submissive	Brave	Shy	Assertive	Calm
Devious	Polite	Fearless	Sensitive	Impulsive	Cunning
Honest	Soft	Tough	Introvert	Violent	Compassion
Hard-working	Enduring	Opportunistic	Fearful	insensitive	Quite
Extrovert	Timid	Dominating	Tolerant	Independent	Dependent

2.0 Gender as an issue of Women's Political Participation

To asses whether gender has any impact councilors were asked on these following issues. They have been discussed below.

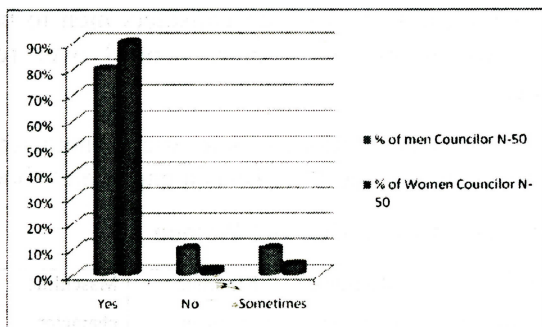
2.1 Impacts of 'Gender' in Political Participation of Women

In this Context both men and women Councilors were asked whether gender affects on the process of women's political participation.

Table: 2: Impacts of Gender on Women's Political Participation

Gender affects on Women's political Participation	Number of Men Councilor	% of men Councilor N-50	Number of Women Councilor	% of Women Councilor N-50
Yes	40	80%	45	90%
No	5	10%	1	2%
Sometimes	5	10%	2	4%

Source: Field study, 2010



The table shows that 80% men and 90% women Councilors believe that gender affects on the process of women's political participation and only 10% men and 2% women Councilors denied it. 10% men and women Councilor believe that sometimes gender affects on political participation of women.

While collecting data the researcher found that the husband of one ward Councilor's had been active in politics. Shortly after his election as ward Councilor he was murdered as a result of inter-party politics. After her husband's death, the ward's residents showed their sympathy and encouragement, and requested her to stand in her husband's place. She explains that she was hesitant at first, but became convinced by the great support offered by the ward's residents. Although the national political party to which she was affiliated was reluctant to support her candidature. But she in election she won. So he had faced the major obstacle from her political party in deed. As a woman, she is kept out of any direct political involvement. Although supported by high officials, including the Mayor and DCC, her political party provides no support. Her party informed her that her position was secured only because of sympathy and her late husband's good reputation. She knows that her party will not support her re-election at the forthcoming elections because of her gender.

While talking with the men Councilor one replied with frustration that women councilor parallel with men councilor is not justified. Though he could not explain why and how women are inferior to men, but it was clear from his expression that he can't tolerate the women Councilors in deed. As a whole, it is fact that gender affects on the process of women's political participation. They pointed out some area where gender affects. They are, profession, income, financial resource, political participation, motivation and objectives to be councilors, attendance in the meeting, decision making process, social support, administrative cooperation etc. they are described below.

2.2 Attendance in the Meeting

The meetings of the City Corporations are of two types. General or monthly meeting and emergency or special meeting. General meetings are usually held at least once in a month. To hold the meeting; presence of half of the total members are necessary. Active participation of women members in the meeting is essential to play their role effectively.

Table 3: Attendance in the Meeting

Attendance in the Meeting	Number of Men Councilor	% of Men Councilor N-50	Number of women Councilor	% of Women Councilor N-50
Regular	35	70%	45	90%
Irregular	15	30%	5	10%

Source: Field study, 2010

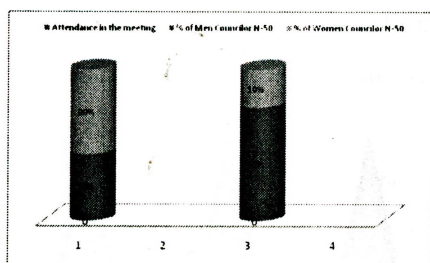


Table 3 shows that the regular attendance in the meetings of the men Councilors is 70% and women Councilor is 90%. The irregular attendance of men Councilors is 30% and the women Councilors are 10%. So, women Councilors are more responsible on their duty compare with men Councilors.

Councilors were asked about the number of meetings called per month in City Corporation. A variation in their opinion is found from the study. Some women Councilors told that at least one meeting is called per month, where as few women Councilor told that they meet twice or thrice in a year. Such situation indicates the communication gap between two groups that is the Councilors and the City Corporation staff responsible for arranging the meetings. From field data it is noticed that women Councilors are more sincere regarding attendance in the meetings.

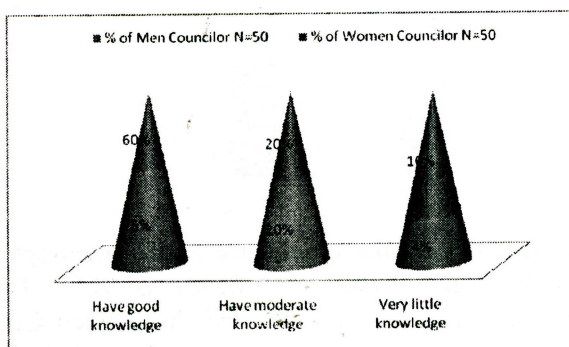
2.3 Knowledge on Government Policy on City Corporation and Local Govt.

Knowledge is power. Measurement of knowledge is very complex. The Councilors were asked on information about latest City Corporation Act, Government Gazette, functions of City Corporation, meeting and standing committee. Level of their knowledge is inserted in the following table.

Table: 4: Knowledge on local Government and City Corporation

Level of knowledge	Number of Men Councilor	% of Men Councilor N=50	Number of Women Councilor	% of Women Councilor N=50
Have good knowledge	38	76%	30	60%
Have moderate knowledge	10	20%	15	20%
Very little knowledge	2	4%	5	10%

Source: Field study, 2010



The table shows that 76% men and 60% women councilors are rich with knowledge on Local Government and 20% men and women councilors have moderate knowledge. Only 4% men and 10% women councilors have little knowledge on this area.

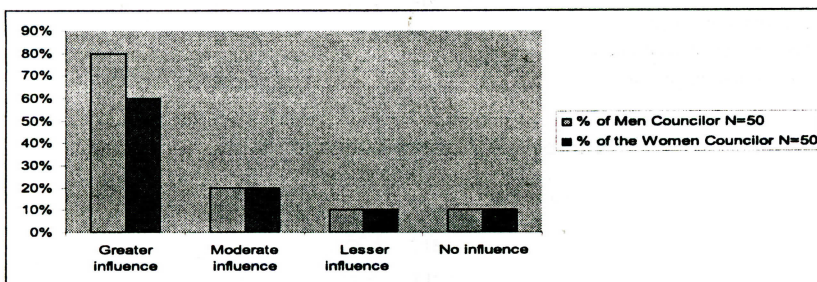
Many studies conducted on this area before, found women Councilors' with little knowledge on this area. The researcher tried to find out the answer of question why women have less political knowledge. According to Hofstede (2005) in masculine culture women are suppose to be tender and caring in nature. They will teach children. Men must be assertive and associated with outward activities. Kamla Bhasin (2008) also identified some social character of men and women where men are associated with political activities. This study findings reveals that women Councilors are now more conscious than before.

2.4 Level of Participation Decision Making Process

Platform for Action (1995) adopted at the Beijing Conference reaffirmed that "women's equal participation in decision making is not only a demand for justice and democracy but can also be, seen as a necessary condition for women's interests to be taken into account. Without the active participation of women and incorporation of women's development and peace cannot be achieved." But in the City Corporation women are discriminated in this sector. Usually decision has taken in a meeting of City Corporation.

Table 5: Extent of Participation in Decision Making Process

Options	Number of Men Councilor	% of Men Councilor N=50	Number of Women Councilor	% of the Women Councilor N=50
Greater influence	40	80%	30	60%
Moderate influence	10	20%	10	20%
Lesser influence	05	10%	05	10%
No influence	05	10%	05	10%



Source: Field study, 2010

Table 5 shows that 60% women and 80% men Councilors have greater influence in decision making. On the other hand 10% women Councilors have no influence in decision making. Why the women are back seated in this place. The women Councilors pointed out from two angles. First men Councilors do not want to give space for women Councilors. And second reason is the lack of confidence and lack of influence over Mayor. Though women raised many important suggestion or program but they are not well judged. So they kept out of decision making process. This study found that 60% women have strong influence in decision making process. It sounds good from two angles. First women Councilors become efficient than before and second men Councilors and Mayors are give space for women Councilors.

2.5 Existence of Gender Discrimination

The gender role ideology is used as an ideological tool by patriarchy to place women within the private arena of home as mothers and wives and men in the public sphere. This is one of the vital factors that shape the level of women's political participation globally.

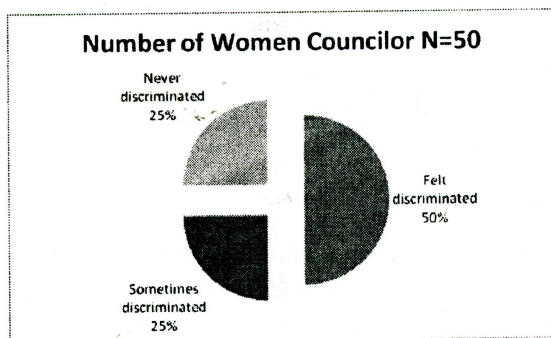
Why such gender discrimination? Answer is Patriarchy.

Patriarchal Values and Norms is one of the important cultural constraints towards women empowerment. Patriarchy as a system of men domination shapes women's relationship in politics. It transforms men and women's into men and women and construct the hierarchy of gender relations where men are privileged (Eisenstein 1984)

All the selected women Councilors were asked whether they are discriminated.

Table :6: Discriminated to performing Job (Only for Women)

Level of discrimination	Number of Women Councilor N=50	% of Women Councilor
Felt discriminated	30	60%
Sometimes discriminated	15	30%
Never discriminated	15	10%



Source: Field study, 2010

Table 6 suggests that 60% women Councilors felt discriminated, 10% never felt discriminated and 30% felt sometimes discriminated.

Andrienne Rich defines patriarchy as "A familial-social, ideological, political system in which men by force, direct pressure or through ritual, tradition, law, and language, customs etiquette, education, and the

division of labor, determine what part women shall or shall not play in which the women is everywhere subsumed under the men." (Rich 1977) Though women Councilors are more powerful than before. They are regular in meeting. They efficiently take part in decision making. But still 60% women Councilors felt discriminated. Only 10% never felt discriminated. They are more confident and playing their role successfully.

2.6 Area of Gender Discrimination

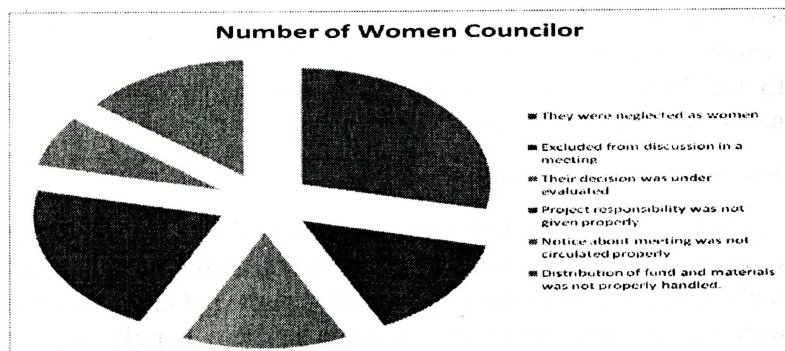
The main reason for low political participation of women in politics is the patriarchal structure of society. According to our traditions and culture the participation of women in politics and the public eye is against the generally accepted role of women. The patriarchal values have subjugated and distempered women.

The patriarchal society enforces rules and laws in such way that affect the self-confidence of women, limit their access on resources and information and thus keep them in a lower status than men.

Table: 7: Area of Discrimination

Area of Discrimination	Number of Women Councilor	% of Women Councilor
They were neglected as women	20	40%
Excluded from discussion in a meeting	10	20%
Their decision was under evaluated	10	20%
Project responsibility was not given properly	15	30%
Notice about meeting was not circulated properly	5	10%
Distribution of fund and materials was not properly handled.	10	20%

Source: Field study, 2010



Source: Field study, 2010

The most discrimination happened in the issue of neglected as women (Mahtab 2007) said that concept of "gender" has addressed the following questions about gender inequality.

How does it occur?

Why does it take different forms?

Why does it vary in degree across societies/

What are the causes promoting gender inequality?

All the answers of these questions found from Councilors view. All such discrimination occurred from masculine society and Patriarchal culture. In masculine culture women are always subordinate of men. So discrimination occurred in family, society and all organizations. This degree of discrimination varies in because of socio economic condition, educational status of women. But such domination is high in rural area other than urban area. A significant number of women Councilors affirmed that men Councilors can not tolerate them.

In meeting they underestimate women's decision. In Sylhet City Corporation, Councilors were making football team from each local area. In these context women Councilors wanted to bring such football team from their area but in a meeting some men colleges said that "you better bring team of kut kut khela (a Bangladeshi local game on foot specially played by girls). It is the reflection of gender discrimination.

Men Councilors do not want share all the project of City Corporation with women Councilors. Some women Councilors stated that when they claimed for road construction project, some men Councilors directly opposed. Men Councilor thinks women are incapable to do that job. Some capable women Councilor explained to the researcher that men are actually jealous to them. From road construction and reconstructions the dishonest men Councilors make money.

2.7 Discussion on Quota System

The Constitution of Bangladesh preserve women for Quota in different places. Article 28 (4) states: Nothing in this Article shall prevent the state from making special provision in favors of women and children for the advancement of any backward section of the population." As disadvantaged group women deserved quota.

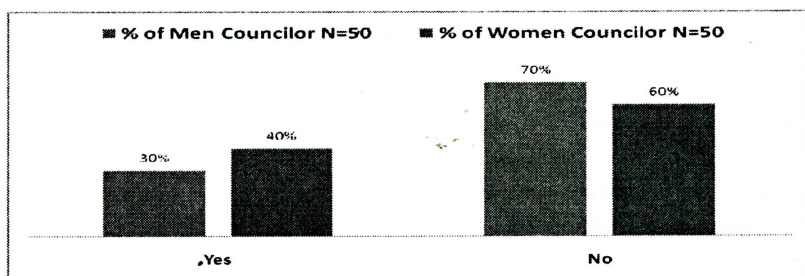
The prime consideration for granting reserved seats to women was their political weakness in contesting men contenders for general seats. The quota or reservation was considered an appropriate political device for guaranteeing women "protected" representation in the legislature. The constitutional debates over the draft articles incorporating the provision of the quota or reservation for women in the legislature basically centered on the number of seats to be reserved and was justified as a safeguard made constitutionally available in view of women's drastically unequal political strength (Chowdhury 2002).

But while collecting data researcher got some positive and negative affect of quota described by the both men and women Councilors. Councilors were asked whether they support quota for women in local government.

Table: 8: Importance of Quota for Women in local government

Do you support quota for women in local government?	Number of Men Councilor	% of Men Councilor N=50	Number of Women Councilor	% of Women Councilor N=50
Yes	15	30%	20	40%
No	35	70%	30	60%

Source: Field study, 2010



The table shows that 60% women Councilors and 70% men Councilors do not support the quota reservation for women in local government. On the other hand 40% women and 30% men Councilors support the quota system. This data sounds good that women are more confident on their leadership quality. Among 20% women Councilor most are from periphery City Corporation. They are not confident. The men Councilor who does not support quota for women Councilor stated that as women are asking for equal right they will also compete for election. Some men Councilor believes that still women are at back stage in development process. To bring them in mainstream they need social, political and

administrative support like quota system. The Councilors who does not support for quota stated that it is undemocratic; It is against the principle of equal opportunity for all, since women are given preference. Many women do not want to get elected just because they are women. It is in fact the political parties control nominations, not primarily the voters who decide who gets elected.

Introducing quotas may cause conflicts, but only temporarily, if women become qualified as men there is no justification of quota.

2.8 Nature of job Accomplished by Councilors

Councilors have to accomplish lot of job. They are different in nature. Following tables shows the nature of job accomplished by Councilors.

Table 9: Nature of job Accomplished by Councilors

Job accomplished by the Councilor	Number of Men Councilor	% of Men Councilor N-50	Number of Women Councilor	% of Women Councilor N-50
Create health care center for poor	6	12%	5	10%
Provide birth, succession, nationality & character certificate	20	40%	40	80%
Provide public toilet & water supply system for local people	20	40%	20	40%
Co-operate in enumeration	16	32%	30	60%
Provide public library, amusement facilities & its maintenance	3	6%		5%
Tube well setting	20	40%	30	60%
Take step against to local criminal	10	20%	2	4%
Maintaining proper drainage & sewerage system	20	40%	10	20%
Keep environment pollution free and make footpath from hawker.	5	10%	2	4%
Welfare of local people (protect dowry, early marriage, acid throwing)	4	8%	25	50%
Register birth, death & marriage	20	40%	25	50%
Infrastructural development specially road construction	30	60%	10	20%
Participate in tree plantation program	7	14%	5	10%
Judge the child & women violence cases	6	12%	40	80%
Others	5	10	2	10

Source: Field study, 2010

There are significant differences between responsibilities of men and women ward Councilors. Almost all the men ward Councilors are given with the responsibilities of corruption and smuggling protection, provision of birth, succession, nationality and character certificates, provision of street light and keeping pollution free environment followed by infrastructure development (60%) maintaining proper drainage and sewerage system (40%), provision of public toilet and water supply system (40%) and to tube well setting (40%)

But in case of women the scenario is totally different. Almost all the women are involved in judging the women and child issues, welfare of the local people, (80%) motivating people during natural calamities, provision of birth, nationality and character certificates followed by encouraging people in come generating activities(80%), infrastructure development (20%) The participation of men in all those sectors mentioned above is very less. Again the sectors where the involvement of men is very high, participation of women in those sectors is really insignificant except infrastructural development

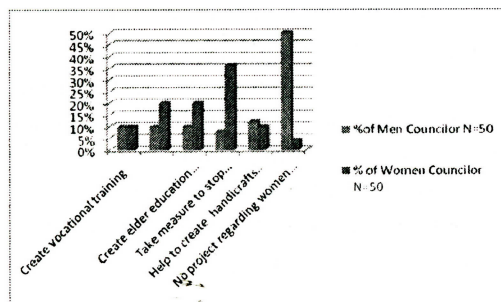
2.9 Role of Councilor towards Ensuring Women Development

To ensure women empowerment is a vital issue now. Researcher wanted to know about Councilors women development related activities. Following table presents women development related activities done by the Councilors

Table 10: Role of Councilor towards Ensuring Women Development

Role of Councilors	Number of Men Councilor	%of Men Councilor N=50	Number of Women Councilor	% of Women Councilor N=50
Create vocational training	5	10%	5	10%
Help NGO with their women issue	5	10%	10	20%
Create elder education program/elder age fund	5	10%	10	20%
Take measure to stop domestic violence against women.	4	8%	18	36%
Help to create handicrafts and small cottage industry	6	12%	5	10%
No project regarding women development	25	50%	2	4%

Source: Field study, 2010



Source: Field study, 2010

Undoubtedly women Councilors are role model of empowered women in Bangladesh. It is common expectation that women Councilors will help the women to come main stream of development. While analyzing the women related activities done by the Councilors it was not so hopeful. Only 36% women Councilors take step to stop against violence against women. 20% women Councilors worked to ensure education and help NGO to work with women related issues. On the other hand 50 % men Councilors had not taken any women related activities.

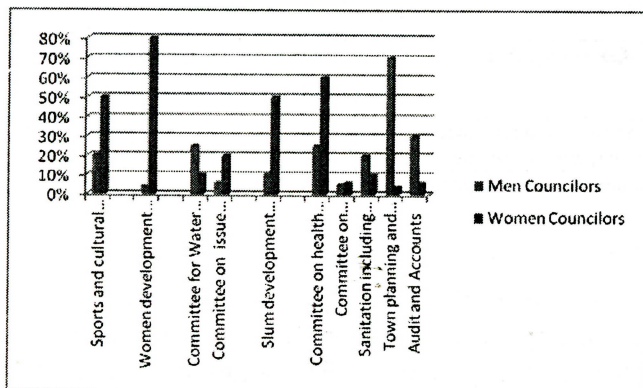
2.10 Membership in Different Committee

Each City Corporation has some committee based on different issue. There are rules for Standing Committee also. A standing committee shall consists of not more than six members who shall be elected by the Councilors from amongst themselves, but no Councilor shall at the same time be a member of more than two standing committee . Such committee shall elect one its members to be its chairman.

Table: 11: Membership in Different Committee

Name of Committee	Men Councilors	Women Councilors
Sports and cultural Committee	20%	50%
Women development Committee	4%	80%
Committee for Water and electricity	25%	10%
Committee on issue of freedom fighters	6%	20%
Slum development Committee	10%	50%
Committee on health and education	25%	60%
Committee on conservation of Environment	5%	6%
Sanitation including Drainage	20%	10%
Town planning and infrastructural development	70%	4%
Audit and Accounts	30%	6%

Source: Field study, 2010



To work on different issues there are many committees in each City corporation. But many Councilors affirmed that though there are many committees, all are not active. For example slum development committee was active in Dhaka City Corporation. But it is not working now. Moreover last election held Dhaka City Corporation in 2002. In general there was supposed to be election after five years. But all the Councilors are working for last 10 years. As a result they are not active in their role. There are some committees only by name, practically they are inactive.

From the above table it is shown that most of women Councilors are member of women development committee. And only 4% men Councilors are members of this committee.

Most of men Councilors are involved to that committee which has the scope to financial dealings. Like town planning and infrastructural development committees. On the other hand health and education committee deals with little financial budget. Table shows that 60% women Councilors are the members of that Committee. Actually the status of women in different committee also represents the gender discrimination.

Mayor's perception on impacts of gender in women's political empowerment:

Mayor is the highest post in the City Corporation. Though it is not an officially political post but nomination always comes from influential political parties.

Table13: Perception of the Mayors on Some Issues

Concerned Area	Yes (Total Number of Mayor -6)	No(Total Number of Mayor -6)
Do you think Gender affects on political participation of women?	6	0
Do you Support Women Mayor	4	2

Source: Field study, 2010

The table shows that all the six Mayors opined that gender affects on women's political participation. They believe the role of men and women can be differing. It may be positive or negative in nature. In context of political problem two Mayors Opined that they were not getting government support in many issues as they were from opposition political party. Women can be equally qualified as men. In such condition all the mayors were asked about the chance of Women Mayor. The table shows that amongst the six Mayors four support for Women Mayor and two did not agree. Two Mayors who were not agreed on this point said that "we are giving full time for our job. Can women do that? Even we have to face many national political issues. Women are not fit for this post."

In the questionnaire of Mayor, on the part of women Councilors those two Mayors (who did not support for women Mayor) ranked women Councilors as honest and sincere. Then researcher told them "you are satisfied on the performance of women Councilor but do not trust on women Mayor. Why? They were little bit embarrassed and replied "Councilor and Mayor are not the same position' this is the reflection of our masculine culture. Here men can not tolerate women in upper status. Even they feel heisted to be a subordinate of women boss. Tasnim (2005) conducted a study on job satisfaction among female teacher in primary education. She found that men teachers felt unhappy to work under women head teacher. It is only because of ego. Researcher analysis is that here the phenomena is same. Some Mayors could not tolerate a women Mayor. It represents masculine attitude.

While asking personal qualities most all six Mayors opined that women councilors are more honest than men councilors. In 2007 the Military backed Govt. took a strong stand against corruption in the country. In fact that Govt. is on the process of building a corruption free Bangladesh (Panday 2008) in such condition most of men Councilors were out of their working place. They were afraid of punishment. Many of the men

Councilors were involved with crime. At that time all the women Councilors worked in the field with army Government. The Army Government praised the women Councilors for their active role.

3.0 Conclusion

The study reveals that both men and women councilors are equally qualified to perform their responsibility as councilors. Even society has also accepted gladly the role of women councilors. The Mayors were also opined women councilors are successfully doing their job. But gender affects this process nakedly. Women councilors are facing a series of problem. This study identified that masculine culture affects most the process of women's political empowerment as councilors. So some change is needed. They are patriarchal social values should be changed to pull women in politics, attitudinal change towards women Councilors in the community, clear stand should be taken against fundamentalism and misinterpretation of religion which stands in the way of women's political participation.

This study suggests that the importance of women Councilors in the City Corporations as well as in political process should be recognized by the Government and political parties. Women Councilors have to achieve both quantitative and qualitative development. Women's perception of their political role could be enhanced through education, training, awareness, advocacy, employment, and legal measures. In fine software of mind of the social actors need to change and thus will greatly contribute to enhance political empowerment of women councilors of city corporations of Bangladesh.

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