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অগ্রহায়ণ ১৪১৮/ডিসেম্বর ২০১১

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মোঃ সানোয়ার জাহান ভূঁইয়া

সহযোগী সম্পাদক

সামসুল আলম খন্দকার

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লোক-প্রশাসন সাময়িকীর প্রবন্ধসমূহে প্রকাশিত মতামত প্রবন্ধকারদের একান্ত নিজস্ব, এর জন্য সম্পাদনা পরিষদ কোন দায়িত্ব বহন করে না।

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Impacts of Trade Liberalization on Exports Bangladesh Experience

Dr. Md. Moniruzzaman¹

Abstract: This article analyses and explains the impacts of trade liberalization on exports in Bangladesh. A number of empirical studies suggest that there exists positive relationship between trade liberalization and export performance. In case of Bangladesh it is observed that the TGR of exports in the pre-liberalization regime i.e. from 1972-1973 to 1989-1990 is 8.81 per cent while the same is 11.90 per cent in the post-liberalization period i.e. from 1990-1991 to 2009-2010. The TGR for the whole study period i.e. from 1972-1973 to 2009-2010 is estimated as 11.56 per cent. It indicates that the growth rates of exports are higher in the post-liberalization period. On the other hand, it is observed that the CAGR of exports in the pre-liberalization regime i.e. from 1972-1973 to 1989-1990 is 8.54 while the same is 11.88 per cent in the post-liberalization period i.e. from 1990-1991 to 2009-2010. The CAGR for the whole study period i.e. from 1972-1973 to 2009-2010 is estimated as 10.63 per cent. It can be concluded that trade reforms or trade liberalization in Bangladesh has positive impact on exports in Bangladesh. Chow Breakpoint test indicates that there is a structural change in exports of Bangladesh. The price elasticity of export supply is estimated at 0.25, the income elasticity of export supply is estimated at 0.50 and the gross fixed capital formation elasticity of export supply is estimated at 0.73. The estimated coefficient of liberalization dummy is very low (0.16) which is insignificant meaning that liberalization of trade has not significant impact on the export supply performance of Bangladesh. Therefore, the policy makers should be more cautious in designing the trade policy reforms in Bangladesh for reaping the full benefit of trade liberalization. The relative price of real export is negatively related to the demand of real export as expected and the relationship is statistically significant at 5 per cent level meaning that relative price is an important determinant of export demand.

Introduction:

The positive impact of trade liberalization export and growth is supported by a number of studies such as Little, Scitovsky and Scott (1970), Balassa (1971, 1982), Bhagwati (1978), Kruger (1978), Athukorala (1997), Ahmed (2001). A number of other studies show no or little link between trade performance and trade liberalization such as UNCTAD(1989), Agosin (1991), Clarke and Krikpatrick (1992), Greenway and Sappford

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(1994), Jenkins(1996). Bangladesh export trade is well responded with the intervention of trade liberalization programs. The average growth rate of export was about 7.07 per cent during the period from 1973-1974 to 1977-1978. GDP growth rate registered about 7.5 per cent which was slightly higher than export growth during the FFYP. During the SFYP export growth was achieved at around 5.0 per cent. In the TFYP and FFYP periods, export grew at an average rate of 11.27 per cent and 18.18 per cent respectively. The major export items are ready-made garments, knitwear, frozen foods, leather and leather products, jute and jute products, tea, ceramics, textile fabrics, home textiles, light engineering products including bicycles, handicraft and agro-based products. The higher growth rate of export was contributed by sharp increase of some non-traditional export items in the export basket such as Ready-Made Garments, Frozen Food, Specialized Textiles, Fertilizer etc. However, exports as a percentage of GDP were about 6.0 per cent and 9.0 per cent during these two plan periods. During the period from 1995-96 to 1999-2000 export grew continuously at an average growth rate of about 10.73 per cent while GDP growth rate was posted at about 5.27 per cent. Export as a percentage of GDP increased to 14.22 per cent. On the other hand, export as a source of import financing increased substantially. It was about 35.22 per cent in the FFYP and 30.37 per cent in the SFYP, while the rate was 58.0 per cent in the FFYP. In 1999-2000 export earnings was about 70 per cent of total import payments. This article analyses and explains the impacts of trade liberalization on exports in Bangladesh.

Review of Literature:

The impact of trade liberalization on trade performance in Bangladesh is still a relatively less researched area. Some studies examined the degree of trade liberalization in the context of Bangladesh economy². There have been no systematic and in-depth studies to examine the overall impact of trade liberalization on trade performance of Bangladesh. There are some relevant studies which have been carried out for other countries. The existing literatures, related to this study, are briefly reviewed in this section.

² Remarkable studies include: Ahmed (1999, 2001), Rahman (1992), Mahmood, Rahman and Hasan (1991), Dean, Desai and Ridel(1994), Hossain (1997), Alam (1995), Bayes, Hossain and Rahman (1995), World Bank (1996), Yilmaz and Varma (1994), Kabir (1988), Raihan (2007), Rimi, Aziz and Kakoly (2009).

Reza (1981) analyses the chronic trade deficit of Bangladesh arguing that the export base and export earnings are persistently very low over a long span of time. He finds out the performance of export sub-sector is very poor because of heavy concentration on few traditional items like raw jute, jute goods, tea, fish, leathers etc. Analyzing the trade figures from 1950 to 1978 he tries to show the problems and prospect of this sub-sector. He also focuses the employment potential and income distribution implications of export-oriented strategy of development. He also suggests for export-led growth strategy instead of import substitution growth strategy as a policy option³.

A. R. Bhuyan (1982) examines the prospect of non-traditional exports focusing on the imports of machinery and industrial raw materials. He shows that the demands for non-traditional items have been growing and there remains scope for modernization and expansion of this sub-sector⁴. He does not give details about the transformation and diversification of non-traditional exports. The policy reforms for improvement of exports have not been focused in this study.

Kabir (1988) estimated the aggregate import and export demand functions of Bangladesh using time series data for a sample period from 1973 to 1983. In his study, he chooses domestic price, foreign price, foreign exchange reserve, exchange rate as explanatory variables. He estimates the price elasticity and income elasticity of our exports and imports but he does not analyse the growth trend of export and imports and the impact of trade reforms⁵. The trade policy or reforms and its impact on the export performance have been ignored in this study.

Mahmood (1982) explains the possibilities of the export led growth in Bangladesh. He argues that a country like Bangladesh can achieve high standards of living only through industrialization and expansion of trade in manufacturing. Citing examples of South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong he mentions that Bangladesh should avoid import substitution industries and move to manufactured export because the demand for manufactured exports are more stable compared to traditional

³ Sadrel Reza, *The Export Trade of Bangladesh 1950-1978* (Dhaka: University of Dhaka, 1981).

⁴ A. R. Bhuyan, *Non-Traditional Exports of Bangladesh: Trends, Performance and Prospects* (Dhaka: Bureau of Economic Research, University of Dhaka, 1982).

⁵ R. Kabir, "Estimating Import & Export Demand Functions: The Case of Bangladesh", *The Bangladesh Development Studies*, Vol. 16, No. 4 (Dhaka: BIDS, 1988).

products. He argues that traditional exports suffer from supply inelasticity in the world market⁶. His study does not include the trade reforms and its impact on trade performance.

Talukdar (1983) analyses the diversification of export with reference to Ready Made Garments (RMG). He points out that Bangladesh has comparative advantage in RMG because of cheap labour. He opines that export earnings could be enhanced through promotion of RMG. This study places more weights on RMG export. But other developing countries have been enjoying comparative advantage in RMG. So, in order to face global challenges Bangladesh should diversify export base⁷.

Roy (1991) analyses the determinants of export performance of Bangladesh using an econometric analysis. He examines the causal relationship of the determining factors and export performance for Bangladesh. His study finds that the export performance of Bangladesh is associated with greater commodity diversification of exports. He shows that commodity exports have been diversified more over the years. Liberalization of trade and industrial policies has important consequences for the composition of exports as well as growth and stability⁸. But this study does not specifically cover the relationship between impact of trade liberalization and trade performance.

Raihan (2007) analyzed the dynamics of trade liberalization in Bangladesh⁹ in the context of policies and practices by using modern tools of economic analysis. He reviewed theoretical evidences between trade liberalization and economic growth, trade liberalization policies and programs in Bangladesh. He conducted a time-series evaluation of Bangladesh's trade liberalization in a changing perspective and in a global perspective, a dynamic panel econometric study on Bangladesh manufacturing industries, Short-run vs. Long-run Macro impacts of trade liberalization: an inter-temporal computable general equilibrium (CGE) model of Bangladesh. He has attempted to investigate the 'Trade Liberalization--Growth Nexus' in the context of the manufacturing

⁶ Wahiduddin Mahmood, "Possibilities of Export-led Growth in Bangladesh", The Bangladesh Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 6, No. 1 (Dhaka: 1982).

⁷ Md. Serajul Islam Talukdar, "Scope for the Diversification of Export Trade in Bangladesh with Special Reference to Ready Made Garments", Bank Parikrama, Vol. 8, Nos. 3, 4 (Dhaka: BIBM, 1983).

⁸ Dilip Kumar Roy, "Determinants of Export Performance of Bangladesh", The Bangladesh Development Studies, BIDS, Vol. 19, No. 4 (Dhaka: BIDS, 1991).

⁹ Selim Raihan, Dynamics of Trade Liberalisation in Bangladesh: Analyses of Policies and Practices (Dhaka: Pathak Shamabesh, 2007).

industries in Bangladesh and to explore the alternative options for the future direction of trade policy reform in Bangladesh.¹⁰

Ahmed (2001) analyzes the trends and impact of trade liberalization in Bangladesh. He examines the impact of trade liberalization on import demand, export supply, industrial growth of Bangladesh using modern time series method of co-integration and error correction modeling. In analyzing Bangladesh experience with trade liberalization he addresses a number of key issues such as nature and policy instruments of trade liberalization, the degree of trade liberalization, impact of trade liberalization on import demand, export supply, industrial growth and government revenue, and external constraints faced by Bangladesh. He finds that both at aggregate and commodity level the import is generally less sensitive to import price changes whereas export both at aggregate and commodity level are sensitive to real exchange rate and relative prices. Bangladesh export supply is found as price inelastic at both levels. Using ECM he finds that trade liberalization has significant role in improving the trade performance of Bangladesh.

Abedin (2004) analyses the policy measures taken by the Government of Bangladesh in the mid-1980s as the process of globalization. He discusses the origin, implementation process and effects of Structural Adjustment Programs as part of globalization process. He mentions that it has come into implementation since 1991 and the SAP has been partially successful in removing balance of payment problems, keeping inflation rate at reasonable rates, reducing budget deficits, promoting GDP growth rates and raising the growth rates of both exports and imports¹¹. He uses times series data for selected macro economic variables and draws clear comparison between pre-SAP and post-SAP situations.

Datt (2004) defines globalization as the process of integrating all economies of the world so that there is free movement of goods, services, technology, capital and even cross border movement of labour. Globalization has four parameters such as (i) reduction of trade barriers, (ii) free flow of capital, (iii) free flow of technology, (iv) free movement

¹⁰ Nasiruddin Ahmed, *Trade Liberalization in Bangladesh: An Investigation into Trends* (Dhaka: The University Press Limited, 2001).

¹¹ M. Zainul Abedin, "Structural Adjustment programs in Bangladesh: Their Origin, Implementations and Effects", *Economic Globalisation-Social Conflicts, Labour and Environmental Issues*, ed. by Clem Tisdell and Raj Kumer Sen (UK: Cheltenham, Edward Elgar), 2004, pp. 227-243.

of labour. He explains that the impact of globalization on Indian economy by showing its share in world exports raises from 0.54 per cent in 1990 to 0.67 per cent in 1999. Indian imports increases from 8.3 per cent of GDP in 1991-1992 to 12.3 per cent in 1995-1996¹².

Hossain and Alauddin (2005) examined the process of Bangladesh's trade liberalization and its impact on the growth and structure of exports, imports, GDP and other relevant macroeconomic variables with particular emphasis on exports¹³. This study provides an updated account of the various structural adjustment programs undertaken in Bangladesh including trade, fiscal, industrial and financial reforms, and explains how these reforms supplemented one another to promote greater market and export orientation. Various Indicators of trade liberalization show a substantial shift of the Bangladesh external trade regime and the resultant reduction in anti-export bias.

Rimi, Aziz and Kakoly¹⁴ empirically examined the export-led growth hypothesis on Bangladesh using co-integration and multivariate Granger Causality technique. The study findings support the export-led growth hypothesis that there are strong bi-directional causality between export growth and economic growth in Bangladesh. The bi-variables model with GDP as dependent variable and export as independent variable and the multivariate model with GDP as dependent variable and export and import as independent variables provides the similar result. They suggested for promoting exports to enhance the economic growth of Bangladesh.

Exports of Bangladesh:

Exports of Bangladesh in the pre-liberalization (1972-1989) and post-liberalization (1990-2010) regimes are shown in the Table 1:

¹² Ruddar Datt, "Globalisation, the WTO and its Impact on India: A Developing Country Perspective", *Economic Globalisation-Social Conflicts, Labour and Environmental Issues*, ed. by Clem Tisdell and Raj Kumer Sen (UK: Cheltenham, Edward Elgar), 2004, pp. 106-123.

¹³ Mohammad A. Hossain and Mohammad Alauddin, "Trade Liberalization in Bangladesh: The Process and Its Impact on Macro Variables Particularly Export Expansion", *Journal of Developing Areas*, Vol. 39(1), 2005.

¹⁴ Tamanna Afreen Rimi, Ahmed Tariq Aziz, and Israt Jahan Kakoly, "Export-Led Growth (ELG) Hypothesis: An Empirical Investigation on Bangladesh", *BISS Journal*, vol. 30(3), (Dhaka: BISS, 2009), pp. 335-350.

Table 1: Export of Bangladesh

Regime	Year	Export (Million US\$)	Growth Rate ¹⁵ (%)	5-yearly Moving Average Growth Rate ¹⁶ (%)	Export as % of GDP(%)
Pre-liberalization	1972-1973	348.42	-	-	4.22
	1973-1974	371.76	6.70	-	3.33
	1974-1975	382.68	2.94	3.73	2.79
	1975-1976	380.47	-0.58	7.41	4.47
	1976-1977	417.01	9.60	11.14	6.75
	1977-1978	493.74	18.40	14.77	5.15
	1978-1979	618.82	25.33	13.83	5.16
	1979-1980	749.44	21.11	9.55	5.81
	1980-1981	709.85	-5.28	7.81	5.72
	1981-1982	625.89	-11.83	6.36	5.49
	1982-1983	686.60	9.70	5.19	6.45
	1983-1984	810.99	18.12	3.78	5.86
	1984-1985	934.43	15.22	12.36	6.05
	1985-1986	819.21	-12.33	13.35	5.88
	1986-1987	1073.77	31.07	10.71	5.68
	1987-1988	1231.2	14.66	11.26	6.20
	1988-1989	1291.56	4.90	16.27	6.24
	1989-1990	1523.71	17.97	13.27	6.63
Post-liberalization	1990-1991	1717.55	12.72	14.24	5.49
	1991-1992	1993.92	16.09	14.53	6.35
	1992-1993	2382.89	19.51	18.34	7.39
	1993-1994	2533.9	6.34	18.16	7.46
	1994-1995	3472.57	37.04	17.70	9.13
	1995-1996	3882.42	11.80	17.16	9.54
	1996-1997	4418.28	13.80	16.48	10.41
	1997-1998	5161.2	16.81	10.73	11.70
	1998-1999	5312.86	2.94	10.85	11.60
	1999-2000	5752.2	8.27	6.60	12.16
	2000-2001	6467.30	12.43	5.12	13.76
	2001-2002	5986.09	-7.44	7.75	12.58
	2002-2003	6548.44	9.39	8.86	12.61
	2003-2004	7602.99	16.10	10.70	13.46
	2004-2005	8654.52	13.83	15.33	14.33
	2005-2006	10526.16	21.63	16.62	15.06
	2006-2007	12177.86	15.69	15.47	16.88
	2007-2008	14110.80	15.87	13.52	15.92
	2008-2009	15565.19	10.31	-	18.42
	2009-2010	16204.65	4.11	-	19.45

Source: EPB, Export Statistics (various issues), IMF, International Financial Statistics(various issues), GOB, Bangladesh Economic Review(various issues).

In 1972-1973 the export figure was only 348 million US\$. It has been increased over the years with fluctuations in the trend. It reached to 1523.71 million US\$ in 1989-1990 - the highest figure in the pre-liberalization period. The export was US\$ 1717 million in 1990-1991 which sharply rose to 3472.57 million US\$ in 1994-1995 with 37.04 per cent growth rate. The export growth was very impressive except few

¹⁵ Growth Rate = $[(X_t - X_{t-1})/X_{t-1}] \times 100$

¹⁶ 5-yearly Moving Average = $(Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3 + Y_4 + Y_5)/5$, $(Y_2 + Y_3 + Y_4 + Y_5 + Y_6)/5$ and so on.

exceptions. The export grew to 6467.30 million US\$ in 2000-2001 with 12.43% growth rate. The year 2005-2006 can be marked as an important year for our foreign trade as export reached to 10526.16 million US\$ i.e. one billion US\$ export is achieved for the first time. After that the export continued to grow even in the situation of global economic slowdown. In 2006-2007 the export was US\$ 12177.86 million with the growth rate of 15.69 per cent. The export rose to US\$ 15565.19 million in 2008-2009 from 14110.80 million US\$ in 2007-2008. The export grew at 4.11 per cent and reached to 16204.65 million US\$ in 2009-2010.

Exports as percentage of GDP were very low at single digit figures throughout the entire pre-liberalization period. It was 4.22 per cent in 1972-1973, 2.79 per cent 1974-1975, 6.45 per cent in 1984-1985 and 6.63 per cent in 1989-1990. On the other hand, it was about 7.46 per cent in 1993-1994, 9.54 per cent in 1995-1996, 10.41 per cent in 1996-1997, 13.46 per cent in 2003-2004, 15.06 per cent in 2005-2006 and 19.45 per cent 2009-2010. Therefore, the export as percentage of GDP substantially increased in the post-liberalization period. The 5-yearly moving average growth rates of exports were 3.73 per cent in 1974-1975, 11.14 per cent 1976-1977, 13.83 per cent in 1977-1978, 3.78 per cent 1983-1984, 12.36 per cent in 1984-1985, 16.27 per cent in 1988-1989 and 13.27 per cent in 1989-1990 in pre-liberalization period. Compared to the pre-liberalization period the 5-yearly moving average growth rates of export were higher in post-liberalization period. It was 14.24 per cent in 1990-1991, 18.16 per cent in 1993-1994, 17.16 per cent in 1995-1996. The lowest rates were observed in 2000-2001 (5.12 per cent) and 2002-2003 (8.86 per cent). The 5-yearly moving average growth rates of exports were 15.33 per cent in 2004-2005 and 13.52 per cent in 2007-2008.

Trade Performance and Trade Liberalization:

Export Propensity, Import Penetration and Trade Openness

The trade performance of a country can be evaluated by the Export Propensity, Import Penetration and Trade Ratio or Trade Openness. The three indicators are calculated for both pre-liberalization and post-liberalization regimes. The estimates are presented in Table-2.

Table 2: Export Propensity, Import Penetration and Trade Openness

Regime	Year	Export Propensity [(X/Y)] x100	Import Penetration [M/(Y+M-X)] x100	Export as % of Import	Trade Openness [(X+M)/Y] x100
Pre-liberalization	1973-1974	3.33	9.16	40.19	13.08
	1974-1975	2.79	7.35	27.28	10.46
	1975-1976	4.47	13.33	29.84	20.46
	1976-1977	6.75	10.27	47.66	17.42
	1977-1978	5.15	12.06	36.60	18.16
	1978-1979	5.16	12.34	39.77	18.51
	1979-1980	5.81	14.87	54.62	22.26
	1980-1981	5.72	15.14	28.02	22.55
	1981-1982	5.49	16.17	24.33	23.72
	1982-1983	6.45	15.57	29.74	23.70
	1983-1984	5.86	14.10	34.47	21.32
	1984-1985	6.05	13.59	35.30	20.82
	1985-1986	5.88	12.75	34.65	19.63
	1986-1987	5.68	12.47	40.98	19.11
	1987-1988	6.20	13.03	41.23	20.26
	1988-1989	6.24	13.66	38.27	21.07
	1989-1990	6.63	13.91	40.53	21.72
Post-liberalization	1990-1991	5.49	10.60	49.50	16.69
	1991-1992	6.35	10.73	57.58	17.60
	1992-1993	7.39	12.06	59.78	20.09
	1993-1994	7.46	11.80	59.62	19.84
	1994-1995	9.13	14.48	59.52	24.51
	1995-1996	9.54	15.74	55.89	26.44
	1996-1997	10.41	15.87	61.69	27.31
	1997-1998	11.70	16.21	68.60	28.78
	1998-1999	11.60	16.54	66.26	29.12
	1999-2000	12.16	16.82	68.45	29.93
	2000-2001	13.76	18.72	69.28	33.63
	2001-2002	12.58	17.02	70.09	30.54
	2002-2003	12.61	17.55	67.80	31.22
	2003-2004	13.46	18.23	69.73	32.76
	2004-2005	14.33	20.27	65.83	36.11
	2005-2006	15.06	21.92	71.38	38.90
	2006-2007	16.88	23.37	70.98	42.22
	2007-2008	15.92	24.56	65.24	43.30

Notes: X = Export, M= Import, Y = GDP

Source: Estimated from Appendix Table A 1.1 & A 1.2.

The export propensity is ranged from the lowest 2.79% in 1974-1975 to the highest 6.76% in 1976-1977 in the pre-liberalization regime while it is ranged from the lowest 5.49% in 1990-1991 to the highest 16.88% in 2006-2007 in the post-liberalization regime. The import penetration is ranged from the lowest 7.35% in 1974-1975 to the highest 16.17% in 1981-1982 in the pre-liberalization regime while it is ranged from the lowest 10.60% in 1990-1991 to the highest 24.56% in 2007-2008 in the post-liberalization regime. The trade openness is ranged from the lowest 10.46% in 1974-1975 to the highest 23.72% in 1981-1982 in the pre-liberalization regime while it is ranged from the lowest 16.69% in 1990-1991 to the highest 43.30% in 2007-2008 in the post-liberalization

regime. Export as percentage of import has substantially increased during the post-liberalization period. The lowest value was achieved as 24.33% in 1981-1982. It reaches as high as 71.38% in 2005-2006. The trend growth rate (TGR) of export propensity, import penetration and trade openness of Bangladesh during the pre-liberalization and post-liberalization regimes are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: TGR of Export Propensity, Import Penetration and Trade Openness

Period	Export Propensity (%)	Import Penetration (%)	Trade Openness (%)
Pre-Liberalization	3.25	2.22	2.43
Post-Liberalization	5.87	4.50	5.13
Overall	4.29	1.92	2.63

Note:

1. $TGR = [Anti-log \text{ of estimated } b - 1] \times 100$, L means natural logarithm
2. The estimated coefficients are highly significant since the p-value of the estimated coefficients are found 0.000 except Trade Openness Coefficient in Pre-liberalization period (0.013).

Source: Table 2

The trend growth rate of export propensity is found 3.25 per cent during the pre-liberalization period which has significantly increased to 5.87 per cent during post-liberalization period. The trend growth rate of import penetration is found higher in the post-liberalization period (4.50%) as compared to the pre-liberalization period (2.22%). The trend growth rate of trade openness of Bangladesh is found more than double in post-liberalization period (5.13%) as compared to the pre-liberalization period (2.43%). The overall trend growth rates of export propensity, import penetration and trade openness are found 4.29 per cent, 1.92 per cent and 2.63 per cent respectively. It can be concluded that export propensity, import penetration and trade openness of Bangladesh has significantly increased in the post-liberalization period.

Growth Trend of Exports:

The trend growth rate (TGR) and compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of exports are estimated separately for the pre-liberalization and post-liberalization regimes as well for the entire study period from 1972-1973 to 2009-2010. The estimates are presented in the Table 4. It is observed that the TGR of exports in the pre-liberalization regime i.e. from 1972-1973 to 1989-1990 is 8.81 per cent while the same is 11.90 per cent in the

post-liberalization period i.e. from 1990-1991 to 2009-2010. The TGR for the whole study period i.e. from 1972-1973 to 2009-2010 is estimated as 11.56 per cent. It indicates that the growth rates of exports are higher in the post-liberalization period.

On the other hand, it is observed from Table 4 that the CAGR of exports in the pre-liberalization regime i.e. from 1972-1973 to 1989-1990 is 8.54 while the same is 11.88 per cent in the post-liberalization period i.e. from 1990-1991 to 2009-2010. The CAGR for the whole study period i.e. from 1972-1973 to 2009-2010 is estimated as 10.63 per cent. It can be concluded that trade reforms or trade liberalization in Bangladesh has positive impact on exports in Bangladesh.

Table 4: Trend Growth Rates and Compound Annual Growth Rates for Exports

Period	Estimated Trend Regression	TGR ¹ (%)	CAGR ² (%)
Pre-liberalized 1972-1973 to 1989-1990	LX= 5.71 + 0.084T	8.81	8.54
Post-liberalized 1990-1991 to 2009-2010	LX= 5.45 + 0.112T	11.90	11.88
Overall 1972-73 to 2009-2010	LX= 5.50 + 0.109T	11.56	10.63

Note:

1. TGR = [Anti-log of estimated b - 1] X 100, L means natural logarithm

2. CAGR = [Ending Value/Beginning Value]^{1/N} - 1

Source: Estimated from Table 1.

Test of Hypothesis:

Using t-test the following hypothesis is tested whether trade liberalization has positive impact on export growth in Bangladesh.

H₀: There is no change in export growth between pre and post trade liberalization regimes.

H₁: There is significant positive change in export growth between pre and post trade liberalization regimes.

The t-test is performed on the basis of trend regression of the pre-liberalization and post-liberalization periods.

$$t_{37df} = (b_1 - b_2) / \sqrt{(seb_1)^2 + (seb_2)^2}$$

Here, b₁ = slope coefficient of time variable in the pre-liberalization period, b₂ = slope coefficient of time variable in the post-liberalization

period, se = standard error of slope coefficient. Now by putting the values in the formula the t-statistic is computed as:

$$t_{37df} = (0.037 - 0.049) / \sqrt{(0.002)^2 + (0.002)^2} = -4.26$$

Decision: The table value of t-statistic at 37 degree of freedom is 1.65 and the absolute value of calculated t-statistic is 4.26. Since the calculated value is higher than the critical t-value so the null hypothesis H_0 is rejected and the alternative hypothesis H_1 is accepted at 5 per cent significance level implying that the export is significantly increased in the post-liberalization regime.

Chow Breakpoint Test:

The structural change in export of Bangladesh to the liberalization of trade is tested by Chow Test using the F-test :

$$F = \frac{(R_{ss} - (RSS1 + RSS2)/k)}{(RSS1 + RSS2)/(n1 + n2 - 2k)}$$

Table 4: Chow Breakpoint Test: 1989

Test	Test Statistics	P-value
F-statistic	14.86	0.000
Log likelihood ratio	23.86	0.000

Chow Breakpoint test is conducted based on 1989-90 and it is found that F-statistic is greater than F critical value at 2, 34 degree of freedom and the p-value 0,000 indicates that the null hypothesis H_0 of structural stability is rejected. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a structural change in exports of Bangladesh. The growth trends of export and import are presented in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 for pre-liberalization period and post-liberalization period respectively.

Figure 1: Growth Trend of Export and Import in Pre-Liberalization Regime

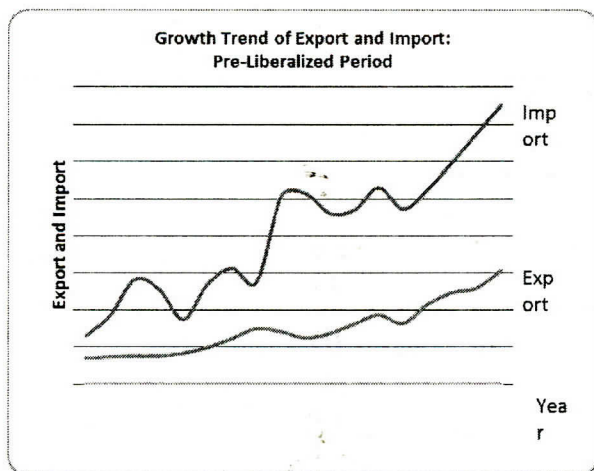
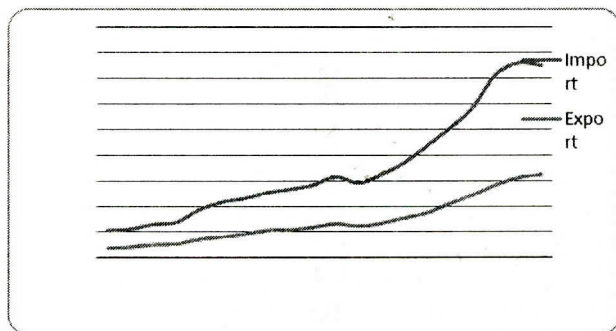


Figure 2: Growth Trend of Export and Import in Post-Liberalization Regime



Instability of Exports:

The instability is measured separately by using Coppock's Instability Index (CII) for pre-liberalization period and post-liberalization period. The CII is also measured for the overall study period. The estimate results are shown in the following table. It is evident from the value of CII that the exports of Bangladesh in pre-liberalization period is more instable as compared to post-liberalization period as expected. The CII is computed as 11.56% for the pre-liberalization period and 7.76% for the post-

liberalization period. The overall CII is 10.00% for the study period (Table 6).

Table 6: Instability of Exports

Period	Coppock Instability Index(CII) in %
Pre-liberalized 1972-1973 to 1989-1990	11.56
Post-liberalized 1990-1991 to 2009-2010	7.76
Overall 1972-1973 to 2009-2010	10.00

Note: CII = [Anti-log /log variance- 1] X 100.

Source: Estimated from Table 1.

Growth Trend of Major Export Commodities:

The growth trend of major commodities such RMG, Tea, Leather, Frozen Foods, Jute Manufacture, Raw Jute and Pharmaceuticals etc. are estimated. A comparison between the growth rates of RMG and Non-RMG exports as well as Primary and Manufactured exports are also estimated. The structural stability is tested by 'Chow Break point Test'.

Growth Trend of RMG and Non-RMG Exports:

The Trend Growth Rates and the Compound Annual Growth Rates for Exports of RMG and Non-RMG Commodities are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Trend Growth Rates and Compound Annual Growth Rates for Exports of RMG and Non-RMG Commodities

Period	Estimated Trend Regression	TGR ¹ (%)	CAGR ³ (%)
Pre-liberalization 1976-1977 to 1989-1990	LNRMG = 6.22 + 0.042T LRMG = -3.86 + 0.834T	4.27 130.27	5.63 112.13
Post-liberalization 1990-1991 to 2009-2010	LNRMG = 5.53 + 0.076T LRMG = -5.12 + 0.130T	7.89 13.91	7.64 14.27
Overall 1976-1977 to 2009-2010	LNRMG = 6.07 + 0.02T LRMG = -0.037 + 0.055T	5.65 40.21	6.63 48.86

- Note: 1. TGR = [Anti-log of estimated b - 1] X 100
2. log means natural logarithm
3. CAGR = [Ending Value/Beginning Value]^{1/N} - 1

Source: Researcher's Own Calculation.

The trend growth rate of RMG in the pre-liberalization regime is 130.27 per cent while the same is 13.91 per cent in the post-liberalization regime. The trend growth of RMG export for the entire study period is 40.21 per cent. The trend growth rate of non-RMG exports was 4.27 per cent in the pre-liberalization regime and 7.89 per cent in the post-liberalization

regime. The trend growth of non-RMG export for the entire study period was 5.65 per cent.

Chow Breakpoint Test for RMG Export:

The structural change in export of RMG and Non-RMG due to the liberalization of trade is tested by Chow Test (Table 8).

Table 8 : Chow Breakpoint Test for RMG: 1989

Test	Test Statistics	P-value
F-statistic	205.18	0.000
Log likelihood ratio	91.33	0.000

The critical value of F at 2 and 30 degree of freedom (Fdf 2, 30) is 19.5 at 5% and 99.5 at 1% level of significance. Since the calculated value of F equals to 205.18 is greater than the critical values of F at both 5% and 1% level of significance, the null hypothesis of no structural change is rejected. It can be concluded that there is presence of statistically significance structural breakpoint in the exports of RMG between pre-liberalization and post-liberalization periods.

Chow Breakpoint Test for Non-RMG Export:

The Chow test is also conducted for exports of Non-RMG commodities by using the same procedure and the calculated F is found as 9.78 and p value is 0.000 (Table 9).

Table 9: Chow Breakpoint Test for Non-RMG: 1989

Test	Test Statistics	P-value
F-statistic	9.78	0.000
Log likelihood ratio	17.07	0.000

The calculated F-statistic is greater than the critical value of F at 2, 30 degree of freedom (Fdf 2, 30) is at both 5% and 1% level of significance. Since the calculated value of F is greater than the critical values of F at both 5% and 1% level of significance, the null hypothesis of no structural change is rejected. So it can be concluded that there is also structural breakpoint in the exports of Non-RMG.

Growth Trend of Primary and Manufactured Exports:

The Trend Growth Rates for Exports of Primary and Manufactured Commodities are shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Trend Growth Rates for Exports of Primary and Manufactured Commodities

Period	Estimated Trend Regression	TGR ¹ (%)
Pre-liberalization 1972-1973 to 1989-1990	LPEX= 4.90 + 0.053T	5.41
	LMEX = 5.16 + 0.099T	10.45
Post-liberalization 1990-1991 to 2009-2010	LPEX= 4.68 + 0.054T	5.59
	LMEX = 5.18 + 0.119T	12.58
Overall 1972-1973 to 2009-2010	LPEX= 4.94 + 0.046T	4.70
	LMEX = 4.97 + 0.124T	13.20

Note: TGR = [Anti-log of estimated b - 1] X 100

Source: Researcher's Own Calculation.

The trend growth rate of export of primary commodities was 5.41 per cent in the pre-liberalization regime while the same was 5.59 per cent in the post-liberalization regime. The trend growth of export of manufactured commodities was 10.45 per cent in the pre-liberalization period and the same was 12.58 per cent in the post-liberalization period. The trend growth of export of primary commodities for the entire study period was 4.70 per cent while the trend growth rate of the export of manufactured commodities was 13.20 per cent. Therefore, it can be concluded that the export of manufactured commodities increased in the post-liberalization period as compared to the export of primary commodities.

Chow Breakpoint Test for Export of Primary Commodities:

The structural stability of the export of primary commodities is tested by chow breakpoint test (Table 11).

Table 11 : Chow Breakpoint Test for Export of Primary Commodities: 1989

F-statistic	2.089972	Prob. F(2,34)	0.139297
Log likelihood ratio	4.406096	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.110466

The test result confirms that there exists no structural breakpoint in the series of exports of primary commodities from Bangladesh during the study period. Since the F-statistic is 2.089 which is lower than the F-

critical value and it is also confirmed by the p-value equals to 0.139 which is greater than any level of significance (α).

Chow Breakpoint Test for Export of Manufactured Commodities:

The structural stability of the export of manufactured commodities is tested by chow breakpoint test (Table 12).

Table 12: Chow Breakpoint-Test for Export of Manufactured Commodities: 1989

F-statistic	11.04789	Prob. F(2,34)	0.000201
Log likelihood ratio	19.02660	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.000074

The test result confirms that there exists structural breakpoint in 1989 in the series of exports of manufactured commodities from Bangladesh during the study period. Since the F-statistic is 11.04 which is higher than the F-critical value and it is also confirmed by the p-value equals to 0.000 which is lower than any level of significance (α).

Growth Trend of Exports of Selected Commodities.

The growth trend of exports of selected commodities such as leather, jute goods, frozen foods and pharmaceuticals are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Growth Trend of Exports of Selected Commodities¹⁷:

1972 - 2010

Exports	Estimated Trend Equations		
	Pre-liberalization 1972-1989	Post-liberalization 1990-2010	Overall 1972-2010
Tea	TEA= 2.97 + 0.057T TGR ¹ (%) = 5.85	LTEA=5.70 - 0.093T TGR ¹ (%) = (-) 9.69	LTEA=3.76- 0.025T TGR ¹ (%) = (-) 2.51
Leather	LLHR=2.91 + 0.122T TGR ¹ (%) = 13.02	LLHR=4.57+ 0.025T TGR ¹ (%) = 2.53	LLHR=3.46- 0.065T TGR ¹ (%) = 6.66
Jute Manufactures	LJMF=5.29 + 0.034T TGR ¹ (%) = 3.46	LJMF=5.48+ .0075T TGR ¹ (%) = 0.75	LJMF= 5.51 + .007T TGR ¹ (%) = 0.78
Raw Jute	LJMF= 4.83 - .0080T TGR ¹ (%) = (-) 0.81	LJMF=3.53+ .0365T TGR ¹ (%) = 3.72	LJMF= 4.71 - .002T TGR ¹ (%) = (-) 0.28
Frozen Foods	LTEA=1.34 + .0235T TGR ¹ (%) = 26.48	LTEA= 4.00 + .06T TGR ¹ (%) = 6.29	LFF= 2.39 + .0119T TGR ¹ (%) = 12.64
Pharmaceuticals	LPHAR=-3.00+ .048T TGR ¹ (%) = 4.89	LPHAR=-3.89+ .21T TGR ¹ (%) = 22.88	LPHAR=-4.31+ .21T TGR ¹ (%) =23.74

- Note: 1. TGR = [Anti-log of estimated b - 1] X 100
2. Log means natural logarithm

Source: Researcher's own calculation.

Market Concentration of Bangladesh Exports:

The export of Bangladesh is not only concentrated by products but also by destination. More than 50 per cent of total export is gone to only five countries such as the USA, the UK, Germany, France and Belgium. Here

¹⁷ Tea, Leather, Jute Goods, Frozen Foods and Pharmaceuticals.

the growth trend of country wise export and the share of total export are analyzed. The share of exports to the above mentioned five countries in total exports is shown in Table 6.14.

Table 14: Share of Exports of Five Countries in Total Exports.

Year	Total Export (in Mn US\$)	Exports to Five Countries (in Mn US\$)	Share in Total Exports (%)
1972-1973	348.42	140.21	40.20
1977-1978	493.74	136.61	27.70
1982-1983	686.60	161.12	23.50
1987-1988	1231.20	559.48	45.40
1992-1993	2382.89	1432.64	60.10
1997-1998	5161.20	3459.28	67.00
2002-2003	6548.44	4462.11	68.10
2007-2008	14110.80	8580.92	60.80
2008-2009	15565.19	9263.82	59.50

Source: Researcher's Own Calculation.

The share of exports of five countries was 40.20 per cent in 1972-1973, 27.70 per cent in 1977-1978, 23.50 per cent in 1982-1983, 45.40 per cent in 1987-1988 during the pre-liberalization regime. On the other hand, the share of exports of the same five countries was 60.10 in 1992-1993, 67.00 per cent in 1997-1998, 68.10 per cent in 2002-2003, 60.80 per cent in 2007-2008 and 59.50 per cent in 2008-2009 during the post-liberalization regime. It is evident that the export of Bangladesh is heavily concentrated in the five markets.

The trend growth rates of exports to major destination is presented in Table 15. The TGR of exports to the USA was 12.84 per cent in the pre-liberalization period and 10.69 per cent in the post-liberalization period. The TGR of exports to the UK was 6.50 per cent in the pre-liberalization period and 13.66 per cent in the post-liberalization period. The TGR of exports to the Germany was 14.3 per cent in the pre-liberalization period and 16.15 per cent in the post-liberalization period.

Table 15: Trend Growth Rates of Exports to Major Destination.

Country	Period	Estimated Trend Equation	TGR ¹
USA	Pre-liberalization	$3.57 + 0.121T$	12.84
	Post-liberalization	$4.61 + 0.102T$	10.69
	Overall	$3.49 + 0.138T$	14.87
UK	Pre-liberalization	$3.11 + 0.063T$	6.50
	Post-liberalization	$2.66 + 0.128T$	13.66
	Overall	$2.59 + 0.127T$	13.57
Germany	Pre-liberalization	$1.38 + 0.135T$	14.39
	Post-liberalization	$2.27 + 0.149T$	16.16
	Overall	$0.99 + 0.190T$	20.95
France	Pre-liberalization	$1.59 + 0.071T$	7.34
	Post-liberalization	$2.40 + 0.123T$	13.07
	Overall	$0.87 + 0.169T$	18.57
Belgium	Pre-liberalization	$2.45 + 0.121T$	9.09
	Post-liberalization	$2.61 + 0.098T$	10.31
	Overall	$2.30 + 0.108T$	11.35
Total Five Countries	Pre-liberalization	$1.37 + 0.209T$	23.23
	Post-liberalization	$0.56 + 0.004T$	0.41
	Overall	$1.42 + 0.325T$	38.40

Note: TGR = [Anti-log of estimated b - 1] X 100

Source: Researcher's Own Calculation.

The TGR of exports to the France was 7.34 per cent in the pre-liberalization period and 13.07 per cent in the post-liberalization period. The TGR of exports to the Belgium was 9.09 per cent in the pre-liberalization period and 10.31 per cent in the post-liberalization period. The overall trend growth of exports to the five countries was 38.40 per cent.

The degree of market concentration of Bangladesh's export is measured by Herfindhal and Finger-Kreinin market concentration indices is presented in Table 6.16. The higher the value of the index, the high the degree of concentration. The concentration is based on exports to five countries.

Table 16: Market Concentration of Bangladesh Export

Year	Herfindhal (H) Index	Finger-Kreinin(FK) Index
1972-1973	0.162	0.101
1977-1978	0.076	0.038
1982-1983	0.055	0.017
1987-1988	0.206	0.127
1992-1993	0.361	0.201
1997-1998	0.449	0.235
2002-2003	0.464	0.241
2007-2008	0.369	0.204
2008-2009	0.354	0.198

Note: $H = \sum_{a=1}^n \left(\frac{BX_a}{BXW} \right)^2$; $0 < H < 1$

$FK = \sum_{a=1}^n \left(\frac{BX_a}{BXW} - \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 / 2$; $0 < FK < 1$

Source: Estimated from Table 11.

Here H represents Herfindhal Index and FK represents Finger-Krenin Index. BX_a means Bangladesh export to country 'a' while BX_W means Bangladesh export to the world. Both the indices are constructed based on Bangladesh exports to major five countries. The Herfindhal Index is 0.162 in 1972-1973 which becomes lower to 0.076 in 1977-1978 and 0.055 in 1982-1983. The index has jumped to 0.206 in 1987-1988 and it has been on increasing trend becoming 0.464 in 2002-2003. The Herfindhal Index based on five countries has become slightly lower in recent years such as 0.369 and 0.354 in 2007-2008 and 2008-2009 respectively. On the other hand the Finger-Krenin Index is estimated as 0.101 in 1972-1973, 0.038 in 1977-1978, 0.017 in 1982-1983, 0.127 in 1987-1988. It has sharply increased to 0.201 in 1992-1993, to 0.235 in 1997-1998, to 0.241 in 2002-2003. The Finger-Krenin Index has declined slightly to 0.204 in 2007-2008 and 0.198 in 2008-2009. It is clearly seen in the Table 16 that market concentration has been increased in respect to the five countries concerned substantially during the post-liberalization period.

Econometric Approach of Model Estimation:

The aggregate export demand model is specified as:

$$LRX_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 LRPX_t + \beta_3 LWY_t + \beta_4 LIBD_t + \varepsilon_t, (\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2))$$

[LRX_t = Real Exports in log form, $LRPX_t$ = Relative Price of Exports in log form, LWY_t = World Income in log form, $LIBD_t$ = Liberalization Shift Dummy, ε_t = Error Term, β = Coefficients]

Test of Stationary of the Variables of Aggregate Export Demand Model:

To check the Stationarity of the variables, except the liberalization dummy, Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) tests have been conducted both at levels and at the first difference of each variable of the Aggregate Export Demand Model of Bangladesh.

ADF Unit Root Test

Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test of the Aggregate Export Demand Model is shown in Table 17.

Table 17: ADF Unit Root Test of Export Demand Model
Null Hypothesis: H_0 ; The concerned variable has a unit root

Variables	Level / First Difference	Intercept	Intercept and Trend	Conclusion
LRX	Level	-0.554 (0.986)	-2.859 (0.186)	I(1) and I(1) Non-stationary
	First Difference	-6.976 (0.000)	-6.971 (0.000)	I(0) and I(0) Stationary
LRPX	Level	-1.122 (0.696)	-3.690 (0.035)	I(1) and I(1) Non-Stationary
	First Difference	-8.591 (0.000)	-8.470 (0.000)	I(0) and I(0) Stationary
LRWY	Level	-4.080 (0.003)	-1.380 (0.849)	I(0) and I(1) Inconclusive
	First Difference	-5.195 (0.000)	-5.944 (0.000)	I(0) and I(0) Stationary

Note:

1. ADF test Critical Values for model with intercept: -3.62 for 1% level of significance, -2.94 for 5% level of significance and -2.61 for 10% level of significance.
2. ADF test Critical Values for model with intercept and trend: -4.23 for 1% level of significance, -3.54 for 5% level of significance and -3.20 for 10% level of significance.
3. Unit Root Tests are performed by Econometric Software E-Views 5.0.
4. Figures in Parenthesis show p-values.

It is observed from the above ADF test (Table 17) that most of the variables are non-stationary at the level for model with intercept and intercept and trend. But it is interesting to note that all the variables are I(0) i.e. stationary at the first difference for model with intercept and intercept and trend.

Co-integration Test:

The Co-integration test conducted by maximum eigenvalue is shown in Table 18. The null hypothesis of 'no cointegrating relationship ($r = 0$)' is rejected at 5% level of significance. The other cases of null hypotheses are not rejected at any level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is only one cointegrating vector at 5% level of significance.

Table 18: Johansen Co-integration Test Based on Maximum Eigenvalue
Trend assumption: Linear deterministic trend Unrestricted Cointegration
Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesis		Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen Statistics	0.05% Critical Value	p-value**
Null	Alternative				
$r^* = 0$	$r = 1$	0.496	24.70	24.14	0.042
$r = 1$	$r = 2$	0.338	14.88	17.79	0.130
$r = 2$	$r = 3$	0.228	9.32	11.22	0.105
$r = 3$	$r = 4$	0.001	0.43	4.12	0.864

Note: Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

The Co-integration test conducted by trace test is shown in Table 19. The null hypothesis of 'no cointegrating relationship ($r = 0$) is rejected at 5% level of significance. The other cases of null hypothesis are not rejected at any level. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is only one cointegrating vector at 5% level of significance.

Table 19: Johansen Co-integration Test Based on Trace Test Trend
Assumption: Linear Deterministic Trend Unrestricted Cointegration
Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesis		Eigenvalue	Trace Statistics	0.05% Critical Value	p-value**
Null	Alternative				
$r^* = 0$	$r = 1$	0.496	48.96	40.17	0.005
$r = 1$	$r = 2$	0.338	24.25	24.27	0.050
$r = 2$	$r = 3$	0.228	9.37	12.32	0.148
$r = 3$	$r = 4$	0.001	0.04	4.12	0.864

Note: Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Granger Causality Test of Export Demand:

The casual relationship among the variables of the aggregate export demand model is presented in Table 6.33. It reveals that there is no casual relationship between Real Export Demand (RX) and Relative Price of Export (RPX). There is no casual relationship between Real World Income (RWY) and Real Export Demand. Real World Income has granger cause to relative price of Export. Relative price has granger cause to liberalization.

Table 20: Granger Causality Test of the Aggregate Export Demand Model

Sl.	Null Hypothesis	F-Statistics	Probability
1	LOG(RPX) does not Granger Cause LOG(RX)	0.81225	0.45308
2	LOG(RX) does not Granger Cause LOG(RPX)	1.31245	0.28370
3	LOG(RWY) does not Granger Cause LOG(RX)	1.47351	0.24473
4	LOG(RX) does not Granger Cause LOG(RWY)	0.32837	0.72257
5	LIBD does not Granger Cause LOG(RX)	1.21910	0.30927
6	LOG(RX) does not Granger Cause LIBD	1.80791	0.18086
7	LOG(RWY) does not Granger Cause LOG(RPX)	4.15660	0.02516
8	LOG(RPX) does not Granger Cause LOG(RWY)	0.22468	0.80006
9	LIBD does not Granger Cause LOG(RPX)	1.71090	0.19733
10	LOG(RPX) does not Granger Cause LIBD	3.65275	0.03763
11	LIBD does not Granger Cause LOG(RWY)	0.79221	0.46180
12	LOG(RWY) does not Granger Cause LIBD	2.34717	0.11241

Note: Lag=2, Observation=35

Table 21: Direction of Causality Based on Granger Test

Null Hypothesis	Results	Conclusion
H ₀ : 1	Accepted	Relative Price of Export has no Granger cause to Real Export Demand.
H ₀ : 2	Accepted	Real Export Supply has no Granger cause to Relative Price of Export.
Direction of Causality		No casual relationship
H ₀ : 3	Accepted	Real World Income has no granger cause to Real Export Demand.
H ₀ : 4	Accepted	Real Export Demand has no Granger cause to Real World Income.
Direction of Causality		No casual relationship
H ₀ : 5	Accepted	Liberalization has no Granger cause to Real Export Demand
H ₀ : 6	Accepted	Real Export demand has no Granger cause to Liberalization
H ₀ : 7	Rejected	Real World Income has no Granger cause to Relative Price
H ₀ : 8	Accepted	Relative Price has no Granger cause to Real World Income
H ₀ : 9	Accepted	Liberalization has no Granger cause to Relative Price
H ₀ : 10	Rejected	Relative Price has Granger cause to Liberalization
H ₀ : 11	Accepted	Liberalization has no Granger cause to Real World Income
H ₀ : 12	Accepted	Real World Income has no Granger cause to Liberalization

Source: Researcher's Own Calculation.

Estimation of Export Demand Model by OLS:

The export demand model is run by OLS method because all the variables are stationary at the first difference and they are cointegrated. The estimates are shown in Table 22.

$$LRX = -3.73 - 0.70LRPX + 1.53LRWY + 0.25LIBD$$

Table 22: Regression Results of Export Demand Model Dependent Variable: LOG (RX)

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-3.73	1.45	-2.58	0.015
LOG(RPX)	-0.70	0.32	-2.22	0.033
LOG(RWY)	1.53	0.32	4.78	0.000
LIBD	0.25	0.12	2.13	0.040
Test Statistics				
R-squared	0.95	Mean dependent var		3.23
Adjusted R-squared	0.94	S.D. dependent var		0.78
S.E. of regression	0.18	Akaike info criterion		-0.50
Sum squared resid	1.09	Schwarz criterion		-0.33
Log likelihood	13.51	F-statistic		226.19
Durbin-Watson stat	1.95	Prob(F-statistic)		0.000

All estimated coefficients are in expected sign and all are statistically significant (Table 6.35). The R^2 of the model is very high i.e. 0.95 and adjusted- R^2 is 0.94. It signifies that about 95 per cent variation in the dependent variable i.e. demand of real export (RX) is explained by the independent variables i.e. relative price of export demand (RPX), real income of the World (RWY) and Liberalization Dummy (LIBD). The DW statistic is high i.e. 1.95 and the F-statistics of the model is computed as 226.19. The mean of the dependent variable in logarithm is found as 3.23 and the standard deviation is 0.78. The relative price of real export is negatively related to the demand of real export as expected and the relationship is statistically significant at 5 per cent level meaning that relative price is an important determinant of export demand. The coefficient of real world income is positive meaning that the demand of real export has positively related with real world income and the relationship is statistically significant at 1 per cent level. The estimated coefficient of liberalization dummy is very low (0.25) but it is significant at 5 per cent level meaning that liberalization of trade has significant impact on the export demand performance of Bangladesh. So the policy makers should be more cautious in designing the trade policy reforms in Bangladesh for reaping the full benefit of trade liberalization.

The trend of Real Export, Real World Income and Relative price of Export is shown in Figures 6.6, 6.7 and 6.8. The real export demand has a smooth upward trend with some drifts. The world income has increasing trend with minor fluctuations. The relative price has declining trend.

Vector Error Correction Model for Export Demand Model:

The estimated coefficients of VECM for aggregate export demand function is shown in Table 6.36. The short run elasticity of real export

demand is -0.250 with respect to real export at one lag and it is statistically significant at 5 per cent. The short run elasticity of real export demand is -0.076 with respect to relative price at one lag and it is statistically significant. The short run elasticity of real export demand is -0.643 with respect to real world income at one lag but it is not statistically significant. The short run elasticity of real export demand is 0.232 with respect to liberalization dummy is 0.15 and it is statistically significant at 5 per cent level of significance.

Table 23: Vector Error Correction Model for Export Demand Model

Dependent Variable: $\Delta \text{Log (RX)}$

Method: Engle Granger Vector Error Correction

Repressors	Coefficients	T-statistics	Test Statistics	
C (Intercept)	0.092	1.59	R-squared	0.650
Log(RX)(-1)	-0.250	-0.89	Adj. R-squared	0.423
Log(RX)(-2)	-0.028	-0.11	Sum sq. resids	0.403
Log(RPX)(-1)	-0.076	-0.33	F-statistic	16.30
Log(RPX)(-2)	0.176	0.85	D.W.	1.55
Log(RWY)(-1)	-0.643	0.48	Ramsey RESET	0.045
Log(RWY)(-2)	0.397	0.327	HET	2.60
LIBD(-1)	0.150	2.45	Log likelihood	21.12
LIBD(-2)	-0.053	-0.539	Akaike AIC	-1.001
ECT(-1)	-0.18	-1.94	Schwarz SC	-0.558

Source: Estimated from Appendix Table A.

The ECT is found negative (-0.18) means that any short run disequilibrium of mode will be converged in the long run. However, the low magnitude of the coefficient indicates the slow speed of adjustment.

Vector Auto Regression Model for Aggregate Export Demand Model

The estimated coefficients of VAR for aggregate export demand function is shown in Table 6.37. The short run coefficient of real export demand is 0.622 with respect to its own value at one lag and it is statistically significant at 5 per cent. The short run coefficient of real export demand is -0.362 with respect to relative price at one lag and it is statistically significant at 5 per cent. The sign of the coefficient is consistent with the usual demand law. The coefficient of real export demand is 1.01 with respect to real World Income at one lag which is statistically significant at 5 per cent level. The sign of this coefficient is consistent with law of income demand and it is greater than unity means the export demand is highly responsive with foreign income. The short run coefficient of real export demand is 0.095 with respect to liberalization dummy at one lag and it is statistically significant at 5 per cent.

Table 24: VAR Estimates Aggregate Export Demand Model

Dependent Variable: Log (RX)

Repressors	Coefficients	T-statistics	Test Statistics	
C (Intercept)	-1.94	-1.99	R-squared	0.605
Log(RX)(-1)	0.622	2.33	Adj. R-squared	0.366
Log(RX)(-2)	0.196	0.76	Sum sq. resids	0.403
Log(RPX)(-1)	-0.362	-0.15	F-statistic	376.30
Log(RPX)(-2)	-0.266	1.42	Log likelihood	44.01
Log(RWY)(-1)	1.01	0.80	Akaike AIC	-1.94
Log(RWY)(-2)	-0.464	-0.39	Schwarz SC	-1.54
LIBD(-1)	0.095	1.96	D.W.	1.75
LIBD(-2)	0.056	0.57	Ramsey RESET	0.032

Source: Estimated from Appendix Table A 1.1.

Short run and Long Run Elasticity of Aggregate Export Demand:

The short run and long run elasticities are shown in Table 6.38. The long run price elasticity of export demand is estimated -0.58 while income elasticity is 1.63. The short run price elasticity and income elasticity are -0.36 and 1.01 respectively. The income elasticity of export found in other studies is 1.58 (Emran and Shilpi, 1996), 1.83 (Islam and Hasan, 2004), 4.19 (Ahmed, 2001). The income elasticity of this study is consistent with other studies except Ahmed's study. The price elasticity of export demand is -0.58 which is consistent with the estimates of other studies such as -0.72 (Emran and Shilpi, 1996), -0.77 (Ahmed, 2001).

Table 25: Long Run and Short Run Elasticity of Aggregate Export Demand

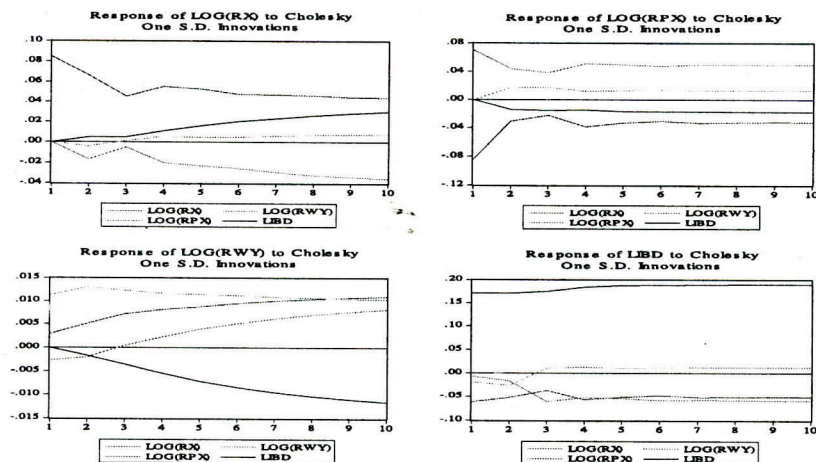
Dependent Variable: Log(RX)		
Variables	Short Run	Long Run
Log(RPX)	-0.36	-0.58
Log(RWY)	1.01	1.63
LIBD	-0.09	-0.152

Source: Table 24

Impulse Responses based on VECM Model:

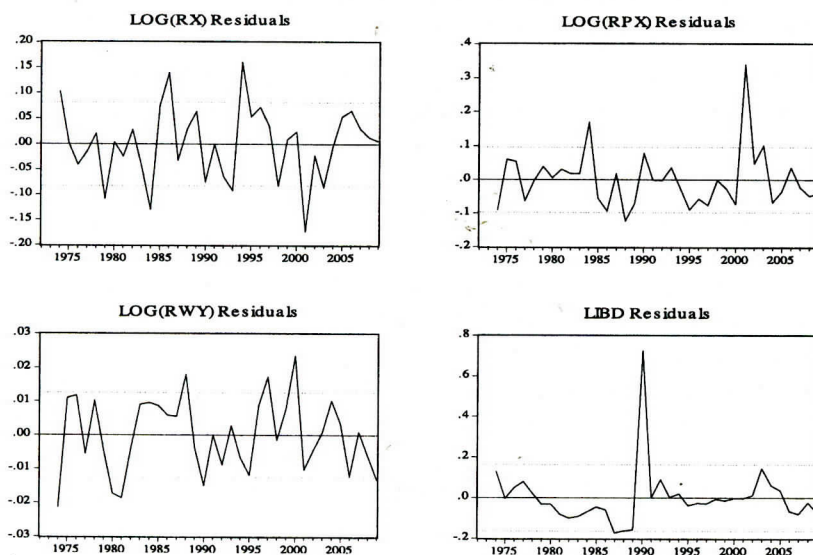
The impulse responses of the variables in VECM are presented in Figure 3. The impulse responses imply that the variables move 'too far away' from each other independently instead of moving together. The independent variables are responded with real export demand in a divergent way. The response of relative price to other variables is found uncorrelated and divergent. In case of real World Income other variables move independently. The response of liberalization dummy indicates that the variables move independently.

Figure 3: Impulse Responses of the Export Demand Model in VECM



Source: Estimated from Appendix Table A 1.1.

Figure 4: Residuals of Export Demand Model



Source: Estimated from Appendix Table A

Conclusion:

This chapter analyses and explains the impacts of trade liberalization on exports in Bangladesh. It is observed that the TGR of exports in the pre-liberalization regime i.e. from 1972-1973 to 1989-1990 is 8.81 per cent while the same is 11.90 per cent in the post-liberalization period i.e. from 1990-1991 to 2009-2010. The TGR for the whole study period i.e. from 1972-1973 to 2009-2010 is estimated as 11.56 per cent. It indicates that the growth rates of exports are higher in the post-liberalization period. On the other hand, it is observed that the CAGR of exports in the pre-liberalization regime i.e. from 1972-1973 to 1989-1990 is 8.54 while the same is 11.88 per cent in the post-liberalization period i.e. from 1990-1991 to 2009-2010. The CAGR for the whole study period i.e. from 1972-1973 to 2009-2010 is estimated as 10.63 per cent. It can be concluded that trade reforms or trade liberalization in Bangladesh has positive impact on exports in Bangladesh. Chow Breakpoint test indicates that there is a structural change in exports of Bangladesh. It is evident from the value of Coppock Instability Index (CII) that the exports of Bangladesh in pre-liberalization period is more instable as compared to post-liberalization period as expected.

The price elasticity of export supply is estimated at 0.25, the income elasticity of export supply is estimated at 0.50 and the gross fixed capital formation elasticity of export supply is estimated at 0.73. The estimated coefficient of liberalization dummy is very low (0.16) which is insignificant meaning that liberalization of trade has not significant impact on the export supply performance of Bangladesh. Therefore, the policy makers should be more cautious in designing the trade policy reforms in Bangladesh for reaping the full benefit of trade liberalization. The relative price of real export is negatively related to the demand of real export as expected and the relationship is statistically significant at 5 per cent level meaning that relative price is an important determinant of export demand. The coefficient of real world income is positive meaning that the demand of real export has positively related with real world income and the relationship is statistically significant at 1 per cent level. The estimated coefficient of liberalization dummy is very low (0.25) but it is significant at 5 per cent level meaning that liberalization of trade has significant impact on the export demand performance of Bangladesh. The next chapter deals with the impacts of trade liberalization on trade balance.

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Table A: Export, Import, Real Export, Real GDP, Relative Price of Export Supply, Real Gross Capital Formation, Real World Income, Relative price of Export Demand, Real Effective Exchange Rate of Bangladesh.

Year	Export (million US\$)	Import (million US\$)	RX (million US\$)	RGDP (million Taka)	RPXs (1995-96 = 1.00)	RGCF (million Taka)	RWY (1995- 96 = 100)	RPXd (1995- 96 = 1.00)	REER (1995-96 = 100)	LIBD
1972-73	348.42	650	74.46	19081	0.85	1140	50	1.74	90.00	0
1973-74	371.76	925	57.96	28993	1.15	2240	54	1.96	100.00	0
1974-75	382.68	1403	89.04	27808	1.10	5541	55	1.69	114.00	0
1975-76	380.47	1275	122.89	29382	1.25	4316	58	1.59	90.00	0
1976-77	417.01	875	163.75	30167	1.28	5104	61	1.61	101.00	0
1977-78	493.74	1349	155.51	32301	1.30	6443	63	1.6	138.00	0
1978-79	618.82	1556	159.86	33852	1.37	8106	66	1.68	156.00	0
1979-80	749.44	1372	158.82	34130	1.41	9028	68	1.86	137.00	0
1980-81	709.85	2533	212.08	35288	1.46	10603	69	2	146.00	0
1981-82	625.89	2572	268.61	35722	1.52	11825	70	1.51	155.00	0
1982-83	686.6	2309	337.44	37470	1.56	12783	72	1.34	170.00	0
1983-84	810.99	2353	315.15	39503	1.58	13431	75	1.22	178.00	0
1984-85	934.43	2647	319.76	40693	1.66	14714	78	1.2	172.00	0
1985-86	819.21	2364	475.17	42459	1.68	15601	81	1.36	145.00	0
1986-87	1073.77	2620	516.87	44234	1.69	16641	84	1.12	170.00	0
1987-88	1231.2	2986	534.25	45513	1.70	17998	87	1.13	155.00	0
1988-89	1291.56	3375	635.82	46661	1.72	19092	91	1.16	163.00	0
1989-90	1523.71	3759	722.29	49753	1.74	20431	93	1.11	162.00	0
1990-91	1717.55	3470	724.25	51444	1.78	21723	94	1.11	151.00	1
1991-92	1993.92	3463	879.87	53619	1.79	22031	95	1.05	179.00	1
1992-93	2382.89	3986	961.12	145568	1.85	23010	96	1.02	140.00	1
1993-94	2533.9	4250	1029.09	151514	1.81	25201	98	0.93	120.00	1
1994-95	3472.57	5834	1345.29	158976	1.84	27558	99	0.92	88.00	1
1995-96	3882.42	6947	1385.70	166324	1.00	30067	100	0.92	75.00	1
1996-97	4418.28	7162	1641.95	175285	1.86	33254	103	0.94	90.00	1
1997-98	5161.2	7524	1843.35	184448	1.92	36939	107	0.99	88.00	1
1998-99	5312.86	8018	1773.95	193429	1.93	41395	109	1.2	76.00	1
1999-00	5752.2	8403	2121.29	204928	1.95	45489	112	1.5	78.00	1
2000-01	6467.3	9335	2694.62	215735	1.98	48800	117	2.1	65.00	1
2001-02	5986.09	8540	2511.90	225261	2.10	51616	118	2.5	55.00	1
2002-03	6548.44	9658	2633.45	237101	2.15	55829	120	1.6	62.00	1
2003-04	7602.99	10903	3001.78	251968	2.30	60221	123	1.7	67.00	1
2004-05	8654.52	13147	3686.37	266975	2.38	65740	127	1.8	70.00	1
2005-06	10526.16	14746	4905.18	284673	2.45	72776	130	1.9	72.00	1
2006-07	12177.86	17157	6448.95	302971	2.25	78808	131	1.7	76.00	1
2007-08	14110.8	21629	5773.69	321726	2.20	85481	134	0.99	90.00	1
2008-09	15565.19	22507	6258.98	340197	2.34	87024	136	0.89	85.00	1

Source: IMF, International Financial Statistics (various issues).GOB, Bangladesh Economic Review (various issue).EPB, Export Statistics (various issues). Bangladesh Bank, Economic Trends (various issues).

The Coordination of Power and Authority between the UZP Chairman and the Local MP: Strategies and Policies for Success

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Abstract: The present Upazila is a substitute to the earlier 'Thana' or the Police Station rendered by the then President H.M. Ershad in 1983-84 to establish it as an elected organ of local self-government in Bangladesh. Subsequently an election was held in 1985 to elect a Chairman for the 'Upazila Parishad' (UZP) what was working up to 1991. From 1991 to 2009, the UZP had no functioning existence. Through an election, on 22 January, 2009, the UZP once again came into a functioning existence along with a Chairman and two Vice-Chairmen one of whom was female from a reserved seat for female. On this second phase of functioning, the UZP is facing a severe crisis of exercising authority over the UZP activities because of a conflicting position of the UZP Chairmen- Vice Chairmen and the local MPs. This paper has worked to find out the probable alternatives through which the public representatives of a locality at an Upazila (namely, the UZP Chairman, the UZP Vice-Chairman and the local MP) would become happy and pleased with their status and authority over the UZP to perform their best for the betterment of the local people and of the UZP.

Introduction:

There is no alternative for an effective UZP without the coordination of power and authority between the UZP Chairman and the local MP. This coordination is needed not only for an effective UZP but also for a peaceful local life. Because the lack of coordination or absence of coordination between these two authorities creates multi-dimensional problems and those problems has been setting up the back ground of multi-dimensional and peculiar conflict in local areas. The socio-economic and political developments at the local areas have been hampered due to this problem in the mean time. So, how to surmount this problem is being considered as an important issue. It is believed that proper and effective strategies and policies can terminate these severe problems of the UZP and the UZP can play an effective role for the local socio-economic and political developments. The strategies and policies that are derived from the suggestions and observations of concerned quarters i.e. the experts on the local self-governments and development, elected representatives of the UZP, the MPs, and the bureaucrats and from the experience of the research staff gathered through the field work are presented below.

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Goals of the Study

- a) To examine the present and previous structure and executive powers of the Upazilla for making development plan and implementation at the root level.
- b) To find out the previous and latest picture of the conflict regarding power and authority between the UZP Chairmen and the MPs.
- c) To know and examine the attitude of the Civil Society, the Media, the Social Workers, the Bureaucrats and the Representatives.
- d) To point out the possible reactions of maladjustment on the legal power and authority between the UZP Chairmen and local MPs and
- e) To point out the possible reactions of maladjustment on the legal power and authority between the UZP Chairmen and the UNOs.

Objectives of the Study

- a) To point out and to offer probable techniques and mechanism for the coordination of mutual legal power and authority between the UZP Chairmen and the local MPs and
- b) To point out and to offer probable legal techniques and mechanism for the coordination of mutual power and authority between the UZP Chairmen and the UNOs.

Research Methodology

To collect necessary data and information of the research following techniques were followed:

1. Collecting data and information

- a) Primary sources of data and information: the Civil Society, the Media, the Social Workers, the Bureaucrats and the Representatives.
- b) Secondary sources of data and information: Published books, Articles, unpublished research works, media reports and government documents.
- c) Techniques to collect data and information:

- I. Fixed questionnaire along with probable alternative answers.
- II. Undeclared communication system to collect personal and official information of the MPs, the UZP Chairmen and the UNOs.
- III. In case of necessity some speech were recorded.

2. Analyzing the data and information

Collected primary and secondary data and information were classified and presented in the table using average and percentage in the light of research works conducted in the Social Sciences.

3. Area of research

Two main figures, the MPs and the elected UZP Chairmen were selected basing the primary observations considering their cold and warm relations form different Upazillas of six administrative Divisions of the country along with the UNOs. The number of interviews of the UNOs, the UP Chairmen, Development Workers, Media persons and the Civil Society would be near about 300.

The Conceptual Framework

The terminologies like Local Government, Local Self-government, Upazilla Parishad (UZP), the UZP Chairman, the Member of the Parliament (MP), Power and Authority etc. would be used frequently and significantly in this research work, This research will mainly give the concentration on the classical definition and implementation of power and authority.

The terms Local Government and Local Self-government are old enough and these have been defined elaborately. These two terminologies and ideas are used as synonymous by many Academics and Experts and by the Government even in different State documents. This is simply a wrong use and application of significantly different terminologies.

It is agreed that a Local government is a local administrative structure of the Central government and it follows, any way, the Central government.

A Local Self-government is an arrangement what is elected by the local voters and controlled by them.

The Upazilla means an administrative unit of Bangladesh introduced by

the then military ruler Mr HM Ershad replacing the then Thanas in 1984-85.

1. The Upazilla Parishad (UZP) means a rural local self-government unit of Bangladesh formed with the elected representatives (presently one Chairman, two Vice Chairmen and the elected Chairmen of Union Parishads-UPs) of that Upazilla .

The Upazilla Parishad (UZP) Chairman means the person elected by the people (voters) of that Upazilla area.

2. The Member of the Parliament-MP means a representative elected by the people of a constituency out of the 300 constituencies of Bangladesh for the Membership of the central legislature named Jatiyo Sangsad officially what is translated in English as the Parliament (to this author, this is another State-level wrong use-a misnomer as no Noun should be translated in a different language). There are some women elected from the 'reserved women seats' also called MP. They are elected in a different way.

Power and Authority are the two elaborately discussed and controversial terminologies in sociology. There is a close relation between the Power and Dominance. Sociologist Lasswell and Kaplan have distinguished Power and Dominance minutely. Regarding Power, they have said, it is nothing but comparatively committed deception and patronization for the change of others behaviors. According to their description, power is nothing but the rights under the specific branches of law.

In Sociology and in Political Philosophy the word Authority is used as power, dominance and leadership. According to Philosopher De Jouvenel Bertrand, 'the concept of authority is an older idea than the State and fundamental. Authority can be explained traditionally from the context of Law as the legal and just power, right of command and right to perform something.

The meaning of Authority in the administration and management is the right of command. The subordinates perform according to the command of the Boss to achieve the goals of the organization. The basis of responsibility is the authority. Sense of responsibility doesn't generate without the authority. According to the Sociologists, 'the authority is the capability to influence the decision.'

In this present research, all the legal and formal rights of the UZP Chairmen and the MPs are considered as the Authority. On the other hand, all the informal and undeclared abilities to be practiced personally due to their position by the UZP Chairmen and the MPs would be identified as the Power.

Limitations

Firstly, the UZP has recently been reestablished through the election. So the evaluations and the observations-suggestions on the UZP might be risky in terms of fruitfulness due to an insufficient scope of observations and exercises.

Secondly, the study was conducted on a small scale. So the results or findings of this study might be considered insufficient to generalize.

The Local MP as the Advisor to the UZP

The local MPs were very much active and involved with the various local development activities from the British-Indian period. That was a usual practice and duty as well for them. So the involvement of the local MPs in the local development activities was not a matter of question at all. This very question came in the scenario after the introduction of the UZP replacing the earlier Thanas. The active and authoritative involvement of the local MPs in the local development activities became a matter of question when the provision of an elected authority responsible for the local developments is made. Because the authoritative involvement (as the Advisor having VETO and decisive authority) of the local MPs became an overlapping authority with the elected UZP, namely with the authority of the Chairmen and the Vice-Chairmen of the UZP. The very overlapping authority is creating and spreading conflicts among the local MPs and the elected Chairmen and Vice-Chairmen of the UZPs causing inactiveness of the UZPs and multi-dimensional problems at the grass-roots of the country.

The local MPs and the Chairmen of the UZPs commit during the election campaign to the local people to undertake few local development activities most of what are overlapping. To have and continue support of the local people the local MPs need to be involved in the local development activities and to undertake those development activities they need authority and power at the Upazilla or their constituency level. The local MPs fear, if they are seen detached from the local development

activities, they would be failing to attract their voters in the next or future elections. So all the MPs, the MPs of treasury bench and the opposition, are united or of the same opinion to have authority over the decision making process of the UZPs as all the governmental resources are allotted for the local developments through the UZPs only. The UZP Chairmen are mainly elected for the overall developments of their own Upazilla. It is their primary business. On the contrary, at least theoretically, main jobs of the MPs are to contribute in law making and ensuring the accountability of the Executive branch of the government. But, it is considered often, detachment of the MPs from the local development activities would cause their defeat in the following election. So the active or authoritative participation in the local development activities of the MPs is very much important for their political existence. The question is how to ensure an authoritative presence of the UZP Chairmen in their Upazilla-based development activities keeping the local MPs as the guardians upon the same. In simple words, what are the policy suggestions to ensure a sound and healthy coordination between the UZP Chairman and the local MP in terms of their authoritative and respectful participation in the development activities at the Upazilla level?

Proposals for the Coordination between the UZP Chairman and the local MP

Some suggestions for the coordination between the UZP Chairman and the local MP are offered by the UZP Chairmen to the researchers of this project during the field work. They want an effective UZP with the cooperation of the local MP. They consider that the UZP Chairmen are not only responsible for the local development; MPs are also responsible for this. Both of them will not only be defeated in the following election but also be hated by the public if they do not play a proper role in the local developments, they add. At the same time they observe that the MPs can not possess all the Upazilla matters leaving or ignoring the elected UZP body that are also empowered by the same voters of the Upazilla. They want cooperation from the local MPs and coordination with them in a formal and legal way to maintain their power and authority. How the power and authority of the UZP Chairman and the local MP can be coordinated between them are projected in the following table.

Table: 1

Distribution of the UZP Chairmen and the MPs according to their opinion about the coordination between the UZP Chairman and the MPs

Opinion of the UZP Chairmen & the MPs	Number of respondents		Percentage (%)	
	Chairman	MP	Chairman	MP
Yes	22	07	84.61	100
No	02	0	7.69	0
Not response	02	0	11.53	0
Total	26	07	100%	100%

Table 1 shows that 22 (84.61%) UZP Chairmen, out of 26, have given a positive response in this regard. They think that the coordination between the UZP Chairmen and the local MP is possible and desirable as well. But what would be the way of coordination is the burning issue till now. How to satisfy the parties concerned is the point of consideration or the real challenge. In spite of this challenge the UZP Chairmen want coordination with the local MPs. And for this, they have offered some proposals: 1. powers-authority and the development allotment for the Upazilla should be distributed between the UZP Chairman and the local MP, opine 09 UZP Chairmen (40.91%), 2. The limit of power and authority should be identified for the UZP Chairman and the local MP, opine 07 UZP Chairmen (31.81%), 3. the local MPs might be set as an ornamental Advisor on the UZP and they would participate in and motivate the local development activities, consider 04 UZP Chairmen (18.81%). 4. The local MPs should be given a certain amount of development fund and nothing else, opine 02 UZP Chairmen (9.09%).

On the other hand 02 UZP Chairmen (7.69%) are negative in this regard. They think, the coordination between the UZP Chairmen and the local MPs is neither possible nor desirable. They have also mentioned that the MPs should be involved more in active law making process.

This table also shows that 100% respondent MPs has given positive response in this context. They did not ignore the necessity of coordination between the UZP Chairmen and the local MPs. They have given some proposals as 1. there should be a long-term planning specifying the priorities of implementation along with an implementation schedule prepared jointly by them- the UZP Chairman and the local MP, 05 MPs (71.42%) suggest, 2. 01 MP (14.28%) has suggested that the UZP

Chairman should participate in the local developments under the leadership of the local MP. 3. 01 MP (14.28%) has suggested that the limit of power and authority should be identified between the UZP Chairman and the local MP for an effective UZP.

This table reveals that the MPs also want an effective UZP as like as the UZP Chairmen. But the MPs have a lot of interests to participate in the local development functions. For this reason they want power and authority at the UZP along with the UZP Chairmen.

Table: 2

Classification of three categories of respondents according to a proposal that all the decisions and functions of the UZP will be planned and implemented by the UZP Chairman and the local MP will taking care of those

Opinion of the respondents	Number of the respondents			Percentage (%)		
	Chairman	MP	UNO	Chairman	M.P	UNO
Yes, Do support	06	02	02	23.07	28.57	10.52
No, Do not support	09	03	09	34.61	42.85	47.36
Considerable as an experimental	09	02	05	34.61	28.57	19.23
No comment	01	0	03	3.84	0	15.78
No response	01	0	0	3.84	0	00
Total	26	07	19	100 %	100%	100%

Table 2 shows that the proposal (that all the decisions and functions of the UZP will be planned and implemented by the UZP Chairman and the local MP will taking care of those) has been supported by 06 (23.07%) UZP Chairmen, 02 (28.57%) MPs and 02 (10.52%) UNOs. They think that this formula may be able to remove present problems and crises of the UZP and make it effective. On the other hand this proposal has not been supported by 09 (34.61%) UZP Chairmen, 03 (42.85%) MPs and 09 (47.36%) UNOs. The UZP Chairmen view that only elected body of the UZP is the real authority for making decision, doing functions and taking care over Upazilla system. And they have a lot of capabilities, skills and public support for that. So, this proposal can not be supported. The MPs view that they have been elected with a lot of commitments to the local people and it is time to fulfill those commitments. But it will not be possible if they do not get power and authority at the UZP, they opine.

The UNOs View that the UZP and the UZP Chairman are not the same. One is the institution and another is an individual. It is a misconception that an effective UZP depends on an unlimited power to be exercised by the UZP Chairman. So, the decisions will have to be taken jointly by the local MP and the UZP Chairman and be activated according to the specific rules and regulations of the UZP.

This table also shows that 09 (34.61%) UZP Chairmen, 02 (28.57%) MPs and 05 (19.23%) UNOs have opined that it is considerable as an experimental proposal. Through an experiment the proposal would be proved as working or dysfunctional.

01 (3.84%) UZP Chairman and 03 (15.78%) UNOs has expressed that they have no comment in this context. 01 UZP Chairman (3.84%) did not give any response on this proposal.

Table: 3

Classification of three categories of respondents according to their proposal on coordination in local development functions between the UZP Chairman and the local MP

Proposal	Number of respondents			Percentage (%)		
	Chairman	MP	UNO	Chairman	MP	UNO
Joint initiatives for short-term	06	02	0	23.07	28.57	0
Joint initiatives for mid-term	03	02	03	11.53	28.57	15.78
Joint initiatives for long-term	09	02	05	34.61	28.57	26.31
Joint initiatives guided by the central government	06	01	07	23.07	14.28	36.84
Different function area for both	0	0	01	0	0	5.26
Coordination is possible when it maintains democratic spirit	0	0	01	0	0	5.26
MPs will have to be engaged only in law making process	0	0	01	0	0	5.26
No proposal	02	0	01	07.69	0	5.26
Total	26	07	19	100%	100%	100%

Table 3 shows that a proposal of joint initiatives for a short-term planning, implementing and monitoring has been supported by 06 (23.07%) UZP Chairman and 02 (28.57%) MPs. They think, it would ensure a proper coordination.

Joint initiatives for a mid-term planning, implementing and monitoring over the Upazilla development activities have been proposed by 03 (11.53%) UZP Chairmen, 02 (28.57%) MPs and 03 (15.78%) UNOs.

They consider, it would be better effective than a short-term arrangement.

Joint initiatives for long-term planning, implementing and monitoring over the Upazilla development activities have been proposed by 09 (34.61%) UZP Chairmen, 02 (28.57%) MPs and 05 (26.31%) UNOs. They argue that a long-term arrangement is more effective than a short-term or a mid-term arrangement for local development in developing countries.

Joint initiatives guided by the central government have been proposed by 06 (23.07%) UZP Chairmen, 01 MP (14.28%) and 07 (36.84%) UNOs. Every plan and implementation will have to be guided/controlled by the central government since the budget for the local development comes from the same, they argue.

Different function areas for the both (i.e. the UZP Chairman and the local MP) have been proposed by 01 UNO (5.26%) because, to him, coordination between the local MP and the UZP Chairman is never possible.

Coordination is possible when it maintains democratic spirit is the opinion of 01 (5.26%) UNO. Lack of democratic spirit is responsible for the absence of coordination between them, he mentions.

The MPs will have to be engaged only in law-making process, opines 01 (5.26%) UNO. The MPs have been elected by the people to make laws for the nation, not to interfere in local development activities, he argues.

02 UZP Chairmen (7.69%) and 01 MP (5.26%) did not respond on this item.

Relation

Any kind of coordination depends on good relation. In spite of limitation of laws, a positive relation can make a positive step toward the development. So, for the sake of local development at the Upazilla level, development of relation among the UZP Chairman, the local MP and the respective UNO is very much important and expected. Such kind of relation may create a sense of responsibility in them to speed-up a rhythm in local socio-economic and political development. The reality is that the UZP could not be effective due to a lack of good relation among the UZP Chairman, the local MP and the respective UNO. Moreover the relation

has been affected again and again because of the newly introduced Act, rules and regulations in this context. The political or ideological similarity of the persons concerned can enhance a good and positive relation at the local level. But it is observed during the field work that the relation among the persons concerned is being deteriorated.

Table: 4

Distribution of the UZP Chairmen and the MPs on getting any advantage from each other due to a member of same political party

Type of response	Number of respondents		Percentage (%)	
	Chairman	MP	Chairman	MP
Yes	03	01	11.53	14.28
No	10	05	38.47	71.44
Not mention	13	01	50	14.28
Total	26	07	100	100

Table 4 shows that 03 UZP Chairman (11.53%) and 01 MP (14.28%) has given positive response in this context. All of them are the members of ruling party Awami League. 03 (11.53%) UZP Chairmen have unofficially informed this research team that they enjoy a lot of advantages from the respective MPs though 13 UZP Chairmen out of 26 respondents are the members of Awami League. Rest 10 (38.46%) 'Awami Leaguer' UZP Chairmen did not admit to enjoy any extraordinary privilege. The allotments were provided to them according to the rules and regulations, they claim. This table also shows that 13 (50%) UZP Chairmen and 01 MP (14.28%) did not respond on this question.

Table: 5

Distribution of the UNOs about their relation with the UZP Chairman and the local MP

UNOs' Opinion	Number of respondents		Percentage (%)	
	Chairman	MP	Chairman	MP
Cooperative	15	16	78.96	84.22
Non cooperative	0	0	0	0
Competitive	0	0	0	0
Indifferent	01	0	5.26	0
Official	01	01	5.26	5.26
Working	01	01	5.26	5.26
No mention	01	01	5.26	5.26
Total	19	19	100%	100%

Table 5 shows that the relation with the UZP Chairman and the local MP have been identified as cooperative, respectively, by 15 (78.96%) and 16 (84.22%) UNOs. This good relation is very important for a working environment what is maintained by them with the local MP and the UZP Chairman. There is 01 (5.26%) UNO on each item to identify the relation with the UZP Chairman and the local MP as official and working while relation with 01 UZP Chairman was identified as indifferent by an UNO. 01 UNO did not respond on this item.

Proper Training

Training is an important way to improve personal skill for administrative and development functions. In addition, it is much more important to develop a proper leadership to help progress of a positive change as a whole. The question of administrative capability of the UZP Chairmen has been raised. This question may be raised about the MPs lacking a direct experience of administration. Administrative skill can not be acquired in a short time. The jurisdiction and the concepts of power and authority, responsibilities and functional procedures are not clear enough to most of the UZP elected persons. The government would be responsible for the lacking of authentic and specific activities would be performed by the UZP authorities. So, the government should make training policies quickly for the leaders of local self-governments to inspire, encourage and dedicate them to their responsibilities as well as authorities. The ultimate goal of this training is to grow confidence and commitment to develop local areas.

Creative training methods and functions may be taken in this regard. So, use of information technology (IT) for training of local government leaders is considered as a good way for creative training.

Powerful Autonomous Commission for Local Self-government

Forming a powerful local self-government commission can solve a lot of problems not only for the UZP but also for other local self-governments like Union Parishad, Pourosova, City Corporation. All the local self-governments of Bangladesh would be directed by the laws which will be framed by the Commission. The budget of local self-governments, the allotment policy and implementation framework as well as project observation would be approved by the Commission. In addition, any kind of objection against the local self-governments or its members will be reviewed and settled by the Commission. There would be no scope of

interference upon the local self-government bodies by the government or other authorities. Moreover dependency of the local self-governments might be reduced and transparency and accountability of the elected authorities would be ensured by the Commission. Though there is no debate about such a Commission but a strong national consensus is needed for that immediately. The debate should be raised in this regard introducing a Bill in the Parliament and participation of the Opposition Parties on this debate should be ensured. In addition government will have to collect opinion from all the groups of people through the website of the Parliament, if necessary. Needless to say that a lot of questions about the issue of empowerment of local self-government will be settled when a 'local government Commission' will be formed on the opinion of all quarters of people. So, the government should take a quick step in this regard.

Table: 6

Distribution of the UZP Chairmen and the UNOs according to their opinion to establish a powerful Local Self-government Commission

Type of answer	Number of respondents		Percentage (%)	
	Chairman	UNO	Chairman	UNO
Yes	25	11	96.15	57.89
No	0	05	0	26.32
Not mention	01	03	3.85	15.79
Total	26	19	100	100

Table 6 shows that the demand to establish a powerful Local Self-government Commission has been supported by 25 UZP Chairmen (96.15%). They want a strong and sustainable local self-government commission which will not frequently change its stands as per government wishes. The respondents in this category have mentioned arguments in their favor such as: 1. a powerful local self-government commission can play an active and effective role for the development of local self-governments in Bangladesh through which democracy will get a strong foundation by its proper nursing {12 UZP Chairmen (48%) out of 25}, 2. a local self-government commission can build a permanent, acceptable and strong structure for the local self-governments what is necessary for a sustainable and powerful local self-government {09 UZP Chairmen (36%) out of 25}. 3. the practice, development and foundation of democracy will be strong {03 UZP Chairmen (12%) out of 25}, 4. 01 UZP Chairman (4%) thinks that a local self rule will not be hampered due

to the change of the country rulers if the Commission is established. So, the Commission will have to be formed coping/picking-up the honest, dedicated, intellect and expert personalities for this reason.

On the other hand only 01 UZP Chairman (3.84%) has not given any response in this regard.

This table also shows that 11 UNOs (57.89%) out of 19 UNOs have given a positive response in this regard. They think that a powerful local self-government needs a powerful Commission. This Commission will play a significant role for making necessary rules and regulations and protecting interest of the local self-governments. On the other hand 05 (19.23%) UNOs out of 19 UNOs have given a negative response in this regard. They have mentioned arguments in their favor such as: powerful local self-governments need democratic spirit, values and patience to different views. The representatives of local self-government like the UZP Chairmen and Vice Chairmen have already failed to show such type of spirit, values and patience to the government. The government is being threatened by the UZP Chairmen and Vice Chairmen's unlimited and unexpected demands. So a Local Government Commission is an unnecessary institution.

Specific Areas of Power and Authority

The power and authority might be specified not only for the UZP Chairmen and the local MPs but also for the Vice Chairmen and UNOs through the rules and regulations. Generally an MP would play his/her role in the Parliament for local developments presenting project proposals, local problems and seeking adequate budget to meet those in the House and in other appropriate places. In addition, an MP can help the UZP for making and implementing short-term and long-term plan. Moreover, an MP can ensure the accountability of the UZP including its Chairman and Vice Chairman investigating the project or development activities.

All the people obviously and unanimously want development of their respective area. So, if any development takes place because of the positive steps of an MP, the local people would and must appreciate the MP and his/her efforts. Similarly the UZP Chairman would perform his responsibilities respecting necessary advices of the local MP. Obviously both of them are not only elected by the people but also committed to them for local developments. Like the UZP Chairman, the local MP has

right to participate in the local development activities. So, both of them should keep open the opportunity to take part in local development functions for each other. This is why both of them need coordination in exercise of power and authority. Needless to say that nothing is positive where conflict and clash is present what is a reality of the UZP in present time.

Power and authority of the UZP exercised by the UZP Chairman and supervised by the local MP

The UZP will take initiatives to implement and monitor all development activities in local level as the local self-government of respective Upazilla. All those functions must be lead by the UZP Chairman as elected head of the UZP. This character of the UZP is universal as a local self-government. At the same time, every system has its own nature and the UZP in Bangladesh has the same. The exercise of power by the local MPs over their constituencies/localities has a historical background. This practice is being exercised from the time immemorial. This is why it is complicated to stop this practice. It is time to settle a balanced relationship between the UZP Chairman and the local MP. For this reason there is no way except coordination between them- suggested by the policy makers, politicians and the civil societies.

The planning and implementation of all the decisions and functions of the UZP will be made by the UZP Chairman as the autonomous body. Role of the local MP is an important and significant matter in local socio-economic and political developments. Therefore coordination needed between them for solving the existing crisis at the UZP. The MPs might be happy if they get the power to supervise and monitor all kinds of UZP functions like planning, decision making and implementation what would pave the way to reach a mutual understanding.

Joint consent and signature of the local MP and the UZP Chairman should be mandatory in social participation and development activities at the Upazilla

The option mentioned above (Joint consent and signature of the local MP and the UZP Chairman should be mandatory in social participation and development activities at the Upazilla) for the coordination between the UZP Chairman and the local MP might be considered as a significant policy to ease the existing crisis at the UZP. The local MPs want to ensure their participation in the local socio-economic and political activities and

developments and they desire the leadership. On the other hand, the UZP Chairman and the UZP may want unconditional right of power and authority as the legal elected leadership. In such a situation the option mentioned above may work satisfying both the desiring parties to enjoy power and authority over the UZP. In this arrangement each of them is supposed to give proper attention to local development activities with psychological peace. The idea was presented before the respondents of three categories and a mixed response was found.

Table: 7

Distribution of three categories of respondents on the option: 'Joint consent and signature of the local MP and the UZP Chairman should be mandatory in social participation and development activities at the Upazilla'

Type of response	Number of respondents			Percentage (%)		
	MP	Chairman	UNO	MP	Chairman	UNO
Do support	02	06	02	28.57	23.07	10.52
Do not support	02	09	06	28.57	34.62	31.58
Considerable for an experiment	02	09	06	28.57	34.62	31.58
No comment	01	02	05	14.29	7.69	26.32
Total	07	26	19	100%	100%	100%

The table 7 demonstrates that 02 (28.57%) MPs, 06 (23.07%) UZP Chairman and 02 (10.52%) UNOs have supported to this proposal for coordination between the local MP and the UZP Chairman. They expect that let the UZP become effective any way. Since this crisis is being threatened, some how coordination is essential.

It is found from the survey that 02 MPs (28.57%), 09 (34.61%) UZP Chairmen and 06 (31.57%) UNOs did not support this proposal. 01 MP of them thinks that neither the UZP Chairman nor the UNO only the local MP would get signing power and it should be mandatory. As they (MPs) form the central government and pass national budget, they have right to get that power. The rest one of them thinks that the 'local problems' may be addressed by the UZP Chairman and discuss with the local MP but 'functions' to be controlled by the local MP.

It has been mentioned that 09 UZP Chairman did not support this proposal for coordination. They want authority of the UZP Chairman over all the functions of socio-economic development in local area. Government should give adequate power and authority to the UZP for its effectiveness as an autonomous body. These respondents want power that

is free from any term and condition which would chain their authority. The local MP would provide logistic support to the UZP Chairman to perform everything as per rules and regulations.

It has been seen from the survey that 06 (31.57%) UNOs did not support to this proposal. They argue, the government has specific rules and regulations in this regard and those cannot depend on the consent and signature of the UZP Chairman and the MP. The expenditures of all the projects should be controlled by the UNO as the government representative, they add.

02 (28.57%) MPs, 09 (34.61%) UZP Chairmen and 06 UNOs think that this proposal may be accepted as a test case and may be materialized at some UZPs. If a positive result comes from that case studies, this practice can be implemented in rest of the UZPs of Bangladesh.

01 (14.28%) MP, 02 (7.69%) UZP Chairmen and 05 (26.32%) UNOs did not give any response on this question.

Net Amount Allotment

'Local mass people may not be satisfied to an MP with his role of only law-making process in the Parliament. People will evaluate the local MP on his role of new constructions like road, bridge, culvert, school, college, embankment, disaster management center and so on and want to see his capability to capture huge amount of allotment from the central government. A Member of the Parliament is evaluated on such kind of contributions all over the world. Even the role of MPs of America and Europe is important and significant in the development activities till now. No MP can hold continuously his/her popularity even in those countries only through the contribution in law-making process. If this is the condition and reality in the developed and politically sound countries, why and how Bangladesh, being a developing country, would remain apart from that? But some people do not want to accept this reality. Actually a necessary settlement is needed for an effective UZP'. Net amount allotment to the local MPs for local development may be such kind of settlement proposal what will be expended by concerned local MP for the local development activities on his own plan. There is no scope to ignore the developmental role of the MPs. At the same time their might be some instructions for the MPs to expend that allotment. The MPs will have to be controlled by themselves to be elected again. This concept is not new at all. This is a practice presently in India, Pakistan, and Nepal though being criticized.

Formation of the Zila Parishad

The Zilla Parishad may be considered as a vital and significant local self-government organ to create an expected situation at the UZPs. The Zilla Parishad, elected and selected, can supervise all kinds of development activities at the grass roots.

The central government would distribute proper development allotment as per demand of the Zilla Parishad. The Zilla Parishad, might be formed with an elected Chairman and an Advisory Board incorporating all the MPs of the District, would distribute development budget to the each UZP according to its demand and necessity. The respective local MPs would have an important role to play in approving the allotment for the concerned UZP. Therefore the UZP Chairmen will have to inform the local MPs about their development activities. As a result they (both) will have to prepare a good budget for the local area reflecting their commitment of development to the mass people. This formula may also help creating a congenial atmosphere at the grass roots.

Conclusion: Alternative Policy Suggestions

The question of coordination of Power and Authority between the UZP Chairman and the local MP was the core matter to be addressed in this research. The problems experienced and conceived on the recently reinstated UZP system were searched to understand and to resolve carefully in this work through the prospective mitigating alternatives.

There are few serious misnomers existent in the State documents as well. The name of Bangladesh Legislature is Jatiyo Sangsad. This is a name and a unique name of the Legislature of Bangladesh not available in any country of the world. A name, as a Noun, can never be and should not be translated in a different language, what ever the language is. But unfortunately that has happened in the case of Jatiyo Sangsad of Bangladesh and had done by the advanced educated/learned people of this country. In the English version of the Constitution of Bangladesh, the Jatiyo Sangsad is written as the Parliament. In fact, the Parliament is the name few country's Legislature like of UK, of India and of some other countries. Japan (the Dayet), Israel (the Knesset), USA (the Congress) and some countries has own name of their Legislatures. It would have been in the case of Jatiyo Sangsad. Unfortunately it has embraced by a wrong nomenclature. So the documents and the people of Bangladesh usually say the Parliament to mean the Jatiyo Sangsad and the MP to mean a Member of the Jatiyo Sangsad.

The same thing has happened in the case of local self-government. Local government is uttered to mean local self-government by the responsible and authoritative persons and the State documents including the Constitution. The local governments practically, in Bangladesh, are the local level administrative units like the Districts and the Upazillas and these are usually controlled/looked after by the Ministry of Establishment (recently named as the Ministry of Public Administration). But the local self-governments are the authorities/governments elected by the local people/voters for the urban areas (like the City Corporations and the Pourashavas) or for the rural areas (like the Union Parishads-UPs and the UZPs). But, even in the Constitution, it is uttered as the local Governments to mean the local self-governments. And in naming the Ministry it is said 'the Ministry of LGRD' (Local Government and Rural Development). It is obvious that the local Government units of Bangladesh are the Districts and the Upazillas and those are looked after by the Ministry of Public Administration not by the Ministry of LGRD. The Ministry of LGRD has the concern about the local self-governments like the UPs, Pourashavas or the City Corporations including the very present research area of UZPs.

These misnomers should be and certainly be removed and corrected. In the very beginning of this research, this point is raised and the theoretical issues are addressed.

There are five alternative remedies raised and examined in this effort to ensure coordination of Power and Authority of the UZP Chairman and the local MP. The political dignity, dominance and delicacy of the local MPs were considered carefully in all the alternatives. At the same time the effectiveness and fruitfulness of introduction of the UZP and its elected authorities were taken well into notice. The alternative policy suggestions are:

1. Specific Areas of Power and Authority for the local MPs and the UZP Chairmen-Vive Chairmen;
2. Power and authority of the UZP exercised by the UZP Chairman and supervised by the local MP;
3. Joint consent and signature of the local MP and the UZP Chairman should be mandatory in social participation and development activities at the Upazilla;

4. Net Amount Allotment and

5. Formation of the Zilla Parishad.

Now it is the part of the Policy Makers to adopt a specific alternative as the remedy to surmount the present perplexities. They may consider combining two or more alternatives to overcome the crisis.

The Experts and the Media has the part to review the alternatives and, if they are satisfied, create a public opinion to resolve the crisis through the policies suggested.

The policy suggestions raised has claimed a keen perseverance of a research team led by its project director. The team has to follow for months the developments made and caused by the MPs, the UZP Chairmen and the Vice Chairmen, the Civil Society and the Media related to this research area. The team was very much concerned and aware about the steps and the decisions taken by the Authorities concerned in different times.

The policy suggestions are to be considered and developed, if necessary, by the Policy Makers to address the whole environment applicable.

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Private Universities of Bangladesh: Problems and Prospects

Dr. Md Amirul Islam*

***Abstract:** Private university education has become a burning issue in Bangladesh. Now-a-days, it creates a huge hue and cry due to its failure in implementing the educational programs properly. The present article deals with the problems and prospects of private universities in Bangladesh. It looks into the relation between private university owners and the government, representation of private universities in policy-making, student-teacher ratio, library facilities for the students, teachers' recruitment policy in private universities, infrastructural facilities, maintenance of quality education in private universities and so on. The article has also tried to search relevant information on those matters stated above and identified some loopholes that raise obstacles to make a better academic environment in private universities. Finally, it made some recommendations for minimizing the problems the private universities keep facing.*

1.0 Introduction

The history of modern higher education in Bangladesh dates back to the establishment of Dhaka University in 1921. The establishment of Dhaka University was considered an imperial concession made to appease the adverse feelings of the Muslim middle class of East Bengal following the annulment of the partition of Bengal in 1911, which resulted from the movement of protest led by the more privileged Hindu Community. Quite a few post secondary schools and colleges existed before the establishment of Dhaka University. However, entry and education in those schools and colleges were often limited to middle class or the upper middle class children while children from lower income or lower middle class background often could not enter the educational institutions imparting even basic primary education. Parents and guardians either could not afford to send their children to school or thought it wiser to engage their children in helping them in their profession, mostly as agricultural labours. Practically all schools were established by wealthy Zemindar (the land owners) and were founded on religious practices. Lessons on the matters speaking of religious belief, mostly Hinduism and Islam were given priority. The teaching method encouraged memorizing and there were no room for creative learning or thinking.

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Before the establishment of Calcutta University in 1857, however, there were a few intermediate colleges in East Bengal. Later, most of such colleges were upgraded as degree colleges and got affiliated with Calcutta University, viz., Chittagong College in 1869, Rajshahi College in 1873, Barishal BM College in 1884, Sylhet MC College in 1892. As a result, there had existed at least one higher secondary school and college and side by side with other religious schools in each major district of the undivided Bengal in 1947 when Bengal was divided permanently.

2.0 The Beginning of Private Higher Education in Bangladesh

In 1988 and afterwards, individual initiatives were made to set up two medical colleges, one in Dhaka and another in Chittagong. Plans for establishing general universities in the private sector were made by the sponsors of North-South University in Dhaka in 1988-1989. The North-South University project was a brain-child of Mr. Muslehuddin Ahmed, a former Secretary and Ambassador of GoB. He discussed the idea with a group of businessmen and intellectuals. They accepted the idea and the 30-member Foundation for Promotion of Education and Research was formed in May, 1990. FPER was registered as a non-profit organization under the Societies Act 1860. Although, private universities existed in other countries for long, the first private university in Bangladesh did not make it appear till 1992. With the approval of 'Private University Act 1992' by the Parliament, the door was opened for a new system of higher education in Bangladesh. On 5 November 1992, the government approved of the establishment of North South University and it was granted the charter to offer degree level courses. The then Prime Minister Begum Khalada Zia formally inaugurated North South University on 10 February 1993 with 143 students. Mr. Muslehuddin Ahmed was the first President of the university. FPER, the founder of North South University, was later renamed as the North South University Foundation and Mr. Iftekherul Alam, a business leader, was the founding Chairman of the foundation. Within a year or two, however, four to five new universities were set up. USTC, IUB, DIU and IUBAT followed North South University. Today, the country has 56 such private universities (annex-1).

3.0 Growth Pattern of Private Universities in Bangladesh

The spectacular growth and expansion of the private universities in Bangladesh is depicted in Figure 4. The first private university named North South University (NSU) was approved by the government of Bangladesh (GoB) on 5 November 1992. The government in power at

that time (1991-1996) showed a favourable stance towards opening the door to more private universities in Bangladesh. The figure shows that, during the period of 1991-1996, sixteen private universities (mostly in metropolitan Dhaka, with only two in Chittagong) were opened. During 1996-2001, the government was not favourable disposed toward the concept of private sector of education. Data shows that only four new universities were added to the list during 1996-2001. After 2001, the private university concept got a significant boost again. The figure shows data taken from UGC that in a 6 to 7 years period, the total number of private universities has gone up to 56 (UGC 2008). The promoters of private universities in Bangladesh includes- a. Retired bureaucrats; b. Businessmen; c. Academicians; d. Politicians; e. NGOs; and the combination of some of the above.

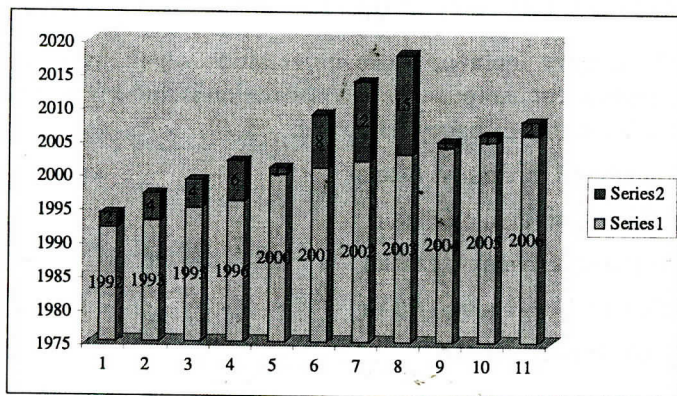


Figure 1: Growth of private universities in Bangladesh, 1992-2008.

Series-1 shows years of establishment of private universities.

Series-2 shows the number of private universities established.

4.0 Categories of Private Universities

The government has drawn up five categories of private universities according to which they have to shift to their own permanent campuses. So far only eight universities have managed to move to their own campuses in accordance to the regulations. These have been identified as the 'good universities'. Three universities are running with a stay order from the court. These are the i. America Bangladesh University, Dhaka; ii. Queens University, Dhaka; and iii. Central Women's University, Dhaka.

There are five categories of universities in Bangladesh. Eight universities are in the first category who have met the government's regulations shift to their own permanent campuses. They are:

- i. North South University, Dhaka
- ii. University of Science and Technology , Chittagong
- iii. International Islamic University, Chittagong
- iv. Ahsanullah University of Science and Technology ,Dhaka
- v. International University of Business Agriculture and Technology, Dhaka
- vi. BGC Trust University, Chittagong
- vii. BRAC University, Dhaka
- viii. Bangladesh University of Business and Technology, Dhaka

The second category includes those universities which have procured land for the permanent campus where construction is underway. There are five universities in this category. They are:

- i. Independent University, Dhaka
- ii. East West University, Dhaka
- iii. Gono Biswabidyalaya, Dhaka
- iv. South East University, Dhaka
- v. City University, Dhaka

The third category universities are those which have land procured, but their construction is not underway. There are nine in this category:

- i. American International University, Dhaka
- ii. Asian University of Bangladesh , Dhaka
- iii. University of Asia Pacific, Dhaka
- iv. Daffodil International University, Dhaka
- v. Shanto Marium University of Creative Technology, Dhaka
- vi. United International University, Dhaka
- vii. University of South Asia, Dhaka
- viii. Southern University of Bangladesh, Chittagong
- ix. Dhaka International University, Dhaka

In the fourth category, which are housed in their own campuses, but they do not have the prescribed area of land. There are nine such universities which include:

- i. People's University of Bangladesh, Dhaka
- ii. Manarat International University, Dhaka
- iii. State University of Bangladesh, Dhaka
- iv. University of Liberal Arts Bangladesh, Dhaka
- v. Metropolitan University, Sylhet
- vi. Northern University, Dhaka
- vii. Premier University, Chittagong
- viii. Daffodil International University, Dhaka
- ix. Dhaka International University, Dhaka

The universities which have taken no initiative for their own campuses are in the fifth category. These universities include:

- i. Darul Ihsan University, Dhaka
- ii. Leading University, Sylhet
- iii. Sylhet International University, Sylhet
- iv. Bangladesh University, Dhaka
- v. University of Development Alternatives, Dhaka
- vi. Stamford University, Dhaka
- vii. IBAIS University, Dhaka

There are private universities of another category operating in Bangladesh; they are the Bangladesh campuses of some low profile overseas private universities and colleges.

However, these universities were given provisional approval on condition they would shift to their own campuses within five years. The youngest among these has been running for seven years now while one has been functioning for the past 19 years but they have still no permanent campus of their own. In fact, they want another 15 years to establish their own universities.

The creation of private universities can be thought of as the outcome of the trend of growing number of students leaving the country in the eighties. The primary reasons were the inability of the public universities

in providing enough seats to admission seekers and the frequent political unrest and campus problems resulting in unscheduled closure of universities which prolonged academic sessions.

Education in private universities is expensive as these universities do not receive any financial support from the government but are heavily taxed. They have to bear the entire recurring and development expenditure from the fees received from the students. The courses offered in all private universities are job focused as learners would like to have some sort of assurance that they will be able to recover their high educational expenses once they graduated from a private university.

Most of the private universities in Bangladesh follow the US model of higher education with four-year bachelor degrees, a credit-hour system and a similar academic calendar.

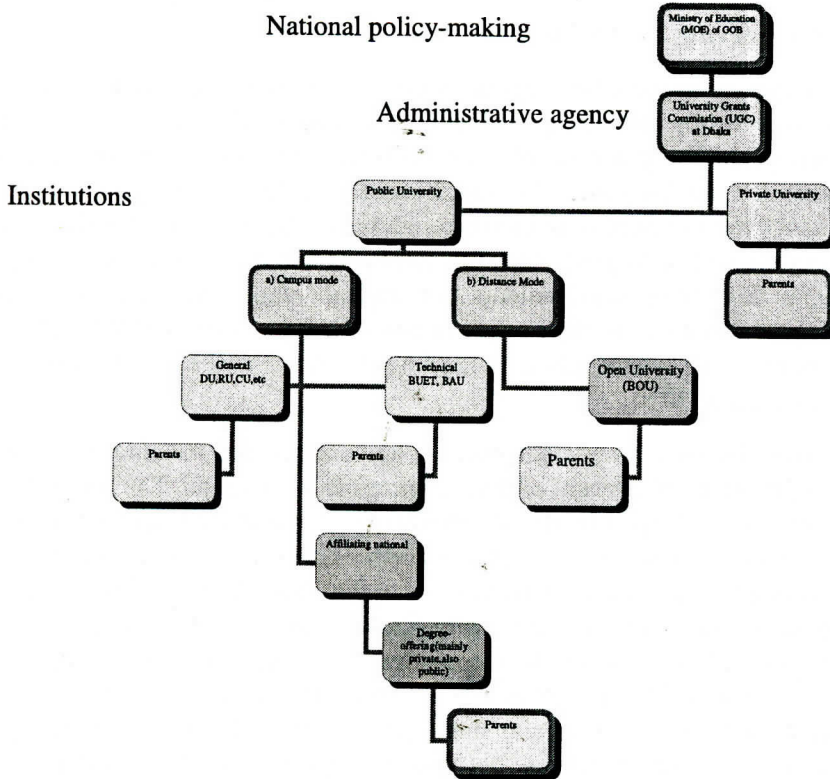
Private universities offer a variety of courses and charge differing tuition fees, although all private sector costs are significantly higher than the costs of studying in the public sector. Tuition fees are high compared to the average per capita income of \$350 per year. However, the majority of courses are priced for the growing middle classes, at between \$1000 and \$4000, which has raised accusations of social elitism. The social elitism is accepted in Bangladesh, as higher education is perceived to benefit the individual rather than the taxpayer. All private universities teach in English, which limits enrolment due to poor standard in English amongst much of the population, due to the Bangla Language policy at both the secondary and higher secondary levels.

The curricula in Private universities reflect the type of courses that are most valuable to students, e.g., internationally marketable courses such as Business Administration, Computer Science, Engineering, and Medicine that public universities are unable to offer in sufficient quantities. They also offer other innovative courses relevant to the particular Bangladeshi context including disaster management, physiotherapy, and textile engineering. The introduction of vocationally based courses is challenging public universities to restructure their curricula in order to compete, although the public sector offers pure sciences and engineering courses that are not generally available in the private sector, so there is an element of complementarity.

5.0 Management and Administrative control of higher Education:

Organization of the higher education sub-sector in Bangladesh takes into

account this reality of the emerging private sector. Figure 2 presents a graphic picture showing how tertiary-level education in Bangladesh is organized.



The Ministry of Education (MoE) is the apex policy-making body in Bangladesh. The University Grants Commission (UGC) of Bangladesh is the main administrative agency headed by a Chairman (with help of other 5 members) to regulate and co-ordinate plans and programs of different public and private universities.

The private university stream of tertiary education in the country whether an institution offering a degree, first degree or beyond, has to be accountable ultimately to UGC. Formally, UGC defines a number of administrative, financial and other parameters to these universities. The universities have autonomy (by the Parliamentary acts) to work within the UGC given parameters. Quality assurance, equivalency and other similar aspects are supposed to be taken care of by UGC.

The University Grants Commission of Bangladesh (UGC), established in

1973, acts as an intermediary body between the government and individual universities, and is responsible for all higher education. It reports to the Minister of Education through the Secretary of Education.

6.0 Financing Arrangements

The private universities started functioning with limited capital funds in hired premises and with part-time faculty from public universities. In the early years, there was no plan for building campuses and raising capital funds for that purpose. The initial success of the private universities to finance their current operation through the collection of fees and charges from students and generate large surpluses left them somewhat myopic about long-term requirements for capital funds. Although they are supposed to move to their own campus after 7 years of establishment, on condition 12 years after, according to the Private University Act Amendment 2010.

It may be mentioned that private universities are capable of saving roughly 40 to 50 percent of their earnings from students. The implication of high fees charged by private universities to generate large surplus may be serious for their long-term growth. These universities have been attracting students mainly from the rich families who fail to get places in public universities. It is generally known that DU, BUET and medical colleges admit most of the top students that pass the HSC/ equivalent public exams. The rest get places in other public and private universities, depending on their financial status. The result is that bright students in public universities do not get quality education as they suffer from session jams extending for three to four years mostly at public cost. On the other hand, students from the wealthy families and with lower academic credentials are registering in private universities of high cost, most of which are not offering quality education.

7.0 Regulation of Quality Control Measures

As of today, there is nobody to regulate private universities and assure the quality of education, other than the weak supervision of UGC. Since private universities receive no funding from the UGC, there is little that the UGC can do other than report some facts for the government. The Ministry of Education is the ultimate authority to institutionalize quality control measures if there are to be any. The UGC and the Government, of course, exercise little control over the quality of education in private universities. Assurance of quality in university education has been left

with the universities themselves. In turn, with a particular private university, certain bodies such as the Academic Council merely process ongoing activities such as admitting students, approving courses and panels of examiners, opening new departments, sanctioning additional teaching posts, etc.

Quality control of higher education at a private university mainly involves the following:

- i. Quality of inputs : Selection of students
- ii. Quality of processing of inputs to final products

7.1 Quality of inputs

Selection of Students: As mentioned earlier, private universities in general are not attracting top-quality students, although all of them apply some form of admission tests of their own. Despite a sharp decline in quality, public universities are still the first choice by all admission seekers. For example, Dhaka University admits less than 10 per cent of the students applying for about 5,000 places. This factor alone puts Dhaka University into a relatively higher position among other universities. Dhaka University admits the top students, after BUET and the medical colleges.

High fees charged by the private universities may be one of the reasons for not attracting bright students. These universities are yet to get general recognition for the education being imparted, although many degree colleges and some university colleges have been in place for a long time in the private sector. Newness aside, private universities are not offering courses in natural sciences such as physics, chemistry and biology, etc., and most other courses in the social sciences. Excepting one, all of them began offering courses in business administration and computer science in view of the potential demand for those programs.

In terms of the processing of students, all private universities have adopted the American course and semester/term systems and the continuous system of evaluation by course teachers resulting in letter grades and GPA.. The curriculum is also drawn up according to what is followed by American universities, excepting IUC and DIU. These two private universities have included some courses on Islamic knowledge and practices as may be found in Arab Countries. All private universities have introduced term/semester systems to offer courses of certain credit

hours by US standards. For example, the BBA program requires the completion of at least 40 courses of 120 credit hours. Unlike in public universities, students are given the flexibility to take courses according to their abilities. That is, a student may be allowed to take two courses to remain in the program when a full load may be five courses. This has allowed many students with poor performance to continue in the program for a longer period. There are also allegations of grade inflation in some of the weaker private universities. This is expected because during the initial years many private universities admitted students without sufficient testing. Excepting NSU, BRAC, EWU the practice may still be going on in other private universities.

7.2 Quality of processing of inputs to final products

An important issue in the processing of students is the supply of trained teachers, books and equipment relevant to the courses and method of delivery used in classrooms. The physical condition of the classroom is also important. The general physical condition of classrooms, libraries, and computer centers are much better in private universities. Most of the classroom facilities are air-conditioned and fitted with audiovisual equipment. Multimedia is used by some of the teachers trained abroad. As mentioned earlier, the supply of qualified teachers is limited in Bangladesh. Although foreign trained teachers are sought and preferred by the private universities, perhaps NSU has most maintained that practice so far. It does not allow teachers without PhD to teach in the Master's program, such as the MBA, and no one without Master's degree from the USA, UK, Canada or Australia is recruited as lecturer. It has also established a tenure track system for recruitment at higher ranks.

NSU, BRAC, EWU, IIUC, USTC, AUB and a few others began developing a library and a computer laboratory right from the beginning. NSU has a strong collection of foreign journals in its library. Text books on most subjects are available in the local market from Indian sources. Cheaper editions of most of the American books are bought by the students. The photocopying of unavailable books is rampant, ignoring all kinds of restrictions from publishers.

The conclusion on quality assurance in higher education in Bangladesh is that UGC has a role in setting certain minimum qualifications for recruiting teachers in general for both public and private universities. However, it lacks the ability to exercise such control due to politicized campuses and the weak structure of UGC. Individual institutions are left

to assure the quality of education and research. Private universities do try to monitor and evaluate teachers and quality of instruction through students' reports and supervision by Heads of departments. However, private universities generally do not admit brighter students, although some of them are showing talent in developing students' potential by trained and motivated teachers and better support services. The lack of highly qualified teachers is posing threat to the quality and expansion of private universities, as they are currently dependent on part-time teachers. Research is not on the agenda in private universities. Public universities lack funding for research and the low pay of teachers encourages them to undertake income-supplementing jobs, such as consulting for government departments, NGOs and donor agencies, and part-time teaching in private universities. Hence, quality control issues in higher education are seriously neglected in both public and private universities in Bangladesh. Almost all private universities (with few exceptions) are founded on rented space and buildings, campus facilities such as academically suitable building infrastructure, extensive library facilities, dormitory facilities, canteen facility, sports and recreational facilities, computer laboratories with high speed internet access and transport systems are extremely limited.

7.3 Faculty Credential

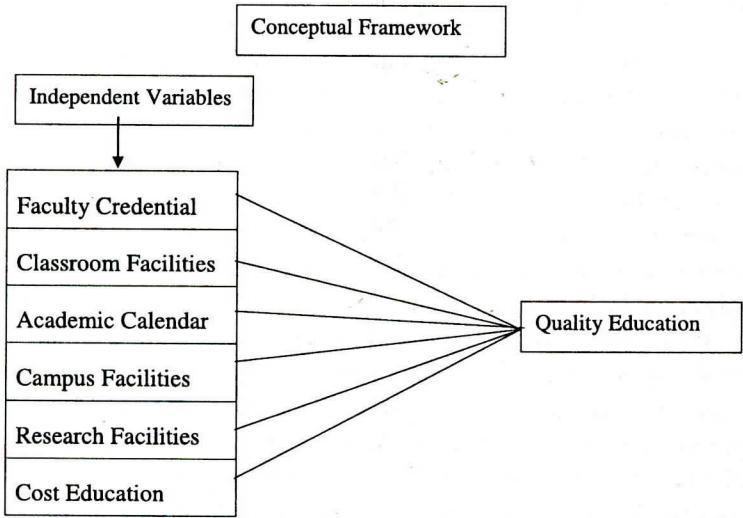


Figure 3: Conceptual framework for quality education at private universities in Bangladesh

This factor influences the overall learning of the students, which affects the quality of their education. In a similar fashion, research facilities are also underdeveloped. Most of the universities do not have research bureaus, and publication facilities are also limited, as indicated by the fact that only four or five journals are published among more than 50 private universities in Bangladesh. Due to the lack of adequate reference materials in the libraries, the teachers and the students face enormous problems. Clearly the variable of campus facilities has an important impact on the overall quality of education in these higher learning centers of Bangladesh.

8.0 Problems: The Private Universities Facing Today

Many educationists have expressed their doubts about the ability of the private sector to run as degree-awarding universities. Many feel that the government should retain the monopoly on higher education, this being a public service that is best rendered by the government. Also, these educational entrepreneurs were seen as being inexperienced in running a university and that the venture would be too risky for the society and the nation as a whole. Some even equated private universities with 'glorified coaching centres.' The proponents of private universities for their part contended that, if an enabling environment could be provided, the private sector could not only run businesses, industries, schools, colleges, hospitals or NGOs, but also universities.

The most common allegation raised against founders of private universities is that they are driven by a profit motive while investing a huge amount of money to make profit. However, founder directors/members deny that their universities are run for profit; they point out that the extra or surplus money generated from tuition fees are re-invested in university development. In the beginning, well-known educationists and philanthropists established private universities; now rich professionals, business persons and large NGOs are also establishing private universities. The five crore taka deposit which is a necessary requisite for approval results in the involvement of rich individual in the establishment of private universities. Moreover, for the first few years, most private universities have to depend largely on contributions for survival and growth. The public views with suspicion the very high salaries of the VCs/Pro-VCs and a few top officials as well as the lavish dinners and cultural functions that are held in luxurious hotels. However, private universities' high profitability in operations is an established fact.

For instance, in the year of 2001, out of total assets of Tk. 292.5 million, University of Science and Technology (USTC) accumulated surplus accounted for Tk 51.2 million, and North South University (NSU) accumulated surplus accounted for Tk 189.40 million out of total assets of Tk 200.70 million.

The quality of education and related facilities are the next point of controversy. Quality varies significantly between private universities; there are differences of quality even amongst departments of the same university. Course contents vary widely among private universities. Sub-standard intakes, inferior faculty standard and poor classroom environment are some of the usual complaints. These universities use attractive names; circulate colorful and glossy brochures and make unrealistic promises in order to attract admission seekers. Thus, many who should not have pursued higher education get admission into these institutions.

The very high tuition fee of private universities is a common point of criticism. Non-profit operation and an affordable education for common people are not the principles on which private universities operate. In the NSU, a student needs to pay Tk 3,50,000/- for an MBA degree and Tk 6,50,000/- for a B.Sc degree in Computer Science. In USTC, an MBBS student needs to pay Tk 14,00,000.00 to obtain a degree. However, private universities justify their high fees on the grounds that they run without any government subsidy. In fact, private universities in general do not clearly mention the tuition fees or teachers' salary. With only seven persons in the audit staff, the UGC is not able to detect financial cover-ups. The result of a survey showed that 55% were dissatisfied at the facilities the university provided them in the light of the high tuition fees that they were paying. Almost all private universities are situated in rented buildings. These buildings are not designed for academic pursuits and are not suitable for university activities. The PUA requires concerned private universities to shift to their own campus within seven years (on condition another five years may be given) of establishment, but only a few universities have met this requirement. Scarcity of suitable land in and around Dhaka and the exorbitant cost of land are used as excuses by these institutions. However, a number of leading private universities have bought land in and around Dhaka and are in the process of constructing their own campuses.

Academic programs offered by private universities are limited and market-driven and do not cater to social needs of the country. Most private universities concentrate on Business Administration and Computer Science. Many people, therefore, question the validity of calling an institution a university that offers only four or five subjects. Private universities, on the other hand, cannot afford to open programs that do not attract a substantial number of students. Private universities run a program-based education system, comprising semesters, courses and credits. In a good private university, each credit involves 15 to 16 contact or class hours. However, some private universities have reduced each credit to 11 or 12 contact hours, thus undermining the course content and program.

Courses offered by these universities are sometimes rushed through and not adequately taught. Employers often complain that graduates of private universities often lack in-depth knowledge. One of the reasons for this is that private universities try to accommodate many courses and semesters in a year to maximize earnings. Moreover, part-time teachers often take successive classes in different universities in a single day to maximize their income. In the process, the individual teacher may be benefited, but the students suffer from poor teaching and teacher's lack of commitment. Faculty strength is weak in most private universities and other than 'On the Job Training'; there is no faculty development scheme. Dearth of qualified full-time core teachers adversely affects the teaching quality of many private universities. At least, 60-70% of teachers should be full time to ensure quality teaching.

Private universities, established in rented premises, suffer from acute space shortage, especially as regards in library, laboratory and classroom facilities. There is no space/room for group discussions or seminars as there are no large hall rooms. Students are forced to loiter on pavements or streets. Private universities are located near busy roads where traffic noise and other distractions hamper classroom learning.

9.0 Advantages of Private Universities

The growth of private universities in Bangladesh is phenomenal. These universities offer both graduation and post-graduation degrees in subjects like Businesses Administration, Computer Engineering, Management Information System, Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Architecture, Environment, Development Studies, Physics, Electronics, Physical & Community Medicines, English Language & Literature, Law,

Islamic History and Civilisation, Social Work, Political Science, Sociology, Bangla Language & Literature, B.Ed., MEd., and so on. Many private universities have introduced evening MBA Programs for professionals. However, significant advantages that accrue to private universities are:

i. Flexibility: Private universities are flexible and relatively free to introduce new subjects or discard non-demanding subjects based on market demand. Unlike public universities, these can readily modify their curriculum to suit changing requirements.

ii. Adherence to Schedules: There is no session jam, student unrest or violence in private universities. During the days of political violence, private universities arranged regular make-up classes on holidays and in the evenings and could successfully graduate their students on time.

iii. Credit Transfer/Collaboration : Credit transfer to foreign universities and institutions are available in most private universities. Moreover, some of the better run private universities have developed academic linkages with a number of foreign universities through faculty and curriculum exchange, exchange of course materials, post graduate research collaboration, etc. Teachers from foreign universities had also taught in these universities for one or more semesters. This enabled the university to update the curriculum, course content and teaching methods. One of the private universities has even appointed an academican from the Philippines as the Vice- Chancellor.

iv. Evaluation of Teachers: Teachers' qualifications in some of the better run private universities are higher than the public universities and UGC's guidelines. Masters/ PhD degrees from North American Universities are preferred. The teaching ability of teachers is tested through demonstrative lectures. Moreover, students and senior teachers regularly assess teachers.

v. Career Services Department: Well-run private universities have 'Career Services Department' through which final semester students are advised about their choice of profession and job prospects. Graduated students enlist their names and wait for a response. Teacher and staff responsible for this section maintain regular contact with prospective employers. The university staff assists graduates to secure suitable jobs. Frequent job fairs are arranged through the career assistance program.

vi. Graduates Employment Prospect: Graduates of better and well reputed private universities like the NSU, IUB, AIUB, and USTC get suitable

jobs. USTC teaching medical science has students from regional and developing countries such as Nepal, Sri Lanka, Palestine and Saudi Arabia. Many private university graduates seek employment abroad.

vii. **Emphasis on English Language and Computer Literacy:** The medium of instruction in private universities is English and libraries have recent texts and other reference books. Many Bangla medium students attain proficiency in oral and written English in these universities. Students also attain computer literacy. These proficiencies give them an advantage in the job market.

viii. **Collaboration with Industries and Companies:** Private universities maintain a collaborative relationship with reputed industries, multinational companies and corporate business houses, primarily to run students' internship programs. Practical knowledge acquired through internship gives an edge to private university graduates in the job market.

ix. **Financial Assistance Program:** All the private universities have financial support policies for the students. Full scholarships are given to the first few who were at the top of the merit list of SSC and HSC or equivalent examinations. Tuition waivers are also given at different rates based on individual need and academic performance. Some private universities arrange part-time employment for needy students. However, private universities in general do not cater to students from a lower income group unless they can qualify for a full tuition waiver.

10.0 Private Universities in Panic

The private universities started up on the condition prescribed in accordance to the 1992 ordinance, and then the 1998 and 2010 amended ordinances that they would shift to permanent campuses with in 7 years (on condition another 5 years may be given). Most of the universities, some over 19 years old and some just 5, have not shifted to their own campuses still now. They have failed to comply with the government's directives to shift to campuses on their own land. On the contrary, private universities have mushroomed up all over the places- in lanes and alleyways on of the capital city's bustling residential area as well as in office building for commercial use. The fact is that they have not shifted to their own campuses but remain in rented premises scattered all around the city.

According to the Private University Act Amendment 2010, the government issued the regulation that private universities must have to

have campuses on at least one acre of land in one place within the city. And if this condition will not be fulfilled by September 2011, admissions to these universities would be closed. This order has several of the private universities reeling in panic.

The private universities authorities state that it is near impossible to get one unbroken plot of one acre within the city. And even if it is found, one acre of land costs at Tk.100- 150 crore. Then to construct a proper campus will take about Tk.80 to 100 crore. They contend that it is impossible to arrange this land and funds for the campus within such a short span of time. They have appealed to the government for an extension of the time limit.

11.0 Recommendations

The following recommendations made for the improvement of the quality of education in private universities may be derived from the discussion stated above:

Firstly, unified service rules for both private and public university teachers need to be considered in order to ensure quality education in private university.

Secondly, inclusion of private university teachers in various committees under the auspices of both the Education Ministry and the University Grants Commission may be considered. Besides, appointment of at least 1 (one) private university teacher as Member of the University Grants Commission needs to be ensured. As a result, the existing discrimination between private and public university teachers will be reduced.

Thirdly, the time spent for each semester in private and public universities is different. Public universities in the country allow 6 months for each semester while private universities allow 4 months. However, duration of each semester should be equal in both private and public universities so that the private university students can be equally treated in job market.

Fourthly, collaboration between public and private universities of Bangladesh in the field of academic curriculum, research, IT, internship, and exchange of teachers and students can be useful. The years of experience and vast resources of public universities are invaluable and could enrich private universities. Similarly, the American system of education including assessment, teachers' evaluation, ideas and expertise of visiting Professors can be useful for public universities.

Fifthly, building of permanent campuses for private universities is essential for quality education. To meet the purpose, the government can provide required amount of money as loan for the private universities so that they can build permanent campuses on their own land.

Sixthly, the universities should conduct Post-graduate research on a regular basis as good quality research helps a university achieve credibility at home and abroad.

Seventhly, there should be a separate commission for private universities. Other than scrutinizing and recommending setting up new private universities, the primary role of this proposed commission will be to monitor the academic curriculum of all private universities through an Accreditation Body. The proposed Commission's role should be a combination of regulator and facilitator functions. Alternatively, the UGC should increase the monitoring of private universities, primarily for the newer ones and those not doing well to enable them to improve.

12.0 Conclusion

Higher education in the private sector has become more competitive with the remarkable increase in the number of private academic institutions in Bangladesh while quality education is yet to reach its desired level. The cost of private education is another dimension to be considered as it is unaffordable in Bangladesh. However, private university education will definitely be more popular in the existing socio-economic context of the country if costs are to be lowered, although the system is proceeding gradually towards greater improvement. Nevertheless, all the problems considered here should be addressed more rigorously to ensure the quality of private higher education in Bangladesh. The dimensions from which the private university students are still suffering are faculty credentials, the academic calendar, campus facilities, research facilities and the cost of education. In these regards, the gap between public and private universities will be minimised if equal facilities from the government are provided for all and thereby paves the new way of higher education in Bangladesh.

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Annex-1

List of private universities along with their year of establishment is as follows:

Sl.No	Name of universities	Year of establishment
1	North South University, Dhaka	1992
2	University of Science and Technology Chittagong	1992
3	Independent University Bangladesh Dhaka	1993
4	Central Women's University, Dhaka	1993
5	Darul Ihsan University, Dhaka	1993
6	International University of Business Administration and Technology, Dhaka	1993
7	International Islamic University, Chittagong	1995
8	Ahsanullah University of Sciences & Technology, Dhaka	1995
9	American International University Bangladesh Dhaka	1995
10	Comilla University, Comilla	1995
11	Asian University of Bangladesh, Dhaka	1996
12	East-West University, Dhaka	1996
13	Queens University, Dhaka	1996
14	University of Asia Pacific, Dhaka	1996
15	Gono Bishwabidyalaya, Dhaka	1996
16	The People's University of Bangladesh, Dhaka	1996
17	Dhaka International University, Dhaka	2000
18	BRAC University, Dhaka	2001
19	Manarat International University, Dhaka	2001
20	Bangladesh University, Dhaka	2001
21	Leading University, Sylhet	2001
22	BGC Trust University Bangladesh, Chittagong	2001
23	Sylhet International University, Sylhet	2001
24	University of Development Alternative, Dhaka	2001
25	Premeir University, Chittagong	2001
26	South-East University, Dhaka	2002

27	Stamford University, Dhaka	2002
28	Daffodil International University, Dhaka	2002
29	State University of Bangladesh, Dhaka	2002
30	IBAIS University, Dhaka	2002
31	City University, Dhaka	2002
32	America Bangladesh University, Dhaka	2002
33	Prime University, Dhaka	2002
34	Northern University, Bangladesh, Dhaka	2002
35	Southern University, Bangladesh, Chittagong	2002
36	Green University of Bangladesh, Dhaka	2002
37	Pundra University of Sciences & Technology Bogra	2002
38	World University, Dhaka	2003
39	Shanta Marium University of Creative Technology, Dhaka	2003
40	The Millennium University, Dhaka	2003
41	Eastern University, Dhaka	2003
42	Bangladesh University of Business & Technology, Dhaka	2003
43	Metropolitan University, Sylhet	2003
44	Uttara University, Dhaka	2003
45	United International University, Dhaka	2003
46	Victoria University of Bangladesh, Dhaka	2003
47	University of South Asia, Dhaka	2003
48	Presidency University, Dhaka	2003
49	University of Information Technology & Sciences, Dhaka	2003
50	Prime Asia University, Dhaka	2003
51	Royal University of Dhaka, Dhaka	2003
52	University of Liberal Arts, Bangladesh, Dhaka	2003
53	Atish Dipanker University of Sciences & Technology, Dhaka	2004
54	Bangladesh Islamic University, Dhaka	2005
55	ASA University Bangladesh, Dhaka	2006
56	East-Delta University, Chittagong	2006

Professional Development, Training and Work-life Balance Role of Trade Unions

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Md. Sharif Hasan**

***Abstract:** Trade unions are now a days a part and parcel of the society. Since its emergence its role is undergoing continuous changes to cope with the ever changing global scenario. In the past, the prime focus of trade unions was on bargaining related to wage and salaries. At present its role is diversified. In addition to their role as pressure groups, trade unions are concerned with issues like training, professional development, work-life balance and so on. To some extent, they play the role of shadow management. In this article, attempts will be made to explain the evolutionary history of trade unions and their role in terms of professional development, training and work-life balance. The main focus will be on the global scenario. Attempts will also be made to explain and analyse the situation that prevails in Bangladesh.*

Introduction:

Trade union is, now a days, a part and parcel of a company with a great significant role at workplace in terms of training and development. It is a voice in favour of trade union members, company as well as sometimes of the employers. A company can achieve its goals; can be stable in the challenging global economy through its developed and competent workforce existing in the working area. If employees are well-trained and educated, they can give full effort to the company as they have the inner qualities but those should be utilised in the right way in the right position that depends on practice how they use their potentiality. Inner qualities can be improved by practicing in the workplace. Training makes a person to be coped with the environment developing their internal and external qualities. Employees have some qualities that need to develop, need to make useful for the environment. This is why they need training, need to upgrade skills. Trade union in the company helps employees to be trained in many ways that lead to develop the organisational performance, management skills, and employee capacity. Even trade union does for the welfare of employees that assists a lot for the people as well as for the company.

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Steps and initiatives are taken by the trade union to meet present and future challenges so that employees can sustain their job. This is why they are given sufficient training and skill oriented, need based knowledge is necessary in the workplace meeting the demand. This training is to be arranged by the trade union for union and non-union members for the company. As a result there is a good environment exists in the work place.

This essay aims to see the activities of trade union how it works in the company to develop in terms of training and development for the workers and management and what is the benefit brought to the company at the workplace and how they can the role developing skills, working environment correlating with the business strategies within the organisation. Moreover, there will be special focus on the role of trade unions in terms work-life balance.

Brief History of Trade Unions:

Cannell (2009) observes that there is a tendency to think of trade unions as products of the factory system. But they had their origins much earlier, in the mediaeval craft guilds which were established to control entry to crafts and ensure that artisans were not overwhelmed by numbers; and hence to ensure a degree of price control. In short, they were concerned with controlling the market. There are many recorded instances of strikes in various localities to increase wages or decrease working hours during this period, leading to pressure from employers to ban known as 'combinations': there were 30 pieces of legislation between 1720 and 1799 to ban combinations among specific groups of workers, culminating in two General Combination Acts in 1799 and 1800 outlawing combinations and strikes in England and Wales. So towards the end of the eighteenth century, the journeymen's societies had developed into trade unions.

1880 - 1914: Union Growth:

History reveals that by the beginning of the 1880s, the number of trade unionists has been estimated at around three-quarters of a million, most in skilled trades although the majority of the workforce was unskilled. There had been attempts in the past to organise unskilled and semi-skilled workers, including women, but recessions and the precarious nature of such employment meant that they had been mostly short-lived. However, in the 1880s, led by seamen, dockers and gas workers who held notably successful strikes, serious organisation of the unskilled and semi-skilled

began. Women too formed separate trade unions. The predominant ideology behind the craft unions had been Non-Conformism and self-help. During the period of the growth of new unions, socialism began to play a part and many young activists were inspired by it. But the climate tended towards the anarchic: these so-called 'new unions' competed with each other, often with intense inter-union rivalry (Geary, 2008).

1914 - 1945: War and Recession:

The First World War had a significant effect on working life generally. With resources needing to be diverted to munitions, and men needed for fighting, government had to intervene in manufacturing. Moves to replace skilled men by semi-skilled operatives ('dilution') meant that new workers, including women, entered the workforce. This was not without resistance. A significant side-effect was to enhance the power of shop stewards. Stewards had existed from around the 1870s to collect contributions and inevitably union members would take grievances to them. After 1915, because changes in munitions factories were job-specific, employers found themselves (not always willingly) increasingly dealing more and more with stewards to negotiate changes (Cannell, 2009).

The outbreak of war in 1939 saw similar issues arise as in the previous conflict. More women entered the workforce; dilution again became an issue; and under Order 1305, strikes were banned (although unofficial strikes continued to take place, they were usually of short duration). As in the First World War, collective bargaining and union membership made significant advances, membership rising by 1.5 million by the end of the war. Equal pay made ground in the public sector but not until 1950 did the TUC carry its first resolution for equal pay for women outside the public services (Blanchflower and Bryson, 2008).

1945 - 1979: the Growth of Union Power:

Unions sought to take advantage of the post-war boom, with full employment, and strikes steadily rose. So too did the power of shop stewards, the influence of the Communist Party and the incidence of the closed shop. Matters came to a head in 1959 when an anti-communist stood against the Communist general secretary of the Electrical Trades Union (ETU), lost narrowly, and took the matter to court. The case showed widespread ballot-rigging and intimidation, and in 1961 the TUC expelled the ETU. More generally, the case highlighted what had been

evident for years: that unions were open to be taken over by unrepresentative minorities because of low attendance at branch and other meetings. Even in the ETU's leadership ballot following the scandal, only 13% of members voted (Reid, 2004).

1979 to date: Decline but not Fall:

The Conservative government that took power in 1979 introduced a series of laws that increasingly removed many of the rights and immunities possessed by unions. The Trade Union Reform and Employment Rights Act 1993 required seven days' notice of a strike to be given, tightened control over ballots for industrial action, and undermined the Bridlington Principles by granting individuals the right to join a union of their choice. The government's attitude was a complete change from the consensus which had existed for about half a century of including unions as part of the political system: the strategy was of deliberate exclusion aimed at reducing union power to improve productivity, often in the name of 'partnership' (Pelling, 1992).

Between 1979 and 1997, union membership fell to around seven million. The cause was not simply legal changes and high levels of unemployment, although many employers did de-recognise unions in this period and new greenfield sites were often kept union-free. Structural changes in the economy, most notably the move from manufacturing to services, meant that large concentrations of employment were fewer. Small employers have always been more difficult to organise than large employers, and white collar workers more difficult than industrial workers. The main concentrations of union membership are now in the public sector (Reid, 2004).

Labour's return to government in 1997 was never going to mean a return to the seventies. That had always been made clear. Nevertheless, some changes were brought about. The Employment Relations Act 1999 assists unions to claim recognition, while others brought in changes sought by unions such as a National Minimum Wage, and new rights to maternity leave and for part-time workers. Some of the pressure for such rights comes from the European Union, which British unions embraced enthusiastically in the nineties, realising that they were more likely to bring about change via the European route than through domestic policies. One consequence of the pressures on unions was a rise in amalgamations: in 2007 the TUC had 66 affiliated unions, compared with 109 in 1979. At around six and a half million TUC membership has fallen slightly since

the mid-nineties. The emphasis of trade unionism has changed gradually (Cannell, 2009).

Training & Development and Trade Union:

In a consumer society, unions seek to attract members not only through traditional means but through insurance and credit cards. Legal advice and representation of members at tribunals has grown in importance. Training has received much greater attention and with government funding a scheme of workplace learning representatives has been developed. Unions embrace the equality and diversity agendas. There is much less opposition than in the past to working with employers to improve productivity (Cannell, 2009).

Importance of Trade Union: 'Economists, educationists, sociologists and political scientists have all, in recent recognised the importance of different countries' education and training systems. They have brought to bear a range of analytical perspectives on education and training systems and on their links with economic systems in the advanced industrial world. In some cases this link is conceived in quite simple terms: conventional wisdom has emerged, wherein 'better' education or training is assumed to lead automatically to improved economic performance' (Ashton and Green, 1996). Trade union realises this importance of training. So trade union affects to training and development at the workplace enormously. Training is T.R.A.I.N.I.N.G. which is technological and technical reconciliation of achievable innovative new ideas, neo-logical but generalised. This knowledge gives a person to cope with the new environment. It is such kind of power received as an experience, where workers can learn being involved in the process of learning by doing. A person never feels himself isolated, never to be blown out off the main track. Employees earn a lot by doing, by learning, even imparting institutionalised structured knowledge. Trade union's main focus is on how to develop quality, capacity, working condition and employee-employer relation. These issues certainly related to training and workplace. Training is something different from the formal education but earning knowledge from the experience, by doing in hand on some specific issues, ideas and technology to fit for the company to meet its objectives in the competitive global market. It is inseparable from an employee. So it is one kind of wealth of a worker to be used or utilised for his own purpose. Trade union does for this reason and train workers. So trade union directly affects skill development at the workplace.

This is the age of technology competing with the world. The country or the company, if developed technologically, must have an edge on others. This is the age of training and experience, skill based everything everywhere. Training provides information and skills in the workplace or labour market. Trade union thought influence workers to rush to undergo training to be so. This is the credit of trade union to make the workers to be aware of training for their advancement. The article written by Heyes (2000) provides valuable information on trade unions at workplace. 'Trade unions may encourage job tenure by providing employees with a 'voice' as an alternative to expressing their grievances through 'existing' (quitting) employment (Freeman and Medoff, 1984 cited in Heyes, 2000). 'Low labour tenure will increase the probability of employees being able to secure a return on investments in training and should in turn lead to an increase in their propensity to train. Unions may close off routes to competitiveness based on the intensive use of low wage, low skill labour. The implication is that employers will be encouraged to upgrade their production techniques and invest more heavily in the skills of the employees' (Heyes, 2000). That is why trade union organises training for the workers. They also play an important educational role, organising courses for their members on a wide range of matters. 'Seeking a healthy and safe working environment is also a prominent feature of union activity' (www.oxbridgecareers.com).

How Training & Development is affected by Trade Union at the Workplace?

It is argued that formal education ends and informal learning i.e. training starts to learn around the whole life. Conceptual knowledge earned in institutions shunned in practical field. Trade union affects each and every sphere of employees' career. Trade union affects 6 Ps namely, pay, production, profit, providing employment, protection and perfect relationship between employee and employer. Based on these areas training goes year round at the workplace. 'If unions are going to have an impact on skills, then, given their lack of influence within Vocational Educational Training institutions, they need to be playing a significant role at the workplace' (Lloyd and Payne 2005, pp181). Training is the combination of industrial relations, business strategies and environment. Therefore, trade unions have significant influence on workers, employers and organisations in terms of training, development as well as work-life balance at the workplace.

Motivational Issues: In order to fulfil company's goals and objectives trade union motivates workers to play a vital role in the respective fields of their companies. It works as a standpoint of employees to bargain with the management for workers as well as for the management and employees to be motivated to fit as a part of the organisation. Based on some motivational issues, training is widely accepted. Trade union members influence workers to produce more and to get more financial benefit from the company. Some techniques are followed to do so. The same is done for motivating management to establish a stable workforce paying due attention to the workers. Training is always influenced by the situation it involves or to be associated with the environment. In fact, environment plays a decisive role in this regard. Therefore, motivation is very much important that affects training at workplace. Hoddincott (2000) emphasises that motivation for the trade union involvement is to secure greater quality of access to training opportunities for workers belonging to all classes.

Development of Organisational Capacity: Organisational performance leads the company towards the highest peak of success. It depends on every effort that comes from the management, from the workers even from the trade unions. Sustainable organisational capacity is the precondition to survival of the company. Trade unions can assist the company to develop organisational capacity in many ways. Wide range issues are involved in this connection. Organisational performance comes to a level that can easily meet its requirements to achieve the goals and objectives. It depends on the effective and full-time involvement of trade union in organisational performances in terms of training and development at workplace. 'If trade unions are to take their engagement in workplace learning partnership seriously, then it requires the development of new organisational capacity. Not only does it mean that shop stewards and officers will need to get grip with new range of issues on with to represent members' interests with new approaches to working with management representatives of the trade unions and their own members. This has consequences for union education departments and potentiality for the creation of new roles within branch structure' (Sutherland and Rainbird, 2000).

Financial System: Trade union fights for the benefit of the employee. Pay system should always be based on production and experience even that comes from training and one's skill with adequate knowledge. Enhanced pay enhances skills. But enhanced pay is often linked to better

performance. Effective training enables workers gaining new skills and thus improving performance. Skills may be formally recognised by linking training to financial rewards where training is job related. Unions are likely to be concerned that members secure financial compensation for their training efforts and the skills they develop.' (Industrial Relations Review Report, 1990 pp12). Trade union is not only concerned about the skill based employment but also about the reluctant members for their job and future. 'Trade unions are concerned how to protect the interest of the union members who are reluctant or unwilling to voluntarily undertake training and development. There are clear tensions between trade unions support for employer provided training goals such as greater equality in labour market.' (Heyes 2000, pp158-9).

Skill Development: Trade union does for the workers to improve their living condition, pay system developing their skills at the workplace. This is not only for the workers even for the organisation also. This skill development gives the security to the employees in the organisation and the company gets benefit from the skilled workers as well. While unions concerns regarding weak employer demand for skill are clearly evident from their wider economic analysis, they have tended to be kept somewhat separate from the generally enthusiastic response given to Labour's supply-side skills policy. By adopting such an approach, unions risk appearing complicit with a set of policy assumptions around the 'knowledge economy', skill shortage and the need for higher levels of publicly-subsidised employer training that they ought to be subjecting to more rigorous and critical security. (Lloyd and Payne 2005).

Lifelong Learning: It is true that worker may face many challenges day to day life. The global economy is also being changed. So there is no alternative to learn to cope with the environment. That is why learning ways is shown by the trade union. It is quite different from learning of educational institutions. Spreading the practice of lifelong learning clearly depends on findings that occur outside formal educational institutions (Rees, 2000). Lifelong learning protects employee's present and future job so that he can not be isolated or be out off the main track. So trade union influences the workplace learning for some reasons. First, their members are recipients of training and other learning opportunities in the workplace and it is in their interests that they should have skills which enhance their bargaining power and employability. Second, members are employed in educational institutions as teachers and support staff or as trainers and instructors in the other organisations. Third these

boarder citizenship issues which they need to address as the members of society. Forth some unions provide learning opportunities (Sutherland and Rainbird, 2000). Trade union thought affects in the working conditions. Trade union members help to understand that workplace is a vast source of knowledge and so on. Purcell (1988) argues that the workplace is site of socialisation including gender socialisation after family and school. There is no doubt that unions' learning initiatives have brought benefits to many members and that, in some case they can transform lives (Lloyd and Payne, 2005).

Building Relationship: Contribution from the both side leads the company to achieve its goals and objectives. Trade union tries to develop the relation between management and workers, among workers so that good working environment exists. This relation is sometimes vertical and sometimes horizontal as the situation demands. Trade union takes initiatives such as organising workshop, meeting to enhance the relationship that will lead the company to increase productivity. The goal of quality relates to features of management behaviour which include the management of investment in highly skilled employees in order to produce highly quality goods and services (Carey, 2000). Heyes (2000) argues that trade unions are forced to consider the relationship between training and labour utilisation. Now a days each and every organisation realises that human relation is one of the most important factors in the workplace for the sustainability of the company. This relation gives the mental support to the workers, sometimes it works more effective than financial benefits.

Global Market: Companies are at present in a competitive global economy for which they need good support from all sides. This is the age of globalisation. A company can think not only for the present benefit in the country but also think to cope with other countries. Trade unions have to respond to the work modernisation agenda and to employers' governments concerns with the development of a framework capable of responding to the challenges of competitions in an increasingly global economy (Sutherland and Rainbird, 2000). Trade union encourages workers to be trained for the company to be more effective in this context and trade union members try them to think the existence of company is the beneficial for them. So they need to learn technical skill.

Social Awareness and Protection: Trade union tries to make workers aware of the workers' benefit, social security. Workers being trained in

some social issues may raise their voice with the trade union members. Now they are very much concerned about their rights and benefits, their responsibilities, duties to the company duties to the society even to the country. Trade union takes steps to formulate some social policies by the company management in favour of workers rights and benefits. Trade unions are engaged in some innovative activities in the working area such as health and safety awareness building programmes, social work, workers welfare fund etc. Trade unions are proactive and do for the worker benefit as well as company profit in favour of management. They develop a new relation between employer and employees and workers and management. New dimension of knowledge are sometimes introduced by the trade unions members. Even sometimes they have played a role to formulate some rules and regulations for the benefit of workers. In Bangladesh the government has formulated about twenty acts and ordinances for the betterment of workers those are the outcome of trade union type organizations. Recently government has been forced to set minimum wage system for workers in readymade garments industries. This is the great success of the workers' movement in past twenty years in our country (Islam, 2009; Khatun and Moazzem, 2006; Rahman, 2010).

Trade Unions and Work-life Balance:

The term 'work-life balance' is getting more importance in Britain and eventually throughout the globe since the Labour Party has formed cabinet in that country in 1997 (Rigby and O'Brien-Smith, 2010). Among the more questioned elements of the current discourse is the focus on long working hours (Roberts, 2007). McInnes (2008) has commented upon the lack of realism of a government agenda to increase both the labour force and fertility, resulting in a focus on the work-life problems of women, assumptions about the desirability of women working full-time, a passive view of men in work-life debates (Ransome, 2008) and an acquiescence with the 'second shift' (Hochschild, 1989). Attention has also been drawn to the influence of the 'chattering classes' on the public discourse and the greater attention paid to managerial and professional groups (Warhurst et al., 2008). Similarly Taylor (2003) has emphasised the need to consider the concerns of those workers rooted to the 'sticky floor' as well as those of women seeking to break through the glass ceiling. Hochschild et al. (2001) have pointed to the need to consider that section of the labour force who have fallen behind in income share and are having to work more hours. Finally, writers have pointed to the need for the

examination of work-life issues to be located within a wider framework of analysis, including relevant structural factors (Warhurst et al., 2008).

Members of the National Union of Journalists (NUJ), the main union for staff in the media sector, represent the managerial categories of employee, which has been the focus of work-life balance literature. The newsprint sector from which were drawn the majority of NUJ respondents is at a difficult stage of the business cycle, facing severe competition from the electronic media and problems in maintaining advertising revenue. The newsprint sector is predominantly male. Women members of the NUJ tend to be concentrated in areas such as publishing and features. Although there are quite high levels of union density, up to 80% to 90% in some of the titles), the 1980s saw widespread union derecognition. The NUJ is still a long way from achieving its previous influence (Gall, 2005).

Employees of the second sector, retail supermarkets, represent a category of staff largely ignored by work-life balance literature. The retail sector as a whole has the largest number of low-wage workers in the UK (Lloyd et al., 2008) and, in contrast to the media sector, has a predominantly female labour force with a high proportion of part-time workers. Sixty percent of the membership of the main union, the Union of Shop Distributive and Allied Workers (USDAW), are women, but at store level the proportion is higher, male union members being concentrated in the distribution and industrial areas. Retail supermarkets, although at a less difficult stage of the business cycle than newsprint, face a competitive environment. Retailing, because of high labour turnover and a fragmented structure, has a low union density of 11% according to Grainger (2006). However, in supermarkets, density is higher and averaged 40 percent in the stores.

Research on union involvement in work-life issues has tended to focus on national policies and agreements. The Workplace Employment Relations Surveys WERS 1998 and WERS 2004 (Kersley et al., 2006), found that unionised workplaces were more likely to have 'family friendly' policies, while Heery (2006b), using survey data collected in 2002, provides evidence of union involvement in negotiating agreements on work-life issues. However this research tells us little about how agreements emerge, the union and employer roles in their development, and their implementation.

Other research indicates the need for a cautious approach to data on the existence of policies and agreements. The 'empty shell' theory put forward by Hoque and Noon (2004) in relation to equal opportunities policies, that many written policies are not fully implemented, would seem also to apply to the work-life area (Gambles et al., 2006). It might also be expected that union approaches vary according to gender composition. Heery (2006a) points to the significance of the gender of full-time officials and lay representatives for the promotion of equality and work-life issues.

More demanding 'process' questions about trade union intervention were posed by Hyman and Summers's (2007) study of the financial sector in Scotland and Gregory and Milner's (2009) research in social work and insurance organisations. Both sets of data suggested work-life policies were largely management determined, recruitment and retention driven, and subject to managerial influence at an operational level, with union representatives having little impact on the management agenda. However, the scope of these studies was narrow. In the Scottish study, data were collected from independent workplace union representatives in only one organisation, while Gregory and Milner's private-sector workplace representative data were drawn from two insurance companies. In addition, the national discourse on work-life balance has become more prominent since these data were collected (in the case of Hyman and Summers, in 1999-2001, and Gregory and Milner, in 2001-5) with several further tranches of legislation in the area.

Union engagement with work-life issues connects with debates about union strategy. A competitive corporate environment and institutional adversity make it difficult for unions to make progress on distributive issues. Thus, we have seen a union engagement with qualitative areas where mutual gains might be identified for unions and management. Work-life issues fall into this category (Morris and Pillinger, 2007). Much of the literature on work-life issues and the associated government discourse suggest that the area facilitates the integration of employee and management interests. Work-life balance policies enable the employee to manage the interface between work and non-work and the employer to reduce labour turnover and increase employee commitment.

Work-life issues can be seen as a suitable area for partnership (Morris and Pillinger, 2007) and as a classical example of the articulation of union 'voice'. However other evidence suggests the need for caution in this

respect. Much of the traditional union compensation policy, with a focus on cutting hours, still remains in place, coexisting with a newer focus on family friendly benefits and worker choice over scheduling and duration of working time (Heery, 2006b). Lowe (2005) points to unions' emphasis on shorter work-weeks rather than individual flexibility.

Effects of Trade Union on Training & Development at Workplace in Developing Country like Bangladesh.

Bangladesh is one of the least developed countries with large-scale poverty and widespread informal employment. It has a very low unionisation rate (9.2%). However, between 1990 and 2000 it experienced an increase in trade union membership. During this period, the rate of growth of membership was 1.63 per cent and that of registered trade unions 5.3 per cent (Mondal, 2002, p. 14). Trade unionism has not developed to a significant level in the garment industry, the major foreign exchange earner of this country in spite of violation of workers' rights in this sector (Sukti, 2002).

Like developed countries trade union can not play important role in training and development at workplace in developing country like Bangladesh. Still it is in the forming position far away from structured organisation. So it can not play any role for the company or for the workers' development. In last few years some group shaping trade union type did something for the employee including social security, structured wages system, developed working condition, human relation, on the job training, minimum wage, social and global awareness etc. For some assignments of foreign buyers few companies introduced trade union system in the company and the government has agreed to institutionalise the trade union system in the industrial sector. But as a matter of fact this trade union is little bit worker concern, mostly politically or management biased. Devarajan, et al (1997) remarked in their essay that Unions and union federations are very active in Bangladesh's political and economic life. So the workers can't get proper due. But what happens, workers are at least aware of their rights, pay system, working condition. Just a web of trade union news in EPZ (Export Promotion Zone) gives enormous positive impact on the working people. But still they are not getting their proper due. In the recent past garments owners were forced to determine minimum wage for workers due to pressure from donors, government, world bank and demand of organized workers which played a vital role in disguise of trade union (Khatun and Moazzem, 2006).

Conclusion:

New opportunities for trade unions have opened up in workplace learning, but there are also some dangers associated with relying too heavily on the state for support (Lloyd and Payne 2005). If the training is not imparted to the workers at the working place there are some negative consequences in the company, such as economic decline, industrial accident, worker illiteracy, industrial dispute, management inefficiency, declining buyer-management relation above all threatening to existence of the company. Sometimes many identifiable learning disabilities may be in the company. If they are not trained or overlooked by the trade union or the company problem may come up. So it is seen that if trade union does not take initiatives for training and development some negative consequences may be taken place in the workplace. On the other hand positive impacts are also seen on the whole company that lead to good internal relation, profit rising company and employee satisfaction. Nevertheless trade union can not play a significant role affecting training and development in the company of the developing countries like developed countries such as UK, USA. Though British trade unions have a long history of supporting the education and training of working people, particularly in relation to activists and officials, some of whom have gone on to take up prominent positions within the labour movement (Holford, 1993; Shelley, 2005). But in developing country like Bangladesh does not have remarkable deeds of trade union. Sometimes it is just for its own, not for the company even not for the workers. So union members of such companies of the developing countries should be trained or given opportunities to pay industrial visit to foreign companies to gain practical knowledge so that they can compare the responsibilities and can do better in their respective companies. Because there is no other alternative to training. And training is a continuous process and develops the organisation continuously. Keeping this concept in mind trade union does a lot for the workers that affect training and development at the workplace.

It is evident from the contemporary examples particularly from Britain that trade union intervention in terms of work-life balance has ensured mutual benefits for both employers and employees (Gregory and Milner, 2009). For a better working environment in an organisation, management and trade unions should consider each other as partners, not rivals or enemies.

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Socio-Cultural Beliefs of Child Bearing Mothers Regarding Vaccination and Children's Health: A Case Study of the Selected Rural Areas of Munshiganj District, Bangladesh

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Abstract: This study delved into the specific socio - cultural beliefs about vaccination and children's health. With a view to having an insight on this issue, the study also tested the four components of the Health Belief Model (HBM) in relation to use of childhood vaccination among child bearing mothers in rural Bangladesh. 150 surveys were administered to mothers visiting their houses in a rural areas of Munshiganj district in 2009. Results show that, majority of the respondent (87.3%) reported that, all of the required vaccine were provided to their children. A significant number of respondents have belief about vaccine preventable diseases as fatalistic something (68.35%), can be prevented by folk prevention system (18.3%), caused by evil spirit (43%) and for mother's sin (41.5%). Based on the bi variate analysis, among the socio economic variables, occupation, education and income are significantly related to five types of socio cultural beliefs. According to the perception of the respondents toward vaccine preventable disease, 93.7% respondents perceive susceptibility, 64.8% respondents perceived severity, and 59.9% respondents perceived benefit getting vaccine their children, albeit, surprisingly 90.8% respondents perceived barriers to get vaccine to their children. Based on the HBM (Health Belief Model), the first three components of HBM (Perceived Susceptibility, Perceived Severity, Perceived benefit) are significantly associated with vaccination behavior of child bearing mothers.

1.0 Introduction

Vaccination is one of the most powerful and effective weapons of disease prevention as well as the most important essential elements of childhood primary health care. Viewed globally, vaccines are the most cost-effective medical intervention to prevent death and diseases (World Bank, 1990). Not only a good in itself, childhood vaccination represents the gateway to provision of comprehensive health care to which all children ought to be entitled. Moreover, Pediatric immunization programs have eradicated many of the infectious diseases of childhood and have been one of the most remarkable public health accomplishments in the history of medicine (Edwards, 2000). While world child death rate (e, g. under five child deaths in last year was 10.5 million) is high (WHO, 2000). Global estimates (for 2000) for vaccination coverage of DTP3 and Polio vaccine remains at virtually the same level as previous years: 78%

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(WHO; UNICEF, 2006). Global measles vaccine coverage stands at 77%. An estimated 28 million infants worldwide have not been vaccinated with DTP3 in 2005, 75% of these children live in ten countries India, Nigeria, China, Indonesia, Pakistan, Ethiopia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan, Bangladesh and Philippines (WHO, 2006). Since WHO launched EPI in 1974, the estimated incidence of childhood vaccine preventable diseases has declined significantly - at the end of the 1970s, less than 10% of the children of the world were vaccinated. A dramatic change was occurred during 1980s -1990s, at the beginning of 1980s, vaccination coverage against the six target diseases were only about 20% globally (WHO, 2006). But by the end of the 1990, almost all developing countries earned nearly 80% coverage which was targeted by the world health assembly. But this situation does not remain same over the world. In developed countries, the implementation and large-scale application on vaccination program have been remarkable successfully in eliminating or reducing the prevalence of infectious disease. For example, two regions of the world, America and Europe whose vaccination coverage is 90% (WHO, 2006).

Most of the developing countries where most of the people live under poverty line or with lower level socio-economic background because of lack of education as well as awareness, they believe in various religious superstitions, dogma, local and folk medicine or preventions which extremely act upon their vaccination coverage. For example, in recent years, the alarming condition in developing countries reveals an estimated 28 million infants worldwide who have unvaccinated with DPT3 in 2005 (WHO, 2006). And by the end of the 20th century, researchers discovered that in the developing world more than 3 million children still die annually from measles, neonatal tetanus, and pertussis, while more than a quarter of a million children are crippled by poliomyelitis (Matsuda, 2002). Among the developing countries, those in South Asia have shown some of the worst figures with regard to prioritizing health and the assessment of favorable health outcomes. Bangladesh as a developing country, similar to its South Asian neighbors remains with same socio demographic background, with the various types of child mortality e.g. 1 in 15 children dies before reaching the first birth day (BDHS, 2000). Although child mortality is declining due to increasing vaccination coverage, out of all total child death, 30% die only owing to six preventable childhood disease (Mazumder, 1997). However, due to the continuing concerns and interests of all stakeholders on EPI,

the program has made remarkable success in Bangladesh in increasing its vaccination coverage among children from 2% in the mid-1980s to 95% of at least one dose currently (Khan, 2005). Yet 40% of the eligible children remain unfortunely to receive the complete schedule of EPI (Mazumder, 1997).

In recent years, there has been a welcome growth in the literature addressing on the beliefs toward vaccination behavior over the world irrespective of developed or developing society. Religious beliefs often attack the vaccination behavior over the world and even U.S.A where in 48 states allows exemptions for religious beliefs that prohibit the use of vaccination (Kennedy, Brown, & Gust, 2005). As of the 2004-05 school years, 19 states allowed for a separate philosophical exemption, in which parents whose personal beliefs are opposed to vaccination may claim exemption for their child (Kennedy, Brown, & Gust 2005). They also asserted that race is an important factor toward vaccination behavior here. This study also shows that a parent's opposition to compulsory vaccination is associated with negative attitudes and beliefs about safety and utility of vaccines (Kennedy, Brown, & Gust 2005). Another study reveals individual's belief toward vaccination such as measles vaccine contributes to autism (Stanton et al, 2004); pertussis vaccine as a cause of mental retardation (Stanton et al, 2004). Concerns regarding Hepatitis B vaccine and its association with demyelization disease in France resulted in France's suspending its adolescent Hepatitis B vaccine program in 1998 while the program was subsequently reinstated, since the acceptance of vaccine remains low (Streefland, 2003; Stanton, 2004). Many studies show that parents may prefer to make errors of omission rather than errors of commission and those they may find it easier to accept natural risks rather than manmade risks (Fredrickson et al., 2004). Some parents disagree with the practices of conventional medicine (Lunder et al, 2000; Simpson et al, 1995; Fredrickson et al, 2004). These groups of parents believe in 'natural healing' (Stein et al, 2000). Cultural differences (Fredrickson et al, 2004) are deemed as a cause for resistance to vaccination particularly within recent immigrants. Destruction of natural immune system (Fredrickson et al, 2004), breast-feeding is enough for the most vaccine preventable disease (Fredrickson et al, 2004), and autism, brain damage are occurred after vaccination- are the dominating socio cultural beliefs in this respect (Fredrickson et al, 2004). There is a mounting evidence that the socio cultural beliefs by the parents of the developed countries regarding vaccination acts upon their

vaccination behavior as well as health seeking behavior (Fredrickson et al, 2004) .

Several studies have noted that besides inadequate availability of health care services in many areas, especially the less developed countries containing disease-specific and non-disease-specific cultural beliefs may influence people's health seeking behavior.(Feyisetan, Asa, & Ebibbola, 1997). A study conducted in Nigeria, Yoruba community found that each episode of measles is traditionally considered as a punishment of breaching family taboos or as an evil dead from witches or enemies. The beliefs that disease episodes are caused by enemies are usually stronger in polygamous households where co-wives are natural suspects (Feyisetan , Asa, & Ebibbola, 1997). With this kind of fatalistic view about the case of measles, parents especially in the rural areas do not seek to modern medical care like vaccination. The belief in Abiku (Abiku is the Yoruba word for children believe to have come from the spirit world, who can tie at will unless certain rituals are performed) is still among mothers and the curative measures likely to be adopted by a mothers. Many depend on whether the sick child is believed to be an Abiku. So, modern curative method such as vaccination would be inadequate for a sick abiku, they believe. In the Philippines and in other developing countries, Tetanus to void has been viewed as causing infertility (Stanton, 2004). Some African believes that vaccination is contaminated, weapon to birth control of poor country by the developed countries (Nuwaha et al., 2000). Nepal is a south-Asian developing country where a number of mothers (3.1%) believe that vaccine preventable diseases are caused by heredity (Matsuda, 2002). A study conducted in Uganda found that most of the mother believes that malaria epidemic appear after National Immunization Days (Nuwaha et al, 2000).

Bangladesh as a developing country remains with so called socio-cultural beliefs like other developing countries towards vaccination and children health. Bangladesh is a country of Muslim majority which mostly affects its socio-cultural life by its religious beliefs and practices. These religious practices and rituals comprising beliefs also act up on the people's health seeking behavior like vaccination. Stanton (2004) illustrated about perceptions of accepted practices in parts of Bangladesh and Pakistan, male vaccinations may not be able to deliver tetanus to women-or may do so only through a curtain in which the limb alone is exposed to the male (Streefland, 2003). Bangladeshi parents, mostly who are illiterate, believe in uncertainty about their children's health, as a case of illness or not of

their child, they think it is desire of Allah (God). A study conducted in Bhairab, Bangladesh, found that a number of traditional terms in the local dialect were in use among the mothers. The terms identified polio, Diphtheria, Tuberculosis and measles. The beliefs associated with the explanation of these diseases occurrences are reflected in the diseases terms like Alga Batas (evil spirits), Alga Dos, Tahura (polio), and Lula Batas (Aziz et al., 1999). Through use of local dialect, members of the community get an occasion to discuss the culturally prescribed ways of getting relief from these diseases. As a result, some mothers gave greater attention to the traditional prescription without giving importance to the modern recommended methods. Culturally prescribed methods mean to go a man or woman who has power of Jin or supernatural power or Hojor (a religious expert). In Bangladesh especially rural people also believe in homeopathy, various herbal treatments instead of vaccine, many mother in laws/father-in-laws believe that we raised our children too, at that time Tika (vaccine) was not necessary, why this will be necessary now? (Khan, 2005). There is another belief from gender perspective found in Khan's (2005) study that it is enough to give vaccine to male child, there is no need for female child (Khan, 2005). A study conducted in Matlab, chandpur found that ARI is referred to as Alga Batas (evil spirits) and mothers tend to spiritual healer (ICDDR, 2003).

2.0 The Health Belief Model (HBM) and Vaccine Related Behavior

Of the various model in health psychology that are used to explain health behavior, the HBM provides the most appropriate theoretical framework in which to examine how mothers/ Parents think about vaccination and diseases. The Health Belief Model (HBM) is a social - cognitive model developed in the 1950s by the U.S Public Health service which is often used to explain and predict health related behaviors (Stecher and Rosenstock, 1997). The basic components of Health Belief Model are derived from a well-establish body of psychological and behavioral theory whose various models depends mainly upon two variables: (a) The value placed by an individual on a particular goal; (b) The individual's estimate of the likelihood that a given action will achieve that goal. In the Context of health related behavior, these correspondences are: (a) the desire to avoid illness (or if ill, to get well); (b) The belief is that a specific health action will prevent illness. For example, if a person's goal is to avoid a health problem, the individual must feel personally vulnerable (Perceived susceptibility) to a problem judged to be potentially serious (perceived severity), and he/she must estimate that specific action will be

beneficial in reducing the health threat (Perceived benefit) and will not involve overcoming obstacles (Perceived barriers). Thus, as Rosenstock (1997) notes in describing this model, "The combined levels of susceptibility and severity provided the energy or force to act and the perception of benefits (less barriers) provided a preferred path of action (Rosenstock,1990)".When applied to parents as well as mother's vaccination behavior, the HBM suggests that simply having knowledge and awareness about infectious disease will not necessarily result in increased visits to a hospital for vaccination or likely to get vaccinate their children. Instead, the model specifies four related elements that must be present for knowledge about diseases to be translated into preventive action (Onta, 1998; Matsuda, 2002). First: An individual must perceive that he or she is susceptible to an infectious disease; and second, that person must also perceived that the disease in a serious condition; Third, he/she must believe that there are benefits to taking preventive action; Finally, the individual must also perceive that any potential berries to taking preventive actions are outweighed by potential benefits. Based on this Model, Perceived susceptibility, perceived severely, and perceived benefits are likely to be positively related to vaccination behavior, while barriers to taking action are likely to be negatively related to it. A final variable completes the original Health Belief Model-the presence of an internal or external stimulus, or "Cues to action" that triggers the individual's health behavior. An internal cue may include symptoms of illness, when as external cues include media companies about health promotion or interpersonal interaction, such as learning that a friend has been affected by a health problem. In this regard, mothers will likely to or trigger vaccination action influence either by seeing any physical symptoms of disease such as Polio and so on or by knowing message from media campaign or interpersonal interaction. More recently the concept of self-efficacy" has been added to some version of the HBM-Rosentock suggests that self efficacy was not explicitly incorporated into early version of the Health belief Model (HBM) because the original was on circumscribed preventive actions, such as receiving an immunization or accepting screening test (Rosenstock,1990). He proposes that self-efficacy is more useful in understanding behaviors, such as those related to chronic illness care, which occur over a period of time and require lifelong changes in behaviors. Since the behavior of interest in this study was a circumscribed action, the concept of self-efficiency was not felt to add explanatory power and thus was not included in the model.

3.0 Conceptual framework of the study

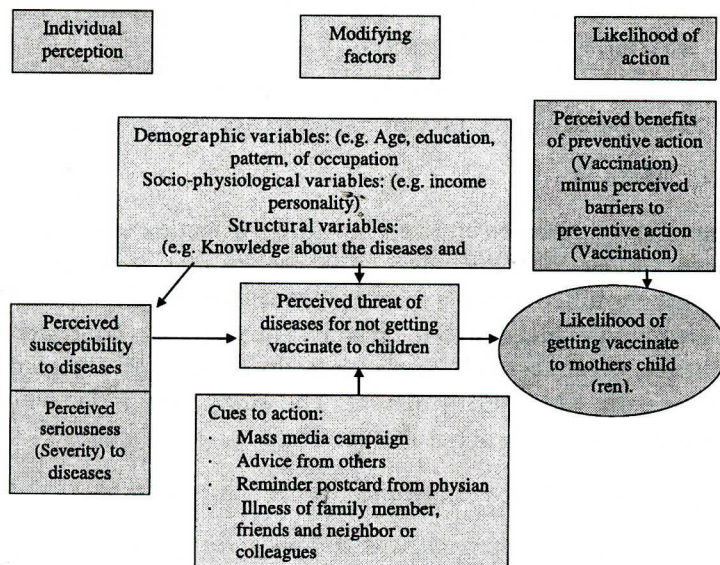


Fig: 1 Conceptual Framework of the Study.

4.0 Objectives of the study

The overall objective of the proposed study was to provide data, which would allow for designing strategies to reduce socio cultural constructed misconceptions as well as beliefs about vaccination and children's health among child bearing mothers of rural Bangladesh. Specific objectives were:

- To examine the socio- cultural beliefs about vaccination and children's health among child bearing mothers.
- To explore mothers' general understanding about children's health.

5.0 Hypotheses of the study

1. Mothers' beliefs about children's health and vaccination behavior vary by income.
2. Mothers' beliefs about children's health and vaccination behavior vary by the level of education.
3. Mothers' beliefs about children's health and vaccination behavior vary by the patterns of occupation.
4. Vaccination behavior would be more frequent among

childbearing mothers who endorsed the first three components of Health Belief Model (i.e. Perceived susceptibility, Perceived severity, Perceived benefit).

5. Vaccination use is expected to be much less frequent among those mothers who perceived greater barriers to vaccination.

6.0 Study Method

This exploratory research utilized quantitative methods including semi structured survey to collect data. The use of semi structured survey instruments permitted the data to improve the validity of the findings and enable greater inferences from the results. The study was conducted at the two villages, Jastitala and Hoglekandi, rural area of Bangladesh at Gazaria upazila, Munshiganj district. The study area is situated away from Dhaka city by only about 40 km.

6.1 Sampling Procedure and Sample size Determination

Probability sampling approach was followed for conducting survey of this study. Particularly systematic random sampling procedure was adopted to draw sample for the survey. This study was conducted at two villages of a rural area; the unit of analysis was the child bearing mothers who have at least a live child. The total number of households under study area is 763 and all of these households were considered as the sampling frame from which the required number of sample was drawn. The sample size was estimated through an approach based on confidence level and precision rate. Using Fisher's (Sarantakos, 2005) exact formula we got a sample size of 150. Dividing the total number of households by the desired sample size of 150, we got the sampling interval of $763/150 = 5.088 = 5$ and this interval became a quasi-random selection criterion, that is to say, every 5th household was selected for interview starting from a randomly selected household as there is an average family size is 5.

For 150 respondents, 150 households were visited with following 5 intervals. Once the household was selected, the required number of respondents would be selected using simple random sampling from that house hold. If there were no found the characteristics of the target group, then the next and nearest household was selected. If the sample respondents were not available at the time of interview, and then at least two revisits would make to interview the sample respondents. However, there were cases of non-response from respondents including cases of

3.0 Conceptual framework of the study

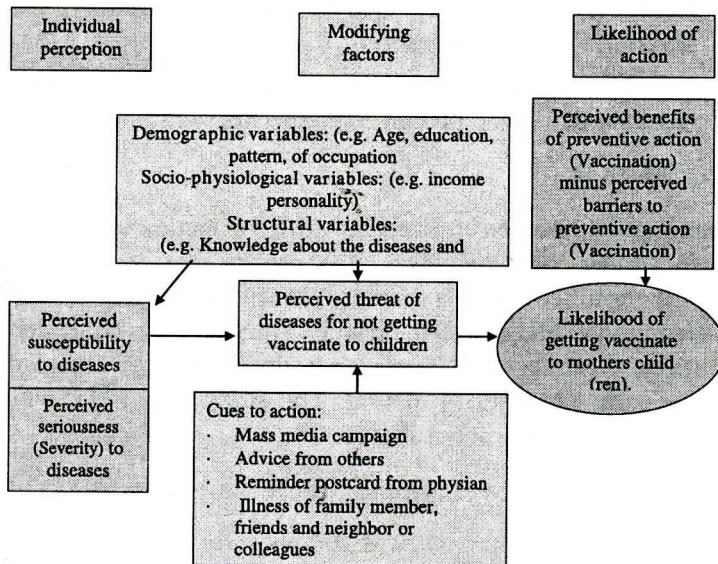


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non-availability of members/respondents in selected households. In this situation, the interviewer selected alternative respondent from the next fifth household so that the overall sample size is achieved. Therefore the overall non-response rate in this study is virtually zero.

6.2 Administering the Interview

The fieldwork for present study was conducted for a period of four months during June -September, 2008. There were four female interviewers responsible for data collection from sampled households. All of the field interviewers were recruited from the study area. The researcher self was the field supervisor. Some of them had the experience of conducting survey-interview. Besides, they were trained on the data collection mechanism, the art of data collection and briefed comprehensively on the data collection instruments (e.g. interview schedule) would be used. After getting the training interviewers went to the field. Before approaching the sample respondents, the interviewers informed them about the purpose of this study, topics under study and the need for collecting data. The data collection team then sought their cooperation and formal permission to administer survey.

6.3 Analysis of Data

The research has involved a great deal of descriptive analysis in line with a study design that aims at providing a holistic synthesis that can explain the trends observed in data. The analysis follows a general scheme of simple description at the univariate and bivariate level that articulate the full scope of factors considered in the explanation of the trends/patterns observed in the data. Data were analyzed in two stages using SPSS software version 12. Analyses involved from running simple measures of association. Differences were tested by Cramer's V.

7.0 Findings of the Study

7.1 Background Characteristics

In total, 150 respondents ranging from age 10 to 45 years were interviewed. The table 1 shows that the majority of the respondents (54.2%) are 25-33 years old; On the contrary, a considerable number of respondents (23.2%) are less than 24 years old. In terms of respondent's level of education, most of the respondents (40.8%) have passed secondary school certificate exam (SSC). On the contrary, a considerable number of respondents (29.6%) has no education. In terms of

respondents' occupations, most of the respondents (64.9%) are housewives. In terms of total monthly family income, the majority of the respondents' (53.1%) family income ranges between less than Tk.10, 000-Tk.20, 000 per month. On the contrary, a significant number of respondents' (49.2%) monthly family income is between less than Tk.20, 000-Tk.30, 000 .On the contrary, only 19% respondents have more than 30,000TK. per month. In the case of marital status, 91.1% respondents are married.

Table 1: Background Characteristics

Major characteristics	Per cent
I. Age in Years	
>24	23.2
25-33	54.2
34-40	19.0
41+	3.5
Total	100.0
II. Marital Status	
Married	91.1
Other	8.9
Total	100.0
III. Level of education	
No Education	29.6
Primary Education	19.0
Secondary Education	40.8
Higher Secondary Education	6.3
Tertiary level of education	4.2
Total	100.0
IV. Occupation	
Small business and Farming labor	8.1
Student	2.5
Housewife	64.9
Govt. service	8.9
Non-govt. service	15.6
Total	100.0
V. Family Income in Taka	
>10,000-20,000	49.2
20,000-30,000	31.8
30,000+	19.0
Total	100.0

7.2 Children's Vaccination Coverage by All of the Required Vaccine

All most of the respondent (87.3%) had reported that all of the required vaccine is provided to their children while only 12.0% respondents did not give all of the required vaccine to their children. An ignorable number of respondents (0.7%) could not give any positive or negative response.

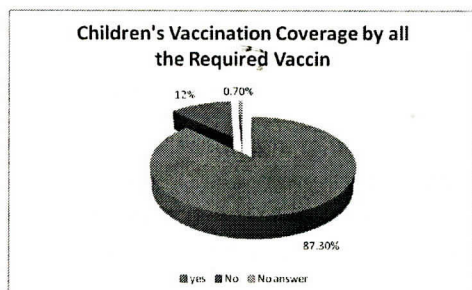


Figure1: Children's Vaccination Coverage by all Required Vaccine

7.3 Respondent's Perceptions toward Vaccination

Respondents were asked "will a child contract the disease if he/she was not vaccinated?" regarding perceived susceptibility. As shown in table 2 all most of the respondents (93.7%) thought perceived susceptibility in terms of their children's vaccination, if their children were not vaccinated while only 4.2% respondents did not do so.

Table.2 Respondent's Perceptions toward Vaccination

Perception	Yes	No	Don't Know	Total
Perceived Susceptibility	93.7	4.2	2.1	100.0
Perceived Severity	64.8	31.0	4.2	100.0
Perceived Barriers	59.9	31.0	9.2	100.0
Perceived Benefits	90.8	2.8	6.3	100.0

Respondents were asked "will a child die due to these diseases or illness?" regarding perceived severity. As shown in table 2 all most of the respondents thought perceived severity regarding illness resulted from non-vaccination while a considerable number of respondents (4.2%) also did not do so, but a small number of respondents (4.2%) showed no response. Respondents were asked "will the vaccination cause undesirable side effects?" regarding perceived barriers, the most of the respondents (59.9%) thought perceived barriers regarding undesirable side effects as barriers for vaccination while a considerable number of

respondents (31.0%) also did not do so, but a small number of respondents (9.2%) showed no response. Respondents were asked "will the process of vaccination prevent a child from getting the disease against which he/she was vaccinated?" regarding perceived benefit. As shown in table 2, all most of the respondents thought perceived benefit regarding a child will be prevented from diseases against which he/she was vaccinated while an ignorable number of respondents (2.8%) did not do so.

7.4 Socio Cultural Beliefs about Vaccination and Children Health

Respondents were asked the statement to test their misconception regarding these disease are given by God, thereby some children are born with these disease. It was found that a significant number of respondent (68.3%) had misconception regarding diseases and children's health while a considerable number of respondents (29.6%) had no misconception regarding diseases and children's health. but a small number of respondents didn't response (2.1%) or had no comments.

Table 3: Items on Socio Cultural Beliefs about Vaccination and Children Health

Items	Yes	No	Don't Know	Total
these disease are given by God, thereby some children are born with these disease	68.3	29.6	2.1	100.0
some children die of typhoid, malaria, diarrhea etc to get vaccination to them"	24.6	66.2	9.2	100.0
Only boy children are to be vaccinated"	6.3	90.1	3.5	100.0
Children are victim of these diseases due to mother's sin or problem of mother's movement (Chala fera).	41.5	45.8	12.7	100.0
These are not actually disease, these are actually Alga batas,Lula batas , kharap batas ,giner asor(attack by Gin &Pari)	43.0	50.0	7.0	100.0
Jar fokh , pani para (holy water), ras, pata &mol of various gas gasra(juice or soup),leaves & roots of various tree), and other folk medicine are enough for prevention for these diseases	18.3	74.6	7.0	100.0
Rich countries are controlling population growth of poor countries naming vaccination.	5.6	32.4	62.0	100.0

Respondents were asked the statement to test their misconception regarding gender issue about vaccination, diseases and children's health. It was found that all most of the respondents (90.1%) rejected the statement; they had no such misconception regarding vaccination, diseases and children's health, while an ignorable number of respondents (6.3%) supported the statement. Respondents were asked the statement to test their misconception about vaccination, diseases and children's health. It was found that the half of the respondents (50.0%) opposed the above statement. These are not actually disease, these are actually Alga batas, Lula batas, kharap batas, giner asor (attack by Gin & Pari; they had no such misconception regarding vaccination, diseases and children's health, while a large number of numbers of respondents (43.0%) also supported the statement.

7.5 Bi variate Analysis

Socio-economic Variables and Beliefs toward Vaccination and Children Health

Table 4: Summery of Cramer's V Values on beliefs by socioeconomic characteristics

Socio-economic variables	Beliefs				
	Folk Preventio n System	Fatalistic belief (Will of God)	Evil Spirit(Alga Batas)	Mother's Sin	Priority to boy child
Occupation	V=0.260*	V=0.29*	V=0.26**	V=0.317*	V=0.98*
Income	V=0.26**	V=0.305***	V=0.244***	V=0.323***	V=0.089*
Education	V=0.35**	V=0.43**	V=0.37**	V=0.41***	V=0.26**

*** p=0.001 ** p=0.01 * p=0.05

Table 4 shows the statistical association between a set of socio economic characteristics and a set of socio cultural beliefs toward vaccination and health of children. The result indicates that occupation, family income, level of education of mothers are more likely to believe in folk prevention system, will of God, Evil spirit, mother's Sin, priority to boy child.

Vaccination Behavior and Components of HBM

Table 5: Vaccination Behavior and Components of HBM

Status of Vaccination	Components of HBM			
	Perceived Susceptibility	Perceived Severity	Perceived benefit	Perceived barriers
Fully Vaccination	V=0.38**	V=0.59***	V=0.43***	NS

*** p=0.001 ** p=0.01 * p=0.05; NS: Not Significant

Table 5 shows the statistical association between mother's vaccination behavior and four components of HBM (Perceived Susceptibility, Perceived Severity, Perceived benefit, Perceived barriers). The result indicates that among the four components of HBM, the first three components are significantly associated with vaccination behavior.

8.0 Discussion and Conclusion

Depending on vaccination coverage of Bangladesh, this study demonstrate clearly high childhood vaccination coverage, although there is a differentials regarding urban (all vaccine: 80.9%) and rural (all vaccine: 71.1%) existed over Bangladesh (BDHS, 2004). However, National childhood vaccination rate is as high as 95% of at least one dose currently (khan, 2005). It is evident that mothers of Bangladesh have very impressive health behavior with regard to childhood vaccination. Although the findings of this study (87.3%) have overlapped the national coverage, the under five child mortality is still disappointable (69/1000 live births in Bangladesh and, according to BDHS -2004, in rural it was 98/1000 live births). High vaccination coverage cannot obviously lead to high childhood mortality. While most of the childhood deaths are occurred by six preventable diseases, thereby, there is a general question, why is childhood mortality not being minimized due to gradually increasing vaccination coverage. This hidden fact is rooted in socio-cultural factors. These socio-cultural factors construct mothers' knowledge, attitude & beliefs toward vaccination and children's health. This study demonstrated that a considerable number of mothers believe in various spiritual power, folk medicine, various social, cultural & religious superstitions about vaccination and children's health, although mothers have positive attitude toward vaccination and children's health, considerable socio-demographic background, considerable level of media exposure. This study also demonstrates considerable number socio-cultural and economic barriers toward vaccination (although not greater

than benefit). These barriers are rooted in mother's beliefs which are constructed by various socio-cultural determinates including socialization process where they grow and social structure where they live. However, Although the study shows high vaccination coverage and mothers attitude toward vaccination is positive, but the non-coverage is utmost affected by mother's socio-cultural misunderstanding beliefs, these negative beliefs are not only threat for child health in rural area but also urban area of Bangladesh.

This study replicated these statistics with the finding that most of the mothers sampled (87.3%) get fully vaccinate to their children as per the required number of vaccines and age of children. Thus, the question remains unanswered about what accounts for this exemplary behavior seen among child bearing mothers throughout this highly impoverished country. At a first glance it would seem that these mothers have been well schooled in the traditions of western medicine (no doubt from the numerous polio and TB eradication programs initiated by the U.S. in the late 1980s), and have subsequently adopted the regimes of western behavior. However, the results of this study suggest that there may also be another story that accounts for this high level of vaccination behavior. This study discovered a peculiar association of vaccination with the first four components of HBM. Generally, perceived susceptibility influences perceived severity when a mother endorsed perceived susceptible toward vaccination behavior, likely the mothers were supposed to perceived severity as well, but this study suggests an unexpected findings that the mothers who endorsed the perceived susceptibility (93.7%) are greater than the mothers who endorsed the perceived severity (64.8%). Despite this, the first three components of HBM(perceived susceptibility, perceived severity, Perceived benefit) are consistently associated with the mother's vaccination behavior accept perceived barrier (table 5). Several studies suggest that perceived benefits are the only component of the model that is significantly related to vaccination behavior among mothers (Matsuda, 2002). These suggest that the benefits associated with vaccination may be important to these mothers in providing impetus for healthy vaccination behavior. But unlikely, this study shows no especial relation of perceived benefit with mothers' vaccination behavior. In this study, a considerable number of mothers (31.0%) who do not believe that their children may die because of these diseases (Polio, Diphtheria, Tetanus etc) unless they get vaccine to their children, although a large number of mothers (93.7%) had fear about these diseases or feel a

vulnerable about these diseases. But why does it remain so? This question leads to some socio-cultural beliefs that are revealed by the open ended question "why do some children have healthy and why do some children get sick? In answer of this question, a significant number of mothers (91.6%) stated that it occurs by 'will of God', thereby, this spiritual belief affect negatively the perceived severity. Many studies suggested that when mothers endorse perceived barriers, vaccination coverage is low complying with the study of Kennedy, Brown, & Gust (2005). These findings are contradictory to Matsuda (2002) conducted on Nepalese mothers when mothers were asked an open ended question denoting perceived barriers 'what are the causes or barriers not to get vaccinate all of the required vaccines to your children?' A Considerable of number of mothers (32%-35%) said the various side effects: crying, post vaccination fever, pain in injected place. It also implies that mothers did not endorse perceive barriers as greater than perceived benefit.

This study suggests significant association of socio-cultural beliefs of mothers about vaccination & children's health with socio economic (e.g., income, education & occupation) not demographic variables. Socio cultural beliefs are mostly playing role as barriers toward vaccination behavior. It is surprised that these beliefs could not refrain mothers from getting vaccination to their children. It is, of course, not anomalous, if we see the association of vaccination coverage with the third component(perceived benefit) and fourth component (perceived barriers) (table 5), it means that albeit the mothers have beliefs in various socio cultural superstitions , these are obviously barriers to vaccination but they did not see as greater as benefit , rather they have conceived as benefit for their children.

9.0 Recommendations

A child will be an asset in future. In Bangladesh, alarming child mortality or child survival mostly depend on prevention of childhood diseases through vaccination, To get full vaccination coverage, the following issues can be recommended for national and local level: -

- Concerned authority needs to ensure regular holding of EPI sessions and regular supervision, even if some additional measures are required.
- Alternatively some form of community involvement may be considered for ensuring regular sessions.
- Alternative strategies need to be formulated for difficult to reach locations.
- Vacancy of the providers needs to be filled up timely.
- A common consensus or minimum incentives to the providers at the grass root level needs to be reached to all stakeholders.
- The health personnel need to be mindfully because mothers' comply with what they tell them, even as regards stopping vaccination.
- Elderly family numbers and Husband need to change their gender biased mentality.
- Campaign through interpersonal communication with mass media Campaign needs to be emphasized.
- Religious leaders (Imam) need to be taken in mainstream of campaign to avoid misconception regarding vaccination and children's health.
- Rural elite and opinion leaders also need to be taken in mainstreamed of campaign program.
- Need based or area specific targeted research needs to be undertaken.

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